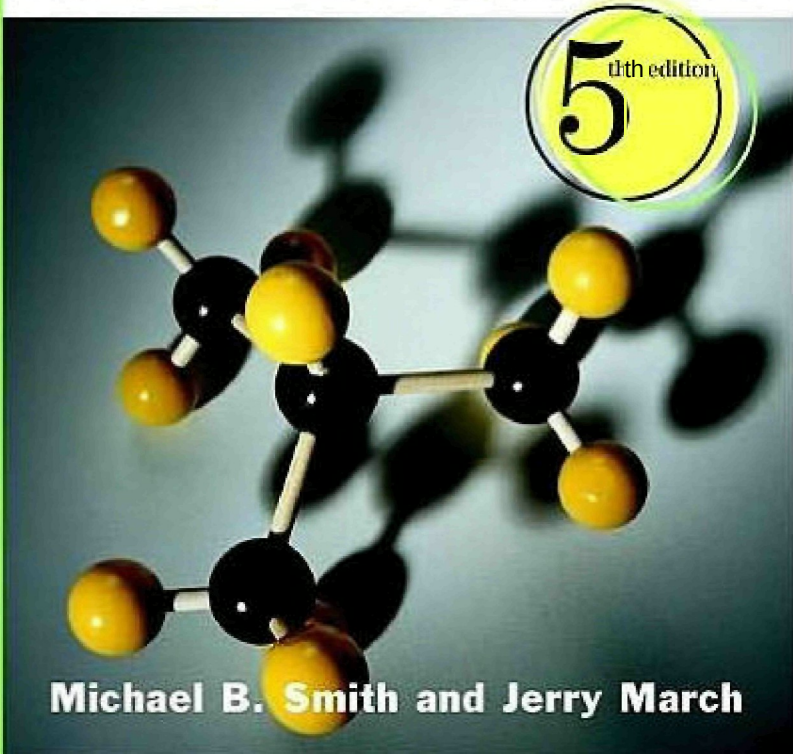
MARCH'S

Advanced Organic Chemistry

Reactions, Mechanisms, and Structure



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MARCH'S ADVANCED ORGANIC CHEMISTRY

REACTIONS, MECHANISMS, AND STRUCTURE

FIFTH EDITION

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Professor of Chemistry, University of Connecticut

Jerry March
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This book is dedicated to the memory of Professor Jerry March, who introduced the first edition of this book more than 40 years ago. Jerry faithfully researched and compiled four editions of Advanced Organic Chemistry, the last in 1994. This book has had a profound influence on the education of thousands of organic chemists all over the world, including ***me****. Although he passed away before the fifth edition could be completed, Jerry worked with editor Ted Hoffman, now retired from Wiley, to make certain this work would continue. Jerry will be missed by the organic community. It is my great honor to bring Jerry's work to the next generation of organic chemists, with the hope that this fifth edition and succeeding editions will be as valuable to them as the previous editions were to me.*

Thank you Jerry.

Michael B. Smith

PREFACE

Knowledge of organic chemistry continues to move ahead on many fronts. New journals continue to appear and older ones increase in frequency of publication and/or in number of papers published. This Fifth Edition of *Advanced Organic-Chemistry* has been thoroughly revised to reflect this growth. Every topic retained from the fourth edition has been brought up to date. Changes, ranging from minor to extensive, have been made on virtually every page of the Fifth Edition. More than 2800 new references have been added. Several older references were deleted and in cases where a series of papers by the same principal author were cited, all but the most recent were deleted. The older citations should be found in the more recent one or ones. A few changes were made in the organization, but the structure of the Fifth Edition is essentially the same as that of all previous ones. A total of 41 new sections were added, and 54 old ones were deleted. In most cases, the information from the deleted sections was combined with others or moved to another section. The new sections reflect new aspects of organic chemistry. Representative examples include **10-20** (hydroxylation of silanes), **15-36** (radical cyclization), **15-47** (dihydroxylation of aromatic rings), and **19-15** (oxidation of methylene to OH, O_2CR, or OR). In some cases, old sections were split to reflect modern applications. Representative examples are the Diels–Alder reaction (split into the normal reaction and heteroatom Diels-Alder reactions; **15-58** and **15-59);** the aldol and the Mukaiyama aldol reaction **(16-38** and **16-39);** and the reaction of organometallic reagents with alkyl halides **(10-94** for Group I and II metals, **10–95** for organocuprates, and **10-96** for other metal reagents). Like the first four editions, this edition is intended to be a textbook for a course in advanced organic chemistry taken by students who have had the standard undergraduate organic and physical chemistry courses.

The goal, as in previous editions, is to give equal weight to the three fundamental aspects of the study of organic chemistry: reactions, mechanisms, and structure. A student who has completed a course based on this book should be able to approach the literature directly, with a sound knowledge of modern basic organic chemistry. Major special areas of organic chemistry (terpenes, carbohydrates, proteins, many organometallic reagents, combinatorial chemistry, polymerization and electrochemical reactions, steroids, etc.) have been treated lightly or ignored completely. I share Professor March's opinion that these topics are best approached after the first year of graduate study, when the fundamentals have been mastered, either in advanced courses, or directly, by consulting the many excellent books and review

articles available on these subjects. In addition, many of these topics are so vast, they are beyond the scope of this book.

The organization is based on reaction types, so the student can be shown that despite the large number of organic reactions, a relatively few principles suffice to explain nearly all of them. Accordingly, the reactions-mechanisms section of this book (Part 2) is divided into 10 chapters **(10-19),** each concerned with a different type of reaction. In the first part of each chapter, the appropriate basic mechanisms are discussed along with considerations of reactivity and orientation, while the second part consists of numbered sections devoted to individual reactions, where the scope and the mechanism of each reaction are discussed. Numbered sections are used for the reactions. For a further discussion of the arrangement of Part 2, see page 382. Since the methods for the preparation of individual classes of compounds (e.g., ketones and nitriles) are not treated all in one place, an index has been provided (Appendix B) by use of which all methods for the preparation of a given type of compound will be found. For each reaction, a list of *Organic Syntheses* references is given when that is possible. Thus for most reactions the student can consult actual examples in *Organic Syntheses.* It is important to note that the numbers for each reaction *differ* from one edition to the other, and many of the sections in the Fifth Edition do not correlate with the Fourth. Hydroboration was found in Section **15-12** in the Fourth Edition, for example, but it appears in Section **15-16** in the Fifth.

The structure of organic compounds is discussed in the first five chapters of Part 1. This section provides a necessary background for understanding mechanisms and is also important in its own right. The discussion begins with chemical bonding and ends with a chapter on stereochemistry. There follow two chapters on reaction mechanisms in general, one for ordinary reactions and the other for photochemical reactions. Part 1 concludes with two more chapters that give further background to the study of mechanisms.

In addition to reactions, mechanisms, and structure, the student should have some familiarity with the literature of organic chemistry. A chapter devoted to this topic has been placed in Appendix A, though many teachers may wish to cover this material at the beginning of the course.

The IUPAC names for organic transformations, first introduced in the Third Edition, is included. Since then the rules have been broadened to cover additional cases; hence more such names are given in this edition. Furthermore, IUPAC has now published a new system for designating reaction mechanisms (see p. 384), and some of the simpler designations are included.

In treating a subject as broad as the basic structures, reactions, and mechanisms of organic chemistry, it is obviously not possible to cover each topic in great depth. Nor would this be desirable even if possible. Nevertheless, students will often wish to pursue individual topics further. An effort has therefore been made to guide the reader to pertinent review articles and books published since about 1965. In this respect, this book is intended to be a guide to the secondary literature (since about 1965) of the areas it covers. Furthermore, in a graduate course, students should be encouraged to consult primary sources. To this end, more than 12,000 references to original papers have been included.

Although basically designed for a one-year course on the graduate level, this book can also be used in advanced undergraduate courses but a one-year course in organic chemistry prior to this is essential, and a one-year course in physical chemistry is strongly recommended. It can also be adapted, by the omission of a large part of its contents, to a one-semester course. Indeed, even for a one-year course, more is included than can be conveniently covered. Many individual sections can be easily omitted without disturbing continuity.

The reader will observe that this text contains much material that is included in first-year organic and physical chemistry courses, though in most cases it goes more deeply into each subject and, of course, provides references, which first-year texts do not. It has been my experience that students who have completed the first-year courses often have a hazy recollection of the material and greatly profit from a representation of the material if it is organized in a different way. It is hoped that the organization of the material on reactions and mechanisms will greatly aid the memory and the understanding. In any given course, the teacher may want to omit some chapters because his students already have an adequate knowledge of the material, or because there are other graduate courses that cover the areas more thoroughly. Chapters 1, 4, and 7 especially may fall into one of these categories.

Although this is a textbook, it has been designed to have reference value also. Students preparing for qualifying examinations and practicing organic chemists will find that Part 2 contains a survey of what is known about the mechanism and scope of about 580 reactions, arranged in an orderly manner based on reaction type and on which bonds are broken and formed. Also valuable for reference purposes are the previously mentioned lists of reactions classified by type of compound prepared (Appendix B) and of all of the *Organic Syntheses* references to each reaction.

Anyone who writes a book such as this, where international rules mandate one system, but published papers use another is faced with the question of which units to use. Two instances are the units used for energies and for bond distances. For energies, IUPAC mandates joules, and many journals do use this unit exclusively. However, organic chemists who publish in United States journals overwhelmingly use calories, and this situation shows no signs of changing in the near future. Since previous editions of this book have been used extensively both in this country and abroad, I have now adopted the practice of giving virtually all energy values in both calories and joules. The question of units for bond distances is easier to answer. Although IUPAC does not recommend angstrom units, nearly all bond distances published in the literature anywhere in the world, whether in organic or in crystallographic journals, are in these units, though a few papers do use picometers. Therefore, I continue to use only angstrom units.

I acknowledge the contributions of those chemists cited and thanked by Professor March in the previous four editions.

Special thanks are due to the STM division of John Wiley & Sons, Dr. Darla Henderson, Shirley Thomas, and Jeannette Stiefel and the other editors at Wiley for their fine work in turning the manuscript into the finished book. I gratefully acknowledge the contribution of Ted Hoffman, the editor who worked with Professor March to make sure there was a Fifth Edition. I am also grateful to those

readers who wrote to tell Professor March about errors they discovered in the preceding editions or to make other comments. Such letters are always welcome.

I encourage those who read and use the Fifth Edition to contact me directly with comments, errors, and with publications that might be appropriate for future editions. I hope that this new edition will carry on the tradition that Professor March began with the first edition.

My Email address is smith@nucleus.chem.uconn.edu and my homepage is http://orgchem.chem.uconn.edu/home/mbs-home.html

Finally, I want to thank my wife Sarah and my son Steven for their patience and understanding during the preparation of this manuscript. Without their support, this work would not have been possible.

MICHAEL B. SMITH
Storrs, Connecticut

CONTENTS

Bibliographical Note xiii

Abbreviations xv

PART 1

1. Localized Chemical Bonding 3
2. Delocalized Chemical Bonding 32
3. Bonding Weaker than Covalent 98
4. Stereochemistry 125
5. Carbocations, Carbanions, Free Radicals, Carbenes, and Nitrenes 218
6. Mechanisms and Methods of Determining Them 274
7. Photochemistry 306
8. Acids and Bases 327
9. Effects of Structure on Reactivity 363

PART 2

10. Aliphatic Nucleophilic Substitution 389
11. Aromatic Electrophilic Substitution 675
12. Aliphatic Electrophilic Substitution 759
13. Aromatic Nucleophilic Substitution 850
14. Free-Radical Substitution 894
15. Addition to Carbon-Carbon Multiple Bonds 970
16. Addition to Carbon-Hetero Multiple Bonds 1172
17. Eliminations 1299
18. Rearrangements 1377

19. Oxidations and Reductions 1506

Appendix A The Literature of Organic Chemistry 1605

Appendix B Classification of Reactions by Type of Compound Synthesized 1642

Indexes

Author Index 1694

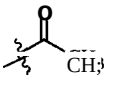
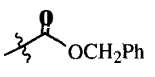
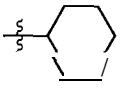
Subject Index 1937

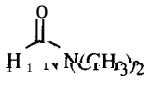
BIBLIOGRAPHICAL NOTE

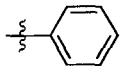
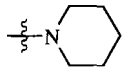
In this book, the practices in citing references are slightly different from those prevailing elsewhere. The reader should note:

1. For review articles, only the first page number is given. If reference is made to only a portion of the article, these page numbers are also given.
2. When a journal is available both in Russian and in English, the page numbers of each article are, of course, different. The language of the journal title indicates whether the page number cited is to be found in the Russian or in the English version.

ABBREVIATIONS

Ac	Acetyl	
acac	Acetylacetonate	
AIBN	*azo-bis*-Isobutyronitrile	
aq.	Aqueous	
	9-Borabicyclo[3.3.1]nonylboryl	
9-BBN	9-Borabicyclo[3.3.1]nonane	
BER	Borohydride exchange resin	
BINAP	*2R,3S,2,2′-bis*-(diphenylphosphino)-1,1′-binapthyl	
Bn	Benzyl	
Bz	Benzoyl	
BOC	*t*-Butoxycarbonyl	
bpy (Bipy)	2,2'-Bipyridyl	
Bu	*n*-Butyl	$-CH_2CH_2CH_2CH_3$
CAM	Carboxamidomethyl	
CAN	Ceric ammonium nitrate	$(NH)_2Ce(NO_3)_6$
c-	Cyclo-	
cat.	Catalytic	
Cbz	Carbobenzyloxy	
Chirald	*2S,3R-(+)*-4-dimethylamino-1,2-diphenyl-3-methylbutan-2-ol	
COD	1,5-Cyclooctadienyl	
COT	1,3,5-Cyclooctatrienyl	
Cp	Cyclopentadienyl	
CSA	Camphorsulfonic acid	
CTAB	Cetyltrimethylammonium bromide	$C_{16}H_{33}NMe_3^+Br^-$
Cy (c-C_6H_{11})	Cyclohexyl	
°C	Temperature in degrees Centigrade	
DABCO	1,4-Diazobicyclo[2.2.2]octane	
dba	Dibenzylidene acetone	
DBE	1,2-Dibromoethane	$BrCH_2CH_2Br$

DBU	1,8-Diazabicyclo[5.4.0]undec-7-ene	
DBN	1,5-Diazabicyclo[4.3.0] non-5-ene	
DCC	1,3-Dicyclohexylcarbodiimide	$c\text{-}C_6H_{13}\text{—N=C=N-}c\text{-}C_6H_{13}$
DCE	1,2-Dichloroethane	$ClCH_2CH_2Cl$
DDQ	2,3-Dichloro-5,6-dicyano-1,4-benzoquinone	
% de	% Diasteromeric excess	
DEA	Diethylamine	$HN(CH_2CH_3)_2$
DEAD	Diethylazodicarboxylate	$EtO_2C\text{—N=N}CO_2Et$
Dibal-H	Diisobutylaluminum hydride $(Me_2CHCH_2)_2AlH$	
Diphos (dppe)	1,2-*bis*-Diphenylphosphino)ethane	$Ph_2PCH_2CH_2PPh_2$
Diphos-4 (dppb)	1,4-*bis*-Diphenylphosphino)butane	$Ph_2P(CH_2)_4PPh_2$
DMAP	4-Dimethylaminopyridine	
DMA	Dimethylacetamide	
DME	Dimethoxyethane	$MeOCH_2CH_2OMe$
DMF	*N,N'*-Dimethylformamide	
dmp	*bis*-[1,3-Di(*p*-methoxyphenyl)-1,3-propanedionato]	
DMSO	Dimethylsulfoxide	
dpm	Dipivaloylmethanato	
dppb	1,4-*bis*-(Diphenylphosphino)butane $Ph_2P(CH_2)_4PPh_2$	
dppe	1,2-*bis*-(Diphenylphosphino)ethane $Ph_2PCH_2CH_2CH_2PPh_2$	
dppf	fow-(Diphenylphosphino)ferrocene	
dppp	1,3-*bis*-(Diphenylphosphino)propane $Ph_2P(CH_2)_3PPh_2$	
dvb	Divinylbenzene	
e^-	Electrolysis	
% ee	% Enantiomeric excess	
EE	1-Ethoxyethyl EtO(Me)HCO—	
Et	Ethyl	$-CH_2CH_3$
EDA	Ethylenediamine	$H_2NCH_2CH_2NH_2$
EDTA	Ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid	
FMN	Flavin mononucleotide	
fod	*tris*-(6,6,7,7,8,8,8)-Heptafluoro-2,2-dimethyl-3,5-octanedionate	
Fp	Cyclopentadienyl-*bis*-carbonyl iron	
FVP	Hash Vacuum Pyrolysis	
h	Hour (hours)	
hv	Irradiation with light	
1,5-HD	1,5-Hexadienyl	
HMPA	Hexamethylphosphoramide	$(Me_3N)_3P=O$
HMPT	Hexamethylphorous triamide	$(Me_3N)_3P$

iPr	Isopropyl	$-CH(CH_3)_2$
LICA (LIPCA)	Lithium cyclohexylisopropylamide	
LDA	Lithium diisopropylamide	$LiN(iPr)_2$
LHMDS	Lithium hexamethyl disilazide	$LiN(SiMe_3)_2$
LTMP	Lithium 2,2,6,6-tetramethylpiperidide	
MABR	Methylaluminum fċ«-(4-bromo-2,6-di-terf-butylphenoxide)	
MAD	fów-(2,6-di-f-butyl-4-methylphenoxy)methyl aluminum	
mCPBA	*meta*-Chloroperoxybenzoic acid	
Me	Methyl	$-CH_3$
MEM	β-Methoxyethoxymethyl	$MeOCH_2CH_2OCH_2-$
Mes	Mesityl	$2,4,6\text{-tri-Me-}C_6H_2$
MOM	Methoxymethyl	$MeOCH_2-$
Ms	Methanesulfonyl	CH_3SO_2-
MS	Molecular Sieves (3 Å or 4Å)	
MTM	Methylthiomethyl	CH_3SCH_2-
NAD	Nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide	
NADP	Sodium triphosphopyridine nucleotide	
Napth	Napthyl ($C_{10}H_8$)	
NBD	Norbornadiene	
NBS	*N*-Bromosuccinimide	
NCS	*N*-Chlorosuccinimide	
NIS	*N*-Iodosuccinimide	
Ni(R)	Raney nickel	
NMP	N-Methyl-2-pyrrolidinone	
Oxone	$2\ KHSO_5 \cdot KHSO_4 \cdot K_2SO_4$	
®	Polymeric backbone	
PCC	Pyridinium chlorochromate	
PDC	Pyridinium dichromate	
PEG	Polyethylene glycol	
Ph	Phenyl	
PhH	Benzene	
PhMe	Toluene	
Phth	Phthaloyl	
pic	2-Pyridinecarboxylate	
Pip	Piperidine	
PMP	4-Methoxyphenyll	
Pr	*n*-Propyl	$-CH_2CH_2CH_3$
Py	Pyridine	
quant.	Quantitative yield	
Red-Al	$[(MeOCH_2CH_2O)_2AlH_2]Na$	
sBu	*sec-Butyl*	$CH_3CH_2CH(CH_3)$

sBuLi	*sec*-Butyllithium	$CH_3CH_2CH(Li)CH_3$
Siamyl	Diisoamyl	$(CH_3)_2CHCH(CH_3)$-
TADDOL	α,α,α′,α′-tetraaryl-4,5-dimethoxy-1,3-dioxolane	
TASF	*tris*-(Diethylamino)sulfonium difluorotrimethyl silicate	
TBAF	Tetrabutylammonium fluoride	n-$Bu_4N^+F^-$
TBDMS	*t*-Butyldimethylsilyl	*t*-$BuMe_2Si$
TBHP (*t*-BuOOH)	*t*-Butylhydroperoxide	Me_3COOH
t-Bu	*tert*-Butyl	$-C(CH_3)_3$
TEBA	Triethylbenzylammonium	$Bn(CH_3)_3N^+$
TEMPO	Tetramethylpiperdinyloxy free radical	
TFA	Trifluoroacetic acid	CF_3COOH
TFAA	Trifluoroacetic anhydride	$(CF_3CO)_2O$
Tf (OTf)	Triflate	$-SO_2CF_3$ ($-OSO_2CF_3$)
THF	Tetrahydrofuran	
THP	Tetrahydropyran	
TMEDA	Tetramethylethylenediamine	$Me_2NCH_2CH_2NMe_2$
TMG	1,1,3,3-Tetramethylguanidine	
TMS	Trimethylsilyl	$-Si(CH_3)_3$
TMP	2,2,6,6-Tetramethylpiperidine	
TPAP	tetra-*n*-Propylammonium perruthenate	
Tol	Tolyl	4-$C_6H_4CH_3$
Tr	Trityl	$-CPh_3$
TRIS	Triisopropylphenylsulfonyl	
Ts(Tos)	Tosyl = *p*-Toluenesulfonyl	4-MeC_6H_4
X_c	Chiral auxiliary	

MARCH'S ADVANCED ORGANIC CHEMISTRY

PART ONE

This book contains 19 chapters. Chapters 10-19, which make up Part 2, are directly concerned with organic reactions and their mechanisms. Chapters 1-9 may be thought of as an introduction to Part 2. The first five chapters deal with the structure of organic compounds. In these chapters are discussed the kinds of bonding important in organic chemistry, the three-dimensional structure of organic molecules, and the structure of species in which the valence of carbon is less than 4. Chapters 6-9 are concerned with other topics that help to form a background to Part 2: acids and bases, photochemistry, the relationship between structure and reactivity, and a general discussion of mechanisms and the means by which they are determined.

CHAPTER 1

Localized Chemical Bonding

Localized chemical bonding may be defined as bonding in which the electrons are shared by two and only two nuclei. In Chapter 2 we shall consider *delocalized bonding,* in which electrons are shared by more than two nuclei.

Covalent Bonding[1]

Wave mechanics is based on the fundamental principle that electrons behave as waves (e.g., they can be diffracted) and that consequently a wave equation can be written for them, in the same sense that light waves, sound waves, and so on, can be described by wave equations. The equation that serves as a mathematical model for electrons is known as the *Schrödinger equation,* which for a one-electron system is

$$bx^2 \quad by^2 \quad bz^2 \quad h^2$$

where m is the mass of the electron, E is its total energy, V is its potential energy, and h is Planck's constant. In physical terms, the function ψ expresses the square root of the probability of finding the electron at any position defined by the coordinates x, y, and z, where the origin is at the nucleus. For systems containing more than one electron, the equation is similar but more complicated.

The Schrödinger equation is a differential equation, which means that solutions of it are themselves equations, but the solutions are not differential equations. They are simple equations for which graphs can be drawn. Such graphs, which are three-dimensional pictures that show the electron density, are called *orbitals* or electron clouds. Most students are familiar with the shapes of the s and p atomic orbitals (Fig. 1.1). Note that each p orbital has a *node*—a region in space where the probability of finding the electron is extremely small.[2] Also note that in Figure 1.1 some lobes of the orbitals are labeled plus (+) and others minus (—). These signs do not refer to positive or negative *charges,* since both lobes of an electron cloud must be negatively charged. They are the signs of the wave function ψ. When two parts of an orbital are separated by a node, ψ always has opposite signs on the two sides of the node. According to the Pauli exclusion principle, no more than two electrons can be present in any orbital, and they must have opposite spins.

Unfortunately, the Schrödinger equation can be solved exactly only for one-electron systems such as the hydrogen atom. If it could be solved exactly for

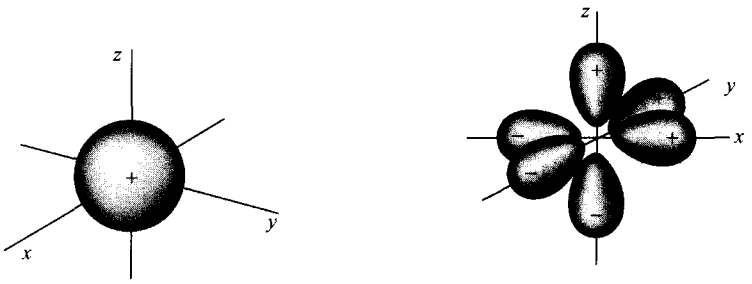


FIGURE 1.1 (*a*) The 1*s* orbital. *(b)* The three *2p* orbitals.

molecules containing two or more electrons,[3] we would have a precise picture of the shape of the orbitals available to each electron (especially for the important ground state) and the energy for each orbital. Since exact solutions are not available, drastic approximations must be made. There are two chief general methods of approximation: the molecular orbital (MO) method and the valence bond (VB) method.

In the MO method, bonding is considered to arise from the overlap of atomic orbitals. When any number of atomic orbitals overlap, they combine to form an equal number of new orbitals, called *molecular orbitals.* Molecular orbitals differ from atomic orbitals in that they are clouds that surround the nuclei of two or more atoms, rather than just one atom. In localized bonding, the number of atomic orbitals that overlap is two (each containing one electron), so that two molecular orbitals are generated. One of these, called a *bonding orbital,* has a lower energy than the original atomic orbitals (otherwise a bond would not form), and the other, Galled an *antibonding orbital,* has a higher energy. Orbitals of lower energy fill first. Since the two original atomic orbitals each held one electron, both of these electrons can now go into the new molecular *bonding* orbital, since any orbital can hold two electrons. The antibonding orbital remains empty in the ground state. The greater the overlap, the stronger the bond, although total overlap is prevented by repulsion between the nuclei. Figure 1.2 shows the bonding and antibonding orbitals that arise by the overlap of two 1*s* electrons. Note that since the antibonding orbital has a node between the nuclei, there is practically no electron density in that area, so that this orbital cannot be expected to bond very well. Molecular orbitals formed by the overlap of two atomic orbitals when the centers of electron density are on the axis common to the two nuclei are called σ (*sigma*) orbitals, and the bonds are called σ bonds. Corresponding antibonding orbitals are designated a*. Sigma orbitals are formed not only by the overlap of two *s* orbitals, but also by the overlap of any of the kinds of atomic orbital *(s, p, d,* or/) whether the same or different, but the two lobes that overlap must have the same sign: A positive *s* orbital can form a bond only by overlapping with another positive *s* orbital or with a positive lobe of a *p, d,* or / orbital. Any *s* orbital, no matter what kind of atomic orbitals it has arisen from, may be represented as approximately ellipsoidal in shape.

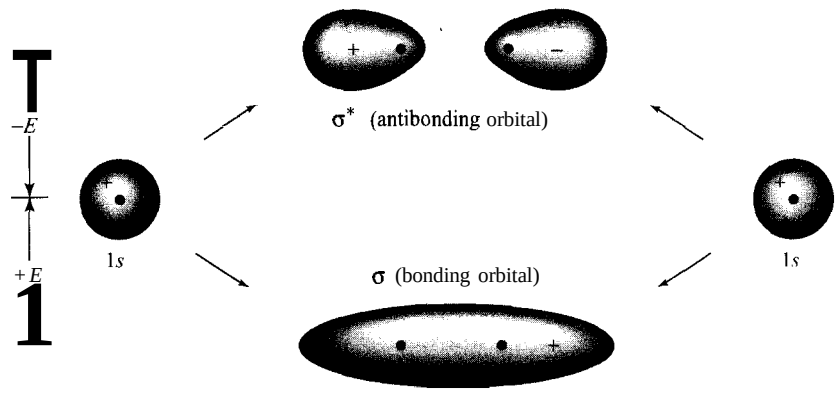


FIGURE 1.2 Overlap of two \s orbitals gives rise to a σ and a a* orbital.

Orbitals are frequently designated by their symmetry properties. The a orbital of hydrogen is often written ψ_g. The *g* stands for *gerade.* A gerade orbital is one in which the sign on the orbital does not change when it is inverted through its center of symmetry. The a* orbital is *ungerade* (designated ψ_u). An ungerade orbital changes sign when inverted through its center of symmetry.

In MO calculations, a wave function is formulated that is a linear combination of the atomic orbitals that have overlapped (this method is often called the *linear combination of atomic orbitals,* or LCAO). Addition of the atomic orbitals gives the bonding MO:

$$\psi = c_A\psi_A + c_B\psi_B \tag{1.1}$$

The functions ψ_A and ψ_B are the functions for the atomic orbitals of atoms A and B, respectively, and c_A and c_B represent weighting factors. Subtraction is also a linear combination:

$$\psi = c_A\psi_A - c_B\psi_B \tag{1.2}$$

This gives rise to the antibonding MO.

In the VB method, a wave equation is written for each of various possible electronic structures that a molecule may have (each of these is called a *canonical form),* and the total ψ is obtained by summation of as many of these as seem plausible, each with its weighting factor:

$$\psi = c_1\psi_1 + c_2\psi_2 + \cdots \tag{1.3}$$

This resembles Eq. (1.1), but here each ψ represents a wave equation for an imaginary canonical form and each c is the amount contributed to the total picture by that form. For example, a wave function can be written for each of the following canonical forms of the hydrogen molecule:[4]

$$\text{H-H} \quad \bar{\text{H}}^{-}\ \text{H}^{+} \quad {}^{+}\text{H}\ \bar{\text{H}}^{-}$$

Values for c in each method are obtained by solving the equation for various values of each c and choosing the solution of lowest energy. In practice, both methods give similar solutions for molecules that contain only localized electrons, and these are in agreement with the Lewis structures long familiar to the organic chemist. Delocalized systems are considered in Chapter 2.

Multiple Valence

A univalent atom has only one orbital available for bonding. But atoms with a valence of 2 or more must form bonds by using at least two orbitals. An oxygen atom has two half-filled orbitals, giving it a valence of 2. It forms single bonds by the overlap of these orbitals with the orbitals of two other atoms. According to the principle of maximum overlap, the other two nuclei should form an angle of 90° with the oxygen nucleus, since the two available orbitals on oxygen are *p* orbitals, which are perpendicular. Similarly, we should expect that nitrogen, which has three mutually perpendicular *p* orbitals, would have bond angles of 90° when it forms three single bonds. However, these are not the observed bond angles. The bond angles are,[5] in water, 104°27′, and in ammonia, 106°46′. For alcohols and ethers, the angles are even larger (see p. 21). A discussion of this will be deferred to page 21, but it is important to note that covalent compounds do have definite bond angles. Although the atoms are continuously vibrating, the mean position is the same for each molecule of a given compound.

Hybridization

Consider the case of mercury. Its electronic structure is

$$[\mathbf{Xe}\ \text{core}]\ 4f^{14}5d^{10}6s^2$$

Although it has no half-filled orbitals, it has a valence of 2 and forms two covalent bonds. We can explain this by imagining that one of the *6s* electrons is promoted to a vacant *6p* orbital to give the excited configuration

$$[\mathbf{Xe}\ \text{core}]\ 4f^{14}5d^{10}6s^{1}6p^{1}$$

In this state the atom has two half-filled orbitals, but they are not equivalent. If bonding were to occur by the overlap of these orbitals with the orbitals of external atoms, the two bonds would not be equivalent. The bond formed from the *6p* orbital would be more stable than the one formed from the *6s* orbital, since a larger amount of overlap is possible with the former. A more stable situation is achieved when, in the course of bond formation, the *6s* and *6p* orbitals combine to form two new orbitals that *are* equivalent; these are shown in Figure 1.3.

Since these new orbitals are a mixture of the two original orbitals, they are called *hybrid orbitals.* Each is called an *sp* orbital, since a merger of an *s* and *a.p* orbital was required to form it. The *sp* orbitals, each of which consists of a large lobe and a very small one, are atomic orbitals, although they arise only in the bonding process and

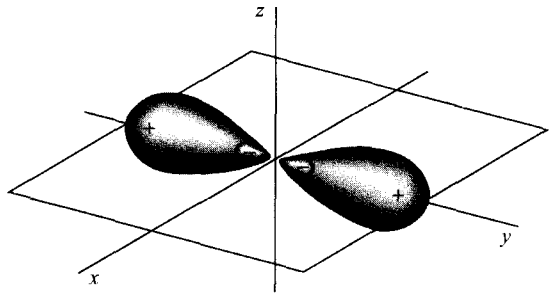


FIGURE 1.3 The two *sp* orbitals formed by mercury.

do not represent a possible structure for the free atom. A mercury atom forms its two bonds by overlapping each of the large lobes shown in Figure 1.3 with an orbital from an external atom. This external orbital may be any of the atomic orbitals previously considered (*s*, *p*, *d* or *f*) or it may be another hybrid orbital, although only lobes of the same sign can overlap. In any of these cases, the molecular orbital that arises is called a σ orbital since it fits our previous definition of a σ orbital.

In general, because of mutual repulsion, equivalent orbitals lie as far away from each other as possible, so the two *sp* orbitals form an angle of 180°. This means that $HgCl_2$, for example, should be a linear molecule (in contrast to H_2O), and it is. This kind of hybridization is called *digonal hybridization.* An *sp* hybrid orbital forms a stronger covalent bond than either an *s* or a *p* orbital because it extends out in space in the direction of the other atom's orbital farther than the *s* or the *p* and permits greater overlap. Although it would require energy to promote a 6? electron to the *6p* state, the extra bond energy more than makes up the difference.

Many other kinds of hybridization are possible. Consider boron, which has the electronic configuration

$$1s^2 2s^2 2p^1$$

yet has a valence of 3. Once again we may imagine promotion and hybridization:

$$1s^2 2s^2 2p^1 \xrightarrow{\text{promotion}} 1s^2 2s^1 2p_x^1 2p_y^1 \xrightarrow{\text{hybridization}} 1s^2 (sp^2)^3$$

In this case, there are three equivalent hybrid orbitals, each called sp^2 *(trigonal hybridization).* This method of designating hybrid orbitals is perhaps unfortunate since nonhybrid orbitals are designated by single letters, but it must be kept in mind that *each* of the three orbitals is called sp^2. These orbitals are shown in Figure 1.4. The three axes are all in one plane and point to the corners of an equilateral triangle. This accords with the known structure of boron trifluoride (BF_3), a planar molecule with angles of 120°.

The case of carbon (in forming four single bonds) may be represented as

$$1s^2 2s^2 2p_x^1 2p_y^1 \xrightarrow{\text{promotion}} 1s^2\ 2s^1 2p_x^1 2p_y^1 2p_z^1 \xrightarrow{\text{hybridization}} 1s^2 (sp^3)^4$$

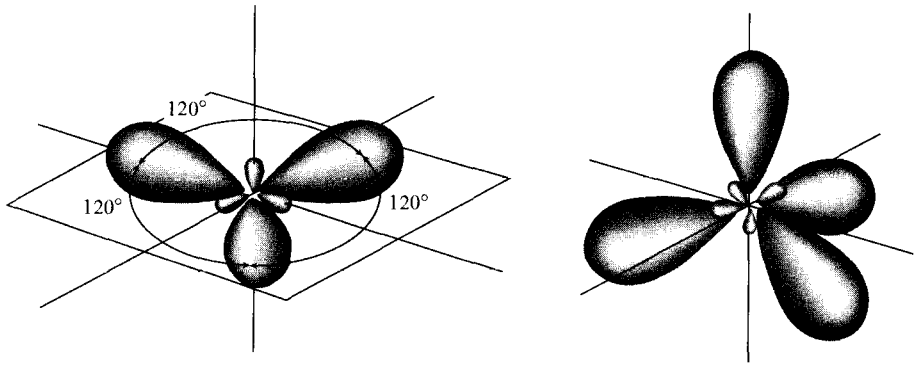


FIGURE 1.4 The three sp^2 and the four sp^3 orbitals.

There are four equivalent orbitals, each called sp^3, which point to the corners of a regular tetrahedron (Fig. 1.4). The bond angles of methane (CH_4) would thus be expected to be $109°28'$, which is the angle for a regular tetrahedron.

Although the hybrid orbitals discussed in this section satisfactorily account for most of the physical and chemical properties of the molecules involved, it is necessary to point out that the sp^3 orbitals, for example, stem from only one possible approximate solution of the Schrödinger equation. The *s* and the three *p* atomic orbitals can also be combined in many other equally valid ways. As we shall see on page 12, the four C–H bonds of methane do not always behave as if they are equivalent.

Multiple Bonds

If we consider the ethylene (C_2H_4) molecule in terms of the MO concepts discussed so far, we have each carbon using sp^2 orbitals to form bonds with the three atoms to which it is connected. These sp^2 orbitals arise from hybridization of the $2s^1$, $2p_x^1$, and $2p_y^1$ electrons of the promoted state shown on page 7. We may consider that any carbon atom that is bonded to only three different atoms uses sp^2 orbitals for this bonding. Each carbon of ethylene is thus bonded by three a bonds: one to each hydrogen and one to the other carbon. Each carbon therefore has another electron in the $2p_z$ orbital that is perpendicular to the plane of the sp^2 orbitals. The two parallel $2p_z$ orbitals can overlap sideways to generate two new orbitals, a bonding and an antibonding orbital (Fig. 1.5). Of course, in the ground state, both electrons go into the bonding orbital and the antibonding orbital remains vacant. Molecular orbitals formed by the overlap of atomic orbitals whose axes are parallel are called *n* orbitals if they are bonding and *n** if they are antibonding.

In this picture of ethylene, the two orbitals that make up the double bond are not equivalent.[6] The a orbital is ellipsoidal and symmetrical about the C–C axis. The *n* orbital is in the shape of two ellipsoids, one above the plane and one below. The plane itself represents a node for the *n* orbital. In order for the *p* orbitals to maintain

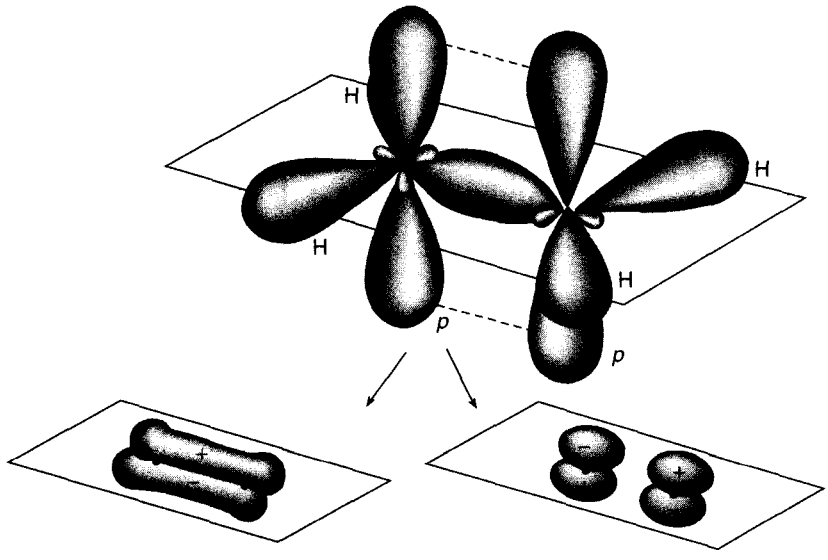


FIGURE 1.5 Overlapping *p* orbitals form a Jt and π^* orbital. The orbitals are shown in (a). They are still there in the states represented in (b), but have been removed from the picture for clarity.

maximum overlap, they must be parallel. This means that free rotation is not possible about the double bond, since the two *p* orbitals would have to reduce their overlap to allow one H–C–H plane to rotate with respect to the other. The six atoms of a double bond are therefore in a plane with angles that should be $\sim 120°$. Double bonds are shorter than the corresponding single bonds because maximum stability is obtained when the *p* orbitals overlap as much as possible. Double bonds between carbon and oxygen or nitrogen are similarly represented: they consist of one σ and one *n* orbital.

In triple-bond compounds (e.g., acetylene), carbon is connected to only two other atoms, and hence uses *sp* hybridization, which means that the four atoms are in a straight line (Fig. 1.6).[7] Each carbon has two/? orbitals remaining, with one electron in each. These orbitals are perpendicular to each other and to the *C—C* axis. They overlap in the manner shown in Figure 1.7 to form two *n* orbitals. A triple bond is thus composed of one σ and two *n* orbitals. Triple bonds between carbon and nitrogen can be represented in a similar manner.

Double and triple bonds are important only for the first-row elements carbon, nitrogen, and oxygen.[8] For second-row elements, multiple bonds are rare and

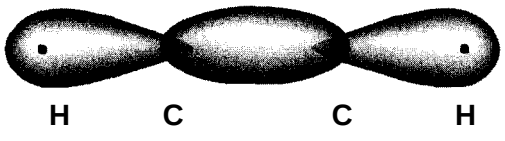


FIGURE 1.6 The σ electrons of acetylene.

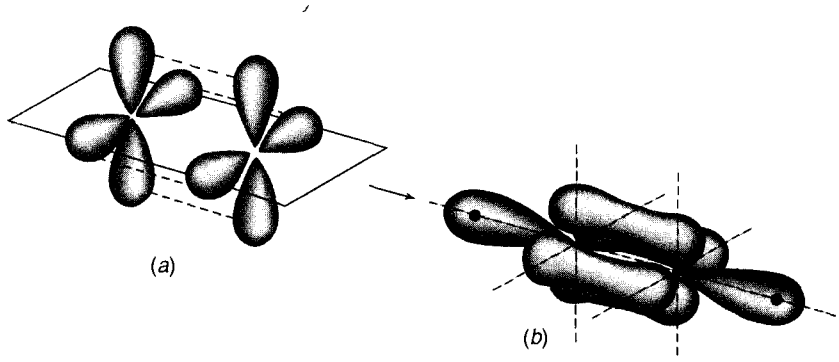


FIGURE 1.7 Overlap of *p* orbitals in a triple bond. For clarity, the σ orbitals have been removed from *(a),* though they are shown in *(b).*

compounds containing them are generally less stable[9] because these elements tend to form weaker π bonds than do the first-row elements.[10] The only ones of any importance at all are C=S bonds, and C=S compounds are generally much less stable than the corresponding C=O compounds (however, see *pn-dn* bonding, p. 45). Stable compounds with Si=C and Si=Si bonds are rare, but examples have been reported,[11] including a pair of cis and trans Si=Si isomers.[12]

Photoelectron Spectroscopy

Although the four bonds of methane are equivalent according to most physical and chemical methods of detection [e.g., neither the nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR) nor the infrared (IR) spectrum of methane contains peaks that can be attributed to different kinds of C–H bonds], there is one physical technique that shows that the eight valence electrons of methane can be differentiated. In this technique, called *photoelectron spectroscopy,*[13] a molecule or free atom is bombarded with vacuum ultraviolet (UV) radiation, causing an electron to be ejected. The energy of the ejected electron can be measured, and the difference between the energy of the radiation used and that of the ejected electron is the *ionization potential* of that electron. A molecule that contains several electrons of differing energies can lose any one of them as long as its ionization potential is less than the energy of the radiation used (a single molecule loses only one electron; the loss of two electrons by any individual molecule almost never occurs). A photoelectron spectrum therefore consists of a series of bands, each corresponding to an orbital of a different energy. The spectrum gives a direct experimental picture of all the orbitals present, in order of their energies, provided that radiation of sufficiently high energy is used.[14] Broad bands usually correspond to strongly bonding electrons and narrow bands to weakly bonding or nonbonding electrons. A typical spectrum is that of N_2, shown in Figure 1.8.[15] The N_2 molecule has the electronic structure shown in Figure 1.9. The two *2s* orbitals of the nitrogen atoms combine to give the two orbitals marked 1 (bonding) and 2 (antibonding), while the six *2p* orbitals combine to give six orbitals, three of which (marked 3, 4, and 5) are bonding. The three antibonding

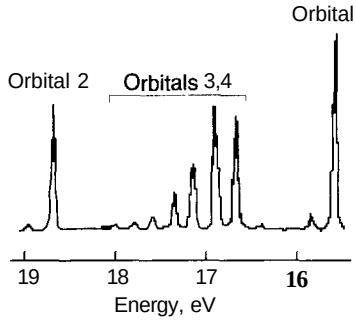


FIGURE 1.8 Photoelectron spectrum of N_2.

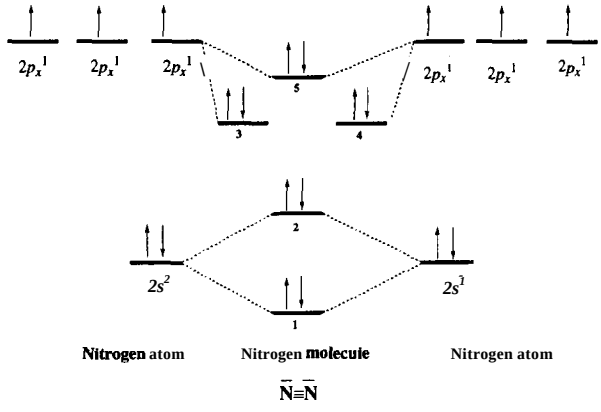


FIGURE 1.9 Electronic structure of N_2 (inner-shell electrons omitted).

orbitals (not indicated in Fig. 1.9) are unoccupied. Electrons ejected from orbital 1 are not found in Figure 1.8 because the ionization potential of these electrons is greater than the energy of the light used (they can be seen when higher energy light is used). The broad band in Figure 1.8 (the individual peaks within this band are caused by different vibrational levels; see Chapter 7) corresponds to the four electrons in the degenerate orbitals 3 and 4. The triple bond of N_2 is therefore composed of these two orbitals and orbital 1. The bands corresponding to orbitals 2 and 5 are narrow; hence these orbitals contribute little to the bonding and may be regarded as the two unshared pairs of $N\equiv N$. Note that this result is contrary to that expected from a naive consideration of orbital overlaps, where it would be expected that the two unshared pairs would be those of orbitals 1 and 2, resulting from the overlap of the filled *2s* orbitals, and that the triple bond would be composed of orbitals 3, 4, and 5, resulting from overlap of the *p* orbitals. This example is one illustration of the value of photoelectron spectroscopy.

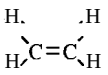
The photoelectron spectrum of methane[16] shows two bands,[17] at ~23 and 14 eV, and not the single band we would expect from the equivalency of the four C—H bonds. The reason is that ordinary sp^3 hybridization is not adequate to explain phenomena involving ionized molecules (such as the CH_4^+ radical ion, which is left behind when an electron is ejected from methane). For these phenomena it is

necessary to use other combinations of atomic orbitals (see p. 8). The band at 23 eV comes from two electrons in a low-energy level (called the a_1 level), which can be regarded as arising from a combination of the *2s* orbital of carbon with an appropriate combination of hydrogen 1*s* orbitals. The band at 14 eV comes from six electrons in a triply degenerate level (the t_2 level), arising from a combination of the three *2p* orbitals of carbon with other combinations of \s hydrogen orbitals. As was mentioned above, most physical and chemical processes cannot distinguish these levels, but photoelectron spectroscopy can. The photoelectron spectra of many other organic molecules are known as well,[18] including monocyclic alkenes, in which bands < 10 eV are due to π-orbital ionization and those above 10 eV originate from ionization of *s*-orbitals only.[19]

Electronic Structures of Molecules

For each molecule, ion, or free radical that has only localized electrons, it is possible to draw an electronic formula, called a *Lewis structure,* that shows the location of these electrons. Only the valence electrons are shown. Valence electrons may be found in covalent bonds connecting two atoms or they may be unshared.[20] The student must be able to draw these structures correctly, since the position of electrons changes in the course of a reaction, and it is necessary to know where the electrons are initially before one can follow where they are going. To this end, the following rules operate:

1. The total number of valence electrons in the molecule (or ion or free radical) must be the sum of all outer-shell electrons "contributed" to the molecule by each atom plus the negative charge or minus the positive charge, for the case of ions. Thus, for (H_2SO_4), there are 2 (one for each hydrogen) +6 (for the sulfur) +24 (6 for each oxygen) = 32; while for the sulfate ion (SO_4^{2-}), the number is also 32, since each atom "contributes" 6 plus 2 for the negative charge.
2. Once the number of valence electrons has been ascertained, it is necessary to determine which of them are found in covalent bonds and which are unshared. Unshared electrons (either a single electron or a pair) form part of the outer shell of just one atom, but electrons in a covalent bond are part of the outer shell of both atoms of the bond. *First-row atoms* (B, C, N, O, F) *can have a maximum of eight valence electrons,* and usually have this number, although some cases are known where a first-row atom has only six or seven. Where there is a choice between a structure that has six or seven electrons around a first-row atom and one in which all such atoms have an octet, it is the latter that generally has the lower energy and that consequently exists. For example, ethylene is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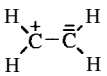
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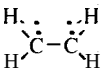
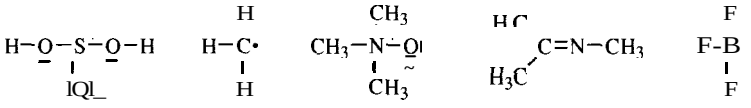


There are a few exceptions. In the case of the molecule O_2, the structure $\dot{O}=\dot{O}$ has a lower energy than 6 = 6. Although first-row atoms are limited to 8

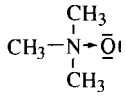
valence electrons, this is not so for second-row atoms, which can accommodate 10 or even 12 because they can use their empty *d* orbitals for this purpose.[21] For example, phosphorus pentachloride (PCl_5) and sulfur hexafluoride (SF_6) are stable compounds. In SF_6, one *s* and one *p* electron from the ground state $3s^2 3p^4$ of the sulfur are promoted to empty *d* orbitals, and the six orbitals hybridize to give six sp^3d^2 orbitals, which point to the corners of a regular octahedron.

3. It is customary to show the formal charge on each atom. For this purpose an atom is considered to "own" all unshared electrons, but only *one-half of the electrons in covalent bonds.* The sum of electrons that thus "belong" to an atom is compared with the number "contributed" by the atom. An excess belonging to the atom results in a negative charge, and a deficiency results in a positive charge. The total of the formal charges on all atoms equals the charge on the whole molecule or ion. It should be noted that the counting procedure is not the same for determining formal charge as for determining the number of valence electrons. For both purposes an atom "owns" all unshared electrons, but for outer-shell purposes it "owns" both the electrons of the covalent bond, while for formal-charge purposes it "owns" only one-half of these electrons.

Examples of electronic structures are (as mentioned in Ref. 4, in this book an electron pair, whether unshared or in a bond, is represented by a straight line):



A coordinate covalent bond, represented by an arrow, is one in which both electrons come from the same atom; that is, the bond can be regarded as being formed by the overlap of an orbital containing two electrons with an empty one. Thus trimethylamine oxide would be represented



For a coordinate covalent bond the rule concerning formal charge is amended, so that both electrons count for the donor and neither for the recipient. Thus the nitrogen and oxygen atoms of trimethylamine oxide bear no formal charges. However, it is apparent that the electronic picture is exactly the same as the picture of trimethylamine oxide given just above, and we have our choice of drawing an arrowhead or a charge separation. Some compounds, (e.g., amine oxides), must be drawn one way or the other. It seems simpler to use charge separation, since this spares us from having to consider as a "different" method of bonding a way that is really the same as ordinary covalent bonding once the bond has formed.

Electronegativity

The electron cloud that bonds two atoms is not symmetrical (with respect to the plane that is the perpendicular bisector of the bond) except when the two atoms are the same and have the same substituents. The cloud is necessarily distorted toward one side of the bond or the other, depending on which atom (nucleus plus electrons) maintains the greater attraction for the cloud. This attraction is called *electronegativity*;[22] and it is greatest for atoms in the upper-right corner of the periodic table and lowest for atoms in the lower-left corner. Thus a bond between fluorine and chlorine is distorted so that there is a higher probability of finding the electrons near the fluorine than near the chlorine. This gives the fluorine a partial negative charge and the chlorine a partial positive charge.

A number of attempts have been made to set up quantitative tables of electronegativity that indicate the direction and extent of electron-cloud distortion for a bond between any pair of atoms. The most popular of these scales, devised by Pauling, is based on bond energies (see p. 22) of diatomic molecules. It is rationalized that if the electron distribution were symmetrical in a molecule A—B, the bond energy would be the mean of the energies of A—A and B—B, since in these cases the cloud must be undistorted. If the actual bond energy of A—B is higher than this (and it usually is), it is the result of the partial charges, since the charges attract each other and make a stronger bond, which requires more energy to break. It is necessary to assign a value to one element arbitrarily (F=4.0). Then, the electronegativity of another is obtained from the difference between the actual energy of A—B and the mean of A—A and B—B (this difference is called A) by the formula

$$x_A - x_B = \sqrt{\frac{\Delta}{23.06}}$$

where x_A and x_B are the electronegativities of the known and unknown atoms and 23.06 is an arbitrary constant. Part of the scale derived from this treatment is shown in Table 1.1.

TABLE 1.1 Electronegativities of Some Atoms on the Pauling[a] and Sanderson[b] Scales

Element	Pauling	Sanderson	Element	Pauling	Sanderson
F	4.0	4.000	H	2.1	2.592
O	3.5	3.654	P	2.1	2.515
Cl	3.0	3.475	B	2.0	2.275
N	3.0	3.194	Si	1.8	2.138
Br	2.8	3.219	Mg	1.2	1.318
S	2.5	2.957	Na	0.9	0.835
I	2.5	2.778	Cs	0.7	0.220
C	2.5	2.746			

[a] See Ref. 23.
[b] See Ref. 27.

TABLE 1.2 Some Group Electronegativites Relative to H=2.176

CH_3	2.472	CCl_3	2.666
CH3CH2	2.482	C_6H_5	2.717
CH_2Cl	2.538	CF_3	2.985
CBr_3	2.561	$C{\equiv}N$	3.208
$CHCl_2$	2.602	NO_2	3.421

Other treatments[24] have led to scales that are based on different principles, for example, the average of the ionization potential and the electron affinity,[25] the average one-electron energy of valence shell electrons in ground-state free atoms,[26] or the "compactness" of an atom's electron cloud.[27] In some of these treatments electronegativities can be calculated for different valence states, for different hybridizations (e.g., *sp* carbon atoms are more electronegative than sp^2, which are still more electronegative than sp^3),[28] and even differently for primary, secondary, and tertiary carbon atoms. Also, electronegativities can be calculated for groups rather than atoms (Table 1.2).[29]

Electronegativity information can be obtained from NMR spectra. In the absence of a magnetically anisotropic group,[30] the chemical shift of a ^1H or a ^{13}C nucleus is approximately proportional to the electron density around it, and hence to the electronegativity of the atom or group to which it is attached. The greater the electronegativity of the atom or group, the lower the electron density around the proton and the further downfield is the chemical shift. An example of the use of this correlation is found in the variation of chemical shift of the *ring* protons in the series toluene, ethylbenzene, isopropylbenzene, tert-butylbenzene (there is a magnetically anisotropic group here, but its effect should be constant throughout the series). It is found that the electron density surrounding the ring protons decreases[31] in the order given.[32] However, this type of correlation is by no means perfect, since all the measurements are being made in a powerful field, which itself may affect the electron density distribution. Coupling constants between the two protons of a system $-\overset{|}{C}H-\overset{|}{C}H-X$ have also been found to depend on the electronegativity of X.[33]

When the difference in electronegativities is great, the orbital may be so far over to one side that it barely covers the other nucleus. This is an *ionic bond*, which is seen to arise naturally out of the previous discussion, leaving us with basically only one type of bond in organic molecules. Most bonds can be considered intermediate between ionic and covalent. We speak of percent ionic character of a bond, which indicates the extent of electron-cloud distortion. There is a continuous gradation from ionic to covalent bonds.

Dipole Moment

The *dipole moment* is a property of the molecule that results from charge separations like those discussed above. However, it is not possible to measure the dipole moment of an individual bond within a molecule; we can measure only the total moment of the molecule, which is the vectorial sum of the individual bond moments.[34] These

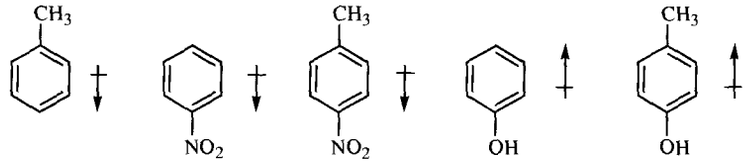


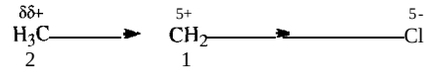
FIGURE 1.10 Some dipole moments, in debye (D) units, measured in benzene. The arrow points to the negative part of the molecule.

individual moments are roughly the same from molecule to molecule,[35] but this constancy is by no means universal. Thus, from the dipole moments of toluene and nitrobenzene (Fig. 1.10)[36] we should expect the moment of *p*-nitrotoluene to be 4.36 D. The actual value 4.39 D is reasonable. However, the moment of *p*-cresol (1.57 D) is quite far from the predicted value of 1.11 D. In some cases, molecules may have substantial individual bond moments but no total moments at all because the individual moments are canceled out by the overall symmetry of the molecule. Some examples are CCl_4, *trans*-1,2-dibromoethene, and *p*-dinitrobenzene.

Because of the small difference between the electronegativities of carbon and hydrogen, alkanes have very small dipole moments, so small that they are difficult to measure. For example, the dipole moment of isobutane is 0.132 D[37] and that of propane is 0.085 D.[38] Of course, methane and ethane, because of their symmetry, have no dipole moments.[39] Few organic molecules have dipole moments greater than 7 D.

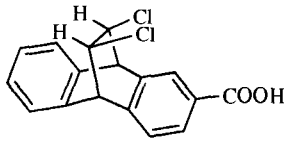
Inductive and Field Effects

The C–C bond in ethane has no polarity because it connects two equivalent atoms. However, the C–C bond in chloroethane is polarized by the presence of the electronegative chlorine atom. This polarization is actually the sum of two effects. In the first of these, the C-1 atom, having been deprived of some of its electron density by the greater electronegativity of Cl, is partially compensated by drawing

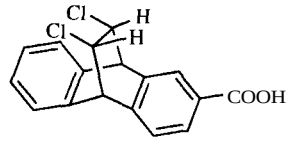


the C–C electrons closer to itself, resulting in a polarization of this bond and a slightly positive charge on the C-2 atom. This polarization of one bond caused by the polarization of an adjacent bond is called the *inductive effect*. The effect is greatest for adjacent bonds but may also be felt farther away; thus the polarization of the C–C bond causes a (slight) polarization of the three methyl C–H bonds. The other effect operates not through bonds, but directly through space or solvent molecules, and is called the *field effect*.[40] It is often very difficult to separate the two kinds of effect, but it has been done in a number of cases, generally by taking advantage of the fact that the field effect depends on the geometry of the molecule but the

inductive effect depends only on the nature of the bonds. For example, in isomers 1 and 2[41] the inductive effect of the chlorine atoms on the position of the electrons in the COOH group (and hence on the acidity, see Chapter 8) should be the same



1
$pK_a = 6.07$



2
$pK_a = 5.67$

since the same bonds intervene; but the field effect is different because the chlorines are closer in space to the COOH in 1 than they are in 2. Thus a comparison of the acidity of 1 and 2 should reveal whether a field effect is truly operating. The evidence obtained from such experiments is overwhelming that field effects are much more important than inductive effects.[42] In most cases, the two types of effect are considered together; in this book, we will not attempt to separate them but will use the name *field effect* to refer to their combined action.[43]

Functional groups can be classified as electron-withdrawing (—/) or electron-donating (+/) groups relative to hydrogen. This means, for example, that NO_2, a —/ group, will draw electrons to itself more than a hydrogen atom would if it occupied the same position in the molecule.

$$O_2N \longleftarrow CH_2 \longleftarrow \text{-Ph}$$

$$H \longrightarrow CH_2 \longrightarrow \text{-Ph}$$

Thus, in α-nitrotoluene, the electrons in the N–C bond are farther away from the carbon atom than the electrons in the H–C bond of toluene. Similarly, the electrons of the C–Ph bond (Ph = phenyl = C_6H_5) are farther away from the ring in α-nitrotoluene than they are in toluene. Field effects are always comparison effects. We compare the -/or +I effect of one group with another (usually hydrogen). It is commonly said that, compared with hydrogen, the NO_2 group is electron withdrawing and the O^- group is electron donating or electron releasing. However, there is no actual donation or withdrawal of electrons, though these terms are convenient to use; there is merely a difference in the position of electrons due to the difference in electronegativity between H and NO_2 or between H and O^-.

Table 1.3 lists a number of the most common -/and +/ groups.[44] It can be seen that compared with hydrogen, most groups are electron withdrawing. The only electron-donating groups are groups with a formal negative charge (but not even all these), atoms of low electronegativity, such as Si,[45] Mg, and so on, and perhaps alkyl groups. Alkyl groups[46] were formerly regarded as electron donating, but many examples of behavior have been found that can be interpreted only by the conclusion that alkyl groups are electron withdrawing compared with hydrogen.[47] In accord with this is the value of 2.472 for the group electronegativity of CH_3 (Table 1.2) compared with 2.176 for H. We shall see that when an alkyl group is attached to an

TABLE 1.3 Field Effects of Various Groups Relative to Hydrogen[a]

+/		-/	
O^-	NR_3^+	COOH	OR
COO^-	SR_2^+	F	COR
CR_3	NH_3^+	Cl	SH
CHR_2	NO_2	Br	SR
CH_2R	SO_2R	I	OH
CH_3	CN	OAr	C≡CR
D	SO_2Ar	COOR	Ar
			$C{\equiv}CR_2$

"The groups are listed approximately in order of decreasing strength for both $-I$ and +/ groups.

unsaturated or trivalent carbon (or other atom), its behavior is best explained by assuming it is +/ (see, e.g., pp. 221, 228, 349, 685), but when it is connected to a saturated atom, the results are not as clear, and alkyl groups seem to be +/ in some cases and —/in others[48] (see also p. 350). Similarly, it is clear that the field-effect order of alkyl groups attached to unsaturated systems is tertiary > secondary > primary > CH3, but this order is not always maintained when the groups are attached to saturated systems. Deuterium is electron donating with respect to hydrogen.[49] Other things being equal, atoms with *sp* bonding generally have a greater electron-withdrawing power than those with sp^2 bonding, which in turn have more electron-withdrawing power than those with sp^3 bonding.[50] This accounts for the fact that aryl, vinylic, and alkynyl groups are —/. Field effects always decrease with increasing distance, and in most cases (except when a very powerful +I or —/group is involved), cause very little difference in a bond four bonds away or more. There is evidence that field effects can be affected by the solvent.[51]

For discussions of field effects on acid and base strength and on reactivity, see Chapters 8 and 9, respectively.

Bond Distances[52]

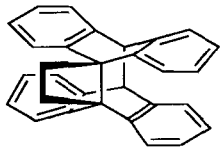
The distances between atoms in a molecule are characteristic properties of the molecule and can give us information if we compare the same bond in different molecules. The chief methods of determining bond distances and angles are X-ray diffraction (only for solids), electron diffraction (only for gases), and spectroscopic methods, especially microwave spectroscopy. The distance between the atoms of a bond is not constant, since the molecule is always vibrating; the measurements obtained are therefore average values, so that different methods give different results.[53] However, this must be taken into account only when fine distinctions are made.

Measurements vary in accuracy, but indications are that similar bonds have fairly constant lengths from one molecule to the next, though exceptions are known.[54] The variation is generally < 1%. Table 1.4 shows distances for single bonds between two sp^3 carbons. However, an analysis of C–OR bond distances in more than 2000 ethers

TABLE 1.4 Bond Lengths between sp^3 Carbons in Some Compounds

C—C Bond in	Reference	Bond Length (A)
Diamond	55	1.544
C_2H_6	56	1.5324 ±0.0011
C_2H_5Cl	57	1.5495 ± 0.0005
C_3H_8	58	1.532 ±0.003
Cyclohexane	59	1.540 ± 0.015
tert-Butyl chloride	60	1.532
n-Butane to n-heptane	61	1.531 – 1.534
Isobutane	62	1.535 ± 0.001

and carboxylic esters (all with sp^3 carbon) shows that this distance increases with increasing electron withdrawal in the R group and as the C changes from primary to secondary to tertiary.[63] For these compounds, mean bond lengths of the various types ranged from 1.418 to 1.475 Å. Certain substituents can also influence bond length. The presence of a silyl substituent β- to a C—O (ester) linkage can lengthen the C—O, thereby weakening it.[64] This is believed to result from σ–σ^* interactions in which the C—Si σ-bonding orbital acts as the donor and the C—O a* orbitals acts as the receptor.



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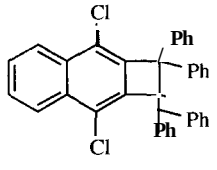

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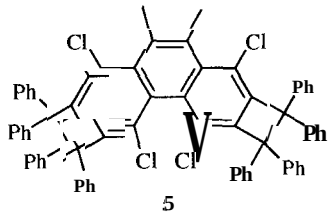

5

Although a typical carbon-carbon single bond has a bond length of ~ 1.54 Å, certain molecules are known that have significantly longer bond lengths.[65] Calculations have been done for unstable molecules that showed them to have long bond lengths, and an analysis of the X-ray structure for the photoisomer of [2.2]-tetrabenzoparacyclophane (see Chapter 2) showed a C—C bond length of 1.77 Å.[66] Long bond lengths have been observed in stable molecules as well. Anthracene photodimers such as 3, for example, were shown to have a C—C bond length of 1.648 Å.[67] To date, 4 and 5 have shown the longest C—C single bond lengths.[68] The C_{sp^3}—C_{sp^3} bond length in 4 was 1.720 Å and in 5, bond lengths were measured to be 1.710 and 1.724 Å.

Bond distances for some important bond types are given in Table 1.5.[69] As can be seen in this table, carbon bonds are shortened by increasing *s* character. This is most often explained by the fact that, as the percentage of *s* character in a hybrid orbital increases, the orbital becomes more like an *s* orbital, and hence is held more tightly by the nucleus than an orbital with less *s* character. However, other explanations have also been offered (see p. 37), and the matter is not completely settled.

TABLE 1.5 Bond Distances[a]

Bond Type	Length (Å)	Typical Compounds
C-C		
sp^3—sp^3	1.53	
sp^3—sp^2	1.51	Acetaldehyde, toluene, propene
sp^3—sp	1.47	Acetonitrile, propyne
sp^2—sp^2	1.48	Butadiene, glyoxal, biphenyl
sp^2—sp	1.43	Acrylonitrile, vinylacetylene
sp-sp	1.38	Cyanoacetylene, butadiyne
C=C		
sp^2—sp^2	1.32	Ethylene
sp^2—sp	1.31	Ketene, allenes
sp—sp[70]	1.28	Butatriene, carbon suboxide
C≡C[71]		
sp—sp	1.18	Acetylene
C-H[72]		
sp^3—H	1.09	Methane
sp^2—H	1.08	Benzene, ethylene
sp—H[73]	1.08	**HCN,** acetylene
C—O		
sp^3—O	1.43	Dimethyl ether, ethanol
sp^2—O	1.34	Formic acid
C=O		
sp^2—O	1.21	Formaldehyde, formic acid
sp—O[59]	1.16	**CO_2**
C-N		
sp^3—N	1.47	Methylamine
sp^2—N	1.38	Formamide
C=N		
sp^2—N	1.28	Oximes, imines
C≡N		
sp-N	1.14	HCN
C-S		
sp^3—S	1.82	Methanethiol
sp^2—S	1.75	Diphenyl sulfide
sp—S	1.68	CH_3SCN
C=S		
sp—S	1.67	**CS_2**

C—halogen[74]	F	Cl	Br	I
sp^3—halogen	1.40	1.79	1.97	2.16
sp^2—halogen	1.1.34	1.73	1.88	2.10
sp—halogen	1.27[75]	1.63	1.79[76]	1.99[76]

[a] The values given are average lengths and do not necessarily apply exactly to the compounds mentioned (see Ref. 69).

Indications are that a C—D bond is slightly shorter than a corresponding C—H bond. Thus, electron-diffraction measurements of C_2H_6 and C_2D_6 showed a C—H bond distance of 1.1122 ± 0.0012 Å and a C—D distance of 1.1071 ± 0.0012 A.[56]

Bond Angles

It might be expected that the bond angles of sp^3 carbon would always be the tetrahedral angle 109°28′, but this is so only where the four groups are identical, as in methane, neopentane, or carbon tetrachloride. In most cases, the angles deviate a little from the pure tetrahedral value. For example, the C—C—Br angle in 2-bromopropane is 114.2°.[77] Similarly, slight variations are generally found from the ideal values of 120° and 180° for sp^2 and *sp* carbon, respectively. These deviations occur because of slightly different hybridizations, that is, a carbon bonded to four other atoms hybridizes one *s* and three *p* orbitals, but the four hybrid orbitals thus formed are generally not exactly equivalent, nor does each contain exactly 25% *s* and 75% *p* character. Because the four atoms have (in the most general case) different electronegativities, each makes its own demand for electrons from the carbon atom.[78] The carbon atom supplies more *p* character when it is bonded to more electronegative atoms, so that in chloromethane, for example, the bond to chlorine has somewhat >75% *p* character, which of course requires that the other three bonds have somewhat less, since there are only three *p* orbitals (and one *s)* to be divided among the four hybrid orbitals.[79] Of course, in strained molecules, the bond angles may be greatly distorted from the ideal values (see p. 180).

For oxygen and nitrogen, angles of 90° are predicted from p^2 bonding. However, as we have seen (p. 6), the angles of water and ammonia are much larger than this, as are the angles of other oxygen and nitrogen compounds (Table 1.6); in fact, they are much closer to the tetrahedral angle of 109°28′ than to 90°. These facts have led to the suggestion that in these compounds oxygen and nitrogen use sp^3 bonding, that is, instead of forming bonds by the overlap of two (or three) *p* orbitals with 1 *s* orbitals of the hydrogen atoms, they hybridize their *2s* and *2p* orbitals to form four sp^3

TABLE 1.6 Oxygen, Sulfur, and Nitrogen Bond Angles in Some Compounds

Angle	Value	Compound	Reference
H—O—H	104°27′	Water	5
C—O—H	107-109°	Methanol	59
C—O—C	111°43′	Dimethyl ether	80
C—O—C	124° ±5°	Diphenyl ether	81
H—S—H	92.1°	Hydrogen sulfide [H_2S]	81
C-S-H	99.4°	Methanethiol	81
C—S—C	99.1°	Dimethyl sulfide	82
H-N-H	106°46′	Ammonia	5
H—N—H	106°	Methyl amine	83
C—N—H	112°	Methylamine	83
C-N-C	108.7°	Trimethylamine	84

orbitals, and then use only two (or three) of these for bonding with hydrogen, the others remaining occupied by unshared pairs (also called *lone pairs).* If this description is valid, and it is generally accepted by most chemists today,[85] it becomes necessary to explain why the angles of these two compounds are in fact not 109°28′ but a few degrees smaller. One explanation that has been offered is that the unshared pair actually has a greater steric requirement than a pair in a bond, since there is no second nucleus to draw away some of the electron density and the bonds are thus crowded together. However, most evidence is that unshared pairs have smaller steric requirements than bonds[86] and the explanation most commonly accepted is that the hybridization is not pure sp^3. As we have seen above, an atom supplies more *p* character when it is bonded to more electronegative atoms. An unshared pair may be considered to be an "atom" of the lowest possible electronegativity, since there is no attracting power at all. Consequently, the unshared pairs have more *s* character and the bonds more *p* character than pure sp^3 orbitals, making the bonds somewhat more like p^2 bonds and reducing the angle. As seen in Table 1.6, oxygen, nitrogen, and sulfur angles generally increase with decreasing electronegativity of the substituents. Note that the explanation given above cannot explain why some of these angles are *greater* than the tetrahedral angle.

Bond Energies[87]

There are two kinds of bond energy. The energy necessary to cleave a bond to give the constituent radicals is called the *dissociation energy D.* For example, *D* for $H_2O \rightarrow HO + H$ is 118 kcal mol^{-1} (494 kJ mol^{-1}). However, this is not taken as the energy of the O—H bond in water, since *D* for $H—O \rightarrow H + O$ is 100 kcal mol^{-1} (418 kJ mol^{-1}). The average of these two values, 109 kcal mol^{-1} (456 kJ mol^{-1}), is taken as the *bond energy E.* In diatomic molecules, of course, *D=E.*

The *D* values may be easy or difficult to measure, and they can be estimated by various techniques,[88] but there is no question as to what they mean. With *E* values the matter is not so simple. For methane, the total energy of conversion from CH4 to C + 4 H (at 0 K) is 393 kcal mol^{-1} (1644 kJ mol^{-1}).[89] Consequently, *E* for the C—H bond in methane is 98 kcal mol^{-1} (411 kJ mol^{-1}) at 0 K. The more usual practice, though, is not to measure the heat of atomization (i.e., the energy necessary to convert a compound to its atoms) directly but to calculate it from the heat of combustion. Such a calculation is shown in Figure 1.11.

Heats of combustion are very accurately known for hydrocarbons.[90] For methane the value at 25°C is 212.8 kcal mol^{-1} (890.4 kJ mol^{-1}), which leads to a heat of atomization of 398.0 kcal mol^{-1} (1665 kJ mol^{-1}) or a value of *E* for the C—H bond at 25°C of 99.5 kcal mol^{-1} (416 kJ mol^{-1}). This method is fine for molecules like methane in which all the bonds are equivalent, but for more complicated molecules assumptions must be made. Thus for ethane, the heat of atomization at 25°C is 676.1 kcal mol^{-1} or 2829 kJ mol^{-1} (Fig. 1.11), and we must decide how much of this energy is due to the C—C bond and how much to the six C—H bonds. Any assumption must be artificial, since there is no way of actually obtaining this information, and indeed the question has no real meaning. If we make the

					kcal	kJ
$C_2H_{6(gas)}$	+ $3\frac{1}{2}O_{2(gas)}$	= $2CO_{2(gas)}$	+	$3H_2O_{(liq)}$	+372.9	+1560
	$2CO_{(gas)}$	= $2C_{(graphite)}$	+	$2O_{2(gas)}$	-188.2	- 787
	$3H_2O_{(liq)}$	= $3H_{2(gas)}$	+	$1\frac{1}{2}O_{2(gas)}$	-204.9	- 857
	$3H_{2(gas)}$	= $6H_{(gas)}$			-312.5	-1308
	$2C_{(graphite)}$	= $2C_{(gas)}$			-343.4	-1437
	$C_2H_{6(gas)}$	= $6H_{(gas)}$	+	$2C_{(gas)}$	-676.1 kcal	-2829 kJ

FIGURE 1.11 Calculation of the heat of atomization of ethane at 25°C.

assumption that *E* for each of the C—H bonds is the same as *E* for the C—H bond in methane (99.5 kcal mol^{-1} or 416 kJ mol^{-1}), then 6 x 99.5 (or 416) = 597.0 (or 2498), leaving 79.1 kcal mol^{-1} (331 kJ mol^{-1}) for the C-C bond. However, a similar calculation for propane gives a value of 80.3 kcal mol^{-1} (or 336 kJ mol^{-1}) for the C—C bond, and for isobutane, the value is 81.6 (or 341). A consideration of heats of atomization of isomers also illustrates the difficulty. The *E* values for the C—C bonds in pentane, isopentane, and neopentane, calculated from heats of atomization in the same way, are (at 25° C) 81.1, 81.8, and 82.4 kcal mol^{-1} (339, 342, 345 kJ mol^{-1}), respectively, even though all of them have twelve C—H bonds and four C—C bonds.

These differences have been attributed to various factors caused by the introduction of new structural features. Thus isopentane has a tertiary carbon whose C—H bond does not have exactly the same amount of *s* character as the C—H bond in pentane, which for that matter contains secondary carbons not possessed by methane. It is known that *D* values, which *can* be measured, are not the same for primary, secondary, and tertiary C—H bonds (see Table 5.3). There is also the steric factor. Hence, it is certainly not correct to use the value of 99.5 kcal mol^{-1} (416 kJ mol^{-1}) from methane as the *E* value for all C—H bonds. Several empirical equations have been devised that account for these factors; the total energy can be computed[91] if the proper set of parameters (one for each structural feature) is inserted. Of course these parameters are originally calculated from the known total energies of some molecules that contain the structural feature.

Table 1.7[92] gives *E* values for various bonds. The values given are averaged over a large series of compounds. The literature contains charts that take account of hybridization (thus an sp^3 C—H bond does not have the same energy as an sp^2 C—H bond).[95] Bond dissociation energies, both calculated and experientially determined, are constantly being refined. Improved values are available for the O—O bond of peroxides;[96] the C—H bond in alkyl amines;[97] the N—H bond in aniline derivatives;[98] the N—H bond in protonated amines;[99] the O—H bond in phenols,[100] the C—H bond in alkenes;[101] amides, and ketones;[102] and in CH_2X_2 and CH_3X derivatives (X=COOR, C=O, SR, NO_2, etc.),[103] the O—H and S-H bonds of alcohols and thiols.[104]

TABLE 1.7 Bond Energy *E* Values[92] at 25° C for Some Important Bond Types[a]

Bond	kcal mol^{-1}	kJ mol^{-1}	Bond	kcal mol^{-1}	kJ mol^{-1}
O–H	110-111	460-464	C–S[b]	61	255
C-H	96-99	400-415	C–I	52	220
N-H	93	390			
S-H	82	340	C≡C	199-200	835
			C=C	146-151	610-630
C-F			C-C	83-85	345-355
C-H	96-99	400-415			
C-0	85-91	355-380	C≡N	204	854
C-C	83-85	345-355	C=O	173-81	724-757
C–Cl	79	330			
C–N[c]	69-75	290-315	C=N[c]	143	598
C-Br	66	275			

[a] The *E* values are arranged within each group in order of decreasing strength. The values are averaged over a large series of compounds.
[b] See Ref. 93.
[c] See Ref 94.

The following generalizations can be derived from the data in Table 1.7.

1. There is a correlation of bond strengths with bond distances. A comparison of Tables 1.5 and 1.7 shows that, in general, *shorter bonds are stronger bonds.* Since we have already seen that increasing the *s* character shortens bonds (p. 20), it follows that bond strengths increase with increasing *s* character.
2. Bonds become weaker as we move down the periodic table. Compare C–O and C–S or the four carbon-halogen bonds. This is a consequence of the first generalization, since bond distances must increase as we go down the periodic table because the number of inner electrons increases.
3. Double bonds are both shorter and stronger than the corresponding single bonds, but not twice as strong, because *n* overlap is less than σ overlap. This means that a σ bond is stronger than a *n* bond. The difference in energy between a single bond, say C–C, and the corresponding double bond is the amount of energy necessary to cause rotation around the double bond.[105]

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CHAPTER 2

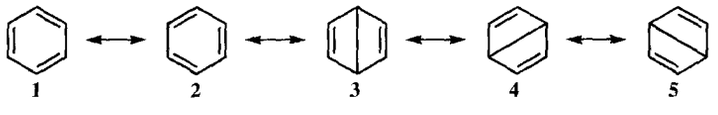
Delocalized Chemical Bonding

Although the bonding of many compounds can be adequately described by a single Lewis structure (p. 12), this is not sufficient for many other compounds. These compounds contain one or more bonding orbitals that are not restricted to two atoms, but that are spread out over three or more. Such bonding is said to be *delocalized*.[1] In this chapter, we shall see which types of compounds must be represented in this way.

The two chief general methods of approximately solving the wave equation, discussed in Chapter 1, are also used for compounds containing delocalized bonds.[2] In the VB method, several possible Lewis structures (called *canonical forms)* are drawn and the molecule is taken to be a weighted average of them. Each ψ in Eq. (1.3),

$$\Psi = c_1\psi_1 + c_1\psi_1 + \cdots$$

represents one of these structures. This representation of a real structure as a weighted average of two or more canonical forms is called *resonance*. For benzene, the canonical forms are 1, and 2. Double-headed arrows ($\leftrightarrow$) are used to indicate resonance. When the wave equation is solved, it is found that the energy value obtained by considering that 1 and 2 participate equally is lower than that for 1 or 2 alone. If 3, 4, and 5 (called *Dewar structures)* are also considered, the value is



1 2 3 4 5

lower still. According to this method, 1 and 2 each contribute 39% to the actual molecule and the others 7.3% each.[3] The carbon-carbon bond order is 1.463 (not 1.5, which would be the case if only 1 and 2 contributed). In the VB method, the *bond order* of a particular bond is the sum of the weights of those canonical forms in which the bonds is double plus 1 for the single bond that is present in all of them.[4] Thus, according to this picture, each C–C bond is not halfway between a single and a double bond but somewhat less. The energy of the actual molecule is obviously less than that of any one Lewis structure, since otherwise it would have one of those structures. The difference in energy between the actual molecule and the Lewis structure of lowest energy is call the *resonance energy*. Of course, the Lewis structures are not real, and their energies can only be estimated.

Qualitatively, the resonance picture is often used to describe the structure of molecules, but quantitative VB calculations become much more difficult as the structures become more complicated (e.g., naphthalene, pyridine, etc.). Therefore the MO method is used much more often for the solution of wave equations.[5] If we look at benzene by this method (qualitatively), we see that each carbon atom, being connected to three other atoms, uses sp^2 orbitals to form σ bonds, so that all 12 atoms are in one plane. Each carbon has a *p* orbital (containing one electron) remaining and each of these can overlap equally with the two adjacent *p* orbitals. This overlap of six orbitals (see Fig. 2.1) produces six new orbitals, three of which (not shown) are bonding. These three (called *n* orbitals) all occupy approximately the same space.[6] One of the three is of lower energy than the other two, which are degenerate. They each have the plane of the ring as a node and so are in two parts, one above and one below the plane. The two orbitals of higher energy (Fig. 2.1 *b* and *c*) also have another node. The six electrons that occupy this torus-shaped cloud are

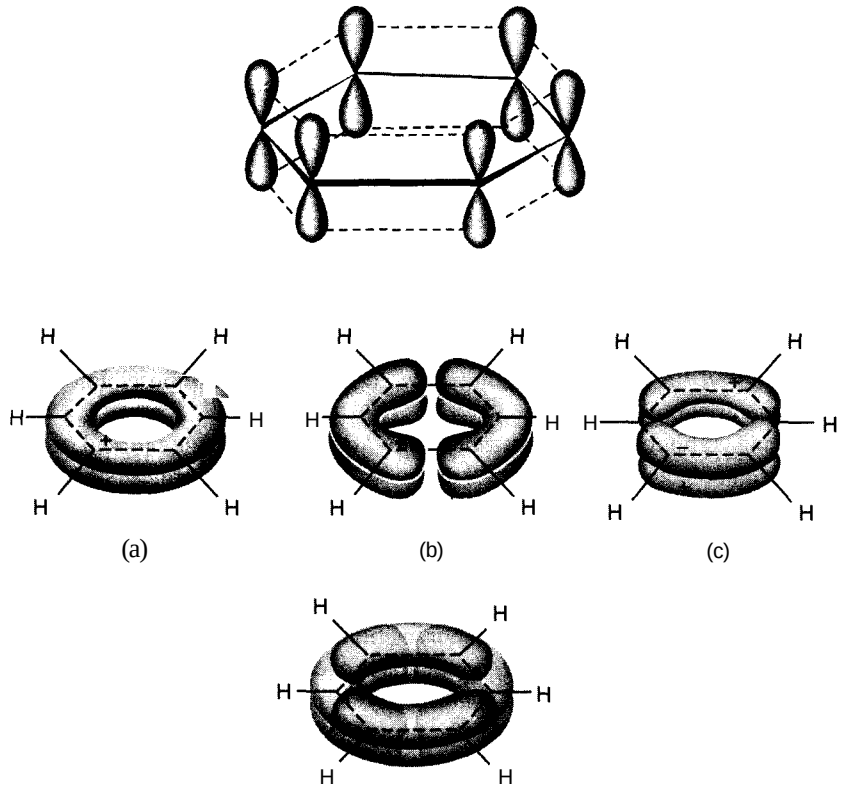


FIGURE 2.1 The six *p* orbitals of benzene overlap to form three bonding orbitals, (a), *(b),* and (c). The three orbitals superimposed are shown in (*d*).

called the *aromatic sextet.* The carbon–carbon bond order for benzene, calculated by the MO method, is 1.667.[7]

For planar unsaturated and aromatic molecules, many MO *calculations* have been made by treating the σ and rc electrons separately. It is assumed that the σ orbitals can be treated as localized bonds and the calculations involve only the JI electrons. The first such calculations were made by Hiickel; such calculations are often called *Hückel molecular orbital* (HMO) *calculations.*[8] Because electron-electron repulsions are either neglected or averaged out in the HMO method, another approach, the *self-consistent field* (SCF), or *Hartree–Fock* (HF), method, was devised.[9] Although these methods give many useful results for planar unsaturated and aromatic molecules, they are often unsuccessful for other molecules; it would obviously be better if all electrons, both σ and JI, could be included in the calculations. The development of modern computers has now made this possible.[10] Many such calculations have been made[11] using a number of methods, among them an extension of the Hiickel method (EHMO)[12] and the application of the SCF method to all valence electrons.[13]

One type of MO calculation that includes all electrons is called *ab initio.*[14] Despite the name (which means "from first principles") this type does involve assumptions, though not very many. It requires a large amount of computer time, especially for molecules that contain more than about five or six atoms other than hydrogen. Treatments that use certain simplifying assumptions (but still include all electrons) are called *semiempirical* methods.[15] One of the first of these was called complete neglect of differential overlap (CNDO),[16] but as computers have become more powerful, this has been superseded by more modern methods, including modified intermediate neglect of differential overlap (MINDO/3),[17] modified neglect of diatomic overlap (MNDO),[17] and Austin model 1 (AM1), all of which were introduced by Dewar and co-workers.[18] Semiempirical calculations are generally regarded as less accurate than *ab initio* methods,[19] but are much faster and cheaper. Indeed, calculations for some very large molecules are possible only with the semiempirical methods.[20]

Molecular orbital calculations, whether by *ab initio* or semiempirical methods, can be used to obtain structures (bond distances and angles), energies (such as heats of formation), dipole moments, ionization energies, and other properties of molecules, ions, and radicals—not only of stable ones, but also of those so unstable that these properties cannot be obtained from experimental measurements.[21] Many of these calculations have been performed on transition states (p. 279); this is the only way to get this information, since transition states are not, in general, directly observable. Of course, it is not possible to check data obtained for unstable molecules and transition states against any experimental values, so that the reliability of the various MO methods for these cases is always a question. However, our confidence in them does increase when (1) different MO methods give similar results, and (2) a particular MO method works well for cases that can be checked against experimental methods.[22]

Both the VB and MO methods show that there is delocalization in benzene. For example, each predicts that the six carbon–carbon bonds should have equal lengths, which is true. Since each method is useful for certain purposes, we shall use one or

the other as appropriate. Recent *ab initio*, SCF calculations confirms that the delocalization effect acts to strongly stabilize symmetric benzene, consistent with the concepts of classical resonance theory.[23]

Bond Energies and Distances in Compounds Containing Delocalized Bonds

If we add the energies of all the bonds in benzene, taking the values from a source like Table 1.7, the value for the heat of atomization turns out to be less than that actually found in benzene (Fig. 2.2). The actual value is 1323 kcal mol^{-1} (5535 kJ mol^{-1}). If we use *E* values for a C=C double bond obtained from cyclohexene (148.8 kcal mol^{-1}; 622.6 kJ mol^{-}), a C–C single bond from cyclohexane (81.8 kcal mol^{-1}, 342kJ mol^{-1}), and C–H bonds from methane (99.5 kcal mol^{-1}, 416kJ mol^{-1}), we get a total of 1289 kcal mol^{-1} (5390 kJ mol^{-1}) for structure 1 or 2. By this calculation, the resonance energy is 34 kcal mol^{-1} (145kJ mol^{-1}). Of course, this is an arbitrary calculation since, in addition to the fact that we are calculating a heat of atomization for a nonexistent structure (1), we are forced to use *E* values that themselves do not have a firm basis in reality. The actual C–H bond energy for benzene has been measured to be 113.5 ± 0.5 kcal mol^{-1} at 300 K and estimated to be 112.0 ± 0.6 kcal mol^{-1} at OK.[24] The resonance energy can never be measured, only estimated, since we can measure the heat of atomization of the real molecule but can only make an intelligent guess at that of the Lewis structure of lowest energy. Another method frequently used for estimation of resonance energy involves measurements of heats of hydrogenation.[25] Thus, the heat of hydrogenation of cyclohexene is 28.6kcal mol^{-1} (120 kJ mol^{-1}), so we might expect a hypothetical 1 or 2 with three double bonds to have a heat of hydrogenation of ~85.8 kcal mol^{-1} (360 kJ mol^{-1}). The real benzene has a heat of hydrogenation of 49.8 kcal mol^{-1} (208 kJ mol^{-1}), which gives a resonance energy of 36kcal mol^{-1} (152 kJ mol^{-1}). By any calculation, the real molecule is more stable than a hypothetical 1 or 2.

The energies of the six benzene orbitals can be calculated from HMO theory in terms of two quantities, a and (3. alpha is the amount of energy possessed by an isolated *2p* orbital before overlap, while (3 (called the *resonance integral)* is an energy unit expressing the degree of stabilization resulting from π-orbital overlap. A negative value of (3 corresponds to stabilization, and the energies of the six orbitals

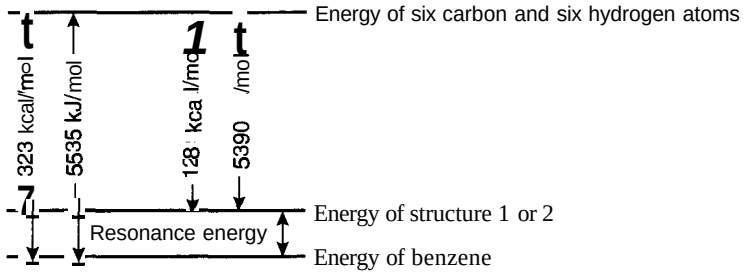


FIGURE 2.2 Resonance energy in benzene.

are (lowest to highest): a + 2(3, a + β, a + β, a - β, a - β, and a - 2(3.[26] The total energy of the three occupied orbitals is 6a + 8(3, since there are two electrons in each orbital. The energy of an ordinary double bond is a + β, so that structure 1 or 2 has an energy of 6a+6(3. The resonance energy of benzene is therefore 2(3. Unfortunately, there is no convenient way to calculate the value of (3 from MO theory. It is often given for benzene as about 18 kcal mol^{-1} (76 kJ mol^{-1}); this number being one-half of the resonance energy calculated from heats of combustion or hydrogenation. Using modern *ab initio* calculations, bond resonance energies for many aromatic hydrocarbons other than benzene have been reported.[27]

We might expect that in compounds exhibiting delocalization the bond distances would lie between the values gives in Table 1.5. This is certainly the case for benzene, since the carbon–carbon bond distance is 1.40 Å,[28] which is between the 1.48 Å for an sp^2–sp^2C—*C* single bond and the 1.32 °A of the sp^2–sp^2C=C double bond.[29]

Kinds of Molecules That Have Delocalized Bonds

There are three main types of structure that exhibit delocalization:

1. *Double (or triple) Bonds in Conjugation.*[30] Benzene is, of course, an example, but the simplest is butadiene. In the MO picture (Fig. 2.3), the overlap of four orbitals gives two bonding orbitals that contain the four electrons and two vacant antibonding orbitals. It can be seen that each orbital has one more node than the one of next lower energy. The energies of the four orbitals are (lowest to highest): a + 1.618β, a + 0.618β, a - 0.618β, and a - 1.618(3; hence, the total energy of the two occupied orbitals is 4a + 4.472(3. Since the energy of two isolated double bonds is 4a + 4(3, the resonance energy by this calculation is 0.472(3.

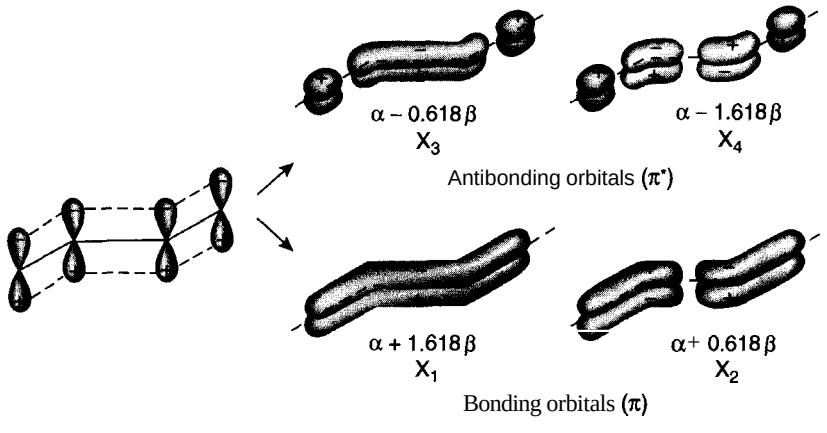


FIGURE 2.3 The four *n* orbitals of butadiene, formed by overlap of four *p* orbitals.

In the resonance picture, these structures are considered to contribute:

$$\underset{\mathbf{6}}{CH_2{=}CH{-}CH{=}CH_2} \longleftrightarrow \underset{\mathbf{7}}{CH_2{-}\overset{+}{C}H{=}CH{-}\overset{\S}{C}H_2} \longleftrightarrow \underset{\mathbf{8}}{\overset{\copyright}{C}H_2{-}CH{=}\overset{+}{C}H{-}CH_2}$$

In either picture, the bond order of the central bond should be > 1 and that of the other carbon–carbon bonds < 2, although neither predicts that the three bonds have equal electron density. Molecular orbital bond orders of 1.894 and 1.447 have been calculated.[31]

Since ~1959 doubt has been cast on the reality of delocalization in butadiene and similar molecules. Thus, the bond lengths in butadiene are 1.34 Å for the double bonds and 1.48 Å for the single bond.[32] Since the typical single-bond distance of a bond that is not adjacent to an unsaturated group is 1.53 Å (p. 21), it has been argued that the shorter single bond in butadiene provides evidence for resonance. However, this shortening can also be explained by hybridization changes (see p. 21); and other explanations have also been offered.[33] Resonance energies for butadienes, calculated from heats of combustion or hydrogenation, are only ~4 kcal mol^{-1} (17 kJ mol^{-1}), and these values may not be entirely attributable to resonance. Thus, a calculation from heat of atomization data gives a resonance energy of 4.6 kcal mol^{-1} (19 kJ mol^{-1}) for *cis*-1,3-pentadiene, and −0.2 kcal mol^{-1} (−0.8 kJ mol^{-1}), for 1,4-pentadiene. These two compounds, each of which possesses two double bonds, two *C*—*C* single bonds, and eight C–H bonds, would seem to offer as similar a comparison as we could make of a conjugated with a nonconjugated compound, but they are nevertheless not strictly comparable. The former has three sp^3 C–H and five sp^2 C–H bonds, while the latter has two and six, respectively. Also, the two single C—C bonds of the 1,4-diene are both sp^2–sp^3 bonds, while in the 1,3-diene, one is sp^2–sp^3 and the other sp^2–sp^2. Therefore, it may be that some of the already small value of 4 kcal mol^{-1} (17 kJ mol^{-1}) is not resonance energy but arises from differing energies of bonds of different hybridization.[34]

Although bond distances fail to show it and the resonance energy is low, the fact that butadiene is planar[35] shows that there is some delocalization, even if not as much as previously thought. Similar delocalization is found in other conjugated systems (e.g., C=C–C=O[36] and C=C–C=N), in longer systems with three or more multiple bonds in conjugation, and where double or triple bonds are conjugated with aromatic rings.

2. *Double (or Triple) Bonds in Conjugation with a p Orbital on an Adjacent Atom.* Where a *p* orbital is on an atom adjacent to a double bond, there are three parallel *p* orbitals that overlap. As previously noted, it is a general rule that the overlap of *n* atomic orbitals creates *n* molecular orbitals, so overlap of a *p* orbital with an adjacent double bond gives rise to three new orbitals, as shown in Figure 2.4. The middle orbital is a *nonbonding orbital* of zero bonding energy. The central carbon atom does not participate in the nonbonding orbital.

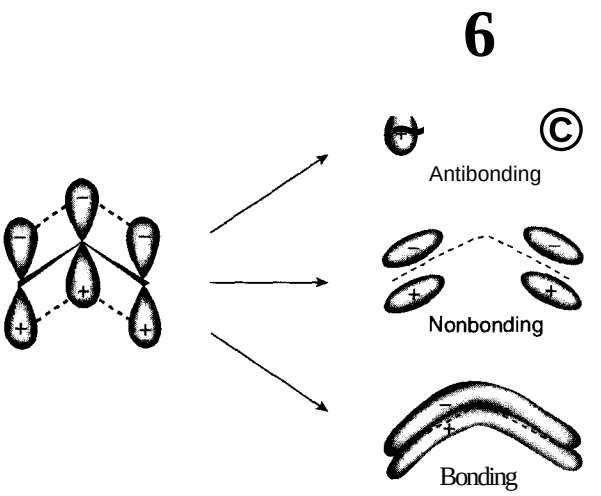
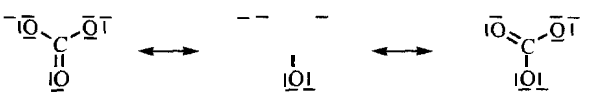


FIGURE 2.4 The three orbitals of an allylic system, formed by overlap of three *p* orbitals.

There are three cases: The original *p* orbital may have contained two, one, or no electrons. Since the original double bond contributes two electrons, the total number of electrons accommodated by the new orbitals is four, three, or two. A typical example of the first situation is vinyl chloride, $CH_2{=}CH{-}Cl$. Although the *p* orbital of the chlorine atom is filled, it still overlaps with the double bond. The four electrons occupy the two molecular orbitals of lowest energies. This is our first example of resonance involving overlap between unfilled orbitals and a *filled* orbital. Canonical forms for vinyl chloride are

$$H_2C{=}CH{-}\ddot{Cl} \longleftrightarrow H_2\overset{\ominus}{C}{-}CH{=}\overset{+}{Cl}$$

Any system containing an atom that has an unshared pair and that is directly attached to a multiple-bond atom can show this type of delocalization. Another example is the carbonate ion:



The bonding in allylic carbanions, for example, $CH_2{=}CH{-}CH_2^-$, is similar.

The other two cases, where the original *p* orbital contains only one or no electron, are generally found only in free radicals and cations, respectively. Allylic free radicals have one electron in the nonbonding orbital. In allylic cations, this orbital is vacant and only the bonding orbital is occupied. The orbital structures of the allylic carbanion, free radical, and cation differ from each other, therefore, only in that the nonbonding orbital is filled, half-filled, or empty. Since this is an orbital of zero-bonding energy, it follows that the bonding π energies of the three species relative to electrons in the *2p* orbitals

of free atoms are the same. The electrons in the nonbonding orbital do not contribute to the bonding energy, positively or negatively.[37]

By the resonance picture, the three species may be described as having double bonds in conjugation with, respectively, an unshared pair, an unpaired electron, and an empty orbital (see Chapter 5):

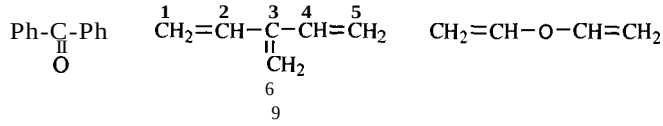
$$H_2C{=}CH{-}\ddot{C}H_2 \longleftrightarrow H_2\ddot{C}{-}CH{=}CH_2$$
$$H_2C{=}CH{-}\dot{C}H_2 \longleftrightarrow H_2\dot{C}{-}CH{=}CH_2$$
$$H_2C{=}CH{-}\overset{+}{C}H_2 \longleftrightarrow H_2\overset{+}{C}{-}CH{=}CH_2$$

3. *Hyperconjugation.* The third type of delocalization, called *hyperconjugation*, is discussed on page 71.

We shall find examples of delocalization that cannot be strictly classified as belonging to any of these types.

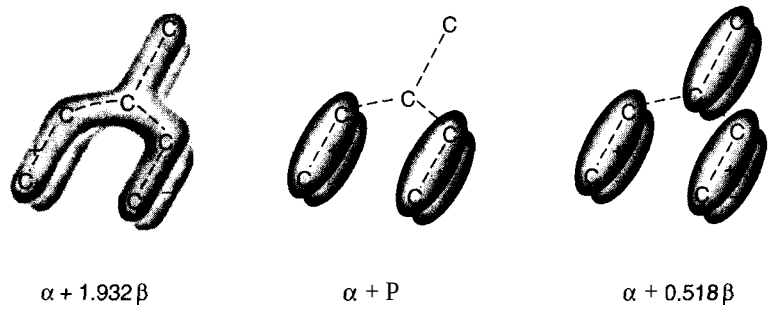
Cross-Conjugation[38]

In a cross-conjugated compound, three groups are present, two of which are not conjugated with each other, although each is conjugated with the third. Some examples[39] are



9

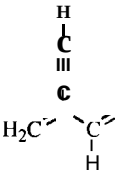
If we use the MO method, we find that the overlap of six *p* orbitals in 9 gives six molecular orbitals, of which the three bonding orbitals are shown in Figure 2.5, along with their energies. Note that two of the carbon atoms do not participate in the a + β orbital. The total energy of the three occupied orbitals is 6a + 6.900(3, so the resonance energy is 0.900(3. Molecular orbital bond orders are 1.930 for the C-1,C-2 bond; 1.859 for the C-3,C-6 bond; and 1.363 for the C-2,C-3 bond.[38] By comparing



α + 1.932β α + P α + 0.518β

FIGURE 2.5 The three bonding orbitals of 3-methylene-l,4-pentadiene (9).

these values with those for butadiene (p. 37), we see that the C-1,C-2 bond contains more and the C-3,C-6 bond less double-bond character than the double bonds in butadiene. The resonance picture supports this conclusion, since each C-1,C-2 bond is double in three of the five canonical forms, while the C-3,C-6 bond is double in only one. In most cases, it is easier to treat cross-conjugated molecules by the MO method than by the VB method.



10

11

12

One consequence of this phenomenon is that the cross-conjugated C=C unit has a slightly longer bond length that the noncross conjugated bond. In 10, for example, the cross-conjugated bond is ~0.01 Å longer.[40] The conjugative effect of a C=C or C≡C unit can be measured. An ethenyl substituent on a conjugated enone contributes 4.2 kcal mol^{-1} and an ethynyl substituent has a more variable effect but contributes about 2.3 kcal mol^{-1}.[41]

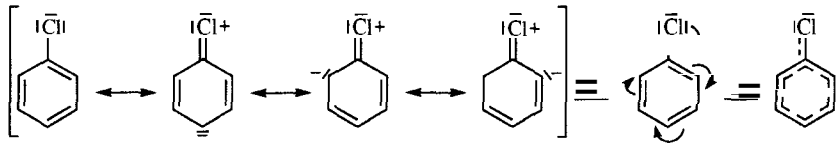
The phenomenon of homoconjugation is related to cross-conjugation in that there are C=C units in close proximity but not conjugated one to the other. Homoconjugation arises when the termini of two orthogonal π systems are held in close proximity by being linked by a spiro-tetrahedral carbon atom.[42] Spiro[4.4]nonatetraene (**11**)[43] is an example and it known that the highest occupied molecular orbital (HOMO) (p. 1068) of 11 is raised relative to cyclopentadiene, whereas the lowest occupied molecular orbital (LUMO) is unaffected[44] Another example is 12, where there are bond length distortions caused by electronic interactions between the unsaturated bicyclic moiety and the cyclopropyl moiety.[45] It is assumed that cyclopropyl homoconjugation is responsible for this effect.

The Rules of Resonance

We have seen that one way of expressing the actual structure of a molecule containing delocalized bonds is to draw several possible structures and to assume that the actual molecule is a hybrid of them. These canonical forms have no existence except in our imaginations. The molecule does *not* rapidly shift between them. It is *not* the case that some molecules have one canonical form and some another. All the molecules of the substance have the same structure. That structure is always the same all the time and is a weighted average of all the canonical forms. In drawing canonical forms and deriving the true structures from them, we are guided by certain rules, among them the following:

1. All the canonical forms must be bona fide Lewis structures (see p. 12). For instance, none of them may have a carbon with five bonds.

2. The positions of the nuclei must be the same in all the structures. This means that when we draw the various canonical forms, all we are doing is putting in the *electrons* in different ways. For this reason, shorthand ways of representing resonance are easy to devise:



13 14

The resonance interaction of chlorine with the benzene ring can be represented as shown in 13 or 14, and both of these representations have been used in the literature to save space. However, we shall not use the curved-arrow method of 13 since arrows will be used in this book to express the actual movement of electrons in reactions. We will use representations like 14 or else write out the canonical forms. The convention used in dashed-line formulas like 14 is that bonds that are present in all canonical forms are drawn as solid lines, while bonds that are not present in all forms are drawn as dashed lines. In most resonance, σ bonds are not involved, and only the π or unshared electrons are put in, in different ways. This means that if we write one canonical form for a molecule, we can then write the others by merely moving π and unshared electrons.

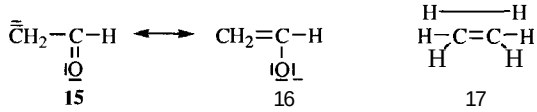
3. All atoms taking part in the resonance, that is, covered by delocalized electrons, must lie in a plane or nearly so (see p. 42). This, of course, does not apply to atoms that have the same bonding in all the canonical forms. The reason for planarity is maximum overlap of the *p* orbitals.
4. All canonical forms must have the same number of unpaired electrons. Thus $\dot{C}H_2{-}CH{=}CH{-}\dot{C}H_2$ is not a valid canonical form for butadiene.
5. The energy of the actual molecule is lower than that of any form, obviously. Therefore, delocalization is a stabilizing phenomenon.[46]
6. All canonical forms do not contribute equally to the true molecule. Each form contributes in proportion to its stability, the most stable form contributing most. Thus, for ethylene, the form $\overset{+}{C}H_2{-}\overset{-}{C}H_2$ has such a high energy compared to $CH_2{=}CH_2$ that it essentially does not contribute at all. We have seen the argument that such structures do not contribute even in such cases as butadiene.[34] Equivalent canonical forms, such as 1 and 2, contribute equally. The greater the number of significant structures that can be written and the more nearly equal they are, the greater the resonance energy, other things being equal.

It is not always easy to decide relative stabilities of imaginary structures; the chemist is often guided by intuition.[47] However, the following rules may be helpful:

a. Structures with more covalent bonds are ordinarily more stable than those with fewer (cf. 6 and 7).

b. Stability is decreased by an increase in charge separation. Structures with formal charges are less stable than uncharged structures. Structures with more than two formal charges usually contribute very little. An especially unfavorable type of structure is one with two like charges on adjacent atoms.

c. Structures that carry a negative charge on a more electronegative atom are more stable than those in which the charge is on a less electronegative atom. Thus, 16 is more stable than 15. Similarly, positive charges are best carried on atoms of low electronegativity.

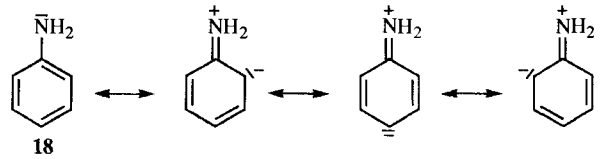


15 16 17

d. Structures with distorted bond angles or lengths are unstable, for example, the structure 17 for ethane.

The Resonance Effect

Resonance always results in a different distribution of electron density than would be the case if there were no resonance. For example, if 18 were the actual structure of aniline, the two unshared electrons of the nitrogen would reside entirely on that



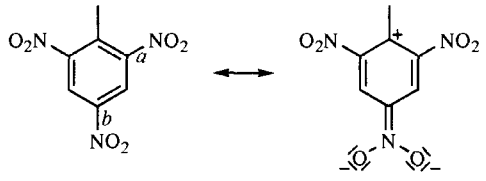
18

atom. Since the real structure is not 18 but a hybrid that includes contributions from the other canonical forms shown, the electron density of the unshared pair does not reside entirely on the nitrogen, but is spread over the ring. This decrease in electron density at one position (and corresponding increase elsewhere) is called the *resonance* or *mesomeric effect.* We loosely say that the NH_2 contributes or donates electrons to the ring by a resonance effect, although no actual contribution takes place. The "effect" is caused by the fact that the electrons are in a different place from that we would expect if there were no resonance. In ammonia, where resonance is absent, the unshared pair *is* located on the nitrogen atom. As with the field effect (p. 17), we think of a certain molecule (in this case ammonia) as a substrate, and then see what happens to the electron density when we make a substitution. When one of the hydrogen atoms of the ammonia molecule is replaced by a benzene ring, the electrons are "withdrawn" by the resonance effect, just as when a methyl group replaces a hydrogen of benzene, electrons are "donated" by the field effect of the methyl group. The idea of donation or withdrawal merely arises from the comparison of a compound with a closely related one or a real compound with a canonical form.

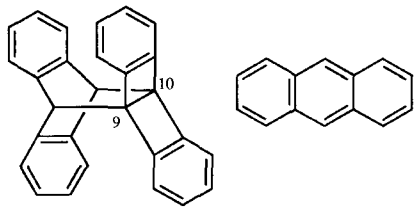
Steric Inhibition of Resonance and the Influences of Strain

Rule 3 states that all the atoms covered by delocalized electrons must lie in a plane or nearly so. Many examples are known where resonance is reduced or prevented because the atoms are sterically forced out of planarity.

Bond lengths for the o- and p-nitro groups in picryl iodide are quite different.[48] Distance *a* is 1.45 Å, whereas *b* is 1.35 Å. The obvious explanation is that the oxygen atoms of the p-nitro group are in the plane of the ring and thus in resonance with it, so that *b* has partial double-bond character, while the oxygen atoms of the o-nitro groups are forced out of the plane by the large iodine atom.

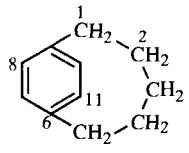


The Dewar-type structure for the central ring of the anthracene system in 19 is possible only because the 9,10 substituents prevent the system from being planar.[49] From 19 is the actual structure of the molecule and is not in resonance with forms like 20, although in anthracene itself, Dewar structures and structures like 20 both contribute. This is a consequence of rule 2 (p. 41). In order for a 20-like structure to contribute to resonance in 19, the nuclei would have to be in the same positions in both forms.



19 20

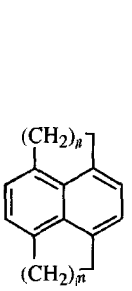
Even the benzene ring can be forced out of planarity.[50] In [5]paracyclophane[51] (21) the presence of a short bridge (this is the shortest para bridge known for a benzene ring) forces the benzene ring to become boat shaped. The parent 21 has so far not proven stable enough for isolation, but a UV spectrum was obtained and



21

showed that the benzene ring was still aromatic, despite the distorted ring.[52] The 8,11-dichloro analog of 21 is a stable solid, and X-ray diffraction showed that the

benzene ring is boat shaped, with one end of the boat bending ~27° out of the plane, and the other about 12°.[53] This compound too is aromatic, as shown by UV and NMR spectra. The [6]paracyclophanes are also bent,[54] but in [7]paracyclophanes the bridge is long enough so that the ring is only moderately distorted. Similarly, [*n,m*]paracyclophanes (22), where *n* and *m* are both 3 or less (the smallest yet prepared is [2.2]paracyclophane), have bent (boat-shaped) benzene rings. All these compounds have properties that depart significantly from those of ordinary benzene compounds. In "belt" cyclophane (23),[55] the molecule has a pyramidal structure with C_3 symmetry rather than the planar structure found in [18]annulene. 1,8-Dioxa[8]2,7-pyrenophane (24)[56] is another severely distorted aromatic hydrocarbon, in which the bridge undergoes rapid pseudorotation (p. 178).



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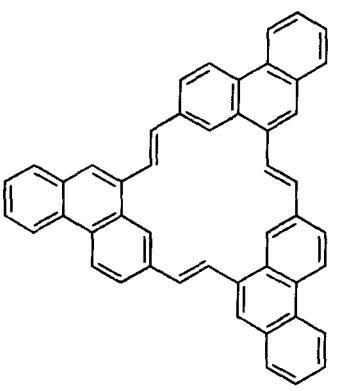

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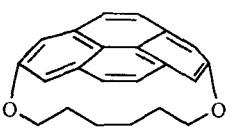
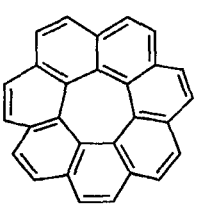


24

There are many examples of molecules in which benzene rings are forced out of planarity, including 7-circulene (**25**),[57] 9,8-diphenyltetrabenz[*a,c,h,j*]anthracene (26),[58] and 27[59] (see also p. 189). These are sometimes called tormented aromatic systems.[60] The "record" for twisting an aromatic *p*-electron system appears to be 9,10,11,12,13,14,15,16-octaphenyldibenzo[*a,c*]naphthacene (28),[61] which has an end-to-end twist of 105°. This is > 1.5 times as great as that observed in any previous polyaromatic hydrocarbon. Perchlorotriphenylene has been reported in the literature and said to show severe molecular twisting, however, recent work suggests this molecule has not actually been isolated with perchlorofluorene-9-spirocyclohexa-2′,5′-diene being formed instead.[62]



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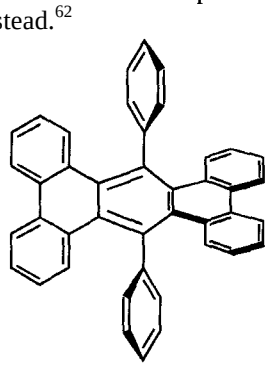

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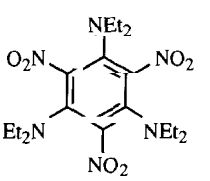
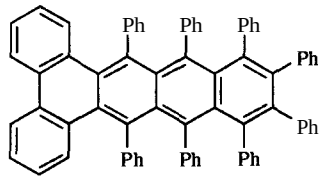


27

It is also possible to fuse strained rings on benzene, which induces great strain on the benzene ring. In 29, the benzene ring is compressed by the saturated environment of the tetrahydropyran units. In this case, the strain leads to distortion of the benzene ring in 29 into a *boat* conformation.[63] Benzocyclopropene (30) and benzocyclobutene (31) are also molecules where the small annellated ring induces great strain on the benzene ring. In these cases, bonds of annellation and those adjacent to it are strained. In 30, the annellated bond is always the shortest but in 31 the adjacent bond is the shortest.[64]



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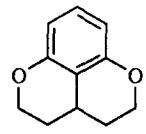

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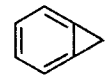

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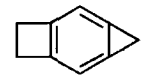
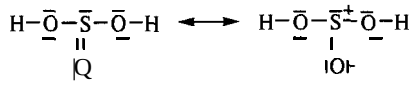


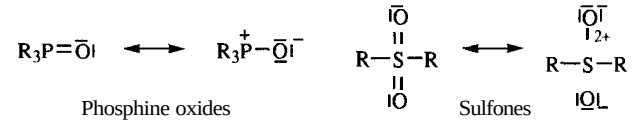
31

pn-dn Bonding: Ylids

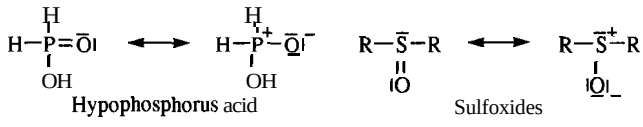
We have mentioned (p. 9) that, in general, atoms of the second row of the periodic table do not form stable double bonds of the type discussed in Chapter 1 (π bonds formed by overlap of parallel *p* orbitals). However, there is another type of double bond that is particularly common for the second-row atoms: sulfur and phosphorus. For example, such a double bond is found in the compound H_2SO_3, as written on the left. Like an ordinary double bond, this double bond contains one *s*



orbital, but the second orbital is not a *n* orbital formed by overlap of half-filled *p* orbitals; instead it is formed by overlap of a filled *p* orbital from the oxygen with an empty *d* orbital from the sulfur. It is called a *pπ–dπ orbital.*[65] Note that we can represent this molecule by two canonical forms but the bond is nevertheless localized, despite the resonance. Some other examples of *pn-dn* bonding are



Phosphine oxides Sulfones



Hypophosphorus acid Sulfoxides

Nitrogen analogs are known for some of these phosphorus compounds, but they are less stable because the resonance is lacking. For example, amine oxides, analogs of

phosphine oxides, can only be written $R_3\overset{+}{N}-\overset{-}{O}$. The *pn-dn* canonical form is impossible since nitrogen is limited to eight outer-shell electrons.

In all the examples given above, the atom that donates the electron pair is oxygen and, indeed, oxygen is the most common such atom. But in another important class of compounds, called ***ylids***, this atom is carbon.[66] There are three main types of ylids: phosphorus,[67] nitrogen,[68] and sulfur,[69] although arsenic,[70] selenium, and so on, ylids are also known. Ylids may be defined as compounds in which a positively charged atom from group 15 (VA) or 16 (VI A) of the periodic table is connected to a carbon atom carrying an unshared pair of electrons. Because *of pn-dn* bonding, two canonical forms can be written for phosphorus and sulfur, but there is only one for nitrogen ylids. Phosphorus ylids are much more stable than nitrogen ylids (see also p. XX). Sulfur ylids also have a low stability.

$$R_3P{=}CR_2 \longleftrightarrow R_3\overset{+}{P}-\overset{\ominus}{C}H_2 \qquad R_2S{=}CR_2 \longleftrightarrow R_2\overset{+}{S}-\overset{\ominus}{C}R_2 \qquad R_3\overset{+}{N}-\overset{\ominus}{C}R_2$$

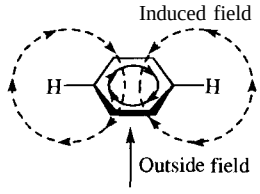
Phosphorus ylids Sulfur ylids Nitrogen ylids

In almost all compounds that have *pn-dn* bonds, the central atom is connected to four atoms or three atoms and an unshared pair and the bonding is approximately tetrahedral. The *pn-dn* bond, therefore, does not greatly change the geometry of the molecule in contrast to the normal *n* bond, which changes an atom from tetrahedral to trigonal. Calculations show that nonstabilized phosphonium ylids have nonplanar ylidic carbon geometries, whereas stabilized ylids have planar ylidic carbons.[71]

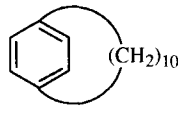
AROMATICITY

In the nineteenth century, it was recognized that aromatic compounds[72] differ greatly from unsaturated aliphatic compounds,[73] but for many years chemists were hard pressed to arrive at a mutually satisfactory definition of aromatic character.[74] Qualitatively, there has never been real disagreement. Definitions have taken the form that aromatic compounds are characterized by a special stability and that they undergo substitution reactions more easily than addition reactions. The difficulty arises because these definitions are vague and not easy to apply in borderline cases. In 1925, Armit and Robinson[75] recognized that the aromatic properties of the benzene ring are related to the presence of a closed loop of electrons, the *aromatic sextet* (aromatic compounds are thus the arch examples of delocalized bonding), but it still was not easy to determine whether rings other than the benzene ring possessed such a loop. With the advent of magnetic techniques, most notably NMR, it is possible to determine experimentally whether or not a compound has a closed ring of electrons; aromaticity can now be defined as the *ability to sustain an induced ring current. A* compound with this ability is called ***diatropic***. Although this definition also has its flaws,[76] it is the one most commonly accepted today. There are several methods of determining whether a compound can sustain a ring current, but the most important one is based on NMR chemical shifts.[77] In order to understand this, it is

necessary to remember that, as a general rule, the value of the chemical shift of a proton in an NMR spectrum depends on the electron density of its bond; the greater the



density of the electron cloud surrounding or partially surrounding a proton, the more upfield is its chemical shift (a lower value of 8). However, this rule has several exceptions; one is for protons in the vicinity of an aromatic ring. When an external magnetic field is imposed upon an aromatic ring (as in an NMR instrument), the closed loop of aromatic electrons circulates in a diamagnetic ring current, which sends out a field of its own. As can be seen in the diagram, this induced field curves around and in the area of the proton is parallel to the external field, so the field "seen" by the aromatic protons is greater than it would have been in the absence of the diamagnetic ring current. The protons are moved downfield (to higher 8) compared to where they would be if electron density were the only factor. Thus ordinary alkene hydrogens are found at ~5–6 8, while the hydrogen atoms of benzene rings are located at ~7–8 8. However, if there were protons located above or



32

within the ring, they would be subjected to a *decreased* field and should appear at lower 8 values than normal CH_2 groups (normal 8 for CH_2 is ~1–2). The NMR spectrum of [10]paracyclophane (32) showed that this was indeed the case[78] and that the CH_2 peaks were shifted to lower 8 the closer they were to the middle of the chain.

It follows that aromaticity can be determined from an NMR spectrum. If the protons attached to the ring are shifted downfield from the normal alkene region, we can conclude that the molecule is diatropic, and hence aromatic. In addition, if the compound has protons above or within the ring (we shall see an example of the latter on p. 69), then if the compound is diatropic, these will be shifted upfield. One drawback to this method is that it cannot be applied to compounds that have no protons in either category, for example, the dianion of squaric acid (p. 69). Unfortunately, ^{13}C NMR is of no help here, since these spectra do not show ring currents.[79]

There are at least four theoretical models for aromaticity, which have recently been compared and evaluated for predictive ability.[80] The *Hess-Schaad model*[81] is

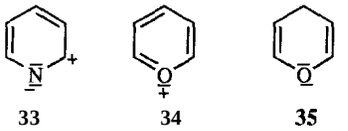
good for predicting aromatic stability of benzenoid hydrocarbons, but does not predict reactivity. The *Herndon model*[82] is also good for predicting aromatic stability, but is unreliable for benzenoidicity and does not predict reactivity. The *conjugated-circuit model*[83] is very good for predicting aromatic stability but not reactivity, and the *hardness model*[84] is best for predicting kinetic stability. Delocalization energy of *n* electrons has also been used as an index for aromaticity in polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons.[85] The claims for linear relationships between aromaticity and energetics, geometries, and magnetic criteria were said to be *invalid* for any representative set of heteroaromatics in which the number of heteroatoms varies.[86]

It should be emphasized that the old and new definitions of aromaticity are not necessarily parallel. If a compound is diatropic, and therefore aromatic under the new definition, it is more stable than the canonical form of lowest energy. This does not mean that it will be stable to air, light, or common reagents, since *this* stability is determined not by the resonance energy but by the difference in free energy between the molecule and the transition states for the reactions involved; and these differences may be quite small, even if the resonance energy is large. A unified theory has been developed that relates ring currents, resonance energies, and aromatic character.[87] It is noted that aromaticity varies in magnitude relatively and sometimes absolutely with the molecular environment, which includes the polarity of the medium.[88]

The vast majority of aromatic compounds have a closed loop of six electrons in a ring (the aromatic sextet), and we consider these compounds first.[89] It is noted that a "formula periodic table" for the benzenoid polyaromatic hydrocarbons has been developed.[90]

Six-Membered Rings

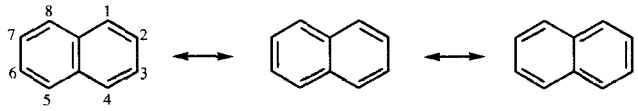
Not only is the benzene ring aromatic, but so are many heterocyclic analogs in which one or more hetero atoms replace carbon in the ring.[91] When nitrogen is the hetero atom, little difference is made in the sextet and the unshared pair of the nitrogen does not participate in the aromaticity. Therefore, derivatives such as N-oxides or pyridinium ions are still aromatic. However, for nitrogen heterocycles there are more significant canonical forms (e.g., 33) than for benzene. Where oxygen or sulfur is the hetero atom, it must be present in its ionic form (34) in order to possess the valence of 3 that participation in such a system demands. Thus, pyran (35) is not aromatic, but the pyrylium ion (33) is[92]



33 **34** **35**

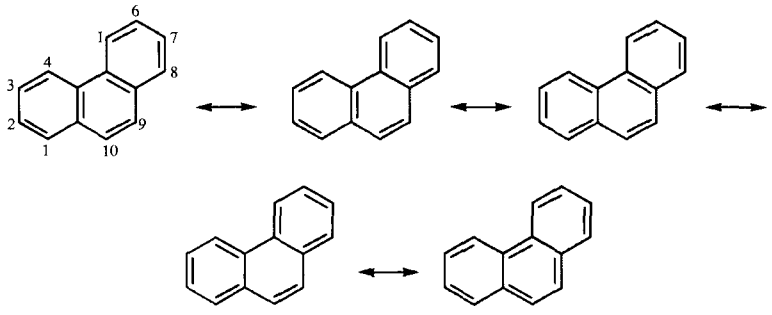
In systems of fused six-membered aromatic rings,[93] the principal canonical forms are usually not all equivalent. Structure 36 has a central double bond and is thus

different from the other two canonical forms of naphthalene, which are equivalent to each other.[94] For naphthalene, these are the only forms that can be drawn without



36

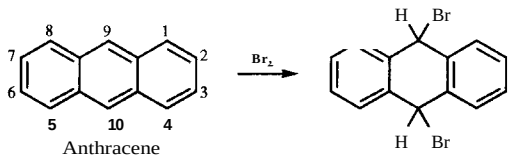
consideration of Dewar forms or those with charge separation.[95] If we assume that the three forms contribute equally, the 1,2 bond has more double-bond character than the 2,3 bond. Molecular orbital calculations show bond orders of 1.724 and 1.603, respectively (cf. benzene, 1.667). In agreement with these predictions, the 1,2 and 2,3 bond distances are 1.36 and 1.415 Å, respectively,[96] and ozone preferentially attacks the 1,2 bond.[97] This nonequivalency of bonds, *catted partial-bond fixation*,[96] is found in nearly all fused aromatic systems. In phenanthrene, where the 9,10 bond is a single bond in only one of five forms, bond fixation becomes extreme and this bond is readily attacked by many reagents.[99]



In general, there is a good correlation between bond distances in fused aromatic compounds and bond orders. Another experimental quantity that correlates well with the bond order of a given bond in an aromatic system is the NMR coupling constant for coupling between the hydrogens on the two carbons of the bond.[100]

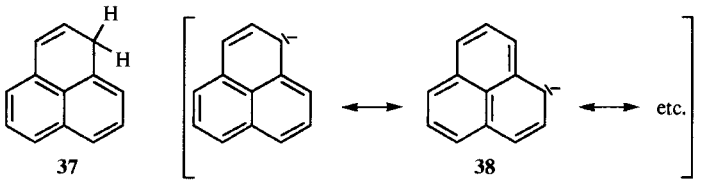
The resonance energies of fused systems increase as the number of principal canonical forms increases, as predicted by rule 6 (p. 41).[101] Thus, for benzene, naphthalene, anthracene, and phenanthrene, for which we can draw, respectively, two, three, four, and five principal canonical forms, the resonance energies are, respectively, 36, 61, 84, and 92 kcal mol^{-1} (152, 255, 351, and 385 kJ mol^{-1}), calculated from heat of combustion data.[102] Note that when phenanthrene, which has a total resonance energy of 92 kcal mol^{-1} (385 kJ mol^{-1}), loses the 9,10 bond by attack of a reagent such as ozone or bromine, two complete benzene rings remain, each with 36 kcal mol^{-1} (152 kJ mol^{-1}) that would be lost if benzene was similarly attacked. The fact that anthracene undergoes many reactions across the 9,10 positions can be explained in a similar manner. Resonance energies for fused

systems can be estimated by counting canonical forms.[103]



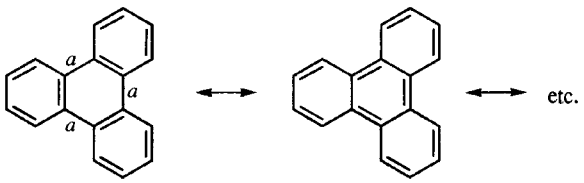
Anthracene

Not all fused systems can be fully aromatic. Thus for phenalene (37) there is no way double bonds can be distributed so that each carbon has one single and one double bond.[104] However, phenalene is acidic and reacts with potassium methoxide to give the corresponding anion (38), which is completely aromatic. So are the corresponding radical and cation, in which the resonance energies are the same (see p. 55).[105]



37 38

In a fused system, there are not six electrons for each ring.[106] In naphthalene, if one ring is to have six, the other must have only four. One way to explain the greater reactivity of the ring system of naphthalene compared with benzene is to regard one of the naphthalene rings as aromatic and the other as a butadiene system.[107] This effect can become extreme, as in the case of triphenylene.[108] For this compound, there are eight canonical forms like A, in which none of the three bonds marked *a* is a double bond and only one form (B) in which at least one of them is double. Thus the molecule behaves as if the 18 electrons were distributed so as to give each of the outer rings a sextet, while the middle ring is "empty". Since none of the outer rings need share any electrons with an adjacent ring, they are as stable as benzene;



A B

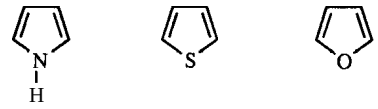
triphenylene, unlike most fused aromatic hydrocarbons, does not dissolve in concentrated sulfuric acid and has a low reactivity.[109] This phenomenon, whereby some rings in fused systems give up part of their aromaticity to adjacent rings, is called *annellation* and can be demonstrated by UV spectra[93] as well as reactivities.

In this book, we will use a circle to represent single aromatic rings (as, e.g., in 32), but will show one canonical form for fused ring compounds (e.g., 36). It would be

misleading to use two circles for naphthalene, for example, because that would imply 12 aromatic electrons, although naphthalene has only 10.[110]

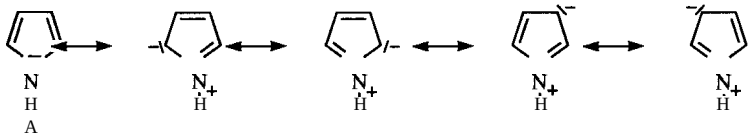
Five, Seven, and Eight-Membered Rings

Aromatic sextets can also be present in five- and seven-membered rings. If a five-membered ring has two double bonds and the fifth atom possesses an unshared pair of electrons, the ring has five *p* orbitals that can overlap to create five new orbitals—three bonding and two antibonding (Fig. 2.6). There are six electrons for these orbitals: the four *p* orbitals of the double bonds each contribute one and the filled orbital contributes the other two. The six electrons occupy the bonding orbitals and constitute an aromatic sextet. The heterocyclic compounds pyrrole, thiophene, and



Pyrrole Thiophene Furan

furan are the most important examples of this kind of aromaticity, although furan has a lower degree of aromaticity than the other two.[111] Resonance energies for these three compounds are, respectively, 21, 29, and 16kcal mol^{-1} (88, 121, and 67 kJ mol^{-1}).[112] The aromaticity can also be shown by canonical forms (e.g., for pyrrole):



A

In contrast to pyridine, the unshared pair in canonical structure A in pyrrole is needed for the aromatic sextet. This is why pyrrole is a much weaker base than pyridine.

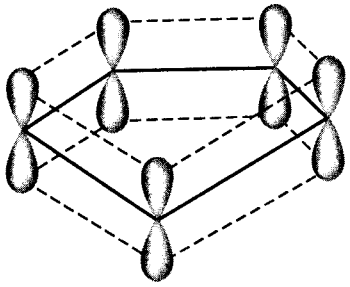
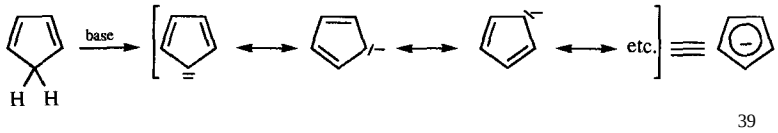


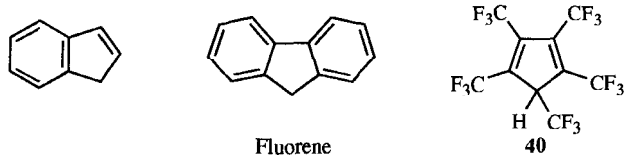
FIGURE 2.6 Overlap of five *p* orbitals in molecules such as pyrrole, thiophene, and the cyclopentadienide ion.

The fifth atom may be carbon if it has an unshared pair. Cyclopentadiene has unexpected acidic properties ($pK_a \approx 16$) since on loss of a proton, the resulting carbanion is greatly stabilized by resonance although it is quite reactive. The cyclopentadienide ion is usually represented as in 39. Resonance in this ion is greater than in pyrrole, thiophene, and furan, since all five forms are equivalent. The resonance energy for 39 has been estimated to be 24–27 kcal mol^{-1} (100–113 kJ



39

mol^{-1}).[113] That all five carbons are equivalent has been demonstrated by labeling the starting compound with ^{14}C and finding all positions equally labeled when cyclopentadiene was regenerated.[114] As expected for an aromatic system, the cyclopentadienide ion is diatropic[115] and aromatic substitutions on it have been

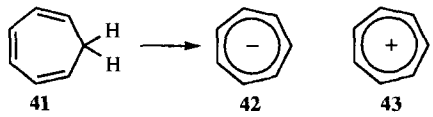


Fluorene

40

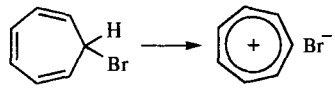
successfully carried out.[116] Average bond order has been proposed as a parameter to evaluate the aromaticity of these rings, but there is poor correlation with non-aromatic and antiaromatic systems.[117] A model that relies on calculating relative aromaticity from appropriate molecular fragments has also been developed.[118] Bird devised the aromatic index (I_A),[119] which is a statistical evaluation of the extent of ring bond order, and this has been used as a criterion of aromaticity. Absolute hardness (see p. 341), calculated from molecular refractions for a range of aromatic and heteroaromatic compounds, shows good linear correlation with aromaticity.[120] Indene and fluorene are also acidic ($pK_a \approx 20$ and 23, respectively) but less so than cyclopentadiene, since annellation causes the electrons to be less available to the five-membered ring. On the other hand, the acidity of l,2,3,4,5-pentakis(trifluoromethyl)cyclopentadiene (40) is greater than that of nitric acid,[121] because of the electron-withdrawing effects of the trifluoromethyl groups (see pp. 343-344).

In sharp contrast to cyclopentadiene is cycloheptatriene (41), which has no unusual acidity. This would be hard to explain without the aromatic sextet theory, since, on the basis of resonance forms or a simple consideration of orbital overlaps,



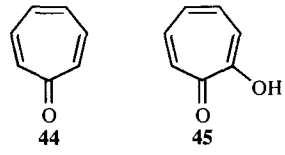
41 42 43

42 should be as stable as the cyclopentadienyl anion (39). While 42 has been prepared in solution,[122] it is less stable than 39 and far less stable than 43, in which 41 has lost not a proton but a hydride ion. The six double-bond electrons of the quite stable *tropylium ion* (**43**)[123] overlap with the empty orbital on the seventh carbon and there is a sextet of electrons covering seven carbon atoms. Tropylium bromide, which could be completely covalent if the electrons of the bromine were sufficiently attracted to the ring, is actually an ionic compound:[124] Many substituted tropylium ions have been prepared to probe the aromaticity, structure, and reactivity of such systems.[125]



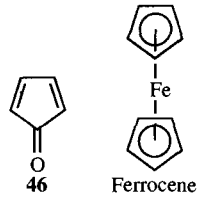
Just as with 39, the equivalence of the carbons in 43 has been demonstrated by isotopic labeling.[126]

Another seven-membered ring that shows some aromatic character is tropone (44). This molecule would have an aromatic sextet if the two C=O electrons stayed away from the ring and resided near the electronegative oxygen atom. In fact, tropones are stable compounds, and tropolones (45) are found in nature.[127] However, analyses of dipole moments, NMR spectra, and X-ray diffraction measurements show that tropones and tropolones display appreciable bond alternations.[128]



44 **45**

These molecules must be regarded as essentially nonaromatic, although with some aromatic character. Tropolones readily undergo aromatic substitution, emphasizing that the old and the new definitions of aromaticity are not always parallel. In sharp contrast to 44, cyclopentadienone (46) has been isolated only in an argon matrix below 38 K.[129] Above this temperature, it dimerizes. Many earlier attempts to prepare it were unsuccessful.[130] As in 44, the electronegative oxygen atom draws electron to itself, but in this case it leaves only four electrons and the molecule is unstable. Some derivatives of 46 have been prepared.[130]



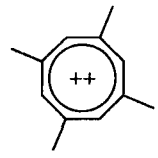
46 Ferrocene

Another type of five-membered aromatic compound is the *metallocenes* (also called *sandwich compounds),* in which two cyclopentadienide rings form a sandwich

around a metallic ion. The best known of these is ferrocene, although others have been prepared with Co, Ni, Cr, Ti, V, and many other metals.[131] Ferrocene is quite stable, subliming above 100°C and unchanged at 400°C. The two rings rotate freely.[132] Many aromatic substitutions have been carried out on metallocenes.[133] Metallocenes containing two metal atoms and three cyclopentadienyl rings have also been prepared and are known as *triple-decker sandwiches*.[134] Even tetradecker, pentadecker, and hexadecker sandwiches have been reported.[135]

The bonding in ferrocene may be looked upon in simplified MO terms as follows.[136] Each of the cyclopentadienide rings has five molecular orbitals—three filled bonding and two empty antibonding orbitals (p. 51). The outer shell of the Fe atom possesses nine atomic orbitals, that is, one *4s,* three *Ap,* and five *3d* orbitals. The six filled orbitals of the two cyclopentadienide rings overlap with the *s,* three *p,* and two of the *d* orbitals of the Fe to form 12 new orbitals, six of which are bonding. These six orbitals make up two ring-to-metal triple bonds. In addition, further bonding results from the overlap of the empty antibonding orbitals of the rings with additional filled *d* orbitals of the iron. All told, there are 18 electrons (10 of which may be considered to come from the rings and eight from iron in the zero oxidation state) in nine orbitals; six of these are strongly bonding and three weakly bonding or nonbonding.

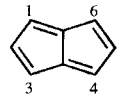
The tropylium ion has an aromatic sextet spread over seven carbon atoms. An analogous ion, with the sextet spread over eight carbon atoms, is 1,3,5,7-tetramethylcyclooctatetraene dication (47), which is stable in solution at — 50°C, is diatropic and approximately planar and is not stable above about —30°C.[137]



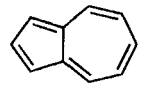
47

Other Systems Containing Aromatic Sextets

Simple resonance theory predicts that pentalene (48), azulene (49), and heptalene (50) should be aromatic, although no nonionic canonical form can have a double bond at the ring junction. Molecular orbital calculations show that azulene should be stable but not the other two, and this is borne out by experiment. Heptalene has been prepared[138] but reacts readily with oxygen, acids, and bromine, is easily hydrogenated, and polymerizes on standing. Analysis of its NMR spectrum shows that it is



48



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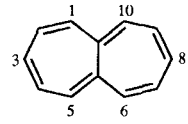


50

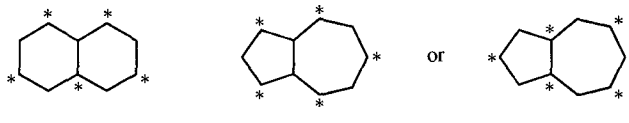
not planar.[139] The 3,8-dibromo and 3,8-dicarbomethoxy derivatives of 50 are stable in air at room temperature but are not diatropic.[140] A number of methylated heptalenes and dimethyl 1,2-heptalenedicarboxylates have also been prepared and are stable nonaromatic compounds.[141] Pentalene has not been prepared,[142] but the hexaphenyl[143] and 1,3,5-tri-*tert*-butyl derivatives[144] are known. The former is air sensitive in solution. The latter is stable, but X-ray diffraction and photoelectron spectral data show bond alternation.[145] Pentalene and its methyl and dimethyl derivatives have been formed in solution, but they dimerize before they can be isolated.[146] Many other attempts to prepare these two systems have failed.

51

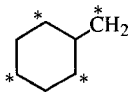
In sharp contrast to 48 and 50, azulene, a blue solid, is quite stable and many of its derivatives are known.[147] Azulene readily undergoes aromatic substitution. Azulene may be regarded as a combination of 39 and 43 and, indeed, possesses a dipole moment of 0.8 D.[148] Interestingly, if two electrons are added to pentalene, a stable dianion (51) results.[149] It can be concluded that an aromatic system of electrons will be spread over two rings only if 10 electrons (not 8 or 12) are available for aromaticity.

Alternant and Nonalternant Hydrocarbons

Aromatic hydrocarbons can be divided into two types: alternant and nonalternant.[150]. In alternant hydrocarbons, the conjugated carbon atoms can be divided into two sets such that no two atoms of the same set are directly linked. For convenience, one set may be starred. Naphthalene is an alternant and azulene a nonalternant hydrocarbon:



In alternant hydrocarbons, the bonding and antibonding orbitals occur in pairs; that is, for every bonding orbital with an energy $-E$ there is an antibonding one with energy $+E$ (Fig. 2.7[151]). Even-alternant hydrocarbons are those with an even number of conjugated atoms, that is, an equal number of starred and unstarred atoms. For these hydrocarbons, all the bonding orbitals are filled and the *n* electrons are uniformly spread over the unsaturated atoms.



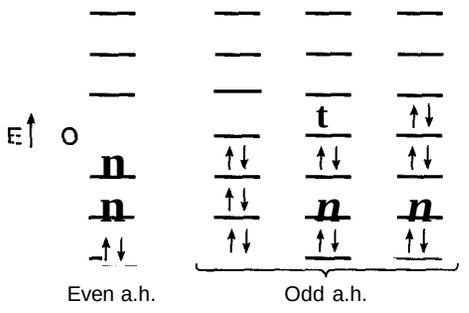


FIGURE 2.7 Energy levels in odd- and even-alternant hydrocarbons.[151] The arrows represent electrons. The orbitals are shown as having different energies, but some may be degenerate.

As with the allylic system, odd-alternant hydrocarbons (which must be carbocations, carbanions, or radicals) in addition to equal and opposite bonding and antibonding orbitals also have a nonbonding orbital of zero energy. When an odd number of orbitals overlap, an odd number is created. Since orbitals of alternant hydrocarbons occur in $-E$ and $+E$ pairs, one orbital can have no partner and must therefore have zero bonding energy. For example, in the benzylic system the cation has an unoccupied nonbonding orbital, the free radical has one electron there and the carbanion has two (Fig. 2.8). As with the allylic system, all three species have the same bonding energy. The charge distribution (or unpaired-electron distribution) over the entire molecule is also the same for the three species and can be calculated by a relatively simple process.[150]

For nonalternant hydrocarbons the energies of the bonding and antibonding orbitals are not equal and opposite and charge distributions are not the same in

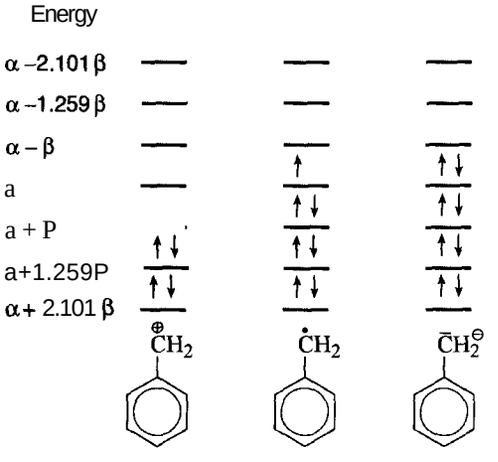
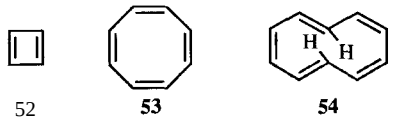


FIGURE 2.8 Energy levels for the benzyl cation, free radical, and carbanion. Since α is the energy of a *p* orbital (p. 35) the nonbonding orbital has no bonding energy.

cations, anions, and radicals. Calculations are much more difficult but have been carried out.[152]

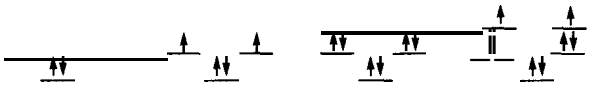
Aromatic Systems With Electron Numbers Other Than Six

Ever since the special stability of benzene was recognized, chemists have been thinking about homologous molecules and wondering whether this stability is also associated with rings that are similar but of different sizes, such as cyclobutadiene



52 **53** **54**

(52), cyclooctatetraene (53), cyclodecapentaene (54)[153], and so on. The general name *annulene* is given to these compounds, benzene being [6]annulene, and 52 to 54 being called, respectively, [4], [8], and [10]annulene. By a naive consideration of resonance forms, these annulenes and higher ones should be as aromatic as benzene. Yet, they proved remarkably elusive. The ubiquitous benzene ring is found in thousands of natural products, in coal and petroleum, and is formed by strong treatment of many noncyclic compounds. None of the other annulene ring systems has ever been found in nature and, except for cyclooctatetraene, their synthesis is not simple. Obviously, there is something special about the number six in a cyclic system of electrons.



Duet (aromatic) Quartet (diradical) Sextet (aromatic) Octet (diradical)

Hückel's rule, based on MO calculations,[154] predicts that electron rings will constitute an aromatic system only if the number of electrons in the ring is of the form $4n + 2$, where n is zero or any position integer. Systems that contain *4n* electrons are predicted to be nonaromatic. The rule predicts that rings of 2, 6, 10, 14, and so on, electrons will be aromatic, while rings of 4, 8, 12, and so on, will not be. This is actually a consequence of Hund's rule. The first pair of electrons in an annulene goes into the *n* orbital of lowest energy. After that the bonding orbitals are degenerate and occur in pairs of equal energy. When there is a total of four electrons, Hund's rule predicts that two will be in the lowest orbital but the other two will be unpaired, so that the system will exist as a diradical rather than as two pairs. The degeneracy can be removed if the molecule is distorted from maximum molecular symmetry to a structure of lesser symmetry. For example, if 52 assumes a rectangular rather than a square shape, one of the previously degenerate orbitals has a lower energy than the other and will be occupied by two electrons. In this case, of course, the double bonds are essentially separate and the molecule is still not

aromatic. Distortions of symmetry can also occur when one or more carbons are replaced by hetero atoms or in other ways.[155]

In the following sections, systems with various numbers of electrons are discussed. When we look for aromaticity we look for (1) the presence of a diamagnetic ring current; (2) equal or approximately equal bond distances, except when the symmetry of the system is disturbed by a hetero atom or in some other way; (3) planarity; (4) chemical stability; (5) the ability to undergo aromatic substitution.

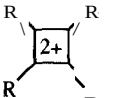
Systems of Two Electrons[156]

Obviously, there can be no ring of two carbon atoms though a double bond may be regarded as a degenerate case. However, in analogy to the tropylium ion, a three-membered ring with a double bond and a positive charge on the third atom (the *cyclopropenyl cation)* is a *An* + 2 system, and hence is expected to show aromaticity. The unsubstituted 55 has been prepared,[157] as well as several derivatives (e.g., the trichloro, diphenyl, and dipropyl derivatives), and these are stable despite the angles of only 60°. In fact, the tripropylcyclopropenyl,[158] tricyclopropylcyclopropenyl,[159]

55

chlorodipropylcyclopropenyl,[160] and chloro-*bis*-dialkylaminocyclopropenyl[161] cations are among the most stable carbocations known, being stable even in water solution. The tri-*tert*-butylcyclopropenyl cation is also very stable.[162] In addition, cyclopropenone and several of its derivatives are stable compounds,[163] in accord

Cyclopropenone



56 R

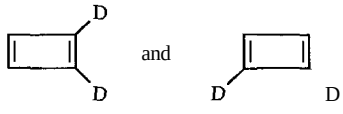
with the corresponding stability of the tropones.[164] The ring system (55) is nonalternant and the corresponding radical and anion (which do not have an aromatic duet) have electrons in antibonding orbitals, so that their energies are much higher. As with 39 and 43, the equivalence of the three carbon atoms in the triphenylcyclopropenyl cation has been demonstrated by ^{14}C labeling experiments.[165] The interesting dications (56, where (R = Me or Ph) have been prepared,[166] and they too should represent aromatic systems of two electrons.[167]

Systems of Four Electrons: Antiaromaticity

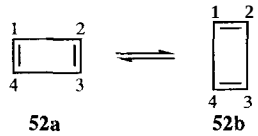
The most obvious compound in which to look for a closed loop of four electrons is cyclobutadiene (**52**).[168] Hückel's rule predicts no aromatic character here, since 4 is not a number of the form *An + 2.* There is a long history of attempts to prepare this

compound and its simple derivatives, and, as we shall see, the evidence fully bears out Hiickel's prediction. Cyclobutadienes display none of the characteristics that would lead us to call them aromatic. More surprisingly, there is evidence that a closed loop of four electrons is actually antiaromatic.[169] If such compounds simply lacked aromaticity, we would expect them to be about as stable as similar nonaromatic compounds, but both theory and experiment show that they are *much less stable*.[170] An antiaromatic compound may be defined as a compound that is destabilized by a closed loop of electrons.

After years of attempts to prepare cyclobutadiene, the goal was finally reached by Pettit and co-workers.[171] It is now clear that 52 and its simple derivatives are extremely unstable compounds with very short lifetimes (they dimerize by a Diels–Alder reaction; see **15-58)** unless they are stabilized in some fashion, either at ordinary temperatures embedded in the cavity of a hemicarcerand[172] (see the structure of a carcerand, 38, on p. 111), or in matrices at very low temperatures (generally under 35 K). In either of these cases, the cyclobutadiene molecules are forced to remain apart from each other, and other molecules cannot get in. The structures of 52 and some of its derivatives have been studied a number of times using the low-temperature matrix technique.[173] The ground-state structure of **52** is a rectangular diene (not a diradical) as shown by the IR spectra of 52 and deuterated 52 trapped in matrices,[174] as well as by a photoelectron spectrum.[175] Molecular ortbital calculations agree.[176] The same conclusion was also reached in an elegant experiment in which 1,2-dideuterocyclobutadiene was generated. If 52 is a rectangular diene, the dideutero compound should exist as two isomers:

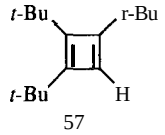


The compound was generated (as an intermediate that was not isolated) and two isomers were indeed found.[177] The cyclobutadiene molecule is not static, even in the matrices. There are two forms **(52a** and **52b)** that rapidly interconvert.[178]



52a **52b**

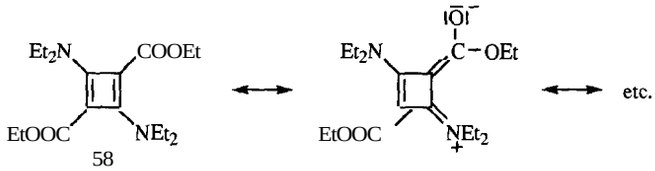
There are some simple cyclobutadienes that are stable at room temperature for varying periods of time. These either have bulky substituents or carry certain other stabilizing substituents such as seen in tri-*tert*-butylcyclobutadiene (**57**).[179] Such



57

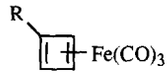
compounds are relatively stable because dimerization is sterically hindered. Examination of the NMR spectrum of 57 showed that the ring proton ($\delta = 5.38$) was shifted *upfield*, compared with the position expected for a nonaromatic proton (e.g., cyclopentadiene). As we shall see on page 68, this indicates that the compound is antiaromatic.

The other type of stable cyclobutadiene has two electron-donating and two electron-withdrawing groups,[180] and is stable in the absence of water.[181] An example is 58. The stability of these compounds is generally attributed to the resonance shown, a type of resonance stabilization called the *push-pull or captodative effect*,[182] although it has been concluded from a photoelectron spectroscopy study that second-order bond fixation is more important.[183] An X-ray crystallographic study of 58 has shown[184] the ring to be a distorted square with bond lengths of 1.46 Å and angles of 87° and 93°.

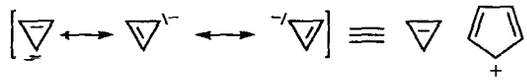


58

It is clear that simple cyclobutadienes, which could easily adopt a square planar shape if that would result in aromatic stabilization, do not in fact do so and are not aromatic. The high reactivity of these compounds is not caused merely by steric strain, since the strain should be no greater than that of simple cyclopropenes, which are known compounds. It is probably caused by antiaromaticity.[185]



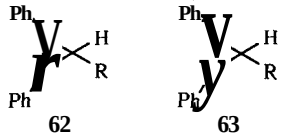
The unfused cyclobutadiene system is stable in complexes with metals[186] (see Chapter 3), but in these cases electron density is withdrawn from the ring by the metal and there is no aromatic quartet. In fact, these cyclobutadiene–metal complexes can be looked upon as systems containing an aromatic duet. The ring is square planar,[187] the compounds undergo aromatic substitution,[188] and NMR spectra of monosubstituted derivatives show that the C-2 and C-4 protons are equivalent.[188]



61 59 60

Two other systems that have been studied as possible aromatic or antiaromatic four-electron systems are the cyclopropenyl anion (59) and the cyclopentadienyl cation (60).[189] In these cases also the evidence supports, antiaromaticity, not aromaticity. With respect to 59, HMO theory predicts that an unconjugated 61 (i.e., a single canonical form) is more stable than a conjugated 59,[190] so that 61 would

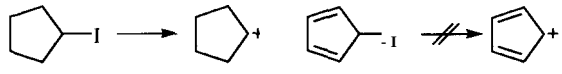
actually lose stability by forming a closed loop of four electrons. The HMO theory is supported by experiment. Among other evidence, it has been shown that 62



62 63

(R = COPh) loses its proton in hydrogen-exchange reactions ~6000 times more slowly than 63 (R = COPh).[191] Where R = CN, the ratio is ~10,000.[192] This indicates that 62 are much more reluctant to form carbanions (which would have to be cyclopropenyl carbanions) than 63, which form ordinary carbanions. Thus the carbanions of 62 are less stable than corresponding ordinary carbanions. Although derivatives of cyclopropenyl anion have been prepared as fleeting intermediates (as in the exchange reactions mentioned above), all attempts to prepare the ion or any of its derivatives as relatively stable species have so far met with failure.[193]

In the case of 60, the ion has been prepared and has been shown to be a diradical in the ground state,[194] as predicted by the discussion on page 58.[195] Evidence that 60 is not only nonaromatic but also antiaromatic comes from studies on 64 and 66.[196] When 64 is treated with silver perchlorate in propionic acid, the molecule is rapidly solvolyzed (a reaction in which the intermediate 65 is formed; see Chapter 5). Under the same conditions, 66 undergoes no solvolysis at all; that is, 60 does not form. If 60 were merely nonaromatic, it should be about as stable as 65 (which of course has no resonance stabilization at all). The fact that it is so much more reluctant to form indicates that 60 is much less stable than 65. It is noted that under certain conditions, 65 can be generated solvolytically.[197]



64 65 66 60

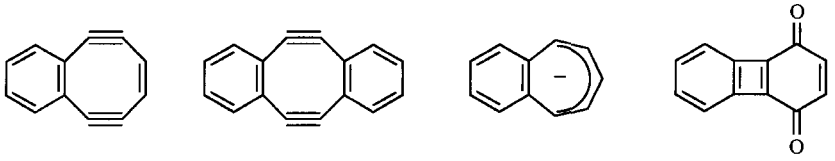
It is strong evidence for Hückel's rule that 59 and 60 are not aromatic while the cyclopropenyl cation (55) and the cyclopentadienyl anion (39) are, since simple resonance theory predicts no difference between 59 and 55 or 60 and 39 (the same number of equivalent canonical forms can be drawn for 59 as for 55 and for 60 as for 39).

In compounds in which overlapping parallel *p* orbitals form a closed loop of *An* + 2 electrons, the molecule is stabilized by resonance and the ring is aromatic. But the evidence given above (and additional evidence discussed below) indicates that when the closed loop contains *An* electrons, the molecule is *destabilized* by resonance. In summary, 52, 59, and 60 and their simple derivatives are certainly not aromatic and are very likely antiaromatic.

53

Systems of Eight Electrons

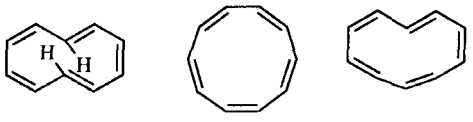
Cyclooctatetraene (53)[198] is not planar but tub shaped.[199] Therefore we would expect that it is neither aromatic nor antiaromatic, since both these conditions require overlap of parallel *p* orbitals. The reason for the lack of planarity is that a regular octagon has angles of 135°, while sp^2 angles are most stable at 120°. To avoid the strain, the molecule assumes a nonplanar shape, in which orbital overlap is greatly diminished.[200] Single- and double-bond distances in 53 are, respectively, 1.46 and 1.33 Å, which is expected for a compound made up of four individual double bonds.[199] The reactivity is also what would be expected for a linear polyene. However, the cyclooctadiendiynes 67 and 68 are planar conjugated eight-electron systems (the four extra triple-bond electrons do not participate), which NMR evidence show to be antiaromatic.[201] There is evidence that part of the reason for the lack of planarity in 53 itself is that a planar molecular would have to be antiaromatic.[202] The cycloheptatrienyl anion (42) also has eight electrons but does not behave like an aromatic system.[121] The bond lengths for a series of molecules containing the cycloheptatrienide anion have recently been published.[203] The NMR spectrum of the benzocycloheptatrienyl anion (69) shows that, like 57, 67, and 68, this compound is antiaromatic.[204] A new antiaromatic compound 1,4-biphenylene quinone (70) was prepared, but it rapidly dimerizes due to instability.[205]



67 68 69 70

Systems of Ten Electrons[206]

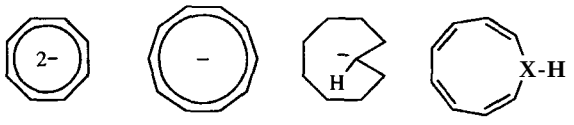
There are three geometrically possible isomers of [10]annulene: the all-cis (71), the mono-trans (72), and the cis-trans-cis-cis-trans (54). If Hückel's rule applies, they should be planar. But it is far from obvious that the molecules would adopt a planar



54 71 72

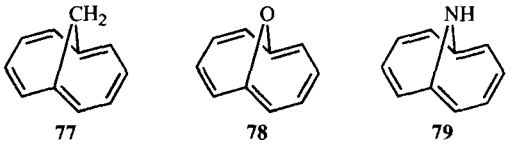
shape, since they must overcome considerable strain to do so. For a regular decagon (71) the angles would have to be 144°, considerably larger than the 120° required for sp^2 angles. Some of this strain would also be present in 72 but this kind of strain is eliminated in 54 since all the angles are 120°. However, it was pointed out by

Mislow[207] that the hydrogens in the 1 and 6 positions should interfere with each other and force the molecule out of planarity.



73 74 **75** 76

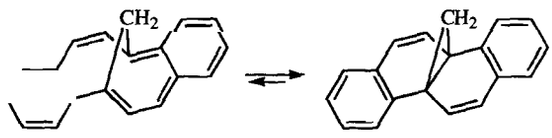
Compounds 71 and 72 have been prepared[208] as crystalline solids at -80°C. The NMR spectra show that all the hydrogens lie in the alkene region and it was concluded that neither compound is aromatic. Recent calculations on 72 suggest that it may indeed be aromatic, although the other isomers are not.[209] From ^{13}C and proton NMR (^{1}H NMR) spectra it has been deduced that neither is planar. However, that the angle strain is not insurmountable has been demonstrated by the preparation of several compounds that have large angles but that are definitely planar 10-electron aromatic systems. Among these are the dianion 73, the anions 74 and 75, and the azonine 76.[210] compound 73[211] has angles of ~135°, while 74[212] and 75[213] have angles of ~140°, which are not very far from 144°. The inner proton in 75,[214] which is the mono-trans isomer of the all-cis (74) is found far upfield in the NMR (— 3.5 §). For 71 and 72, the cost in strain energy to achieve planarity apparently outweighs the extra stability that would come from an aromatic ring. To emphasize the delicate balance between these factors, we may mention that the oxygen analog of 76 (X = O, oxonin) and the N-carbethoxy derivative of 76 (X = CH) are nonaromatic and nonplanar, while 76 (X=N) is aromatic and planar.[125]



77 **78** **79**

So far, 54 has not been prepared despite many attempts. However, there are various ways of avoiding the interference between the two inner protons. The approach that has been most successful involves bridging the 1 and 6 positions.[216] Thus, 1,6-methano[10]annulene (77)[217] and its oxygen and nitrogen analogs 78[218] and 79[219] have been prepared and are stable compounds that undergo aromatic substitution and are diatropic.[220] For example, the perimeter protons of 77 are found at 6.9-7.3 §, while the bridge protons are at -0.5 8. The crystal structure of 77 shows that the perimeter is nonplanar, but the bond distances are in the range 1.37—1.42 Å.[221] It has therefore been amply demonstrated that a closed loop of 10 electrons is an aromatic system, although some molecules that could conceivably have such a system are too distorted from planarity to be aromatic. A small distortion from planarity (as in 77) does not prevent aromaticity, at least in part because the *s* orbitals so distort themselves as to maximize the favorable (parallel) overlap of *p*

orbitals to form the aromatic 10-electron loop.[222]

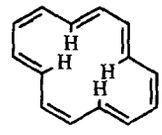


80 81

In 80, where 77 is fused to two benzene rings in such a way that no canonical form can be written in which both benzene rings have six electrons, the aromaticity is reduced by annellation, as shown by the fact that the molecule rapidly converts to the more stable 81, in which both benzene rings can be fully aromatic[223] (this is similar to the cycloheptatriene-norcaradiene conversions discussed on p. 1448).

Systems of More Than Ten Electrons: 4n+2 Electrons[224]

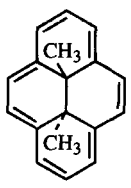
Extrapolating from the discussion of [10]annulene, we expect larger $4n+2$ systems to be aromatic if they are planar. Mislow[207] predicted that [14]annulene (82) would possess the same type of interference as 54, although in lesser degree. This is borne



82

out by experiment. Compound 82 is aromatic (it is diatropic; inner protons at 0.00 §, outer protons at 7.6 §),[225] but is completely destroyed by light and air in 1 day. X-ray analysis shows that although there are no alternating single and double bonds, the molecule is not planar.[226] However, a number of stable bridged [14]annulenes have been prepared,[227] for example, *trans*-15,16-dimethyldihydropyrene (83),[228] *syn*-1,6:8,13-diimino[14]annulene (84),[229] and *syn*- and *anti*-1,6:8,13-bismethano[14]annulene (85 and 86).[230] The dihydropyrene (83, and its diethyl and dipropyl homologs) is undoubtedly aromatic: the *n* perimeter is approximately planar,[231] the bond distances are all 1.39-1.40 Å, and the molecule undergoes aromatic substitution[228] and is diatropic.[232] The outer protons are found at 8.14-8.67 δ, while the CH_3 protons are at —4.25 8. Compounds 84 and 85 are also diatropic,[233] although X-ray crystallography indicates that the *n* periphery in at least 84 is not quite planar.[234] However, 86, in which the geometry of the molecule greatly reduces the overlap of the *p* orbitals at the bridgehead positions with adjacent *p* orbitals, is definitely not aromatic,[235] as shown by NMR spectra[230] and X-ray crystallography, from which bond distances of 1.33-1.36 Å for the double bonds and 1.44–1.49 Å for the single bonds have been obtained.[236] In contrast, all the bond distances in 84

are ≈1.38–1.40 Å.[234]



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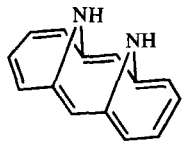

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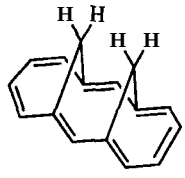

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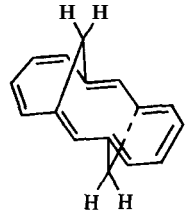
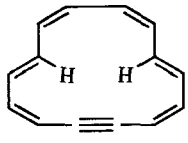


86

Another way of eliminating the hydrogen interferences of [14]annulene is to introduce one or more triple bonds into the system, as in dehydro[14]annulene (87).[237] All five known dehydro[14]annulenes are diatropic. Compound 79 can be nitrated or sulfonated.[238] The extra electrons of the triple bond do not form part of the aromatic system but simply exist as a localized bond. The [18]annulene (88)



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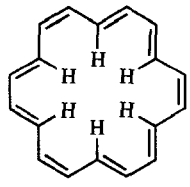
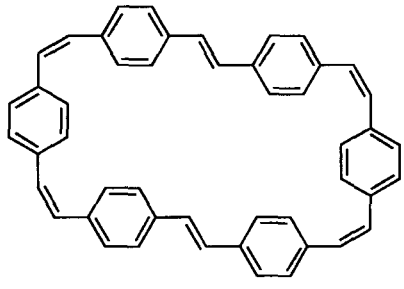


88

is diatropic:[239] the 12 outer protons are found at ~§ = 9 and the 6 inner protons at about §=—3. X-ray crystallography[240] shows that it is nearly planar, so that interference of the inner hydrogens is not important in annulenes this large. Compound 88 is reasonably stable, being distillable at reduced pressures, and undergoes aromatic substitutions.[241] The C—C bond distances are not equal, but they do not alternate. There are 12 inner bonds of ~1.38 Å and 6 outer bonds of ~1.42 Å.[240] Compound 88 has been estimated to have a resonance energy of ~37 kcal mol^{-1} (155 kJ mol^{-1}), similar to that of benzene.[242]

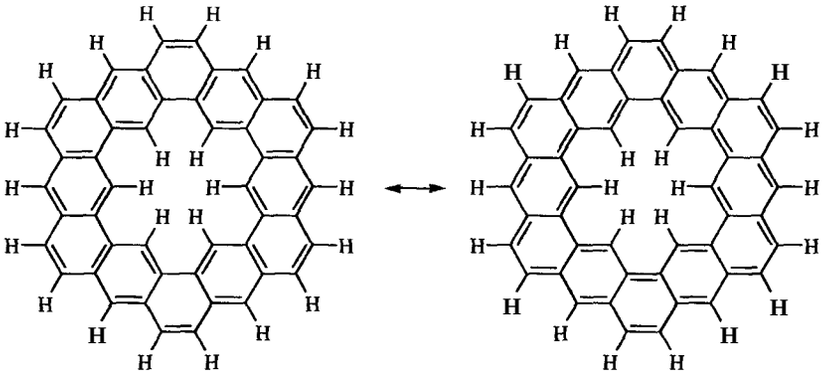


89

The known bridged [18]annulenes are also diatropic[243] as are most of the known dehydro[18]annulenes.[244] The dianions of open and bridged [16]annulenes[245] are also 18-electron aromatic systems,[246] and there are dibenzo[18]annulenes.[247]

[22]Annulene[248] and dehydro[22]annulene[249] are also diatropic. A dehydrobenzo[22]annulene has been prepared that has eight C≡C units, is planar and possesses a weak induced ring current.[250] In the latter compound there are 13 outer protons at 6.25-8.45 δ and 7 inner protons at 0.70–3.45 δ. Some aromatic bridged [22]annulenes are also known.[251] The [26]annulene has not yet been prepared, but several dehydro[26]annulenes are aromatic.[252] Furthermore, the dianion of 1,3,7,9,13,15, 19,21-octadehydro[24]annulene is another 26-electron system that is aromatic.[253] Ojima and co-workers[254] prepared bridged dehydro derivatives of [26], [30], and [34]annulenes. All of these are diatropic. The same workers prepared a bridged tetradehydro[38]annulene,[254] which showed no ring current. On the other hand, the dianion of the cyclophane 89 also has 38 perimeter electrons, and this species is diatropic.[255]

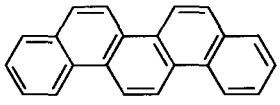
There is now no doubt that 4n + 2 systems are aromatic if they can be planar, although 71 and 86 among others, demonstrate that not all such systems are in fact planar enough for aromaticity. The cases of 82 and 84 prove that absolute planarity is not required for aromaticity, but that aromaticity decreases with decreasing planarity.



90a **90b**

The proton NMR (^{1}H NMR) spectrum of **90** (called kekulene) showed that in a case where electrons can form either aromatic sextets or larger systems, the sextets are preferred.[256] There was initial speculation that kekulene might be *superaromatic*, that is, it would show enhanced aromatic stabilization. Recent calculations suggest that there is no enhanced stabilization.[257] The 48 *n* electrons of **90** might, in theory, prefer structure **90a,** where each ring is a fused benzene ring, or **90b,** which has a [30]annulene on the outside and an [18]annulene on the inside. The ^{1}H NMR spectrum of this compound shows three peaks at δ=7.94, 8.37, and 10.45 in a ratio of 2:1:1. It is seen from the structure that **90** contains three groups of protons. The peak at 7.94 δ is attributed to the 12 ortho protons and the peak at 8.37 δ to the 6 external para protons. The remaining peak comes from the 6 inner protons. If the molecule preferred **90b,** we would expect to find this peak upfield, probably with a negative δ, as in the case of 88. The fact that this peak is far downfield indicates that the electrons prefer to be in benzenoid rings. Note that in the case of the dianion of

89, we have the opposite situation. In this ion, the 38-electron system is preferred even though 24 of these must come from the six benzene rings, which therefore cannot have aromatic sextets.



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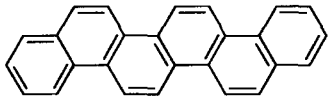

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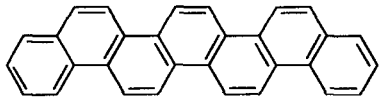
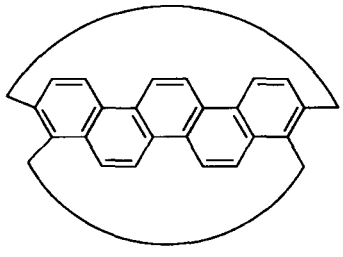


93

Phenacenes are a family of "graphite ribbons", where benzene rings are fused together in an alternating pattern. Phenanthrene is the simplest member of this family and other members include the 22-electron system picene (91), the 26-electron system fulminene (92), and the larger member of this family, the 30-electron [7]phenancene, with seven rings (93).[258]

A super ring molecule is formed by rolling a polyacene molecule into one ring with one edge benzene ring folding into the other. These are called cyclopolyacenes or cyclacenes.[259] Although the *zigzag* cyclohexacenes (94) are highly aromatic (this example is a 22-electron system), the linear cyclohexacenes (such as the 24-electron 95) are much less aromatic.[260]



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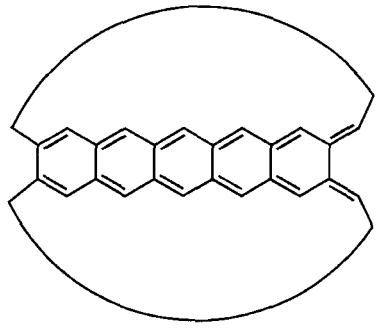
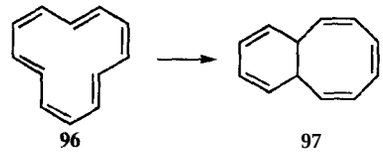


95

Systems of More Than Ten Electrons: 4n Electrons[224]

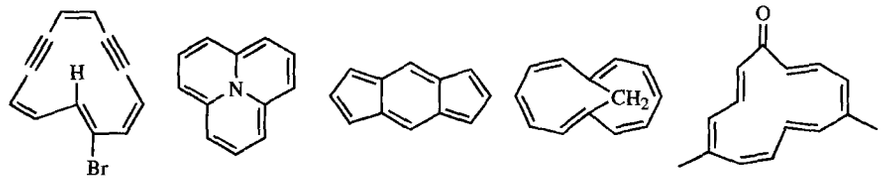
As we have seen (p. 59), these systems are expected to be not only nonaromatic but actually antiaromatic. The chief criterion for antiaromaticity in annulenes is the presence of a *paramagnetic* ring current,[261] which causes protons on the outside of the ring to be shifted *upfield* while any inner protons are shifted *downfield*, in sharp

contrast to a diamagnetic ring current, which causes shifts in the opposite directions. Compounds that sustain a paramagnetic ring current are called *paratropic;* we have already seen such behavior in certain 4- and 8-electron systems. As with aromaticity, we expect that antiaromaticity will be at a maximum when the molecule is planar and when bond distances are equal.



96 **97**

The [12]annulene (96) has been prepared.[262] In solution this molecule exhibits rapid conformational mobility (as do many other annulenes),[263] so that above a certain temperature, in this case - 150°C, all protons are magnetically equivalent. However, at — 170°C the mobility is greatly slowed and the three inner protons are found at ~8 δ while the nine outer protons are at ~6 δ. Annulene 96 suffers from hydrogen interference and is certainly not planar. It is very unstable and above — 50°C rearranges to 97. Several bridged and dehydro[12]annulenes are known,

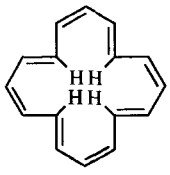


98 **99** **100** **101** **102**

for example, 5-bromo-1,9-didehydro[12]annulene (98),[264] cyclo[3.3.3]azine (99),[265] *s*-indacene (**100**),[266] and 1,7-methano[12]annulene (**101**).[267] The *s*-indacene is a planar, conjugated system perturbed by two cross-links, and studies shown that the low-energy structure has *localized* double bonds. In these compounds, both hydrogen interference and conformational mobility are prevented. In 99, **100,** and **101,** the bridge prevents conformational changes, while in 98 the bromine atom is too large to be found inside the ring. The NMR spectra show that all four compounds are paratropic, the inner proton of 98 being found at 16.4 δ. The dication of 85[268] and the dianion of 77[269] are also 12-electron paratropic species. An interesting 12-electron [13]annulenone has recently been reported. 5,10-Dimethyl[13]annulenone **(102)** is the first monocyclic annulene larger than tropane.[270]

The results for [16]annulene are similar. The compound was synthesized in two different ways[271], both of which gave **103,** which in solution is in equilibrium with **104.** Above −50°C there is conformational mobility, resulting in the magnetic equivalence of all protons, but at −130°C the compound is clearly paratropic: there are 4 protons at 10.56 δ and 12 at 5.35 5. In the solid state, where the compound exists entirely as **103,** X-ray crystallography[272] shows that the molecules are nonplanar with almost complete bond alternation: The single bonds are 1.44-1.47 Å and the double bonds are 1.31–1.35 Å. A number of dehydro and bridged

[16]annulenes are also paratropic,[273] as are [20]annulene,[274] and [24]annulene.[275] However, a bridged tetradehydro[32]annulene was atropic.[254]



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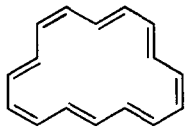

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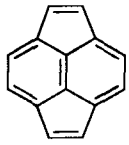

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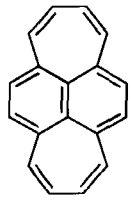


106

Both peracyclene (105),[276] which because of strain is stable only in solution, and dipleiadiene (106)[277] are paratropic, as shown by NMR spectra. These molecules might have been expected to behave like naphthalenes with outer bridges, but instead, the outer *n* frameworks (12 and 16 electrons, respectively) constitute antiaromatic systems with an extra central double bond.

The fact that many *An* systems are paratropic even though they may be nonplanar and have unequal bond distances indicates that if planarity were enforced, the ring currents might be even greater. That this is true is dramatically illustrated by the NMR spectrum of the dianion of 83[278] (and its diethyl and dipropyl homologs).[279] We may recall that in 83, the outer protons were found at 8.14–8.67 δ with the methyl protons at —4.25 δ. For the dianion, however, which is forced to have approximately the same planar geometry but now has 16 electrons, the outer protons are shifted to about — 3 5 while the methyl protons are found at ~21 5, a shift of ~25 δ! We have already seen where the converse shift was made, when [16]annulenes that were antiaromatic were converted to 18-electron dianions that were aromatic.[211] In these cases, the changes in NMR chemical shifts were almost as dramatic. Heat of combustion measurements also show that [16]annulene is much less stable than its dianion.[280]

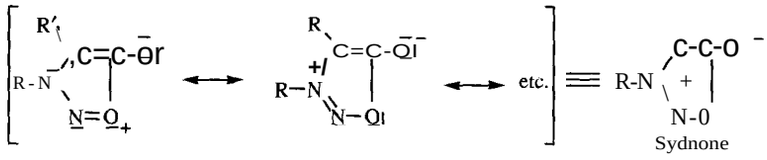
We can therefore conclude that in *An* systems antiaromaticity will be at a maximum where a molecule is constrained to be planar (as in 59 or the dianion of 83) but, where possible, the molecule will distort itself from planarity and avoid equal bond distances in order to reduce antiaromaticity. In some cases, such as cyclooctatraene, the distortion and bond alternation are great enough for antiaromaticity to be completely avoided. In other cases (e.g., 96 or **103),** it is apparently not possible for the molecules to avoid at least some *p*-orbital overlap. Such molecules show paramagnetic ring currents and other evidence of antiaromaticity, although the degree of is not as great as in molecules such as 59 or the dianion of 83.

Other Aromatic Compounds

We shall briefly mention three other types of aromatic compounds.

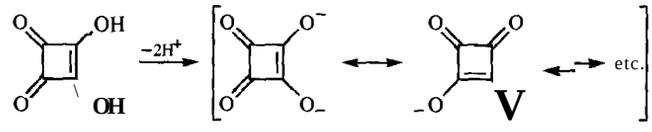
1. *Mesoionic Compounds.*[281] These compounds cannot be satisfactorily represented by Lewis structures not involving charge separation. Most of them

contain five-membered rings. The most common are the *sydnones*, stable aromatic compounds that undergo aromatic substitution when R' is hydrogen.

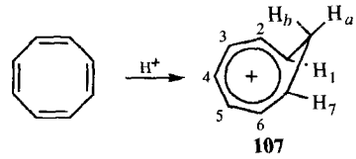


Sydnone

2. *The Dianion of Squaric Acid.*[282] The stability of this system is illustrated by the fact that the pK_1 of squaric acid[283] is ~ 1.5 and the pK_2 is ~3.5,[284] which means that even the second proton is given up much more readily than the proton of acetic acid, for example.[285] The analogous three-,[286] five-, and six-membered ring compounds are also known.[287]



3. *Homoaromatic Compounds.* When cyclooctatetraene is dissolved in concentrated H_2SO_4, a proton adds to one of the double bonds to form the homotropylium ion (**107**).[288] In this species an aromatic sextet is spread over seven carbons, as in the tropylium ion. The eighth carbon is an sp^3 carbon and so cannot take part in the aromaticity. The NMR spectra show the presence of a diatropic ring current: H_b is found at 8 = —0.3; H_a at 5.1 §; H_1 and H_7 at 6.4 §; H_2—H_6 at 8.5 8. This ion is an example of a *homoaromatic* compound, which may be defined as a compound that contains one or more[289] sp^3-hybridized carbon atoms in an otherwise conjugated cycle.[290]

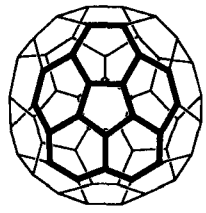


107

In order for the orbitals to overlap most effectively so as to close a loop, the sp^3 atoms are forced to lie almost vertically above the plane of the aromatic atoms.[291] In 107, H_b is directly above the aromatic sextet and so is shifted far upfield in the NMR. All homoaromatic compounds so far discovered are ions, and it is questionable[292] as to whether homoaromatic character can exist in uncharged systems.[293] Homoaromatic ions of 2 and 10 electrons are also known.

4. *Fullerenes.* Fullerenes are a family of aromatic hydrocarbons, based on the parent buckminsterfullerene (108; C_{60}),[294] that have a variety of very interesting properties.[295] Molecular orbital calculations shown that "fullerene aromaticity lies within 2 kcal mol^{-1} per carbon of a hypothetical ball of

rolled up graphite.[296] Another class of polynuclear aromatic hydrocarbons are the *buckyballs*, which are essentially fragments of **108.** Corannulene (109),[297] (also called 5-circulene), for example, is the simplest curved-surface hydrocarbon possessing a carbon framework that can be identified with the buckminsterfullerene surface. It has been synthesized by Scott,[293] and several other groups.[298] Corannulene is a flexible molecule, with a bowl-to-bowl inversion barrier of ~ 10–11 kcal mol^{-1}.[299] Other semibuckminsterfullerenes include C_{2v}-$C_{30}H_{12}$ and C_3-$C_{30}H_{12}$.[297] Larger fullerenes include C_{60} and C^{80} and fullerenes are known that contain an endohedral metal such as scandium or even Sc_3N.[300]



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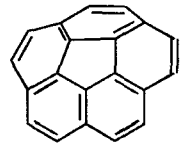
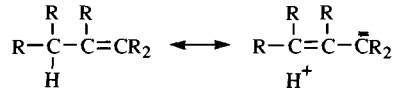


109

HYPERCONJUGATION

All of the delocalization discussed so far involves π electrons. Another type, called *hyperconjugation*, involves a electrons.[301] When a carbon attached to at least one hydrogen is attached to an unsaturated atom or one with an unshared orbital, canonical forms such as **110** can be drawn. In such canonical forms, there is no bond at all between the carbon and hydrogen. The effect of **110** on the actual molecule is that the electrons in the C–H bond are closer to the carbon than they would be if **110** did not contribute at all.

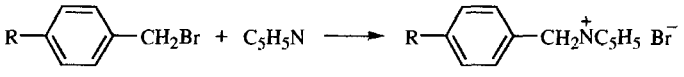


110

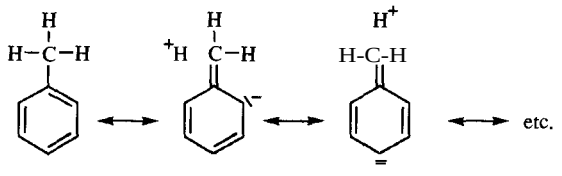
Hyperconjugation in the above case may be regarded as an overlap of the a orbital of the C–H bond and the *n* orbital of the C–C bond, analogous to the π–π orbital overlap previously considered. As might be expected, those who reject the idea of resonance in butadiene (p. 37) believe it even less likely when it involves no-bond structures.

The concept of hyperconjugation arose from the discovery of apparently anomalous electron-release patterns for alkyl groups. By the field effect alone, the order of electron release for simple alkyl groups connected to an unsaturated system is *tert*-butyl > isopropyl > ethyl > methyl, and this order is observed in many phenomena. Thus, the dipole moments in the gas phase of $PhCH_3$, PhC_2H_5, $PhCH(CH_3)_2$, and $PhC(CH_3)_3$ are, respectively, 0.37, 0.58, 0.65 and 0.70 D.[302]

However, Baker and Nathan[303] observed that the rates of reaction with pyridine of *p*-substituted benzyl bromides (see Reaction **10–44**) were about opposite that expected from electron release by the field effect. That is, the methyl-substituted compound reacted fastest and the tert-butyl-substituted compounded reacted slowest.

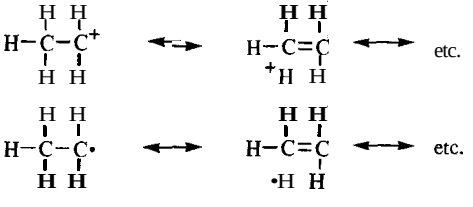


This came to be called the *Baker-Nathan effect* and has since been found in many processes. Baker and Nathan[303] explained it by considering that hyperconjugative forms contribute to the actual structure of toluene:

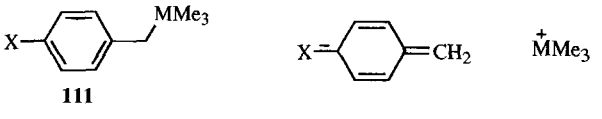


For the other alkyl groups, hyperconjugation is diminished because the number of C—H bonds is diminished and in tert-butyl there are none; hence, with respect to this effect, methyl is the strongest electron donor and tert-butyl the weakest.

However, the Baker-Nathan effect has now been shown not to be caused by hyperconjugation, but by differential solvation.[304] This was demonstrated by the finding that in certain instances where the Baker-Nathan effect was found to apply in solution, the order was completely reversed in the gas phase.[305] Since the molecular structures are unchanged in going from the gas phase into solution, it is evident that the Baker-Nathan order in these cases is not caused by a structural feature (hyperconjugation) but by the solvent. That is, each alkyl group is solvated to a different extent.[306]



There is a large body of evidence against hyperconjugation in the ground states of neutral molecules.[307] A recent study of the one-bond coupling constants for the aromatic system **111**, however, appears to provide the first structural evidence for hyperconjugation in a neutral ground state.[308] In hyperconjugation in the ground



111

M = C, Si, Ge, Sn
X = NO_2, CN, H, Me, OMe

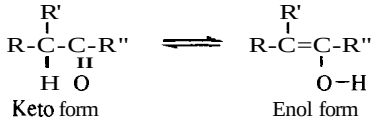
state of neutral molecules, which Muller and Mulliken[309] call *sacrificial hyperconjugation,* the canonical forms involve not only no-bond resonance but also a charge separation not possessed by the main form (see **111**). For carbocations and free radicals[310] and for excited states of molecules,[311] there is evidence that hyperconjugation is important. In free radicals and carbocations, the canonical forms display no more charge separation than the main form. Muller and Mulliken call this *isovalent hyperconjugation:* Even here the main form contributes more to the hybrid than the others.

TAUTOMERISM

There remains one topic to be discussed in our survey of chemical bonding in organic compounds. For most compounds, all the molecules have the same structure, whether or not this structure can be satisfactorily represented by a Lewis formula. But for many other compounds there is a mixture of two or more structurally distinct compounds that are in rapid equilibrium. When this phenomenon, called *tautomerism,*[312] exists, there is a rapid shift back and forth among the molecules. In most cases, it is a proton that shifts from one atom of a molecule to another.

Keto–Enol Tautomerism[313]

A very common form of tautomerism is that between a carbonyl compound containing an a hydrogen and its enol form:[314]



In simple cases (R"=H, alkyl, OR, etc.) the equilibrium lies well to the left (Table 2.1). The reason can be seen by examining the bond energies in Table 1.7. The keto form differs from the enol form in possessing a C–H, a C–C, and a C=O bond where the enol has a C=C, a C–O, and an O–H bond. The approximate sum of the first three is 359 kcal mol^{-1} (1500 kJ mol^{-1}) and of the second three is 347kcal mol^{-1} (1452kJ mol^{-1}). The keto form is therefore thermodynamically more stable by $\sim$12 kcal mol^{-1} (48 kJ mol^{-1}) and enol forms cannot normally be isolated.[325] In certain cases, however, a larger amount of the enol form is present, and it can even be the predominant form.[326] There are three main types of the more stable enols:[327]

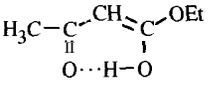
1. Molecules in which the enolic double bond is in conjugation with another double bond. Some of these are shown in Table 2.1. As the table shows, carboxylic esters have a much smaller enolic content than ketones. In molecules

TABLE 2.1 The Enol Content of Some Carbonyl Compounds

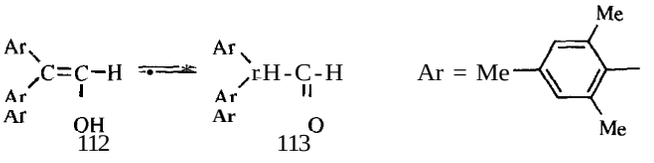
Compound	Enol Content(%)	Reference
Acetone	6×10^{-7}	315
$PhCOCH_3$	1.1×10^{-6}	316
Cyclopentanone	1×10^{-6}	317
CH_3CHO	6×10^{-5}	318
Cyclohexanone	4×10^{-5}	317
Butanal	5.5×10^{-4}	319
$(CH_3)_2CHCHO$	1.4×10^{-2}	320
Ph_2CHCHO	9.1	321
CH_3COOEt	No enol found[a]	317
CH_3COCH_2COOEt	8.4	322
$CH_3COCH_2COCH_3$	80	322
$PhCOCH_2COCH_3$	89.2	317
$EtOOCCH_2COOEt$	7.7×10^{-3}	317
$N{\equiv}CCH_2COOEt$	2.5×10^{-1}	317
Indane-1-one	3.3×10^{-8}	323
Malonamide	No enol found[a]	324

[a] Less than 1 part in 10 million.

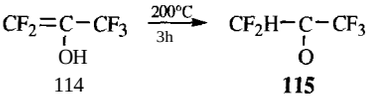
like acetoacetic ester, the enol is also stabilized by internal hydrogen bonding, which is unavailable to the keto form:



2. Molecules that contain two or three bulky aryl groups.[328] An example is 2,2-dimesitylethenol **(112).** In this case, the keto content at equilibrium is only 5%.[329] In cases such as this steric hindrance (p. 189) destabilizes the keto form. In **112** the two aryl groups are ~120° apart, but in **113** they must move closer together (≈109.5°). Such compounds are often called *Fuson-type enols.*[330] There is one example of an amide with a bulky aryl group, *N*-methyl *bis*(2,4,6-triisopropylphenyl)acetamide, that has a measurable enol content, in sharp contrast to most amides.[331]

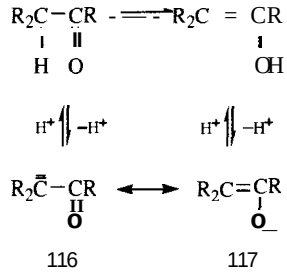


3. Highly fluorinated enols, an example being 114.



In this case, the enol form is not more stable than the keto form **(115).** The enol form is less stable, and converts to the keto form upon prolonged heating. It can, however, be kept at room temperature for long periods of time because the tautomerization reaction **(12-3)** is very slow, owing to the electron-withdrawing power of the fluorines.

Frequently, when the enol content is high, both forms can be isolated. The pure keto form of acetoacetic ester melts at — 39°C, while the enol is a liquid even at -78°C. Each can be kept at room temperature for days if catalysts such as acids or bases are rigorously excluded.[333] Even the simplest enol, vinyl alcohol (CH_2= CHOH), has been prepared in the gas phase at room temperature, where it has a half-life of $\sim 30\,min$.[334] The enol $Me_2C{=}CCHOH$ is indefinitely stable in the solid state at -78°C and has a half-life of ~ 24 h in the liquid state at 25°C.[335] When both forms cannot be isolated, the extent of enolization is often measured by NMR.[336]



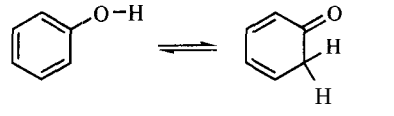
116 117

The extent of enolization[337] is greatly affected by solvent,[338] concentration, and temperature. Thus, acetoacetic ester has an enol content of 0.4% in water and 19.8% in toluene.[339] In this case, water reduces the enol concentration by hydrogen bonding with the carbonyl, making this group less available for internal hydrogen bonding. As an example of the effect of temperature, the enol content of pentan-2,4-dione ($CH_3COCH_2COCH_3$) was found to be 95, 68, and 44%, respectively, at 22, 180, and 275°C.[340] When a strong base is present, both the enol and the keto form can lose a proton. The resulting anion (the *enolate ion*) is the same in both cases. Since **116** and **117** differ only in the placement of electrons, *they* are not tautomers but canonical forms. The true structure of the enolate ion is a hybrid of **116** and **117** although **117** contributes more, since in this form the negative charge is on the more electronegative atom.

Other Proton-Shift Tautomerism

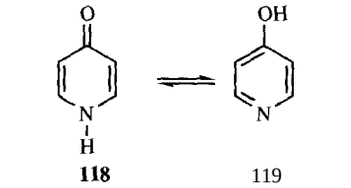
In all such cases, the anion resulting from removal of a proton from either tautomer is the same because of resonance. Some examples are[341]

1. *Phenol–Keto Tautomerism?*[342]

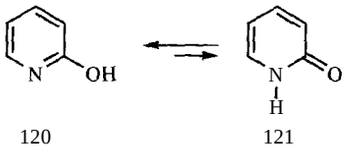


Phenol Cyclohexadienone

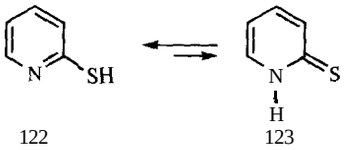
For most simple phenols this equilibrium lies well to the side of the phenol, since only on that side is there aromaticity. For phenol itself, there is no evidence for the existence of the keto form.[343] However, the keto form becomes important and may predominate: (1) where certain groups, such as a second OH group or an N=O group, are present;[344] (2) in systems of fused aromatic rings;[345] and (3) in heterocyclic systems. In many heterocyclic compounds in the liquid phase or in solution, the keto form is more stable,[346] although in the vapor phase the positions of many of these equilibria are reversed.[347] For example, in the equilibrium between 4-pyridone (**118**) and 4-hydroxypyridine (119), 118 is the only form detectable in ethanolic solution, while 119 predominates in the vapor phase.[347] In other heterocycles, the hydroxy-form predominates. 2-Hydroxypyridone (120) and pyridone-2-thiol (122) are in equilibrium with their tautomers, 121 and 123, respectively. In both cases, the most stable form is the hydroxy tautomer, 120 and **122**.[348]



118 119

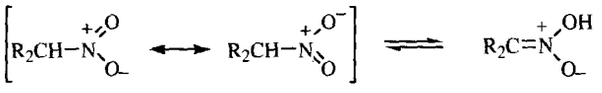


120 121



122 123

2. *Nitroso–Oxime Tautomerism.* This equilibrium lies far to the right, and as a rule nitroso compounds are stable only when there is not a hydrogen.
3. *Aliphatic Nitro Compounds Are in Equilibrium With Aci Forms.*



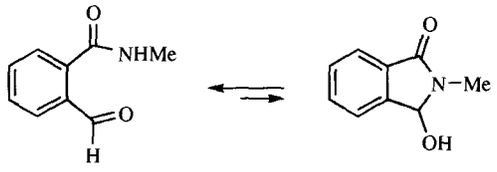
Nitro form Aci form

The nitro form is much more stable than the aci form in sharp contrast to the parallel case of nitroso-oxime tautomerism, undoubtedly because the nitro form has resonance not found in the nitroso case. Aci forms of nitro compounds are also called nitronic acids and azinic acids.

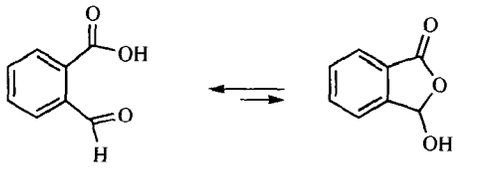
4. *Imine–Enamine Tautomerism.*[349]

$$\underset{\text{Imine}}{R_2CH{-}CR{=}NR} \rightleftharpoons \underset{\text{Enamine}}{R_2C{=}CR{-}NHR}$$

Enamines are normally stable only when there is no hydrogen on the nitrogen ($R_2C{=}CR{-}NR_2$). Otherwise, the imine form predominates.[350] The energy of various imine-enamine tautomers has been calculated.[351]

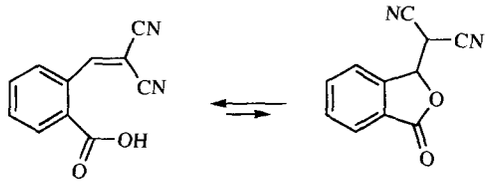


124 **125**



126 **127**

Ring–chain tautomerism[352] occurs in sugars (aldehyde vs. the pyranose or furanose structures). In benzamide carboxaldehyde (125), whose ring-chain tautomer is **124,** the equilibrium favors the cyclic form (**125**).[353] Similarly, benzoic acid 2-carboxyaldehyde **(126)** exists largely as the cyclic form (127).[354] In these latter cases, and in many others, this tautomerism influences chemical reactivity. Conversion of **126** to an ester, for example, is difficult since most standard methods lead to the OR derivative of **127** rather than the ester of 126. There are many other highly specialized cases of proton-shift tautomerism, including an internal Michael reaction (see **15-21)** in which 2-(2,2-dicyano-l-methylethenyl)benzoic acid **(128)** exists largely in the open chain form rather an its tautomer **(129)** in the solid state, but in solution there is an increasing amount of **129** as the solvent becomes more polar.[355]



128 **129**

Valence Tautomerism

This type of tautomerism is discussed on page 1447.

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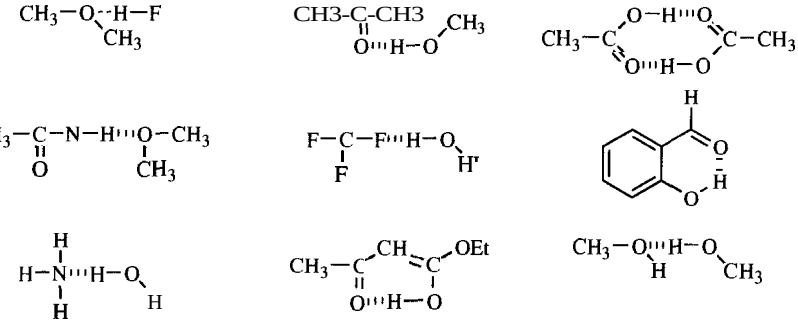
CHAPTER 3

Bonding Weaker Than Covalent

In the first two chapters, we discussed the structure of molecules each of which is an aggregate of atoms in a distinct three-dimensional arrangement held together by bonds with energies on the order of 50–100 kcal mol^{-1} (200–400 kJ mol^{-1}). There are also very weak attractive forces *between* molecules, on the order of a few tenths of a kilocalorie per mole. These forces, called van der Waals forces, are caused by electrostatic attractions such as those between dipole and dipole, induced dipole and induced dipole, and so on, and are responsible for liquefaction of gases at sufficiently low temperatures. The bonding discussed in this chapter has energies of the order of 2–10 kcal mol^{-1} (9–40 kJ mol^{-1}), intermediate between the two extremes, and produces clusters of molecules. We will also discuss compounds in which portions of molecules are held together without any attractive forces at all.

HYDROGEN BONDING

A *hydrogen bond* is a bond between a functional group A–H and an atom or group of atoms B in the same or a different molecule.[1] With exceptions to be noted later, hydrogen bonds are formed only when A is oxygen, nitrogen, or fluorine and when B is oxygen, nitrogen, or fluorine. The oxygen may be singly or doubly bonded and the nitrogen singly, doubly, or triply bonded. The bonds are usually represented by dotted lines, as shown in the following examples:



Hydrogen bonds can exist in the solid and liquid phases and in solution.[2] Many organic reactions that will be discussed in later chapters can be done in aqueous

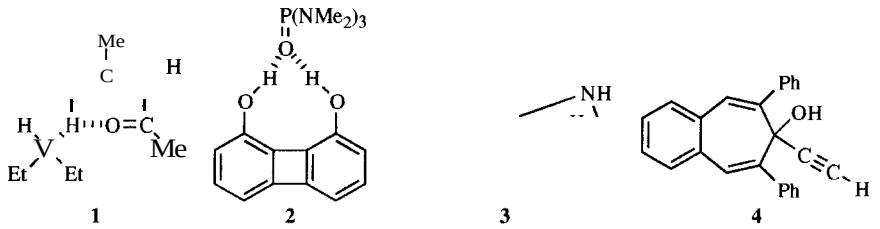
media,[3] and their efficacy is due, in part, to the hydrogen-bonding nature of aqueous media.[4] Even in the gas phase, compounds that form particularly strong hydrogen bonds may still be associated.[5] Acetic acid, for example, exists in the gas phase as a dimer, as shown above, except at very low pressures.[6] In solution and in the liquid phase, hydrogen bonds rapidly form and break. The mean lifetime of the $NH_3 \cdots H_2O$ bond is 2×10^{-12} s.[7] Except for a few very strong hydrogen bonds,[8] such as the $FH \cdots F^-$ bond, which has an energy of $\sim 50\ kcal\ mol^{-1}$ ($210\ kJ\ mol^{-1}$), the strongest hydrogen bonds are the $FH \cdots F$ bond and the bonds connecting one carboxylic acid with another. The energies of these bonds are in the range of 6-8 $kcal\ mol^{-1}$ (25–30 $kJ\ mol^{-1}$) (for carboxylic acids, this refers to the energy of each bond). In general, short contact hydrogen bonds between fluorine and HO or NH are rare.[9] Other $OH \cdots O$ and $NH \cdots N$ bonds have energies of 3–6 $kcal\ mol^{-1}$ (12–25 $kJ\ mol^{-1}$). The intramolecular O–H···N hydrogen bond in hydroxy amines is also rather strong.[10] To a first approximation, the strength of hydrogen bonds increases with increasing acidity of A–H and basicity of B, but the parallel is far from exact.[11] A quantitative measure of the strengths of hydrogen bonds has been established, involving the use of an α scale to represent hydrogen-bond donor acidities and a β scale for hydrogen-bond acceptor basicities.[12] The use of the β scale, along with another parameter, ξ, allows hydrogen-bond basicities to be related to proton-transfer basicities (*pK* values).[13] A database has been developed to locate all possible occurrences of bimolecular cyclic hydrogen bond motifs in the Cambridge Structural Database,[14] and donor-acceptor as well as polarity parameters have been calculated for hydrogen-bonding solvents.[15]

When two compounds whose molecules form hydrogen bonds with each other are both dissolved in water, the hydrogen bond between the two molecules is usually greatly weakened or completely removed,[16] because the molecules generally form hydrogen bonds with the water molecules rather than with each other, especially since the water molecules are present in such great numbers. In amides, the oxygen atom is the preferred site of protonation or complexation with water.[17]

Many studies have been made of the geometry of hydrogen bonds,[18] and the evidence shows that in most (though not all) cases the hydrogen is on or near the straight line formed by A and B.[19] This is true both in the solid state (where X-ray crystallography and neutron diffraction have been used to determine structures),[20] and in solution.[21] It is significant that the vast majority of intramolecular hydrogen bonding occurs where *six-membered rings* (counting the hydrogen as one of the six) can be formed, in which linearity of the hydrogen bond is geometrically favorable, while five-membered rings, where linearity is usually not favored (though it is known), are much rarer. Except for the special case of $FH \cdots F^-$ bonds (see p. 101), the hydrogen is not equidistant between A and B. For example, in ice the O–H distance is 0.97 Å, while the H···O distance is 1.79 Å.[22] The hydrogen bond in the enol of malonaldehdye, in organic solvents, is asymmetric with the hydrogen atom closer to the basic oxygen atom.[23]

In certain cases, X-ray crystallography has shown that a single H–A can form simultaneous hydrogen bonds with two B atoms *(bifurcated* or *three-center hydrogen bonds).* An example is an adduct (1) formed from pentane-2,4-dione (in its

enol form; see pp. 73-75) and diethylamine, in which the O—H hydrogen simultaneously bonds[24] to an O and an N (the N—H hydrogen forms a hydrogen bond with the O of another pentane-2,4-dione molecule).[25] On the other hand, in adduct (2) formed from 1,8-biphenylenediol and hexamethylphosphoramide (HMPA), the B atom (in this case oxygen) forms simultaneous hydrogen bonds with two A···H hydrogens.[26] Another such case is found in methyl hydrazine carboxylate (3).[27] There is recent evidence, however, that symmetrical hydrogen bonds to carboxylates should be regarded as two-center rather than three-center hydrogen bonds since the criteria traditionally used to infer three-center hydrogen bonding are inadequate for carboxylates.[28] There is also an example of cooperative hydrogen bonding [O— H···C≡C— H···Ph] in crystalline 2-ethynyl-6,8-diphenyl-7*H*-benzocyclohepten-7-ol (4).[29]



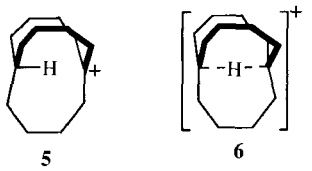
1 2 3 4

Hydrogen bonding has been detected in many ways, including measurements of dipole moments, solubility behavior, freezing-point lowering, and heats of mixing, but the most important way is by the effect of the hydrogen bond on IR[30] and other spectra. The IR frequencies of groups such as O—H or C=O are shifted when the group is hydrogen bonded. Hydrogen bonding always moves the peak toward lower frequencies, for both the A—H and the B groups, though the shift is greater for the former. For example, a free OH group of an alcohol or phenol absorbs at ~3590-3650 cm^{-1}, while a hydrogen-bonded OH group is found ~50–100 cm^{-1} lower.[31] In many cases, in dilute solution, there is partial hydrogen bonding, that is, some OH groups are free and some are hydrogen bonded. In such cases two peaks appear. Infrared spectroscopy can also distinguish between inter- and intramolecular hydrogen bonding, since intermolecular peaks are intensified by an increase in concentration while intramolecular peaks are unaffected. Other types of spectra that have been used for the detection of hydrogen bonding include Raman, electronic,[32] and NMR.[33] Since hydrogen bonding involves a rapid movement of protons from one atom to another, NMR records an average value. Hydrogen bonding can be detected because it usually produces a chemical shift to a lower field. Hydrogen bonding changes with temperature and concentration, and comparison of spectra taken under different conditions also serves to detect and measure it. As with IR spectra, intramolecular hydrogen bonding can be distinguished from intermolecular by its constancy when the concentration is varied.

Hydrogen bonds are important because of the effects they have on the properties of compounds, among them:

1. Intermolecular hydrogen bonding raises boiling points and frequently melting points.
2. If hydrogen bonding is possible between solute and solvent, this greatly increases solubility and often results in large or even infinite solubility where none would otherwise be expected.
3. Hydrogen bonding causes lack of ideality in gas and solution laws.
4. As previously mentioned, hydrogen bonding changes spectral absorption positions.
5. Hydrogen bonding, especially the intramolecular variety, changes many chemical properties. For example, it is responsible for the large amount of enol present in certain tautomeric equilibria (see pp. 73-75). Also, by influencing the conformation of molecules (see Chapter 4), it often plays a significant role in determining reaction rates.[34] Hydrogen bonding is also important in maintaining the three-dimensional structures of protein and nucleic acid molecules.

Besides oxygen, nitrogen, and fluorine, there is evidence that weaker hydrogen bonding exists in other systems.[35] Although many searches have been made for hydrogen bonding where A is carbon,[36] only three types of C—H bonds have been found that are acidic enough to form weak hydrogen bonds. These are found in terminal alkynes ($RC{\equiv}CH$),[37] chloroform and some other halogenated alkanes, and HCN. Sterically unhindered C-H groups ($CHCl_3$, CH_2Cl_2, $RC{\equiv}CH$) form short contact hydrogen bonds with carbonyl acceptors, where there is a significant preference for coordination with the conventional carbonyl lone-pair direction.[38] Weak hydrogen bonds are formed by compounds containing S—H bonds.[39] There has been much speculation regarding other possibilities for B. There is evidence that Cl can form weak hydrogen bonds,[40] but Br and I form very weak bonds if at all.[41] However, the *ions* Cl^-, Br^-, and I^- form hydrogen bonds that are much stronger than those of the covalently bonded atoms.[42] As we have already seen, the $FH{\cdots}F^-$ bond is especially strong. In this case, the hydrogen is equidistant from the fluorines.[43] Similarly, a sulfur atom[39] can be the B component in weak hydrogen

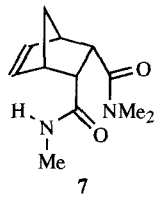


5 6

bonds,[44] but the SH^- ion forms much stronger bonds.[45] Hydrogen bonding has been directly observed (by NMR and IR) between a negatively charged carbon (see Carbanions, Chapter 5) and an OH group in the same molecule.[46] Another type of molecule in which carbon is the B component are isocyanides, ($R{-}\overset{+}{N}{\equiv}C$), which form rather strong hydrogen bonds.[47] There is evidence that double and triple bonds, aromatic rings,[48] and even cyclopropane rings[49] may be the B component of

hydrogen bonds, but these bonds are very weak. An interesting case is that of the *in*-bicyclo[4.4.4]-l-tetradecyl cation (5) (see out-in isomerism, p. 163). NMR and IR spectra show that the actual structure of this ion is 6, in which both the A and the B component of the hydrogen bond is a carbon.[50] These are sometimes called 3-center, 2-electron C-H-C bonds.[51]

Deuterium also forms hydrogen bonds; in some systems these seem to be stronger than the corresponding hydrogen bonds; in others, weaker.[52]



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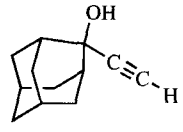


8

Weak hydrogen bonds can be formed between an appropriate hydrogen and a *n* bond, both with alkenes and with aromatic compounds. For example, IR data in dilute dichloromethane suggests that the predominant conformation for the bis-amide (7) contains an N– H···π hydrogen bond involving the C=C unit.[53] The strength of an intramolecular π-facial hydrogen bond between an NH group and an aromatic ring in chloroform has been estimated to have a lower limit of – 4.5 ± 0.5 kcal mol.$^{-1}$[54] A neutron diffraction study of crystalline 2-ethynyladamantan-2-ol (8) shows the presence of an unusual O–H···π hydrogen bond, which is short and linear, as well as the more common O– H···O and C–H···O hydrogen bonds.[55]

ADDITION COMPOUNDS

When the reaction of two compounds results in a product that contains all the mass of the two compounds, the product is called an *addition compound.* There are several kinds. In the rest of this chapter, we will discuss addition compounds in which the molecules of the starting materials remain more or less intact and weak bonds hold two or more molecules together. We can divide them into four broad classes: electron donor–acceptor complexes, complexes formed by crown ethers and similar compounds, inclusion compounds, and catenanes.

Electron Donor-Acceptor Complexes

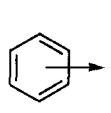
In electron donor-acceptor[56,57] *(EDA) complexes,* there is always a donor molecule and an acceptor. The donor may donate an unshared pair (an n donor) or a pair of electrons in a *n* orbital of a double bond or aromatic system (a *n* donor). One test for the presence of an EDA complex is the electronic spectrum. These complexes generally exhibit a spectrum (called a *charge-transfer spectrum)* that is not the same as the sum of the spectra of the two individual molecules.[58] Because the first excited state of the complex is relatively close in energy to the ground state, there is usually a

peak in the visible or near-UV region and EDA complexes are often colored. Many EDA complexes are unstable and exist only in solutions in equilibrium with their components, but others are stable solids. In most EDA complexes, the donor and acceptor molecules are present in an integral ratio, most often 1:1, but complexes with nonintegral ratios are also known. There are several types of acceptor; we will discuss complexes formed by two of them.

1. *Complexes in Which the Acceptor Is a Metal Ion and the Donor is an Alkene or an Aromatic Ring.* Note that *n* donors do not give EDA complexes with metal ions but form covalent bonds instead.[59] Many metal ions form complexes, which are often stable solids, with alkenes, dienes (usually conjugated, but not always), alkynes, and aromatic rings. The generally accepted picture of the bonding in these complexes,[60] first proposed by Dewar,[61] can be

illustrated for the complex in which the silver ion is bonded to an alkene. There are two bonds between the metal ion and the alkene. One is a a bond formed by overlap of the filled *n* orbital of the alkene with the empty 5s orbital of the silver ion, and the other is a *n* bond formed by overlap of a filled *Ad* orbital of the silver ion and an empty antibonding π^* orbital of the alkene. The bond is not from the silver ion to one atom but to the whole *n* center. The net result is that some electron density is transferred from the alkene to the metal ion.[62]

Among the compounds that form complexes with silver and other metals are benzene[63] (represented as in 9) and cyclooctatetraene. When the metal involved has a coordination number >1, more than one donor molecule participates. In many cases, this extra electron density comes from CO groups, which in these complexes are called carbonyl groups. Thus, benzenechromium tricarbonyl (10) is a stable compound.[64] Three arrows are shown, since all three aromatic bonding orbitals contribute some electron density to the metal. Metallocenes (p. 53) may be considered a special case of this type of complex, although the bonding in metallocenes is much stronger.



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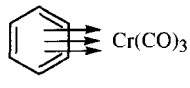

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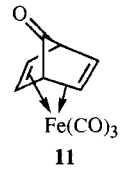
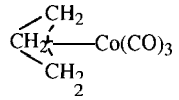


11

In a number of cases, alkenes that are too unstable for isolation have been isolated in the form of metal complexes. As example is norbornadienone, which was isolated in the form of its iron–tricarbonyl complex (**11**).[65] The free dienone spontaneously decomposes to carbon monoxide and benzene (see 17-29).



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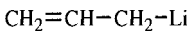
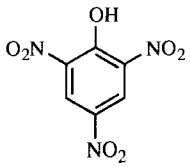


Allyllithium

The donor (or ligand) molecules in these complexes are classified by the prefix hapto[66] and/or the descriptor η^n (the Greek letter eta), where *n* indicates how many atoms the ligand uses to bond with the metal.[67] Thus, ethene is a dihapto or η^2 ligand, and benzene hexahapto or η^6. Ferrocene can be called bis(η^5-cyclopentadienyl)iron(II). This system can be extended to compounds in which only a single a bond connects the organic group to the metal, for examples, C_6H_5—Li (a monohapto or η^1 ligand), and to complexes in which the organic group is an ion, for example π-allyl complexes such as 12, in which the allyl ligand is trihapto or η^3. Note that in a compound such as allyllithium, where a a bond connects the carbon to the metal, the allyl group is referred to as monohapto or η^1.

2. *Complexes in Which the Acceptor Is an Organic Molecule.* Picric acid, 1,3,5-trinitrobenzene, and similar polynitro compounds are the most important of these.[68] Picric acid forms addition compounds with many aromatic hydro



Picric acid

carbons, aromatic amines, aliphatic amines, alkenes, and other compounds. These addition compounds are usually solids with definite melting points and are often used as derivatives of the compounds in question. They are called picrates, though they are not salts of picric acid but addition compounds. Unfortunately, salts of picric acid are also called picrates. Similar complexes are formed between phenols and quinones (quinhydrones).[69] Alkenes that contain electron-withdrawing substituents also act as acceptor molecules as do carbon tetrahalides[70] and certain anhydrides.[71] A particularly strong alkene acceptor is tetracyanoethylene.[72]

The bonding in these cases is more difficult to explain than in the previous case, and indeed no really satisfactory explanation is available.[73] The difficulty is that although the donor has a pair of electrons to contribute (both *n* donors and *n* donors are found here), the acceptor does not have a vacant orbital. Simple attraction of the dipole-induced-dipole type accounts for some of the bonding[74] but is too weak to explain the bonding in all cases;[75] for example nitromethane, with about the same dipole moment as nitrobenzene, forms much weaker complexes. Some other type of bonding clearly must also be present in many EDA complexes. The exact nature of this bonding, called *charge-transfer bonding,* is not well understood, but it presumably involves some kind of donor–acceptor interaction.

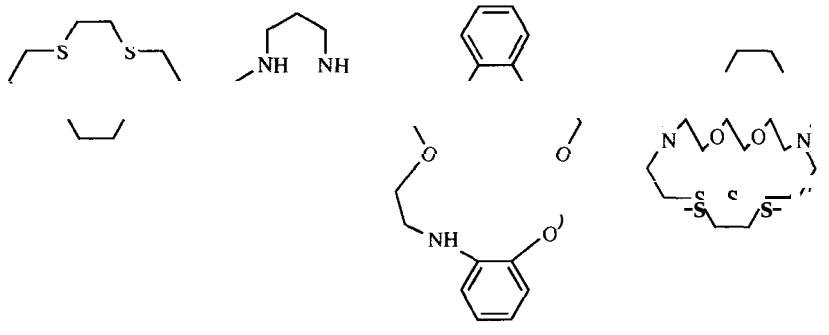
Crown Ether Complexes and Cryptates[76]

Crown ethers are large ring compounds containing several oxygen atoms, usually in a regular pattern. Examples are 12-crown-4 (13; where 12 is the size of the ring and 4 represents the number of coordinating atoms, here oxygen),[77] dicyclohexano-18-crown-6 (14), and 15-crown-5 (15). These compounds have the property[78] of forming complexes with positive ions, generally metallic ions (though not usually ions of transition metals) or ammonium and substituted ammonium ions.[79] The crown ether is called the *host* and the ion is the *guest.* In most cases, the ions are held tightly in the center of the cavity.[80] Each crown ether binds different ions, depending on the size of the cavity. For example, 13 binds Li^+ ion[81] but not K^+,[82] while 14 binds K^+ but not Li^+.[83] Similarly, 14 binds Hg^{2+} but not Cd^{2+} or Zn^{2+}, and Sr^{2+} but not Ca^{2+}.[84] The compound 18-crown-5 binds alkali and ammonium cations >1000 times weaker than 18-crown-6, presumably because the larger 18-crown-6 cavity involves more hydrogen bonds.[85] The complexes can frequently be prepared as well-defined sharp-melting solids.

13 14 15

Apart from their obvious utility in separating mixtures of cations,[86] crown ethers have found much use in organic synthesis (see the discussion on p. 455). Chiral crown ethers have been used for the resolution of racemic mixtures (p. 126). Although crown ethers are most frequently used to complex cations, amines, phenols, and other neutral molecules have also been complexed[87] (see p. 163 for the complexing of anions).[88]

Macrocycles containing nitrogen or sulfur atoms (e.g., 16[89] and 17)[90] have similar properties, as do those containing more than one kind of hetero atom (e.g., 18,[91] 19,[92] or 20.[93]) Bicyclic molecules like 19 can surround the enclosed ion



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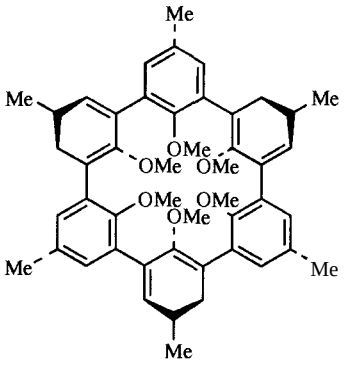
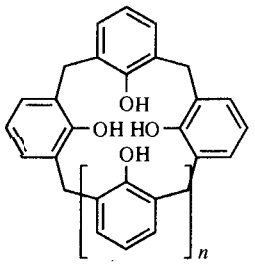
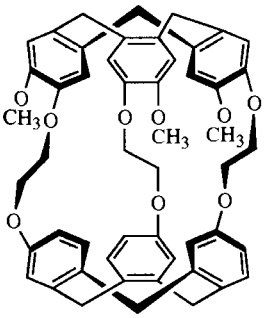


20 21

in three dimensions, binding it even more tightly than the monocyclic crown ethers. Bicyclics and cycles of higher order[94] are called *cryptands* and the complexes formed are called *cryptates* (monocyclics are also sometimes called cryptands).

Calix[4]arene,« = 1
Calix[6]arene, « = 3
Calix[8]arene, « = 5



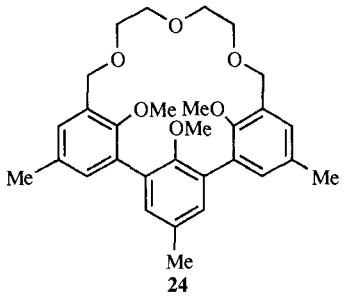


22 23

The tricyclic cryptand 20 has 10 binding sites and a spherical cavity.[93] Another molecule with a spherical cavity (though not a cryptand) is 21, which complexes Li^+ and Na^+ (preferentially Na^+), but not K^+, Mg^{2+}, or Ca^{2+}.[95] Molecules such as these, whose cavities can be occupied only by spherical entities, have been called *spherands?*[1] Other types are *calixarenes*[96] (e.g., 22).[97] There is significant hydrogen bonding involving the phenolic OH units in [4]calixarenes, but this diminishes as the size of the cavity increases in larger ring calixarenes.[98] There are also calix[4]-arenes," which have been shown to have conformational isomers (see p. 167) in equilibrium (cone vs. alternate) that can sometimes be isolated,[100] calix[8]arenes,[101] and azacalixarenes,[102] It is noted that substitution of the unoccupied "meta" positions immobilizes calix[4]arenes and substantially reduces the conformational mobility (see p. 177) in calix[8]arenes.[103] There are also a variety of calix[*n*]crown ethers,[104] some of which are cryptands.[105]

Other molecules include *cryptophanes* (e.g., 23),[106] *hemispherands* (an example is 24[107]), and *podands*.[108] The lastnamed are host compounds in which two or more arms come out of a central structure. Examples are 25[109] and 26.[110] Compound 26,

also called an *octopus molecule,* binds simple cations such as Na^+, K^+, and Ca^{2+}. *Lariat ethers* are compounds containing a crown ether ring with one or more side chains that can also serve as ligands, such as **27**.[111] There is also a class of ortho cyclophanes that are crown ethers (see 28) and have been given the name *starands*.[112]



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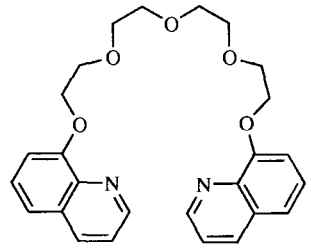

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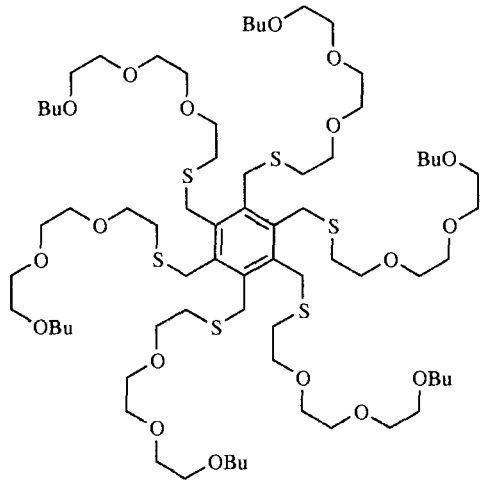

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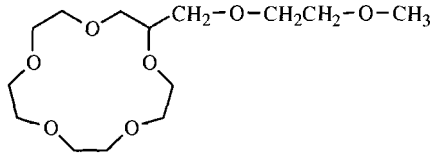

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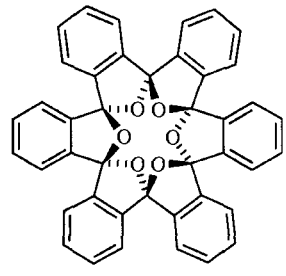


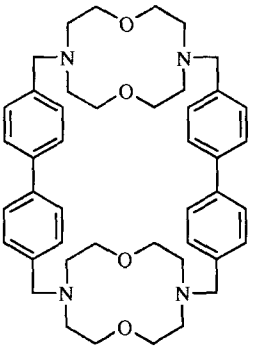
28

The bonding in these complexes is the result of ion–dipole attractions between the hetero atoms and the positive ions. The parameters of the host-guest interactions can sometimes be measured by NMR.[113]

As we have implied, the ability of these host molecules to bind guests is often very specific, often linked to the hydrogen-bonding ability of the host,[114] enabling

the host to pull just one molecule or ion out of a mixture. This is called *molecular recognition.*[115] In general, cryptands, with their well-defined three-dimensional cavities, are better for this than monocyclic crown ethers or ether derivatives. An example is the host 29, which selectively binds the dication 30 *(n* = 5) rather than 30 (*n* = 4), and 30 *(n* = 6) rather than 30 *(n* = 7).[116] The host (31), which is water soluble, forms 1:1 complexes with neutral aromatic hydrocarbons such as pyrene and fluoranthene, and even (though more weakly) with biphenyl and naphthalene, and is able to transport them through an aqueous phase.[117]

Of course, it has long been known that molecular recognition is very important in biochemistry. The action of enzymes and various other biological molecules is extremely specific because these molecules also have host cavities that are able to recognize only one or a few particular types of guest molecules. It is only in recent years that organic chemists have been able to synthesize non-natural hosts that can also perform crude (compared to biological molecules) molecular recognition. The macrocycle 32 has been used as a catalyst, for the hydrolysis of acetyl phosphate and the synthesis of pyrophosphate.[118]



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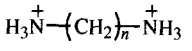

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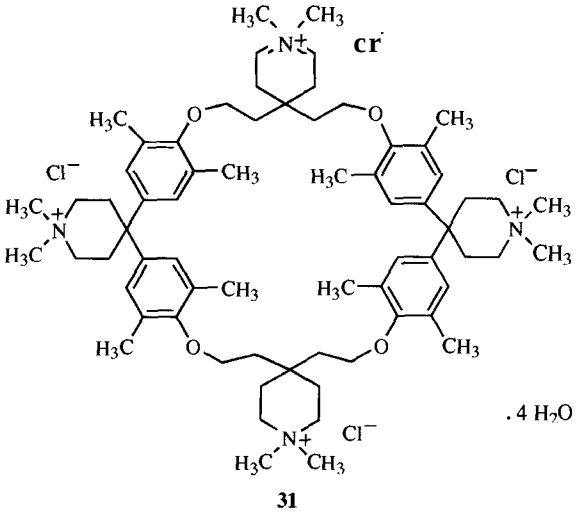
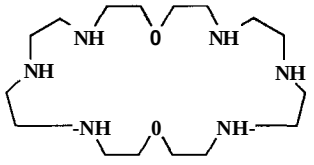


31

No matter what type of host, the strongest attractions occur when combination with the guest causes the smallest amount of distortion of the host.[119] That is, a fully preorganized host will bind better than a host whose molecular shape must change in order to accommodate the guest.



32

Inclusion Compounds

This type of addition compound is different from either the EDA complexes or the crown ether type of complexes previously discussed. Here, the host forms a crystal lattice that has spaces large enough for the guest to fit into. There is no bonding between the host and the guest except van der Waals forces. There are two main types, depending on the shape of the space.[120] The spaces in *inclusion compounds* are in the shape of long tunnels or channels, while the other type, often called *clathrate*,[121] or *cage compounds*, have spaces that are completely enclosed. In both types, the guest molecule must fit into the space and potential guests that are too large or too small will not go into the lattice, so that the addition compound will not form.

One important host molecule among the inclusion compounds is urea.[122] Ordinary crystalline urea is tetragonal, but when a guest is present, urea crystallizes in a hexagonal lattice, containing the guest in long channels (Fig. 3.1).[123] The hexagonal type of lattice can form only when a guest molecule is present, showing that van der Waals forces between the host and the guest, while small, are essential to the stability of the structure. The diameter of the channel is 5 Å, and which

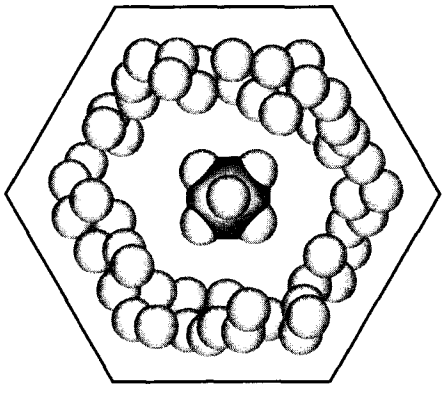
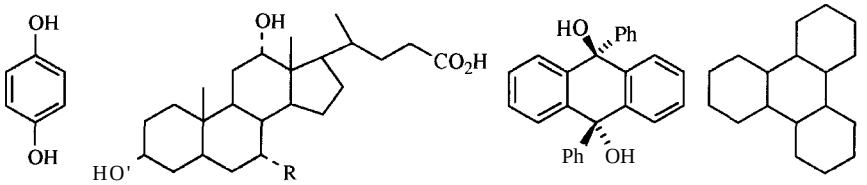


FIGURE 3.1 Guest molecule in a urea lattice.[123]

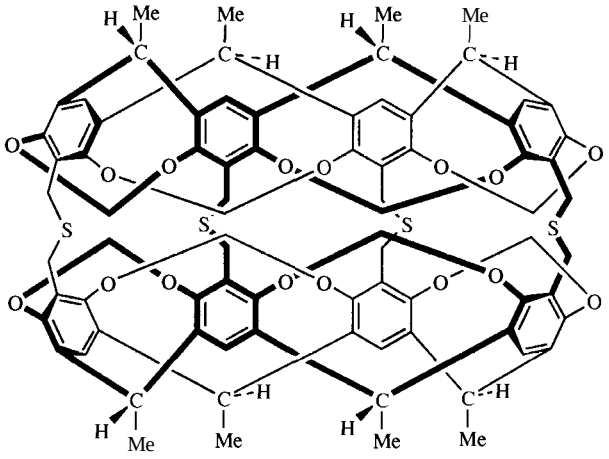
molecules can be guests is dependent only on their shapes and sizes and not on any electronic or chemical effects. For example, octane and 1-bromooctane are suitable guests for urea, but 2-bromooctane, 2-methylheptane, and 2-methyloctane are not. Also, both dibutyl maleate and dibutyl fumarate are guests; neither diethyl maleate or diethyl fumarate is a guest, but dipropyl fumarate is a guest and dipropyl maleate is not.[124] In these complexes, there is usually no integral molar ratio (though by chance there may be). For example, the octane/urea ratio is 1:6.73.[125] A deuterium quadrupole echo spectroscopy study of a urea complex showed that the urea molecules do not remain rigid, but undergo 180° flips about the C=O axis at the rate of more than 10^6 per second at 30°C.[126]

The complexes are solids but are not useful as derivatives, since they melt, with decomposition of the complex, at the melting point of urea. They are useful, however, in separating isomers that would be quite difficult to separate otherwise. Thiourea also forms inclusion compounds though with channels of larger diameter, so that *n*-alkanes cannot be guests but, for example, 2-bromooctane, cyclohexane, and chloroform readily fit.



Hydroquinone | Cholic acid (R = OH), Deoxycholic acid (R = H) | **33** | Perhydrotriphenylene

The most important host for clathrates is hydroquinone.[127] Three molecules, held together by hydrogen bonding, make a cage in which one molecule of the guest fits. Typical guests are methanol (but not ethanol), SO_2, CO_2, and argon (but not neon).



34

One important use is the isolation of anhydrous hydrazine as complex.[128] Its highly explosive nature makes the preparation of anhydrous hydrazine by distillation of aqueous hydrazine solutions difficult and dangerous. The inclusion complex can be readily isolated and reactions done in the solid state, such as the reaction with esters to give hydrazides (**10-58**).[128] In contrast to the inclusion compounds, the crystal lattices here can exist partially empty. Another host is water. Usually six molecules of water form the cage and many guest molecules, among them Cl_2, C_3H_8, and MeI, can fit. The water clathrates, which are solids, can normally be kept only at low temperatures; at room temperature, they decompose.[129] Another inorganic host is sodium chloride (and some other alkali halides), which can encapsulate organic molecules such as benzene, naphthalene, and diphenylmethane.[130]

Among other hosts[131] for inclusion and/or clathrate compounds are deoxycholic acid,[132] cholic acid,[133] anthracene compounds such as **33**,[134] dibenzo-24-crown-8,[135] and the Compound 34, which has been called a *carcerand*.[136]

Cyclodextrins

There is one type of host that can form both channel and cage complexes. This type is called *cyclodextrins* or *cycloamyloses*.[137] The host molecules are made up of six, seven, or eight glucose units connected in a large ring, called, respectively, a-, (3-, or γ-cyclodextrin (Fig. 3.2 shows the (3 or seven-membered ring compound). The three molecules are in the shape of hollow truncated cones (Fig. 3.3) with primary OH groups projecting from the narrow side of the cones and secondary OH group from the wide side. As expected for carbohydrate molecules, all of them are soluble in water and the cavities normally fill with water molecules held in place by

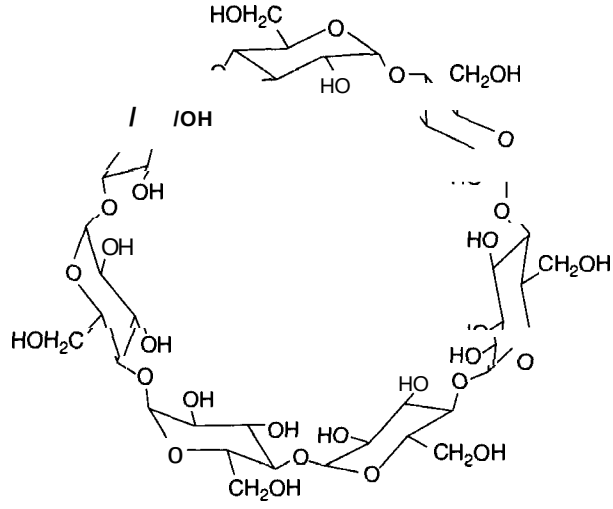


FIGURE 3.2 β-Cyclodextrin.

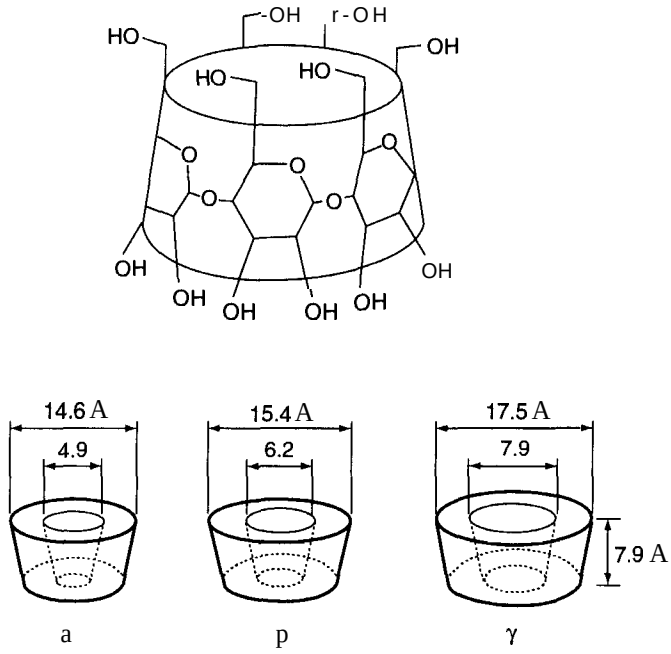


FIGURE 3.3 Shape and dimensions of the a-, P-, and γ-cyclodextrin molecules.[138]

hydrogen bonds (6, 12, and 17 water molecules for the a, (3, and *y* forms, respectively), but the insides of the cones are less polar than the outsides, so that nonpolar organic molecules readily displace the water. Thus the cyclodextrins form 1:1 cage complexes with many guests, ranging in size from the noble gases to large organic molecules. A guest molecule must not be too large or it will not fit, though many stable complexes are known in which one end of the guest molecule protrudes from the cavity (Fig. 3.4). On the other hand, if the guest is too small, it may go through the bottom hole (though some small polar molecules such as methanol do form complexes in which the cavity also contains some water molecules). Since the cavities of the three cyclodextrins are of different sizes (Fig. 3.3), a large variety of guests can be accommodated. Since cyclodextrins are nontoxic (they are actually small starch molecules), they are now used industrially to encapsulate foods and drugs.[140]

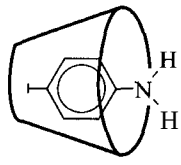


FIGURE 3.4 Schematic drawing of the complex of β-cyclodextrin and *p*-iodoaniline.[139]

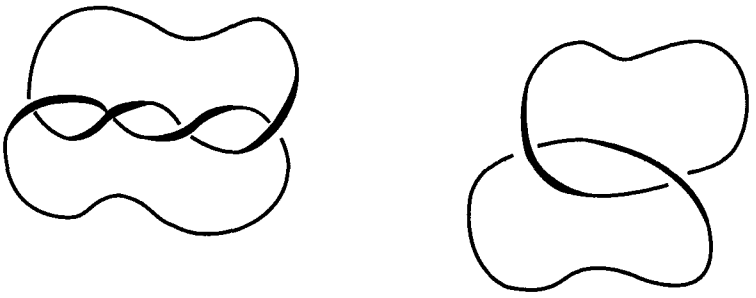
The cyclodextrins also form channel-type complexes, in which the host molecules are stacked on top of each other, like coins in a row.[141] For example, α-cyclodextrin (cyclohexaamylose) forms cage complexes with acetic, propionic, and butyric acids, but channel complexes with valeric and higher acids.

Catenanes and Rotaxanes[142]

These compounds contain two or more independent portions that are not bonded to each other by any valence forces but nevertheless must remain linked. *Catenanes* are made up of two or more rings held together as links in a chain, while in *rotaxanes* a

A [2]catenane A [3]catenane A rotaxane

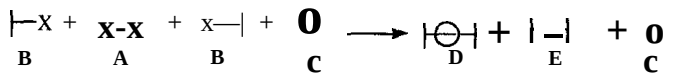
linear portion is threaded through a ring and cannot get away because of bulky end groups. Translational isomers are possible in [2]rotaxanes.[143] Catenanes and rotaxanes can be prepared by statistical methods or directed syntheses.[144] Catenanes can contain heteroatoms and heterocyclic units. In some cases, the catenane exists in equilibrium with the cyclic-non-catenane structures and in some cases this exchange is thought to proceed by ligand exchange and a Möbius strip mechanism.[145] An example of a statistical synthesis of a rotaxane is a reaction where a Compound A is bonded at two positions to another Compound B in the presence of a large ring C. It is hoped that some A molecules would by chance be threaded through C before combining with the two B molecules, so that some rotaxane (D) would be formed along with the normal product **E**.[146] In a directed synthesis, the separate parts of the molecule are held together by other bonds that are later cleaved. See 19-57 for statistical and directed syntheses of catenanes.[147]



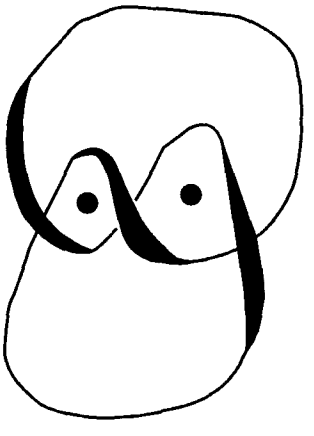
35 **36**

Singly and doubly interlocked [2]catenanes can exist as *topological stereoisomers* (see p. 144 for a discussion of diastereomers). Catenanes 35 and 36 are such stereoisomers and would be expected to have identical mass spectra. Analysis showed that 35 is more constrained and cannot readily accommodate an excess of energy during the mass spectrometry ionization process and, hence, breaks more easily.

A rotaxane can also be an inclusion compound.[148] The molecule contains bulky end groups, or "stoppers" such as triisopropylsilyl groups, $i\text{-Pr}_3\text{Si}-$, and a chain that consists of a series of $-\text{O}-\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_2-\text{O}-$ groups, but also contains two benzene rings. The ring, or "bead" around the chain is a macrocycle containing two



benzene rings and four pyridine rings, and is preferentially attracted to one of the benzene rings in the chain. (The benzene moiety serves as a "station" for the "bead".) However, symmetry of the chain can make the two "stations" equivalent, so that the "bead" is equally attracted to them, and the "bead" actually moves back and forth rapidly between the two "stations", as shown by the temperature dependence of the NMR spectrum.[149] This molecule has been called a *molecular shuttle.* A copper(I) complexed rotaxane has been prepared with two fullerene (see p. 70) stoppers.[150]



37

Molecular knots, such as 37, are another variation of these molecules. The • represents a metal [in this case, copper(I)].[151] This is particularly interesting since knotted forms of DNA have been reported.[152]

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CHAPTER 4

Stereochemistry

In the previous chapters, we discussed electron distribution in organic molecules. In this chapter, we discuss the three-dimensional structure of organic compounds.[1] The structure may be such that *stereoisomerism*[2] is possible. Stereoisomers are compounds made up of the same atoms bonded by the same sequence of bonds but having different three-dimensional structures which are not interchangeable. These three-dimensional structures are called *configurations.*

OPTICAL ACTIVITY AND CHIRALITY

Any material that rotates the plane of polarized light is said to be *optically active.* If a pure compound is optically active, the molecule is nonsuperimposable on its mirror image. If a molecule is superimposable on its mirror image, the compound does not rotate the plane of polarized light; it is *optically inactive.* The property of nonsuperimposability of an object on its mirror image is called *chirality.* If a molecule is not superimposable on its mirror image, it is *chiral.* If it is superimposable on its mirror image, it is *achiral.* The relationship between optical activity and chirality is absolute. No exceptions are known, and many thousands of cases have been found in accord with it (however, see p. 129). The ultimate criterion, then, for optical activity is chirality (nonsuperimposability on the mirror image). This is both a necessary and a sufficient condition.[3] This fact has been used as evidence for the structure determination of many compounds, and historically the tetrahedral nature of carbon was deduced from the hypothesis that the relationship might be true.

If a molecule is nonsuperimposable on its mirror image, the mirror image must be a different molecule, since superimposability is the same as identity. In each case of optical activity of a pure compound there are two and only two isomers, called *enantiomers* (sometimes *enantiomorphs*), which differ in structure only in the left- and right-handedness of their orientations (Fig. 4.1). Enantiomers have identical[4] physical and chemical properties except in two important respects:

1. They rotate the plane of polarized light in opposite directions, though in equal amounts. The isomer that rotates the plane to the left (counterclockwise) is called the *leva isomer* and is designated (—), while the one that rotates the plane to the right (clockwise) is called the *dextro isomer* and is designated (+). Because they differ in this property they are often called *optical antipodes.*

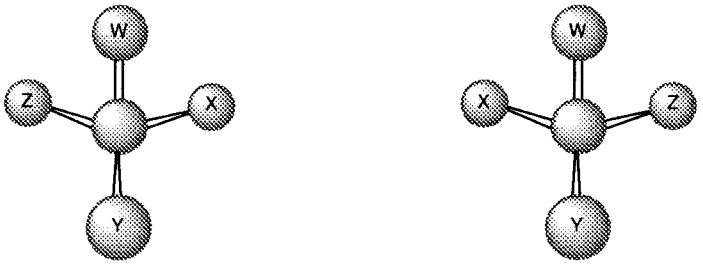


FIGURE 4.1 Enantiomers.

2. They react at different rates with other chiral compounds. These rates may be so close together that the distinction is practically useless, or they may be so far apart that one enantiomer undergoes the reaction at a convenient rate while the other does not react at all. This is the reason that many compounds are biologically active while their enantiomers are not. Enantiomers react at the same rate with achiral compounds.[5]

In general, it may be said that enantiomers have identical properties in a symmetrical environment, but their properties may differ in an unsymmetrical environment.[6] Besides the important differences previously noted, enantiomers may react at different rates with achiral molecules if an optically active *catalyst* is present; they may have different solubilities in an optically active *solvent;* they may have different indexes of refraction or absorption spectra *when examined with circularly polarized light,* and so on. In most cases these differences are too small to be useful and are often too small to be measured.

Although pure compounds are always optically active if they are composed of chiral molecules, mixtures of equal amounts of enantiomers are optically inactive since the equal and opposite rotations cancel. Such mixtures are called *racemic mixtures*[7] *or racemates*.[8] Their properties are not always the same as those of the individual enantiomers. The properties in the gaseous or liquid state or in solution usually are the same, since such a mixture is nearly ideal, but properties involving the solid state,[9] such as melting points, solubilities, and heats of fusion, are often different. Thus racemic tartaric acid has a melting point of 204–206°C and a solubility in water at 20°C of 206g L^{-1}, while for the (+) or the (-) enantiomer, the corresponding figures are 170°C and 1390g L^{-1}. The separation of a racemic mixture into its two optically active components is called *resolution.* The presence of optical activity always proves that a given compound is chiral, but its absence does not prove that the compound is achiral. A compound that is optically inactive may be achiral, or it may be a racemic mixture (see also p. 129).

Dependence of Rotation on Conditions of Measurement

The *amount* of rotation a is not a constant for a given enantiomer; it depends on the length of the sample vessel, the temperature, the solvent[10] and concentration (for

solutions), the pressure (for gases), and the wavelength of light.[11] Of course, rotations determined for the same compound under the same conditions are identical. The length of the vessel and the concentration or pressure determine the number of molecules in the path of the beam and a is linear with this. Therefore, a number is defined, called the *specific rotation* [α], which is

$$[a] = \frac{\alpha}{\ell c} \quad \text{for solutions} \qquad [a] = \frac{\alpha}{\ell d} \quad \text{for pure compounds}$$

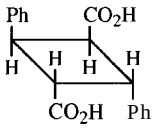
where a is the observed rotation, £ is the cell length in decimeters, *c* is the concentration in grams per milliliter, and *d* is the density in the same units. The specific rotation is usually given along with the temperature and wavelength, in this manner: $[\alpha]^{25}_{546}$. These conditions must be duplicated for comparison of rotations, since there is no way to put them into a simple formula. The expression $[\alpha]_D$ means that the rotation was measured with sodium D light; that is, $X = 589$ nm. The molar rotation $[M]^t_\lambda$ is the specific rotation times the molecular weight divided by 100.

It must be emphasized that although the value of a changes with conditions, the molecular structure is unchanged. This is true even when the changes in conditions are sufficient to change not only the amount of rotation but even the direction. Thus one of the enantiomers of aspartic acid, when dissolved in water, has $[\alpha_D = +4.36°$ at 20°C and $-1.86°$ at 90°C, though the molecular structure is unchanged. A consequence of such cases is that there is a temperature at which there is *no* rotation (in this case 75°C). Of course, the other enantiomer exhibits opposite behavior. Other cases are known in which the direction of rotation is reversed by changes in wavelength, solvent, and even concentration.[12] In theory, there should be no change in [α] with concentration, since this is taken into account in the formula, but associations, dissociations, and solute-solvent interactions often cause nonlinear behavior. For example, $[\alpha]^{24}_D$ for (-)-2-ethyl-2-methylsuccinic acid in $CHCl_3$ is —5.0° at $c = 16.5$ g 100 mL^{-1} (0.165 g mL^{-1}), -0.7° at $c = 10.6$, +1.7° at c = 8.5, and $+18.9°$ at c = 2.2.[13] Note that the concentration is sometimes reported in grams per 100 mL (as shown) or as grams per decaliter (g dL^{-1}) rather than the standard grams per milliliter (g mL^{-1}). One should always check the concentration term to be certain.

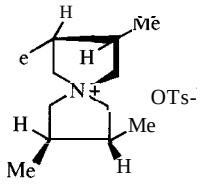
What Kinds of Molecules Display Optical Activity?

Although the ultimate criterion is, of course, nonsuperimposability on the mirror image (chirality), other tests may be used that are simpler to apply but not always accurate. One such test is the presence of a *plane of symmetry.*[14] A plane of symmetry[15] (also called a *mirror plane)* is a plane passing through an object such that the part on one side of the plane is the exact reflection of the part on the other side (the plane acting as a mirror). *Compounds possessing such a plane are always optically inactive,* but there are a few cases known in which compounds lack a plane of symmetry and are nevertheless inactive. Such compounds possess a *center of symmetry,* such as in α-truxillic acid, or an *alternating axis of symmetry* as in 1.[16] A

center of symmetry[15] is a point within an object such that a straight line drawn from any part or element of the object to the center and extended an equal distance on the other side encounters an equal part or element. An alternating axis of symmetry[15] of order n is an axis such that when an object containing such an axis is rotated by $360°/n$ about the axis, and then reflection is effected across a plane at right angles to the axis, a new object is obtained that is indistinguishable from the original one. Compounds that lack an alternating axis of symmetry are always chiral.



α-Truxillic acid



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A molecule that contains just one *chiral carbon atom* (defined as a carbon atom connected to four different groups; also called an *asymmetric* or *stereogenic carbon atom)* is always chiral, and hence optically active.[17] As seen in Figure 4.1, such a molecule cannot have a plane of symmetry, whatever the identity of W, X, Y, and Z, as long as they are all different. However, the presence of a chiral carbon is neither a necessary nor a sufficient condition for optical activity, since optical activity may be present in molecules with no chiral atom[18] and since some molecules with two or more chiral carbon atoms are superimposable on their mirror images, and hence inactive. Examples of such compounds will be discussed subsequently.

Optically active compounds may be classified into several categories.

1. *Compounds With a Chiral Carbon Atom.* If there is only one such atom, the molecule must be optically active. This is so no matter how slight the differences are among the four groups. For example, optical activity is present in

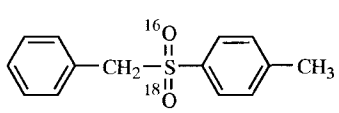
$$\mathrm{BrCH_2CH_2CH_2CH_2CH_2CH_2{-}\underset{\displaystyle \mathrm{CH_3}}{\underset{|}{\mathrm{CH}}}{-}CH_2CH_2CH_2CH_2CH_2Br}$$

Optical activity has been detected even in cases[19] such as 1-butanol-1-*d*, where one group is hydrogen and another deuterium.[20]

$$\mathrm{CH_3CH_2CH_2{-}\overset{\displaystyle H}{\overset{|}{\underset{\displaystyle D}{\underset{|}{C}}}}{-}OH}$$

However, the amount of rotation is greatly dependent on the nature of the four groups, in general increasing with increasing differences in polarizabilities among the groups. Alkyl groups have very similar polarizabilities[21] and the optical activity of 5-ethyl-5-propylundecane is too low to be measurable at any wavelength between 280 and 580 nm.[22]

2. *Compounds With Other Quadrivalent Chiral Atoms.*[23] Any molecule containing an atom that has four bonds pointing to the corners of a tetrahedron will be optically active if the four groups are different. Among atoms in this category are Si,[24] Ge, Sn,[25] and N (in quaternary salts or N-oxides).[26] In sulfones, the sulfur bonds with a tetrahedral array, but since two of the groups are always oxygen, no chirality normally results. However, the preparation[27] of an optically active sulfone (2) in which one oxygen is ^{16}O and the other ^{18}O illustrates the point that slight differences in groups are all that is necessary. This has been taken even further with the preparation of the ester (3), both enantiomers of which have been prepared.[28] Optically active chiral phosphates (4) have similarly been made.[29]



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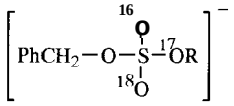

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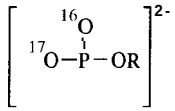

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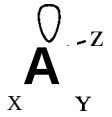
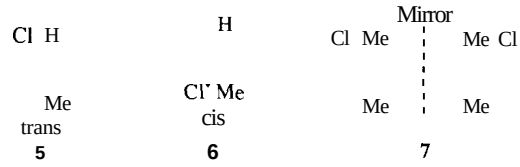
3. *Compounds With Tervalent Chiral Atoms.* Atoms with pyramidal bonding[30] might be expected to give rise to optical activity if the atom is connected to three different groups, since the unshared pair of electrons is analogous to a fourth group, necessarily different from the others. For example, a secondary or tertiary amine where X, Y, and Z are different would be expected to be chiral and thus resolvable. Many attempts have been made to resolve such compounds, but until 1968 all of them failed because *of pyramidal inversion,* which is a rapid oscillation of the unshared pair from one side of the *XYZ*

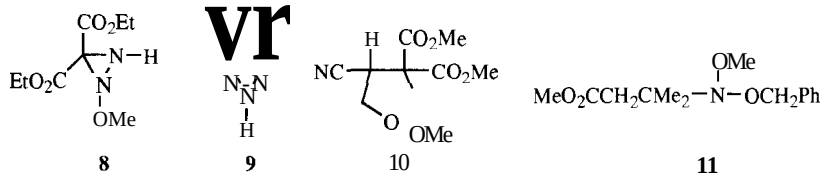


plane to the other, thus converting the molecule into its enantiomer.[31] For ammonia, there are 2×10^{11} inversions every second. The inversion is less rapid in substituted ammonia derivatives[32] (amines, amides, etc.). The interconversion barrier for endo versus exo methyl in *N*-methyl-2-azabicyclo[2.2.1]heptane, for example, is 0.3 kcal.[33] In this case, torsional strain plays a significant role, along with angle strain, in determining inversion barriers. Two types of nitrogen atom invert particularly slowly, namely, a nitrogen atom in a three-membered ring and a nitrogen atom connected to another atom bearing an unshared pair. Even in such compounds, however, for many years pyramidal inversion proved too rapid to permit isolation of separate isomers. This goal was accomplished[26] only when compounds were synthesized in which both features are combined: a nitrogen atom in a three-membered ring connected to an atom containing an unshared pair. For example, the two isomers of 1-chloro-2-methylaziridine (5 and 6) were separated and do not interconvert at room temperature.[34] In

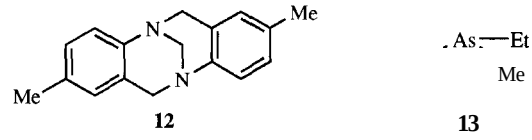
suitable cases, this barrier to inversion can result in compounds that are optically active solely because of a chiral tervalent nitrogen atom. For example, 7 has been resolved into its separate enantiomers.[35] Note that in this case too, the nitrogen is connected to an atom with an unshared pair. Conformational stability has also been demonstrated for oxaziridines,[36] diaziridines (e.g., 8),[37] triaziridines (e.g., 9),[38] and 1,2-oxazolidines (e.g., 10),[39] even though in this case the ring is five membered. However, note that the nitrogen atom in 10 is connected to two oxygen atoms.

Another compound in which nitrogen is connected to two oxygens is 11. In this case there is no ring at all, but it has been resolved into (+) and (—) enantiomers ($[\alpha]_D^{25} \approx \pm 3°$).[40] This compound and several similar ones

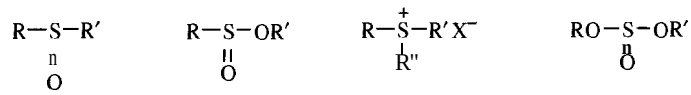




reported in the same paper are the first examples of compounds whose optical activity is solely due to an acyclic tervalent chiral nitrogen atom. However, 11 is not optically stable and racemizes at 20°C with a half-life of 1.22 h. A similar compound (11, with OCH_2Ph replaced by OEt) has a longer half-life—37.5 h at 20°C.

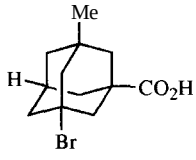


In molecules in which the nitrogen atom is at a bridgehead, pyramidal inversion is of course prevented. Such molecules, if chiral, can be resolved even without the presence of the two structural features noted above. For example, optically active 12 (Tröger's base) has been prepared.[41] Phosphorus inverts more slowly and arsenic still more slowly.[42] Nonbridgehead phosphorus,[43] arsenic, and antimony compounds have also been resolved



(e.g., 13).[44] Sulfur exhibits pyramidal bonding in sulfoxides, sulfinic esters, sulfonium salts, and sulfites. Examples of each of these have been resolved.[45] An interesting example is (+)-$Ph^{12}CH_2SO^{13}CH_2Ph$, a sulfoxide in which the two alkyl groups differ only in ^{12}C versus ^{13}C but which has $[\alpha]_{280} = +0.71°$.[46]

4. *Suitably Substituted Adamantanes.* Adamantanes bearing four different substituents at the bridgehead positions are chiral and optically active, and 14, for example, has been resolved.[47] This type of molecule is a kind of expanded tetrahedron and has the same symmetry properties as any other tetrahedron.



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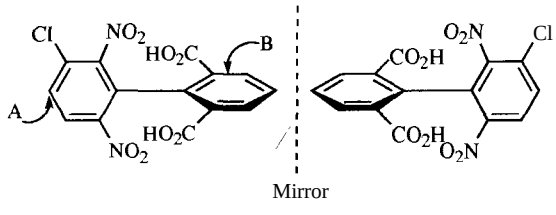
5. *Restricted Rotation Giving Rise to Perpendicular Disymmetric Planes.* Certain compounds that do not contain asymmetric atoms are nevertheless chiral because they contain a structure that can be schematically represented as in Figure 4.2. For these compounds, we can draw two perpendicular planes neither of which can be bisected by a plane of symmetry. If either plane could be so bisected, the molecule would be superimposable on its mirror image, since such a plane would be a plane of symmetry. These points will be illustrated by examples.

   Biphenyls containing four large groups in the ortho positions cannot freely rotate about the central bond because of steric hindrance.[48] In such compounds, the two rings are in perpendicular planes. If either ring is symmetrically substituted, the molecule has a plane of symmetry. For example, consider:



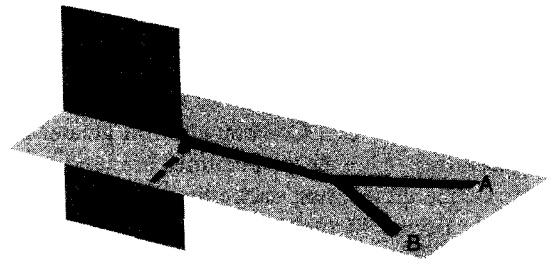
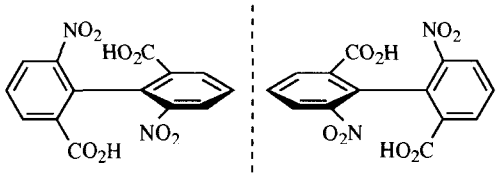


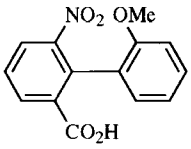
FIGURE 4.2 Perpendicular disymmetric planes.

Ring B is symmetrically substituted. A plane drawn perpendicular to ring B contains all the atoms and groups in ring A; hence, it is a plane of symmetry and the compound is achiral. On the other hand, consider:



There is no plane of symmetry and the molecule is chiral; many such compounds have been resolved. Note that groups in the para position cannot cause lack of symmetry. Isomers that can be separated only because rotation about single bonds is prevented or greatly slowed are called *atropisomers.*[49] 9,9′-Bianthryls also show hindered rotation and exhibit atropisomers.[50]

It is not always necessary for four large ortho groups to be present in order for rotation to be prevented. Compounds with three and even two groups, if large enough, can have hindered rotation and, if suitably substituted, can be resolved. An example is biphenyl-2,2′-bis (sulfonic acid).[51] In some cases, the groups may be large enough to slow rotation greatly but not to prevent it completely. In such cases, optically active compounds can be prepared that



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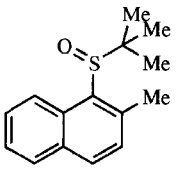

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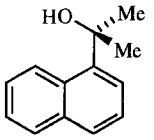
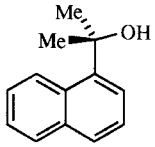
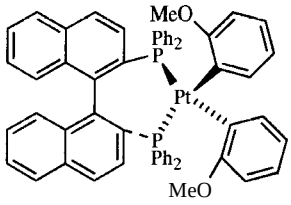


17a



17b

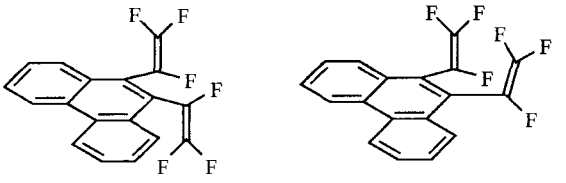


18

slowly racemize on standing. Thus, 15 loses its optical activity with a half-life of 9.4 min in ethanol at 25°C.[52] Compounds with greater rotational stability can often be racemized if higher temperatures are used to supply the energy necessary to force the groups past each other.[53]

Atropisomerism occurs in other systems as well. A sulfoxide (16), for example, forms atropisomers with an interconversion barrier with its atropisomer of 18–19 kcal mol^{-1}.[54] The atropisomers of hindered naphthyl

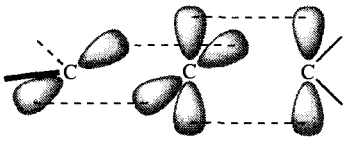
alcohols such as **17** exist as the sp-atropisomer **(17a)** and the ap-atropisomer (17b).[55] Atropisomers can also be formed in organometallic compounds such as the bisphosphinoplatinum complex (see 18) generated by reaction with R-2,2'-bis(diphenylphosphino)-l-l'-binaphthyl (R-BINAP, see p. 1201).[56]



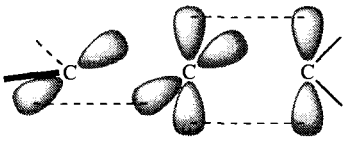
19a **19b**

It is possible to isolate isomers in some cases, due to restricted rotation. In 9,10-bis(trifluorovinyl)phenanthrene (19) torsional diastereomers (see p. 144) are formed. The value of K for interconversion of **19a** and **19b** is 0.48, with $\Delta G^{a} = 15.1$ kcal mol^{-1}.[57]

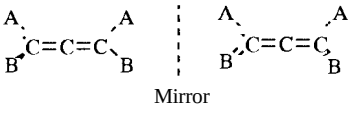
In allenes, the central carbon is *sp* bonded. The remaining two *p* orbitals are perpendicular to each other and each overlaps with the *p* orbital of one adjacent carbon atom, forcing the two remaining bonds of each carbon into perpendicular planes. Thus allenes fall into the category represented by Figure 4.2.



Like biphenyls, allenes are chiral only if both sides are unsymmetrically substituted.[58] For example,

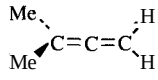


These cases are completely different from the cis-trans isomerism of compounds with one double bond (p. 157). In the latter cases, the four groups are all in one plane, the isomers are not enantiomers, and neither isomer is chiral, while in allenes, the groups are in two perpendicular planes and the isomers are a pair of optically active enantiomers.

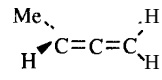


Mirror

When three, five, or any *odd* number of cumulative double bonds exist, orbital overlap causes the four groups to occupy one plane and cis-trans isomerism is observed. When four, six, or any *even* number of cumulative double bonds exist, the situation is analogous to that in the allenes and optical activity is possible. Compound 20 has been resolved.[59]



Inactive



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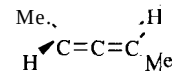
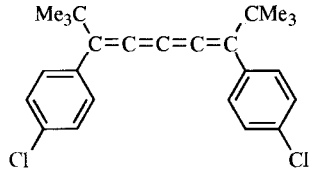


Active

Among other types of compounds that contain the system illustrated in Figure 4.2 and that are similarly chiral if both sides are dissymmetric are spiranes (e.g., 21) and compounds with exocyclic double bonds (e.g., 22).



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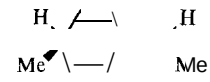
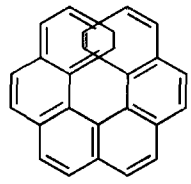
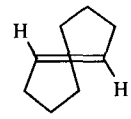


22

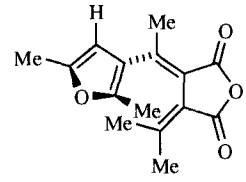
6. *Chirality Due to a Helical Shape.*[60] Several compounds have been prepared that are chiral because they have a shape that is actually helical and can therefore be left or right handed in orientation. The entire molecule is usually less than one full turn of the helix, but this does not alter the possibility of left and right handedness. An example is hexahelicene,[61] in which one side of the molecule must lie above the other because of crowding.[62] Heptalene itself is not planar (p. 54), and its twisted structure makes it chiral, but the enantiomers rapidly interconvert. The rotational barrier for helicene is about 22.9 kcal mol^{-1}, significantly higher when substituents are present,[63] and it has been shown that the dianion of helicene retains its chirality.[64] 1,16-Diazo[6]helicene has also been prepared and, interestingly, does not act as a proton sponge (see p. 347) because the helical structure leaves the basic nitrogen atoms too far apart.[65]



Hexahelicene



trans-Cyclooctene



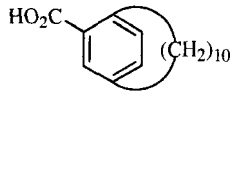
23

24a

24b

trans-Cyclooctene (see also p. 158) also exhibits helical chirality because the carbon chain must lie above the double bond on one side and below it on the other.[66] Similar helical chirality also appears in fulgide **23**[67] and dispiro-1.3-dioxane (24) shows two enantiomers, **24a** and **24b.**[68]

7. *Optical Activity Caused by Restricted Rotation of Other Types.* Substituted paracyclophanes may be optically active and 25, for example, has been resolved.[69] In this case, chirality results because the benzene ring cannot rotate in such a way that the carboxyl group goes through the alicyclic ring. Many chiral layered cyclophanes (e.g., 26) have been prepared.[70]



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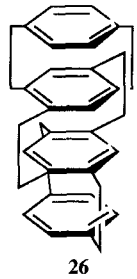
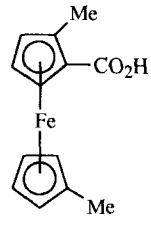


26



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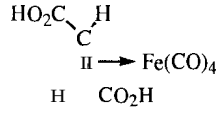

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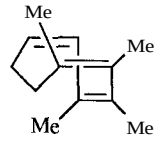
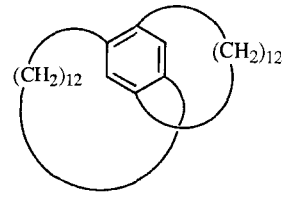


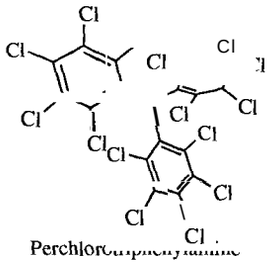
30

Another cyclophane with a different type of chirality is [12][12]paracyclophane (27), where the chirality arises from the relative orientation of the two rings attached to the central benzene ring.[71] Metallocenes substituted with at least two different groups on one ring are also chiral.[72] Several hundred such

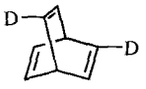


27

compounds have been resolved, one example being 28. Chirality is also found in other metallic complexes of suitable geometry.[73] For example, fumaric acid-iron tetracarbonyl (29) has been resolved.[74] 1,2,3,4-Tetramethylcyclooctatetraene (30) is also chiral.[75] This molecule, which exists in the tub form

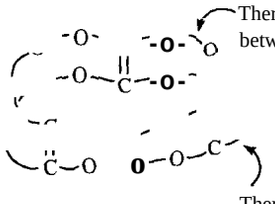


Perchlorotriphenylamine



31

(p. 57), has neither a plane nor an alternating axis of symmetry. Another compound that is chiral solely because of hindered rotation is the propeller-shaped perchlorotriphenylamine, which has been resolved.[76] The 2,5-dideuterio derivative (31) of barrelene is chiral, though the parent hydrocarbon and the monodeuterio derivative are not. Compound 25 has been prepared in optically active form[77] and is another case where chirality is due to isotopic substitution. The main molecular chain in Compound 32 has the form of a Möbius strip (see Fig. 15.7).[78]

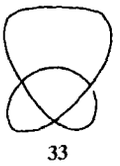


There is a $CH_2 - CH_2$ group between each of the two oxygens

32

There is a CH_2 group between each C and O

This molecule has no chiral carbons, nor does it have a rigid shape, but it too has neither a plane nor an alternating axis of symmetry. Compound 32 has been synthesized and has, in fact, been shown to be chiral.[79] Rings containing 50 or more members should be able to exist as knots (33, and see 37 on p. 114 in Chapter 3). Such a knot would be nonsuperimposable on its mirror image. Calixarenes,[80] crown ethers,[81] catenanes, and rotaxanes (see p. 113) can also be chiral if suitably substituted.[82] For example, A and B are nonsuperimposable mirror images.



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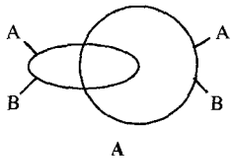
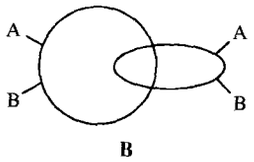


A



B

Creation of a Chiral (Stereogenic) Center

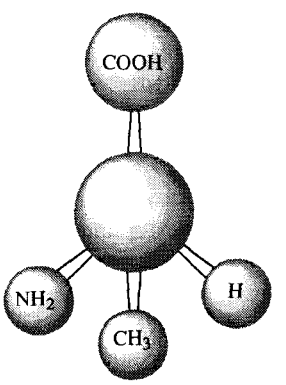
Any structural feature of a molecule that gives rise to optical activity may be called a *chiral* or *stereogenic center*. In many reactions, a new chiral center is created,

$$CH_3CH_2COOH + Br_2 \xrightarrow{P} CH_3CHBrCOOH$$

for example, If the reagents and reaction conditions are all symmetrical, the product must be a racemic mixture. No optically active material can be created if all starting materials and conditions are optically inactive.[83] This statement also holds when one begins with a racemic mixture. Thus racemic 2-butanol, treated with HBr, must give racemic 2-bromobutane.

The Fischer Projection

For a thorough understanding of stereochemistry, it is useful to examine molecular models (like those depicted in Fig. 4.1). However, this is not feasible when writing on paper or a blackboard. In 1891, Emil Fischer greatly served the interests of chemistry by inventing the Fischer projection, a method of representing tetrahedral carbon atoms on paper. By this convention, the model is held so that the two bonds in front of the paper are horizontal and those behind the paper are vertical.



$\equiv$ $H_2N-\underset{\displaystyle CH_3}{\overset{\displaystyle COOH}{\overset{|}{\underset{|}{C}}}}-H$

In order to obtain proper results with these formulas, it should be remembered that they are projections and must be treated differently from the models in testing for superimposability. Every plane is superimposable on its mirror image; hence, with these formulas there must be added the restriction that they may not be taken out of the plane of the blackboard or paper. Also, they may not be rotated 90°, though 180° rotation is permissible:

$$\begin{array}{c} COOH \\ | \\ H_2N-C-H \\ | \\ CH_3 \end{array} = \begin{array}{c} CH_3 \\ | \\ H-C-NH_2 \\ | \\ COOH \end{array} \neq \begin{array}{c} NH_2 \\ | \\ CH_3-C-COOH \\ | \\ H \end{array}$$

It is also permissible to keep any one group fixed and to rotate the other three clockwise or counterclockwise (because this can be done with models):

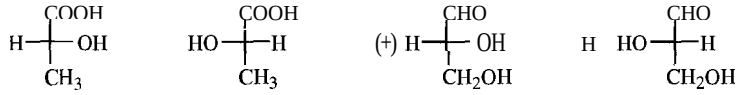
$$\begin{array}{c} COOH \\ | \\ H_2N-C-H \\ | \\ CH_3 \end{array} = \begin{array}{c} COOH \\ | \\ H_3C-C-NH_2 \\ | \\ H \end{array} = \begin{array}{c} COOH \\ | \\ H-C-CH_3 \\ | \\ NH_2 \end{array} = \begin{array}{c} CH_3 \\ | \\ H_2N-C-COOH \\ | \\ H \end{array}$$

However, the *interchange* of any two groups results in the conversion of an enantiomer into its mirror image (this applies to models as well as to the Fischer projections).

With these restrictions Fischer projections may be used instead of models to test whether a molecule containing asymmetric carbons is superimposable on its mirror image. However, there are no such conventions for molecules whose chirality arises from anything other than chiral atoms; when such molecules are examined on paper, three-dimensional pictures must be used. With models or three-dimensional pictures there are no restrictions about the plane of the paper.

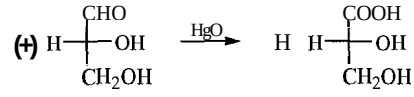
Absolute Configuration

Suppose we have two test tubes, one containing (-)-lactic acid and the other the (+) enantiomer. One test tube contains 34 and the other 35. How do we know which is which? Chemists in the early part of this century pondered this problem and decided



34 35 36 37

that they could not know—for lactic acid or any other compound. Therefore, Rosanoff proposed that one compound be chosen as a standard and a configuration be arbitrarily assigned to it. The compound chosen was glyceraldehyde because of its relationship to the sugars. The (+) isomer was assigned the configuration shown in 36 and given the label D. The (—) isomer, designated to be 37, was given the label L. Once a standard was chosen, other compounds could then be related to it. For example, (+)-glyceraldehyde, oxidized with mercuric oxide (HgO), gives (—)-glyceric acid:



Since it is highly improbable that the configuration at the central carbon changed, it can be concluded that (—)-glyceric acid has the same configuration as (+)-glyceraldehyde, and therefore (–)-glyceric acid is also called D. This example emphasizes that molecules with the same configuration need not rotate the plane of polarized light in the same direction. This fact should not surprise us when we remember that the same compound can rotate the plane in opposite directions under different conditions.

Once the configuration of the glyceric acids was known (in relation to the glyceraldehydes), it was then possible to relate other compounds to either of these, and each time a new compound was related, others could be related to *it.* In this way, many thousands of compounds were related, indirectly, to D- or L-glyceraldehyde, and it was determined that 34, which has the D configuration, is the isomer that

rotates the plane of polarized light to the left. Even compounds without asymmetric atoms, such as biphenyls and allenes, have been placed in the D or L series.[84] When a compound has been placed in the D or L series, its *absolute configuration* is said to be known.

In 1951, it became possible to determine whether Rosanoff's guess was right. Ordinary X-ray crystallography cannot distinguish between a D and an L isomer, but by use of a special technique, Bijvoet et al.[86] was able to examine sodium rubidium tartrate and found that Rosanoff had made the correct choice.[86] It was perhaps Historically fitting that the first true absolute configuration should have been determined on a salt of tartaric acid, since Pasteur made his great discoveries on another salt of this acid.

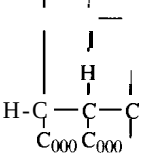
In spite of the former widespread use of D and L to denote absolute configuration, the method is not without faults. The designation of a particular enantiomer as D or L can depend on the compounds to which it is related. Examples are known where an enantiomer can, by five or six steps, be related to a known D compound, and by five or six other steps, be related to the L enantiomer of the same compound. In a case of this sort, an arbitrary choice of D or L must be used. Because of this and other flaws, the DL system is no longer used, except for certain groups of compounds such as carbohydrates and amino acids.

THE CAHN-INGOLD-PRELOG SYSTEM

The system that has replaced the DL system is the *Cahn–Ingold–Prelog* system, in which the four groups on an asymmetric carbon are ranked according to a set of sequence rules.[87] For our purposes, we confine ourselves to only a few of these rules, which are sufficient to deal with the vast majority of chiral compounds.

1. Substituents are listed in order of decreasing atomic number of the atom directly joined to the carbon.
2. Where two or more of the atoms connected to the asymmetric carbon are the same, the atomic number of the second atom determines the order. For example, in the molecule $Me_2CH{-}CHBr{-}CH_2OH$, the CH_2OH group takes precedence over the Me_2CH group because oxygen has a higher atomic number than carbon. Note that this is so even though there are two carbons in Me_2CH and only one oxygen in CH_2OH. If two or more atoms connected to the second atom are the same, the third atom determines the precedence, and so on.
3. All atoms except hydrogen are formally given a valence of 4. Where the actual valence is less (as in nitrogen, oxygen, or a carbanion), phantom atoms (designated by a subscript 0) are used to bring the valence up to 4. These phantom atoms are assigned an atomic number of 0 and necessarily rank lowest. Thus the ligand $-{}^{+}NHMe_2$ ranks higher than $-NMe_2$.
4. A tritium atom takes precedence over deuterium, which in turn takes precedence over ordinary hydrogen. Similarly, any higher isotope (such as ^{14}C) takes precedence over any lower one.

TABLE 4.1 How Four Common Groups Are Treated in the Cahn–Ingold–Prelog System

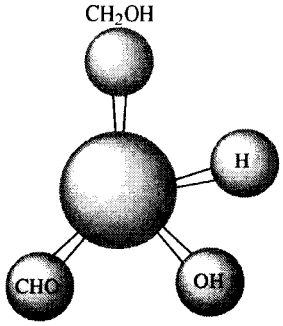
Group	Treated as If It Were	Group	Treated as If It Were
—C(H)=O	—C(H)(O$_{000}$)(O$_{000}$)	—CH=CH$_2$	—C(H)(C$_{000}$)—C(H)(C$_{000}$)(H)
—C≡CH	—C(C$_{000}$)(H)—C(C$_{000}$)(C$_{000}$)	—C$_6$H$_5$	

5. Double and triple bonds are counted as if they were split into two or three single bonds, respectively, as in the examples in Table 4.1 (note the treatment of the phenyl group). Note that in a C=C double bond, the two carbon atoms are *each* regarded as being connected to two carbon atoms and that one of the latter is counted as having three phantom substituents.

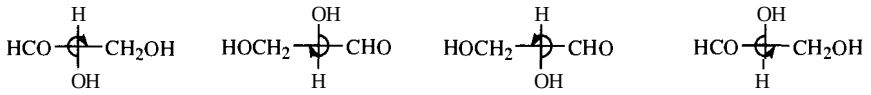
As an exercise, we shall compare the four groups in Table 4.1. The first atoms are connected, respectively, to (H, O, O), (H, C, C), (C, C, C), and (C, C, C). That is enough to establish that —CHO ranks first and —CH=CH$_2$ last, since even one oxygen outranks three carbons and three carbons outrank two carbons and a hydrogen. To classify the remaining two groups, we must proceed further along the chains. We note that —C$_6$H$_5$ has two of its (C, C, C) carbons connected to (C, C, H), while the third is ($_{000}$) and is thus preferred to —C≡CH, which has only one (C, C, H) and two ($_{000}$)s.

By application of the above rules, some groups in descending order of precedence are COOH, COPh, COMe, CHO, CH(OH)$_2$, *o*-tolyl, *m*-tolyl, *p*-tolyl, phenyl, C≡CH, *tert*-butyl, cyclohexyl, vinyl, isopropyl, benzyl, neopentyl, allyl, *n*-pentyl, ethyl, methyl, deuterium, and hydrogen. Thus the four groups of glyceraldehyde are arranged in the sequence: OH, CHO, CH$_2$OH, H.

Once the order is determined, the molecule is held so that the lowest group in the sequence is pointed away from the viewer. Then, if the other groups in the order listed are oriented clockwise, the molecule is designated (*R*), and if counterclockwise *(S)*. For glyceraldehyde, the (+) enantiomer is (*R*):

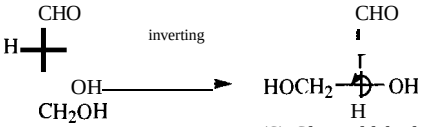


Note that when a compound is written in the Fischer projection, the configuration can easily be determined without constructing the model.[88] If the lowest ranking group is either at the top or the bottom (because these are the two positions pointing away from the viewer), the (*R*) configuration is present if the other three groups in descending order are clockwise, for example,



(*R*)-Glyceraldehyde (S)-Glyceraldehyde

If the lowest ranking group is not at the top or bottom, one can simply interchange it with the top or bottom group, bearing in mind that in so doing, one is inverting the configuration, for example:



(S)-Glyceraldehyde

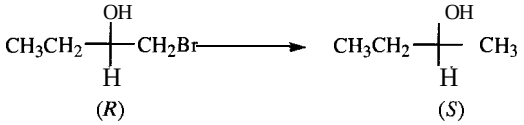
Therefore the original compound was (*R*)-glyceraldehyde.

The Cahn–Ingold–Prelog system is unambiguous and easily applicable in most cases. Whether to call an enantiomer (*R*) or (*S*) does not depend on correlations, but the configuration must be known before the system can be applied, and this does depend on correlations. The Cahn-Ingold-Prelog system has also been extended to chiral compounds that do not contain chiral atoms.[89] A series of new rules have been proposed to address the few cases where the rules can be ambiguous, as in cyclophanes and other systems.[90]

METHODS OF DETERMINING CONFIGURATION[91]

In all the methods,[92] it is necessary to relate the compound of unknown configuration to another whose configuration is known. The most important methods of doing this are

1. Conversion of the unknown to, or formation of the unknown from, a compound of known configuration without disturbing the chiral center. See the glyceraldehyde-glyceric acid example above (p. 138). Since the chiral



center was not disturbed, the unknown obviously has the same configuration as the known. This does not necessarily mean that if the known is (*R*), the

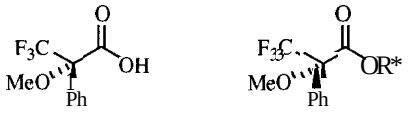
unknown is also (*R*). For example, when (*R*)-1-bromo-2-butanol is reduced to 2-butanol without disturbing the chiral center, the product is the *(S)* isomer, even though the configuration is unchanged, because CH_3CH_2 ranks lower than $BrCH_2$ but higher than CH_3.

2. Conversion at the chiral center if the mechanism is known. Thus, the S_N2 mechanism proceeds with inversion of configuration at an asymmetric carbon (see p. 390) It was by a series of such transformations that lactic acid was related to alanine:

(*S*)-(+)-Lactic acid (*R*) (S) (*S*)-(+)-Alanine

See also the discussion on page 391.

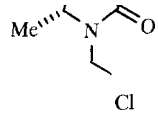
3. Biochemical methods. In a series of similar compounds, such as amino acids or certain types of steroids, a given enzyme will usually attack only molecules with one kind of configuration. If the enzyme attacks only the L form of eight amino acids, say, then attack on the unknown ninth amino acid will also be on the L form.
4. Optical comparison. It is sometimes possible to use the sign and extent of rotation to determine which isomer has which configuration. In a homologous series, the rotation usually changes gradually and in one direction. If the configurations of enough members of the series are known, the configurations of the missing ones can be determined by extrapolation. Also, certain groups contribute more or less fixed amounts to the rotation of the parent molecule, especially when the parent is a rigid system such as a steroid.
5. The special X-ray method of Bijvoet gives direct answers and has been used in a number of cases.[86]
6. One of the most useful methods for determining enantiomeric composition is to derivatize the alcohol with a chiral nonracemic reagent and examine the ratio of resulting diastereomers by gas chromatography.[93] There are many derivatizing agents available, but the most widely used are derivatives of α-methoxy-α-trifluoromethylphenyl acetic acid (MTPA, or Mosher's acid, **38**).[94] Reaction with a chiral nonracemic alcohol (R^*OH) generates a Mosher's ester (39) that can be analyzed for diastereomeric composition by ^1H or ^{19}F NMR as well as by chromatographic techniques.[95]



38 39

Alternatively, complexation with lanthanide shift reagents allow the signals of the MTPA ester to be resolved and used to determine enantiomeric

composition.[96] The effectiveness of this method, and other related methods,[97] have been evaluated and found to be good for determining the absolute configuration of the alcohol of interest (R^*OH).[98] Two, of many other reagents that have been developed to allow the enantiopurity of alcohols and amines to be determined include 40 and 41. Chloromethyl lactam (40) reacts with R^*OH or R^*NHR (R^*NH2),[99] forming derivatives that allow analysis by ^1H NMR and 41 reacts with alkoxides (R^*O^-)[100] to form a derivative that can be analyzed by ^{31}P NMR. For a more detailed discussion of methods to determine optical purity, see page 155.



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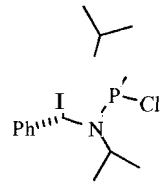


41

Other methods have also been used, including optical rotatory dispersion,[101] circular dichroism (CD),[101] and asymmetric synthesis (see p. 147).

The Cause of Optical Activity

The question may be asked: Just why does a chiral molecule rotate the plane of polarized light? Theoretically, the answer to this question is known and in a greatly simplified form may be explained as follows.[102]

Whenever any light hits any molecule in a transparent material, the light is slowed because of interaction with the molecule. This phenomenon on a gross scale is responsible for the refraction of light and the decrease in velocity is proportional to the refractive index of the material. The extent of interaction depends on the polarizability of the molecule. Plane-polarized light may be regarded as being made up of two kinds of circularly polarized light. Circularly polarized light has the appearance (or would have, if one could see the wave) of a helix propagating around the axis of light motion, and one kind is a left-handed and the other a right-handed helix. As long as the plane-polarized light is passing through a symmetrical region, the two circularly polarized components travel at the same speed. However, a chiral molecule has a different polarizability depending on whether it is approached from the left or the right. One circularly polarized component approaches the molecule, so to speak, from the left and sees a different polarizability (hence, on a gross scale, a different refractive index) than the other and is slowed to a different extent. This would seem to mean that the left- and right-handed circularly polarized components travel at different velocities, since each has been slowed to a different extent. However, it is not possible for two components of the same light to be traveling at different velocities. What actually takes place, therefore, is that the faster component "pulls" the other toward it, resulting in rotation of the plane. Empirical methods for

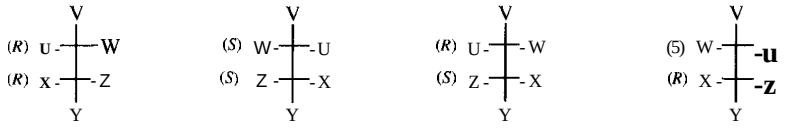
the prediction of the sign and amount of rotation based on bond refractions and polarizabilities of groups in a molecule have been devised,[103] and have given fairly good results in many cases.

In liquids and gases, the molecules are randomly oriented. A molecule that is optically inactive because it has a plane of symmetry will very seldom be oriented so that the plane of the polarized light coincides with the plane of symmetry. When it is so oriented, that particular molecule does not rotate the plane but all others not oriented in that manner do rotate the plane, even though the molecules are achiral. There is no net rotation because, the molecules being present in large number and randomly oriented, there will always be another molecule later on in the path of the light that is oriented exactly opposite and will rotate the plane back again. Even though nearly all molecules rotate the plane individually, the total rotation is zero. For chiral molecules, however (if there is no racemic mixture), no opposite orientation is present and there is a net rotation.

An interesting phenomenon was observed when the CD of chiral molecules was measured in achiral solvents. The chiral solvent contributed as much as 10-20% to the CD intensity in some cases. Apparently, the chiral compound can induce a solvation structure that is chiral, even when the solvent molecules themselves are achiral.[104]

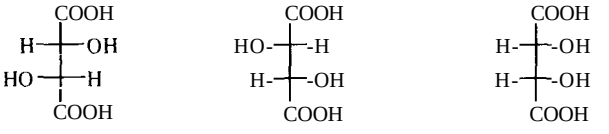
Molecules With More Than One Chiral (Stereogenic) Center

When a molecule has two stereogenic centers, each has its own configuration and can be classified *(R)* or *(S)* by the Cahn–Ingold–Prelog method. There are a total of four isomers, since the first center may be *(R)* or *(S)* and so may the second. Since a molecule can have only one mirror image, only one of the other three can be the enantiomer of A. This is B [the mirror image of an *(R)* center is *always* an *(S)* center]. The compounds C and D are a second pair of enantiomers and the rela-



tionship of C and D to A and B is designated by the term *diastereomer*. Diastereomers may be defined as *stereoisomers that are not enantiomers.* Being enantiomers, C and D must have identical properties, except as noted on p. 126; the same is true for A and B. However, the properties of A and B are not identical with those of C and D. They have different melting points, boiling points, solubilities, reactivity, and all other physical, chemical, and spectral properties. The properties are usually *similar* but not *identical.* In particular, diastereomers have different specific rotations; indeed one diastereomer may be chiral and rotate the plane of polarized light while another may be achiral and not rotate at all (an example is presented below).

It is now possible to see why, as mentioned on page 126, enantiomers react at different rates with other chiral molecules but at the same rate with achiral molecules. In the latter case, the activated complex formed from the *(R)* enantiomer and the other molecule is the mirror image of the activated complex formed from the *(S)* enantiomer and the other molecule. Since the two activated complexes are

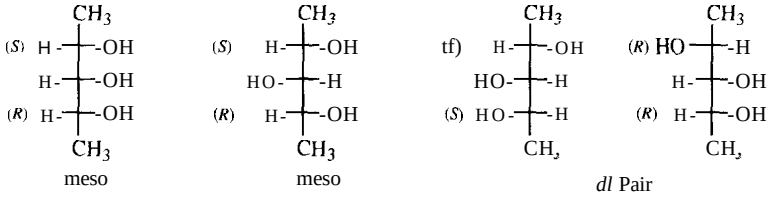


dl Pair meso

The three stereoisomers of tartaric acid

enantiomeric, their energies are the same and the rates of the reactions in which they are formed must be the same (see Chapter 6). However, when an *(R)* enantiomer reacts with a chiral molecule that has, say, the *(R)* configuration, the activated complex has two chiral centers with configurations *(R)* and (*R*), while the activated complex formed from the (S) enantiomer has the configurations *(S)* and *(R).* The two activated complexes are diastereomeric, do not have the same energies, and consequently are formed at different rates.

Although four is the maximum possible number of isomers when the compound has two chiral centers (chiral compounds without a chiral carbon, or with one chiral carbon and another type of chiral center, also follow the rules described here), some compounds have fewer. When the three groups on one chiral atom are the same as those on the other, one of the isomers (called a meso form) has a plane of symmetry, and hence is optically inactive, even though it has two chiral carbons. Tartaric acid is a typical case. There are only three isomers of tartaric acid: a pair of enantiomers and an inactive meso form. For compounds that have two chiral atoms, meso forms are found only where the four groups on one of the chiral atoms are the same as those on the other chiral atom.

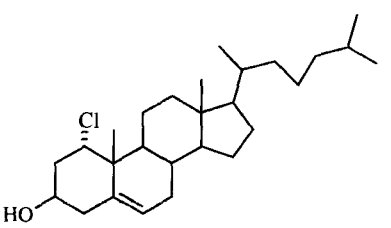


In most cases with more than two chiral centers, the number of isomers can be calculated from the formula 2^n, where *n* is the number of chiral centers, although in some cases the actual number is less than this, owing to meso forms.[105] An interesting case is that of 2,3,4-pentanetriol (or any similar molecule). The middle carbon is not asymmetric when the 2- and 4-carbon atoms are both *(R)* [or both *(S)]* but is asymmetric when one of them is *(R)* and the other (S). Such a carbon is called a *pseudoasymmetric* carbon. In these cases, there are four isomers: two meso forms and one *dl* pair. The student should satisfy himself or herself, remembering the rules

governing the use of the Fischer projections, that these isomers are different, that the *meso* forms are superimposable on their mirror images, and that there are no other stereoisomers. Two diastereomers that have a different configuration at only one chiral center are called *epimers.*

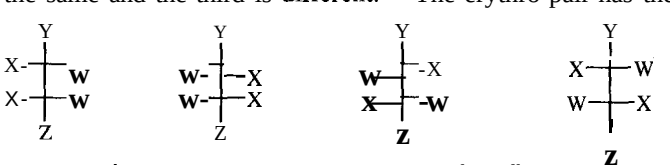
In compounds with two or more chiral centers, the absolute configuration must be separately determined for each center. The usual procedure is to determine the configuration at one center by the methods discussed on pages 141-143, and then to relate the configuration at that center to the others in the molecule. One method is X-ray crystallography, which, as previously noted, cannot be used to determine the absolute configuration at any chiral center but which does give relative configurations of all the chiral centers in a molecule, and hence the absolute configurations of all once the first is independently determined. Other physical and chemical methods have also been used for this purpose.

The problem of how to name the different stereoisomers of a compound when there are more than two now arises.[2] Enantiomers are virtually always called by the same name, being distinguished by (*R*) and (*S*) or D and L or (+) and (—). In the early days of organic chemistry, it was customary to give each pair of enantiomers a different name or at least a different prefix (such as *epi-*, *peri-*, etc.). Thus the aldohexoses are called glucose, mannose, idose, and so on, although they are all 2,3,4,5,6-pentahydroxyhexanal (in their open-chain forms). This practice was partially due to lack of knowledge about which isomers had which configurations. Today it is customary to describe *each stereogenic position* separately as either (*R*) or (*S*) or, in special fields, to use other symbols. Thus, in the case of steroids, groups above the "plane" of the ring system are designated P, and those below it a. Solid lines are often used to depict β groups and dashed lines for a groups. An example is



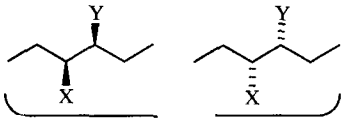
1α-Chloro-5-cholesten-3β-ol

For many open-chain compounds, prefixes are used that are derived from the names of the corresponding sugars and that describe the whole system rather than each chiral center separately. Two such common prefixes are *erythro-* and *threo-*, which are applied to systems containing two stereogenic carbons when two of the groups are the same and the third is different.[106] The erythro pair has the identical

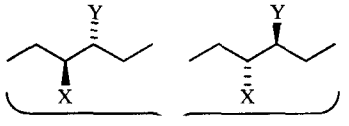


erythro *dl* Pair threo *dl* Pair

groups on the same side when drawn in the Fischer convention, and if Y were changed to Z, it would be meso. The threo pair has them on opposite sides, and if Y were changed to Z, it would still be a *dl* pair. Another system[107] for designating stereoisomers[108] uses the terms *syn* and *anti*. The "main chain" of the molecule is drawn in the common zigzag manner. Then, if two non-hydrogen substituents are on the same side of the plane defined by the main chain, the designation is syn; otherwise anti.



syn *dl* Pair



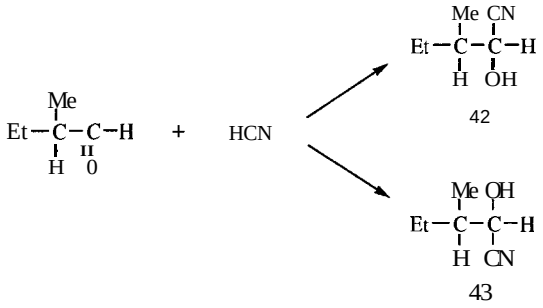
anti *dl* Pair

Asymmetric Synthesis

Organic chemists often wish to synthesize a chiral compound in the form of a single enantiomer or diastereomer, rather than as a mixture of stereoisomers. There are two basic ways in which this can be done.[109] The first way, which is more common, is to begin with a single stereoisomer, and to use a synthesis that does not affect the chiral center (or centers), as in the glyceraldehyde-glyceric acid example on page 138. The optically active starting compound can be obtained by a previous synthesis, or by resolution of a racemic mixture (p. 151), but it is often more convenient to obtain it from nature, since many compounds, such as amino acids, sugars, and steroids are present in nature in the form of a single enantiomer or diastereomer. These compounds are regarded as a *chiral pool;* that is, readily available compounds that can be used as starting materials.[110]

The other basic method is called *asymmetric synthesis,*[111] or *stereoselective synthesis.* As was mentioned before, optically active materials cannot be created from inactive starting materials and conditions; hence, true asymmetric synthesis is impossible, except in the manner previously noted.[83] However, when a new stereogenic center is created, the two possible configurations need not be formed in equal amounts if anything is present that is not symmetric. We discuss asymmetric synthesis under four headings:

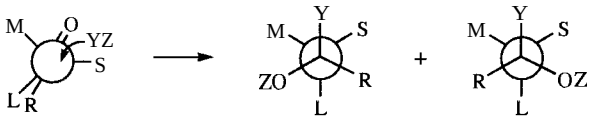
1. *Active Substrate.* If a new stereogenic center is created in a molecule that is already optically active, the two diastereomers are not (except fortuitously) formed in equal amounts. The reason is that the direction of attack by the reagent is determined by the groups already there. For certain additions to the carbon-oxygen double bond of ketones containing an asymmetric α carbon, *Cram's rule* predicts which diastereomer will predominate (diastereoselectivity).[112]



42

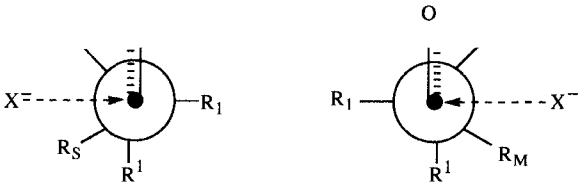
43

If the molecule is observed along its axis, it may be represented as in 44 (see p. 168), where S, M, and L stand for small, medium, and large, respectively. The oxygen of the carbonyl orients itself between the small- and the medium-sized groups. The rule is that the incoming group preferentially attacks on the side of the plane containing the small group. By this rule, it can be predicted that 43 will be formed in larger amounts than 42.



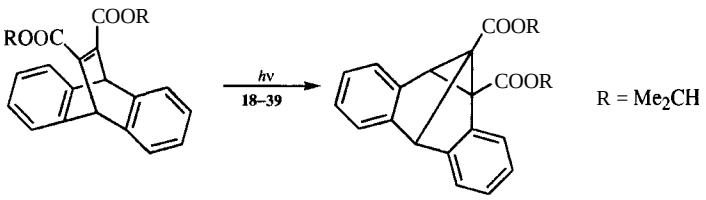
44 Major product Minor product

Another model can be used to predict diastereoselectivity, which assumes reactant–like transition states and that the separation of the incoming group and any electronegative substituent at the α carbon is greatest. Transition state models 45 and 46 are used to predict diastereoselectivity in what is known as the *Felkin–Ahn model.*[113]



45 46

Many reactions of this type are known, in some of which the extent of favoritism approaches 100% (for an example, see **12-11**).[114] The farther away the reaction site is from the stereogenic center, the less influence the latter has and the more equal the amounts of diastereomers formed.

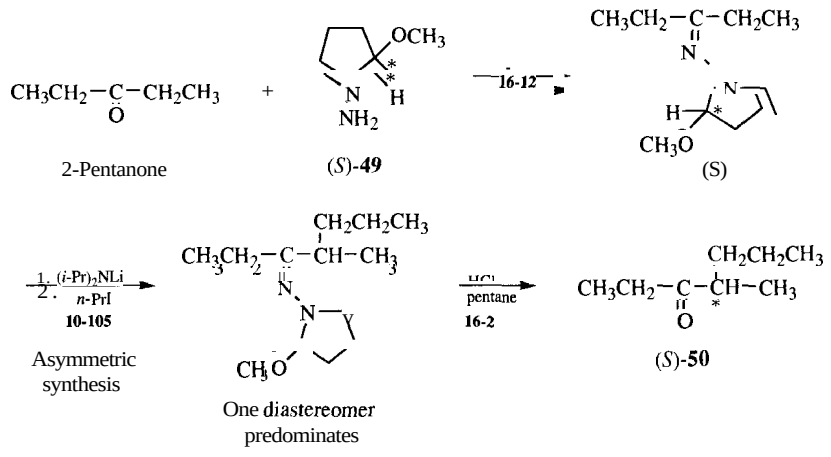


47 Not chiral

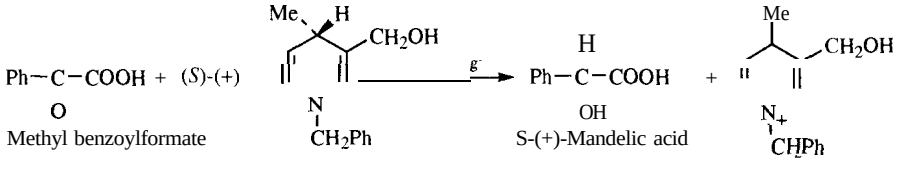
48 Optically active

In a special case of this type of asymmetric synthesis, a compound (47) with achiral molecules, but whose crystals are chiral, was converted by UV light to a single enantiomer of a chiral product (**48**).[115]

It is often possible to convert an achiral compound to a chiral compound by (1) addition of a chiral group; (2) running an asymmetric synthesis, and (3) cleavage of the original chiral group. An example is conversion of the achiral 2-pentanone to the chiral 4-methyl-3-heptanone (**50**).[116] In this case, >99% of the product was the *(S)* enantiomer. Compound 49 is called a *chiral auxiliary* because it is used to induce asymmetry and then is removed.

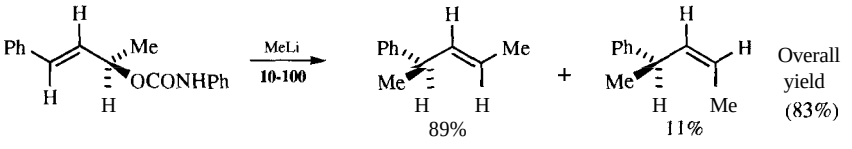


2. *Active Reagent.* A pair of enantiomers can be separated by an active reagent that reacts faster with one of them than it does with the other (this is also a method of resolution). If the absolute configuration of the reagent is known, the configuration of the enantiomers can often be determined by a knowledge of the mechanism and by seeing which diastereomer is preferentially



formed.[117] Creation of a new chiral center in an inactive molecule can also be accomplished with an active reagent, though it is rare for 100% selectivity to be observed. An example[118] is the reduction of methyl benzoylformate with optically active *N*-benzyl-3-(hydroxymethyl)-4-methyl-1,4-dihydropyridine (51) to produce mandelic acid, which contained ~97.5% of the (*S*)-(+) isomer and 2.5% of the (*R*)-(−) isomer (for another example, see p. 1014). Note that the other product, (52), is not chiral. Reactions like this, in which

one reagent (in this case **51)** gives up its chirality to another, are called *self-immolative.* In this intramolecular example, chirality is transferred from one

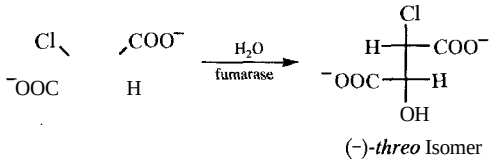


atom to another in the same molecule.[119]

A reaction in which an inactive substrate is converted selectively to one of two enantiomers is called an *enantioselective* reaction, and the process is called *asymmetric induction.* These terms apply to reactions in this category and in categories 3 and 4.

When an optically active substrate reacts with an optically active reagent to form two new chiral centers, it is possible for both centers to be created in the desired sense. This type of process is called *double asymmetric synthesis*[120] (for an example, see p. 1222).

3. *Active Catalyst or Solvent.*[121] Many such examples are present in the literature, among them reduction of ketones and substituted alkenes to optically active (though not optically pure) secondary alcohols and substituted alkanes by treatment with hydrogen and a chiral homogeneous hydrogenation catalyst (Reactions **16-23** and **15-11),**[122] the treatment of aldehydes or ketones with organometallic compounds in the presence of a chiral catalyst (see **16-27),** and the conversion of alkenes to optically active epoxides by treatment with a hydroperoxide and a chiral catalyst (see **15-48).** In some instances, notably in the homogeneous catalytic hydrogenation of alkenes **(15-11),** the ratio of enantiomers prepared in this way is as high as 98:2.[123] Other examples of the use of a chiral catalyst or solvent are the conversion of chlorofumaric acid (in the form of its di-ion) to the *(−)-threo* isomer of the di-ion of chloromalic acid by treatment with H_2O and the enzyme fumarase,[124] and the preparation of optically active aldols (aldol condensation, see **16-39)** by the condensation of enolate anions with optically active substrates.[125]

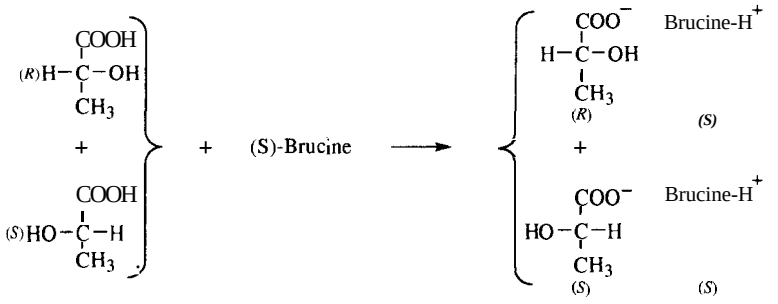


(−)-*threo* Isomer

4. *Reactions in the Presence of Circularly Polarized Light.*[126] If the light used to initiate a photochemical reaction (Chapter 7) of achiral reagents is circularly polarized, then, in theory, a chiral product richer in one enantiomer might be obtained. However, such experiments have not proved fruitful. In certain instances, the use of left- and right-circularly polarized light *has* given products with opposite rotations[127] (showing that the principle is valid), but up to now the extent of favoritism has always been < 1%.

Methods of Resolution[128]

A pair of enantiomers can be separated in several ways, of which conversion to diastereomers and separation of these by fractional crystallization is the most often used. In this method and in some of the others, both isomers can be recovered, but in some methods it is necessary to destroy one.



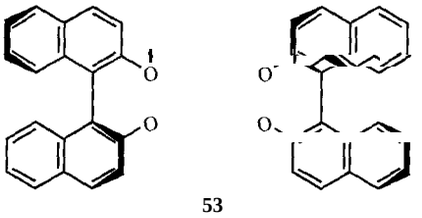
1. *Conversion to Diastereomers.* If the racemic mixture to be resolved contains a carboxyl group (and no strongly basic group), it is possible to form a salt with an optically active base. Since the base used is, say, the (*S*) form, there will be a mixture of two salts produced having the configurations (*SS*) and (*RS*). Although the acids are enantiomers, the salts are diastereomers and have different properties. The property most often used for separation is differential solubility. The mixture of diastereomeric salts is allowed to crystallize from a suitable solvent. Since the solubilities are different, the initial crystals formed will be richer in one diastereomer. Filtration at this point will already have achieved a partial resolution. Unfortunately, the difference in solubilities is rarely if ever great enough to effect total separation with one crystallization. Usually, fractional crystallizations must be used and the process is long and tedious. Fortunately, naturally occurring optically active bases (mostly alkaloids) are readily available. Among the most commonly used are brucine, ephedrine, strychnine, and morphine. Once the two diastereomers have been separated, it is easy to convert the salts back to the free acids and the recovered base can be used again.

   Most resolution is done on carboxylic acids and often, when a molecule does not contain a carboxyl group, it is converted to a carboxylic acid before resolution is attempted. However, the principle of conversion to diastereomers is not confined to carboxylic acids, and other groups[129] may serve as handles to be coupled to an optically active reagent.[130] Racemic bases can be converted to diastereomeric salts with active acids. Alcohols[131] can be converted to diastereomeric esters, aldehydes to diastereomeric hydrazones, and so on. Even hydrocarbons can be converted to diastereomeric inclusion compounds,[132] with urea. Urea is not chiral, but the cage structure is.[133] Chiral crown ethers have been used to separate mixtures of enantiomeric alkyl- and arylammonium ions, by the formation of diastereomeric complexes[134] (see also category 3, below). *trans*-Cyclooctene (p. 134) was

resolved by conversion to a platinum complex containing an optically active amine.[135]

Although fractional crystallization has always been the most common method for the separation of diastereomers. When it can be used, binary-phase diagrams for the diastereomeric salts have been used to calculate the efficiency of optical resolution.[136] However, its tediousness and the fact that it is limited to solids prompted a search for other methods. Fractional distillation has given only limited separation, but gas chromatography[137] and preparative liquid chromatography[138] have proved more useful and, in many cases, have supplanted fractional crystallization, especially where the quantities to be resolved are small.[139]

2. *Differential Absorption.* When a racemic mixture is placed on a chromatographic column, if the column consists of chiral substances, then in principle the enantiomers should move along the column at different rates and should be separable without having to be converted to diastereomers.[139] This has been successfully accomplished with paper, column, thin-layer,[140] and gas and liquid chromatography.[141] For example, racemic mandelic acid has been almost completely resolved by column chromatography on starch.[142] Many workers have achieved separations with gas and liquid chromatography by the use of columns packed with chiral absorbents.[143] Columns packed with chiral materials are now commercially available and are capable of separating the enantiomers of certain types of compounds.[144]
3. *Chiral Recognition.* The use of chiral hosts to form diastereomeric inclusion compounds was mentioned above. But in some cases it is possible for a host to form an inclusion compound with one enantiomer of a racemic guest, but not the other. This is called *chiral recognition.* One enantiomer fits into the chiral host cavity, the other does not. More often, both diastereomers are formed, but one forms more rapidly than the other, so that if the guest is removed it is already partially resolved (this is a form of kinetic resolution, see category 6). An example is use of the chiral crown ether (53) partially to resolve the racemic amine salt (**54**).[145] When an aqueous solution of 54 was



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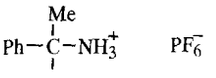
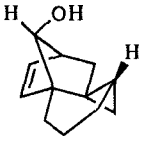


54

mixed with a solution of optically active 53 in chloroform, and the layers separated, the chloroform layer contained about twice as much of the complex between 53 and (*R*)-**54** as of the diastereomeric complex. Many other chiral crown ethers and cryptands have been used, as have been cyclodextrins,[146] cholic acid,[147] and other kinds of hosts.[132] Of course,

enzymes are generally very good at chiral recognition, and much of the work in this area has been an attempt to mimic the action of enzymes.

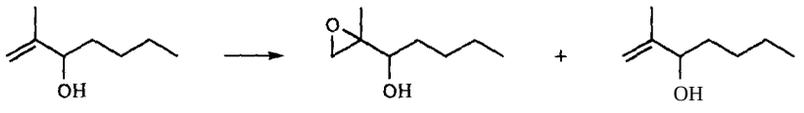
4. *Biochemical Processes.*[148] The chiral compound that reacts at different rates with the two enantiomers may be present in a living organism. For instance, a certain bacterium may digest one enantiomer but not the other. This method is limited, since it is necessary to find the proper organism, and since one of the enantiomers is destroyed in the process. However, when the proper organism is found, the method leads to a high extent of resolution since biological processes are usually very stereoselective.
5. *Mechanical Separation.*[149] This is the method by which Pasteur proved that racemic acid was actually a mixture of (+)- and (−)-tartaric acids.[150] In the case of racemic sodium ammonium tartrate the enantiomers crystallize separately—all the (+) molecules going into one crystal and all the (-) into another. Since the crystals too are nonsuperimposable, their appearance is not identical and a trained crystallographer can separate them with tweezers.[151] However, this is seldom a practical method, since few compounds crystallize in this manner. Even sodium ammonium tartrate does so only when it is crystallized below 27°C. A more useful variation of the method, though still not very common, is the seeding of a racemic solution with something that will cause only one enantiomer to crystallize.[152] An interesting example of the mechanical separation technique was reported in the isolation of heptahelicene (p. 134). One enantiomer of this compound, which incidentally has the extremely high rotation of $[\alpha]_D^{20} = +6200$ deg, spontaneously crystallizes from benzene.[153] In the case of 1,1'-binaphthyl, optically active crystals can be formed simply by heating polycrystalline racemic samples of the compound at 76–150°. A phase change from one crystal form to another takes place.[154] It may be noted that 1,1'-binaphthyl is one of the few compounds that can be resolved by the Pasteur tweezer method. In some cases, resolution



55

can be achieved by enantioselective crystallization in the presence of a chiral additive.[155] Spontaneous resolution has also been achieved by sublimation. In the case of the norborneol derivative (55), when the racemic solid is subjected to sublimation, the (+) molecules condense into one crystal and the (-) molecules into another.[156] In this case the crystals are superimposable, unlike the situation with sodium ammonium tartrate, but the investigators were able to remove a single crystal, which proved optically active.
6. *Kinetic Resolution.*[157] Since enantiomers react with chiral compounds at different rates, it is sometimes possible to effect a partial separation by

stopping the reaction before completion. This method is very similar to the asymmetric syntheses discussed on page 132. A method has been developed to evaluate the enantiomeric ratio of kinetic resolution using only the extent of substrate conversion.[158] An important application of this method is the resolution of racemic alkenes by treatment with optically active diisopinocampheylborane,[159] since alkenes do not easily lend themselves to conversion to diastereomers if no other functional groups are present. Another example is the resolution of allylic alcohols such as (56 with one



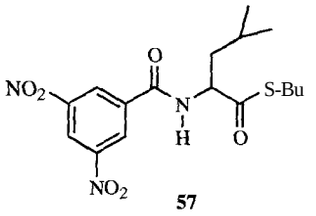
Racemic (*R*)-Enantiomer (*S*)-Enantiomer

56

enantiomer of a chiral epoxidation agent (see **15-48**).[160] In the case of 56, the discrimination was extreme. One enantiomer was converted to the epoxide and the other was not, the rate ratio (hence, the selectivity factor) being >100. Of course, in this method only one of the enantiomers of the original racemic mixture is obtained, but there are at least two possible ways of getting the other: (1) use of the other enantiomer of the chiral reagent; (2) conversion of the product to the starting compound by a reaction that preserves the stereochemistry.

Kinetic resolution of racemic allylic acetates[161] has been accomplished via asymmetric dihydroxylation (p. 1051), and 2-oxoimidazolidine-4-carboxylates have been developed as new chiral auxiliaries for the kinetic resolution of amines.[162] Reactions catalyzed by enzymes can be utilized for this kind of resolution.[163]

7. *Deracemization.* In this type of process, one enantiomer is converted to the other, so that a racemic mixture is converted to a pure enantiomer, or to a mixture enriched in one enantiomer. This is not quite the same as the methods of resolution previously mentioned, though an outside optically active substance is required.



57

For example, the racemic thioester 57 was placed in contact with a certain optically active amide. After 28 days the solution contained 89% of one enantiomer and 11% of the other.[164] To effect the deracemization two conditions are necessary: (1) the enantiomers must complex differently with

the optically active substance; (2) they must interconvert under the conditions of the experiment. In this case, the presence of a base (Et_3N) was necessary for the interconversion to take place.

Optical Purity[165]

Suppose we have just attempted to resolve a racemic mixture by one of the methods described in the previous section. How do we know that the two enantiomers we have obtained are pure? For example, how do we know that the (+) isomer is not contaminated by, say, 20% of the (-) isomer and vice versa? If we knew the value of [a] for the pure material, $[\alpha]_{max}$, we could easily determine the purity of our sample by measuring its rotation. For example, if $[\alpha]_{max}$ is +80° and our (+) enantiomer contains 20% of the (-) isomer, [a] for the sample will be +48°.[166] We define *optical purity* as

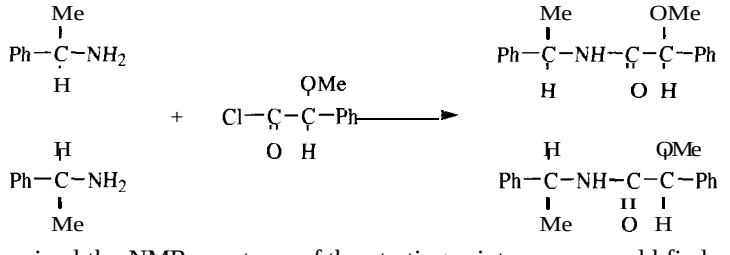
$$\text{Percent optical purity} = \frac{[\alpha]_{obs}}{[\alpha]_{max}} \times 100$$

Assuming a linear relationship between [a] and concentration, which is true for most cases, the optical purity is equal to the percent excess of one enantiomer over the other:

$$\text{Optical purity} = \text{percent enantiomeric excess} = \frac{[(R)] - [(S)]}{[(R)] + [(S)]} \times 100 = \%(R)\text{-}\%(S)$$

But how do we determine the value of $[\alpha]_{max}$? It is plain that we have two related problems here; namely, what are the optical purities of our two samples and what is the value of $[\alpha]_{max}$. If we solve one, the other is also solved. Several methods for solving these problems are known.

One of these methods involves the use of NMR[167] (see p. 143 above). Suppose we have a nonracemic mixture of two enantiomers and wish to know the proportions. We convert the mixture into a mixture of diastereomers with an optically pure reagent and look at the NMR spectrum of the resulting mixture, for example,



If we examined the NMR spectrum of the starting mixture, we would find only one peak (split into a doublet by the C—H) for the Me protons, since enantiomers give

identical NMR spectra.[168] But the two amides are not enantiomers and each Me gives its own doublet. From the intensity of the two peaks, the relative proportions of the two diastereomers, and hence of the original enantiomers, can be determined. Alternatively, the "unsplit" OMe peaks could have been used. This method was satisfactorily used to determine the optical purity of a sample of 1-phenylethylamine (the case shown above),[169] as well as other cases, but it is obvious that sometimes corresponding groups in diastereomeric molecules will give NMR signals that are too close together for resolution. In such cases, one may resort to the use of a different optically pure reagent. The ^{13}C NMR can be used in a similar manner.[170] It is also possible to use these spectra to determine the absolute configuration of the original enantiomers by comparing the spectra of the diastereomers with those of the original enantiomers.[171] From a series of experiments with related compounds of known configurations it can be determined in which direction one or more of the ^{1}H or ^{13}C NMR peaks are shifted by formation of the diastereomer. It is then assumed that the peaks of the enantiomers of unknown configuration will be shifted the same way.

A closely related method does not require conversion of enantiomers to diastereomers but relies on the fact that (in principle, at least) enantiomers have different NMR spectra *in a chiral solvent*, or when mixed with a chiral molecule (in which case transient diastereomeric species may form). In such cases, the peaks may be separated enough to permit the proportions of enantiomers to be determined from their intensities.[172] Another variation, which gives better results in many cases, is to use an achiral solvent but with the addition of a *chiral lanthanide shift reagent* such as tris[3-trifluoroacetyl-*d*-camphorato]europium(III).[173] Lanthanide shift reagents have the property of spreading NMR peaks of compounds with which they can form coordination compounds, for examples, alcohols, carbonyl compounds, amines, and so on. Chiral lanthanide shift reagents shift the peaks of the two enantiomers of many such compounds to different extents.

Another method, involving gas chromatography,[174] is similar in principle to the NMR method. A mixture of enantiomers whose purity is to be determined is converted by means of an optically pure reagent into a mixture of two diastereomers. These diastereomers are then separated by gas chromatography (GC) (p. 151) and the ratios determined from the peak areas. Once again, the ratio of diastereomers is the same as that of the original enantiomers. High-pressure liquid chromatography (HPLC) has been used in a similar manner and has wider applicability.[175] The direct separation of enantiomers by gas or liquid chromatography on a chiral column has also been used to determine optical purity.[176]

Other methods[177] involve isotopic dilution,[178] kinetic resolution,[179], ^{13}C NMR relaxation rates of diastereomeric complexes,[180] and circular polarization of luminescence.[181]

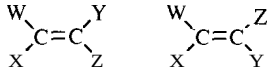
CIS-TRANS ISOMERISM

Compounds in which rotation is restricted may exhibit cis-trans isomerism.[182] These compounds do not rotate the plane of polarized light (unless they also happen

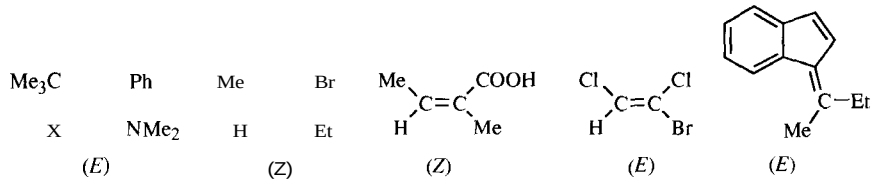
to be chiral), and the properties of the isomers are not identical. The two most important types are isomerism resulting from double bonds and that resulting from rings.

Cis-Trans Isomerism Resulting from Double Bonds

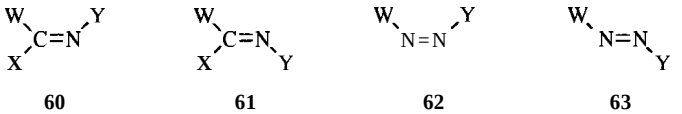
It has been mentioned (p. 9) that the two carbon atoms of a C=C double bond and the four atoms directly attached to them are all in the same plane and that rotation around the double bond is prevented. This means that in the case of a molecule WXC=CYZ, stereoisomerism exists when $W \neq X$ and $Y \neq Z$. There are two and only two isomers (E and F), each superimposable on its mirror image unless



one of the groups happens to carry a chiral center. Note that E and F are diastereomers, by the definition given on page 144. There are two ways to name such isomers. In the older method, one isomer is called cis and the other trans. When W = Y, E is the cis and F the trans isomer. Unfortunately, there is no easy way to apply this method when the four groups are different. The newer method, which can be applied to all cases, is based on the Cahn–Ingold–Prelog system (p. 139). The two groups at each carbon are ranked by the sequence rules. Then, that isomer with the two higher ranking groups on the same side of the double bond is called (Z) (for the German word *zusammen* meaning *together);* the other is *(E)* (for *entgegen* meaning *opposite*).[183] A few examples are shown. Note that the (Z isomer is not necessarily the one that would be called cis under the older system (e.g., 58, 59). Like cis and trans, *(E)* and (Z) are used as prefixes; for example, 59 is called (*E*)-1-bromo-1,2-dichloroethene.

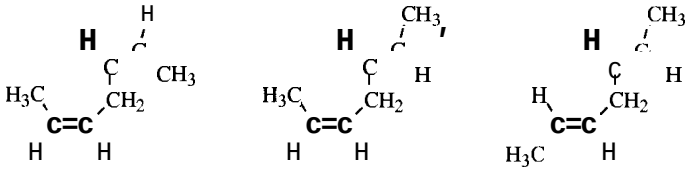


This type of isomerism is also possible with other double bonds, such as C=N,[184] N=N, or even C=S,[185] though in these cases only two or three groups are connected to the double-bond atoms. In the case of imines, oximes, and other C=N compounds, if W = Y 60 may be called syn and 61 anti, though *(E)* and (Z) are often used here too. In azo compounds there is no ambiguity. Compound 62 is always syn or (Z) regardless of the nature of W and Y, and 63 is E.



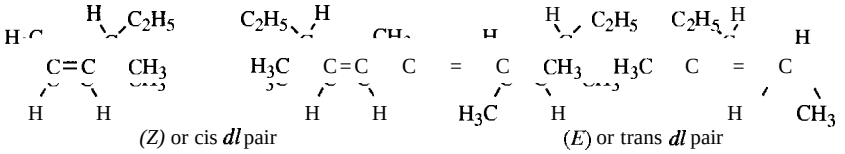
60 **61** **62** (*Z*) **63** (*E*)

If there is more than one double bond[186] in a molecule and if $W \neq X$ and $Y \neq Z$ for each, the number of isomers in the most general case is 2^n, although this number may be decreased if some of the substituents are the same, as in



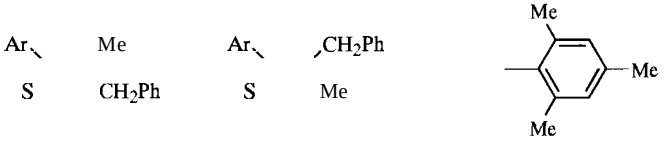
cis-cis or (*Z, X*) cis-trans or (*Z, E*) trans-trans or (*E, E*)

When a molecule contains a double bond and an asymmetric carbon, there are four isomers, a cis pair of enantiomers and a trans pair:



(*Z*) or cis *dl* pair (*E*) or trans *dl* pair

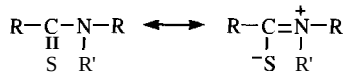
Double bonds in small rings are so constrained that they must be cis. From cyclopropene (a known system) to cycloheptene, double bonds in a stable ring cannot be trans. However, the cyclooctene ring is large enough to permit trans double bonds to exist (see p. 134), and for rings larger than 10- or 11-membered, trans isomers are more stable[187] (see also p. 186).



64 **65**

In a few cases, single-bond rotation is so slowed that cis and trans isomers can be isolated even where no double bond exists[188] (see also p. 189). One example is *N*-methyl-*N*-benzylthiomesitylide (64 and **65**),[189] the isomers of which are stable in the crystalline state but interconvert with a half-life of ~25 h in $CDCl_3$ at 50°C.[190] This type of isomerism is rare; it is found chiefly in certain amides and thioamides, because resonance gives the single bond some double-bond character and slows

rotation.[49] (For other examples of restricted rotation about single bonds, see pp. 189-191).

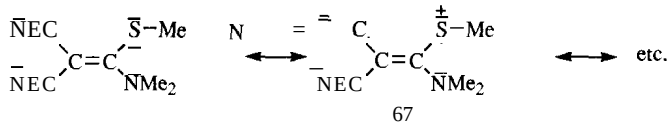


Conversely, there are compounds in which nearly free rotation is possible around what are formally C=C double bonds. These compounds, called *push-pull* or *captodative* ethylenes, have two electron-withdrawing groups on one carbon and two electron-donating groups on the other (**66**).[191] The contribution of di-ionic

66

A, B = electron withdrawing
C, D = electron donating

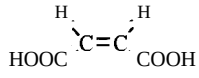
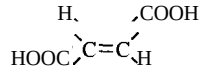
canonical forms such as the one shown decreases the double-bond character and allows easier rotation. For example, the compound 67 has a barrier to rotation of 13kcal mol^{-1} (55kJ mol^{-1}),[192] compared to a typical value of ~62-65 kcal mol^{-1} (260–270 kJ mol^{-1}) for simple alkenes.



67

Since they are diastereomers, cis-trans isomers always differ in properties; the differences may range from very slight to considerable. The properties of maleic acid are so different from those of fumaric acid (Table 4.2) that it is not surprising that they have different names. Since they generally have more symmetry than cis isomers, trans isomers in most cases have higher melting points and lower solubilities in inert solvents. The cis isomer usually has a higher heat of combustion, which indicates a lower thermochemical stability. Other noticeably different

TABLE 4.2 Some Properties of Maleic and Fumaric Acids

	 Maleic acid	 Fumaric acid
Property	Maleic Acid	Fumaric Acid
Melting point (°C)	130	286
Solubility in water at 25° C, gL^{-1}	788	7
K_1 (at 25°C)	1.5×10^{-2}	1×10^{-3}
K_2 (at 25°C)	2.6×10^{-7}	3×10^{-5}

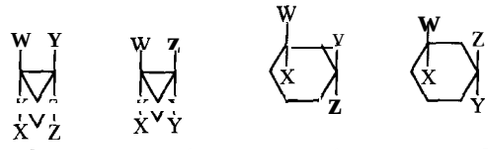
properties are densities, acid strengths, boiling points, and various types of spectra, but the differences are too involved to be discussed here.

It is also important to note that trans-alkenes are often more stable than cis-alkenes due to diminished steric hindrance (p. 190), but this is not always the case. It is known, for example, that *cis*-1,2-difluoroethene is thermodynamically more stable than *trans*-1,2-difluoroethene. This appears to be due to delocalization of halogen lone-pair electrons and an antiperiplanar effect between vicinal antiperiplanar bonds.[193]

Cis–Trans Isomerism of Monocyclic Compounds

Although rings of four carbons and larger are not generally planar (see p. 177), they will be treated as such in this section, since the correct number of isomers can be determined when this is done[194] and the principles are easier to visualize (see p. 173).

The presence of a ring, like that of a double bond, prevents rotation. Cis and trans isomers are possible whenever there are two carbons on a ring, each of which is substituted by two different groups. The two carbons need not be adjacent. Examples are



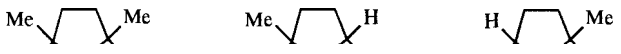
In some cases, the two stereoisomers can interconvert. In *cis*- and *trans*-disubstituted cyclopropanones, for example, there is reversible interconversion that favors the more stable trans isomer. This fluxional isomerization occurs via ring opening to an unseen oxyallyl *valence bond* isomer.[195]

As with double bonds, W may equal Y and X may equal Z, but W may not equal X and Y may not equal Z if cis and trans isomers are to be possible. There is an important difference from the double-bond case:

68

The substituted carbons are stereogenic carbons. This means that there are not *only* two isomers. In the most general case, where W, X, Y, and Z are all different, there are four isomers since neither the cis nor the trans isomer is superimposable on its mirror image. This is true regardless of ring size or which carbons are involved, except that in rings of even-numbered size when W, X, Y, and Z are at opposite corners, no chirality is present, (e.g., 68). In this case, the substituted carbons are *not* chiral carbons. Note also that a plane of symmetry exists in such compounds. When W= Y and X = Z, the cis isomer is always superimposable on its mirror image, and hence is a meso compound, while the trans isomer consists of a *dl* pair, except in

the case noted above. Again, the cis isomer has a plane of symmetry while the trans does not.

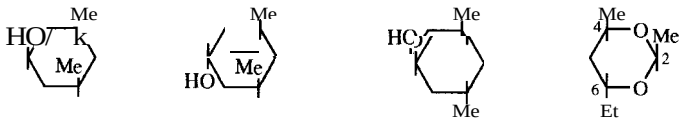


cis meso trans *dl* pair

Rings with more than two differently substituted carbons can be dealt with on similar principles. In some cases, it is not easy to tell the number of isomers by inspection.[105] The best method for the student is to count the number *n* of differently substituted carbons (these will usually be asymmetric, but not always, e.g., in 68) and then to draw 2^n structures, crossing out those that can be superimposed on others (usually the easiest method is to look for a plane of symmetry). By this means, it can be determined that for 1,2,3-cyclohexanetriol there are two meso compounds and a *dl* pair; and for 1,2,3,4,5,6-hexachlorocyclohexane there are seven meso compounds and a *dl* pair. The drawing of these structures is left as an exercise for the student.

Similar principles apply to heterocyclic rings as long as there are carbons (or other ring atoms) containing two different groups.

Cyclic stereoisomers containing only two differently substituted carbons are named either cis or trans, as previously indicated. The (Z), (*E*) system is not used for cyclic compounds. However, cis-trans nomenclature will not suffice for compounds with more than two differently substituted atoms. For these compounds, a system is used in which the configuration of each group is given with respect to a reference group, which is chosen as the group attached to the lowest numbered ring member bearing a substituent giving rise to cis-trans isomerism. The reference group is indicated by the symbol *r*. Three stereoisomers named according to this system are *c*-3,c-5-dimethylcyclohexan-r-l-ol (69), *t*-3,*t*-5-dimethylcyclohexan-*r*-1-ol (70), and *c*-3,*t*-5-dimethylcyclohexan-*r*-1-ol (71). The last example demonstrates the rule that when there are two otherwise equivalent ways of going around the ring, one chooses the path that gives the cis designation to the first substituent after the reference. Another example is *r*-2,*c*-4-dimethyl-*tert*-6-ethyl-1,3-dioxane (72).



69 70 71 72

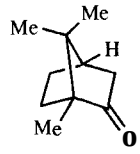
Cis-Trans Isomerism of Fused and Bridged Ring Systems

Fused bicyclic systems are those in which two rings share two and only two atoms. In such systems there is no new principle. The fusion may be cis or trans, as illustrated by *cis*- and *trans*-decalin. However, when the rings are small enough, the trans configuration is impossible and the junction must be cis. The smallest trans junction that has been prepared when one ring is four-membered is a four-five

junction; *trans*-bicyclo[3.2.0]heptane (73) is known.[196]

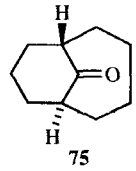
cis-Decalin | *trans*-Decalin | 73 | 74

For the bicyclo[2.2.0] system (a four-four fusion), only cis compounds have been made. The smallest known trans junction when one ring is three membered is a six-three junction (a bicyclo[4.1.0] system). An example is **74**.[197] When one ring is three membered and the other eight membered (an eight-three junction), the trans-fused isomer is more stable than the corresponding cis-fused isomer.[198]



Camphor

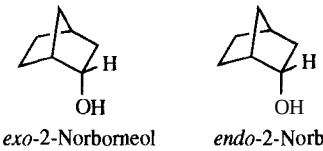
In *bridged* bicyclic ring systems, two rings share more than two atoms. In these cases, there may be fewer than 2" isomers because of the structure of the system. For example, there are only two isomers of camphor (a pair of enantiomers), although it has two chiral carbons. In both isomers, the methyl and hydrogen are cis. The trans pair of enantiomers is impossible in this case, since the bridge *must* be cis. The



75

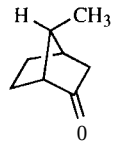
smallest bridged system so far prepared in which the bridge is trans is the [4.3.1] system; the trans ketone 75 has been prepared.[199] In this case there are four isomers, since both the trans and the cis, which has also been prepared, are pairs of enantiomers.

When one of the bridges contains a substituent, the question arises as to how to name the isomers involved. When the two bridges that do *not* contain the substituent are of unequal length, the rule generally followed is that the prefix endo is used when the substituent is closer to the longer of the two unsubstituted bridges; the prefix exo is used when the substituent is closer to the shorter bridge; for example,

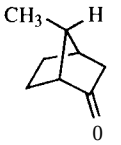


exo-2-Norborneol | *endo*-2-Norborneol

When the two bridges not containing the substituent are of equal length, this convention cannot be applied, but in some cases a decision can still be made; for example, if one of the two bridges contains a functional group, the endo isomer is the one in which the substituent is closer to the functional group:



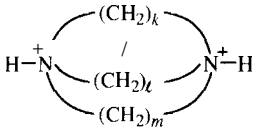
endo-7-Methyl-2-norcamphor



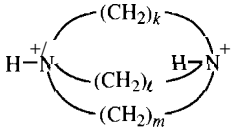
exo-7-Methyl-2-norcamphor

Out–In Isomerism

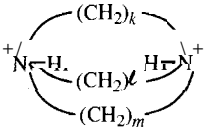
Another type of stereoisomerism, called *out–in isomerism*,[200] is found in salts of tricyclic diamines with nitrogen at the bridgeheads. In cases where *k*, £, and m >6, the N—H bonds can be inside the molecular cavity or outside, giving rise to three isomers, as shown. Simmons and Park[201] isolated several such isomers with *k*, £, and *m* varying from 6 to 10. In the 9,9,9 compound, the cavity of the in-in isomer is large enough to encapsulate a chloride ion that is hydrogen bonded to the two N—H



Out-out isomer

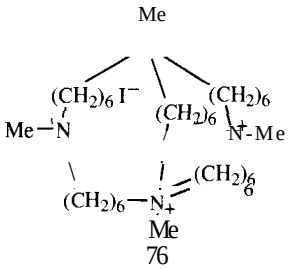


Out-in isomer



In–in isomer

groups. The species thus formed is a cryptate, but differs from the cryptates discussed on page 105 in that there is a negative rather than a positive ion enclosed.[202] Even smaller ones (e.g., the 4,4,4 compound) have been shown to form mono-inside-protonated ions.[203] Out-in and in-in isomers have also been prepared in analogous all-carbon tricyclic systems.[204]



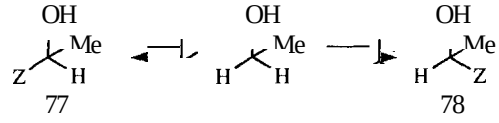
76

In compound 76, which has four quaternary nitrogens, a halide ion has been encapsulated without a hydrogen being present on a nitrogen.[205] This ion does not display in-out isomerism.

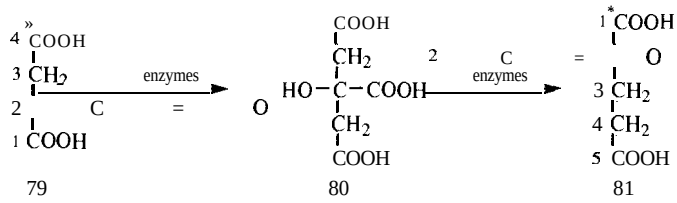
Enantiotopic and Diastereotopic Atoms, Groups, and Faces[206]

Many molecules contain atoms or groups that appear to be equivalent but at close inspection are actually different. We can test whether two atoms are equivalent by replacing each of them in turn with some other atom or group. If the new molecules created by this process are identical, the original atoms are equivalent; otherwise not. We can distinguish three cases.

1. In the case of malonic acid, $CH_2(COOH)_2$; propane, CH_2Me_2; or any other molecule of the form CH_2Y_2,[207] if we replace either of the CH_2 hydrogens by a group Z, the identical compound results. The two hydrogens are thus equivalent. Equivalent atoms and groups need not, of course, be located on the same carbon atom. For example, all the chlorine atoms of hexachlorobenzene are equivalent as are the two bromine atoms of 1,3-dibromopropane.
2. In the case of ethanol (E + OH), if we replace one of the CH_2 hydrogens by a group Z, we get one enantiomer of the compound ZCHMeOH (77), while replacement of the other hydrogen gives the *other* enantiomer (78). Since the two compounds that result upon replacement of H by Z (77 and 78) are not identical but enantiomeric, the hydrogens are *not* equivalent. We define as



enantiotopic two atoms or groups that upon replacement with a third group give enantiomers. In any symmetrical environment the two hydrogens behave as equivalent, but in a dissymmetrical environment they may behave differently. For example, in a reaction with a chiral reagent they may be attacked at different rates. This has its most important consequences in enzymatic reactions,[208] since enzymes are capable of much greater discrimination than ordinary chiral reagents. An example is found in the Krebs cycle, in biological organisms, where oxaloacetic acid (79) is converted to α-oxoglutaric acid (81) by a sequence that includes citric acid



(80) as an intermediate. When 79 is labeled with ^{14}C at the 4 position, the label is found only at C-1 of 81, despite the fact that 80 is not chiral. The two CH_2COOH groups of 80 are enantiotopic and the enzyme easily discriminates between them.[209] Note that the X atoms or groups of any molecule of the form CX_2WY are always enantiotopic if neither W nor Y is

Enantiotopic and Diastereotopic Atoms, Groups, and Faces[206]

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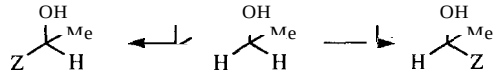
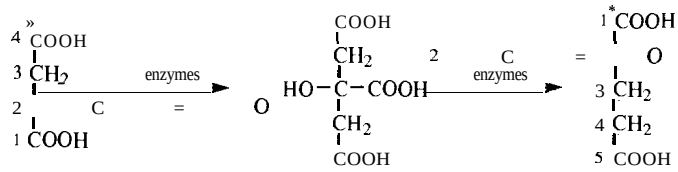


77 78

enantiotopic two atoms or groups that upon replacement with a third group give enantiomers. In any symmetrical environment the two hydrogens behave as equivalent, but in a dissymmetrical environment they may behave differently. For example, in a reaction with a chiral reagent they may be attacked at different rates. This has its most important consequences in enzymatic reactions,[208] since enzymes are capable of much greater discrimination than ordinary chiral reagents. An example is found in the Krebs cycle, in biological organisms, where oxaloacetic acid (79) is converted to α-oxoglutaric acid (81) by a sequence that includes citric acid



79 80 81

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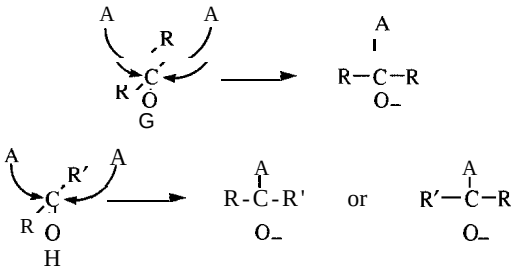
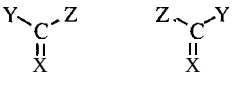
groups CX_2WY are diastereotopic if either W or Y is chiral.



Just as there are enantiotopic and diastereotopic atoms and groups, so we may distinguish *enantiotopic and diastereotopic faces* in trigonal molecules. Again we have three cases: (1) In formaldehyde or acetone (G), attack by an achiral reagent A from either face of the molecule gives rise to the same transition state and product; the two faces are thus equivalent. (2) In butanone or acetaldehyde (H), attack by an achiral A at one face gives a transition state and product that are the enantiomers of those arising from attack at the other face. Such faces are enantiotopic. As we have already seen (p. 137), a racemic

87

mixture must result in this situation. However, attack at an enantiotopic face by a chiral reagent gives diastereomers, which are not formed in equal amounts. (3) In a case like 87 the two faces are obviously not equivalent and are called diastereotopic. Enantiotopic and diastereotopic faces can be named by an extension of the Cahn–Ingold–Prelog system.[210] If the three groups as arranged by the sequence rules have the order X > Y > Z, that face in which the groups in this sequence are clockwise (as in J) is the *Re* face (from Latin *rectus*), whereas K shows the *Si* face (from Latin *sinister).*

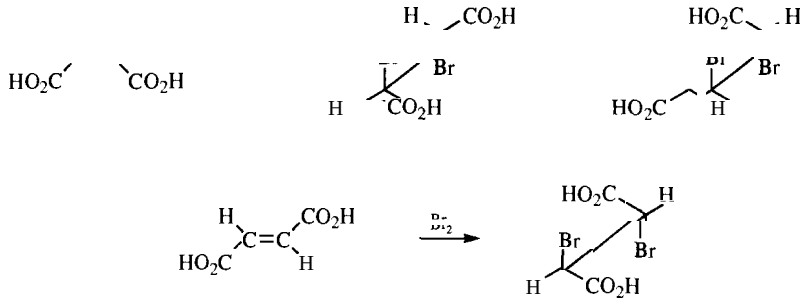


J K

Stereospecific and Stereoselective Syntheses

Any reaction in which only one of a set of stereoisomers is formed exclusively or predominantly is called a *stereoselective* synthesis.[213] The same term is used when a mixture of two or more stereoisomers is exclusively or predominantly formed at the expense of other stereoisomers. In a *stereospecific* reaction, a given isomer leads to one product while another stereoisomer leads to the opposite product. All stereospecific reactions are necessarily stereoselective, but the converse is not true.

These terms are best illustrated by examples. Thus, if maleic acid treated with bromine gives the *dl* pair of 2,3-dibromosuccinic acid while fumaric acid gives the meso isomer (this is the case), the reaction is stereospecific as well as stereoselective because two opposite isomers give two opposite isomers:



However, if both maleic and fumaric acid gave the *dl* pair or a mixture in which the *dl* pair predominated, the reaction would be stereoselective but not stereospecific. If more or less equal amounts of *dl* and meso forms were produced in each case, the reaction would be nonstereoselective. A consequence of these definitions is that if a reaction is carried out on a compound that has no stereoisomers, it cannot be stereospecific, but at most stereoselective. For example, addition of bromine to methylacetylene could (and does) result in preferential formation of *trans*-1,2-dibromopropene, but this can be only a stereoselective, not a stereospecific reaction.

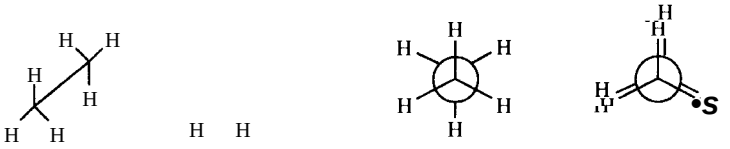
CONFORMATIONAL ANALYSIS

If two different three-dimensional arrangements in space of the atoms in a molecule are interconvertible merely by free rotation about bonds, they are called *conformations?*[14] If they are not interconvertible, they are called *configurations.*[215] Configurations represent *isomers* that can be separated, as previously discussed in this chapter. Conformations represent *conformers,* which are rapidly interconvertible and are thus nonseparable. The terms "conformational isomer" and "rotamer"[216] are sometimes used instead of "conformer". A number of methods have been used to determine conformations.[217] These include X-ray and electron diffraction, IR, Raman, UV, NMR,[218] and microwave spectra,[219] photoelectron spectroscopy,[220] supersonic molecular jet spectroscopy,[221] and optical rotatory dispersion (ORD) and CD measurements.[222] Some of these methods are useful only for solids. It must be kept in mind that the conformation of a molecule in the solid state is not necessarily the same as in solution.[223] Conformations can be *calculated* by a method called molecular mechanics (p. 178).

Conformation in Open-Chain Systems[224]

For any open-chain single bond that connects two sp^3 carbon atoms, an infinite number of conformations are possible, each of which has a certain energy associated

with it. As a practical matter, the number of conformations is much less. If one ignores duplications due to symmetry, the number of conformations can be *estimated* as being greater than 3", where n = the number of internal C—C bonds. *n*-Pentane, for example has 11, n-hexane 35, n-heptane 109, n-octane 347, n-nonane 1101, and n-decane 3263.[225] For ethane there are two extremes, a conformation of highest and one of lowest potential energy, depicted in two ways as:



Staggered Eclipsed Staggered Eclipsed

In *Newman projection formulas* (the two figures on the right) the observer looks at the C—C bond head on. The three lines emanating from the center of the circle represent the bonds coming from the front carbon, with respect to the observer.

The staggered conformation is the conformation of lowest potential energy for ethane. As the bond rotates, the energy gradually increases until the eclipsed conformation is reached, when the energy is at a maximum. Further rotation decreases the energy again. Figure 4.3 illustrates this. The *angle of torsion*, which is a dihedral angle, is the angle between the XCC and the CCY planes, as shown:

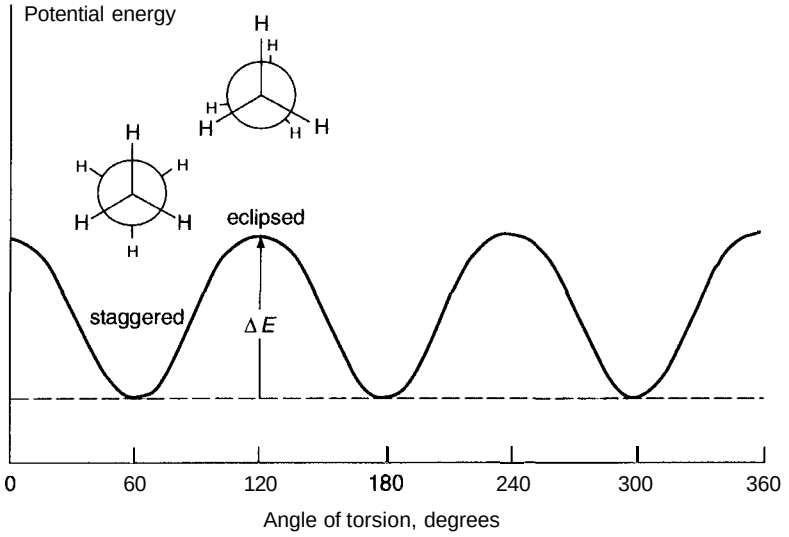
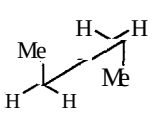


FIGURE 4.3 Conformational energy diagram for ethane.

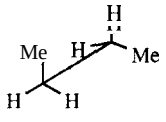
For ethane, the difference in energy is ~ 2.9 kcal mol^{-1} (12 kJ mol^{-1}).[226] This difference is called the *energy barrier,* since in free rotation about a single bond there must be enough rotational energy present to cross the barrier every time two hydrogen atoms are opposite each other. There has been much speculation about the cause of the barriers and many explanations have been suggested.[227] It has been concluded from MO calculations that the barrier is caused by repulsion between overlapping filled molecular orbitals.[228] That is, the ethane molecule has its lowest energy in the staggered conformation because in this conformation the orbitals of the C—H bonds have the least amount of overlap with the C—H orbitals of the adjacent carbon.

At ordinary temperatures, enough rotational energy is present for the ethane molecule rapidly to rotate, though it still spends most of its time at or near the energy minimum. Groups larger than hydrogen cause larger barriers. When the barriers are large enough, as in the case of suitably substituted biphenyls (p. 132) or the diadamantyl compound mentioned on page 171, rotation at room temperature is completely prevented and we speak of configurations, not conformations. Even for compounds with small barriers, cooling to low temperatures may remove enough rotational energy for what would otherwise be conformational isomers to become configurational isomers.

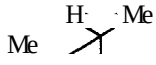
A slightly more complicated case than ethane is that of a 1,2-disubstituted ethane (YCH_2—CH_2Y or YCH_2—CH_2X),[229] such as n-butane, for which there are four extremes: a fully staggered conformation, called *anti, trans,* or *anti-periplanar;* another staggered conformation, called *gauche* or *synclinal;* and two types of eclipsed



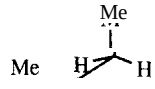
anti,trans, or anti-periplanar



anticlinal



gauche or synclinal



syn-periplanar

conformations, called *syn-periplanar* and *anticlinal.* An energy diagram for this system is given in Figure 4.4. Although there is constant rotation about the central bond, it is possible to estimate what percentage of the molecules are in each conformation at a given time. For example, it was concluded from a consideration of dipole moment and polarizability measurements that for 1,2-dichloroethane in CCl_4 solution at 25° C $\sim 70\%$ of the molecules are in the anti and $\sim 30\%$ in the *gauche* conformation.[230] The corresponding figures for 1,2-dibromoethane are 89% *anti* and 11% *gauche.*[231] The eclipsed conformations are unpopulated and serve only as pathways from one staggered conformation to another. Solids normally consist of a single conformer.

It may be observed that the *gauche* conformation of butane (L) or any other similar molecule is chiral. The lack of optical activity in such compounds arises from the fact that L and its mirror image are always present in equal amounts and interconvert too rapidly for separation.

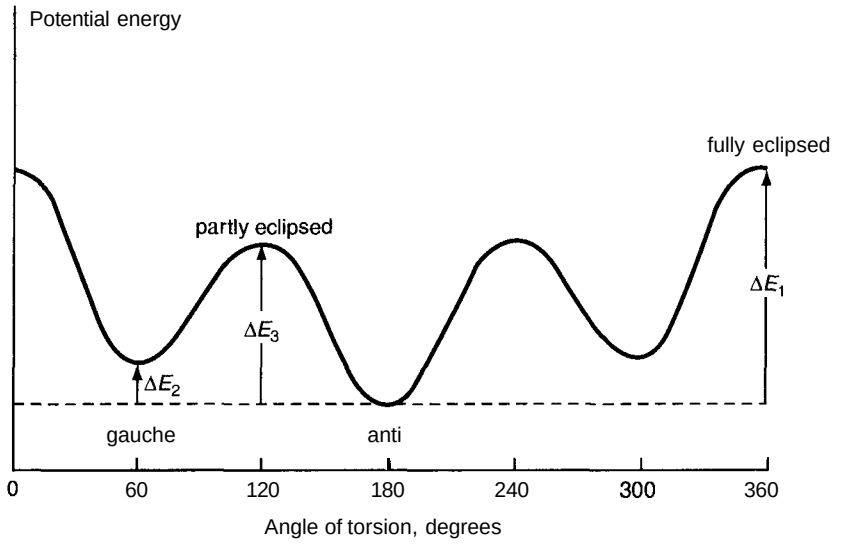
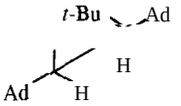


FIGURE 4.4 Conformational energy for YCH_2–CH_2Y or YCH_2–CH_2X. For *n*-butane, ΔE_1 = 4 to 6. ΔE_2 = 0.9, and ΔE_3 = 3.4 kcal mol^{-1} (17-25,3.8, 14 kJ mol^{-1}, respectively).

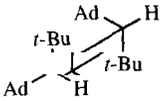
For butane and for most other molecules of the forms YCH_2–CH_2Y and YCH_2–CH_2X, the anti conformer is the most stable, but exceptions are known. One group of exceptions consists of molecules containing small electronegative atoms, especially fluorine and oxygen. Thus 2-fluoroethanol,[232] 1,2-difluoroethane,[233] and 2-fluoroethyl trichloroacetate ($FCH_2CH_2OCOCCl_3$)[234] exist predominantly in the *gauche* form and compounds such as 2-chloroethanol and 2-bromoethanol[232] also prefer the *gauche* form. It has been proposed that the preference for the *gauche* conformation in these molecules is an example of a more general phenomenon, known as the *gauche effect*, that is, a tendency to adopt that structure that has the maximum number of *gauche* interactions between adjacent electron pairs or polar bonds.[235] It was believed that the favorable *gauche* conformation of 2-fluoroethanol was the result of intramolecular hydrogen bonding, but this explanation does not do for molecules like 2-fluoroethyl trichloroacetate and has in fact been ruled out for 2-fluoroethanol as well.[236] The effect of β substituents in Y–C–C–OX systems where Y = F or SiR_3 has been examined and there is a small bond shortening effect on C–OX that is greatest when OX is a good leaving group. Bond lengthening was also observed with the β-silyl substituent.[237] Other exceptions are known, where small electronegative atoms are absent. For example, 1,1,2,2-tetrachloroethane and 1,1,2,2-tetrabromoethane both prefer the *gauche* conformation,[238] even though 1,1,2,2-tetrafluoroethane prefers the *anti*.[239] Also, both 2,3-dimethylpentane and 3,4-dimethylhexane prefer the *gauche* conformation,[240] and 2,3-dimethylbutane shows no preference for either.[241] Furthermore, the solvent can exert a powerful effect. For example, the compound 2,3-dinitro-2,3-dimethylbutane exists entirely in the *gauche* conformation in the solid state, but in benzene, the *gauche*/*anti* ratio is

79:21; while in CCl_4 the *anti* form is actually favored (*gauche/anti* ratio 42:58).[242] In many cases there are differences in the conformation of these molecules between the gas phase and the liquid phase (as when X = Y = OMe) because of polar interactions with the solvent.[243]

In one case, two conformational isomers of a single aliphatic hydrocarbon, 3,4-di(1-adamantyl)-2,2,5,5-tetramethylhexane, have proven stable enough for isolation at room temperature.[244] The two isomers M and N were separately crystallized, and the structures proved by X-ray crystallography. (The actual dihedral angles are distorted from the 60°angles shown in the drawings, owing to steric hindrance between the large groups).

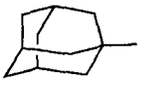


M

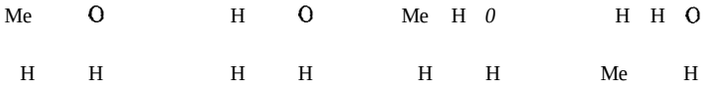


N

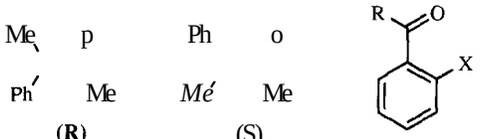
Ad =



All the conformations so far discussed have involved rotation about sp^3–sp^3 bonds. Many studies have also been made of compounds with sp^3–sp^2 bonds.[245] For example, propanal (or any similar molecule) has four extreme conformations, two of which are called *eclipsing* and the other two *bisecting.* For propanal the eclipsing conformations have lower energy than the other two, with P favored over Q by ~1 kcal mol^{-1} (4 kJ mol^{-1}).[246] As has already been pointed out (p. 158), for a few of these compounds, rotation is slow enough to permit cis-trans isomerism, though for simple compounds rotation is rapid. For example, acetaldehyde has a lower rotational barrier (~1 kcal mol^{-1} or 4 kJ mol^{-1}) than ethane.[247]



Other carbonyl compounds exhibit rotation about sp^3–sp^3 bonds, including amides. In *N*-acetyl-*N*-methylaniline, the cis conformation (*R*) is more stable than the trans (*S*) by 3.5 kcal mol^{-1}.[248] This is due to destabilization of *(S)* due to steric hindrance between two methyl groups, and to electronic repulsion between the carbonyl lone-pair electrons and the phenyl *n* electrons in the twisted phenyl orientation.



88

A similar rotational analysis has been done with formamide derivatives.[249] It is known that thioformamide has a larger rotational barrier than formamide, which can

be explained by a traditional picture of amide "resonance' that is more appropriate for the thioformamide than formamide itself.[250] Torsional barriers in α-keto amides have also been reported.[251] It was also observed that rotation about the C—N bond in carbamates (R_2N–CO_2R') is not encumbered by "solvent friction" (where long chains of the solvent interact with long-chain R and/or R′ groups of the carbamate), even in hexadecane or mineral oil.[252]

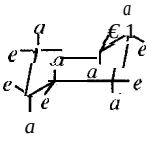
On page 132, atropisomerism was possible when ortho substituents on biphenyl derivatives and certain other aromatic compounds prevented rotation about the C^{sp^3}–C^{sp^3} bond. The presence of ortho-substituents can also influence the conformation of certain groups. In 88, R = alkyl, the carbonyl unit is planar with the trans C=O···F conformer more stable when X = F. When X = CF_3, the cis and trans are planar and the trans predominates.[253] When R = alkyl there is one orthogonal conformation but there are two interconverting nonplanar conformations when R=O-alkyl.[253] In 1,2-diacylbenzenes, the carbonyl units tend to adopt a twisted conformation to minimize steric interactions.[254]

Conformation in Six-membered Rings[255]

For cyclohexane, there are two extreme conformations in which all the angles are tetrahedral.[256] These are called the *boat* and the *chair* conformations and in each the ring is said to be *puckered.* The chair conformation is a rigid structure, but the boat form is flexible[257] and can easily pass over to a somewhat more stable form known as the *twist* conformation. The twist form is ~ 1.5 kcal mol^{-1} (6.3 kJ mol^{-1})

Boat Chair Twist

more stable than the boat because it has less eclipsing interaction (see p. 185).[258] The chair form is more stable than the twist form by ~ 5 kcal mol^{-1} (21 kJ mol^{-1}).[259] In the vast majority of compounds containing a cyclohexane ring, the molecules exist almost entirely in the chair form. Yet it is known that the boat or twist form exists transiently. An inspection of the chair form shows that six of its bonds are directed differently from the other six:



a = axial group
e = equatorial group

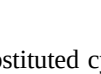
On each carbon, one bond is directed up or down and the other more or less in the "plane" of the ring. The up or down bonds are called *axial (a)* and the others *equatorial (e).* The axial bonds point alternately up and down. If a molecule were frozen into a chair form, there would be isomerism in monosubstituted cyclohexanes. For example, there would be an equatorial methylcyclohexane and an axial

isomer. However, it has never been possible to isolate isomers of this type at room temperature.[260] This proves the transient existence of the boat or twist form, since in order for the two types of methylcyclohexane to be nonseparable, there must be rapid interconversion of one chair form to another (in which all axial bonds become equatorial and vice versa) and this is possible only through a boat or twist conformation. Conversion of one chair form to another requires an activation energy of $\sim 10\,\text{kcal mol}^{-1}$ ($42\,\text{kJ mol}^{-1}$)[261] and is very rapid at room temperature.[262] However, by working at low temperatures, Jensen and Bushweller[263] were able to obtain the pure equatorial conformers of chlorocyclohexane and trideuteriomethoxycyclohexane as solids and in solution. Equatorial chlorocyclohexane has a half-life of 22 years in solution at - 160°C.

In some molecules, the twist conformation is actually preferred.[264] In all *cis*-2,5-di-*tert*-butyl-1,4-cyclohexanediol, hydrogen bonding stabilizes the otherwise high-energy form[265] and 1,3-dioxane 89 exists largely as the twist conformation shown.[266] Of course, in certain bicyclic compounds, the six-membered ring is forced to maintain a boat or twist conformation, as in norbornane or twistane.

89

Norbornane



Twistane

In monosubstituted cyclohexanes, the substituent normally prefers the equatorial position because in the axial position there is interaction between the substituent and the axial hydrogens in the 3 and 5 positions, but the extent of this preference depends greatly on the nature of the group. Alkyl groups have a greater preference than polar groups, and for alkyl groups the preference increases with size. For polar groups, size seems to be unimportant. Both the large HgBr[267] and HgCl[268] groups and the small F group have been reported to have little or no conformational preference (the HgCl group actually shows a slight preference for the axial position). Table 4.3[269] gives approximate values of the free energy required for various groups to go from the equatorial position to the axial (these are called *A* values), though it must be kept in mind that they vary somewhat with physical state, temperature, and solvent.[270]

In disubstituted compounds, the rule for alkyl groups is that the conformation is such that as many groups as possible adopt the equatorial position. How far it is possible depends on the configuration. In a cis-1,2-disubstituted cyclohexane, one substituent must be axial and the other equatorial. In a trans-1,2 compound both may be equatorial or both axial. This is also true for 1,4-disubstituted cyclohexanes, but the reverse holds for 1,3 compounds: the trans isomer must have the *ae* conformation and the cis isomer may be *aa* or ee. For alkyl groups, the *ee* conformation predominates over the *aa* but for other groups this is not necessarily so. For example, both *trans*-1,4-dibromocyclohexane and the corresponding dichloro compound have the *ee* and *aa* conformations about equally populated[271] and most *trans*-1,2-dihalocyclohexanes exist predominantly in the *aa* conformation.[272] Note that in the

TABLE 4.3 Free-Energy Differences between Equatorial and Axial Substituents on a Cyclohexane Ring (A Values)

	Approximate — AG°			Approximate – $\Delta G°$	
Group	kcal mol^{-1}	kJ mol^{-1}	Group	kcal mol^{-1}	kJ mol^{-1}
HgCl[a]	-0.25	-1.0	NO_2	1.1	4.6
HgBr	0	0	COOEt	1.1-1.2	4.6-5.0
D[b]	0.008	0.03	COOMe	1.27-1.31	5.3-5.5
CN	0.15-0.25	0.6-1.0	COOH	1.35-1.46	5.7-6.1
F	0.25	1.0	NH_2[c]	1.4	5.9
C≡CH	0.41	1.7	$CH{=}CH_2$[d]	1.7	7.1
I	0.46	1.9	CH_3[e]	1.74	7.28
Br	0.48-0.62	2.0–2.6	C_2H_5	≈ 1.75	≈ 7.3
OTs	0.515	2.15	*i*-Pr	≈ 2.15	≈ 9.0
Cl	0.52	2.2	C_6H_{11}[f]	2.15	9.0
OAc	0.71	3.0	$SiMe_3$[g]	2.4-2.6	10-11
OMe[h]	0.75	3.1	C_6H_5[i]	2.7	11
OH	0.92-0.97	3.8-4.1	*t*-Bu[j]	4.9	21

[a] See Ref. 268.
[b] See Ref. 273.
[c] See Ref. 274.
[d] See Ref. 275.
[e] See Ref. 276.
[f] See Ref. 277.
[g] See Ref. 278.
[h] See Ref. 279.
[i] See Ref. 280.
[j] See Ref. 281.

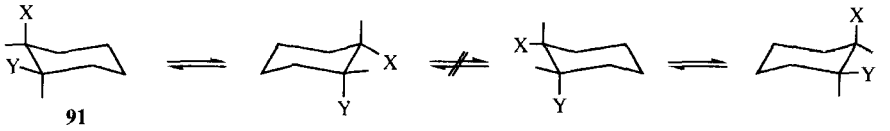
latter case the two halogen atoms are anti in the *aa* conformation but *gauche* in the *ee* conformation.[282]

Since compounds with alkyl equatorial substituents are generally more stable, trans-1,2 compounds, which can adopt the *ee* conformation, are thermodynamically more stable than their cis-1,2 isomers, which must exist in the *ae* conformation. For the 1,2-dimethylcyclohexanes, the difference in stability is about 2 kcal mol^{-1} (8 kJ mol^{-1}). Similarly, trans-1,4 and cis-1,3 compounds are more stable than their stereoisomers.

An interesting anomaly is *all-trans*-1,2,3,4,5,6-hexaisopropylcyclohexane, in which the six isopropyl groups prefer the axial position, although the six ethyl groups of the corresponding hexaethyl compound prefer the equatorial position.[283] The alkyl groups of these compounds can of course only be all axial or all equatorial, and it is likely that the molecule prefers the all-axial conformation because of unavoidable strain in the other conformation.

90

Incidentally, we can now see, in one case, why the correct number of stereoisomers could be predicted by assuming planar rings, even though they are not planar (p. 160). In the case of both a cis-l,2-XX-disubstituted and a cis-l,2-XY-disubstituted cyclohexane, the molecule is nonsuperimposable on its mirror image; neither has a plane of symmetry. However, in the former case (90) conversion of one chair form to the other (which of course happens rapidly) turns the molecule into its mirror image, while in the latter case (91) rapid interconversion does not give the mirror image but merely the conformer in which the original axial and equatorial substituents exchange places. Thus the optical inactivity of 90 is not due to a plane of symmetry but to a rapid interconversion of the molecule and its mirror image. A similar situation holds for cis-1,3 compounds. However, for cis-1,4 isomers (both XX and XY) optical inactivity arises from a plane of symmetry in both conformations. All trans-1,2- and trans-1,3-disubstituted cyclohexanes are chiral (whether XX or XY), while trans-1,4 compounds (both XX and XY) are achiral, since all conformations have a plane of symmetry. It has been shown that the equilibrium is very dependent on both the solvent and the concentration of the disubstituted cyclohexane.[284]



91

The conformation of a group can be frozen into a desired position by putting into the ring a large alkyl group (most often *tert*-butyl), which greatly favors the equatorial position.[285]

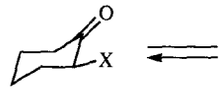
The principles involved in the conformational analysis of six-membered rings containing one or two trigonal atoms, for example, cyclohexanone and cyclohexene are similar.[286] The barrier to interconversion in cyclohexane has been calculated to be 8.4–12.1 kcal mol^{-1}.[287] Cyclohexanone derivatives also assume a chair conformation. Substituents at C_2 can assume an axial or equatorial position depending on steric and electronic influences. The proportion of the conformation with an axial X group is shown in Table 4.4[288] for a variety of substituents (X) in 2-substituted cyclohexanones.

Conformation in Six-Membered Rings Containing Heteroatoms

In six-membered rings containing heteroatoms,[289] the basic principles are the same; that is, there are chair, twist, and boat forms, axial and equatorial groups, and so on. The conformational equilibrium for tetrahydropyridines, for example has been studied.[290] In certain compounds, a number of new factors enter the picture. We deal with only two of these.[291]

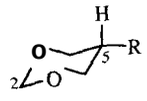
1. In 5-alkyl-substituted 1,3-dioxanes, the 5 substituent has a much smaller preference for the equatorial position than in cyclohexane derivatives;[292] the A values are much lower. This indicates that the lone pairs on the oxygens have a smaller steric requirement than the C–H bonds in the corresponding

TABLE 4.4 Proportion of Axial Conformation in 2-Substituted Cyclohexanones, in $CDCl_3$



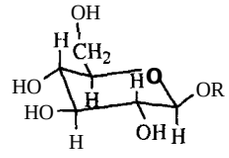
X	% Axial Conformation
F	17±3
Cl	45 ±4
Br	71±4
I	88±5
MeO	28 ±4
MeS	85±7
MeSe	(92)
Me_2N	44±3
Me	(26)

cyclohexane derivatives. There is some evidence of an homoanomeric interaction in these systems.[293]

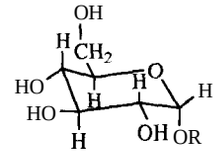


Similar behavior is found in the 1,3-dithianes,[294] and 2,3-disubstituted 1,4-dithianes have also been examined.[295] With certain nonalkyl substituents (e.g., F, NO_2, SOMe,[296] NMe_3^+) the axial position is actually preferred.[297]

2. An alkyl group located on a carbon a to a heteroatom prefers the equatorial position, which is of course the normally expected behavior, but a *polar* group in such a location prefers the *axial* position. An example of this phenomenon, known as the *anomeric effect,*[298] is the greater stability of α-glucosides over β-glucosides.



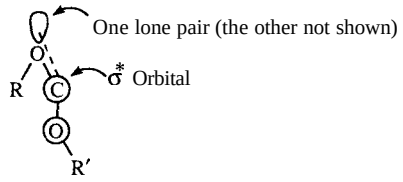
A β-glucoside
92



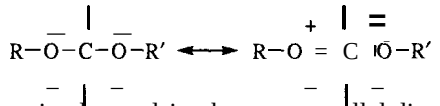
An α-glucoside
93

A number of explanations have been offered for the anomeric effect.[299] The one[300] that has received the most acceptance[301] is that one of the lone pairs of the polar atom connected to the carbon (an oxygen atom in the case of 93)

can be stabilized by overlapping with an antibonding orbital of the bond between the carbon and the other polar atom:



This can happen only if the two orbitals are in the positions shown. The situation can also be represented by this type of **hyperconjugation** (called negative hyperconjugation):



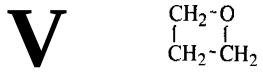
It is possible that simple repulsion between parallel dipoles in 92 also plays a part in the greater stability of 93. It has been shown that aqueous solvation effects reduce **anomeric** stabilization in many systems, particularly for **tetrahydropyranosyls.**[302]

94 **95**

Second-row heteroatoms are known to show a substantial anomeric effect.[303] There appears to be evidence for a reverse anomeric effect in 2-aminotetrahydropyrans.[304] It has been called into question whether a reverse anomeric effect exists at all.[305] In 94, the lone-pair electrons assume an axial conformation and there is an anomeric effect.[306] In 95, however, the lone-pair electron orbitals are oriented *gauche* to both the axial and equatorial α-CH bond and there is no anomeric effect.[306]

Conformation in Other Rings[307]

Three-membered saturated rings are usually planar, but other three-membered rings can have some flexibility. Cyclobutane[308] is not planar but exists as in 96, with an angle between the planes of ~35°.[309] The deviation from **planarity** is presumably caused by eclipsing in the planar form (see p. 185). Oxetane, in which eclipsing is



96 Oxetane

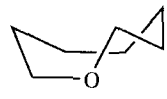
less, is closer to planarity, with an angle between the planes of about 10°.[310] Cyclopentane might be expected to be planar, since the angles of a regular pentagon

are 108°, but it is not so, also because of eclipsing effects.[3''] There are two puckered conformations, the *envelope* and the *half-chair*. There is little energy difference between these two forms and many five-membered ring systems have conformations somewhere in between them.[312] Although in the envelope conformation one carbon is shown above the others, ring motions cause each of the carbons in rapid succession

Envelope Half-chair

to assume this position. The puckering rotates around the ring in what may be called a *pseudorotation*.[313] In substituted cyclopentanes and five-membered rings in which at least one atom does not contain two substituents [such as tetrahydrofuran (THF), cyclopentanone, C_3 and C_7-mono- and disubstituted hexahydroazepin-2-ones (caprolactams),[314] tetrahydrothiophene S-oxide,[315] etc.], one conformer may be more stable than the others. The barrier to planarity in cyclopentane has been reported to be 5.2 kcal mol^{-1} (22 kJ mol^{-1}).[316] Contrary to previous reports, there is only weak stabilization (<8 kJ mol^{-1}) of 3-, 4-, and 5-membered rings by *gem*–dialkoxycarbonyl substituents (such as COOR).[317]

Rings larger than six-membered are always puckered[318] unless they contain a large number of sp^2 atoms (see the section on strain in medium rings, p. 185).



97

The conformation shown for oxacyclooctane (97), for example, appears to be the most abundant one.[319] The conformations of other large ring compounds have been studied, including 11-membered ring lactones,[320] 10- and 11-membered ring ketones,[321] and 11- and 14-membered ring lactams.[322] It should be noted that axial and equatorial hydrogens are found only in the chair conformations of six-membered rings. In rings of other sizes, the hydrogens protrude at angles that generally do not lend themselves to classification in this way,[323] though in some cases the terms "pseudoaxial" and "pseudoequatorial" have been used to classify hydrogens in rings of other sizes.[324]

Molecular Mechanics

Molecular mechanics (also known as *force-field calculations*)[325] is a method for the calculation of conformational geometries.[326] It is used to calculate bond angles and distances, as well as total potential energies, for each conformation of a molecule.[327] Steric enthalpy can be calculated as well.[328] Molecular orbital calculations (p. 34) can also give such information, but molecular mechanics is generally easier, cheaper (requires less computer time), and/or more accurate. In MO calculations, positions of the nuclei of the atoms are assumed, and the wave equations take account only of

the electrons. Molecular mechanics calculations ignore the electrons, and study only the positions of the nuclei. Another important difference is that in an MO calculation each molecule is treated individually, but in molecular mechanics, parameters are obtained for small, simple molecules, and then used in the calculations for larger or more complicated ones.[329] These are constantly being refined for various target molecules. There is a new technique for optimization of the VB wave functions in cyclopropane, for example.[330]

Molecular mechanics calculations use an empirically devised set of equations for the potential energy of molecules. These include terms for vibrational bond stretching, bond angle bending, and other interactions between atoms in a molecule. All of these are summed up as follows:

$$V = \Sigma V_{\text{stretch}} + \Sigma V_{\text{bend}} + \Sigma V_{\text{torsion}} + \Sigma V_{\text{VDW}}$$

where V_{VDW} (van der Waals) sums up the interactions between atoms of a molecule that are not bonded to each other. The set of functions, called the force field, contains adjustable parameters that are optimized to get the best fit of known properties of the molecules. The assumption is made that corresponding parameters and force constants can be transferred from one molecule to another. Molecular mechanics is therefore based on experimental data.

In a typical molecular mechanics calculation for a molecule[331] a trial geometrical structure is assumed (bond distances, angles, torsion angles, etc.). Hydrogen atoms are generally not explicitly considered (their positions are calculated later, from standard geometric parameters). The computer searches the trial structure and constructs a list of interaction terms: bond distances, atoms attached to a common atom (bond angles), atoms attached to adjacent atoms (torsion angles), and nonbonded interactions, and then chooses the force-field parameters for these interactions from a list stored in the program. It then calculates the potential energy of the trial structure, using the V equation given above. The computer next goes through an energy minimization process by plotting small changes in geometrical coordinates against energy, looking for places in the curve where the first derivatives of V are equal to zero, which means that the total energy V is at a minimum. This must be done separately for each stable conformation, since there is no known method for finding the lowest V for a molecule (e.g., the *anti* conformation of butane). If appropriate trial structures are entered, the computer will find the lowest V for the *anti* and *gauche* conformations, separately. This can be a handicap for large molecules (e.g., 2,3-dimethylundecane), which may have many stable conformations (i.e., energy minima). The computer will find only those minima recognized by the investigator.[332] Molecular mechanics can also be used to study energy maxima (barriers), but in much less detail.[333] A number of force-field computer programs are available, among them the Allinger MM2, MMP2, and MM3[334] force fields, and the Bartell MUB-2 force field.[335]

A molecular mechanics calculation gives the total potential energy of each conformation. If the mole fractions of all the conformations are known, or can be calculated, the enthalpy of formation of the compound can be obtained.[336]

Even though molecular mechanics has given satisfactory results (i.e., results that agree with experimental measurements) for many molecules, it is still not totally reliable, since it does fail in certain cases. A further limitation is that it can be used only in cases for which transferable parameters can be obtained from simple molecules. Molecular orbital calculations do not have this limitation, but to some extent semiempirical MO methods do.

STRAIN

Steric strain[337] exists in a molecule when bonds are forced to make abnormal angles. This results in a higher energy than would be the case in the absence of angle distortions. It has been shown that there is a good correlation between the $^{13}C-H$ coupling constants in NMR and the bond angles and bond force angles in strained organic molecules.[338] There are, in general, two kinds of structural features that result in sterically caused abnormal bond angles. One of these is found in small-ring compounds, where the angles must be less than those resulting from normal orbital overlap.[339] Such strain is called *small-angle strain.* The other arises when nonbonded atoms are forced into close proximity by the geometry of the molecule. These are called *nonbonded interactions.*

Strained molecules possess *strain energy.* That is, their potential energies are higher than they would be if strain were absent.[340] The strain energy for a particular molecule can be estimated from heat of atomization or heat of combustion data. A strained molecule has a lower heat of atomization than it would have if it were strain-free (Fig. 4.5). As in the similar case of resonance energies (p. 35), strain energies can not be known exactly, because the energy of a real molecule can be measured, but not the energy of a hypothetical unstrained model. It is also possible to calculate strain energies by molecular mechanics, not only for real molecules, but also for those that cannot be made.[341]

Strain in Small Rings

Three-membered rings have a great deal of angle strain, since 60°angles represent a large departure from the tetrahedral angles. In sharp contrast to other ethers, ethylene oxide is quite reactive, the ring being opened by many reagents (see p. 446). Ring opening, of course, relieves the strain.[342] Cyclopropane,[343] which is even more

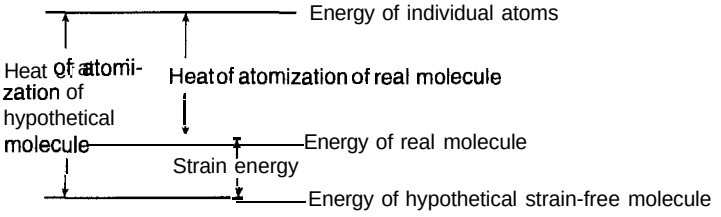


FIGURE 4.5 Strain energy calculation.

strained[344] than ethylene oxide, is also cleaved more easily than would be expected for an alkane.[345] Thus, pyrolysis at 450–500°C converts it to propene, bromination gives 1,3-dibromopropane,[346] and it can be hydrogenated to propane (though at high pressure).[347] Other three-membered rings are similarly reactive.[348]

There is much evidence, chiefly derived from NMR coupling constants, that the bonding in cyclopropanes is not the same as in compounds that lack small-angle strain.[349] For a normal carbon atom, one *s* and three *p* orbitals are hybridized to give four approximately equivalent sp^3 orbitals, each containing about ~25% *s* character. But for a cyclopropane carbon atom, the four hybrid orbitals are far from equivalent. The two orbitals directed to the outside bonds have more *s* character than a normal sp^3 orbital, while the two orbitals involved in ring bonding have less, because the more *p*-like they are the more they resemble ordinary *p* orbitals, whose preferred bond angle is 90° rather than 109.5°. Since the small-angle strain in cyclopropanes is the difference between the preferred angle and the real angle of 60°, this additional *p* character relieves some of the strain. The external orbitals have about ~33% s character, so that they are approximately sp^2 orbitals, while the internal orbitals have about 17% s character, so that they may be called approximately sp^5 orbitals.[350] Each of the three carbon–carbon bonds of cyclopropane is therefore formed by overlap of two sp^5 orbitals. Molecular orbital calculations show that such bonds are not completely *s* in character. In normal C—C bonds, sp^3 orbitals overlap in such a way that the straight line connecting the nuclei becomes an axis about which the electron density is symmetrical. But in cyclopropane, the electron density is directed *away from* the ring.[351] Figure 4.6 shows the direction of orbital overlap.[352] For cyclopropane, the angle (marked 9) is 21°. Cyclobutane exhibits the same phenomenon but to a lesser extent, 9 being 7°.[351,352] Molecular orbital calculations also show that the maximum electron densities of the C—C a orbitals are bent away from the ring, with 9 = 9.4° for cyclopropane and 3.4° for cyclobutane.[353] The bonds in cyclopropane are called *bent bonds*, and are intermediate in character between a and π, so that cyclopropanes behave in some respects like double-bond compounds.[354] For one thing, there is much evidence, chiefly from UV spectra,[355] that a cyclopropane ring is conjugated with an adjacent double bond and that this conjugation is greatest for the conformation shown in a Figure 4.7a and least or absent for the conformation shown in Figure 4.7*b*, since overlap of the double-bond

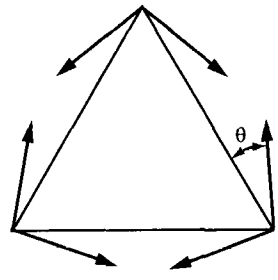


FIGURE 4.6 Orbital overlap in cyclopropane. The arrows point toward the center of electron density.

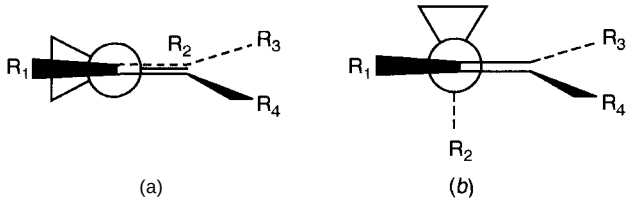
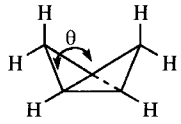


FIGURE 4.7 Conformations of α-cyclopropylalkenes. Conformation *a* leads to maximum conjugation and conformation *b* to minium conjugation.

π orbital with two of the *p*-like orbitals of the cyclopropane ring is greatest in conformation *a.* However, the conjugation between a cyclopropane ring and a double bond is less than that between two double bonds.[356] For other examples of the similarities in behavior of a cyclopropane ring and a double bond, see page 988.

Four-membered rings also exhibit angle strain, but much less, and are less easily opened. Cyclobutane is more resistant than cyclopropane to bromination, and though it can be hydrogenated to butane, more strenuous conditions are required. Nevertheless, pyrolysis at 420°C gives two molecules of ethylene. As mentioned earlier (page 177), cyclobutane is not planar.

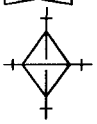
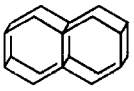
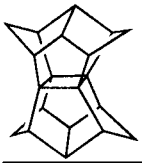
Many highly strained compounds containing small rings in fused systems have been prepared,[357] showing that organic molecules can exhibit much more strain than simple cyclopropanes or cyclobutanes.[358] Table 4.5 shows a few of these compounds.[359] Perhaps the most interesting are cubane, prismane, and the substituted



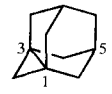
tetrahedrane, since preparation of these ring systems had been the object of much endeavor. Prismane is tetracyclo[2.2.0.$0^{2,6}$.$0^{3,5}$]hexane and many derivatives are known,[360] including bishomohexaprismane derivatives.[361] The bicyclobutane molecule is bent, with the angle 9 between the planes equal to 126 ± 3°.[362] The rehybridization effect, described above for cyclopropane, is even more extreme in this molecule. Calculations have shown that the central bond is essentially formed by overlap of two *p* orbitals with little or no *s* character.[363] *Propellanes* are compounds in which two carbons, directly connected, are also connected by three other bridges. [1.1.1]Propellane is in the table and it is the smallest possible propellane,[364] and is in fact more stable than the larger [2.1.1]propellane and [2.2.1]propellane, which have been isolated only in solid matrixes at low temperature.[365] The bicyclo[l.l.l]pentanes are obviously related to the propellanes except that the central connecting bond is missing, and several derivatives are known.[366] Even more complex systems are known.[367]

In certain small-ring systems, including small propellanes, the geometry of one or more carbon atoms is so constrained that all four of their valences are directed to the same side of a plane (inverted tetrahedron), as in 98.[368] An example is 1,3-

TABLE 4.5 Some Strained Small-Ring Compounds

Structural Formula of Compound Prepared	Systematic Name of Ring System	Common name if Any	Reference
	Bicyclo[1.1.0]butane	Bicyclobutane	369
	$\Delta^{1,4}$-Bicyclo[2.2.0]hexene		370
	Tricyclo[1.1.0.$0^{2,4}$]butane	Tetrahedrane	371
	Pentacyclo[5.1.0.$0^{2,4}$.$0^{3,5}$.$0^{6,8}$]octane	Octabisvalene	372
	Tricyclo[1.1.1.$0^{1,3}$]pentane	A[1.1.1]propellane	364
	Tetracyclo[2.2.0.$0^{2,6}$.$0^{3,5}$]hexane	Prismane	373
	Pentacyclo[4.2.0.$0^{2,5}$.$0^{3,8}$.$0^{4,7}$]octane	Cubane	374
	Pentacyclo[5.4.1.$0^{3,1}$.$0^{5,9}$.$0^{8,11}$]dodecane	4[Peristylane]	375
	Hexacyclo[5.3.0.$0^{2,6}$.$0^{3,10}$.$0^{4,9}$.$0^{5,8}$]decane	Pentaprismane	376
	Tricyclo[3.1.1.$1^{2,4}$]octane	Diasterane	377
	Hexacyclo[4.4.0.$0^{2,4}$.$0^{3,9}$.$0^{5,8}$.$0^{7,10}$]decane		378
	Nonacyclo[10.8.$0^{2,11}$.$0^{4,9}$.$0^{4,19}$.$0^{6,17}$.-$0^{7,16}$.$0^{9,14}$.$0^{14,19}$]eicosane	A double tctraesterane	379
	Undecacyclo[9.9.0.$0^{1,5}$.$0^{2,12}$.$0^{2,18}$.$0^{3,7}$.-$0^{6,10}$.$0^{8,12}$.$0^{11,15}$.$0^{13,17}$.$0^{16,20}$]eicosane	Pagodane	380

dehydroadamantane, (99) (which is also a propellane).[381] X-ray crystallography of the 5-cyano derivative of 92 shows that the four carbon valences at C-1 and C-3 are all directed "into" the molecule and none point outside.[382] Compound 92 is quite reactive; it is unstable in air, readily adds hydrogen, water, bromine, or acetic acid to the C_1—C_3 bond, and is easily polymerized. When two such atoms are connected by

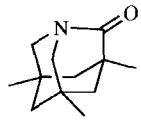


98 **99**

a bond (as in 101), the bond is very long (the C_1—C_3 bond length in the 5-cyano derivative of 99 is 1.64 Å), as the atoms try to compensate in this way for their enforced angles. The high reactivity of the C_1—C_3 bond of 99 is not only caused by strain, but also by the fact that reagents find it easy to approach these atoms since there are no bonds (e.g., C—H bonds on C-1 or C-3) to get in the way.

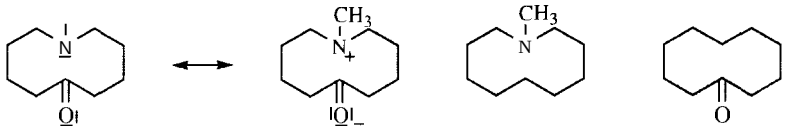
Strain in Other Rings[383]

In rings larger than four membered, there is no small-angle strain, but there arc three other kinds of strain. In the chair form of cyclohexane, which does not exhibit any of the three kinds of strain, all six carbon-carbon bonds have the two attached carbons in the *gauche* conformation. However, in five-membered rings and in rings containing from 7 to 13 carbons, any conformation in which all the ring bonds are *gauche* contains transannular interactions, that is, interactions between the substituents on C-l and C-3 or C-l and C-4, and so on. These interactions occur because the internal space is not large enough for all the quasi-axial hydrogen atoms to fit without coming into conflict. The molecule can adopt other conformations in which this *transannular strain* is reduced, but then some of the carbon-carbon bonds must adopt eclipsed or partially eclipsed conformations. The strain resulting from eclipsed conformations is called *Pitzer strain.* For saturated rings from 3- to 13-membered (except for the chair form of cyclohexane) there is no escape from at least one of these two types of strain. In practice, each ring adopts conformations that minimize both sorts of strain as much as possible. For cyclopentane, as we have seen (p. 178), this means that the molecule is not planar. In rings larger than 9 membered, Pitzer strain seems to disappear, but transannular strain is still present.[384] For 9- and 10-membered rings, some of the transannular and Pitzer strain may be relieved by the adoption of a third type of strain, *large-angle strain.* Thus, C—C—C angles of 115–120° have been found in X-ray diffraction of cyclononylamine hydrobromide and 1,6-diaminocyclodecane dihydrochloride.[385]



100

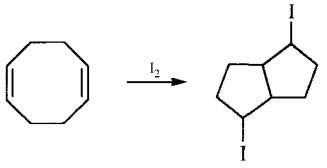
Strain can exert other influences on molecules. 1-Aza-2-adamantanone **(100)** is an extreme case of a twisted amide.[386] The overlap of the lone-pair electrons on nitrogen with the π system of the carbonyl is prevented.[386] In chemical reactions, **100** reacts more or less like a ketone, giving a Wittig reaction **(16-47)** and it can form a ketal (16-6).



101a 101b 102 103

The amount of strain in cycloalkanes is shown in Table 4.6,[387] which lists heats of combustion per CH_2 group. As can be seen, cycloalkanes larger than 13 membered are as strain-free as cyclohexane.

Transannular interactions can exist across rings from 8 to 11 membered and even larger.[388] Such interactions can be detected by dipole and spectral measurements. For example, that the carbonyl group in **101a** is affected by the nitrogen **(101b** is probably another canonical form) has been demonstrated by photoelectron spectroscopy, which shows that the ionization potentials of the nitrogen *n* and C=O *n* orbitals in **101** differ from those of the two comparison molecules **102** and 103,[389] It is significant that when **101** accepts a proton, it goes to the oxygen rather than to the nitrogen. Many examples of transannular reactions are known, including



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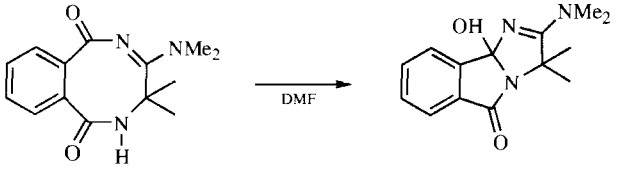


Ref. 391

In summary, we can divide saturated rings into four groups, of which the first and third are more strained than the other two.[392]

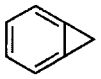
1. *Small rings* (3 and 4 membered). Small-angle strain predominates.
2. *Common rings* (5, 6, and 7 membered). Largely unstrained. The strain that is present is mostly Pitzer strain.
3. *Medium rings* 8–11 membered). Considerable strain; Pitzer, transannular, and large-angle strain.
4. *Large rings* (12 membered and larger). Little or no strain.[393]

TABLE 4.6 Heats of Combustion ΔH_c in the Gas Phase for Cycloalkanes per CH_2 group

	$-\Delta H_c$, (g)			$-\Delta H_c$, (g)	
Size of Ring	kcal mol^{-1}	kJ mol^{-1}	Size of Ring	kcal mol^{-1}	kJ mol^{-1}
3	166.3	695.8	10	158.6	663.6
4	163.9	685.8	11	158.4	662.7
5	158.7	664.0	12	157.8	660.2
6	157,4	658.6	13	157.7	659.8
7	158.3	662.3	14	157.4	658.6
8	158.6	663.6	15	157.5	659.0
9	158.8	664.4	16	157.5	659.0

Unsaturated Rings[394]

Double bonds can exist in rings of any size. As expected, the most highly strained are the three-membered rings. Small-angle strain, which is so important in cyclopropane, is even greater in cyclopropene[395] because the ideal angle is greater. In cyclopropane, the bond angle is forced to be 60°, ~50° smaller than the tetrahedral angle; but in cyclopropene, the angle, also ~60°, is now ~60° smaller than the ideal angle of 120°. Thus, the angle is cyclopropene is ~10° more strained than in cyclopropane. However, this additional strain is offset by a decrease in strain arising from another factor. Cyclopropene, lacking two hydrogens, has none of the eclipsing strain present in cyclopropane. Cyclopropene has been prepared[396] and

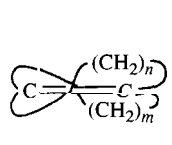


Benzocyclopropene

is stable at liquid nitrogen temperatures, though on warming even to —80°C it rapidly polymerizes. Many other cyclopropenes are stable at room temperature and above.[395] The highly strained benzocyclopropene,[397] in which the cyclopropene ring is fused to a benzene ring, has been prepared[398] and is stable for weeks at room temperature, though it decomposes on distillation at atmospheric pressure.

As previously mentioned, double bonds in relatively small rings must be cis. A stable trans double bond[399] first appears in an eight-membered ring *(trans*-cyclooctene, p. 134), though the transient existence of *trans*-cyclohexene and cycloheptene has been demonstrated.[400] Above ~11 members, the trans isomer is more stable than the cis.[187] It has proved possible to prepare compounds in which a trans double bond is shared by two cycloalkene rings (e.g., **104).** Such compounds have been called [*m.n*]*betweenanenes*, and several have been prepared with *m* and *n* values from 8 to 26.[401] The double bonds of the smaller *betweenanenes*, as might be

expected from the fact that they are deeply buried within the bridges, are much less reactive than those of the corresponding cis–cis isomers.



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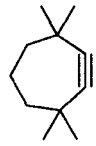

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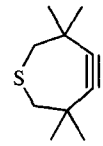
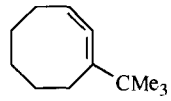


106

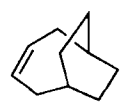
The smallest unstrained cyclic triple bond is found in cyclononyne.[402] Cyclooctyne has been isolated,[403] but its heat of hydrogenation shows that it is considerably strained. There have been a few compounds isolated with triple bonds in seven-membered rings. 3,3,7,7-Tetramethylcycloheptyne (**105**) dimerizes within 1 h at room temperature,[404] but the thia derivative **106,** in which the C—S bonds are longer than the corresponding C—C bonds in **105,** is indefinitely stable even at 140°C.[405] Cycloheptyne itself has not been isolated, though its transient existence has been shown.[406] Cyclohexyne[407] and its 3,3,6,6-tetramethyl derivative[408] have been trapped at 77 K, and in an argon matrix at 12 K, respectively, and IR spectra have been obtained. Transient six- and even five-membered rings containing triple bonds have also been demonstrated.[409]



107

A derivative of cyclopentyne has been trapped in a matrix.[410] Although cycloheptyne and cyclohexyne have not been isolated at room temperatures, Pt(0) complexes of these compounds have been prepared and are stable.[411] The smallest cyclic allene[412] so far isolated is 1-*tert*-butyl-1,2-cyclooctadiene **107**.[413] The parent 1,2-cyclooctadiene has not been isolated. It has been shown to exist transiently, but rapidly dimerizes.[414] The presence of the *tert*-butyl group apparently prevents this. The transient existence of 1,2-cycloheptadiene has also been shown,[415] and both 1,2-cyclooctadiene and 1,2-cycloheptadiene have been isolated in platinum complexes.[416] 1,2-Cyclohexadiene has been trapped at low temperatures, and its structure has been proved by spectral studies.[417] Cyclic allenes in general are less strained than their acetylenic isomers.[418] The cyclic cumulene 1,2,3-cyclononatriene has also been synthesized and is reasonably stable in solution at room temperature in the absence of air.[419]

108



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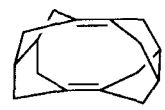
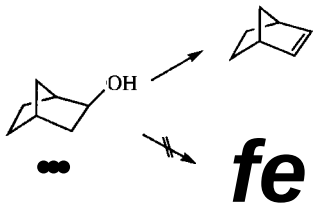


110

There are many examples of polycyclic molecules and bridged molecules that have one or more double bonds. There is flattening of the ring containing the C=C

unit, and this can have a significant effect on the molecule. Norbornene (bicyclo[2.2.1]hept-2-ene, **108)** is a simple example and it has been calculated that it contains a distorted π face.[420] The double bond can appear away from the bridgehead carbon atoms, as in bicyclo[4.2.2]dec-3-ene **(109)** and that part of the molecule is flattened. In pentacyclo[8.2.1.1^{2,5}.1^{4,7}.1^{8,11}]hexadeca-1,7-diene **(110),** the C=C units are held in a position where there is significant *n—n* interactions across the molecule.[421]

Double bonds at the bridgehead of bridged bicyclic compounds are impossible in small systems. This is the basis of *Bredt's rule*,[422] which states that elimination to give a double bond in a bridged bicyclic system (e.g., **111**) always leads away from the bridgehead. This rule no longer applies when the rings are large enough.



In determining whether a bicyclic system is large enough to accommodate a bridgehead double bond, the most reliable criterion is the size of the ring in which the double bond is located.[423] Bicyclo[3.3.1]non-l-ene[424] **(112)** and bicyclo[4.2.1] non-1(8)ene[425] (113) are stable compounds. Both can be looked upon as derivatives of *trans*-cyclooctene, which is of course a known compound. Compound **112** has been shown to have a strain energy of the same order of magnitude as that of

112 113 114

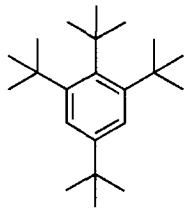
trans-cyclooctene.[426] On the other hand, in bicyclo[3.2.2]non-l-ene **(114),** the largest ring that contains the double bond is *trans*-cycloheptene, which is as yet unknown. Compound **114** has been prepared, but dimerized before it could be isolated.[427] Even smaller systems ([3.2.1] and [2.2.2]), but with imine double bonds **(115-117),** have been obtained in matrixes at low temperatures.[428] These compounds are destroyed on warming. Compounds **115** and **116** are the first reported example of (*E*)–(*Z*) isomerism at a strained bridgehead double bond.[429]

(*E*) Isomer (Z) Isomer

115 116 117

Strain Due to Unavoidable Crowding[430]

In some molecules, large groups are so close to each other that they cannot fit into the available space in such a way that normal bond angles are maintained. It has proved possible to prepare compounds with a high degree of this type of strain. For example, success has been achieved in synthesizing benzene rings containing ortho *tert*-butyl groups. Two examples that have been prepared, of several, are 1,2,3-tri-tert-butyl compound (**118**)[431] and the 1,2,3,4-tetra-*tert*-butyl compound (119).[432] That these molecules are strained is demonstrated by UV and IR spectra, which show



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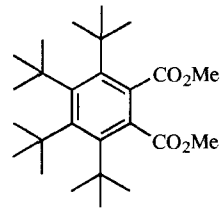

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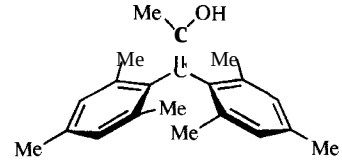

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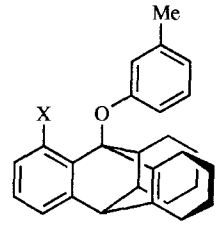
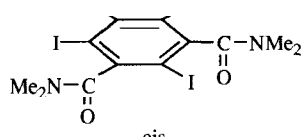
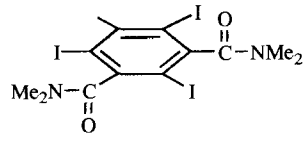


121

that the ring is not planar in 1,2,4-tri-*tert*-butylbenzene, and by a comparison of the heats of reaction of this compound and its 1,3,5 isomer, which show that the 1,2,4 compound possesses $\sim$22 kcal mol^{-1} (92 kJ mol^{-1}) more strain energy than its isomer[433] (see also p. 1433). Since $SiMe_3$ groups are larger than CMe_3 groups, and it has proven possible to prepare $C_6(SiMe_3)6$. This compound has a chair-shaped ring in the solid state, and a mixture of chair and boat forms in solution.[434] Even smaller groups can sterically interfere in ortho positions. In hexaisopropylbenzene, the six isopropyl groups are so crowded that they cannot rotate but are lined up around the benzene ring, all pointed in the same direction.[435] This compound is an example of a *geared molecule*.[436] The isopropyl groups fit into each other in the same manner as interlocked gears. Another example is **120** (which is a stable enol).[437] In this case, each ring can rotate about its C–aryl bond only by forcing the other to rotate as well.



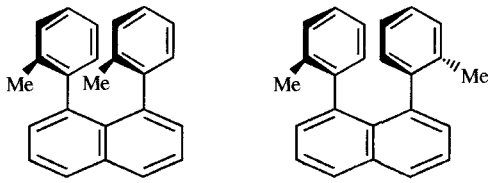
cis



trans

In the case of triptycene derivatives such as **121**, a complete 360° rotation of the aryl group around the O– aryl bond requires the aryl group to pass over three rotational

barriers; one of which is the C—X bond and other two the "top" C—H bonds of the other two rings. As expected, the C—X barrier is the highest, ranging from 10.3 kcal mol^{-1} (43.1 kJ mol^{-1}) for X = F to 17.6 kcal mol^{-1} (73.6 kJ mol^{-1}) for X *tert*-butyl.[438] In another instance, it has proved possible to prepare cis and trans isomers of 5-amino-2,4,6-triiodo-*N,N,N′,N′*-tetramethylisophthalamide because there is no room for the $CONMe_2$ groups to rotate, caught as they are between two bulky iodine atoms.[439] The trans isomer is chiral and has been resolved, while the cis isomer is a meso form. Another example of cis-trans isomerism resulting from restricted rotation about single bonds[440] is found in 1,8-di-*o*-tolylnapthalene[441] (see also p. 157).

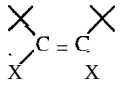


cis trans

There are many other cases of intramolecular crowding that result in the distortion of bond angles. We have already mentioned hexahelicene (p. 134) and bent benzene rings (p. 43). The compounds tri-*tert*-butylamine and tetra-*tert*-butylmethane are as yet unknown. In the latter, there is no way for the strain to be relieved and it is questionable whether this compound can ever be made. In tri-*tert*-butylamine, the crowding can be eased somewhat if the three bulky groups assume a planar instead of the normal pyramidal configuration. In tri-*tert*-butylcarbinol, coplanarity of the three *tert*-butyl groups is prevented by the presence of the OH group, and yet this compound has been prepared.[442] Tri-*tert*-butylamine should have less steric strain than tri-*tert*-butylcarbinol and it should be possible to prepare it.[443] The tetra-*tert*-butylphosphonium cation $(t\text{-}Bu)_4P^+$ has been prepared.[444] Although steric effects are nonadditive in crowded molecules, a quantitative measure has been proposed by DeTar,[445] based on molecular mechanics calculations. This is called *formal steric enthalpy* (FSE), and values have been calculated for alkanes, alkenes, alcohols, ethers, and methyl esters. For example, some FSE values for alkanes are butane +0.00; 2,2,3,3-tetramethylbutane 7.27; 2,2,4,4,5-pentamethylhexane 11.30; and tri-*tert*-butylmethane 38.53.

The two carbon atoms of a C=C double bond and the four groups attached to them are normally in a plane, but if the groups are large enough, significant deviation from planarity can result.[446] The compound tetra-*tert*-butylethene **(122)** has not been prepared,[447] but the tetraaldehyde **(123),** which should have about the same amount of strain, has been made. X-ray crystallography shows that (123) is twisted out of a planar shape by an angle of 28.6°.[448] Also, the C=C double bond distance is 1.357 Å, significantly longer than a normal C=C bond of 1.32 Å (Table 1.5). (Z)-1,2-Bis(*tert*-butyldimethylsilyl)-1,2-bis(trimethylsilyl)ethene **(124)** has an even greater twist, but could not be made to undergo conversion to the (*E*) isomer, probably because the groups are too large to slide past each other.[449] A different kind of

double bond strain is found in tricyclo[4.2.2.$2^{2,5}$]dodeca-1,5-diene (125),[450] cubene (126),[451] and homocub-4(5)-ene (**127**).[452] In these molecules, the four groups on the double bond are all forced to be on one side of the double-bond plane.[453] In **125,** the



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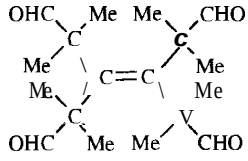

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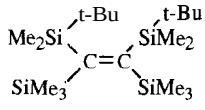

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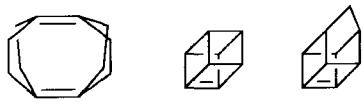
angle between the line C_1—C_2 (extended) and the plane defined by C_2, C3, and C_{11} is 27°. An additional source of strain in this molecule is the fact that the two double



125 **126** **127**

bonds are pushed into close proximity by the four bridges. In an effort to alleviate this sort of strain the bridge bond distances (C_3—C_4) are 1.595 Å, which is considerably longer than the 1.53 Å expected for a normal sp^3–sp^3 C—C bond (Table 1.5). Compounds **126** and **127** have ***not*** been isolated, but have been generated as intermediates that were trapped by reaction with other compounds.[451,452]

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[2] The IUPAC 1974 Recommendations, Section E, Fundamental Stereochemistry, give definitions for most of the terms used in this chapter, as well as rules for naming the various kinds of stereoisomers. They can be found in *Pure Appl. Chem.*, ***1976,*** *45,*

13 and in *Nomenclature of Organic Chemistry;* Pergamon: Elmsford, NY, ***1979*** (the Blue Book).

[3] For a discussion of the conditions for optical activity in liquids and crystals, see O'Loane, J.K. *Chem. Rev.*, ***1980,*** *80,* 41. For a discussion of chirality as applied to molecules, see Quack, M. *Angew. Chem. Int. Ed. Engl.*, ***1989,*** *28,* 571.

[4] Interactions between electrons, nucleons, and certain components of nucleons (e.g., bosons), called *weak interactions,* violate parity; that is, mirror-image interactions do not have the same energy. It has been contended that interactions of this sort cause one of a pair of enantiomers to be (slightly) more stable than the other. See Tranter, G.E. *J. Chem. Soc, Chem. Commun.*, ***1986,*** 60, and references cited therein. See also Ref. 14.

[5] For a reported exception, see Hata, N. *Chem. Lett.*, ***1991,*** 155.

[6] For a review of discriminating interactions between chiral molecules, see Craig, D.P.; Mellor, D.P. *Top. Curr. Chem.*, ***1976,*** *63,* 1.

[7] Strictly speaking, the term *racemic mixture* applies only when the mixture of molecules is present as separate solid phases, but in this book we shall use this expression to refer to any equimolar mixture of enantiomeric molecules, liquid, solid, gaseous, or in solution.

[8] For a monograph on the properties of racemates and their resolution, see Jacques, J.; Collet, A.; Wilen, S.H. *Enantiomers, Racemates, and Resolutions;* Wiley: NY, ***1981.***

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[12] For examples, see Shriner, R.L.; Adams, R.; Marvel, C.S., Ref. 1, p. 291.

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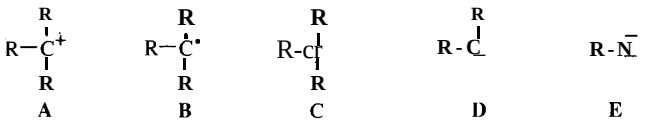
CHAPTER 5

Carbocations, Carbanions, Free Radicals, Carbenes, and Nitrenes

There are four types of organic species in which a carbon atom has a valence of only 2 or 3.[1] They are usually very short lived, and most exist only as intermediates that are quickly converted to more stable molecules. However, some are more stable than others and fairly stable examples have been prepared of three of the four types. The four types of species are *carbocations* (A), *free radicals* (B), *carbanions* (C), and *carbenes* (D). Of the four, only carbanions have a complete octet around the carbon. There are many other organic ions and radicals with charges and unpaired electrons on atoms other than carbon, but we will discuss only *nitrenes* (E), the nitrogen analogs of carbenes.



A B C D E

Each of the five types is discussed in a separate section, which in each case includes brief summaries of the ways in which the species form and react. These summaries are short and schematic. The generation and fate of the five types are more fully treated in appropriate places in Part 2 of this book.

CARBOCATIONS[2]

Nomenclature

First, we must say a word about the naming of A. For many years these species were called "carbonium ions", though it was suggested[3] as long ago as 1902 that this was inappropriate because "-onium" usually refers to a covalency higher than that of the neutral atom. Nevertheless, the name carbonium ion was well established and created few problems[4] until some years ago, when George Olah and his co-workers found evidence for another type of intermediate in which there is a positive charge at a carbon atom, but in which the formal covalency of the carbon atom is 5 rather than 3. The simplest example is the methanonium ion CH_5^+ (see p. 770). Olah[5] proposed that the name carbonium ion be henceforth reserved for penta-coordinated positive

ions, and that A be called "carbenium ions". He also proposed the term "carbocation" to encompass both types. The International Union of Pure and Applied Chemistry (IUPAC) has accepted these definitions.[6] Although some authors still refer to A as carbonium ions and others call them carbenium ions, the general tendency is to refer to them simply as *carbocations*, and we will follow this practice. The pentavalent species are much rarer than A, and the use of the term "carbocation" for A causes little or no confusion.

Stability and Structure

Carbocations are intermediates in several kinds of reactions. The more stable ones have been prepared in solution and in some cases even as solid salts, and X-ray crystallographic structures have been obtained in some cases.[7] An isolable dioxa-stabilized pentadienylium ion was isolated and its structure was determined by ^1H, ^{13}C NMR, mass spectrometry (MS), and IR.[8] A P-fluoro substituted 4-methoxyphenethyl cation has been observed directly by laser flash photolysis.[9] In solution, the carbocation may be free (this is more likely in polar solvents, in which it is solvated) or it may exist as an ion pair,[10] which means that it is closely associated with a negative ion, called a *counterion* or *gegenion.* Ion pairs are more likely in nonpolar solvents.

Among simple alkyl carbocations[11] the order of stability is tertiary > secondary > primary. There are many known examples of rearrangements of primary or secondary carbocations to tertiary, both in solution and in the gas phase. Since simple alkyl cations are not stable in ordinary strong-acid solutions (e.g., H_2SO_4), the study of these species was greatly facilitated by the discovery that many of them could be kept indefinitely in stable solutions in mixtures of fluorosulfuric acid and antimony pentafluoride. Such mixtures, usually dissolved in SO_2 or SO_2ClF, are among the strongest acidic solutions known and are often called *superacids*.[12] The original experiments involved the addition of alkyl fluorides to SbF_5.[13]

$$RF + SbF_5 \longrightarrow R^+ \; SbF_6^-$$

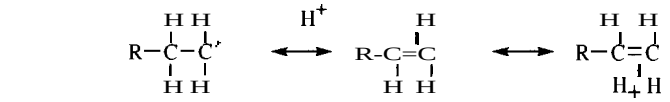
Subsequently it was found that the same cations could also be generated from alcohols in superacid-SO_2 at $-60°C$[14] and from alkenes by the addition of a proton from superacid or $HF{-}SbF_5$ in SO_2 or SO_2ClF at low temperatures.[15] Even alkanes give carbocations in superacid by loss of H^-. For example,[16] isobutane gives the ferf-butyl cation

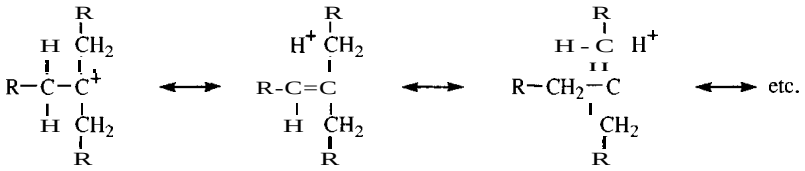
$$Me_3CH \xrightarrow{FSO_3H-SbF_6} Me_3C^+ \; SbF_5FSO_3^- + H_2$$

No matter how they are generated, study of the simple alkyl cations has provided dramatic evidence for the stability order.[17] Both propyl fluorides gave the isopropyl cation; all four butyl fluorides[18] gave the ferf-butyl cation, and all seven of the pentyl fluorides tried gave the *tert*-pentyl cation. Butane, in superacid, gave only the ferf-butyl cation. To date, no primary cation has survived long enough for detection.

Neither methyl nor ethyl fluoride gave the corresponding cations when treated with SbF_5. At low temperatures, methyl fluoride gave chiefly the methylated sulfur dioxide salt, $(CH_3OSO)^+ SbF_6^-$,[19] while ethyl fluoride rapidly formed the *tert*-butyl and *tert*-hexyl cations by addition of the initially formed ethyl cation to ethylene molecules also formed.[20] At room temperature, methyl fluoride also gave the *tert*-butyl cation.[21] In accord with the stability order, hydride ion is abstracted from alkanes by super acid most readily from tertiary and least readily from primary positions.

The stability order can be explained by hyperconjugation and by the field effect. In the hyperconjugation explanation,[22] we compare a primary carbocation with a tertiary. It is seen that many more canonical forms are possible for the latter:





In the examples shown, the primary ion has only two hyperconjugative forms while the tertiary has six. According to rule 6 (p. 41), the greater the number of equivalent forms, the greater the resonance stability. Evidence for the hyperconjugation explanation is that the equilibrium constant (K) for this reaction

$$\underset{\mathbf{1}}{(CD_3)_3C^+} + (CH_3)_3CH \rightleftharpoons \underset{\mathbf{2}}{(CH_3)_3C^+} + (CD_3)_3CH$$

$$K_{298} = 1.97 \pm 0.20$$

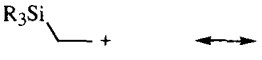
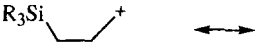
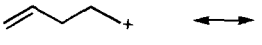
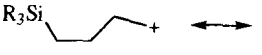
is 1.97, showing that 2 is more stable than **1**.[23] This is a β secondary isotope effect; there is less hyperconjugation in 1 than in 2 (see p. 298).[24]

3

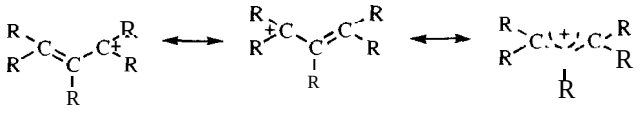
There are several structural types of delocalization, summarized in Table 5.1.[25] The stabilization of the dimethylalkylidine cation (3) is an example of double hyperconjugation.[25]

The field effect explanation is that the electron-donating effect of alkyl groups increases the electron density at the charge-bearing carbon, reducing the net charge on the carbon, and in effect spreading the charge over the α carbons. It is a general rule that the more concentrated any charge is, the less stable the species bearing it will be.

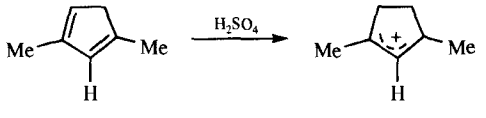
TABLE 5.1 Structural Types of Delocalization

Valence Structures	Abbreviation	Name
	ππ	Simple conjugation
	*an*	Hyperconjugation
	πσ	Homoconjugation
	σσ	Homohypercon-jugation
	σπ/ππ	Hyperconjugation / conjugation
	σπ/σπ	Double hyperconjugation

The most stable of all alkyl cations is the tert-butyl cation. Even the relatively stable *tert*-pentyl and ter/-hexyl cations fragment at higher temperatures to produce the *tert*-butyl cation, as do all other alkyl cations with four or more carbons so far studied.[26] Methane,[27] ethane, and propane, treated with superacid, also yield *tert-butyl* cations as the main product (see **2-17).** Even paraffin wax and polyethylene give the *tert-butyl* cation. Solid salts of *tert-butyl* and terf-pentyl cations (e.g., Me_3C^+ SbF_6^-) have been prepared from superacid solutions and are stable below $-20°C$.[28]



Where the positive carbon is in conjugation with a double bond, the stability is greater because of increased delocalization due to resonance and because the positive charge is spread over two atoms instead of being concentrated on one (see the MO picture of this species on p. 38). Each of the two atoms has a charge of $\sim\frac{1}{2}$ (the charge is exactly $\frac{1}{2}$ if all of the R groups are the same). Stable allylic-type cations[29] have been prepared by the solution of conjugated dienes in concentrated sulfuric acid, for example,[30]



Both cyclic and acyclic allylic cations have been produced in this way. Stable allylic cations have also been obtained by the reaction between alkyl halides, alcohols, or alkenes (by hydride extraction) and SbF_5 in SO_2 or SO_2ClF.[31] Divinylmethyl cations[32] are more stable than the simple allylic type, and some of these have been

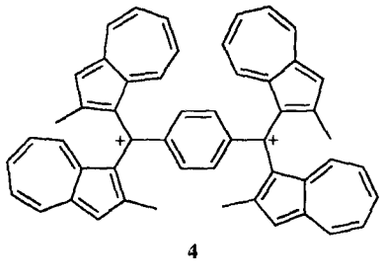
prepared in concentrated sulfuric acid.[33] Arenium ions (p. 678) are important examples of this type. Propargyl cations ($RC{\equiv}CCR_2^+$) have also been prepared.[34]

Canonical forms can be drawn for benzylic cations,[35] similar to those shown above for allylic cations, for example,

A number of benzylic cations have been obtained in solution as SbF_6^- salts.[36] Diarylmethyl and triarylmethyl cations are still more stable. Triphenylchloromethane ionizes in polar solvents that do not, like water, react with the ion. In SO_2, the equilibrium

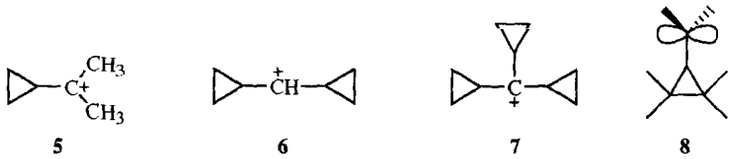
$$Ph_3CCl \rightleftharpoons Ph_3C^+ + Cl^-$$

has been known for many years. Both triphenylmethyl and diphenylmethyl cations have been isolated as solid salts[37] and, in fact, $Ph_3C^+\ BF_4^-$ and related salts are available commercially. Arylmethyl cations are further stabilized if they have electron-donating substituents in ortho or para positions.[38] Dications[39] and trications are also possible, including the particularly stable dication (4), where each positively charged benzylic carbon is stabilized by two azulene rings.[40] A related trication is known where each benzylic cationic center is also stabilized by two azulene rings.[41]



4

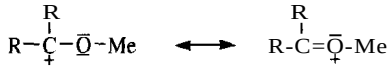
Cyclopropylmethyl cations[42] are even more stable than the benzyl type. Compound 7 has been prepared by solution of the corresponding alcohol in 96% H_2SO_4.[43] Compounds 5, 6, and similar ions have been prepared by solution of the alcohols in FSO_3H– SO_2–SbF_5.[44] This special stability, which increases with each additional cyclopropyl group, is a result of



5 6 7 8

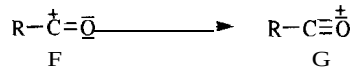
conjugation between the bent orbitals of the cyclopropyl rings (p. 181) and the vacant *p* orbital of the cationic carbon (see 8). Nuclear magnetic resonance and other studies have shown that the vacant *p* orbital lies parallel to the C-2,C-3 bond of the cyclopropane ring and not perpendicular to it.[45] In this respect, the geometry is similar to that of a cyclopropane ring conjugated with a double bond (p. 181). Cyclopropylmethyl cations are further discussed on pages 416-418. The stabilizing effect just discussed is unique to cyclopropyl groups. Cyclobutyl and larger cyclic groups are about as effective at stabilizing a carbocation as ordinary alkyl groups.[46]

Another structural feature that increases carbocation stability is the presence, adjacent to the cationic center, of a heteroatom bearing an unshared pair,[47] for example, oxygen,[48] nitrogen,[49] or halogen.[50] Such ions are stabilized by resonance:



The methoxymethyl cation can be obtained as a stable solid, $MeOCH_2^+$ SbF_6^-.[51] Carbocations containing either a, (3, or *y* silicon atom are also stabilized,[52] relative to similar ions without the silicon atom.

Simple acyl cations (RCO^+) have been prepared[53] in solution and the solid state.[54] The acetyl cation (CH_3CO^+) is about as stable as the *tert*-butylcation (see, e.g., Table 5.1). The 2,4,6-trimethylbenzoyl and 2,3,4,5,6-pentamethylbenzoyl cations are especially stable (for steric reasons) and are easily formed in 96% H_2SO_4.[55] These ions are stabilized by a canonical form (G) containing a triple bond, though the positive charge is principally located on the carbon,[56] so that F contributes more than G.



F G

The stabilities of most other stable carbocations can also be attributed to resonance. Among these are the tropylium, cyclopropenium, and other aromatic cations discussed in Chapter 2. Where resonance stability is completely lacking, as in the phenyl ($C_6H_5^+$) or vinyl cations, the ion, if formed at all, is usually very short lived.[57] Neither the vinyl[58] nor the phenyl cation has as yet been prepared as a stable species in solution.[59]

Various quantitative methods have been developed to express the relative stabilities of carbocations.[60] One of the most common of these, though useful only for relatively stable cations that are formed by ionization of alcohols in acidic solutions, is based on the equation[61]

$$H_R = pK_{R^+} - \log \frac{C_{R^+}}{C_{ROH}}$$

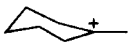
pK_{R^+} is the p*K* value for the reaction $R^+ + 2H_2O \rightleftarrows ROH + H_3O^+$ and is a measure of the stability of the carbocation. The parameter H_R is an easily obtainable

TABLE 5.2 Heterocyclic R-H → R^+ + H^- Dissociation Energies in the Gas Phase

	$D(R^+–H^-)$		
Ion	kcal mol^{-1}	kJ mol^{-1}	Reference
CH_3^+	314.6	1316	63
$C_2H_5^+$	276.7	1158	63
$(CH_3)_2CH^+$	249.2	1043	63
$(CH_3)_3C^+$	231.9	970.3	63
$C_6H_5^+$	294	1230	64
$H_2C{=}CH^+$	287	1200	64
$H_2C{=}CH{-}CH_2^+$	256	1070	64
Cyclopentyl	246	1030	64
$C_6H_5CH_2^+$	238	996	64
CH_3CHO	230	962	64

measurement of the acidity of a solvent (see p. 335) and approaches pH at low concentrations of acid. In order to obtain pK_{R^+} for a cation R^+, one dissolves the alcohol ROH in an acidic solution of known H_R. Then, the concentrations of R^+ and ROH are obtained, generally from spectra, and pK_{R^+} is easily calculated.[62] A measure of carbocation stability that applies to less-stable ions is the dissociation energy $D(R^+—H^-)$ for the cleavage reaction $R—H \rightarrow R^+ + H^-$, which can be obtained from photoelectron spectroscopy and other measurements. Some values of $D(R^+—H^-)$ are shown in Table 5.2.[65] Within a given class of ion, for example, primary, secondary, allylic, and aryl, $D(R^+—H^-)$ has been shown to be a linear function of the logarithm of the number of atoms in R^+, with larger ions being more stable.[64]

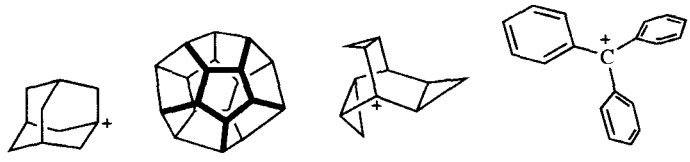
9



10

Since the central carbon of tricoordinated carbocations has only three bonds and no other valence electrons, the bonds are sp^2 and should be planar.[66] Raman, IR, and NMR spectroscopic data on simple alkyl cations show this to be so.[67] In methylcycohexyl cations there are two chair conformations where the carbon bearing the positive charge is planar (9 and 10), and there is evidence that difference is hyperconjugation make 10 more stable.[68] Other evidence is that carbocations are difficult to form at bridgehead atoms in [2.2.1] systems,[69] where they cannot be planar (see p. 397).[70] Bridgehead carbocations are known, however, as in [2.1.1] hexanes[71] and cubyl carbocations.[72] However, larger bridgehead ions can exist. For example, the adamantyl cation (11) has been synthesized, as the SF_6^- salt.[73] Among other bridgehead cations that have been prepared in superacid solution at −78°C are the dodecahedryl cation (12)[74] and the 1-trishomobarrelyl cation (13).[75] In the latter

case, the instability of the bridgehead position is balanced by the extra stability gained from the conjugation with the three cyclopropyl groups.



11 12 **13** **14**

Triarylmethyl cations (14)[76] are propeller shaped, though the central carbon and the three ring carbons connected to it are in a plane:[77] The three benzene rings cannot all be in the same plane because of steric hindrance, though increased resonance energy would be gained if they could.

An important tool for the investigation of carbocation structure is measurement of the ^{13}C NMR chemical shift of the carbon atom bearing the positive charge.[78] This shift approximately correlates with electron density on the carbon. The ^{13}C chemical shifts for a number of ions are given in Table 5.3.[79] As shown in the table, the substitution of an ethyl for a methyl or a methyl for a hydrogen causes a downfield shift, indicating that the central carbon becomes somewhat more positive. On the other hand, the presence of hydroxy or phenyl groups decreases the positive character of the central carbon. The ^{13}C chemical shifts are not always in exact order of carbocation stabilities as determined in other ways. Thus the chemical shift shows that the triphenylmethyl cation has a more positive central carbon than diphenylmethyl cation, though the former is more stable. Also, the 2-cyclopropylpropyl and 2-phenylpropyl cations have shifts of —86.8 and —61.1, respectively, though we have seen that according to other criteria a cyclopropyl group is better than a phenyl group at stabilizing a carbocation.[80] The reasons for this discrepancy are not fully understood.[77,81]

TABLE 5.3 The ^{13}C Chemical Shift Values, in Parts per Million (ppm) from $^{13}CS_2$, for the Charged Carbon Atom of Some Carbocations in SO_2ClF–SbF_5, SO_2–FSO_3H–SbF_6, or SO_2–SbF_5

Ion	Chemical Shift (ppm)	Temperature (°C)	Ion	Chemical Shift (ppm)	Temperature (°C)
Et_2MeC^+	-139.4	-20	$C(OH)_3^+$	+28.0	-50
Me_2EtC^+	-139.2	-60	$PhMe_2C^+$	-61.1	-60
Me_3C^+	-135.4	-20	$PhMeCH^+$	-40[80]	
Me_2CH^+	-125.0	-20	Ph_2CH^+	- 5.6	-60
Me_2COH^+	-55.7	-50	Ph_3C^+	-18.1	-60
$MeC(OH)_2^+$	- 1.6	-30	$Me_2(cyclopropyl)C^+$	-86.8	-60
$HC(OH)_2^+$	+ 17.0	-30			

Nonclassical Carbocations

These are discussed on pages 407-420.

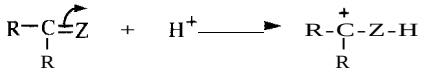
The Generation and Fate of Carbocations

Carbocations, stable or unstable, are usually generated in one of two general ways:

1. A direct ionization, in which a group attached to a carbon atom leaves with its pair of electrons (see Chapters 10, 13, 17, 18):

$$R{-}X \longrightarrow R^+ + X^- \qquad \text{(may be reversible)}$$

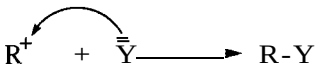
2. A proton or other positive species adds to one atom of an unsaturated system, leaving the adjacent carbon atom with a positive charge (see Chapters 11, 15, 16).



Formed by either process, carbocations are most often short-lived transient species and react further without being isolated. The intrinsic barriers to formation and reaction of carbocations has been studied.[82]

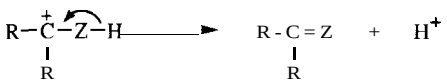
The two chief pathways by which carbocations react to give stable products are the reverse of the two pathways just described.

1. Lewis Acid-base Reactions, the carbocation may combine with a species possessing an electron pair (a Lewis acid-base reaction, see Chapter 8):



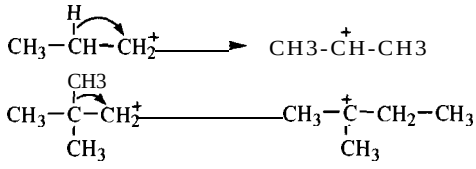
This species may be OH", halide ion, or any other negative ion, or it may be a neutral species with a pair to donate, in which case, of course, the immediate product must bear a positive charge (see Chapters 10, 13, 15, 16). These reactions are very fast. A recent study measured k_s (the rate constant for reaction of a simple tertiary carbocation) to be $3.5 \times 10^{12}\ s^{-1}$.[83]

2. Loss of A Proton, the carbocation may lose a proton (or much less often, another positive ion) from the adjacent atom (see Chapters 11, 17):

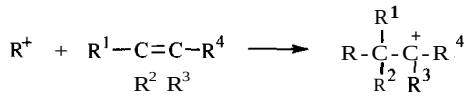


Carbocations can also adopt two other pathways that lead not to stable products, but to other carbocations:

3. *Rearrangement.* An alkyl or aryl group or a hydrogen (sometimes another group) migrates with its electron pair to the positive center, leaving another positive charge behind (see Chapter 18):



4. *Addition.* A carbocation may add to a double bond, generating a positive charge at a new position (see Chapters 11, 15):



15

Whether formed by pathway 3 or 4, the new carbocation normally reacts further in an effort to stabilize itself, usually by pathway 1 or 2. However, 15 can add to another alkene molecule, and this product can add to still another, and so on. This is one of the mechanisms for vinyl polymerization.

CARBANIONS

Stability and Structure[84]

An *organometallic compound* is a compound that contains a bond between a carbon and a metal atom. Many such compounds are known, and organometallic chemistry is a very large area, occupying a borderline region between organic and inorganic chemistry. Many carbon-metal bonds (e.g., carbon-mercury bonds) are undoubtedly covalent, but in bonds between carbon and the more active metals the electrons are closer to the carbon. Whether the position of the electrons in a given bond is close enough to the carbon to justify calling the bond ionic and the carbon moiety a carbanion depends on the metal, on the structure of the carbon moiety, and on the solvent and in some cases is a matter of speculation. In this section, we discuss carbanions with little reference to the metal. In the next section, we shall deal with the structures of organometallic compounds.

By definition, every carbanion possesses an unshared pair of electrons and is therefore a base. When a carbanion accepts a proton, it is converted to its conjugate acid (see Chapter 8). The stability of the carbanion is directly related to the strength of the conjugate acid. The weaker the acid, the greater the base strength and the lower the stability of the carbanion.[85] Here, by stability we mean stability toward a proton donor; the lower the stability, the more willing the carbanion is to accept a

proton from any available source, and hence to end its existence as a carbanion. Thus the determination of the order of stability of a series of carbanions is equivalent to a determination of the order of strengths of the conjugate acids, and one can obtain information about relative carbanion stability from a table of acid strengths like Table 8.1.

Unfortunately, it is not easy to measure acid strengths of very weak acids like the conjugate acids of simple unsubstituted carbanions. There is little doubt that these carbanions are very unstable in solution, and in contrast to the situation with carbocations, efforts to prepare solutions in which carbanions such as ethyl or isopropyl exist in a relatively free state have not yet been successful. Nor has it been possible to form these carbanions in the gas phase. Indeed, there is evidence that simple carbanions such as ethyl and isopropyl are unstable toward loss of an electron, which converts them to radicals.[86] Nevertheless, there have been several approaches to the problem. Applequist and O'Brien[87] studied the position of equilibrium for the reaction

$$RLi + R'I \rightleftharpoons RI + R'Li$$

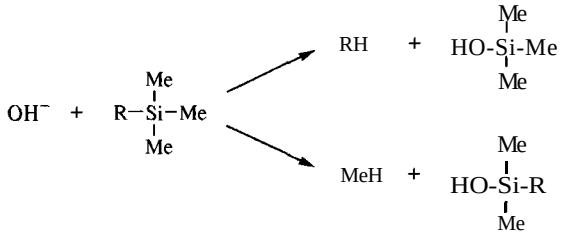
in ether and ether-pentane. The reasoning in these experiments was that the R group that forms the more stable carbanion would be more likely to be bonded to lithium than to iodine. Carbanion stability was found to be in the following order: vinyl > phenyl > cyclopropyl > ethyl > *n*-propyl > isobutyl > neopentyl > cyclobutyl > cyclopentyl. In a somewhat similar approach, Dessy et al.[88] treated a number of alkylmagnesium compounds with a number of alkylmercury compounds in THF, setting up the equilibrium

$$R_2Mg + R'_2Hg \rightleftharpoons R_2Hg + R'_2Mg$$

where the group of greater carbanion stability is linked to magnesium. The carbanion stability determined this way was in the order phenyl > vinyl > cyclopropyl > methyl > ethyl > isopropyl. The two stability orders are in fairly good agreement, and they show that stability of simple carbanions decreases in the order methyl > primary > secondary. It was not possible by the experiments of Dessy and co-workers to determine the position of *tert*-butyl, but there seems little doubt that it is still less stable. We can interpret this stability order solely as a consequence of the field effect since resonance is absent. The electron-donating alkyl groups of isopropyl result in a greater negative charge density at the central carbon atom (compared with methyl), thus decreasing its stability. The results of Applequist and O'Brien show that (3 branching also decreases carbanion stability. Cyclopropyl occupies an apparently anomalous position, but this is probably due to the large amount of *s* character in the carbanionic carbon (see p. 231).

A different approach to the problem of hydrocarbon acidity, and hence carbanion stability, is that of Shatenshtein and Shapiro,[89] who treated hydrocarbons with deuterated potassium amide and measured the rates of hydrogen exchange. The experiments did not measure *thermodynamic* acidity, since rates were measured, not positions of equilibria. They measured *kinetic* acidity, that is, which compounds

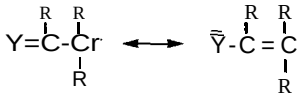
gave up protons most rapidly (see page 284 for the distinction between thermodynamic and kinetic control of product). Measurements of rates of hydrogen exchange enable one to compare acidities of a series of acids against a given base even where the positions of the equilibria cannot be measured because they lie too far to the side of the starting materials, that is, where the acids are too weak to be converted to their conjugate bases in measurable amounts. Although the correlation between thermodynamic and kinetic acidity is far from perfect,[90] the results of the rate measurements, also, indicated that the order of carbanion stability is methyl > primary > secondary > tertiary.[89]



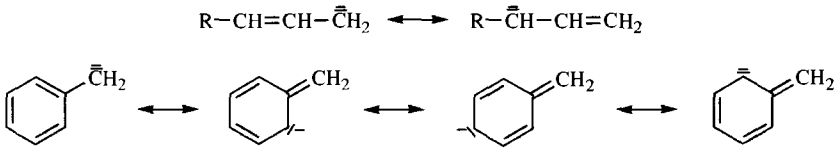
However, experiments in the gas phase gave different results. In reactions of OH^- with alkyltrimethylsilanes, it is possible for either R or Me to cleave. Since the R or Me comes off as a carbanion or incipient carbanion, the product ratio RH/MeH can be used to establish the relative stabilities of various R groups. From these experiments, a stability order of neopentyl > cyclopropyl > *ten-butyl* > n-propyl > methyl > isopropyl > ethyl was found.[91] On the other hand, in a different kind of gas-phase experiment, Graul and Squires[92] were able to observe CH_3^- ions, but not the ethyl, isopropyl, or *tert*-butyl ions.

Many carbanions are far more stable than the simple kind mentioned above. The increased stability is due to certain structural features:

1. *Conjugation of the Unshared Pair with an Unsaturated Bond:*



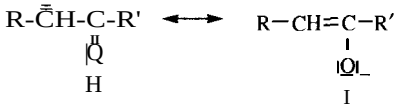
In cases where a double or triple bond is located α to the carbanionic carbon, the ion is stabilized by resonance in which the unshared pair overlaps with the *n* electrons of the double bond. This factor is responsible for the stability of the allylic[93] and benzylic[94] types of carbanions:



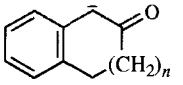
Diphenylmethyl and triphenylmethyl anions are still more stable and can be kept in solution indefinitely if water is rigidly excluded.[95] Condensed

aromatic rings fused to a cyclopentadienyl anion are known to stabilize the carbanion.[96] X-ray crystallographic structures have been obtained for Ph_2CH^- and Ph_3C^- enclosed in crown ethers.[97]

Where the carbanionic carbon is conjugated with a carbon-oxygen or carbon-nitrogen multiple bond (Y = O or N), the stability of the ion is greater than that of the triarylmethyl anions, since these electronegative atoms are better capable of bearing a negative charge than carbon. However, it is questionable whether ions of this type



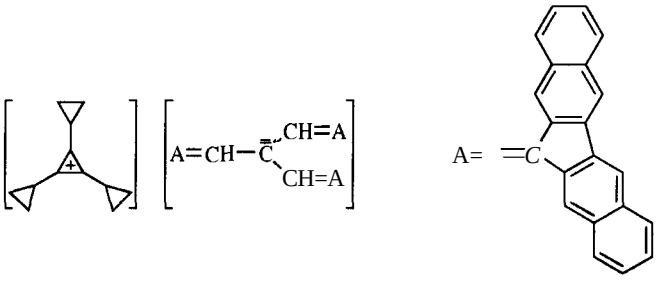
should be called carbanions at all, since in the case of enolate ions, for example, I contributes more to the hybrid than H though such ions react more often at the carbon than at the oxygen. In benzylic enolate anions such as 16, the conformation of the enolate can be coplanar with the aromatic ring or bent out of the plane if the strain is too great.[98] Enolate ions can also be kept in stable solutions. In the case of carbanions at a carbon α to a nitrile, the "enolate" resonance form would be a ketene imine nitranion, but the existence of this species has been called into question.[99] A nitro group is particularly effective in stabilizing a negative charge on an adjacent carbon, and the anions of simple nitro alkanes can exist in water. Thus the pK_a for nitromethane is 10.2. Dinitromethane is even more acidic (pK_a = 3.6).



16

In contrast to the stability of cyclopropylmethyl cations (p. 222), the cyclopropyl group exerts only a weak stabilizing effect on an adjacent carbanionic carbon.[100]

By combining a very stable carbanion with a very stable carbocation, Okamoto et al.[101] were able to isolate the salt 17, as well as several similar salts, as stable solids. These are salts that consist entirely of carbon and hydrogen.

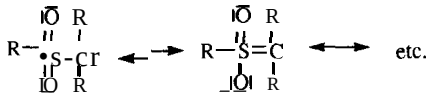


2. *Carbanions Increase in Stability With an Increase in the Amount of s Character at the Carbanionic Carbon.* Thus the order of stability is

$$RC{\equiv}C^{-} > R_2C{=}CH^{-} \approx Ar^{-} > R_3C^{-}CH_2^{-}$$

Acetylene, where the carbon is *sp* hybridized with 50% *s* character, is much more acidic than ethylene[102] (*sp*^{2}, 33% *s*), which in turn is more acidic than ethane, with 25% *s* character. Increased *s* character means that the electrons are closer to the nucleus and hence of lower energy. As previously mentioned, cyclopropyl carbanions are more stable than methyl, owing to the larger amount of *s* character as a result of strain (see p. 181).

3. *Stabilization by Sulfur*[103] *or phosphorus.* Attachment to the carbanionic carbon of a sulfur or phosphorus atom causes an increase in carbanion stability, though the reasons for this are in dispute. One theory is that there is overlap of the unshared pair with an empty *d* orbital[104] (*pn-dn* bonding, see p. 45). For example, a carbanion containing the SO_2R group would be written

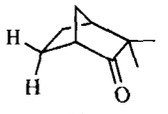


However, there is evidence against *d*-orbital overlap; and the stabilizing effects have been attributed to other causes.[105] In the case of a PhS substituent, carbanion stabilization is thought to be due to a combination of the inductive and polarizability effects of the group, and *d-pn* resonance and negative hyperconjugation play a minor role, if any.[106] An α silicon atom also stabilizes carbanions.[107]

4. *Field Effects.* Most of the groups that stabilize carbanions by resonance effects (either the kind discussed in paragraph 1 above or the kind discussed in paragraph 3) have electron-withdrawing field effects and thereby stabilize the carbanion further by spreading the negative charge, though it is difficult to separate the field effect from the resonance effect. However, in a nitrogen ylid $R_3N^{+}-{}^{-}CR_2$ (see p. 46), where a positive nitrogen is adjacent to the negatively charged carbon, only the field effect operates. Ylids are more stable than the corresponding simple carbanions. Carbanions are stabilized by a field effect if there is any hetero atom (O, N, or S) connected to the carbanionic carbon, provided that the heteroatom bears a positive charge in at least one important canonical form,[108] for example

5. *Stabilization by an Aromatic Ring.* Certain carbanions are stable because they are aromatic (see the cyclopentadienyl anion p. 52, and other aromatic anions in Chapter 2).

6. *Stabilization by a Nonadjacent n Bond.*[109] In contrast to the situation with carbocations (see pp. 408–411), there have been fewer reports of carbanions stabilized by interaction with a nonadjacent *n* bond. One that may be mentioned is 13, formed when optically active camphenilone (11) was treated with a strong base (potassium terr-butoxide).[110] That 13 was truly formed was shown by the following facts: (1) A proton was abstracted: ordinary



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20

CH_2 groups are not acidic enough for this base; (2) recovered 18 was racemized: 20 is symmetrical and can be attacked equally well from either side; (3) when the experiment was performed in deuterated solvent, the rate of deuterium uptake was equal to the rate of racemization; and (4) recovered 18 contained up to three atoms of deuterium per molecule, though if 19 were the only ion, no more than two could be taken up. Ions of this type, in which a negatively charged carbon is stabilized by a carbonyl group two carbons away, are called *homoenolate ions.*

Overall, functional groups in the a position stabilize carbanions in the following order: NO_2 > RCO > COOR > SO_2 > CN ≈ $CONH_2$ > Hal > H > R.

It is unlikely that free carbanions exist in solution. Like carbocations, they usually exist as either ion pairs or they are solvated.[111] Among experiments that demonstrated this was the treatment of $PhCOCHMe^- M^+$ with ethyl iodide, where M^+ was Li^+, Na^+, or K^+. The half-lives of the reaction were[112] for Li, 31 x 10^{-6}; Na, 0.39 x 10^{-6}; and K, 0.0045 x 10^{-6}, demonstrating that the species involved were not identical. Similar results[113] were obtained with Li, Na, and Cs triphenylmethides ($Ph_3C^- M^+$).[114] Where ion pairs are unimportant, carbanions are solvated. Cram[84] demonstrated solvation of carbanions in many solvents. There may be a difference in the structure of a carbanion depending on whether it is free (e.g., in the gas phase) or in solution. The negative charge may be more localized in solution in order to maximize the electrostatic attraction to the counterion.[115]

The structure of simple unsubstituted carbanions is not known with certainty since they have not been isolated, but it seems likely that the central carbon is sp^3 hybridized, with the unshared pair occupying one apex of the tetrahedron. Carbanions would thus have pyramidal structures similar to those of amines.

R

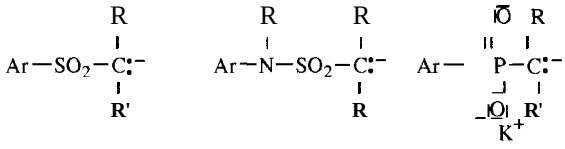
The methyl anion (CH_3^-) has been observed in the gas phase and reported to have a pyramidal structure.[116] If this is a general structure for carbanions, then any

carbanion in which the three R groups are different should be chiral and reactions in which it is an intermediate should give retention of configuration. Attempts have been made to demonstrate this but without success.[117] A possible explanation is that pyramidal inversion takes place here, as in amines, so that the unshared pair and the central carbon rapidly oscillate from one side of the plane to the other. There is, however, other evidence for the sp^3 nature of the central carbon and for its tetrahedral structure. Carbons at bridgeheads, though extremely reluctant to undergo reactions in which they must be converted to

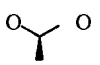
21

carbocations, undergo with ease reactions in which they must be carbanions and stable bridgehead carbanions are known.[118] Also, reactions at vinylic carbons proceed with retention,[119] indicating that the intermediate 21 has sp^2 hybridization and not the *sp* hybridization that would be expected in the analogous carbocation. A cyclopropyl anion can also hold its configuration.[120]

Carbanions in which the negative charge is stabilized by resonance involving overlap of the unshared pair orbital with the *n* electrons of a multiple bond are essentially planar, as would be expected by the necessity for planarity in resonance, though unsymmetrical solvation or ion-pairing effects may cause the structure to deviate somewhat from true planarity.[121] Cram showed that where chiral carbanions possessing this type of resonance are generated, retention, inversion, or racemization can result, depending on the solvent (see p. 764). This result is explained by unsymmetrical solvation of planar or near-planar carbanions. However, some carbanions that are stabilized by adjacent sulfur or phosphorus, for example,



are inherently chiral, since retention of configuration is observed where they are generated, even in solvents that cause racemization or inversion with other carbanions.[122] It is known that in THF, PhCH(Li)Me behaves as a prochiral entity,[123] and 22 has been prepared as an optically pure α-alkoxylithium reagent.[124] Cyclohexyllithium 23 shows some configurationally stability, and it is known that isomerization is slowed by an increase in the strength of lithium coordination and by an increase in solvent polarity.[125] It is known that a vinyl anion is configurationally stable whereas a vinyl radical is not. This is due to the instability of the radical anion that must be an intermediate for conversion of one isomer of vinyllithium to the other.[126] The configuration about the carbanionic carbon, at least for some of the α-sulfonyl carbanions, seems to be planar,[127] and the inherent chirality is caused by lack of rotation about the C–S bond.[128]



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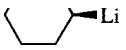


23

The Structure of Organometallic Compounds[129]

Whether a carbon-metal bond is ionic or polar–covalent is determined chiefly by the electronegativity of the metal and the structure of the organic part of the molecule. Ionic bonds become more likely as the negative charge on the metal-bearing carbon is decreased by resonance or field effects. Thus the sodium salt of acetoacetic ester has a more ionic carbon–sodium bond than methylsodium.

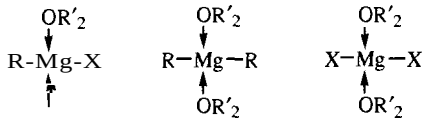
Most organometallic bonds are polar-covalent. Only the alkali metals have electronegativities low enough to form ionic bonds with carbon, and even here the behavior of lithium alkyls shows considerable covalent character. The simple alkyls and aryls of sodium, potassium, rubidium, and cesium[130] are nonvolatile solids[131] insoluble in benzene or other organic solvents, while alkyllithium reagents are soluble, although they too are generally nonvolatile solids. Alkyllithium reagents do not exist as monomeric species in hydrocarbon solvents or ether.[132] In benzene and cyclohexane, freezing-point-depression studies have shown that alkyllithium reagents are normally hexameric unless steric interactions favor tetrameric aggregates.[133] The NMR studies, especially measurements of $^{13}C-^{6}Li$ coupling, have also shown aggregation in hydrocarbon solvents.[134] Boiling-point-elevation studies have been performed in ether solutions, where alkyllithium reagents exist in two- to fivefold aggregates.[135] Even in the gas phase[136] and in the solid state,[137] alkyllithium reagents exist as aggregates. X-ray crystallography has shown that methyllithium has the same tetrahedral structure in the solid state as in ether solution.[137] However, *tert*-butyllithium is monomeric in THF, though dimeric in ether and tetrameric in hydrocarbon solvents.[138] Neopentyllithium exists as a mixture of monomers and dimers in THF.[139]

The C–Mg bond in Grignard reagents is covalent and not ionic. The actual structure of Grignard reagents in solution has been a matter of much controversy over the years.[140] In 1929 it was discovered[141] that the addition of dioxane to an ethereal Grignard solution precipitates all the magnesium halide and leaves a solution of R_2Mg in ether; that is, there can be no RMgX in the solution since there is no halide. The following equilibrium, now called the *Schlenk equilibrium*, was proposed as the composition of the Grignard solution:

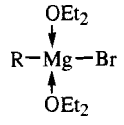
$$2\ RMgX \rightleftharpoons R_2Mg + MgX_2 \rightleftharpoons \underset{24}{R_2Mg \cdot MgX_2}$$

in which 24 is a complex of some type. Much work has demonstrated that the Schlenk equilibrium actually exists and that the position of the equilibrium is dependent on the identity of R, X, the solvent, the concentration, and the temperature.[142] It has been known for many years that the magnesium in a Grignard

solution, no matter whether it is RMgX, R_2Mg, or MgX_2, can coordinate with two molecules of ether in addition to the two covalent bonds:



Rundle and co-worker[143] performed x-ray diffraction studies on solid phenylmagnesium bromide diethetate and on ethylmagnesium bromide diethetate, which they obtained by cooling ordinary ethereal Grignard solutions until the solids crystallized. They found that the structures were monomeric:



R = ethyl, phenyl

These solids still contained ether. When ordinary ethereal Grignard solutions prepared from bromomethane, chloromethane, bromoethane, and chloroethane were evaporated at $\sim 100°C$ under vacuum so that the solid remaining contained no ether, X-ray diffraction showed *no* RMgX but a mixture of R_2Mg and MgX_2.[144] These results indicate that in the presence of ether $RMgX \cdot 2Et_2O$ is the preferred structure, while the loss of ether drives the Schlenk equilibrium to $R_2Mg + MgX_2$. However, conclusions drawn from a study of the solid materials do not necessarily apply to the structures in solution.

Boiling-point elevation and freezing-point depression measurements have demonstrated that at all concentrations in THF and at low concentrations in ether (up to $\sim 0.1\,M$) Grignard reagents prepared from alkyl bromides and iodides are monomeric, that is, there are few or no molecules with two magnesium atoms.[145] Thus, part of the Schlenk equilibrium is operating

$$2\,RMgX \rightleftharpoons R_2Mg + MgX_2$$

but not the other part; that is, 24 is not present in measurable amounts. This was substantiated by ^{25}Mg NMR spectra of the ethyl Grignard reagent in THF, which showed the presence of three peaks, corresponding to EtMgBr, Et_2Mg, and $MgBr_2$.[146] That the equilibrium between RMgX and R_2Mg lies far to the left for "ethylmagnesium bromide" in ether was shown by Smith and Becker, who mixed $0.1\,M$ ethereal solutions of Et_2Mg and $MgBr_2$ and found that a reaction occurred with a heat evolution of 3.6 kcal mol^{-1} (15 kJ mol^{-1}) of Et_2Mg, and that the product was *monomeric* (by boiling point elevation measurements).[147] When either solution was added little by little to the other, there was a linear output of heat until almost a 1:1 molar ratio was reached. Addition of an excess of either reagent gave no further heat output. These results show that at least under some conditions the Grignard reagent is largely RMgX (coordinated with solvent) but that the equilibrium can be driven to R_2Mg by evaporation of all the ether or by addition of dioxane.

For some aryl Grignard reagents, it has proved possible to distinguish separate NMR chemical shifts for ArMgX and Ar_2Mg.[148] From the area under the peaks it is possible to calculate the concentrations of the two species, and from them, equilibrium constants for the Schlenk equilibrium. These data show[148] that the position of the equilibrium depends very markedly on the aryl group and the solvent but that conventional aryl Grignard reagents in ether are largely ArMgX, while in THF the predominance of ArMgX is less, and with some aryl groups there is actually more Ar_2Mg present. Separate NMR chemical shifts have also been found for alkyl RMgBr and R_2Mg in hexamethylphosphoramide (HMPA)[149] and in ether at low temperatures.[150] When Grignard reagents from alkyl bromides or chlorides are prepared in triethylamine (Et_3N) the predominant species is RMgX.[151] Thus the most important factor determining the position of the Schlenk equilibrium is the solvent. For primary alkyl groups, the equilibrium constant for the reaction as written above is lowest in Et_3N, higher in ether, and still higher in THF.[152]

However, Grignard reagents prepared from alkyl bromides or iodides in ether at higher concentrations (0.5-1 *M)* contain dimers, trimers, and higher polymers, and those prepared from alkyl chlorides in ether at all concentrations are dimeric,[153] so that 24 is in solution, probably in equilibrium with RMgX and R_2Mg; that is, the complete Schlenk equilibrium seems to be present.

The Grignard reagent prepared from l-chloro-3,3-dimethylpentane in ether undergoes rapid inversion of configuration at the magnesium-containing carbon (demonstrated by NMR; this compound is not chiral).[154] The mechanism of this inversion is not completely known. Therefore, in almost all cases, it is not possible to retain the configuration of a chiral carbon while forming a Grignard reagent.

Organolithium reagents (RLi) are tremendously important reagents in organic chemistry. In recent years a great deal has been learned about their structure in both the solid state and in solution. X-ray analysis of complexes of *n*-butyllithium with *N,N,N′,N′*-tetramethylethylenediamine (TMEDA), THF, and 1,2-dimethoxyethane (DME) shows them to be dimers and tetramers [e.g., $(BuLi \cdot dme)_4$].[155] X-ray analysis of isopropyllithium shows it to be a hexamer, $(i\text{-}PrLi)_6$],[156] and unsolvated lithium aryls are tetramers.[157] α-Ethoxyvinyllithium, $CH_2{=}C(OEt)Li$, shows a polymeric structure with tetrameric subunits.[158]

The dimeric, tetrameric, and hexameric structures of organolithium reagents in the solid state are often retained in solution, but this is dependent on the solvent and complexing additives, if any. Phenyllithium is a mixture of tetramers and dimers in diethyl ether, but stoichiometric addition of THF, DME, or TMEDA leads to the dimer.[159] Vinyllithium is an 8.1 mixture of tetramer/dimer in THF at − 90°C, but addition of TMEDA changes the ratio of tetramer/dimer to 1:13 at -80°C.[160]

Enolate anions are an important class of carbanions that appear in a variety of important reactions, including alkylation α to a carbonyl group and the aldol **(16-38)** and Claisen condensation **(10-118)** reactions. Metal enolate anions of aldehydes, ketones, esters, and other acid derivatives exist as aggregates in ether solvents,[161] and there is evidence that the lithium enolate of isobutyrophenone is a tetramer in THF[162] but a dimer in DME.[163] X-ray crystallography of ketone enolate anions have shown that they can exist as tetramers and hexamers.[164] There is also evidence that

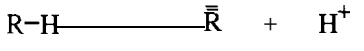
the aggregate structure is preserved in solution and is probably the actual reactive species. Lithium enolates derived from esters are as dimers in the solid state[165] that contain four THF molecules. It has also been established that the reactivity of enolate anions in alkylation and condensation reactions is influenced by the aggregate state of the enolate. It is also true that the relative proportions of (*E*) and (Z) enolate anions are influenced by the extent of solvation and the aggregation state. Addition of LiBr to a lithium enolate anion in THF suppresses the concentration of monomeric enolate.[166] *Ab initio* studies confirm the aggregate state of acetaldehyde.[167] It is also known that α-lithium benzonitrile, PhCH(Li)CN, exists as a dimer in ether and with TMEDA.[168] Mixed aggregates of *tert*-butyllithium and lithium *tert*-butoxide are known to be hexameric.[169]

It might be mentioned that matters are much simpler for organometallic compounds with less-polar bonds. Thus Et_2Hg and EtHgCl are both definite compounds, the former is a liquid and the latter is a solid. Organocalcium reagents are also known, and they are formed from alkyl halides via a single electron transfer (SET) mechanism with free-radical intermediates.[170]

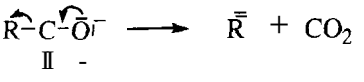
The Generation and Fate of Carbanions

The two principal ways in which carbanions are generated are parallel with the ways of generating carbocations.

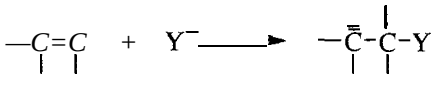
1. A group attached to a carbon leaves without its electron pair:



The leaving group is most often a proton. This is a simple acid-base reaction, and a base is required to remove the proton.[171] However, other leaving groups are known (see Chapter 12):

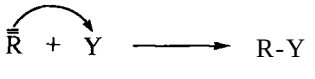


2. A negative ion adds to a carbon-carbon double or triple bond (see Chapter 15):

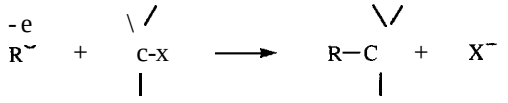


The addition of a negative ion to a carbon-oxygen double bond does not give a carbanion, since the negative charge resides on the oxygen.

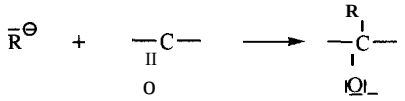
The most common reaction of carbanions is combination with a positive species, usually a proton, or with another species that has an empty orbital in its outer shell (a Lewis acid-base reaction):



Carbanions may also form a bond with a carbon that already has four bonds, by displacing one of the four groups (S_N2 reaction, see Chapter 10):



Like carbocations, carbanions can also react in ways in which they are converted to species that are still not neutral molecules. They can add to double bonds (usually C=O double bonds; see Chapters 10 and 16),



or rearrange, though this is rare (see Chapter 18),

$$Ph_3C\bar{C}H_2^{\ominus} \longrightarrow Ph_2^{\ominus}\bar{C}CH_2Ph$$

or be oxidized to free radicals.[172] A system in which a carbocation [Ph(p-$Me_2NC_6H_4)_2C^+$] oxidizes a carbanion [(p-$NO_2C_6H_4)_3C^-$] to give two free radicals, reversibly, so that all four species are present in equilibrium, has been demonstrated.[173]

Organometallic compounds that are not ionic but polar–covalent behave very much as if they were ionic and give similar reactions.

FREE RADICALS

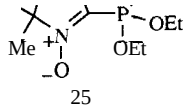
Stability and Structure[174]

A *free radical* (often simply called a *radical)* may be defined as a species that contains one or more unpaired electrons. Note that this definition includes certain stable inorganic molecules such as NO and NO_2, as well as many individual atoms, such as Na and Cl. As with carbocations and carbanions, simple alkyl radicals are very reactive. Their lifetimes are extremely short in solution, but they can be kept for relatively long periods frozen within the crystal lattices of other molecules.[175] Many spectral[176] measurements have been made on radicals trapped in this manner. Even under these conditions, the methyl radical decomposes with a half-life of 10–15 min in a methanol lattice at 77 K.[177] Since the lifetime of a radical depends not only on its inherent stability, but also on the conditions under which it is generated, the terms *persistent* and *stable* are usually used for the different senses. A stable radical is inherently stable; a persistent radical has a relatively long lifetime under the conditions at which it is generated, though it may not be very stable.

Associated with the spin of an electron is a magnetic moment, which can be expressed by a quantum number of $+\frac{1}{2}$ or $-\frac{1}{2}$. According to the Pauli principle, any two electrons occupying the same orbital must have opposite spins, so the total magnetic moment is zero for any species in which all the electrons are paired. In

radicals, however, one or more electrons are unpaired, so there is a net magnetic moment and the species is paramagnetic. Radicals can therefore be detected by magnetic susceptibility measurements, but for this technique a relatively high concentration of radicals is required. A much more important technique is *electron spin resonance* (ESR), also called *electron paramagnetic resonance* (EPR).[178] The principle of ESR is similar to that of NMR, except that electron spin is involved rather than nuclear spin. The two electron spin states ($m_s = \frac{1}{2}$ and $m_s = -\frac{1}{2}$) are ordinarily of equal energy, but in a magnetic field the energies are different. As in NMR, a strong external field is applied and electrons are caused to flip from the lower state to the higher by the application of an appropriate radio frequency signal. Inasmuch as two electrons paired in one orbital must have opposite spins that cancel, an ESR spectrum arises only from species that have one or more unpaired electrons, that is, free radicals.

Since only free radicals give an ESR spectrum, the method can be used to detect the presence of radicals and to determine their concentration.[179] Furthermore, information concerning the electron distribution (and hence the structure) of free radicals can be obtained from the splitting pattern of the ESR spectrum (ESR peaks are split by nearby protons).[180] Fortunately (for the existence of most free radicals is very short), it is not necessary for a radical to be persistent for an ESR spectrum to be obtained. Electron spin resonance spectra have been observed for radicals with lifetimes considerably < 1 s. Failure to observe an ESR spectrum does not prove that radicals are not involved, since the concentration may be too low for direct observation. In such cases, the *spin trapping* technique can be used.[181] In this technique, a compound is added that is able to combine with very reactive radicals to produce more persistent radicals; the new radicals can be observed by ESR. Azulenyl nitrones have been developed as chromotropic spin trapping agents.[182] The most important spin-trapping compounds are nitroso compounds, which react with radicals to give fairly stable nitroxide radicals:[183] $RN{=}O + R' \cdot \rightarrow RR'N{-}O\cdot$. An *N*-oxide spin trap has been developed [25, 2(diethylphosphino)-5,5-dimethyl-l-pyrroline-*N*-oxide], and upon trapping a reactive free radical, ^{31}P NMR can be used to identify it.[184] This technique is effective, and short-lived species such as the oxiranylmethyl radical has been detected by spin trapping.[185] Other molecules have been used to probe the intermediacy of radicals via SET processes. They are called SET probes.[186]



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Because there is an equal probability that a given unpaired electron will have a quantum number of $+\frac{1}{2}$ or $-\frac{1}{2}$, radicals cause two lines or groups of lines to appear on an electronic spectrum, and are sometimes referred to as *doublets.*

Another magnetic technique for the detection of free radicals uses an ordinary NMR instrument. It was discovered[187] that if an NMR spectrum is taken during the course of a reaction, certain signals may be enhanced, either in a positive or negative

direction; others may be reduced. When this type of behavior, called *chemically induced dynamic nuclear polarization* (CIDNP)[188], is found in the NMR spectrum of the product of a reaction, it means that *at least a portion of that product was formed via the intermediacy of a free radical.*[189] For example, the question was raised whether radicals were intermediates in the exchange reaction between ethyl iodide and ethyllithium (12-37):

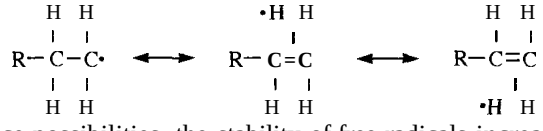
$$\text{EtI} + \text{EtLi} \rightleftharpoons \text{EtLi} + \text{EtI}$$

Figure 5.1*a*[190] shows an NMR spectrum taken during the course of the reaction. Figure 5.1*b* is a reference spectrum of ethyl iodide (CH_3 protons at $\delta = 1.85$; CH_2 protons at $\delta = 3.2$). Note that in *a* some of the ethyl iodide signals are enhanced; others go below the base line *(negative enhancement;* also called *emission).* Thus the ethyl iodide formed in the exchange shows CIDNP, and hence was formed via a free-radical intermediate. The CIDNP results when protons in a reacting molecule become dynamically coupled to an unpaired electron while traversing the path from reactants to products. Although the presence of CIDNP almost always means that a free radical is involved,[191] its absence does not prove that a free-radical intermediate

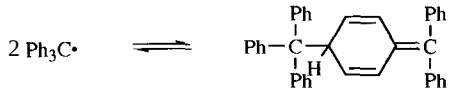
FIGURE 5.1 (a) The NMR spectrum taken during reaction between EtI and EtLi in benzene (the region between 0.5 and 3.5 δ was scanned with an amplitude twice that of the remainder of the spectrum). The signals at 1.0–1.6 δ are due to butane, some of which is also formed in the reaction. *(b)* Reference spectrum of EtI.

is necessarily absent, since reactions involving free-radical intermediates can also take place without observable CIDNP. Also, the presence of CIDNP does not prove that *all* of a product was formed via a free-radical intermediate, only that some of it was.

As with carbocations, the stability order of free radicals is tertiary > secondary > primary, explainable by hyperconjugation, analogous to that in carbocations (p. 219):

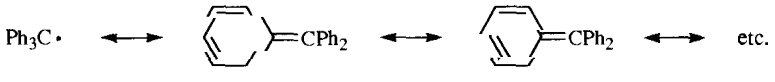


With resonance possibilities, the stability of free radicals increases;[192] some can be kept indefinitely.[193] Benzylic and allylic[194] radicals for which canonical forms can be drawn similar to those shown for the

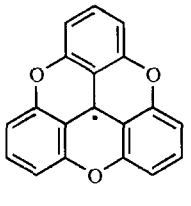


26

corresponding cations (pp. 221, 222) and anions (p. 229) are more stable than simple alkyl radicals but still have only a transient existence under ordinary conditions. However, the triphenylmethyl and similar radicals[195] are stable enough to exist in solution at room temperature, though in equilibrium with a dimeric form. The concentration of triphenylmethyl radical in benzene solution is ~2% at room temperature. For many years, it was assumed that $Ph_3C\cdot$, the first stable free radical known,[196] dimerized to hexaphenylethane ($Ph_3C{-}CPh_3$),[197] but UV and NMR investigations have shown that the true structure is **26**.[198] Although triphenylmethyl-type radicals are stabilized by resonance:



it is steric hindrance to dimerization and not resonance that is the major cause of their stability.[199] This was demonstrated by the preparation of the radicals 27 and **28**.[200] These radicals are electronically very similar, but 27, being planar, has much less steric hindrance to dimerization than $Ph_3C\cdot$, while 28, with six groups in ortho positions, has much more. On the other hand, the planarity of 27 means that it has a maximum amount of



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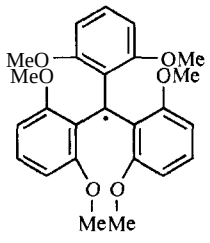
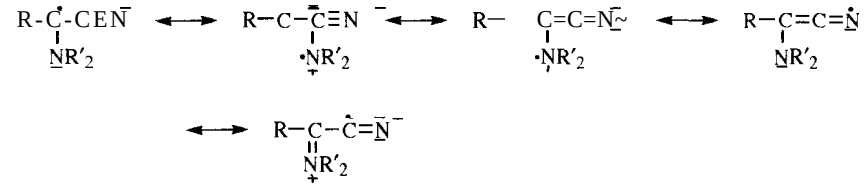


28

resonance stabilization, while 28 must have much less, since its degree of planarity should be even less than $Ph_3C\cdot$, which itself is propeller shaped and not planar. Thus if resonance is the chief cause of the stability of $Ph_3C\cdot$, 28 should dimerize and 27 should not, but if steric hindrance is the major cause, the reverse should happen. However, it was found[200] that 28 gave no evidence of dimerization, even in the solid state, while 27 existed primarily in the dimeric form, which is dissociated to only a small extent in solution,[201] indicating that steric hindrance to dimerization is the major cause for the stability of triarylmethyl radicals. A similar conclusion was reached in the case of $(NC)_3C\cdot$, which dimerizes readily though considerably stabilized by resonance.[202] Nevertheless, that resonance is still an important contributing factor to the stability of radicals is shown by the facts that (1) the radical *t*-$Bu(Ph)_2C\cdot$ dimerizes more than $Ph_3C\cdot$, while *p*-$PhCOC_6H_4(Ph_2)C\cdot$ dimerizes less.[203] The latter has more canonical forms than $Ph_3C\cdot$, but steric hindrance should be about the same (for attack at one of the two rings). (2) A number of radicals $(p\text{-}XC_6H_4)_3C\cdot$, with X = F, Cl, O_2N, CN, and so on, do not dimerize, but are kinetically stable.[204] Completely chlorinated triarylmethyl radicals are more stable than the unsubstituted kind, probably for steric reasons, and many are quite inert in solution and in the solid state.[205]

Allylic radical are relatively stable, and the pentadienyl radical is particularly stable. In such molecules, (*E*),(*E*), (*E*),(*Z*), and (*Z*),(*Z*) stereoisomers can form. It has been calculated that (Z),(Z)-pentadienyl radical is 5.6 kcal mol^{-1} less stable than the (*E*),(*E*)-pentadienyl radical.[206] It is noted that vinyl radical have (*E*) and (Z) forms and the inversion barrier from one to the other increases as the electronegativity of substituents increase.[207] Enolate radicals are also known.[208]

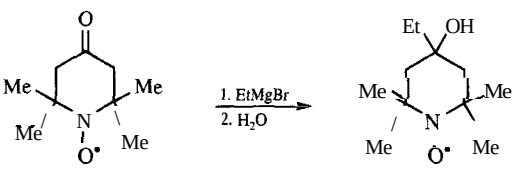
It has been postulated that the stability of free radicals is enhanced by the presence at the radical center of *both* an electron-donating and an electron-withdrawing group.[209] This is called the *push-pull* or *captodative effect* (see also pp. 159). The effect arises from increased resonance, for example:



There is some evidence in favor[210] of the captodative effect, some of it is from ESR studies.[211] However, there is also experimental[212] and theoretical[213] evidence against it. There is evidence that while $FCH_2\cdot$ and $F_2CH\cdot$ are more stable than $CH_3\cdot$, the radical $CF_3\cdot$ is less stable; that is, the presence of the third F destabilizes the radical.[214]

Certain radicals with the unpaired electron not on a carbon are also very stable.[215] Diphenylpicrylhydrazyl is a solid that can be kept for years. We have already mentioned nitroxide radicals. Compound 29 is a nitroxide radical so stable that reactions can be performed on it without affecting the unpaired electron[216] (the same is true for some of the chlorinated triarylmethyl radicals mentioned above[217]). α-Trichloromethylbenzyl(*tert*-butyl)aminoxyl (30) is extremely stable.[218] In

aqueous media, it is stable for > 30 days, and in solution in an aromatic hydrocarbon solvent it has survived for > 90 days.[218] Although these stable nitroxide radicals have the a carbon blocked to prevent radical formation there, stable nitroxide radicals are also known with hydrogen at the a carbon.[219]



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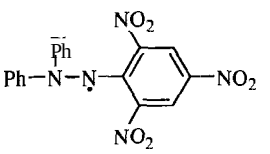
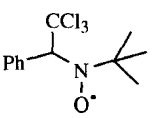


Diphenylpicrylhydrazyl



30

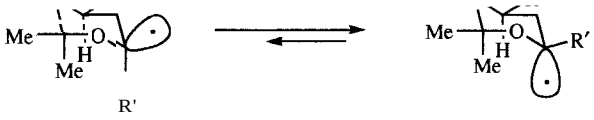
Dissociation energies *(D* values) of R–H bonds provide a measure of the relative inherent stability of free radicals R.[220] Table 5.4[221] lists such values. The higher the *D* value, the less stable the radical. Bond dissociation energies have also been reported for the C–H bond of alkenes and dienes[222] and for the C–H bond in radical precursors XYC–H, where X,Y can be H, alkyl, COOR, COR, SR, CN, NO_2, and so on.[223]

TABLE 5.4 The D_{298} Values for Some R-H Bonds[a]

	D	
R	kcal mol^{-1}	kJ mol^{-1}
Ph•	111	464
CF_3•	107	446
CH_2=CH•	106	444
Cyclopropyl[c]	106	444
Me-	105	438
Et-	100	419
Me_3CCH_2•	100	418
Pr•	100	417
Cl_3C•	96	401
Me_2CH•	96	401
Me_3C•[d]	95.8	401
Cyclohexyl	95.5	400
$PhCH_2$•	88	368
HCO•	87	364
CH_2=CH–CH_2•	86	361

[a]Free-radical stability is in the reverse order.
[b]See Ref. 224.
[c]See Ref. 225.

There are two possible structures for simple alkyl radicals.[226] They might have sp^2 bonding, in which case the structure would be planar, with the odd electron in *ap* orbital, or the bonding might be sp^3, which would make the structure pyramidal and place the odd electron in an sp^3 orbital. The ESR spectra of $\cdot CH_3$ and other simple alkyl radicals as well as other evidence indicate that these radicals have planar structures.[227] This is in accord with the known loss of optical activity when a free radical is generated at a chiral carbon.[228] In addition, electronic spectra of the CH_3 and CD3 radicals (generated by flash photolysis) in the gas phase have definitely established that under these conditions the radicals are planar or near planar.[229] The IR spectra of $\cdot CH_3$ trapped in solid argon led to a similar conclusion.[230]



31a 31b

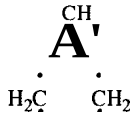
Despite the usual loss of optical activity noted above, asymmetric radicals can be prepared in some cases. For example, asymmetric nitroxide radicals are known.[231] An anomeric effect was observed in alkoxy radical (31), where the ratio of **31a/31b** was 1:1.78.[232]

Evidence from studies on bridgehead compounds shows that though a planar configuration is more stable, pyramidal structures are not impossible. In contrast to the situation with carbocations, free radicals have often been generated at bridgeheads, although studies have shown that bridgehead free radicals are less rapidly formed than the corresponding open-chain radicals.[233] Thus, the available evidence indicates that though simple alkyl free radicals prefer a planar, or near-planar shape, the energy difference between a planar and a pyramidal free radical is not great. However, free radicals in which the carbon is connected to atoms of high electronegativity (e.g., $\cdot CF_3$), prefer a pyramidal shape;[234] increasing the electronegativity increases the deviation from planarity.[235] Cyclopropyl radicals are also pyramidal.[236]

Free radicals with resonance are definitely planar, though triphenylmethyl-type radicals are propeller shaped,[237] like the analogous carbocations (p. 225).

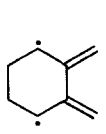
Since simply alkyl radicals possess groups attach to the radical carbon (C•) that have C^{sp^3}—C^{sp^3} bonds, rotation about those bonds is possible. The internal rotation barrier for the *tert*-butylradical ($Me_3C\cdot$), for example, was estimated to be ~ 1.4 kcal mol^{-1} (6 kJ mol^{-1}).[238]

A number of diradicals (also called biradicals) are known.[239] When the unpaired electrons of a diradical are widely separated (e.g., as in $\cdot CH_2CH_2CH_2CH_2\cdot$), the species behaves spectrally like two doublets. When they are close enough for interaction or can interact through an unsaturated system (as in trimethylenemethane,[240] they



Trimethylenemethane

can have total spin numbers of $+1, 0$, or -1, since each electron could be either $+\frac{1}{2}$ or $-\frac{1}{2}$. Spectroscopically, they are called *triplets*,[241] since each of the three possibilities is represented among the molecules and gives rise to its own spectral peak. In triplet molecules, the two unpaired electrons have the same spin. Not all diradicals have a triplet ground state. In 2,3-dimethylelecycohexane-l,4-diyl (32), the singlet and triplet states were found to be almost degenerate.[242] Some diradicals such as 33 are very stable with a triplet ground state.[243] Diradicals are short-lived species. The lifetime of 34 was measured to be < 0.1 ns and other diradicals were found to have lifetimes in the 4–316-ns range.[244] Radicals with both unpaired electrons on the same carbon are discussed under carbenes.



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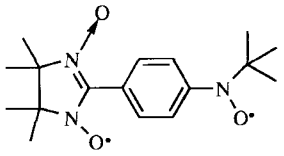

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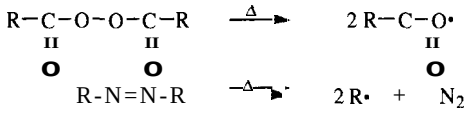
34

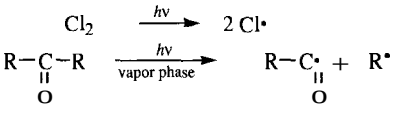
The Generation and Fate of Free Radicals[243]

Free radicals are formed from molecules by breaking a bond so that each fragment keeps one electron.[246,247] The energy necessary to break the bond is supplied in one of two ways.

1. *Thermal Cleavage.* Subjection of any organic molecule to a high enough temperature in the gas phase results in the formation of free radicals. When the molecule contains bonds with *D* values of 20–40 kcal mol^{-1} (80–170 kJ mol^{-1}), cleavage can be caused in the liquid phase. Two common examples are cleavage of diacyl peroxides[248] and of azo compounds;[249]

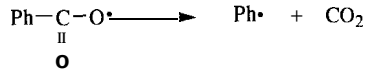


2. *Photochemical Cleavage* (see p. XXX). The energy of light of 600–300 nm is 48-96 kcal mol^{-1} (200–400 kJ mol^{-1}), which is of the order of magnitude of covalent-bond energies. Typical examples are photochemical cleavage of alkyl halides in the presence of triethylamine,[250] alcohols in the presence of mercuric oxide and iodine,[251] alkyl 4-nitrobenzenesulfenates,[252] chlorine and of ketones:



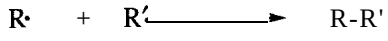
The photochemistry of radicals and biradicals has been reviewed.[253]

Radicals are also formed from other radicals, either by the reaction between a radical and a molecule, which *must* give another radical, since the total number of electrons is odd, or by cleavage of a radical to give another radical, for example,

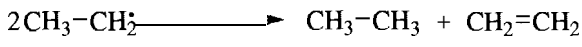


Radicals can also be formed by oxidation or reduction, including electrolytic methods.

Reactions of free radicals either give stable products (termination reactions) or lead to other radicals, which themselves must usually react further (propagation reactions). The most common termination reactions are simple combinations of similar or different radicals:

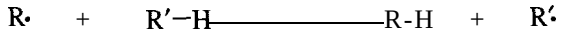


Another termination process is disproportionation:[254]

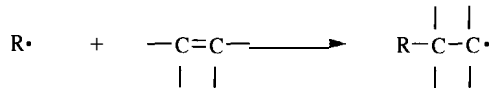


There are four principal propagation reactions, of which the first two are most common:

1. *Abstraction of Another Atom or Group, Usually a Hydrogen Atom* (see Chapter 14):



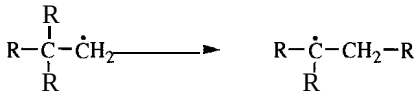
2. *Addition to a Multiple Bond* (see Chapter 15):



   The radical formed here may add to another double bond, and so on. This is one of the chief mechanisms for vinyl polymerization.

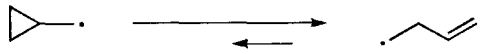
3. *Decomposition.* This can be illustrated by the decomposition of the benzoxy radical (above).

4. *Rearrangement:*



   This is less common than rearrangement of carbocations, but it does occur (though not when R = alkyl or hydrogen; see Chapter 18). Perhaps the best-known rearrangement is that of cyclopropylcarbinyl radicals to a butenyl radical. The rate constant for this rapid ring opening has been measured in

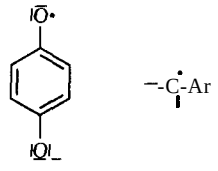
certain functionalized cyclopropylcarbinyl radicals by picosecond radical kinetics.[255]



Besides these reactions, free radicals can be oxidized to carbocations or reduced to carbanions.[256]

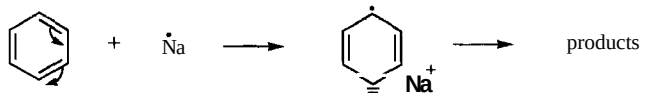
Radical Ions[257]

Several types of radical anions are known with the unpaired electron or the charge or both on atoms other than

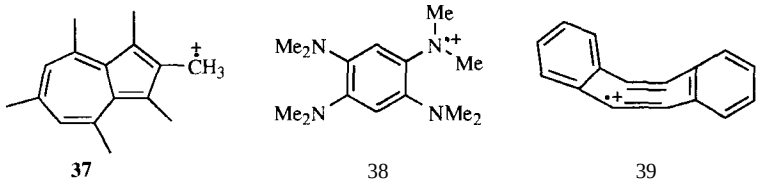


35 36

carbon. Important examples are semiquinones (35)[258] and ketyls (36)[259]. Reactions in which alkali metals are reducing agents often involve radical anion intermediates (e.g., Reaction 15-14):



Several types of radical cation are also known.[260] Typical examples include alkyl azulene cation radicals (**37**),[261] 1,2-bis(dialkylamino)benzenes (**38**),[262] dimethylsulfonium cation radicals ($Me_2S^{+\cdot}$),[263] N-alkyl substituted imine cation radicals ($Ph_2C{=}NEt^{\cdot+}$),[264] dibenzo[*a,e*]cyclooctene (39, a nonplanar cation radical),[265] and [*n.n*]paracyclophane cation radicals.[266]



37 38 39

CARBENES

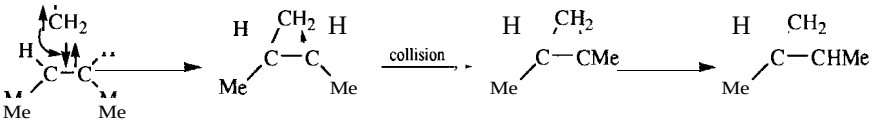
Stability and Structure[267]

Carbenes are highly reactive species, practically all having lifetimes considerably under 1 s. With exceptions noted below (p. 251), carbenes have been isolated only by

entrapment in matrices at low temperatures (77 K or less).[268] The parent species CH_2 is usually called *methylene*, though derivatives are more often named by the carbene nomenclature. Thus CCl_2 is generally known as dichlorocarbene, though it can also be called dichloromethylene.

The two nonbonded electrons of a carbene can be either paired or unpaired. If they are paired, the species is spectrally a *singlet*, while, as we have seen (p. 245), two unpaired electrons appear as a *triplet.* An ingenious

method of distinguishing between the two possibilities was developed by Skell and Woodworth,[269] based on the common reaction of addition of carbenes to double bonds to form cyclopropane derivatives **(15-50).** If the singlet species adds to *cis-2*-butene, the resulting cyclopropane should be the cis isomer since the movements of the two pairs of



electrons should occur either simultaneously or with one rapidly succeeding another. However, if the attack is by a triplet species, the two unpaired electrons cannot both go into a new covalent bond, since by Hund's rule they have parallel spins. So, one of the unpaired electrons will form a bond with the electron from the double bond that has the opposite spin, leaving two unpaired electrons that have the same spin, and therefore cannot form a bond at once but must wait until, by some collision process, one of the electrons can reverse its spin. During this time, there is free rotation about the C—C bond and a mixture of *cis-* and *trans*-1,2-dimethylcyclopropanes should result.[270]

The results of this type of experiment show that CH_2 itself is usually formed as a singlet species, that can decay to the triplet state, which consequently has a lower energy (MO calculations[271] and experimental determinations show that the difference in energy between singlet and triplet CH_2 is $\sim 8-10$ kcal mol^{-1} or 33–42 kJ mol^{-1}).[272] However, it is possible to prepare triplet CH_2 directly by a photosensitized decomposition of diazomethane.[273] Methylene (CH_2) is so reactive[274] that it generally reacts as the singlet before it has a chance to decay to the triplet state.[275] As to other carbenes, some react as triplets, some as singlets, and others as singlets or triplets, depending on how they are generated. There are, however, molecules that generate persistent triplet carbenes.[276]

There is a limitation to the use of stereospecificity of addition as a diagnostic test for singlet or triplet carbenes.[277] When carbenes are generated by photolytic methods, they are often in a highly excited singlet state. When they add to the double bond, the addition is stereospecific; but the cyclopropane formed carries excess

energy; that is, it is in an excited state. It has been shown that under certain conditions (low pressures in the gas phase) the excited cyclopropane may undergo cis-trans isomerization *after* it is formed, so that triplet carbene may seem to be involved although in reality the singlet was present.[278]

The most common carbenes are $:CH_2$ and $:CCl_2$,[279] but many others have been reported,[280] including 40 (stabilized by the steric constraints of the ring geometry),[281] pyridyl-halo carbene (41),[282] alkylidene carbenes such as 42,[283] cyclopropylmethyl carbene (43),[284] and chiral carbenoids have been prepared.[285]

40 41 42 43

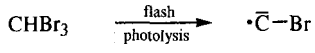
Studies of the IR spectrum of CCl_2 trapped at low temperatures in solid argon indicate that the ground state for this species is the singlet.[286]

136° 103°

Triplet methylene Singlet methylene

The geometrical structure of triplet methylene can be investigated by ESR measurements,[287] since triplet species are diradicals. Such measurements made on triplet CH_2 trapped in matrices at very low temperatures (4 K) show that triplet CH_2 is a bent molecule, with an angle of ~136°.[288] The EPR measurements cannot be made on singlet species, but from electronic spectra of CH_2 formed in flash photolysis of diazomethane it was concluded that singlet CH_2 is also bent, with an angle of ~103°.[289] Singlet CCl_2[286] and CBr_2[290] are also bent, with angles of 100° and 114°, respectively. It has long been known that triplet aryl carbenes are bent.[291]

Flash photolysis of $CHBr_3$ produced the intermediate CBr.[292]

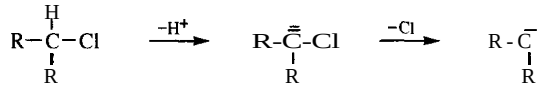


This is a *carbyne*. The intermediates CF and CC1 were generated similarly from $CHFBr_2$ and $CHClBr_2$, respectively.

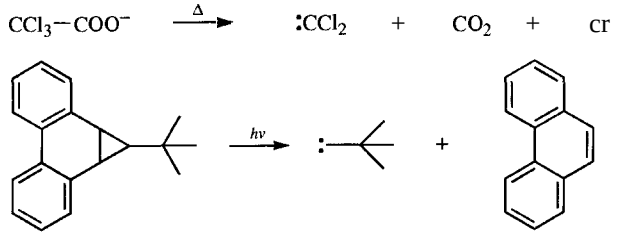
The Generation and Fate of Carbenes[293]

Carbenes are chiefly formed in two ways, though other pathways are also known.

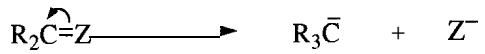
1. In a elimination, a carbon loses a group without its electron pair, usually a proton, and then a group with its pair, usually a halide ion:[294]



The most common example is formation of dichlorocarbene by treatment of chloroform with a base (see Reaction **10-3)** and geminal alkyl dihalides with Me_3Sn^-,[295] but many other examples are known, such as

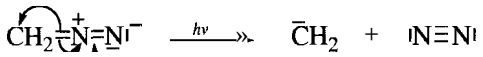


2. Disintegration of compounds containing certain types of double bonds:

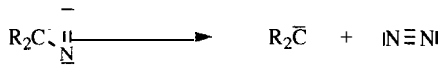


The two most important ways of forming $:CH_2$ are the following examples: the photolysis of ketene

and the isoelectronic decomposition of diazomethane.[298]



Diazirines (isomeric with diazoalkanes) also give carbenes:[299]



Because most carbenes are so reactive, it is often difficult to prove that they are actually present in a given reaction. The lifetime of formylcarbene was measured by transient absorption and transient grating spectroscopy to be 0.15–0.73 ns in dichloromethane.[300] In many instances where a carbene is *apparently* produced by an a elimination or by disintegration of a double-bond compound, there is evidence that no free carbene is actually involved. The neutral term *carbenoid* is used where it is known that a free carbene is not present or in cases where there is doubt. α-Halo organometallic compounds (R_2CXM) are often called carbenoids because they readily give a elimination reactions (e.g., see 12-37).[301]

The reactions of carbenes are more varied than those of the species previously discussed in this chapter.

1. Additions to carbon-carbon double bonds have already been mentioned. Carbenes also add to aromatic systems, but the immediate products rearrange,

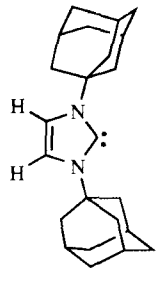
usually with ring enlargement (see **15-62).** Additions of carbenes to other double bonds, such as C=N **(16-61** and **16-62),** and to triple bonds have also been reported.

2. An unusual reaction of carbenes is that of insertion into C–H bonds **(12-19).** Thus $:CH_2$ reacts with

$$CH_3-CH_2-CH_3 \xrightarrow{:CH_2} CH_3-CH_2-CH_2-CH_3 + CH_3-\underset{\displaystyle CH_3}{\overset{\displaystyle |}{CH}}-CH_3$$

methane to give ethane and with propane to give butane and isobutane. Elimination to give an alkene is a competing side reaction in polar solvents, but this is suppressed in nonpolar solvents.[302] Simple alkyl carbenes such as this are not very useful for synthetic purposes but do illustrate the extreme reactivity of carbene. However, carbenoids generated by rhodium catalyzed decomposition of diazoalkanes are very useful (p. 789) and have been used in a variety of syntheses. Treatment in the liquid phase of an alkane such as pentane with carbene formed from the photolysis of diazomethane gives the three possible products in statistical ratios[303] demonstrating that carbene is displaying no selectivity. For many years, it was a generally accepted principle that the lower the selectivity the greater the reactivity; however, this principle is no longer regarded as general because many exceptions have been found.[304] Singlet CH_2 generated by photolysis of diazomethane is probably the most reactive organic species known, but triplet CH_2 is somewhat less reactive, and other carbenes are still less reactive. The following series of carbenes of decreasing reactivity has been proposed on the basis of discrimination between insertion and addition reactions: CH_2 > HCCOOR > PhCH > BrCH ≈ ClCH.[305] Dihalocarbenes generally do not give insertion reactions at all. Insertion of carbenes into other bonds has also been demonstrated, though not insertion into C–C bonds.[306]

Two carbenes that are stable at room temperature have been reported.[307] These are 44 and 45. In the absence of oxygen and moisture, 44 exists as stable crystals with a melting point of 240-241°C.[308] Its structure was proved by X-ray crystallography.



44

$$\left[i\text{-}Pr_2N-\underset{\displaystyle i\text{-}Pr_2N}{\overset{\displaystyle |}{\bar{P}}}-\bar{\bar{C}}-SiMe_3 \longleftrightarrow i\text{-}Pr_2N-\underset{\displaystyle i\text{-}Pr_2N}{\overset{\displaystyle |}{\bar{\bar{P}}}}=\bar{\bar{C}}-SiMe_3 \longleftrightarrow i\text{-}Pr_2N-\underset{\displaystyle i\text{-}Pr_2N}{\overset{\displaystyle |}{P}}\equiv C-SiMe_3 \right]$$

45

3. It would seem that dimerization should be an important reaction of carbenes

$$R_2\bar{C} \quad + \quad R_2\bar{C} \longrightarrow R_2C{=}CR_2$$

but it is not, because the reactivity is so great that the carbene species do not have time to find each other and because the dimer generally has so much energy that it dissociates again. Apparent dimerizations have been observed, but it is likely that the products in many reported instances of "dimerization" do not arise from an actual dimerization of two carbenes but from attack by a carbene on a molecule of carbene precursor, for example,

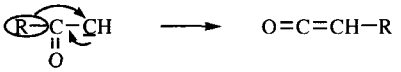
$$R_2\bar{C} \quad + \quad R_2CN_2 \longrightarrow R_2C{=}CR_2 \quad + \quad N_2$$

4. Alkylcarbenes can undergo rearrangement, with migration of alkyl or hydrogen.[309] Indeed these rearrangements are generally so rapid[310] that additions to multiple bonds and insertion reactions, which are so common for CH_2, are seldom encountered with alkyl or dialkyl carbenes. Unlike rearrangement of the species previously encountered in this chapter, most rearrangements of carbenes directly give stable molecules. Some examples are

Ref. 311

Ref. 312

Ref. 313



Ref. 314

The rearrangement of acylcarbenes to ketenes is called the Wolff rearrangement (18-8). A few rearrangements in which carbenes rearrange to other carbenes are also known.[315] Of course, the new carbene must stabilize itself in one of the ways we have mentioned.

5. Triplet carbenes can abstract hydrogen or other atoms to give free radicals, for example,

$$\cdot\dot{C}H_2 \quad + \quad CH_3CH_3 \longrightarrow \cdot CH_3 \quad + \quad \cdot CH_2CH_3$$

This is not surprising, since triplet carbenes are free radicals. But singlet carbenes can also give this reaction, though in this case only halogen atoms are abstracted, not hydrogen.[316]

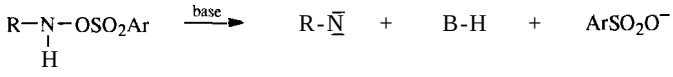
NITRENES

Nitrenes (R—N)[317] are the nitrogen analogs of carbenes, and most of what we have said about carbenes also applies to them. Nitrenes are too reactive for isolation under ordinary conditions,[318] although *ab initio* calculations show that nitrenes are more stable than carbenes with an enthalpy difference of 25–26 kcal mol^{-1}.[319]

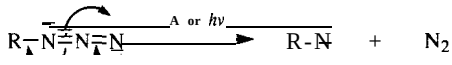
Alkyl nitrenes have been isolated by trapping in matrices at 4 K,[320] while aryl nitrenes, which are less reactive, can be trapped at 77 K.[321] The ground state of NH, and probably of most nitrenes,[322] is a triplet, though nitrenes can be generated in both triplet and singlet states. In additions of EtOOC—N to C=C double bonds two species are involved, one of which adds in a stereospecific manner and the other not. By analogy with Skell's proposal involving carbenes (p. 248) these are taken to be the singlet and triplet species, respectively.[323]

The two principal means of generating nitrenes are analogous to those used to form carbenes.

1. *Elimination.* An example is



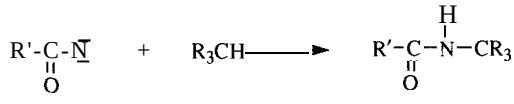
2. *Breakdown of Certain Double-Bond Compounds.* The most common method of forming nitrenes is photolytic or thermal decomposition of azides,[324]



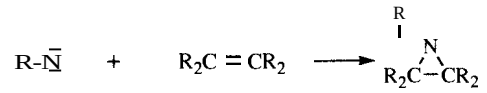
The unsubstituted nitrene NH has been generated by photolysis of or electric discharge through NH_3, N_2H_4, or HN_3.

The reactions of nitrenes are also similar to those of carbenes.[325] As in that case, many reactions in which nitrene intermediates are suspected probably do not involve free nitrenes. It is often very difficult to obtain proof in any given case that a free nitrene is or is not an intermediate.

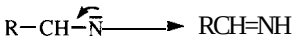
1. *Insertion* (see 12-12). Nitrenes, especially acyl nitrenes and sulfonyl nitrenes, can insert into C—H and certain other bonds, for example,



2. *Addition to* C=C *bonds* (see 15-53):

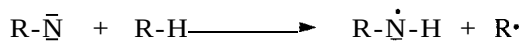


3. *Rearrangements.*[309] Alkyl nitrenes do not generally give either of the two preceding reactions because rearrangement is more rapid, for example,

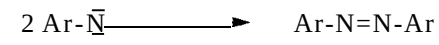


Such rearrangements are so rapid that it is usually difficult to exclude the possibility that a free nitrene was never present at all, that is, that migration takes place at the same time that the nitrene is formed (see p. XXX).[326]

4. *Abstraction,* for example,



5. *Dimerization.* One of the principal reactions of NH is dimerization to diimide (N_2H_2). Azobenzenes are often obtained in reactions where aryl nitrenes are implicated:[327]



It would thus seem that dimerization is more important for nitrenes than it is for carbenes, but again it has not been proved that free nitrenes are actually involved.

46 47

At least two types of *nitrenium ions,* the nitrogen analogs of carbocations, can exist as intermediates, though much less work has been done in this area than on carbocations. In one type (46), the nitrogen is bonded to two atoms and in the other (47) to only one atom.[328] When R = H in 46 the species is a protonated nitrene. Like carbenes and nitrenes, nitrenium ions can exist in singlet or triplet states.[329]

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CHAPTER 6

Mechanisms and Methods of Determining Them

A mechanism is the actual process by which a reaction takes place—which bonds are broken, in what order, how many steps are involved, the relative rate of each step, and so on. In order to state a mechanism completely, we should have to specify the positions of all atoms, including those in solvent molecules, and the energy of the system, at every point in the process. A proposed mechanism must fit all the facts available. It is always subject to change as new facts are discovered. The usual course is that the gross features of a mechanism are the first to be known, and then increasing attention is paid to finer details. The tendency is always to probe more deeply, to get more detailed descriptions.

Although for most reactions gross mechanisms can be written today with a good degree of assurance, no mechanism is known completely. There is much about the fine details that is still puzzling, and for some reactions even the gross mechanism is not yet clear. The problems involved are difficult because there are so many variables. Many examples are known where reactions proceed by different mechanisms under different conditions. In some cases there are several proposed mechanisms, each of which completely explains all the data.

Types of Mechanism

In most reactions of organic compounds one or more covalent bonds are broken. We can divide organic mechanisms into three basic types, depending on how the bonds break.

1. If a bond breaks in such a way that both electrons remain with one fragment, the mechanism is called *heterolytic*. Such reactions do not necessarily involve ionic intermediates, though they usually do. The important thing is that the electrons are never unpaired. For most reactions, it is convenient to call one reactant the *attacking reagent* and the other the *substrate*. In this book, we shall always designate as the substrate that molecule that supplies carbon to the new bond. When carbon-carbon bonds are formed, it is necessary to be arbitrary about which is the substrate and which is the attacking reagent. In heterolytic reactions, the reagent generally brings a pair of electrons to the substrate or takes a pair of electrons from it. A reagent that brings an electron

pair is called a *nucleophile* and the reaction is *nucleophilic*. A reagent that takes an electron pair is called an *electrophile* and the reaction is *electrophilic*. In a reaction in which the substrate molecule becomes cleaved, part of it (the part not containing the carbon) is usually called the *leaving group*. A leaving group that carries away an electron pair is called a *nucleofuge*. If it comes away without the electron pair, it is called an *electrofuge*.

2. If a bond breaks in such a way that each fragment gets one electron, free radicals are formed and such reactions are said to take place by *homolytic* or *free-radical mechanisms*.
3. It would seem that all bonds must break in one of the two ways previously noted. But there is a third type of mechanism in which electrons (usually six, but sometimes some other number) move in a closed ring. There are no intermediates, ions, or free radicals, and it is impossible to say whether the electrons are paired or unpaired. Reactions with this type of mechanism are called *pericyclic*.[1]

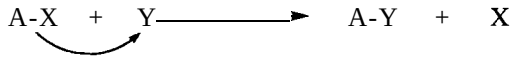
Examples of all three types of mechanisms are given in the next section.

Types of Reaction

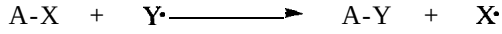
The number and range of organic reactions is so great as to seem bewildering, but actually almost all of them can be fitted into just six categories. In the description of the six types that follows, the immediate products are shown, though in many cases they then react with something else. All the species are shown without charges, since differently charged reactants can undergo analogous changes. The descriptions given here are purely formal and are for the purpose of classification and comparison. All are discussed in detail in Part 2 of this book.

1. *Substitutions*. If heterolytic, these can be classified as nucleophilic or electrophilic depending on which reactant is designated as the substrate and which as the attacking reagent (very often Y must first be formed by a previous bond cleavage).
   1. Nucleophilic substitution (Chapters 10, 13).

   2. Electrophilic substitution (Chapters 11, 12).

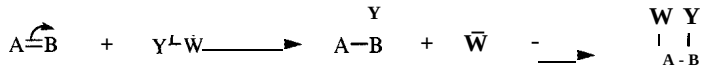


   3. Free-radical substitution (Chapter 14).

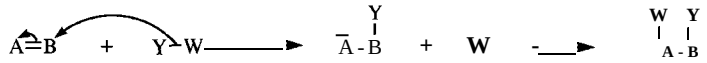


   In free-radical substitution, $\mathbf{Y}\cdot$ is usually produced by a previous free-radical cleavage, and $\mathbf{X}\cdot$ goes on to react further.

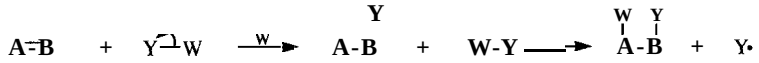
2. *Additions to Double or Triple Bonds* (Chapters 15, 16). These reactions can take place by all three of the mechanistic possibilities.
   1. Electrophilic addition (heterolytic).



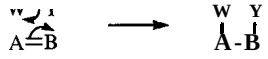
   2. Nucleophilic addition (heterolytic).



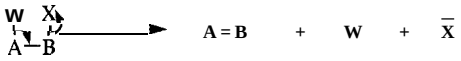
   3. Free-radical addition (homolytic).



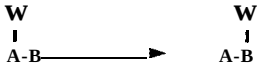
   4. Simultaneous addition (pericyclic).



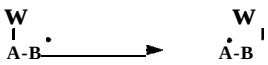
   The examples show Y and W coming from the same molecule, but very often (except in simultaneous addition) they come from different molecules. Also, the examples show the Y—W bond cleaving at the same time that Y is bonding to B, but often (again except for simultaneous addition) this cleavage takes place earlier.
3. (3 *Elimination* (Chapter 17).



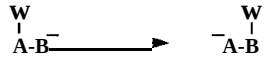
   These reactions can take place by either heterolytic or pericyclic mechanisms. Examples of the latter are shown on page 1322. Free-radical (3 eliminations are extremely rare. In heterolytic eliminations, W and X may or may not leave simultaneously and may or may not combine.
4. *Rearrangement* (Chapter 18). Many rearrangements involve migration of an atom or group from one atom to another. There are three types, depending on how many electrons the migrating atom or group carries with it.
   1. Migration with electron pair (nucleophilic).



   2. Migration with one electron (free radical).



3. Migration without electrons (electrophilic; rare).



The illustrations show 1,2 rearrangements, in which the migrating group moves to the adjacent atom. These are the most common, although longer rearrangements are also possible. There are also some rearrangements that do not involve simple migration at all (see Chapter 18). Some of the latter involve pericyclic mechanisms.

5. *Oxidation and Reduction* (Chapter 19). Many oxidation and reduction reactions fall naturally into one of the four types mentioned above, but many others do not. For a description of oxidation–reduction mechanistic types, see page 1507.
6. *Combinations of the Above.* Note that arrows are used to show movement of *electrons.* An arrow always follows the motion of electrons and never of a nucleus or anything else (it is understood that the rest of the molecule follows the electrons). Ordinary arrows (double-headed) follow electron pairs, while single-headed arrows follow unpaired electrons. Double-headed arrows are also used in pericyclic reactions for convenience, though in these reactions we do not really know how or in which direction the electrons are moving.

Thermodynamic Requirements for Reaction

In order for a reaction to take place spontaneously, the free energy of the products must be lower than the free energy of the reactants; that is, AG must be negative. Reactions can go the other way, of course, but only if free energy is added. Like water on the surface of the earth, which only flows downhill and never uphill (though it can be carried or pumped uphill), molecules seek the lowest possible potential energy. Free energy is made up of two components, enthalpy *H* and entropy *S.* These quantities are related by the equation

$$AG = AH - T\Delta S$$

The enthalpy change in a reaction is essentially the difference in bond energies (including resonance, strain, and solvation energies) between the reactants and the products. The enthalpy change can be calculated by totaling the bond energies of all the bonds broken, subtracting from this the total of the bond energies of all the bonds formed, and adding any changes in resonance, strain, or solvation energies. Entropy changes are quite different, and refer to the disorder or randomness of the system. The less order in a system, the greater the entropy. The preferred conditions in nature are *low* enthalpy and *high* entropy, and in reacting systems, enthalpy spontaneously decreases while entropy spontaneously increases.

For many reactions entropy effects are small and it is the enthalpy that mainly determines whether the reaction can take place spontaneously. However, in certain

types of reaction entropy is important and can dominate enthalpy. We shall discuss several examples.

1. In general, liquids have lower entropies than gases, since the molecules of gas have much more freedom and randomness. Solids, of course, have still lower entropies. Any reaction in which the reactants are all liquids and one or more of the products is a gas is therefore thermodynamically favored by the increased entropy; the equilibrium constant for that reaction will be higher than it would otherwise be. Similarly, the entropy of a gaseous substance is higher than that of the same substance dissolved in a solvent.
2. In a reaction in which the number of product molecules is equal to the number of reactant molecules, (e.g., A + B $\rightarrow$ C + D), entropy effects are usually small, but if the number of molecules is increased (e.g., A $\rightarrow$ B + C), there is a large gain in entropy because more arrangements in space are possible when more molecules are present. Reactions in which a molecule is cleaved into two or more parts are therefore thermodynamically favored by the entropy factor. Conversely, reactions in which the number of product molecules is less than the number of reactant molecules show entropy decreases, and in such cases there must be a sizable decrease in enthalpy to overcome the unfavorable entropy change.
3. Although reactions in which molecules are cleaved into two or more pieces have favorable entropy effects, many potential cleavages do not take place because of large increases in enthalpy. An example is cleavage of ethane into two methyl radicals. In this case, a bond of $\sim 79\ \text{kcal mol}^{-1}$ (330 kJ mol^{-1}) is broken, and no new bond is formed to compensate for this enthalpy increase. However, ethane can be cleaved at very high temperatures, which illustrates the principle that *entropy becomes more important as the temperature increases,* as is obvious from the equation AG = *AH — TAS.* The enthalpy term is independent of temperature, while the entropy term is directly proportional to the absolute temperature.
4. An acyclic molecule has more entropy than a similar cyclic molecule because there are more conformations (cf. hexane and cyclohexane). Ring opening therefore means a gain in entropy and ring closing a loss.

Kinetic Requirements for Reaction

Just because a reaction has a negative AG does not necessarily mean that it will take place in a reasonable period of time. A negative AG is a *necessary* but not a *sufficient* condition for a reaction to occur spontaneously. For example, the reaction between H_2 and O_2 to give H_2O has a large negative AG, but mixtures of H_2 and O_2 can be kept at room temperature for many centuries without reacting to any significant extent. In order for a reaction to take place, *free energy of activation* $\Delta G^{\ddagger}$ must be added.[2] This situation is illustrated in Figure 6.1,[3] which is an energy profile for a one-step reaction without an intermediate. In this type of diagram, the horizontal

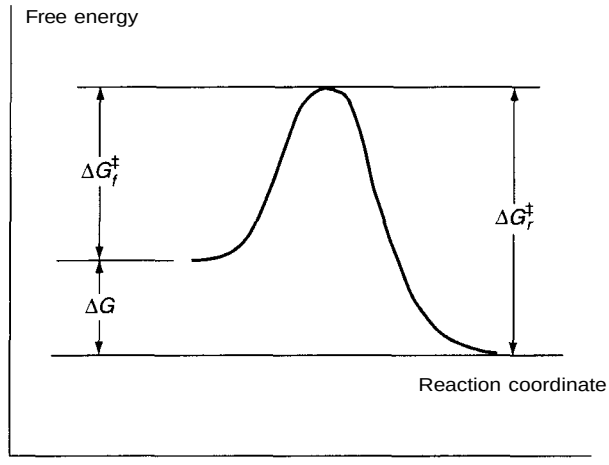


FIGURE 6.1 Free energy profile of a reaction without an intermediate where the products have a lower free energy than the reactants.

axis (called the *reaction coordinate)*[4] signifies the progression of the reaction. The parameter $\Delta G_f^{\ddagger}$ is the free energy of activation for the forward reaction. If the reaction shown in Figure 6.1 is reversible, AG$_r^*$ must be $>\Delta G_f^{\ddagger}$, since it is the sum of AG and AG$_n^*$.

When a reaction between two or more molecules has progressed to the point corresponding to the top of the curve, the term *transition state* is applied to the positions of the nuclei and electrons. The transition state possesses a definite geometry and charge distribution but has no finite existence; the system passes through it. The system at this point is called an *activated complex.*[5]

In the *transition state theory,*[6] the starting materials and the activated complex are taken to be in equilibrium, the equilibrium constant being designated $K^{\ddagger}$. According to this theory, all activated complexes go on to product at the same rate (which, though at first sight is surprising, is not unreasonable, when we consider that they are all "falling downhill") so that the rate constant (see p. 290) of the reaction depends only on the position of the equilibrium between the starting materials and the activated complex, that is, on the value of A'*. The parameter $\Delta G^{\ddagger}$ is related to A'* by

$$\Delta G^{\ddagger} = -2.3RT \log K^{\ddagger}$$

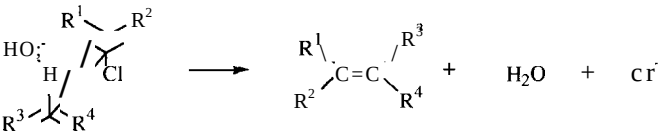
so that a higher value of AG* is associated with a smaller rate constant. The rates of nearly all reactions increase with increasing temperature because the additional energy thus supplied helps the molecules to overcome the activation energy barrier. Some reactions have no free energy of activation at all, meaning that A'* is essentially infinite and that virtually all collisions lead to reaction. Such processes are said to be *diffusion controlled.*[7]

Like AG, $\Delta G^{\ddagger}$ is made up of enthalpy and entropy components

$$\mathrm{AG}^{*} = \Delta H^{\ddagger} - T\Delta S^{\ddagger}$$

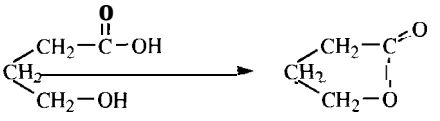
$\Delta H^{\ddagger}$, the *enthalpy of activation,* is the difference in bond energies, including strain, resonance, and solvation energies, between the starting compounds and the *transition state.* In many reactions, bonds have been broken or partially broken by the time the transition state is reached; the energy necessary for this is $\Delta H^{\ddagger}$. It is true that additional energy will be supplied by the formation of new bonds, but if this occurs after the transition state, it can affect only *AH* and not $\Delta H^{\ddagger}$.

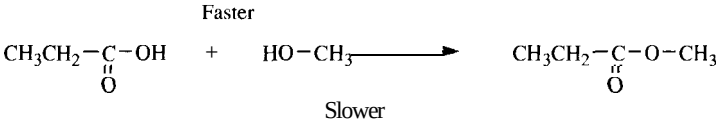
Entropy of activation ($\Delta S^{\ddagger}$), which is the difference in entropy between the starting compounds and the transition state, becomes important when two reacting molecules must approach each other in a specific orientation in order for the reaction to take place. For example, the reaction between a simple noncyclic alkyl chloride and hydroxide ion to give an alkene (17-12) takes place only if, in the transition state, the reactants are oriented as shown.



Not only must the OH^{-} be near the hydrogen, but the hydrogen must be oriented anti to the chlorine atom.[8] When the two reacting molecules collide, if the OH^{-} should be near the chlorine atom or near R^{1} or R^{2}, no reaction can take place. In order for a reaction to occur, the molecules must surrender the freedom they normally have to assume many possible arrangements in space and adopt only that one that leads to reaction. Thus, a considerable loss in entropy is involved, that is, $\Delta S^{\ddagger}$, is negative.

Entropy of activation is also responsible for the difficulty in closing rings[9] larger then six membered. Consider a ring-closing reaction in which the two groups that must interact are situated on the ends of a 10-carbon chain. In order for reaction to



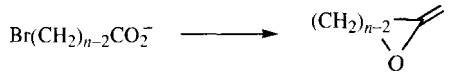


take place, the groups must encounter each other. But a 10-carbon chain has many conformations, and in only a few of these are the ends of the chain near each other. Thus, forming the transition state requires a great loss of entropy.[10] This factor is also present, though less so, in closing rings of six members or less (except three-

membered rings), but with rings of this size the entropy loss is less than that of bringing two individual molecules together. For example, a reaction between an OH group and a COOH group in the same molecule to form a lactone with a five- or six-membered ring takes place much faster than the same reaction between a molecule containing an OH group and another containing a COOH group. Though A//* is about the same, AS* is much less for the cyclic case. However, if the ring to be closed has three or four members, small-angle strain is introduced and the favorable $\Delta S^{\ddagger}$ may not be sufficient to overcome the unfavorable A//* change. Table 6.1 shows the relative rate constants for the closing of rings of 3-23 members all by the same reaction.[11] Reactions in which the transition state has more disorder than the starring compounds, for example, the pyrolytic conversion of cyclopropane to propene, have positive $\Delta S^{\ddagger}$ values and are thus favored by the entropy effect.

Reactions with intermediates are two-step (or more) processes. In these reactions, there is an energy "well". There are two transition states, each with an energy higher than the intermediate (Fig. 6.2). The deeper the well, the more stable the intermediate. In Figure 6.2a, the second peak is higher than the first. The opposite situation is shown in Figure *6.2b.* Note that in reactions in which the second peak is higher than the first, the overall AG* is less than the sum of the AG* values for the two steps. Minima in free energy profile diagrams *(intermediates)* correspond to real species that have a finite though usually short existence. These may be the car-

TABLE 6.1 Relative Rate Constants at 50°C (***Eight-Membered*** *Ring* = 1) for the Reaction



Where n = *the Ring Size*

Ring Size	Relative Rate
3	21.7
4	5.4×10^3
5	1.5×10^6
6	1.7×10^4
7	97.3
8	1.00
9	1.12
10	3.35
11	8.51
12	10.6
13	32.2
14	41.9
15	45.1
16	52.0
18	51.2
23	60.4

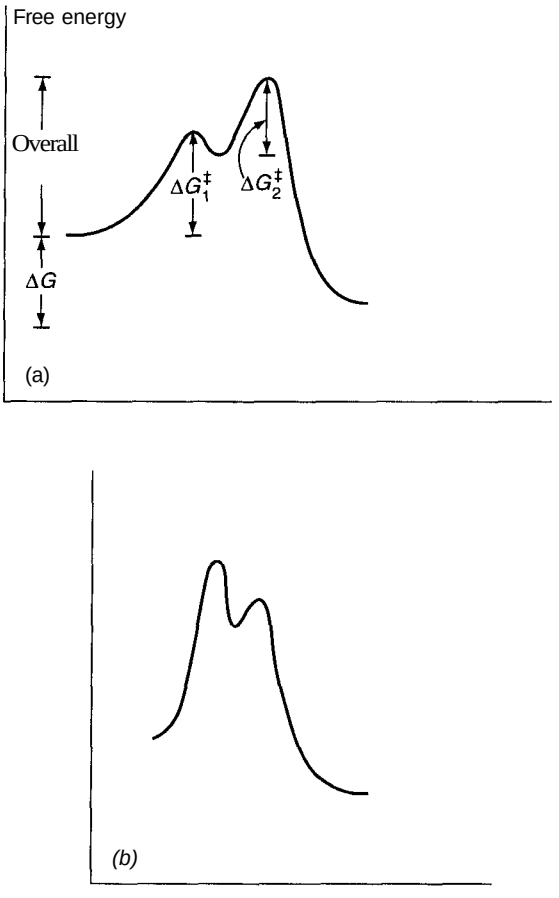


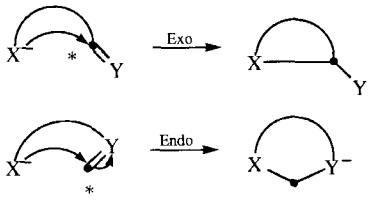
FIGURE 6.2 (a) Free energy profile for a reaction with an intermediate. $\Delta G_1^{\ddagger}$ and $\Delta G_2^{\ddagger}$ are the free energy of activation for the first and second stages respectively. (b) Free energy profile for a reaction with an intermediate in which the first peak is higher than the second.

bocations, carbanions, free radicals, and so on., discussed in Chapter 5 or molecules in which all the atoms have their normal valences. In either case, under the reaction conditions they do not live long (because $\Delta G_2^{\ddagger}$ is small) but rapidly go on to products. Maxima in these curves, however, do not correspond to actual species but only to transition states in which bond breaking and/or bond making have partially taken place. Transition states have only a transient existence with an essentially zero lifetime.[12]

The Baldwin Rules for Ring Closure[13]

In previous sections, we discussed, in a general way, the kinetic and thermodynamic aspects of ring-closure reactions. Baldwin has supplied a more specific set of rules

for certain closings of three- to seven-membered rings.[14] These rules distinguish two types of ring closure, called Exo and Endo, and three kinds of atoms at the starred positions: *Tet* for sp^3, *Trig* for sp^2, and *Dig* for *sp*. The following are Baldwin's rules for closing rings of three to seven members.



Rule 1. Tetrahedral (tet) systems

1. Three to seven-*Exo–Tet* are all favored processes.
2. Five to six-*Endo–Tet* are disfavored.

Rule 2. Trigonal (trig) systems

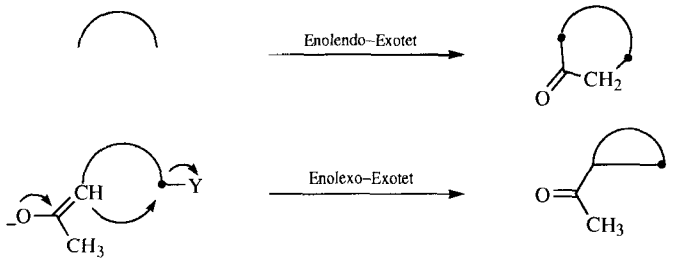
1. Three to seven-*Exo–Trig* are favored.
2. Three to five-*Endo–Trig* are disfavored.[15]
3. Six to seven-*Endo–Trig* are favored.

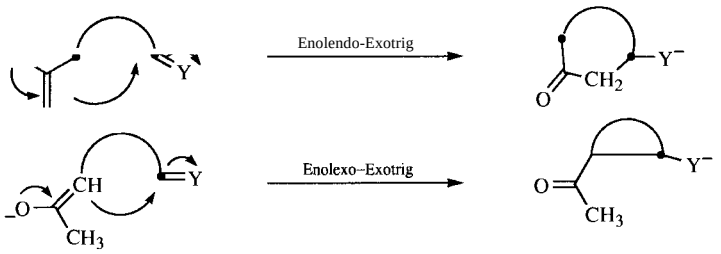
Rule 3. Digonal (dig) systems

1. Three to four-*Exo–Dig* are disfavored.
2. Five to seven-*Exo–Dig* are favored.
3. Three to seven-*Endo–Dig* are favored.

"Disfavored" does not mean it cannot be done—only that it is more difficult than the favored cases. These rules are empirical and have a stereochemical basis. The favored pathways are those in which the length and nature of the linking chain enables the terminal atoms to achieve the proper geometries for reaction. The disfavored cases require severe distortion of bond angles and distances. Many cases in the literature are in substantial accord with these rules, and they are important in the formation of five- and six-membered rings.[16]

Although Baldwin's rules can be applied to ketone enolates,[17] additional rules were added to make the terminology more specific.[18] The orientation of the orbital as it approaches the reactive center must be considered for determining the correct angle of approach. Diagrams that illustrate the enolate rules are





The rules are

1. Six to seven Enolendo–Exo–Tet reactions are favored.
2. Three to five Enolendo-Exo-Tet reactions are disfavored.
3. Three to seven Enolexo–Exo–Tet reactions are favored.
4. Three to seven Enolexo–Exo–Trig reactions are favored.
5. Six to seven Enolendo–Exo–Trig reactions are favored.
6. Three to five Enolendo-Exo-Trig reactions are disfavored.

Kinetic and Thermodynamic Control

There are many cases in which a compound under a given set of reaction conditions can undergo competing reactions to give different products:

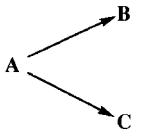


Figure 6.3 shows a free energy profile for a reaction in which B is thermodynamically more stable than C (lower ΔG), but C is formed faster (lower $\Delta G^{\ddagger}$). If neither reaction is reversible, C will be formed in larger amount because it is formed faster. The product is said to be *kinetically controlled.* However, if the reactions are reversible, this will not necessarily be the case. If such a process is stopped well before the equilibrium has been established, the reaction will be kinetically controlled since more of the faster-formed product will be present. However, if the reaction is permitted to approach equilibrium, the predominant or even exclusive product will be B. Under these conditions, the C that is first formed reverts to A, while the more stable B does so much less. We say the product is *thermodynamically controlled.*[19] Of course, Figure 6.3 does not describe all reactions in which a Compound A can give two different products. In many cases, the more stable product is also the one that is formed faster. In such cases the product of kinetic control is also the product of thermodynamic control.

The Hammond Postulate

Since transition states have zero lifetimes, it is impossible to observe them directly and information about their geometries must be obtained from inference. In some

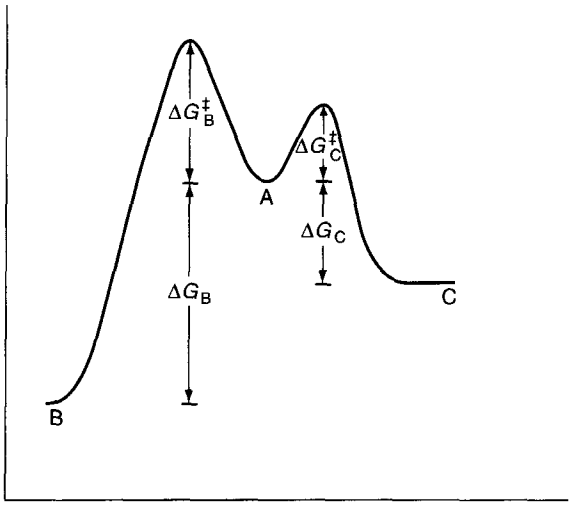


FIGURE 6.3 Free energy profile illustrating kinetic versus thermodynamic control of product. The starting compound (A) can react to give either B or C.

cases, our inferences can be very strong. For example, in the S_N2 reaction (p. 390) between CH3I and I^- (a reaction in which the product is identical to the starting compound), the transition state should be perfectly symmetrical. In most cases, however, we cannot reach such easy conclusions, and we are greatly aided by the *Hammond postulate*,[20] which states that for any single reaction step, *the geometry of the transition state for that step resembles the side to which it is closer in free energy*. Thus, for an exothermic reaction like that shown in Figure 6.1, the transition state resembles the reactants more than the products, though not much more because there is a substantial $\Delta G^{\ddagger}$ on both sides. The postulate is most useful in dealing with reactions with intermediates. In the reaction illustrated in Figure 6.2a, the first transition state lies much closer in energy to the intermediate than to the reactants, and we can predict that the geometry of the transition state resembles that of the intermediate more than it does that of the reactants. Likewise, the second transition state also has a free energy much closer to that of the intermediate than to the products, so that both transition states resemble the intermediate more than they do the products or reactants. This is generally the case in reactions that involve very reactive intermediates. Since we usually know more about the structure of intermediates than of transition states, we often use our knowledge of intermediates to draw conclusions about the transition states (e.g., see pp. 432, 984).

Microscopic Reversibility

In the course of a reaction the nuclei and electrons assume positions that at each point correspond to the lowest free energies possible. If the reaction is reversible, these positions must be the same in the reverse process too. This means that the

forward and reverse reactions (run under the same conditions) must proceed by the same mechanism. This is called the *principle of microscopic reversibility*. For example, if in a reaction A → B there is an intermediate C, then C must also be an intermediate in the reaction B → A. This is a useful principle since it enables us to know the mechanism of reactions in which the equilibrium lies far over to one side. Reversible photochemical reactions are an exception, since a molecule that has been excited photochemically does not have to lose its energy in the same way (Chapter 7).

Marcus Theory

It is often useful to compare the reactivity of one compound with that of similar compounds. What we would like to do is to find out how a reaction coordinate (and in particular the transition state) changes when one reactant molecule is replaced by a similar molecule. Marcus theory is a method for doing this.[21]
In this theory, the activation energy $\Delta G^{\ddagger}$ is thought of as consisting of two parts.

1. An *intrinsic* free energy of activation, which would exist if the reactants and products had the same *AG°*.[22] This is a kinetic part, called the *intrinsic barrier* $\Delta G^{\ddagger}_{\text{int}}$
2. A thermodynamic part, which arises from the *AG°* for the reaction.

The Marcus equation says that the overall $\Delta G^{\ddagger}$ for a one-step reaction is[23]

$$\Delta G^{\ddagger} = \Delta G^{\ddagger}_{\text{int}} + \tfrac{1}{2}\Delta G^{\Delta} + \frac{(\Delta G^{\Delta})^2}{16(\Delta G^{\ddagger}_{\text{int}} - w^{\text{R}})}$$

The term ΔG^{Δ} stands for

$$\Delta G^{\Delta} = \Delta G^{\circ} - w^{\text{R}} + w^{\text{P}}$$

where w^{R} is a work term and is the free energy required to bring the reactants together and w^{P} is the work required to form the successor configuration from the products.

For a reaction of the type AX + B → BX, the intrinsic barrier[24] $\Delta G^{\ddagger}_{\text{int}}$ is taken to be the average $\Delta G^{\ddagger}$ for the two symmetrical reactions

$$\text{AX} + \text{A}\longrightarrow \text{AX} + \text{A} \qquad \Delta G^{\ddagger}_{\text{A,A}}$$

$$\text{BX} + \text{B}\longrightarrow \text{BX} + \text{B} \qquad \Delta G^{\ddagger}_{\text{B,B}}$$

so that

$$\Delta G^{\ddagger}_{\text{int}} + \tfrac{1}{2}(\Delta G^{\ddagger}_{\text{A,A}} + \Delta G^{\ddagger}_{\text{B,B}})$$

One type of process that can successfully be treated by the Marcus equation is the S_N2 mechanism (p. 390)

$$R\text{-}X + Y \longrightarrow R\text{-}Y + X$$

When R is CH_3 the process is called *methyl transfer.*[25] For such reactions, the work terms w^R and w^P are assumed to be very small compared to $\Delta G°$ and can be neglected, so that the Marcus equation simplifies to

$$\Delta G^{\ddagger} = \Delta G^{\ddagger}_{int} + \frac{1}{2}\Delta G° + \frac{(\Delta G)^2}{16\,\Delta G^{\ddagger}_{int}}$$

The Marcus equation allows $\Delta G^{\ddagger}$ for RX + Y → RY + X to be calculated from the barriers of the two symmetrical reactions RX + X → RX +X and RY + Y → RY + Y. The results of such calculations are generally in agreement with the Hammond postulate.

Marcus theory can be applied to any single-step process where something is transferred from one particle to another. It was originally derived for electron transfers,[26] and then extended to transfers of H^+ (see p. 336), H^-,[27] and H·,[28] as well as methyl transfers.

METHODS OF DETERMINING MECHANISMS

There are a number of commonly used methods for determining mechanisms.[29] In most cases, one method is not sufficient, and the problem is generally approached from several directions.

Identification of Products

Obviously any mechanism proposed for a reaction must account for all the products obtained and for their relative proportions, including products formed by side reactions. Incorrect mechanisms for the von Richter reaction **(13-21)** were accepted for many years because it was not realized that nitrogen was a major product. A proposed mechanism cannot be correct if it fails to predict the products in approximately the observed proportions. For example, any mechanism for the reaction

$$CH_4 + Cl_2 \xrightarrow{h\nu} CH_3Cl$$

that fails to account for the formation of a small amount of ethane cannot be correct (see **14-1),** and any mechanism proposed for the Hofmann rearrangement **(18-13):**

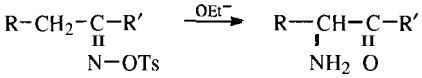
$$CH_3CH_2\text{—}\underset{\underset{O}{\|}}{C}\text{—}NH_2 \xrightarrow[H_2O]{NaOBr} CH_3CH_2NH_2$$

must account for the fact that the missing carbon appears as CO_2.

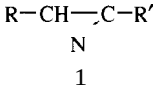
Determination of the Presence of an Intermediate

Intermediates are postulated in many mechanisms. There are several ways, none of them foolproof,[30] for attempting to learn whether or not an intermediate is present and, if so, its structure.

1. *Isolation of an Intermediate.* It is sometimes possible to isolate an intermediate from a reaction mixture by stopping the reaction after a short time or by the use of very mild conditions. For example, in the Neber rearrangement **(18-12)**

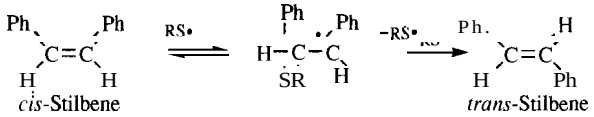


the intermediate 1 (an azirene)[31] has been isolated. If it can be shown that the isolated compound gives the same product when subjected to the reaction conditions and at a rate no slower than the starting compound, this constitutes strong evidence that the reaction involves that intermediate, though it is not conclusive, since the compound may arise by an alternate path and by coincidence give the same product.



1

2. *Detection of an Intermediate.* In many cases, an intermediate cannot be isolated but can be detected by IR, NMR, or other spectra.[32] The detection by Raman spectra of NO_2^+ was regarded as strong evidence that this is an intermediate in the nitration of benzene (see **11-2).** Free radical and triplet intermediates can often be detected by ESR and by **CIDNP** (see Chapter 5). Free radicals [as well as radical ions and EDA complexes] can also be detected by a method that does not rely on spectra. In this method, a double-bond compound is added to the reaction mixture, and its fate traced.[33] One possible result is cis-trans conversion. For example, *cis*-stilbene is isomerized to the trans isomer in the presence of RS· radicals, by this mechanism:



Since the trans isomer is more stable than the cis, the reaction does not go the other way, and the detection of the isomerized product is evidence for the presence of the RS· radicals.

3. *Trapping of an Intermediate.* In some cases, the suspected intermediate is known to be one that reacts in a given way with a certain compound. The intermediate can then be trapped by running the reaction in the presence of

that compound. For example, benzynes (p. 854) react with dienes in the Diels–Alder reaction **(15-58).** In any reaction where a benzyne is a suspected intermediate, the addition of a diene and the detection of the Diels-Alder adduct indicate that the benzyne was probably present.

4. *Addition of a Suspected Intermediate.* If a certain intermediate is suspected, and if it can be obtained by other means, then under the same reaction conditions it should give the same products. This kind of experiment can provide conclusive negative evidence: If the correct products are not obtained, the suspected compound is not an intermediate. However, if the correct products are obtained, this is not conclusive since they may arise by coincidence. The von Richter reaction **(13-21)** provides us with a good example here too. For many years, it had been assumed that an aryl cyanide was an intermediate, since cyanides are easily hydrolyzed to carboxylic acids (16-4). In fact, in 1954, *p*-chlorobenzonitrile was shown to give *p*-chlorobenzoic acid under normal von Richter conditions.[34] However, when the experiment was repeated with 1-cyanonaphthalene, no 1-naphthoic acid was obtained, although 2-nitronaphthalene gave 13% 1-naphthoic acid under the same conditions.[35] This proved that 2-nitronaphthalene must have been converted to 1-naphthoic acid by a route that does not involve 1-cyanonaphthalene. It also showed that even the conclusion that *p*-chlorobenzonitrile was an intermediate in the conversion of *m*-nitrochlorobenzene to *p*-chlorobenzoic acid must now be suspect, since it is not likely that the mechanism would substantially change in going from the naphthalene to the benzene system.

The Study of Catalysis[36]

Much information about the mechanism of a reaction can be obtained from a knowledge of which substances catalyze the reaction, which inhibit it, and which do neither. Of course, just as a mechanism must be compatible with the products, so must it be compatible with its catalysts. In general, catalysts perform their actions by providing an alternate pathway for the reaction in which $\Delta G^{\ddagger}$ is less than it would be without the catalyst. Catalysts do not change AC

Isotopic Labeling[37]

Much useful information has been obtained by using molecules that have been isotopically labeled and tracing the path of the reaction in that way. For example, in the reaction

$$\mathrm{R\overset{*}{C}OO^- + BrCN \longrightarrow R\overset{*}{C}N}$$

does the CN group in the product come from the CN in the BrCN? The use of ^{14}C supplied the answer, since $R^{14}CO_2^-$ gave *radioactive* RCN.[38] This surprising result saved a lot of labor, since it ruled out a mechanism involving the replacement of CO_2

by CN (see 16-60). Other radioactive isotopes are also frequently used as tracers, but even stable isotopes can be used. An example is the hydrolysis of esters

$$R-\underset{\underset{O}{\|}}{C}-OR' + H_2O \longrightarrow R-\underset{\underset{O}{\|}}{C}-OH + R'OH$$

Which bond of the ester is broken, the acyl—O or the alkyl—O bond? The answer is found by the use of $H_2^{18}O$. If the acyl—O bond breaks, the labeled oxygen will appear in the acid; otherwise it will be in the alcohol (see 10-10). Although neither compound is radioactive, the one that contains ^{18}O can be determined by submitting both to mass spectrometry (MS). In a similar way, deuterium can be used as a label for hydrogen. In this case, it is not necessary to use mass spectrometry (MS), since IR and NMR spectra can be used to determine when deuterium has been substituted for hydrogen. Carbon-13 is also nonradioactive; it can be detected by ^{13}C NMR.[39]

In the labeling technique, it is not generally necessary to use completely labeled compounds. Partially labeled material is usually sufficient.

Stereochemical Evidence[40]

If the products of a reaction are capable of existing in more than one stereoisomeric form, the form that is obtained may give information about the mechanism. For example, (+)-malic acid was discovered by Walden[41] to give (—)-chlorosuccinic acid when treated with PCl_5 and the (+) enantiomer when treated with $SOCl_2$, showing that the mechanisms of these apparently similar conversions could not be the same (see pp. 391, 421). Much useful information has been obtained about nucleophilic substitution, elimination, rearrangement, and addition reactions from this type of experiment. The isomers involved need not be enantiomers. Thus, the fact that *cis*-2-butene treated with $KMnO_4$ gives *meso*-2,3-butanediol and not the racemic mixture is evidence that the two OH groups attack the double bond from the same side (see Reaction 15-46).

Kinetic Evidence[42]

The rate of a homogeneous reaction[43] is the rate of disappearance of a reactant or appearance of a product. The rate nearly always changes with time, since it is usually proportional to concentration and the concentration of reactants decreases with time. However, the rate is not always proportional to the concentration of all reactants. In some cases, a change in the concentration of a reactant produces no change at all in the rate, while in other cases, the rate may be proportional to the concentration of a substance (a catalyst) that does not even appear in the stoichiometric equation. A study of which reactants affect the rate often tells a good deal about the mechanism.

If the rate is proportional to the change in concentration of only one reactant (A), the *rate law* (the rate of change of concentration of A with time *t)* is

$$\text{Rate} = \frac{-d[A]}{dt} = k[A]$$

where k is the *rate constant* for the reaction.[44] There is a minus sign because the concentration of A decreases with time. A reaction that follows such a rate law is called a *first-order reaction.* The units of k for a first-order reaction are receprocal seconds (s^{-1}). The rate of a *second-order reaction* is proportional to the concentration of two reactants, or to the square of the concentration of one:

$$\text{Rate} = \frac{-d[\text{A}]}{dt} = k[A][B] \qquad \text{or} \qquad \text{Rate} = \frac{-d[\text{A}]}{dt} = k[\text{A}]^2$$

For a second-order reaction the units are liters per mole per second ($L\ mol^{-1}\ s^{-1}$) or some other units expressing the reciprocal of concentration or pressure per unit time interval.

Similar expressions can be written for third-order reactions. A reaction whose rate is proportional to [A] and to [B] is said to be first order in A and in B, second order overall. A reaction rate can be measured in terms of any reactant or product, but the rates so determined are not necessarily the same. For example, if the stoichiometry of a reaction is $2\ A + B \rightarrow C + D$ then, on a molar basis, A must disappear twice as fast as B, so that $-d[\text{A}]/dt$ and $-d[\text{B}]/dt$ are not equal but the former is twice as large as the latter.

The rate law of a reaction is an experimentally determined fact. From this fact we attempt to learn the *molecularity*, which may be defined as the number of molecules that come together to form the activated complex. It is obvious that if we know how many (and which) molecules take part in the activated complex, we know a good deal about the mechanism. The experimentally determined rate order is not necessarily the same as the molecularity. Any reaction, no matter how many steps are involved, has only one rate law, but each step of the mechanism has its own molecularity. For reactions that take place in one step (reactions without an intermediate) the order is the same as the molecularity. A first-order, one-step reaction is always unimolecular; a one-step reaction that is second order in A always involves two molecules of A; if it is first order in A and in B, then a molecule of A reacts with one of B, and so on. For reactions that take place in more than one step, the order *for each step* is the same as the molecularity *for that step.* This fact enables us to predict the rate law for any proposed mechanism, though the calculations may get lengthy at times.[45] If any one step of a mechanism is considerably slower than all the others (this is usually the case), the rate of the overall reaction is essentially the same as that of the slow step, which is consequently called the *rate-determining* step.[46]

For reactions that take place in two or more steps, two broad cases can be distinguished:

1. The first step is slower than any subsequent step and is consequently rate determining. In such cases, the rate law simply includes the reactants that participate in the slow step. For example, if the reaction $A + 2B \rightarrow C$ has the mechanism

$$A + B \xrightarrow{\text{slow}} I$$
$$I + B \xrightarrow{\text{fast}} C$$

where I is an intermediate, the reaction is second order, with the rate law

$$\text{Rate} = \frac{-d[\text{A}]}{dt} = k[\text{A}][\text{B}]$$

2. When the first step is not rate determining, determination of the rate law is usually much more complicated. For example, consider the mechanism

$$\text{A} + \text{B} \underset{k_1}{\overset{k_1}{\rightleftharpoons}} \text{I}$$

$$\text{I} + \text{B} \xrightarrow{k_2} \text{C}$$

where the first step is a rapid attainment of equilibrium, followed by a slow reaction to give C. The rate of disappearance of A is

$$\text{Rate} = \frac{-d[\text{A}]}{dt} = k_1[\text{A}][\text{B}] - k_{-1}[\text{I}]$$

Both terms must be included because A is being formed by the reverse reaction as well as being used up by the forward reaction. This equation is of very little help as it stands since we cannot measure the concentration of the intermediate. However, the combined rate law for the formation and disappearance of I is

$$\text{Rate} = \frac{-d[\text{A}]}{dt} = k_1[\text{A}][\text{B}] - k_{-1}[\text{I}] - k_2[\text{I}][\text{B}]$$

At first glance we seem no better off with this equation, but we can make the assumption that *the concentration of I does not change with time,* since it is an intermediate that is used up (going either to A + B or to C) as fast as it is formed. This assumption, called the assumption of the *steady state*,[47] enables us to set $d[\text{I}]/dt$ equal to zero, and hence to solve for [I] in terms of the measurable quantities [A] and [B]:

$$[\text{I}] = \frac{k_1[\text{A}][\text{B}]}{k_2[\text{B}] + k_{-1}}$$

We now insert this value for [I] into the original rate expression to obtain

$$\frac{-d[A]}{dt} = \frac{k_1 k_2[\text{A}][\text{B}]^2}{k_2[\text{B}] + k_{-1}}$$

Note that this rate law is valid whatever the values of k_1, k_{-1}, and k_2. However, our original hypothesis was that the first step was faster than the second, or that

$$k_1[\text{A}][\text{B}] \gg k_2[\text{I}][\text{B}]$$

Since the first step is an equilibrium

$$k_1[\mathrm{A}][\mathrm{B}] = k_{-1}[\mathrm{I}]$$

we have

$$k_{-1}[\mathrm{I}] \gg \mathrm{k}_2[\mathrm{I}][\mathrm{B}]$$

Canceling [I], we get

$$k_{-1} \gg k_2[\mathrm{B}]$$

We may thus neglect $k_2[\mathrm{B}]$ in comparison with k_{-1} and obtain

The overall rate is thus third order: first order in A and second order in B. Incidentally, if the first step is rate determining (as was the case in the preceding paragraph), then

$$k_2[B] \gg k_{-1} \qquad \text{and} \qquad \frac{-d[\mathrm{A}]}{dt} = k_1[\mathrm{A}][\mathrm{B}]$$

which is the same rate law we deduced from the rale that where the first step is rate determining, the rate law includes the reactants that participate in that step.

It is possible for a reaction to involve A and B in the rate-determining step, though only [A] appears in the rate law. This occurs when a large excess of B is present, say 100 times the molar quantity of A. In this case, the complete reaction of A uses up only 1 mol of B, leaving 99 mol. It is not easy to measure the change in concentration of B with time in such a case, and it is seldom attempted, especially when B is also the solvent. Since [B], for practical purposes, does not change with time, the reaction appears to be first order in A though actually both A and B are involved in the rate-determining step. This is often referred to as a *pseudo-first-order* reaction. Pseudo-order reactions can also come about when one reactant is a catalyst whose concentration does not change with time because it is replenished as fast as it is used up and when a reaction is conducted in a medium that keeps the concentration of a reactant constant, for example, in a buffer solution where H^+ or OH^- is a reactant. Pseudo-first-order conditions are frequently used in kinetic investigations for convenience in experimentation and calculations.

What is actually being measured is the change in concentration of a product or a reactant with time. Many methods have been used to make such measurements.[48] The choice of a method depends on its convenience and its applicability to the reaction being studied. Among the most common methods are

1. *Periodic or Continuous Spectral Readings.* In many cases, the reaction can be carried out in the cell while it is in the instrument. Then all that is necessary

is that the instrument be read, periodically or continuously. Among the methods used are IR and UV spectroscopy, polarimetry, NMR, and ESR.[49]

2. *Quenching and Analyzing.* A series of reactions can be set up and each stopped in some way (perhaps by suddenly lowering the temperature or adding an inhibitor) after a different amount of time has elapsed. The materials are then analyzed by spectral readings, titrations, chromatography, polarimetry, or any other method.
3. *Removal of Aliquot s at Intervals.* Each aliquot is then analyzed as in method 2.
4. *Measurement of Changes in Total Pressure, for Gas-Phase Reactions.*[50]
5. *Calorimetric Methods.* The output or absorption of heat can be measured at time intervals.

Special methods exist for kinetic measurements of very fast reactions.[51]

In any case, what is usually obtained is a graph showing how a concentration varies with time. This must be interpreted[52] to obtain a rate law and a value of k. If a reaction obeys simple first- or second-order kinetics, the interpretation is generally not difficult. For example, if the concentration at the start is A_0, the first-order rate law

$$dt$$

can be integrated between the limits $t = 0$ and $t = t$ to give

$$-\ln\frac{[A]}{A_0} = kt \qquad \text{or} \qquad \ln[A] = -kt + \ln A_0$$

Therefore, if a plot of ln [A] against t is linear, the reaction is first order and k can be obtained from the slope. For first-order reactions, it is customary to express the rate not only by the rate constant k but also by the *half-life*, which is the time required for half of any given quantity of a reactant to be used up. Since the half-life $t_{1/2}$ is the time required for [A] to reach $A_0/2$, we may say that

$$\ln\frac{A_0}{2} = fo,_{/2} + \ln A_0$$

so that

$$t_{1/2} = \frac{\ln\left(\frac{A_0}{A_0/2}\right)}{k} = \frac{\ln 2}{k} = \frac{0.693}{k}$$

For the general case of a reaction first order in A and first order in B, second order overall, integration is complicated, but it can be simplified if equimolar amounts of

A and B are used, so that $A_0 = B_0$. In this case

$$\frac{-d[A]}{dt} = k[A][B]$$

is equivalent to

$$\frac{-d[A]}{dt} = k[A]^2 \qquad \text{or} \qquad \frac{-d[A]}{[A]^2} = k\,dt$$

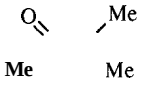
Integrating as before gives

$$\frac{1}{} \quad \frac{1}{}$$

Thus, under equimolar conditions, if a plot of 1/[A] against t is linear, the reaction is second order with a slope of k. It is obvious that the same will hold true for a reaction second order in A.[53]

Although many reaction-rate studies do give linear plots, which can therefore be easily interpreted, the results in many other studies are not so simple. In some cases a reaction may be first order at low concentrations but second order at higher concentrations. In other cases, fractional orders as well as negative orders are obtained. The interpretation of complex kinetics often requires much skill and effort. Even where the kinetics are relatively simple, there is often a problem in interpreting the data because of the difficulty of obtaining precise enough measurements.[54]

The NMR spectra can be used to obtain kinetic information in a completely different manner from that mentioned on page 294. This method, which involves the study of NMR line shapes,[55] depends on the fact that NMR spectra have an inherent time factor: If a proton changes its environment less rapidly than $\sim 10^3$ times per second, an NMR spectrum shows a separate peak for each position the proton assumes. For example, if the rate of rotation around



the C–N bond of *N,N*-dimethylacetamide is slower than 10^3 rotations per second, the two N-methyl groups each have separate chemical shifts since they are not equivalent, one being cis to the oxygen and the other trans. However, if the environmental change takes place more rapidly than $\sim 10^3$ times per second, only one line is found, at a chemical shift that is the weighted average of the two individual positions. In many cases, two or more lines are found at low temperatures, but as the temperature is increased, the lines coalesce because the interconversion rate increases with temperature and passes the 10^3 per second mark. From studies of the way line shapes change with temperature it is often possible to calculate rates of reactions and of conformational changes. This method is not limited to changes in

proton line shapes but can also be used for other atoms that give NMR spectra and for ESR spectra.

Several types of mechanistic information can be obtained from kinetic studies.

1. From the order of a reaction, information can be obtained about which molecules and how many take part in the rate-determining step. Such knowledge is very useful and often essential in elucidating a mechanism. For any mechanism that can be proposed for a given reaction, a corresponding rate law can be calculated by the methods discussed on pages 291–294. If the experimentally obtained rate law fails to agree with this, the proposed mechanism is wrong. However, it is often difficult to relate the order of a reaction to the mechanism, especially when the order is fractional or negative. In addition, it is frequently the case that two or more proposed mechanisms for a reaction are kinetically indistinguishable, that is, they predict the same rate law.
2. Probably the most useful data obtained kinetically are the rate constants themselves. They are important since they can tell us the effect on the rate of a reaction of changes in the structure of the reactants (see Chapter 9), the solvent, the ionic strength, the addition of catalysts, and so on.
3. If the rate is measured at several temperatures, in most cases a plot of $\ln k$ against $1/T$ (T stands for absolute temperature) is nearly linear[56] with a negative slope, and fits the equation

$$\ln k = \frac{-E_A}{RT} + \ln A$$

where R is the gas constant and A a constant called the *frequency factor*. This permits the calculation of E_A, which is the Arrhenius activation energy of the reaction. The parameter $\Delta H^{\ddagger}$ can then be obtained by

$$E_A = \Delta H^{\ddagger} + RT$$

It is also possible to use these data to calculate $\Delta S^{\ddagger}$ by the formula[57]

$$\frac{\Delta S^{\ddagger}}{4.576} = \log k - 10.753 - \log T + \frac{E_A}{4.576T}$$

for energies in calorie units. For joule units the formula is

$$\frac{\Delta S^{\ddagger}}{19.15} = \log k - 10.753 - \log T + \frac{E_A}{19.15T}$$

One then obtains $\Delta G^{\ddagger}$ from $\Delta G^{\ddagger} = \Delta H^{\ddagger} - T\Delta S^{\ddagger}$.

Isotope Effects

When a hydrogen in a reactant molecule is replaced by deuterium, there is often a change in the rate. Such changes are known as *deuterium isotope effects*[58] and are expressed by the ratio k_H/k_D. The ground-state vibrational energy (called the zero-point vibrational energy) of a bond depends on the mass of the atoms and is lower when the reduced mass is higher.[59] Therefore, D—C, D—O, D—N bonds, and so on., have lower energies in the ground state than the corresponding H—C, H—O, H—N bonds, and so on. Complete dissociation of a deuterium bond consequently requires more energy than that for a corresponding hydrogen bond in the same environment (Fig. 6.4). If an H—C, H—O, or H—N bond is not broken at all in a reaction or is broken in a non-rate-determining step, substitution of deuterium for hydrogen causes no change in the rate (see below for an exception to this statement), but if the bond is broken in the rate-determining step, the rate must be lowered by the substitution.

This provides a valuable diagnostic tool for determination of mechanism. For example, in the bromination of acetone (12-4)

$$CH_3COCH_3 + Br_2 \longrightarrow CH_3COCH_2Br$$

the fact that the rate is independent of the bromine concentration led to the postulate that the rate-determining step was prior tautomerization of the acetone:

$$CH3COCH3 \rightleftharpoons CH_3\overset{\overset{OH}{|}}{C}=CH_2$$

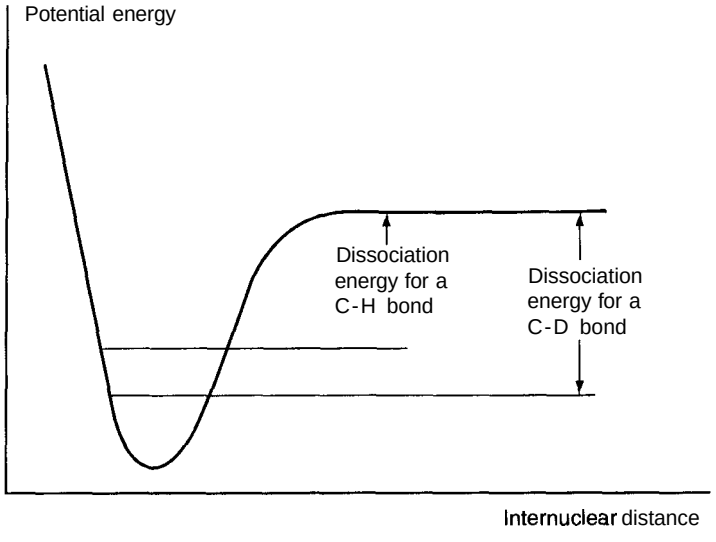
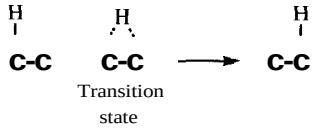


FIGURE 6.4 A C—D bond has a lower zero-point energy than does a corresponding C—H bond; thus the dissociation energy is higher.

In turn, the rate-determining step of the tautomerization involves cleavage of a C–H bond (see 12-3). Thus there should be a substantial isotope effect if deuterated acetone is brominated. In fact, k_H/k_D was found to be ~7.[60] Deuterium isotope effects usually range from 1 (no isotope effect at all) to ~7 or 8, though in a few cases, larger[61] or smaller values have been reported.[62] Values of k_H/k_D smaller than 1 are called *inverse isotope effects.* Isotope effects are greatest when, in the transition state, the hydrogen is symmetrically bonded to the atoms between which it is being transferred.[63] Also, calculations show that isotope effects are at a maximum when the hydrogen in the transition state is on the straight line connecting the two atoms between which the hydrogen is being transferred and that for sufficiently nonlinear configurations they decrease to k_H/k_D = 1-2.[64] Of course, in open systems there is no reason for the transition state to be nonlinear, but this is not the case in many intramolecular mechanisms, for example, in a 1,2 migration of a hydrogen



To measure isotope effects it is not always necessary to prepare deuterium-enriched starting compounds. It can also be done by measuring the change in deuterium concentration at specific sites between a compound containing deuterium in natural abundance and the reaction product, using a high-field NMR instrument.[65]

The substitution of tritium for hydrogen gives isotope effects that are numerically larger. Isotope effects have also been observed with other elements, but they are much smaller, ~1.02–1.10. For example, $k_{12_C}C/k_{13_C}C$ for

$$Ph\overset{*}{C}H_2Br + CH_3O^- \xrightarrow{CH_3OH} Ph\overset{*}{C}H_2OCH_3$$

is 1.053.[66] Although they are small, heavy-atom isotope effects can be measured quite accurately and are often very useful.[67]

Deuterium isotope effects have been found even where it is certain that the C–H bond does not break at all in the reaction. Such effects are called *secondary isotope effects,*[68] the term *primary isotope effect* being reserved for the type discussed previously. Secondary isotope effects can be divided into α and β effects. In a β secondary isotope effect, substitution of deuterium for hydrogen β to the position of bond breaking slows the reaction. An example is solvolysis of isopropyl bromide:

$$(CH_3)_2CHBr + H_2O \xrightarrow{k_H} (CH_3)_2CHOH$$

$$(CD_3)_2CHBr + H_2O \xrightarrow{k_D} (CD_3)_2CHOH$$

where k_H/k_D was found to be 1.34.[69] The cause of β isotope effects has been a matter of much controversy, but they are most likely due to hyperconjugation effects in the transition state. The effects are greatest when the transition state has considerable carbocation character.[70] Although the C–H bond in question is not broken in the

transition state, the carbocation is stabilized by hyperconjugation involving this bond. Because of hyperconjugation, the difference in vibrational energy between the C–H bond and the C–D bond in the transition state is less than it is in the ground state, so the reaction is slowed by substitution of deuterium for hydrogen.

Support for hyperconjugation as the major cause of β isotope effects is the fact that the effect is greatest when D is anti to the leaving group (because of the requirement that all atoms in a resonance system be coplanar, planarity of the D–C–C–X system would most greatly increase the hyperconjugation),[71] and the fact that secondary isotope effects can be transmitted through unsaturated systems.[72] There is evidence that at least some β isotope effects are steric in origin (e.g., a CD_3 group has a smaller steric requirement than a CH_3 group)[73] and a field-effect explanation has also been suggested (CD_3 is apparently a better electron donor than CH_3)[74], but hyperconjugation is the most probable cause in most instances.[75] Part of the difficulty in attempting to explain these effects is their small size, ranging only as high as ~1.5.[76] Another complicating factor is that they can change with temperature. In one case,[77] k_H/k_D was 1.00 ± 0.01 at 0°C, 0.90 ± 0.01 at 25°C, and 1.15 ± 0.09 at 65° C. Whatever the cause, there seems to be a good correlation between β secondary isotope effects and carbocation character in the transition state, and they are thus a useful tool for probing mechanisms.

The other type of secondary isotope effect results from a replacement of hydrogen by deuterium at the carbon containing the leaving group. These (called *secondary isotope effects)* are varied, with values so far reported[78] ranging from 0.87 to 1.26.[79] These effects are also correlated with carbocation character. Nucleophilic substitutions that do not proceed through carbocation intermediates (S_N2 reactions) have a isotope effects near unity.[80] Those that do involve carbocations (S_N1 reactions) have higher α isotope effects, which depend on the nature of the leaving group.[81] The accepted explanation for a isotope effects is that one of the bending C–H vibrations is affected by the substitution of D for H more or less strongly in the transition state than in the ground state.[82] Depending on the nature of the transition state, this may increase or decrease the rate of the reaction. The α isotope effects on S_N2 reactions can vary with concentration,[83] an effect attributed to a change from a free nucleophile to one that is part of an ion pair (see p. 444).[84] This illustrates the use of secondary isotope effects as a means of studying transition state structure. The y secondary isotope effects have also been reported.[85]

Another kind of isotope effect is the *solvent isotope effect*.[86] Reaction rates often change when the solvent is changed from H_2O to D_2O or from ROH to ROD. These changes may be due to any of three factors or a combination of all of them.

1. The solvent may be a reactant. If an O–H bond of the solvent is broken in the rate-determining step, there will be a primary isotope effect. If the molecules involved are D_2O or D_3O^+ there may also be a secondary effect caused by the O–D bonds that are not breaking.
2. The substrate molecules may become labeled with deuterium by rapid hydrogen exchange, and then the newly labeled molecule may become cleaved in the rate-determining step.

3. The extent or nature of solvent–solute interactions may be different in the deuterated and nondeuterated solvents; this may change the energies of the transition state, and hence the activation energy of the reaction. These are secondary isotope effects. Two physical models for this third factor have been constructed.[87]

It is obvious that in many cases the first and third factors at least, and often the second, are working simultaneously. Attempts have been made to separate them.[88]

The methods described in this chapter are not the only means of determining mechanisms. In an attempt to elucidate a mechanism, the investigator is limited only by his or her ingenuity.

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[2]For mixtures of H_2 and O_2, this can be done by striking a match.

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CHAPTER 7

Photochemistry

Most reactions carried out in organic chemistry laboratories take place between molecules all of which are in their ground electronic states. In a *photochemical reaction*,[1] however, a reacting molecule has been previously promoted by absorption of light to an electronically excited state. A molecule in an excited state must lose its extra energy in some manner; it cannot remain in the excited condition for long. However, a chemical reaction is not the only possible means of relinquishing the extra energy. In this chapter, we first discuss electronically excited states and the processes of promotion to these states. Then, we examine the possible pathways open to the excited molecule: first the physical and then the chemical pathways. The subject of electronic spectra is closely related to photochemistry.

Excited States and the Ground State

Electrons can move from the ground-state energy level of a molecule to a higher level (i.e., an unoccupied orbital of higher energy) if outside energy is supplied. In a photochemical process this energy is in the form of light. Light of any wavelength has associated with it an energy value given by $E = hv$, where n is the frequency of the light (n = velocity of light c divided by the wavelength A,) and h is Planck's constant. Since the energy levels of a molecule are quantized, the amount of energy required to raise an electron in a given molecule from one level to a higher one is a fixed quantity. Only light with exactly the frequency corresponding to this amount of energy will cause the electron to move to the higher level. If light of another frequency (too high or too low) is sent through a sample, it will pass out without a loss in intensity, since the molecules will not absorb it. However, if light of the correct frequency is passed in, the energy will be used by the molecules for electron promotion, and hence the light that leaves the sample will be diminished in intensity or altogether gone. A *spectrophotometer* is an instrument that allows light of a given frequency to pass through a sample and detects (by means of a phototube) the amount of light that has been transmitted, that is, not absorbed. A spectrophotometer compares the intensity of the transmitted light with that of the incident light. Automatic instruments gradually and continuously change the frequency, and an automatic recorder plots a graph of absorption versus frequency or wavelength.

The energy of electronic transitions corresponds to light in the visible, UV, and far-UV regions of the spectrum (Fig. 7.1). Absorption positions are normally expressed in wavelength units, usually nanometers (nm).[2] If a compound absorbs in

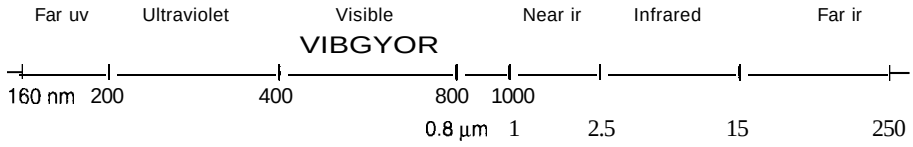


FIGURE 7.1 The UV, Visible, and IR portions of the spectrum.

the visible, it is colored, possessing a color complementary to that which is absorbed.[3] Thus a compound absorbing in the violet is yellow. The far-UV region is studied by organic chemists less often than the visible or ordinary UV regions because special vacuum instruments are required owing to the fact that oxygen and nitrogen absorb in these regions.

From these considerations it would seem that an electronic spectrum should consist of one or more sharp peaks, each corresponding to the transfer of an electron from one electronic level to another. Under ordinary conditions the peaks are seldom sharp. In order to understand why, it is necessary to realize that molecules are constantly vibrating and rotating and that these motions are also quantized. A molecule at any time is not only in a given electronic state but also in a given vibrational and rotational state. The difference between two adjacent vibrational levels is much smaller than the difference between adjacent electronic levels, and the difference between adjacent rotational levels is smaller still. A typical situation is shown in Figure 7.2. When an electron moves from one electronic level to another, it moves from a given vibrational and rotational level within that electronic level to some vibrational and rotational level at the next electronic level. A given sample contains a large number of molecules, and even if all of them are in the ground electronic state, they are still distributed among the vibrational and rotational states (though the ground vibrational state V_0 is most heavily populated). This means that not just one wavelength of light will be absorbed but a number of them close together, with the most probable transition causing the most intense peak. But in molecules containing more than a few atoms there are so many possible transitions and these are so close together that what is observed is a relatively broad band. The height of the peak depends on the number of molecules making the transition and is proportional to log e, where e is the *extinction coefficient.* The extinction coefficient can be expressed by $e = E/c\ell$, where c is the concentration in moles per liter, / is the cell length in centimeters, and $E = \log I_0/I$, where I_0 is the intensity of the incident light and / of the transmitted light. The wavelength is usually reported as λ_{max}, meaning that this is the top of the peak. Purely vibrational transitions, such as between V_0 and V_1 of E_1, which require much less energy, are found in the IR region and are the basis of IR spectra. Purely rotational transitions are found in the far-IR and microwave (beyond the far-IR) regions.

A UV or visible absorption peak is caused by the promotion of an electron in one orbital (usually a ground-state orbital) to a higher orbital. Normally the amount of energy necessary to make this transition depends mostly on the nature of the two orbitals involved and much less on the rest of the molecule. Therefore, a simple

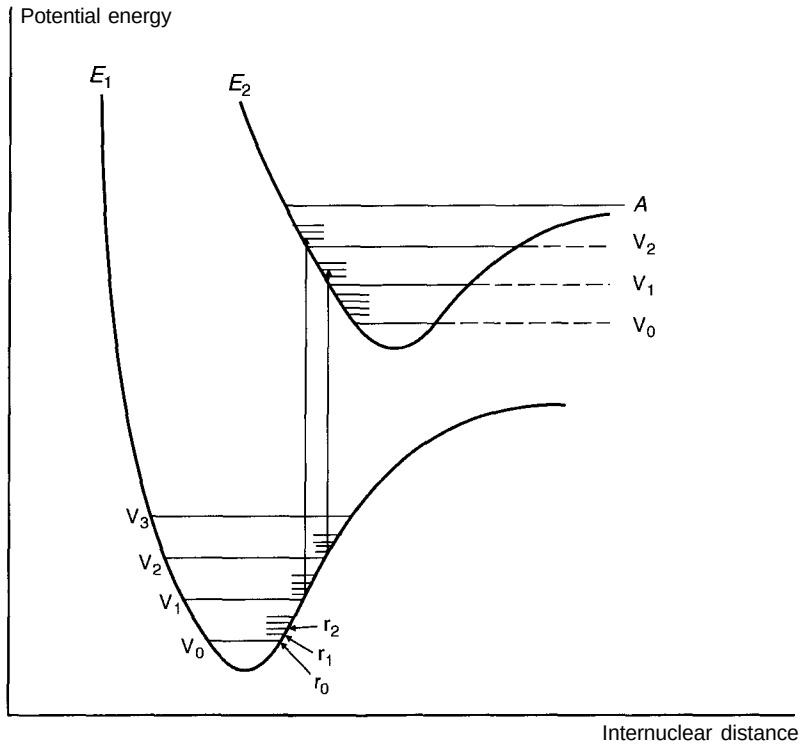


FIGURE 7.2 Energy curves for a diatomic molecule. Two possible transitions are shown. When an electron has been excited to the point marked *A*, the molecule may cleave (p. 312).

functional group such as the C=C double bond always causes absorption in the same general area. A group that causes absorption is called a *chromophore*.

Singlet and Triplet States: "Forbidden" Transitions

In most organic molecules, all electrons in the ground state are paired, with each member of a pair possessing opposite spin as demanded by the Pauli principle. When one of a pair of electrons is promoted to an orbital of higher energy, the two electrons no longer share an orbital, and the promoted electron may, in principle, have the same spin as its former partner or the opposite spin. As we saw in Chapter 5, a molecule in which two unpaired electrons have the same spin is called a *triplet*,[4] while one in which all spins are paired is a *singlet*. Thus, at least in principle, for every excited singlet state there is a corresponding triplet state. In most cases, the triplet state has a lower energy than the corresponding singlet, which is in accord with Hund's rule. Therefore, a different amount of energy, and hence a different wavelength, is required to promote an electron from the ground state (which is almost always a singlet) to an excited singlet than to the corresponding triplet state.

It would thus seem that promotion of a given electron in a molecule could result either in a singlet or a triplet excited state depending on the amount of energy added. However, this is often not the case because transitions between energy levels are governed by selection rules, which state that certain transitions are "forbidden". There are several types of "forbidden" transitions, two of which are more important than the others.

1. *Spin-Forbidden Transitions.* Transitions in which the spin of an electron changes are not allowed, because a change from one spin to the opposite involves a change in angular momentum and such a change would violate the law of conservation of angular momentum. Therefore, singlet-triplet and triplet–singlet transitions are forbidden, whereas singlet–singlet and triplet-triplet transitions are allowed.
2. *Symmetry-Forbidden Transitions.* Among the transitions in this class are those in which a molecule has a center of symmetry. In such cases, a $g \rightarrow g$ or $u \rightarrow u$ transition (see p. 5) is "forbidden," while a $g \rightarrow u$ or $u \rightarrow g$ transition is allowed.

We have put the word "forbidden" into quotation marks because these transitions are not actually forbidden but only highly improbable. In most cases, promotions from a singlet ground state to a triplet excited state are so improbable that they cannot be observed, and it is safe to state that in most molecules only singlet-singlet promotions take place. However, this rule does break down in certain cases, most often when a heavy atom (such as iodine) is present in the molecule, in which cases it can be shown from spectra that singlet-triplet promotions are occurring.[5] Symmetry-forbidden transitions can frequently be observed, though usually with low intensity.

Types of Excitation

When an electron in a molecule is promoted (normally only one electron in any molecule), it usually goes into the lowest available vacant orbital, though promotion to higher orbitals is also possible. For most organic molecules there are consequently four types of electronic excitation:

1. $\sigma \rightarrow \sigma^*$. Alkanes, which have no n or π electrons, can be excited only in this way.[6]
2. $n \rightarrow \sigma^*$. Alcohols, amines,[7] ethers, and so on, can also be excited in this manner.
3. $\pi \rightarrow \pi^*$. This pathway is open to alkenes as well as to aldehydes, carboxylic esters, and so on.
4. $n \rightarrow \pi^*$. Aldehydes, ketones, carboxylic esters, and so on, can undergo this promotion as well as the other three.

The four excitation types above are listed in what is normally the order of decreasing energy. Thus light of the highest energy (in the far-UV) is necessary for $\sigma \rightarrow \sigma^*$

TABLE 7.1 Ultraviolet Absorption of $CH_3-(CH=CH)_n-CH_3$ for Some Values of n

n	nm
2	227
3	263
6	352
9	413

excitation, while $n \rightarrow n^*$ promotions are caused by ordinary UV light. However, the order may sometimes be altered in some solvents.

In 1,3-butadiene (and other compounds with two conjugated double bonds), there are two n and two n^* orbitals (p. 36). The energy difference between the higher $\pi(\chi_2)$ and the lower $\pi^*(\chi_3)$ orbital is less than the difference between the n and n^* orbitals of ethylene. Therefore 1,3-butadiene requires less energy than ethylene, and thus light of a higher wavelength, to promote an electron. This is a general phenomenon, and it may be stated that, in general, *the more conjugation in a molecule, the more the absorption is displaced toward higher wavelengths* (see Table 7.1).[8] When a chromophore absorbs at a certain wavelength and the substitution of one group for another causes absorption at a longer wavelength, a *bathochromic shift* is said to have occurred. The opposite kind of shift is called *hypsochromic*.

Of the four excitation types listed above, the $\pi \rightarrow \pi^*$ and $n \rightarrow \pi^*$ are far more important in organic photochemistry than the other two. Compounds containing C=O groups can be excited in both ways, giving rise to at least two peaks in the UV.

As we have seen, a chromophore is a group that causes a molecule to absorb light. Examples of chromophores in the visible or UV are C=O, N=N,[9] Ph, and NO_2. Some chromophores in the far-UV (beyond 200 nm) are C=C, C≡C, Cl, and OH. An *auxochrome* is a group that displaces (through resonance) and usually intensifies the absorption of a chromophore present in the same molecule. Groups such as Cl, OH, and NH_2 are generally regarded as auxochromes since they shift (usually bathochromically) the UV and visible bands of chromophores such as Ph or C=O (see Table 7.2).[10] Since auxochromes are themselves chromophores (to be sure, generally in the far-UV), it is sometimes difficult to decide which group in a molecule is an auxochrome and which is a chromophore. For example, in acetophenone (PhCOMe) is the chromophore Ph or C=O? In such cases the distinction becomes practically meaningless.

Nomenclature and Properties of Excited States

An excited state of a molecule can be regarded as a distinct chemical species, different from the ground state of the same molecule and from other excited states. It is obvious that we need some method of naming excited states. Unfortunately, there are several methods in use, depending on whether one is primarily interested in photochemistry, spectroscopy, or MO theory.[11] One of the most common methods

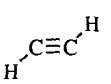
TABLE 7.2 Some UV Peaks of Substituted Benzenes in Water, or Water with a Trace of methanol (for solubility)[a]

	Primary Band		Secondary Band	
	λ_{max}(nm)	ε_{max}	λ_{max}(nm)	ε_{max}
PhH	203.5	7,400	254	204
PhCl	209.5	7,400	263.5	190
PhOH	210.5	6,200	270	1,450
PhOMe	217	6,400	269	1,480
PhCN	224	13,000	271	1,000
PhCOOH	230	11,600	273	970
$PhNH_2$	230	8,600	280	1,430
PhO^-	235	9,400	287	2,600
PhAc	245.5	9,800		
PhCHO	249.5	11,400		
$PhNO_2$	268.5	7,800		

"Note how auxochromes shift and usually intensify the peaks.[10]

simply designates the original and newly occupied orbitals, with or without a superscript, to indicate singlet or triplet. Thus the singlet state arising from promotion of a n to a n^* orbital in ethylene would be the $^1(\pi,\pi^*)$ state or the π,π^* singlet state. Another very common method can be used even in cases where one is not certain which orbitals are involved. The lowest energy excited state is called S_1, the next S_2, and so on, and triplet states are similarly labeled T_1, T_2, T_3, and so on. In this notation, the ground state is S_0. Other notational systems exist, but in this book we shall confine ourselves to the two types just mentioned.

The properties of excited states are not easy to measure because of their generally short lifetimes and low concentrations, but enough work has been done for us to know that they often differ from the ground state in geometry, dipole moment, and acid or base strength.[12] For example, acetylene, which is linear in the ground state, has a *trans* geometry



with approximately sp^2 carbons in the $^1(\pi,\pi^*)$ state.[13] Similarly, the $^1(\pi,\pi^*)$ and the $^3(\pi,\pi^*)$ states of ethylene have a perpendicular and not a planar geometry,[14] and the $^1(n,\pi^*)$ and $^3(n,\pi^*)$ states of formaldehyde are both pyramidal.[15] Triplet species tend to stabilize themselves by distortion, which relieves interaction between the unpaired electrons. Obviously, if the geometry is different, the dipole moment will probably differ also and the change in geometry and electron distribution often results in a change in acid or base strength.[16] For example, the S_1 state of 2-naphthol is a much stronger acid ($pK = 3.1$) than the ground state (S_0) of the same molecule ($pK = 9.5$).[17]

TABLE 7.3 Typical Energies for Some Covalent Single Bonds (see Table 1.7) and the Corresponding Approximate Wavelengths

	E		
Bond	(kcal mol^{-1})	kJ mol^{-1}	nm
C-H	95	397	300
C–O	88	368	325
C-C	83	347	345
Cl–Cl	58	243	495
C–O	35	146	820

Photolytic Cleavage

We have said that when a molecule absorbs a quantum of light, it is promoted to an excited state. Actually, that is not the only possible outcome. Because the energy of visible and UV light is of the same order of magnitude as that of covalent bonds (Table 7.3), another possibility is that the molecule may cleave into two parts, a process known as *photolysis.* There are three situations that can lead to cleavage:

1. The promotion may bring the molecule to a vibrational level so high that it lies above the right-hand portion of the E_2 curve (line *A* in Fig. 7.2). In such a case, the excited molecule cleaves at its first vibration.
2. Even where the promotion is to a lower vibrational level, one that lies wholly within the E_2 curve (such as V_1 or V_2), the molecule may still cleave. As Figure 7.2 shows, equilibrium distances are greater in excited states than in the ground state. The *Franck–Condon principle* states that promotion of an electron takes place much faster than a single vibration (the promotion takes $\sim 10^{-15}$ s; a vibration $\sim 10^{-12}$ s). Therefore, when an electron is suddenly promoted, even to a low vibrational level, the distance between the atoms is essentially unchanged and the bond finds itself in a compressed condition like a pressed-in spring; this condition may be relieved by an outward surge that is sufficient to break the bond.
3. In some cases the excited state is entirely dissociative (Fig. 7.3), that is, there is no distance where attraction outweighs repulsion, and the bond must cleave. An example is the hydrogen molecule, where a $\sigma \rightarrow \sigma^*$ promotion always results in cleavage.

A photolytic cleavage can break the molecule into two smaller molecules or into two free radicals (see p. 318). Cleavage into two ions, though known, is much rarer. Once free radicals are produced by a photolysis, they behave like free radicals produced in any other way (Chapter 5) except that they may be in excited states, and this can cause differences in behavior.

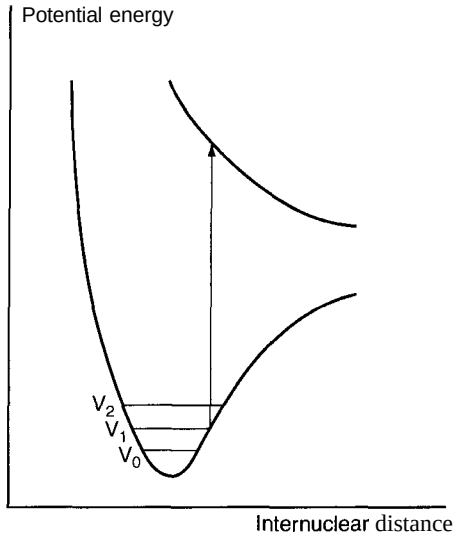


FIGURE 7.3 Promotion to a dissociative state results in bond cleavage.

The Fate of the Excited Molecule: Physical Processes

When a molecule has been photochemically promoted to an excited state, it does not remain there for long. Most promotions are from the S_0 to the S_1 state. As we have seen, promotions from S_0 to triplet states are "forbidden". Promotions to S_2 and higher singlet states take place, but in liquids and solids these higher states usually drop very rapidly to the S_1 state ($\sim 10^{-13}$–10^{-11} s). The energy lost when an S_2 or S_3 molecule drops to S_1 is given up in small increments to the environment by collisions with neighboring molecules. Such a process is called an *energy cascade.* In a similar manner, the initial excitation and the decay from higher singlet states initially populate many of the vibrational levels of S_1, but these also cascade, down to the lowest vibrational level of S_1. Therefore, in most cases, the lowest vibrational level of the S_1 state is the only important excited singlet state.[18] This state can undergo various physical and chemical processes. In the following list, we describe the physical pathways open to molecules in the S_1 and excited triplet states. These pathways are also shown in a modified Jablonski diagram (Fig. 7.4) and in Table 7.4.

1. A molecule in the S_1 state can cascade down through the vibrational levels of the S_0 state and thus return to the ground state by giving up its energy in small increments to the environment, but this is generally quite slow because the amount of energy is large. The process is called *internal conversion* (IC). Because it is slow, most molecules in the S_1 state adopt other pathways.[19]
2. A molecule in the S_1 state can drop to some low vibrational level of the S_0 state all at once by giving off the energy in the form of light. This process, which generally happens within 10^{-9} s, is called *fluorescence.* This pathway

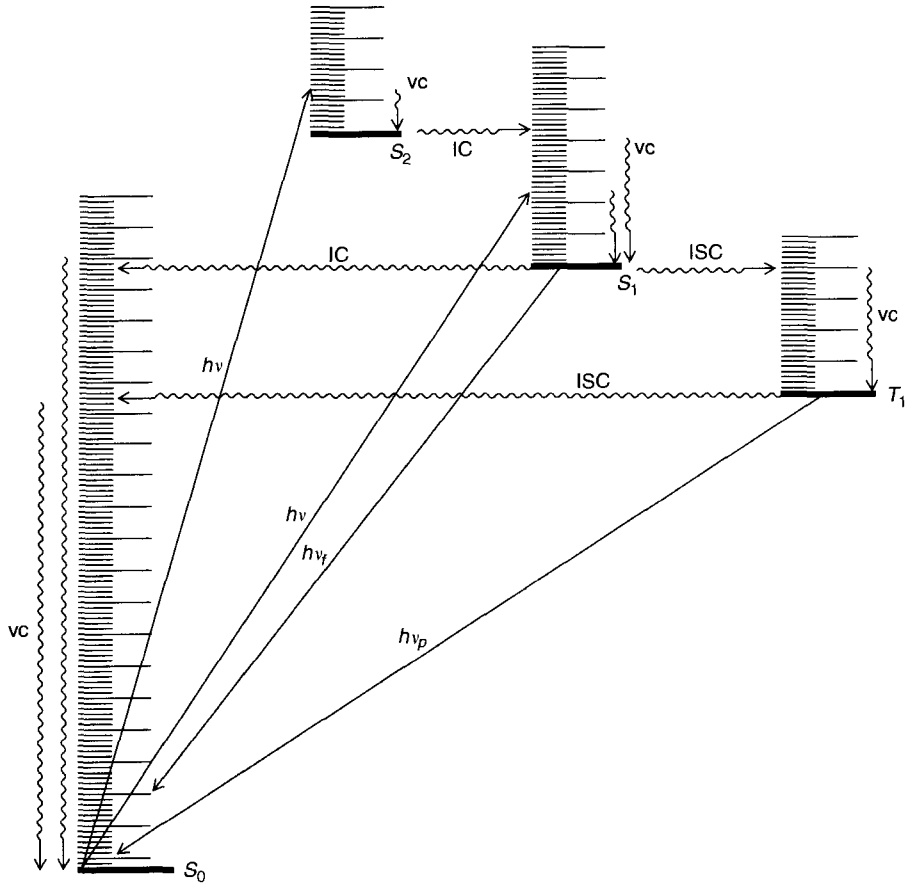


FIGURE 7.4 Modified Jablonski diagram showing transitions between excited states and the ground state. Radiative processes are shown by straight lines, radiationless processes by wavy lines. IC = internal conversion; ISC = intersystem crossing, vc = vibrational cascade; $h\nu_f$ = fluorescence; $h\nu_p$ = phosphorescence.

is not very common either (because it is relatively slow), except for small molecules, (diatomic, and rigid molecules), for example, aromatic. For most other compounds, fluorescence is very weak or undetectable. For compounds that do fluoresce, the fluorescence emission spectra are usually the approximate mirror images of the absorption spectra. This comes about because the fluorescing molecules all drop from the lowest vibrational level of the S_1 state to various vibrational levels of S_0, while excitation is from the lowest vibrational level of S_0 to various levels of S_1 (Fig. 7.5). The only peak in common is the one (called the 0-0 peak) that results from transitions between the lowest vibrational levels of the two states. In solution, even the 0-0 peak may be non-coincidental because the two states are solvated differently. Fluorescence nearly always arises from a $S_1 \rightarrow S_0$ transition,

TABLE 7.4 Physical Processes Undergone by Excited Molecules[a]

$S_0 + h\nu \rightarrow S_1^v$	Excitation
$S_1^v \rightsquigarrow S_1$ + A	Vibrational relaxation
$S_1 \rightarrow S_1 + h\nu$	Fluorescence
$S_1 \rightsquigarrow S_0$ + A	Internal conversion
$S_1 \rightsquigarrow T_1^v$	Intersystem crossing
$T_1^v \rightsquigarrow T_1 + \Delta$	Vibrational relaxation
$T_1 \rightarrow S_0 + h\nu$	Phosphorescence
$T_1 \rightsquigarrow S_0$ + A	Intersystem crossing
$S_1 + A_{(S_0)} \rightarrow + A_{(S_1)}$	Singlet-singlet transfer (photosensitization)
$T_1 + A_{(S_0)} \rightarrow S_0 + A_{(T_1)}$	Triplet-triplet transfer (photosensitization)

[a] The superscript *v* indicates vibrationally excited state: excited states higher than S_1 or T_1 are omitted.

though azulene (p. 54) and its simple derivatives are exceptions,[20] emitting fluorescence from $S_2 \rightarrow S_0$ transitions.

Because of the possibility of fluorescence, any chemical reactions of the S_1 state must take place very fast, or fluorescence will occur before they can happen.

3. Most molecules (though by no means all) in the S_1 state can undergo an *intersystem crossing* (ISC) to the lowest triplet state T_1.[21] An important example is benzophenone, of which $\sim$100% of the molecules that are excited to the S_1 state cross over to the T_1.[22] Intersystem crossing from singlet to triplet is of course a "forbidden" pathway, since the angular momentum problem (p. 308) must be taken care of, but this often takes place by compensations elsewhere in the system. Intersystem crossings take place without loss of energy. Since a singlet state usually has a higher energy than the corresponding triplet, this means that energy must be given up. One way for this to happen is for the S_1 molecule to cross to a T_1 state at a high vibrational level and then for the T_1 to cascade down to its lowest vibrational level (see Fig. 7.4). This cascade is very rapid (10^{-12} s). When T_2 or higher states are populated, they too rapidly cascade to the lowest vibrational level of the T_1 state.

4. A molecule in the T_1 state may return to the S_0 state by giving up heat (intersystem crossing) or light (this is called *phosphorescence).*[23] Of course, the angular momentum difficulty exists here, so that both intersystem crossing and phosphorescence are very slow ($\approx 10^{-3}$–10^{1} s). This means that T_1 states generally have much longer lifetimes than S_1 states. When they occur in the same molecule, phosphorescence is found at lower frequencies than fluorescence (because of the higher difference in energy between S_1 and S_0 than between T_1 and S_0) and is longer lived (because of the longer lifetime of the T_1 state).

5. If nothing else happens to it first, a molecule in an excited state (S_1 or T_1) may transfer its excess energy all at once to another molecule in the environment,

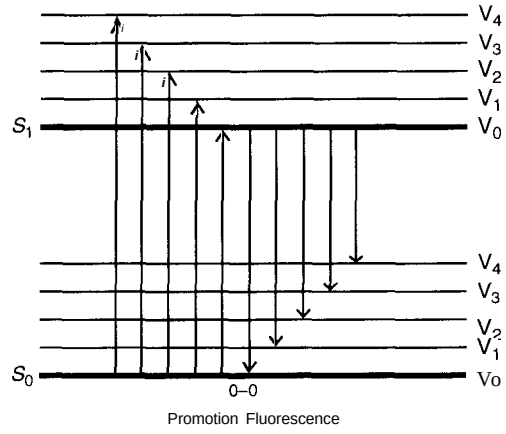
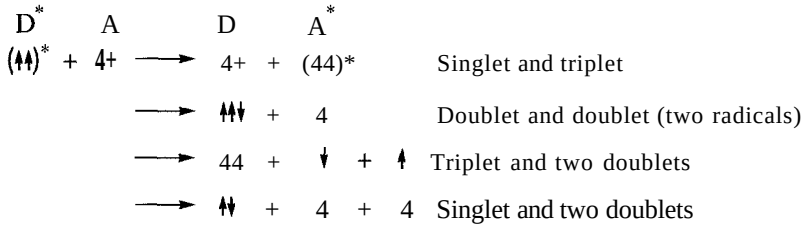


FIGURE 7.5 Promotion and fluorescence between S_1 and S_0 states.

in a process called *photosensitization*.[24] The excited molecule (which we shall call D for donor) thus drops to S_0 while the other molecule (A for acceptor) becomes excited:

$$D^* + A \longrightarrow A^* + D$$

Thus there are *two* ways for a molecule to reach an excited state—by absorption of a quantum of light or by transfer from a previously excited molecule.[25] The donor D is also called a *photosensitizer*. This energy transfer is subject to the *Wigner spin-conservation rule*, which is actually a special case of the law of conservation of momentum we encountered previously. According to the Wigner rule, the total electron spin does not change after the energy transfer. For example, when a triplet species interacts with a singlet these are some allowed possibilities:[26]



In all these cases, the products have three electrons spinning "up" and the fourth "down" (as do the starting molecules). However, formation of, say, two triplets ($\uparrow\downarrow + \downarrow\downarrow$) or two singlets ($\uparrow\downarrow + \uparrow\downarrow$), whether ground states or excited, would violate the rule.

In the two most important types of photosensitization, both of which are in accord with the Wigner rule, a triplet excited state generates another triplet and a singlet generates a singlet:

$$D_{T1} + A_{S_0} \longrightarrow A_{T1} + D_{S_0} \quad \text{Triplet-triplet transfer}$$

$$D_{S1} + A_{S_0} \longrightarrow A_{S1} + D_{S_0} \quad \text{Singlet-triplet transfer}$$

Singlet–singlet transfer can take place over relatively long distances, for example, 40 Å, but triplet transfer normally requires a collision between the molecules.[27] Both types of photosensitization can be useful for creating excited states when they are difficult to achieve by direct irradiation. Photosensitization is therefore an important method for carrying out photochemical reactions when a molecule cannot be brought to the desired excited state by direct absorption of light. Triplet-triplet transfer is especially important because triplet states are usually much more difficult to prepare by direct irradiation than singlet states (often impossible) and because triplet states, having longer lifetimes, are much more likely than singlets to transfer energy by photosensitization. Photosensitization can also be accomplished by electron transfer.[28]

In choosing a photosensitizer, one should avoid a compound that absorbs in the same region as the acceptor because the latter will then compete for the light.[29] For examples of the use of photosensitization to accomplish reactions, see 15-49, 15-61.

The Fate of the Excited Molecule: Chemical Processes

Although both excited singlet and triplet species can undergo chemical reactions, they are much more common for triplets, simply because these generally have much longer lifetimes. Excited singlet species, in most cases, have a lifetime of $< 10^{-10}$ s and undergo one of the physical processes already discussed before they have a chance to react chemically. Therefore, photochemistry is largely the chemistry of triplet states.[30] Table 7.5[31] lists many of the possible chemical pathways that can be taken by an excited molecule.[32] The first four of these are unimolecular reactions; the others are bimolecular. In the case of bimolecular reactions, it is rare for two excited molecules to react with each other (because the concentration of excited molecules at any one time is generally low); reactions are between an excited molecule and an unexcited molecule of either the same or another species. The reactions listed in Table 7.5 are primary processes. Secondary reactions often follow, since the primary products are frequently radicals or carbenes; even if they are ordinary molecules, they are often in upper vibrational levels and so have excess energy. In almost all cases, the primary products of photochemical reactions are in their ground states, though exceptions are known.[33] Of the reactions listed in Table 7.5,[31] the most common are cleavage into radicals (1), decomposition into molecules (2), and (in the presence of a suitable acceptor molecule) photosensitization (7), which we have already discussed. The following are some specific examples

TABLE 7.5 Primary Photochemical Reactions of an Excited Molecule A–B–C[a]

(A–B–C) → A–B• + C	Simple cleavage into radicals	**(1)**
(A–B–C) → E + F	Decomposition into molecules	(2)
(A–B–C) → A-C-B	Intramolecular rearrangement	(3)
(A-B-C) $\xrightarrow{\text{A}}$ A-B-C	Photoisomerization	(4)
(A-B-C) $\xrightarrow{\text{RH}}$ A–B–C–H + R•	Hydrogen atom abstraction	(5)
(A-B-C) $\xrightarrow{\text{A}}$ $(ABD)_2$	Photodimerization	(6)
(A-B-C) → ABC + A*	Photosensitization	(?)

[a]Examples are given in the text; the most common are (1), (2), and, in the presence of a suitable acceptor molecule, (7).

of reaction categories (1)-(6). Other examples are discussed in Part 2 of this book.[34]

Category 1. *Simple Cleavage into Radicals.*[35] Aldehydes and ketones absorb in the 230-330-nm region. This is assumed to result from an $n \rightarrow n^*$ singlet-singlet transition. The excited aldehyde or ketone can then cleave.[36]

$$R'-\overset{\overset{O}{\|}}{C}-R \xrightarrow{h\nu} R'-\overset{\overset{O}{\|}}{C}\cdot + R\cdot$$

When applied to ketones, this is called *Norrish Type I cleavage* or often just *Type I cleavage.* Tn a secondary process, the acyl radical R'–CO• can then lose CO to give R'• radicals. Another example of a category 1 process is cleavage of Cl_2 to give two Cl atoms. Other bonds that are easily cleaved by photolysis are the O–O bonds of peroxy compounds and the C–N bonds of aliphatic azo compounds R–N=N–R.[37] The latter is an important source of radicals R', since the other product is the very stable N_2.

Category 2. Decomposition into Molecules. Aldehydes (though not generally ketones) can also cleave in this manner:

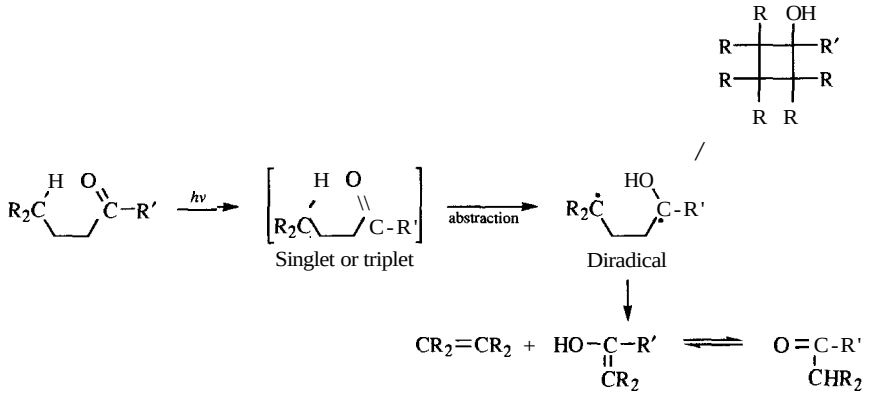
$$R\text{-}\overset{\overset{O}{\|}}{C}\text{-}H \xrightarrow{h\nu} R-H + CO$$

This is an extrusion reaction (see Chapter 17). In another example of a process in category 2, aldehydes and ketones with a y hydrogen can cleave in still another way (a β elimination, see Chapter 17):

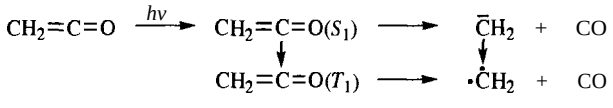
$$R_2HC-CR_2-CR_2-\overset{\overset{O}{\|}}{C}-R' \xrightarrow{h\nu} R_2C=CR_2 + R_2HC-\overset{\overset{O}{\|}}{C}-R'$$

This reaction, called *Norrish Type II cleavage,*[38] involves intramolecular abstraction of the y hydrogen followed by cleavage of the resulting diradical (a

secondary reaction)[39] to give an enol that tautomerizes to the aldehyde or ketone product.[40]

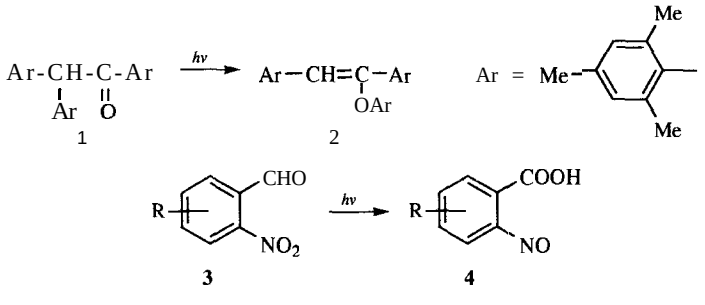


Both singlet and triplet *n,n** states undergo the reaction.[41] The intermediate diradical can also cyclize to a cyclobutanol, which is often a side product. Carboxylic esters, anhydrides, and other carbonyl compounds can also give this reaction.[42] The photolysis of ketene to CH_2 (p. 250) is still another example of a reaction in category 2. Both singlet and triplet CH_2 are generated, the latter in two ways:



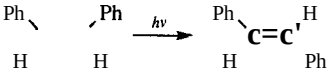
Reactions are known where *both* Norrish Type I and Norrish Type II reactions compete, and the substituents on and nature of the substrate will determine which leads to the major product.[43]

Category 3. *Intramolecular Rearrangement.* Two examples are the rearrangement of the trimesityl compound (1) to the enol ether (**2**),[44] and irradiation of *o*-nitrobenzaldehydes (3) to give *o*-nitrosobenzoic acids (**4**).[45]

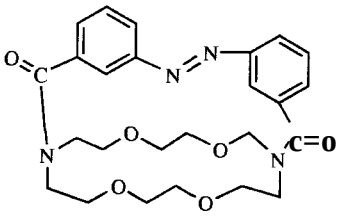


Category 4. *Photoisomerization.* The most common reaction in this category is photochemical cis-trans isomerization.[46] For example, *cis*-stilbene can be

converted to the trans isomer:[47]



The isomerization takes place because the excited states, both S_1 and T_1, of many alkenes have a perpendicular instead of a planar geometry (p. 311), so cis-trans isomerism disappears upon excitation. When the excited molecule drops back to the S_0 state, either isomer can be formed. A useful example is the photochemical conversion of *cis*-cyclooctene to the much less stable trans isomer.[48] Another interesting example of this isomerization involves azo crown ethers. The crown ether (5), in which the N=N bond is anti, preferentially binds NH_4^+, Li^+, and Na^+, but the syn isomer preferentially binds K^+ and Rb^+ (see p. 105). Thus, ions can be selectively put in or taken out of solution merely by turning a light source on or off.[49]



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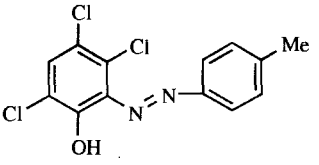

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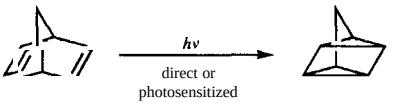
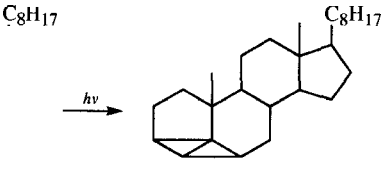
In another example, the trans azo compound (6) is converted to its cis isomer when exposed to light. In this case[50] the *cis* isomer is a stronger acid than the trans. The trans isomer is dissolved in a system containing a base, wherein a liquid membrane separates two sides, one of which is illuminated, the other kept dark. On the illuminated side, the light converts the trans isomer to the cis. The cis isomer, being a stronger acid, donates its proton to the base, converting cis ArOH to cis ArO^-. This ion migrates to the dark side, where it rapidly reverts to the trans ion, which reacquires a proton. Because each cycle forms one H_3O^+ ion in the illuminated compartment and one OH^- ion in the dark compartment, the process reverses the normal reaction whereby these ions neutralize each other.[51] Thus the energy of light is used to do chemical work.[52] Two other examples of category 4 reactions are[46]

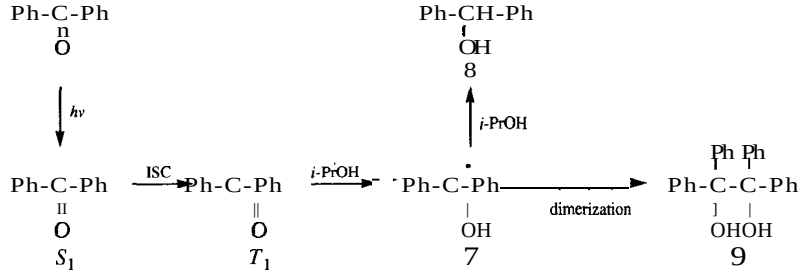




Cholesta-3,5-diene

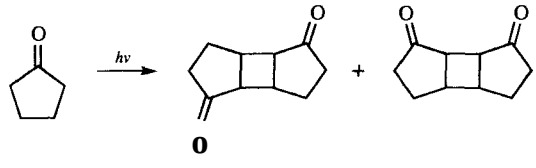
These examples illustrate that the use of photochemical reactions can make it very easy to obtain compounds that would be difficult to get in other ways. Reactions similar to these are discussed at 15-61.

Category 5. *Hydrogen Atom Abstraction.* When benzophenone is irradiated in isopropyl alcohol, the initially formed S_1 state crosses to the T_1 state, which abstracts hydrogen from the solvent to give the radical 7. Radical 7 then abstracts another hydrogen to give benzhydrol (8) or dimerizes to benzpinacol (9):



An example of intramolecular abstraction has already been given (p. 318).

Category 6. *Photodimerization.* An example is dimerization of cyclopentenone:[53]



See 15-61 for a discussion of this and similar reactions.

The Determination of Photochemical Mechanisms[54]

The methods used for the determination of photochemical mechanisms are largely the same as those used for organic mechanisms in general (Chapter 6): product identification, isotopic tracing, the detection and trapping of intermediates, and kinetics. There are, however, a few new factors: (1) there are generally many products in a photochemical reaction, as many as 10 or 15; (2) in measuring kinetics, there are more variables, since we can study the effect on the rate of the intensity or the wavelength of light; (3) in the detection of intermediates by spectra we can use the technique of *flash photolysis*, which can detect extremely short-lived intermediates.

In addition to these methods, there are two additional techniques.

1. The use of emission (fluorescence and phosphorescence) as well as absorption spectroscopy. From these spectra the presence of as well as the energy and lifetime of singlet and triplet excited states can often be calculated.

2. The study of quantum yields. The *quantum yield* is the fraction of absorbed light that goes to produce a particular result. There are several types. A *primary quantum yield* for a particular process is the fraction of molecules absorbing light that undergo that particular process. Thus, if 10% of all the molecules that are excited to the S_1 state cross over to the T_1 state, the primary quantum yield for that process is 0.10. However, primary quantum yields are often difficult to measure. A *product quantum yield* (usually designated Φ) for a product P that is formed from a photoreaction of an initially excited molecule A can be expressed as

$$\Phi = \frac{\text{number of molecules of P formed}}{\text{number of quanta absorbed by A}}$$

Product quantum yields are much easier to measure. The number of quanta absorbed can be determined by an instrument called an *actinometer,* which is actually a standard photochemical system whose quantum yield is known. An example of the information that can be learned from quantum yields is the following. If the quantum yield of a product is finite and invariant with changes in experimental conditions, it is likely that the product is formed in a primary rate-determining process. Another example: In some reactions, the product quantum yields are found to be well over 1 (perhaps as high as 1000). Such a finding indicates a chain reaction (see p. 895 for a discussion of chain reactions).

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[2]Formerly, millimicrons (mμ) were frequently used; numerically they are the same as nanometers.

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[4]See Kurreck, H. *Angew. Chem. Int. Ed. Engl.*, **1993,** *32,* 1409 for a brief discussion of the triplet state in organic chemistry.

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[6]An *n* electron is one in an unshared pair.

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CHAPTER 8

Acids and Bases

Two acid-base theories are used in organic chemistry today: the Br0nsted theory and the Lewis theory.[1] These theories are quite compatible and are used for different purposes.[2]

Brønsted Theory

According to this theory, an acid is defined as *a proton donor*[3] and a base as *a proton acceptor* (a base must have a pair of electrons available to share with the proton; this is usually present as an unshared pair, but sometimes is in a *n* orbital). An acid-base reaction is simply the transfer of a proton from an acid to a base. (Protons do not exist free in solution but must be attached to an electron pair). When the acid gives up a proton, the species remaining still retains the electron pair to which the proton was formerly attached. Thus the new species, in theory at least, can reacquire a proton and is therefore a base. It is referred to as the *conjugate base* of the acid. All acids have a conjugate base, and all bases have a *conjugate acid*. All acid-base reactions fit the equation

$$\underset{\text{Acid]}}{\text{A-H}} + \underset{\text{Base}_2}{\text{B}} \rightleftharpoons \underset{\text{Ase}_1}{\text{A}^-} + \underset{\text{Acid}_2}{\text{B-H}}$$

No charges are shown in this equation, but an acid always has a charge one positive unit higher than that of its conjugate base.

Acid strength may be defined as the tendency to give up a proton and *base strength* as the tendency to accept a proton. Acid-base reactions occur because acids are not equally strong. If an acid, say HC1, is placed in contact with the conjugate base of a weaker acid, say acetate ion, the proton will be transferred because the HC1 has a greater tendency to lose its proton than acetic acid. That is, the equilibrium

$$\text{HC1} + \text{CH}_3\text{COO}^- \rightleftharpoons \text{CH3COOH} + \text{Cl}^-$$

lies well to the right. On the other hand, treatment of acetic acid with chloride ion gives essentially no reaction, since the weaker acid already has the proton.

This is always the case for any two acids, and by measuring the positions of the equilibrium the relative strengths of acids and bases can be determined.[4] Of course, if the two acids involved are close to each other in strength, a measurable reaction will occur from both sides, though the position of equilibrium will still be over to the

side of the weaker acid (unless the acidities are equal within experimental limits). In this manner, it is possible to construct a table in which acids are listed in order of acid strength (Table 8.1).[5] Next to each acid in Table 8.1 is shown its conjugate base. It is obvious that if the acids in such a table are listed in *decreasing* order of acid strength, the bases must be listed in *increasing* order of base strength, since the stronger the acid, the weaker must be its conjugate base. The pK_a values in Table 8.1 are most accurate in the middle of the table. They are much harder to measure[6] for very strong and very weak acids, and these values must be regarded as approximate. Qualitatively, it can be determined that $HClO_4$ is a stronger acid than H2SO4, since a mixture of $HClO_4$ and H_2SO_4 in 4-methyl-2-pentanone can be titrated to an $HClO_4$ end point without interference by H2SO4.[7] Similarly, $HClO_4$ can be shown to be stronger than HNO_3 or HC1. However, this is not quantitative, and the value of -10 in the table is not much more than an educated guess. The values for RNO_2H^+, $ArNO_2H^+$, HI, $RCNH^+$, and RSH_2^+ must also be regarded as highly speculative.[8] A wide variety of pK_a values has been reported for the conjugate acids of even such simple bases as acetone (-0.24 to -7.2),[9] diethyl ether (-0.30 to -6.2), ethanol (-0.33 to -4.8), methanol (-0.34 to -4.9), and 2-propanol (-0.35 to -5.2), depending on the method used to measure them.[10] Very accurate values can be obtained only for acids weaker than hydronium ion and stronger than water.

A crystallographic scale of acidity has been developed. Measuring the mean C–H • • • O distances in crystal structures correlated well with conventional $pK_{a(DMSO)}$ values.[11] An *ab initio* study was able to correlate ring strain in strained hydrocarbons with hydrogen-bond acidity.[12]

The bottom portion of Table 8.1 consists of very weak acids (pK_a above ≈ 17).[13] In most of these acids, the proton is lost from a carbon atom, and such acids are known as *carbon acids.* The pK_a values for such weak acids are often difficult to measure and are known only approximately. The methods used to determine the relative positions of these acids are discussed in Chapter 5.[14] The acidity of carbon acids is proportional to the stability of the carbanions that are their conjugate bases (see p. 227).

The extremely strong acids at the top of the table are known as *superacids* (see p. 219).[15] The actual species present in the $FSO_3H–SbF_5$ mixture are probably $H[SbF_5(SO_3F)]$ and $H[SbF_2(SO_3F)_4]$.[16] The addition of SO_3 causes formation of the still stronger $H[SbF_4(SO_3F)_2]$, $H[SbF_3(SO_3F)_3]$, and $H[(SbF_5)_2(SO_3F)]$.[16]

By the use of tables such as Table 8.1, it is possible to determine whether a given acid will react with a given base. For tables in which acids are listed in order of decreasing strength, the rule is that *any acid will react with any base in the table that is below it but not with any above it}*[1] It must be emphasized that the order of acid strength in Table 8.1 applies when a given acid and base react without a solvent or, when possible, in water. In other solvents the order may be greatly different (see p. 350). In the gas phase, where solvation effects are completely or almost completely absent, acidity orders may also differ greatly.[76] For example, in the gas phase, toluene is a stronger acid than water and tert-butoxide ion is a weaker base than methoxide ion[77] (see also pp. 349-351). It is also possible for the acidity order to change with temperature. For example, >50°C the order of base strength is BuOH

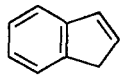
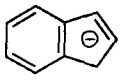
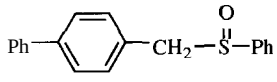
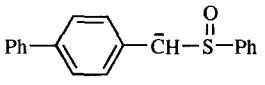
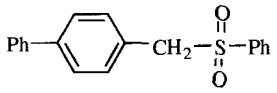
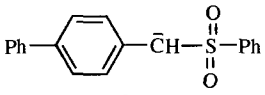
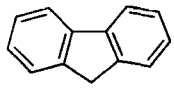
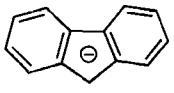
TABLE 8.1 The pK_a Values for Many Types of Acids[a]

Acid	Base	Approximate pK_a (relative to water)	References
Superacids:			
$HF–SbF_5$	SbF_6^-		19
$FSO_3H–SbF_5–SO_3$			16
$FSO_3H–SbF_5$			16,19
FSO_3H	FSO_3^-		16
RNO_2H^+	RNO_2	−12	20
$ArNO_2H^+$	$ArNO_2$	−11	20
$HClO_4$	ClO_4^-	−10	21
HI	I^-	−10	21
$RCNH^+$	RCN	−10	22
R-C-H (OH$^+$)	R-C-H (O)	−10	23
H_2SO_4	HSO_4^-		
HBr	Br^-	−9	21
Ar–C–OR[b] (OH$^+$)	Ar–C–OR (OH$^+$)	−7.4	20
HCl	Cl	−7	21
RSH_2^+	RSH	−7	20
Ar–C–OH[b] (OH$^+$)	Ar–C–OH (O)	−7	25
Ar-C-H (OH$^+$)	Ar-C-H (O)	−7	26
R-C-R (OH$^+$)	R-C-R (O)	−7	9,22,27
$ArSO_3H$	$ArSO_3^-$	−6.5	28
R–C–OR[b] (OH$^+$)	R–C–OR (O)	−6.5	20
$ArOH_2^+$	ArOH	−6.4	29
R–C–OH[b] (OH$^+$)	R–C–OH (O)	−6	20
Ar-C-R (OH$^+$)	Ar-C-R (O)	−6	26,30
Ar–O–R (H)	Ar–O–R	−6	29,31
$CH(CN)_3$	$^-C(CN)_3$	−5	32
Ar_3NH^+	Ar_3N	−5	33
H–C–H (OH$^+$)	H-C-H (O)	-4	34

TABLE 8.1 *(Continued)*

Acid	Base	Approximate pK_a (relative to water)	References
$R\text{-}\overset{+}{O}(H)\text{-}R$	R–O–R	-3.5	22,31,35
$R_3COH_2^+$	R3COH	-2	35
$R_2CHOH_2^+$	R_2CHOH	-2	35,36
$RCH_2OH_2^+$	RCH_2OH	-2	22,35,36
H_3O^+	H_2O	-1.74	37
$Ar-\overset{\ddot{O}H^+}{\overset{\vert}{C}}-NH_2$ [b]	$Ar-\overset{\ddot{O}}{\overset{\vert}{C}}-NH_2$	-1.5	38
HNO3	NO_3^-	-1.4	21
$R-\overset{\ddot{O}H^+}{\overset{\Vert}{C}}-NH_2$ [b]	$R-\overset{\ddot{O}}{\overset{\Vert}{C}}-NH_2$	−0.5	38
$Ar_2NH_2^+$	Ar_2NH	1	33
HSO_4^-	SO_4^{2-}	**1.99**	39
HF	F^-	**3.17**	39
HONO	NO_2^-	**3.29**	39
$ArNH_3^+$	$ArNH_2$	3-5	40
$ArNR_2H^+$	$ArNR_2$	3-5	40
RCOOH	$RCOO^-$	4-5	40
$HCOCH_2CHO$	$HCOC^-HCHO$	5	41
H_2CO_3 [c]	HCO_3^-	**6.35**	39
H_2S	HS^-	**7.00**	39
ArSH	ArS"	6-8	43
$CH_3COCH_2COCH_3$ [c]	$CH_3COC^-HCOCH_3$	9	41
HCN	CN^-	9.2	45
NH_4^+	NH_3	**9.24**	39
ArOH	ArO"	8-11	46
RCH_2NO_2	RC^-HNO_2	10	47
R_3NH^+	R_3N	10-11	40
RNH_3^+	RNH_2	10-11	40
HCO_3^-	CO_3^{2-}	**10.33**	39
RSH	RS^-	10-11	43
$R_2NH_2^+$	R_2NH	11	40
$N{\equiv}CCH_2C{\equiv}N$	$N{\equiv}CC^-HC{\equiv}N$	11	41,48
CH_3COCH_2COOR	CH_3COC^-HCOOR	11	41
$CH_3SO_2CH_2SO_2CH_3$	$CH_3SO_2C^-HSO_2CH_3$	12.5	49
$EtOOCCH_2COOEt$	$EtOOCC^-HCOOEt$	13	41
MeOH	MeO^-	15.2	50,51
H_2O	OH^-	**15.74**	52
		16	53
RCH_2OH	RCH_2O^-	16	50

TABLE 8.1 *(Continued)*

Acid	Base	Approximate pK_a (relative to water)	References
RCH_2CHO	RC^-HCHO	16	54
R_2CHOH	R_2CHO^-	16.5	50
R3COH	R_3CO^-	17	50
$RCONH_2$	$RCONH^-$	17	55
$RCOCH_2R$	$RCOC^-HR$	19–20[d]	57
		**20**	58,59
		20.08[e]	60
		18.91[e]	60
		**23**	58,59
$ROOCCH_2R$	$ROOCC^-HR$	24.5	41
$RCH_2C{\equiv}N$	$RC^-HC{\equiv}N$	25	41,61
$HC{\equiv}CH$	$HC{\equiv}CC^-$	25	62
Ph_2NH	PH_2N^-	24.95[f]	56
$EtOCOCH_3$	$EtOCOCH_2^-$	25.6	63
$PhNH_2$	$PhNH^-$	30.6[f]	56
Ar_3CH	Ar_3C^-	31.5	58,64
Ar_2CH_2	Ar_2CH^-	33.5	58,64
H_2	H^-	35	65
NH_3	NH_2^-	38	66
$PhCH_3$	$PhCH_2^-$	40	67
$CH_2{=}CHCH_3$	$[H_2C{=}{-}CH{=}{-}CH_2]$	43	68
PhH	Ph^-	43	69
$CH_2{=}CH_2$	$CH_2{=}CH^-$	44	70
cyclo-C_3H_6	*cyclo*-$C_3H_5^-$	46	71
CH_4[g]	CH_3^-	48	73
C_2H_6	$C_2H_5^-$	50	74
$(CH_3)_2CH_2$[g]	$(CH_3)_2CH^-$	51	74
$(CH_3)_3CH$[g]	$(CH_3)_3C^-$		75

[a] The values in boldface are exact values; the others are approximate, especially above 18 and below −2.[18]

[b] See ref. 24.

[c] See ref. 44.

[d] See ref. 56.

[e] The pK_a in THE

[f] The pK_a in dimethyl sulforide (DMSO).

[g] See ref. 72.

> H_2O > Bu_2O; from 1 to 50°C the order is BuOH > Bu_2O > H_2O; while below 1°C the order becomes Bu_2O > BuOH > H_2O.[78]

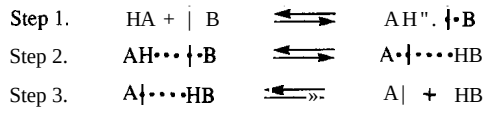
A hydrogen-bond basicity scale has been developed that can be used to determine the relative basicity of molecules. Table 8.2 gives the pK_{HB} values for several common heteroatom containing molecules. This is obtained from the protonated form (conjugated acid) of the base in question. The larger the number, the more basic is that compound.

TABLE 8.2 The pK_{HB} Values for Many Types of Bases

Base	Approximate pK_{HB}	References
N-Methyl-2-piperidone	2.60	79
$Et_2NCONEt_2$	2.43	79
N-Methyl-2-pyrrolidinone	2.38	79
$PhCONMe_2$	2.23	79
$HCONMe_2$	2.10	79
PhCONHMe	2.03	79
18-Crown-6	1.98	80
HCONHMe	1.96	79
15-Crown-5	1.82	80
12-Crown-4	1.73	80
$PhOCONMe_2$	1.70	79
Et_2N—CN	1.63	81
Me_2N—CN	1.56	81
δ-Valerolactone	1.43	82
Oxetane	1.36	80
γ-Butyrolactone	1.32	82
THF	1.28	80
Cyclopentanone	1.27	83
t-BuOMe	1.19	80
Acetone	1.18	83
$MeCO_2Et$	1.07	82
1,4-Dioxane	1.03	80
Et_2O	1.01	80
1,3-Dioxane	0.93	80
1-Methyloxirane	0.97	80
$PhCO_2Me$	0.89	82
$MeOCO_2Me$	0.82	82
PhCHO	0.78	83
Bu_2O	0.75	80
HCO_2Et	0.66	82
MeCHO	0.65	83
Me_2NO_2	0.41	84
$MeNO_2$	0.27	84
$PhNO_2$	0.30	84
Furan	-0.40	80

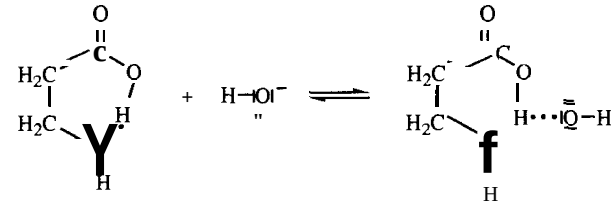
The Mechanism of Proton-Transfer Reactions

Proton transfers between oxygen and nitrogen acids and bases are usually extremely fast.[85] In the thermodynamically favored direction, they are generally diffusion controlled.[86] In fact, a *normal acid* is defined[87] as one whose proton-transfer reactions are completely diffusion controlled, except when the conjugate acid of the base to which the proton is transferred has a *pK* value very close (differs by $\lesssim 2$ *pK* units) to that of the acid. The normal acid-base reaction mechanism consists of three steps:



The actual proton transfer takes place in the second step—the first step is formation of a hydrogen-bonded complex. The product of the second step is another hydrogen-bonded complex, which dissociates in the third step.

However, not all such proton transfers are diffusion controlled. For example, if an internal hydrogen bond exists in a molecule, reaction with an external acid or base is often much slower.[88] In the following case:



3-Hydroxypropanoic acid

the OH^- ion can form a hydrogen bond with the acidic hydrogen only if the internal hydrogen bond breaks. Therefore, only some of the collisions between OH^- ions and 3-hydroxypropanoic acid molecules result in proton transfer. In many collisions, the OH^- ions will come away empty handed, resulting in a lower reaction rate. Note that this affects only the rate, not the equilibrium. Another factor that can create lower rates is a molecular structure in which the acidic proton is protected within a molecular cavity (e.g., the in-in and out-in isomers shown on p. 163). See also the proton sponges mentioned on p. 347. Proton transfers between an acidic and a basic group within the same molecule can also be slow, if the two groups are too far apart for hydrogen bonding. In such cases, participation of solvent molecules may be necessary.

Proton transfers to or from a carbon atom[89] in most cases are much slower than those strictly between oxygen or nitrogen atoms. At least three factors can be responsible for this,[90] not all of them applying in every case:

1. Hydrogen bonding is very weak or altogether absent for carbon (Chapter 3).
2. Many carbon acids, upon losing the proton, form carbanions that are stabilized by resonance. Structural reorganization (movement of atoms to different

positions within the molecule) may accompany this. Chloroform, hydrogen cyanide, and 1-alkynes do not form resonance-stabilized carbanions, and these[91] behave kinetically as normal acids.[92]

3. There may be considerable reorganization of solvent molecules around the ion as compared to the neutral molecule.[93]

In connection with factors 2 and 3, it has been proposed[90] that any factor that stabilizes the product (e.g., by resonance or solvation) lowers the rate constant if it develops late on the reaction coordinate, but increases the rate constant if it develops early. This is called the *principle of imperfect synchronization.*

Mechansims of proton transfer have been studied for many compounds, including the reactions of acids with lactams,[94] amides with various bases,[95] and amines with alkoxide bases.[96]

Measurements of Solvent Acidity[97]

When a solute is added to an acidic solvent it may become protonated by the solvent. If the solvent is water and the concentration of solute is not very great, then the pH of the solution is a good measure of the proton-donating ability of the solvent. Unfortunately, this is no longer true in concentrated solutions because activity coefficients are no longer unity. A measurement of solvent acidity is needed that works in concentrated solutions and applies to mixed solvents as well. The Hammett acidity function[98] is a measurement that is used for acidic solvents of high dielectric constant.[99] For any solvent, including mixtures of solvents (but the proportions of the mixture must be specified), a value H_0 is defined as

$$H_0 = \mathrm{p}K_{\mathrm{BH}^+} - \log \frac{[\mathrm{BH}^+]}{[\mathrm{B}]}$$

where H_0 is measured by using "indicators" that are weak bases (B) and so are partly converted, in these acidic solvents, to the conjugate acids BH^+. Typical indicators are *o*-nitroanilinium ion, with a *pK* in $\mathrm{H_2O}$ of —0.29, and 2,4-dinitroanilinium ion, with a *pK* in $\mathrm{H_2O}$ of -4.53. For a given solvent, $[\mathrm{BH}^+]/[\mathrm{B}]$ is measured for one indicator, usually by spectrophotometric means. Then, using the known *pK* in $\mathrm{H_2O}$ ($\mathrm{p}K_{\mathrm{BH}^+}$) for that indicator, H_0 can be calculated for that solvent system. In practice, several indicators are used, so that an average H_0 is taken. Once H_0 is known for a given solvent system, $\mathrm{p}K_a$ values in it can be calculated for any other acid-base pair.

The symbol h_0 is defined as

$$h_0 = \frac{a_{\mathrm{H}^+} f_{\mathrm{I}}}{f_{\mathrm{HI}^+}}$$

where a_{H^+} is the activity of the proton and f_{I} and f_{HI^+} are the activity coefficients of the indicator and conjugate acid of the indicator,[100] respectively. The parameter H_0

is related to h_0 by

$$H_0 = -\log h_0$$

so that H_0 is analogous to pH and h_0 to $[H^+]$, and indeed in dilute aqueous solution H_0 = pH.

The parameter H_0 reflects the ability of the solvent system to donate protons, but it can be applied only to acidic solutions of high dielectric constant, mostly mixtures of water with acids such as nitric, sulfuric, perchloric, and so on. It is apparent that the H_0 treatment is valid only when $f_1//HI+$ is independent of the nature of the base (the indicator). Since this is so only when the bases are structurally similar, the treatment is limited. Even when similar bases are compared, many deviations are found.[101] Other acidity scales[102] have been set up, among them H_- for bases with a charge of -1, H_R for aryl carbinols,[103] H_C for bases that protonate on carbon,[104] and H_A for unsubstituted amides.[105] It is now clear that there is no single acidity scale that can be applied to a series of solvent mixtures, irrespective of the bases employed.[106]

Although most acidity functions have been applied only to acidic solutions, some work has also been done with strongly basic solutions.[107] The H_- function, which is used for highly acidic solutions when the base has a charge of -1, can also be used for strongly basic solvents, in which case it measures the ability of these solvents to abstract a proton from a neutral acid BH.[108] When a solvent becomes protonated, its conjugate acid is known as a *lyonium ion.*

Another approach to the acidity function problem was proposed by Bunnett and Olsen,[109] who derived the equation

$$\log [SH^+]/[S] + H_0 = \phi(H_0 + \log [H^+]) + pK_{SH^+}$$

where S is a base that is protonated by an acidic solvent. Thus the slope of a plot of $\log ([SH^+]/[S]) + H_0$ against $H_0 + \log [H^+]$ is the parameter ϕ, while the intercept is the pK_a of the lyonium ion SH^+ (referred to infinite dilution in water). The value of ϕ expresses the response of the equilibrium $S + H^+ \leftrightarrows SH^+$ to changing acid concentration. A negative ϕ indicates that the log of the ionization ratio $[SH^+]/[S]$ increases, as the acid concentration increases, more rapidly than $-H_0$. A positive ϕ value indicates the reverse. The Bunnett–Olsen equation given above is a linear free-energy relationship (see p. 371) that pertains to acid-base equilibria. A corresponding equation that applies to kinetic data is

$$\log k_\psi + H_0 = \phi(H_0 + \log [H^+]) + \log k_2^\circ$$

where k_ψ is the pseudo-first-order rate constant for a reaction of a weakly basic substrate taking place in an acidic solution and k_2° is the second-order rate constant at infinite dilution in water. In this case, ϕ characterizes the response of the reaction rate to changing acid concentration of the solvent. The Bunnett-Olsen treatment has also been applied to basic media, where, in a group of nine reactions in concentrated

NaOMe solutions, no correlation was found between reaction rates and either H_- or stoichiometric base concentration but where the rates were successfully correlated by a linear free energy equation similar to those given above.[110]

A treatment partially based on the Bunnett–Olsen one is that of Bagno, Scorrano, and More O'Ferrall,[111] which formulates medium effects (changes in acidity of solvent) on acid-base equilibria. An appropriate equilibrium is chosen as reference, and the acidity dependence of other reactions compared with it, by use of the linear free energy equation

$$\log \frac{K}{K_0} = m \log \frac{K'}{K'_0}$$

where the K values are the equilibrium constants for the following:

The K values for the reaction under study in any particular medium.

The K' values for the reference reaction in the same medium.

The K_0 values for the reaction under study in a reference solvent.

The K'_0 values for the reference reaction in the same reference solvent.

and m* is the slope of the relationship [corresponding to $(1 - \phi)$ of the Bunnett-Olsen treatment]. This equation has been shown to apply to many acid-base reactions.

Another type of classification system was devised by Bunnett[112] for reactions occurring in moderately concentrated acid solutions. Log $k_\psi + H_0$ is plotted against log a_{H_2O}, where K_ψ is the pseudo-first-order rate constant for the protonated species and a_{H_2O} is the activity of water. Most such plots are linear or nearly so. According to Bunnett, the slope of this plot w tells something about the mechanism. Where w is between —2.5 and 0, water is not involved in the rate-determining step; where w is between 1.2 and 3.3, water is a nucleophile in the rate-determining step; where w is between 3.3 and 7, water is a proton-transfer agent. These rules hold for acids in which the proton is attached to oxygen or nitrogen.

A new acidity scale has been developed based on calorimetric measurement of *N*-methylimidazole and *N*-methylpyrrole in bulk solvents.[113] A revised version of this method was shown to give better results in some cases.[114] Another scale of solvent acidities was developed based on the hydrogen-bond donor acidities in aqueous DMSO.[115]

Acid and Base Catalysis[116]

Many reactions are catalyzed by acids, bases, or both. In such cases, the catalyst is involved in a fundamental way in the mechanism. Nearly always, the first step of such a reaction is a proton transfer between the catalyst and the substrate.

Reactions can be catalyzed by acid or base in two different ways, called *general* and *specific catalysis.* If the rate of an acid-catalyzed reaction run in a solvent S is

proportional to $[SH^+]$, the reaction is said to be subject to *specific acid catalysis*, the acid being the lyonium ion, SH^+. The acid that is put into the solvent may be stronger or weaker than SH^+, but the rate is proportional only to the $[SH^+]$ that is actually present in the solution (derived from S + HA $\leftrightarrows$ SH^+ + A~). The identity of HA makes no difference except insofar as it determines the position of equilibrium, and hence the $[SH^+]$. Most measurements have been made in water, where SH^+ is H_3O^+.

In *general acid catalysis*, the rate is increased not only by an increase in $[SH^+]$ but also by an increase in the concentration of other acids (e.g., in water by phenols or carboxylic acids). These other acids increase the rate even when $[SH^+]$ is held constant. In this type of catalysis the strongest acids catalyze best, so that, in the example given, an increase in the phenol concentration catalyzes the reaction much less than a similar increase in $[H_3O^+]$. This relationship between acid strength of the catalyst and its catalytic ability can be expressed by the *Br0nsted catalysis equation*[117]

$$\log k = \alpha \log K_\alpha + C$$

where k is the rate constant for a reaction catalyzed by an acid of ionization constant K_α. According to this equation, when log k is plotted against log K_α for catalysis of a given reaction by a series of acids, a straight line should be obtained with a slope and an intercept C. Although straight lines are obtained in many cases, this is not always the case. The relationship usually fails when acids of different types are compared. For example, it is much more likely to hold for a group of substituted phenols than for a collection of acids that contains both phenols and carboxylic acids. The Br0nsted equation is another linear free energy relationship (see p. 371).

Analogously, there are *general* and *specific* (S^- from an acidic solvent SH) *base-catalyzed reactions*. The Br0nsted law for bases is

$$\log k = \beta \log K_b + C$$

The Br0nsted equations relate a rate constant k to an equilibrium constant K_a. In Chapter 6, we saw that the Marcus equation also relates a rate term (in that case $\Delta G^\ddagger$) to an equilibrium term $AG°$. When the Marcus treatment is applied to proton transfers[118] between a carbon and an oxygen (or a nitrogen), the simplified[119] equation (p. 286)

$$\text{int} \quad 2 \qquad \tfrac{1}{16}\Delta G^{\ddagger\,2}_{\text{int}}$$

where

$$\Delta G^\ddagger_{\text{int}} = \tfrac{1}{2}(\Delta G^\ddagger_{O,O} + \Delta G^\ddagger_{C,C})$$

can be further simplified: Because proton transfers between oxygen and oxygen (or nitrogen and nitrogen) are much faster than those between carbon and carbon,

$\Delta G^{\ddagger}_{O,O}$ is much smaller than $\Delta G^{\ddagger}_{C,C}$ and we can write[120]

$$\Delta G^{\ddagger} = \tfrac{1}{2}\Delta G^{\ddagger}_{C,C} + \tfrac{1}{2}\Delta G^{\circ} + \frac{(\Delta G^{0})^{2}}{8\,\Delta G^{\ddagger}_{C,C}}$$

Thus, if the carbon part of the reaction is kept constant and only the A of HA is changed (where A is an oxygen or nitrogen moiety), then $\Delta G^{\ddagger}$ is dependent only on ΔG°. Differentiation of this equation yields the Br0nsted oc:

$$\frac{d\Delta G^{\ddagger}}{dA G^{\circ}} = \alpha = \frac{1}{2}\left(1 + \frac{\Delta G^{\circ}}{2\,\Delta G^{\ddagger}_{C,C}}\right)$$

The Br0nsted law is therefore a special case of the Marcus equation.

A knowledge of whether a reaction is subject to general or specific acid catalysis supplies information about the mechanism. For any acid-catalyzed reaction we can write

Step 1 $\quad A \overset{SH^{+}}{\rightleftharpoons} AH^{+}$

Step 2 $\quad AH^{+} \longrightarrow$ products

If the reaction is catalyzed only by the specific acid SH ', it means that step 1 is rapid and step 2 is rate controlling, since an equilibrium has been rapidly established between A and the strongest acid present in the solution, namely, SH^{+} (since this is the strongest acid that can be present in S). On the other hand, if step 2 is faster, there is no time to establish equilibrium and the rate-determining step must be step 1. This step is affected by all the acids present, and the rate reflects the sum of the effects of each acid (general acid catalysis). General acid catalysis is also observed if the slow step is the reaction of a hydrogen-bond complex $A \cdots HB$, since each complex reacts with a base at a different rate. A comparable discussion can be used for general and specific base catalysis.[121] Further information can be obtained from the values oc and (3 in the Br0nsted catalysis equations, since these are approximate measures of the extent of proton transfer in the transition state. In most cases, values of α and (3 are between 1 and 0. A value of oc or (3 near 0 is generally taken to mean that the transition state resembles the reactants; that is, the proton has been transferred very little when the transition state has been reached. A value of oc or (3 near 1 is taken to mean the opposite; that is, in the transition state the proton has been almost completely transferred. However, cases are known in which these generalizations are not followed,[122] and their theoretical basis has been challenged.[123] In general, the proton in the transition state lies closer to the weaker base.

Lewis Acids and Bases: Hard and Soft Acids and Bases

At about the same time that Br0nsted proposed his acid-base theory, Lewis put forth a broader theory. A base in the Lewis theory is the same as in the Br0nsted one,

namely, a compound with an available pair of electrons, either unshared or in a *n* orbital. A *Lewis acid,* however, is any species with a vacant orbital.[124] In a Lewis acid-base reaction, the unshared pair of the base forms a covalent bond with the vacant orbital of the acid, as represented by the general equation

$$A + \bar{B} \longrightarrow A\text{-}B$$

in which charges are not shown, since they may differ. A specific example is

$$BF_3 + \bar{N}H_3 \longrightarrow F3\bar{B}\text{-}\overset{+}{N}H3$$

In the Br0nsted picture, the acid is a proton donor, but in the Lewis picture the proton itself is the acid since it has a vacant orbital. A Br0nsted acid becomes, in the Lewis picture, the compound that gives up the actual acid. The advantage of Lewis theory is that it correlates the behavior of many more processes. For example, $AlCl_3$ and BF_3 are Lewis acids because they have only 6 electrons in the outer shell and have room for 8. Both $SnCl_4$ and SO3 have eight, but their central elements, not being in the first row of the periodic table, have room for 10 or 12. Other Lewis acids are simple cations, like Ag^+. The simple reaction A + B → A—B is not very common in organic chemistry, but the scope of the Lewis picture is much larger because reactions of the types

$$A^1 + A^2\text{—}B \longrightarrow A^1\text{—}B + A^2$$

$$B^1 + A\text{-}B^2 \longrightarrow A\text{-}B^1 + B^2$$

$$A^1\text{—}B^1 + A^2\text{—}B^2 \longrightarrow A^1\text{—}B^2 + A^2\text{—}B^1$$

which are very common in organic chemistry, are also Lewis acid-base reactions. In fact, all reactions in which a covalent bond is formed through one species contributing a filled and the other a vacant orbital may be regarded as Lewis acid-base reactions. An *ab initio* analysis of the factors that determine Lewis versus Lowry-Br0nsted acidity/basicity is available.[125]

When a Lewis acid combines with a base to give a negative ion in which the central atom has a higher than normal valence, the resulting salt is called an *ate complex}*[26] Examples are

$$Me_3B + LiMe \longrightarrow \underset{\text{ate Complex}}{Me_4B^-\ Li^+}$$

$$Ph_5Sb + LiPh \longrightarrow \underset{\text{ate Complex}}{Ph_6\bar{S}b\ Li^+}$$

The ate complexes are analogous to the onium salts formed when a Lewis base expands its valence, for example,

$$Me_3N + MeI \longrightarrow \underset{\text{Onium salt}}{Me_4N^+I^-}$$

Far fewer quantitative measurements have been made of Lewis acid strength compared to that of Br0nsted acids.[127] A simple table of Lewis acidities based on some quantitative measurement (such as that given for Br0nsted acids in Table 8.1) is not feasible because Lewis acidity depends on the nature of the base. Qualitatively, the following approximate sequence of acidity of Lewis acids of the type MX_n has been suggested, where X is a halogen atom or an inorganic radical: $BX_3 > AlX_3 > FeX_3 > GaX_3 > SbX_5 > SnX_4 > AsX_5 > ZnX_2 > HgX_2$.

The facility with which an acid-base reaction takes place depends of course on the strengths of the acid and the base. But it also depends on quite another quality, called the *hardness* or *softness* of the acid or base.[128] Hard and soft acids and bases have these characteristics:

Soft Bases. The donor atoms are of low electronegativity and high polarizability and are easy to oxidize. They hold their valence electrons loosely.

Hard Bases. The donor atoms are of high electronegativity and low polarizability and are hard to oxidize. They hold their valence electrons tightly.

Soft Acids. The acceptor atoms are large, have low positive charge, and contain unshared pairs of electrons *(p* or *d)* in their valence shells. They have high polarizability and low electronegativity.

Hard Acids. The acceptor atoms are small, have high positive charge, and do not contain unshared pairs in their valence shells. They have low polarizability and high electronegativity.

A qualitative listing of the hardness of some acids and bases is given in Table 8.3.[129] The treatment has also been made quantitative,[130] with the following operational definition:

$$\eta = \frac{I - A}{2}$$

TABLE 8.3 Hard and Soft Acids and Bases

Hard Bases	Soft Bases	Borderline Cases
H_2O OH^- F^-	R_sS RSH RS"	$ArNH_2$ C5H5N
AcO^- SO_4^{2-} Cr	I^-R_3P $(RO)_3P$	N_3^- Br^-
CO_3^{2-} NO_3^- ROH	CN^-RCN CO	NO_2^-
RO^- R_2O NH_3	C_2H_4 C_6H_6	
RNH_2	H^- R^-	
Hard Acids	**Soft Acids**	**Borderline Cases**
H^+ Li^+ Na^+	Cu^+ Ag^+ Pd^{2+}	Fe^{2+} Co^{2+} Cu^{2+}
K^+ Mg^{2+} Ca^{2+}	Pt^{2+} Hg^{2+} BH_3	Zn^{2+} Sn^{2+} Sb^{3+}
Al^{3+} Cr^{2+} Fe^{3+}	$GaCl_3$ I_2 Br_2	Bi^{3+} BM_{e3} SO_2
BF_3 $B(OR)_3$ $AlMe_3$	CH_2 carbenes	R_3c^+ NO^+ GaH_3
$AlCl_3$ AlH_3 SO_3		$C_6H_5^+$
RCO^+ CO_2		
HX (hydrogen-bonding molecules)		

In this equation, *r* the *absolute hardness,* is one-half the difference between /, the ionization potential, and A, the electron affinity. The softness, a, is the reciprocal of η. Values of η for some molecules and ions are given in Table 8.4.[131] Note that the proton, which is involved in all Br0nsted acid-base reactions, is the hardest acid listed, with η = oo (it has no ionization potential). The above equation cannot be applied to anions, because electron affinities cannot be measured for them. Instead, the assumption is made that η for an anion X^- is the same as that for the radical $X\cdot$.[132] Other methods are also needed to apply the treatment to polyatomic cations.[132]

Once acids and bases have been classified as hard or soft, a simple rule can be given: *hard acids prefer to bond to hard bases, and soft acids prefer to bond to soft bases (the HSAB principle).*[133] The rule has nothing to do with acid or base *strength* but merely says that the product A—B will have extra stability if both A and B are hard or if both are soft. Another rule is that a soft Lewis acid and a soft Lewis base

TABLE 8.4 Some Absolute Hardness Values

Cations		Molecules		Anions[a]	
Ion	η(eV)	Compound	η(eV)	Ion	η(eV)
H^+	00	HF	11.0	F^-	7.0
Al^{3+}	45.8	CH_4	10.3	H^-	6.4
Li^+	35.1	BF_3	9.7	OH^-	5.7
Mg^{2+}	32.6	H_2O	9.5	NH_2^-	5.3
Na^+	21.1	NH_3	8.2	CN^-	5.1
Ca^{2+}	19.5	HCN	8.0	CH_3^-	4.9
K^+	13.6	$(ME)_2O$	8.0	cr	4.7
Zn^{2+}	10.9	CO	7.9	$CH_3CH_2^-$	4.4
Cr^{3+}	9.1	C_2H_2	7.0	Br^-	4.2
Cu^{2+}	8.3	$(ME)_3N$	6.3	$C_6H_5^-$	4.1
Pt^{2+}	8.0	H_2S	6.2	SH^-	4.1
Sn^{2+}	7.9	C_2H_4	6.2	$(ME)_2CH^-$	4.0
Hg^{2+}	7.7	$(ME)_2S$	6.0	I^-	3.7
Fe^{2+}	7.2	$(ME)_3P$	5.9	$(ME)_3C^-$	3.6
Pd^{2+}	6.8	CH_3COCH_3	5.6		
Cu^+	6.3	C_6H_6	5.3		
		HI	5.3		
		C5H5N	5.0		
		PhOH	4.8		
		CH_2[b]	4.7		
		PhSH	4.6		
		Cl_2	4.6		
		$PhNH_2$	4.4		
		Br_2	4.0		
		I2	3.4		

[a] The same as for the corresponding radical.
[b] For singlet state.

tend to form a covalent bond, while a hard acid and a hard base tend to form ionic bonds.

One application of the first rule given above is found in complexes between alkenes or aromatic compounds and metal ions (p. 102). Alkenes and aromatic rings are soft bases and should prefer to complex with soft acids. Thus, Ag^+, Pt^{2+}, and Hg^{2+} complexes are common, but complexes of Na^+, Mg^{2+}, or Al^{3+} are rare. Chromium complexes are also common, but in such complexes the chromium is in a low or zero oxidation state (which softens it) or attached to other soft ligands. In another application, we may look at this reaction:

$$CH_3-\underset{\underset{O}{\|}}{C}-SR' + OR^- \rightleftharpoons CH_3-\underset{\underset{O}{\|}}{C}-OR + SR'^-$$

The HSAB principle predicts that the equilibrium should lie to the right, because the hard acid CH_3CO^+ should have a greater affinity for the hard base RO^- than for the soft base RS^-. Indeed, thiol esters are easily cleaved by OR^- or hydrolyzed by dilute base (OH^- is also a hard base).[134] Another application of the rule is discussed on page 439.[135] The HSAB principles have been applied to analyze the reactivity of ketone and ester enolates.[136]

The Effects of Structure on the Strengths of Acids and Bases[137]

The structure of a molecule can affect its acidity or basicity in a number of ways. Unfortunately, in most molecules two or more of these effects (as well as solvent effects) are operating, and it is usually very difficult or impossible to say how much each effect contributes to the acid or base strength.[138] Small differences in acidity or basicity between similar molecules are particularly difficult to interpret. It is well to be cautious when attributing them to any particular effect.

1. *Field Effects.* These were discussed on page 16. As an example of the influence of field effects on acidity, we may compare the acidity of acetic acid and nitroacetic acid:

$$H-CH_2-\underset{\underset{O}{\|}}{C}-O-H \qquad O_2N-CH_2-\underset{\underset{O}{\|}}{C}-O-H$$

$pK_a = 4.76$ $\qquad$ $pK_a = 1.68$

The only difference in the structure of these molecules is the substitution of NO_2 for H. Since NO_2 is a strongly electron-withdrawing group, it withdraws electron density from the negatively charged COO^- group in the anion of nitroacetic acid (compared with the anion of acetic acid) and, as the pK_a values indicate, nitroacetic acid is ~ 1000 times stronger than acetic acid.[139] Any effect that results in electron withdrawal from a negatively charged center is a stabilizing effect because it spreads the charge. Thus, — / groups increase the acidity of uncharged acids such as acetic because they spread the negative charge of the anion. However, — / groups also increase the acidity of any acid, no matter what the charge. For example, if the acid has a charge of

+ 1 (and its conjugate base is therefore uncharged), a − / group destabilizes the positive center (by increasing and concentrating the positive charge) of the acid, a destabilization that will be relieved when the proton is lost. In general, we may say that *groups that withdraw electrons by the field effect increase acidity and decrease basicity, while electron-donating groups act in the opposite direction.* Another example is the molecule $(C_6F_5)_3CH$, which has three strongly electron-withdrawing C_6F_5 groups and a pK_a of 16,[140] compared with Ph_3CH, with a pK_a of 31.5 (Table 8.1), an acidity enhancement of $\sim 10^{15}$. Table 8.5[40] shows pK_a values for some acids. An approximate idea of field effects can be obtained from this table. In the case of the chlorobutyric acids note how the effect decreases with distance. It must be remembered, however, that field effects are not the sole cause of the acidity differences noted and that in fact solvation effects may be more important in many cases (see pp. 349–351).[141] The influence of various substituents on the acidity of acetic acid has been calculated.[142]

X = o, m, p

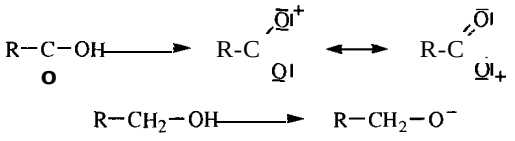
Field effects are important in benzoic acid derivatives, and the pK_a of the acid will vary with the nature and placement of the "X"group in 1. The pK_a of 3-OMe (1) is 5.55 but 4-OMe (1) is 6.02 in 50% aqueous methanol,[143] compared with a pK_a of 5.67 when X = H. When X = 4-NO_2, the pK_a is 4.76 and 4-Br is 5.36.[135] The pK_a of 2,6-diphenylbenzoic acid is 6.39.[144]

2. *Resonance Effects.* Resonance that stabilizes a base but not its conjugate acid results in the acid having a higher acidity than otherwise expected and vice

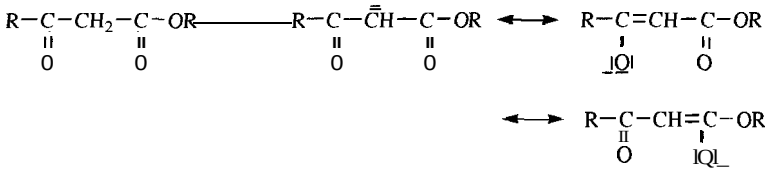
TABLE 8.5 The pK Values for Some Acids

Acid	*pK*	Acid	*pK*
HCOOH	3.77	$ClCH_2COOH$	2.86
CH3COOH	4.76	$Cl_2CHCOOH$	1.29
CH3CH2COOH	4.88	Cl_3COOH	0.65
$CH_3(CH_2)_nCOOH$ (n = 2-7)	4.82-4.95	O_2NCH_2COOH	1.68
$(CH_3)_2CHCOOH$	4.86	$(CH_3)_3N^+CH_2COOH$	1.83
$(CH_3)_3CCOOH$	5.05	$HOOCCH_2COOH$	2.83
		$PhCH_2COOH$	4.31
FCH_2COOH	2.66		
$ClCH_2COOH$	2.86	$^-OOCCH_2COOH$	5.69
$BrCH_2COOH$	2.86		
ICH_2COOH	3.12	$^-O_3SCH_2COOH$	4.05
		$HOCH_2COOH$	3.83
$ClCH_2CH_2CH_2COOH$	4.52	$H_2C{=}CHCH_2COOH$	4.35
$CH_3CHClCH_2COOH$	4.06		
$CH_3CH_2CHClCOOH$	2.84		

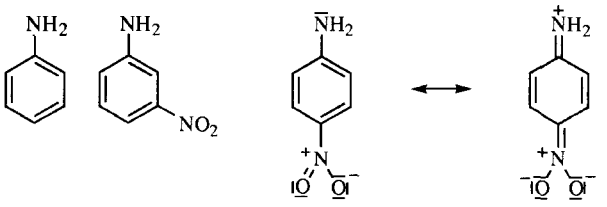
versa. An example is found in the higher acidity of carboxylic acids compared with primary alcohols.



The $RCOO^-$ ion is stabilized by resonance not available to the RCH_2O^- ion (or to RCOOH).[145] Note that the $RCOO^-$ is stabilized not only by the fact that there are two equivalent canonical forms but also by the fact that the negative charge is spread over both oxygen atoms and is therefore less concentrated than in RCH_2O^-. The same effect is found in other compounds containing a C=O or C=N group. Thus amides $RCONH_2$ are more acidic than amines (RCH_2NH_2); esters (RCH_2COOR') than ethers (RCH_2CH_2OR'); and ketones (RCH_2COR') than alkanes (RCH_2CH_2R') (Table 8.1). The effect is enhanced when two carbonyl groups are attached to the same carbon (because of additional resonance and spreading of charge); for example, (3-keto esters are more acidic than simple ketones or carboxylic esters (Table 8.1). Extreme examples of this effect are found in the molecules tricyanomethane, $(NC)_3CH$, with a pK_a of -5 (Table 8.1, p. XXX), and 2-(dicyanomethylene)-l,l,3,3-tetracyanopropene, $(NC)_2C{=}C[CH(CN)_2]_2$, whose first pK_a is below —8.5 and whose second pK_a is —2.5.



Resonance effects are also important in aromatic amines. *m*-Nitroaniline is a weaker base than aniline, a fact that can be accounted for by the — / effect of the nitro group. But *p*-nitroaniline is weaker still, though the -/ effect should be less because of the greater distance. We can explain this result by taking into account the canonical form A. Because A contributes to the resonance hybrid,[146] the electron density of the unshared pair is lower in *p*-nitroaniline than in *m*-nitroaniline, where a canonical form such as Ais impossible. The basicity is lower in the para compound for two reasons, both



pK_a of conjugate acid[147]	4.60	2.47		1.11	A

caused by the same effect: (1) the unshared pair is less available for attack by a proton, and (2) when the conjugate acid is formed, the resonance stabilization afforded by A is no longer available because the previously unshared pair is now being shared by the proton. The acidity of phenols is affected by substituents in a similar manner.

In general, resonance effects lead to the same result as field effects. That is, here too, electron-withdrawing groups increase acidity and decrease basicity, and electron-donating groups act in the opposite manner. As a result of both resonance and field effects, charge dispersal leads to greater stability.

3. *Periodic Table Correlations.* When comparing Br0nsted acids and bases that differ in the position of an element in the periodic table:

   1. Acidity increases and basicity decreases in going from left to right across a row of the periodic table. Thus acidity increases in the order CH_4 < NH3 < H_2O < HF, and basicity decreases in the order $CH_3^- > NH_2^- > OH^- > F^-$. This behavior can be explained by the increase in electronegativity upon going from left to right across the table. It is this effect that is responsible for the great differences in acidity between carboxylic acids, amides, and ketones: RCOOH $\gg RCONH_2 \gg RCOCH_3$.
   2. Acidity increases and basicity decreases in going down a column of the periodic table, despite the decrease in electronegativity. Thus acidity increases in the order HF < HC1 < HBr < HI and $H_2O < H_2S$, and basicity decreases in the order NH_3 > PH3 > AsH_3. This behavior is related to the size of the species involved. Thus, for example, F^-, which is much smaller than I^-, attracts a proton much more readily because its negative charge occupies a smaller volume and is therefore more concentrated (note that F^- is also much harder than I^- and is thus more attracted to the hard proton; see pp. 341-342). This rule does not always hold for positively charged acids. Thus, although the order of acidity for the group 16 (VI A) hydrides is $H_2O < H_2S < H_2Se$, the acidity order for the positively charged ions is $H_3O^+ > H_3S^+ > H_3Se^+$.[148]

   Lewis acidity is also affected by periodic table considerations. In comparing acid strengths of Lewis acids of the form MX_n:[127]

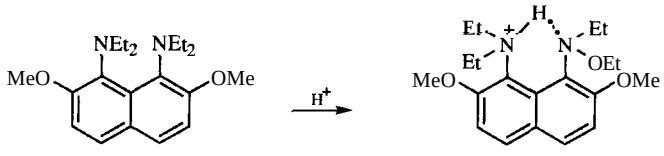
   3. Acids that require only one electron pair to complete an outer shell are stronger than those that require two. Thus $GaCl_3$ is stronger than $ZnCl_2$. This results from the relatively smaller energy gain in adding an electron pair that does not complete an outer shell and from the buildup of negative charge if two pairs come in.
   4. Other things being equal, the acidity of MX_n decreases in going down the periodic table because as the size of the molecule increases, the attraction between the positive nucleus and the incoming electron pair is weaker. Thus BCl_3 is a stronger acid than $AlCl_3$.[149]

4. *Statistical Effects.* In a symmetrical diprotic acid, the first dissociation constant is twice as large as expected since there are two equivalent ionizable

hydrogens, while the second constant is only one-half as large as expected because the conjugate base can accept a proton at two equivalent sites. So K_1/K_2 should be 4, and approximately this value is found for dicarboxylic acids where the two groups are sufficiently far apart in the molecule that they do not influence each other. A similar argument holds for molecules with two equivalent basic groups.[150]

5. *Hydrogen Bonding.* Internal hydrogen bonding can greatly influence acid or base strength. For example, the pK for *o*-hydroxybenzoic acid is 2.98, while the value for the para isomer is 4.58. Internal hydrogen bonding between the OH and COO^- groups of the conjugate base of the ortho isomer stabilizes it and results in an increased acidity.
6. *Steric Effects.* The proton itself is so small that direct steric hindrance is seldom encountered in proton transfers. Steric effects are much more common in Lewis acid-base reactions in which larger acids are used. Spectacular changes in the order of base strength have been demonstrated when the size of the acid was changed. Table 8.6 shows the order of base strength of simple amines when compared against acids of various size.[151] It can be seen that the usual order of basicity of amines (when the proton is the reference acid) can be completely inverted by using a large enough acid. The strain caused by formation of a covalent bond when the two atoms involved each have three large groups is called *face strain* or *F strain.*

   Steric effects can indirectly affect acidity or basicity by affecting the resonance (see p. 43). For example, *o-tert*-butylbenzoic acid is ~10 times as strong as the para isomer, because the carboxyl group is forced out of the plane by the *tert*-butyl group. Indeed, virtually all ortho benzoic acids are stronger than the corresponding para isomers, regardless of whether the group on the ring is electron donating or electron withdrawing.



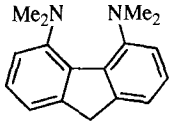
2 3

TABLE 8.6 Bases **Listed in Increasing Order of Base Strength when Compared with Certain Reference Acids**

Increasing Order of Base Strength[a]	Reference Acid			
	H^+ or BMe_3	BMe_3	$B(CMe_3)_3$	
↓	NH_3	Et_3N	Me_3N	Et_3N
1	Me_3N	NH_3	Me_2NH	Et_2NH
	$MeNH_2$	Et_2NH	NH_3	$EtNH_2$
	Me_2NH	$EtNH_2$	$MeNH_2$	NH_3

[a]The order of basicity (when the reference acids were boranes) was determined by the measurement of dissociation pressures.

Steric effects can also be caused by other types of strain. 1,8-Bis-(diethylamino)-2,7-dimethoxynaphthalene (2) is an extremely strong base for a tertiary amine (pK_a of the conjugate acid = 16.3; compare *N,N*-dimethylaniline, pK_a = 5.1), but proton transfers to and from the nitrogen are exceptionally slow; slow enough to be followed by a UV spectrophotometer.[152] Compound 2 is severely strained because the two nitrogen lone pairs are forced to be near each other.[153] Protonation relieves the strain: one lone pair is now connected to a hydrogen, which forms a hydrogen bond to the other lone pair (shown in 3). The same effects are found in 4,5-bis



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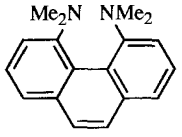
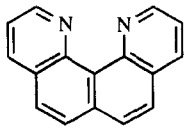


5

(dimethylamino)fluorene (4)[154] and 4,5-bis(dimethylamino)phenanthrene (5).[155] Compounds such as 2, 4, and 5 are known as *proton sponges.*[156] Another type of proton sponge is quino[7,8-*h*]quinoline (**6**).[157] Protonation of this compound also gives a stable monoprotonated ion similar to 3, but the steric hindrance found in 2, 4, and 5 is absent. Therefore 6 is a much stronger base than quinoline (7) (pK_a values of the conjugate acids are 12.8 for 6 and 4.9 for 7), but proton transfers are not abnormally slow.



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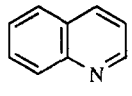

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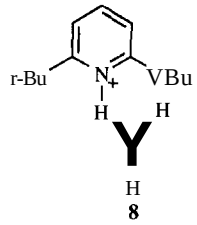

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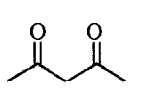
Another type of steric effect is the result of an entropy effect. The compound 2,6-di-*tert*-butylpyridine is a weaker base than either pyridine or 2,6-dimethylpyridine.[158] The reason is that the conjugate acid (8) is less stable than the conjugate acids of nonsterically hindered pyridines. In all cases, the conjugate acids are hydrogen bonded to a water molecule, but in the case of 8 the bulky *tert*-butyl groups restrict rotations in the water molecule, lowering the entropy.[159]

The conformation of a molecule can also affect its acidity. The following pK_a values were determined for these compounds:[160]



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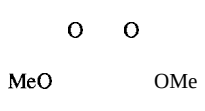

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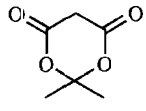
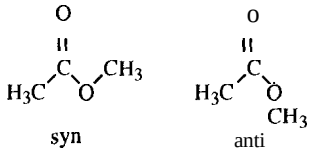


12

pK_a	13.3	11.2	15.9	7.3

Since ketones are stronger acids than carboxylic esters (Table 8.1), we are not surprised that 9 is a stronger acid than 11. But cyclization of 9 to 10 increases the acidity by only 2.1 pK units while cyclization of 11 to 12 increases it by 8.6 units. Indeed, it has long been known that 12 (called Meldrum's acid) is an unusually strong acid for a 1,3-diester. The work of two groups explained



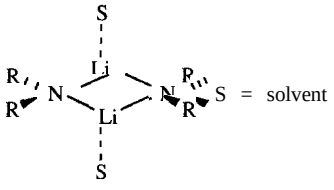
this very large cyclization effect with MO calculations carried out on two conformations of methyl acetate and its enolate anion.[161] Both found that loss of a proton is easier by ~ 5 kcal mol^{-1} (21 kJ mol^{-1}) for the syn than for the anti conformer of the ester. In an acyclic molecule like 11 the preferred conformations are anti, but in Meldrum's acid (12) the conformation on both sides is constrained to be syn.

When a Lewis acid coordinates to a base, the resulting complex can have conformational properties that influence reactivity. Coordination of $SnCl_4$ with aldehydes and esters, for example, leads to a complex where the conformation is determined by interactions of the $C{=}O\cdots SnCl_4$ unit with substituents attached to the carbonyl.[162]

7. *Hybridization.* An *s* orbital has a lower energy than a *p* orbital. Therefore the energy of a hybrid orbital is lower the more *s* character it contains. It follows that a carbanion at an *sp* carbon is more stable than a corresponding carbanion at an sp^2 carbon. Thus $HC{\equiv}C^-$, which has more *s* character in its unshared pair than $CH_2{=}CH^-$ or $CH_3CH_2^-$ (*sp* vs. sp^2 vs. sp^3, respectively), is a much weaker base. This explains the relatively high acidity of acetylenes and HCN. Another example is that alcohol and ether oxygens, where the unshared pair is sp^3, are more strongly basic than carbonyl oxygens, where the unshared pair is sp^2 (Table 8.1).

A recent development in understanding the reactivity of bases has focused on their structures in solution and in the crystalline state. Due to the importance of dialkyl amide bases, there is a significant body of work, led by Williard[163] and Collum[165], that has attempted to understand the structures of these reactive molecules. It is clear that they are aggregates. Lithium diisopropylamide (LiN*i*-Pr_2) was isolated from a THF solution and X-ray crystallography revealed a dimeric structure (13; R = *i*-Pr, S = THF) in the solid state.[163] It was also shown to be a dimer in solutions of THF[164] and/or HMPA (see 13, R = *i-Pr* and S = THF, HMPA).[165] In the presence of HMPA, many derivatives (13) tend to be mixed aggregates.[166] Extremely hindered $LiNR_2$ (R = 2-adamantyl) are monomeric under all conditions.[167] In hydrocarbon solvents, lithium tetramethylpiperidide (LTMP or RR'NLi), where RR' = $-CMe_2(CH_2)_3C(Me_2)-$, forms cyclic trimers and tetramers, with the tetrameric species predominating.[168] In THF, lithium hexamethyldi-

silazide (LHMDS) or $(Me_3Si)_2NLi$ forms a five-coordinate tetrasolvate, $(Me_3Si)_2NLi(thf)_4$,[169] but in ether there is an equilibrium mixture of monomer and dimer.[170] A review is available that discusses the solution structures of amide bases $LiNR_2$.[171] Chiral lithium amide bases are known and they show similar behavior in solution.[172]



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Similar information is available for other bases. Lithium phenoxide (LiOPh) is a tetramer in THF.[173] Lithium 3,5-dimethylphenoxide is a tetramer in ether, but addition of HMPA leads to dissociation to a monomer.[174]

The Effects of the Medium on Acid and Base Strength

Structural features are not the only factors that affect acidity or basicity. The same compound can have its acidity or basicity changed when the conditions are changed. The effect of temperature (p. 332) has already been mentioned. More important is the effect of the solvent, which can exert considerable influence on acid and base strengths by differential solvation.[175] If a base is more solvated than its conjugate acid, its stability is increased relative to the conjugate acid. For example, Table 8.6 shows that toward the proton, where steric effects are absent, methylamine is a stronger base than ammonia and dimethylamine is stronger still.[176] These results are easily explainable if one assumes that methyl groups are electron donating. However, trimethylamine, which should be even stronger, is a weaker base than dimethylamine or methylamine. This apparently anomalous behavior can be explained by differential hydration.[177] Thus, NH_4^+ is much better hydrated (by hydrogen bonding to the water solvent) than NH_3 because of its positive charge.[178] It has been estimated that this effect contributes ~ 11 *pK* units to the base strength of ammonia.[179] When methyl groups replace hydrogen, this difference in hydration decreases[180] until, for trimethylamine, it contributes only ~6 *pK* units to the base strength.[179] Thus two effects act in opposite directions, the field effect increasing the basicity as the number of methyl groups increases and the hydration effect decreasing it. When the effects are added, the strongest base is dimethylamine and the weakest is ammonia. If alkyl groups are electron donating, one would expect that in the gas phase,[181] where the solvation effect does not exist, the basicity order of amines toward the proton should be $R_3N > R_2NH > RNH_2 > NH_3$, and this has indeed been confirmed, for R = Me as well as R = Et and Pr.[182] Aniline too, in the gas phase, is a stronger base than NH_3,[183] so its much lower basicity in aqueous solution

(pK_a of $PhNH_3^+$ 4.60 compared with 9.24 for aqueous NH_4^+) is caused by similar solvation effects and not by resonance and field electron-withdrawing effects of a phenyl group. Similarly, pyridine[184] and pyrrole[185] are both much less basic than NH_3 in aqueous solution (pyrrole[186] is neutral in aqueous solution) but *more* basic in the gas phase. These examples in particular show how careful one must be in attributing relative acidities or basicities to any particular effect. Solvent has a significant influence on the Hammett reaction constant (p. 334), which influences the acidity of substituted benzoic acids.[187]

In the case of Lewis acids, protic solvents such as water or alcohol can strongly influence their reactivity, cause it to react via an alternative path to the one desired, or even cause decomposition. Recently, rare earth metal triflates were used to develop water tolerant Lewis acids that can be used in many organic reactions.[188]

For simple alcohols, the order of gas-phase *acidity* is completely reversed from that in aqueous solution. In solution, the acidity is in the order $H_2O > MeCH_2OH > Me_2CHOH > Me_3COH$, but in the gas phase the order is precisely the opposite.[189] Once again solvation effects can be invoked to explain the differences. Comparing the two extremes, H_2O and Me_3COH, we see that the OH^- ion is very well solvated by water while the bulky Me_3CO^- is much more poorly solvated because the water molecules cannot get as close to the oxygen. Thus in solution H_2O gives up its proton more readily. When solvent effects are absent, however, the intrinsic acidity is revealed and Me_3COH is a stronger acid than H_2O. This result demonstrates that simple alkyl groups cannot be simply regarded as electron donating. If methyl is an electron-donating group, then Me_3COH should be an intrinsically weaker acid than H_2O, yet it is stronger. A similar pattern is found with carboxylic acids, where simple aliphatic acids such as propanoic are stronger than acetic acid in the gas phase,[190] though weaker in aqueous solution (Table 8.5). The evidence in these and other cases[191] is that alkyl groups can be electron donating when connected to unsaturated systems but in other systems may have either no effect or may actually be electron withdrawing. The explanation given for the intrinsic gas-phase acidity order of alcohols as well as the basicity order of amines is that alkyl groups, because of their polarizability, can spread both positive and negative charges.[192] It has been calculated that even in the case of alcohols the field effects of the alkyl groups are still operating normally, but are swamped by the greater polarizability effects.[193] Polarizability effects on anionic centers are a major factor in gas-phase acid-base reactions.[194]

TABLE 8.7 **Thermodynamic** Values for the **Ionizations** of Acetic and Chloroacetic Acids in H_2O at 25° C

Acid		*AG*		*AH*		*TAS*	
CH3COOH	4.76	+6.5	+27	-0.1	-0.4	-6.6	-28
$ClCH_2COOH$	2.86	+3.9	+ 16	-1.1	-4.6	-5.0	-21
Cl_3CCOOH	0.65	+0.9	+3.8	+ 1.5	+6.3	+0.6	+2.5

It has been shown (by running reactions on ions that are solvated in the gas phase) that solvation by even one molecule of solvent can substantially affect the order of basicities.[195]

An important aspect of solvent effects is the effect on the orientation of solvent molecules when an acid or base is converted to its conjugate. For example, consider an acid RCOOH converted to $RCOO^-$ in aqueous solution. The solvent molecules, by hydrogen bonding, arrange themselves around the COO^- group in a much more orderly fashion than they had been arranged around the COOH group (because they are more strongly attracted to the negative charge). This represents a considerable loss of freedom and a decrease in entropy. Thermodynamic measurements show that for simple aliphatic and halogenated aliphatic acids in aqueous solution at room temperature, the entropy *(TAS)* usually contributes much more to the total free energy change *AG* than does the enthalpy *AH.*[196] Two examples are shown in Table 8.7.[197] Resonance and field effects of functional groups therefore affect the acidity of RCOOH in two distinct ways. They affect the enthalpy (electron-withdrawing groups increase acidity by stabilizing RCOO" by charge dispersal), but they also affect the entropy (by lowering the charge on the COO^- group and by changing the electron-density distribution in the COOH group, electron-withdrawing groups alter the solvent orientation patterns around both the acid and the ion, and consequently change *AS).*

A change from a protic to an aprotic solvent can also affect the acidity or basicity, since there is a difference in solvation of anions by a protic solvent, which can form hydrogen bonds, and an aprotic one.[198] The effect can be extreme: in DMF, picric acid is stronger than HBr,[199] though in water HBr is far stronger. This particular result can be attributed to size. That is, the large ion $(O_2N)_3C_6H_2O^-$ is better solvated by DMF than the smaller ion Br^-.[200] The ionic strength of the solvent also influences acidity or basicity, since it has an influence on activity coefficients.

In summary, solvation can have powerful effects on acidity and basicity. In the gas phase, the effects discussed in the previous section, especially resonance and field effects, operate unhindered by solvent molecules. As we have seen, electron-withdrawing groups generally increase acidity (and decrease basicity); electron-donating groups act in the opposite way. In solution, especially aqueous solution, these effects still largely persist, which is why p*K* values in Table 8.5 do largely correlate with resonance and field effects, but in general are much weakened, and occasionally reversed.[141].

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[4] Although equilibrium is reached in most acid-base reactions extremely rapidly (see p. 333), some are slow (especially those in which the proton is given up by a carbon) and in these cases time must be allowed for the system to come to equilibrium.

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CHAPTER 9

Effects of Structure on Reactivity

When the equation for a reaction of, say, carboxylic acids, is written, it is customary to use the formula RCOOH, which implies that all carboxylic acids undergo the reaction. Since most compounds with a given functional group do give more or less the same reactions, the custom is useful, and the practice is used in this book. It allows a large number of individual reactions to be classified together and serves as an aid both for memory and understanding. Organic chemistry would be a huge morass of unconnected facts without the symbol R. Nevertheless, it must be borne in mind that a given functional group does not always react the same way, regardless of what molecule it is a part of. The reaction at the functional group is influenced by the rest of the molecule. This influence may be great enough to stop the reaction completely or to make it take an entirely different course. Even when two compounds with the same functional group undergo the same reaction, the rates and/or the positions of equilibrium are usually different, sometimes slightly, sometimes greatly, depending on the structures of the compounds. The greatest variations may be expected when additional functional groups are present.

The effects of structure on reactivity can be divided into three major types: field, resonance (or mesomeric), and steric.[1] In most cases two or all three of these are operating, and it is usually not easy to tell how much of the rate enhancement (or decrease) is caused by each of the three effects.

Resonance and Field Effects

It is often particularly difficult to separate resonance and field effects; they are frequently grouped together under the heading of *electrical effects*.[2] Field effects were discussed on pages 16-18. Table 1.3 contains a list of some +/ and – / groups. As for resonance effects, on page 42 it was shown how the electron density distribution in aniline is not the same as it would be if there were no resonance interaction between the ring and the NH_2 group. Most groups that contain an unshared pair on an atom connected to an unsaturated system display a similar effect; that is, the electron density on the group is less than expected, and the density on the unsaturated system is greater. Such groups are said to be electron donating by the resonance effect *(+M* groups). Alkyl groups, which do not have an unshared pair, are also *+M* groups, presumably because of hyperconjugation.

TABLE 9.1 Some Groups with +*M* and −*M* Effects, Not Listed in Order of Strength of Effect

+*M*		−*M*	
O^-	SR	NO_2	CHO
S^-	SH	CN	COR
NR_2	Br	COOH	SO_2R
NHR	I	COOR	SO_2OR
NH_2	Cl	$CONH_2$	NO
NHCOR	F	CONHR	Ar[a]
OR	R	$CONR_2$	
OH	Ar[a]		
OCOR			

[a]The group Ar appears in both lists because it is capable of both kinds of effect.

On the other hand, groups that have a multiple-bonded electronegative atom directly connected to an unsaturated system are − *M* groups. In such cases, we can draw canonical forms in which electrons have been taken from the unsaturated system into the group, for example,

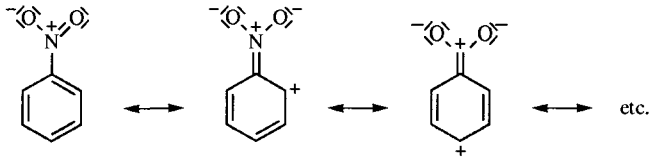
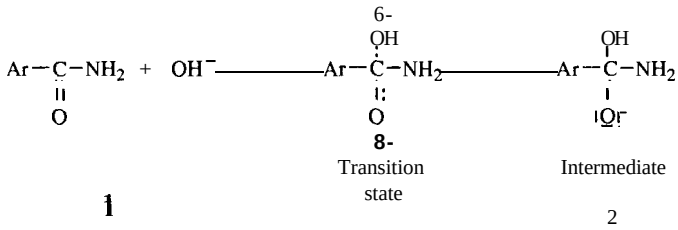


Table 9.1 contains a list of some +*M* and —*M* groups.

The resonance effect of a group, whether +*M* or − *M*, operates only when the group is directly connected to an unsaturated system, so that, for example, in explaining the effect of the CH_3O group on the reactivity of the COOH in $CH_3OCH_2CH_2COOH$, only the field effect of the CH_3O need be considered. This is one way of separating the two effects. In *p*-methoxybenzoic acid both effects must be considered. The field effect operates through space, solvent molecules, or the a bonds of a system, while the resonance effect operates through *n* electrons.

It must be emphasized once again that neither by the resonance nor by the field effect are any electrons actually being donated or withdrawn, though these terms are convenient (and we shall use them). As a result of both effects, the electron-density distribution is not the same as it would be without the effect (see pp. 17, 42). One thing that complicates the study of these effects on the reactivity of compounds is that a given group may have an effect in the transition state which is considerably more or less than it has in the molecule that does not react.

An example will show the nature of electrical effects (resonance and field) on reactivity. In the alkaline hydrolysis of aromatic amides (10-11), the rate-determining step is the attack of hydroxide ion at the carbonyl carbon:



1 2

In the transition state, which has a structure somewhere between that of the starting amide (1) and the intermediate (2), the electron density on the carbonyl carbon is increased. Therefore, electron-withdrawing groups ($-I$ or $-M$) on the aromatic ring will lower the free energy of the transition state (by spreading the negative charge). These groups have much less effect on the free energy of 1. Since G is lowered for the transition state, but not substantially for 1, $\Delta G^{\ddagger}$ is lowered and the reaction rate is increased (Chapter 6). Conversely, electron-donating groups ($+I$ or $+M$) should decrease the rate of this reaction. Of course, many groups are $-I$ and $+M$, and for these it is not always possible to predict which effect will predominate.

Steric Effects

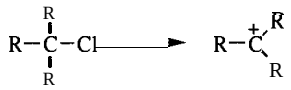
It occasionally happens that a reaction proceeds much faster or much slower than expected on the basis of electrical effects alone. In these cases, it can often be shown that steric effects are influencing the rate. For example, Table 9.2[3] lists relative rates for the S_N2 ethanolysis of certain alkyl halides (see p. 390). All these compounds are primary bromides; the branching is on the second carbon, so that field-effect differences should be small. As Table 9.2 shows, the rate decreases with increasing β branching and reaches a very low value for neopentyl bromide. This reaction is known to involve an attack by the nucleophile from a position opposite to that of the bromine (see p. 390). The great decrease in rate can be attributed to *steric hindrance,* a sheer physical blockage to the attack of the nucleophile. Another example of steric hindrance is found in 2,6-disubstituted benzoic acids, which are difficult to esterify no matter what the resonance or field effects of the groups in the 2 or the 6 position. Similarly, once 2,6-disubstituted benzoic acids *are* esterified, the esters are difficult to hydrolyze.

Not all steric effects decrease reaction rates. In the hydrolysis of RC1 by an S_N1 mechanism (see p. 394), the first step, which is rate determining, involves ionization

TABLE 9.2 Relative Rates of Reaction of RBr with Ethanol

R	Relative Rate
CH_3	17.6
CH_3CH_2	1
$CH_3CH_2CH_2$	0.28
$(CH_3)_2CHCH_2$	0.030
$(CH_3)_3CCH_2$	4.2×10^{-6}

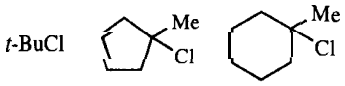
of the alkyl chloride to a carbocation:



The central carbon in the alkyl chloride is sp^3 hybridized, with angles of ~ 109.5°, but when it is converted to the carbocation, the hybridization becomes sp^2 and the preferred angle is 120°. If the halide is tertiary and the three alkyl groups are large enough, they will be pushed together by the enforced tetrahedral angle, resulting in strain (see p. 190). This type of strain is called *B strain*[4] (for back strain), and it can be relieved by ionization to the carbocation.[5]

The rate of ionization (and hence the solvolysis rate) of a molecule in which there is B strain is therefore expected to be larger than in cases where B strain is not present. Table 9.3[6] shows that this is so. Substitution of ethyl groups for the methyl groups of *tert*-butyl chloride does not cause B strain; the increase in rate is relatively small, and the rate smoothly rises with the increasing number of ethyl groups. The rise is caused by normal field and resonance (hyperconjugation) effects. Substitution by one isopropyl group is not greatly different. But with the second isopropyl group the crowding is now great enough to cause B strain, and the rate is increased 10-fold. Substitution of a third isopropyl group increases the rate still more. Another example where B strain increases solvolysis rates is found with the highly crowded molecules tri-*tert*-butylcarbinol, di-*tert*-butylneopentylcarbinol, *tert*-butyldineopentylcarbinol, and trineopentylcarbinol, where rates of solvolysis of the *p*-nitrobenzoate esters are faster than that of ten-butyl nitrobenzoate by factors of 13,000, 19,000, 68,000, and 560, respectively.[7]

Another type of strain, that can affect rates of cyclic compounds, is called *I strain* (internal strain).[8] This type of strain results from changes in ring strain in going from a tetrahedral to a trigonal carbon or vice versa. For example, as mentioned above, S_N1 solvolysis of an alkyl halide involves a change in the bond angle of the central carbon from ~ 109.5° to ~ 120°. This change is highly favored in 1-chloro-1-methylcyclopentane because it relieves eclipsing strain (p. 184); thus this compound undergoes solvolysis in 80% ethanol at 25°C, 43.7 times faster than the reference compound tert-butyl chloride.[9]



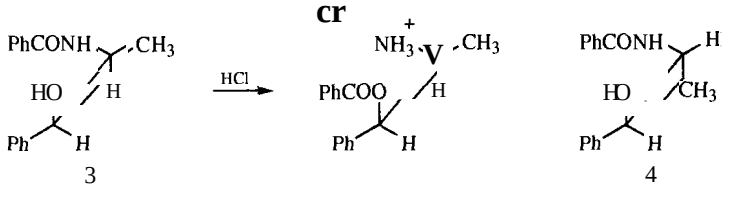
	t-BuCl		
Relative solvolysis rates	1.0	43.7	0.35

TABLE 9.3 Rates of Hydrolysis of Tertiary Alkyl Chlorides at 25°C in 80% Aqueous Ethanol

Halide	Rate	Halide	Rate
Me_3Cl	0.033	Et_3CCl	0.099
Me_2EtCCl	0.055	$Me_2(i\text{-}Pr)CCl$	0.029
$MeEt_2CCl$	0.086	$Me(i\text{-}Pr)_2CCl$	0.45

In the corresponding cyclohexyl compound, this factor is absent because the substrate does not have eclipsing strain (p. 184), and this compound undergoes the reaction at about one-third the rate of *tert*-butyl chloride. The reasons for this small decrease in rate are not clear. Corresponding behavior is found in the other direction, in changes from a trigonal to a tetrahedral carbon. Thus cyclohexanone undergoes addition reactions faster than cyclopentanone. Similar considerations apply to larger rings. Rings of 7–11 members exhibit eclipsing and transannular strain; and in these systems reactions in which a tetrahedral carbon becomes trigonal generally proceed faster than in open-chain systems.[10] I-Strain has been shown to be a factor in other reactions as well.[11]

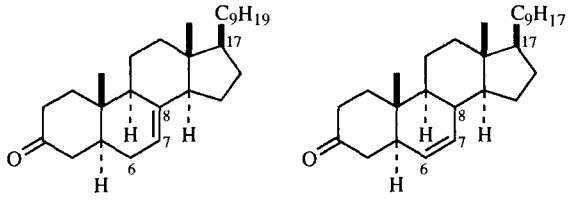
Conformational effects on reactivity can be considered under the heading of steric effects,[12] though in these cases we are considering not the effect of a group X and that of another group X' upon reactivity at a site Y but the effect of the conformation of the molecule. Many reactions fail entirely unless the molecules are able to assume the proper conformation. An example is the rearrangement of *N*-benzoylnorephedrine. The two diastereomers of this compound behave very differently when treated with alcoholic HC1. In one of the isomers nitrogen-to-oxygen migration takes place, while the other does not react at all.[13]



3 4

In order for the migration to take place, the nitrogen must be near the oxygen (*gauche* to it). When 3 assumes this conformation, the methyl and phenyl groups are anti to each other, which is a favorable position, but when 4 has the nitrogen *gauche* to the oxygen, the methyl must be *gauche* to the phenyl, which is so unfavorable that the reaction does not occur. Other examples are electrophilic additions to C=C double bonds (see p. 971) and *El* elimination reactions (see p. 1300). Also, many examples are known where axial and equatorial groups behave differently.[14]

In steroids and other rigid systems, a functional group in one part of the molecule can strongly affect the rate of a reaction taking place at a remote part of the same molecule by altering the conformation of the whole skeleton.



5 6

An example of this effect, called *conformational transmission,* is found in ergost-7-en-3-one (5) and cholest-6-en-3-one (6), where 6 condenses with benzaldehyde 15 times faster than **5**.[15] The reaction site in both cases is the carbonyl group, and the rate increases because moving the double bond from the 7 to the 6 position causes a change in conformation at the carbonyl group (the difference in the side chain at C-17 does not affect the rate).

Quantitative Treatments of the Effect of Structure on Reactivity[16]

Suppose a reaction is performed on a substrate molecule that can be represented as XGY, where Y is the site of the reaction, X a variable substituent, and G a skeleton group to which X and Y are attached, and we find that changing X from H to CH_3 results in a rate increase by a factor, say, 10. We would like to know just what part of the increase is due to each of the effects previously mentioned. The obvious way to approach such a problem is to try to find compounds in which one or two of the factors are absent or at least negligible. This is not easy to do acceptably because factors that seem negligible to one investigator do not always appear so to another. The first attempt to give numerical values was that of Hammett.[17] For the cases of *m*- and *p*-XC_6H_4Y, Hammett set up the equation

$$\log \frac{k}{k_0} = \sigma\rho$$

where k_0 is the rate constant or equilibrium constant for X = H, k is the constant for the group X, p is a constant for a given reaction under a given set of conditions, and σ is a constant characteristic of the group X. The equation is called the *Hammett equation.*

The value of p was set at 1.00 for ionization of $XC_6H_4CO_2H$ in water at 25°C. The parameters σ_m and σ_p values were then calculated for each group (for a group X, a is different for the meta and para positions). Once a set of σ values was obtained, p values could be obtained for other reactions from the rates of just two X-substituted compounds, if the σ values of the X groups were known (in practice, at least four well-spaced values are used to calculate p because of experimental error and because the treatment is not exact). With the p value thus calculated and the known σ values for other groups, rates can be predicted for reactions that have not yet been run.

The a values are numbers that sum up the total electrical effects (resonance plus field) of a group X when attached to a benzene ring. The treatment usually fails for the ortho position. The Hammett treatment has been applied to many reactions and to many functional groups and correlates an enormous amount of data quite well. Jaffé's review article[17] lists p values for 204 reactions,[18] many of which have different p values for different conditions. Among them are reactions as disparate as the following:

Rate constants for

$$ArCOOMe + OH^- \longrightarrow ArCOO^-$$
$$ArCH_2Cl + I^- \longrightarrow ArCH_2I$$
$$ArNH_2 + PhCOCl \longrightarrow ArNHCOPh$$
$$ArH + NO_2^+ \longrightarrow ArNO_2$$
$$ArCO_2OCMe_3 \longrightarrow \text{decomposition (a free-radical process)}$$

Equilibrium constants for

$$ArCOOH + H_2O \rightleftharpoons ArCOO^- + H_3O^+$$
$$ArCHO + HCN \rightleftharpoons ArCH(CN)OH$$

The Hammett equation has also been shown to apply to many physical measurements, including IR frequencies and NMR chemical shifts.[19] The treatment is reasonably successful whether the substrates are attacked by electrophilic, nucleophilic, or free-radical reagents, the important thing being that the mechanism be the same *within* a given reaction series.

However, there are many reactions that do not fit the treatment. These are mostly reactions where the attack is directly on the ring and where the X group can enter into direct resonance interaction with the reaction site in the transition state (i.e., the substrate is XY rather than XGY). For these cases, two new sets of σ values have been devised: σ^+ values (proposed by H.C. Brown) for cases in which an electron-donating group interacts with a developing positive charge in the transition state (this includes the important case of electrophilic aromatic substitutions; see Chapter 11), and σ values, where electron-withdrawing groups interact with a developing negative charge. Table 9.4[20] gives σ, σ^+, and σ^- values for some common X groups. As shown in the table, σ is not very different from σ^+ for most electron-withdrawing groups. The σ_m^- values are not shown in the table, since they are essentially the same as the σ_m values.

A positive value of σ indicates an electron-withdrawing group and a negative value an electron-donating group.[21] The constant p measures the susceptibility of the reaction to electrical effects.[22] Reactions with a positive p are helped by electron-withdrawing groups and vice versa. The following p values for the ionization of some carboxylic acids illustrate this:[23]

$XC_6H_4-CO_2H$	1.00	$XC_6H_4-CH=CH-CO_2H$	0.47
$XC_6H_4-CH_2-CO_2H$	0.49	$XC_6H_4-CH_2CH_2-CO_2H$	0.21

This example shows that the insertion of a CH_2 or a CH=CH group diminishes electrical effects to about the same extent, while a CH_2CH_2 group diminishes them much more. A p >1 would mean that the reaction is more sensitive to electrical effects than is the ionization of XC_6H_4COOH (p= 1.00).

Similar calculations have been made for compounds with two groups X and X' on one ring, where the σ values are sometimes additive and sometimes not,[36] for other

TABLE 9.4 The σ, σ⁺, and σ⁻ Values for Some Common Groups

Group	σ_p	σ_m	σ_p^+	σ_m^+	σ_p^-
O^-	-0.81"	−0.47[a]	-4.27*	-1.15*	
NMe_2	-0.63	10.10	-1.7		
NH_2	-0.57	-0.09	-1.3	-0.16	
OH	−0.38[c]	0.13[c]	-0.92''		
OMe	−0.28[c]	0.10	-0.78	0.05	
CMe_3	-0.15	-0.09	-0.26	-0.06	
Me	-0.14	-0.06	-0.31	−0.10[e]	
H	0	0	0	0	0
Ph	0.05[f]	0.05	-0.18	0[f]	
COO^-	0.11[a]	0.02[a]	-0.41*	-0.10*	
F	0.15	0.34	-0.07	0.35	
Cl	0.24	0.37	0.11	0.40	
Br	0.26	0.37	0.15	0.41	
I	0.28[f]	0.34	0.14	0.36	
N=NPh[g]	0.34	0.28	0.17		
COOH[h]	0.44	0.35	0.42	0.32	0.73
COOR	0.44	0.35	0.48	0.37	0.68
COMe	0.47	0.36			0.87
CF_3	0.53	0.46		0.57[e]	
NH_3^+	0.60*	0.86*			
CN[i]	0.70	0.62	0.66	0.56	1.00
SO_2Me	0.73	0.64			
NO_2	0.81	0.71	0.79	0.73[e]	1.27
NMe_3^+	0.82[j]	0.88[j]	0.41	0.36	
N_2^+	1.93[k]	1.65*	1.88*		3'

[a] See Ref. 24.
[b] See Ref. 25.
[c] See Ref. 26.
[d] See Ref. 27.
[e] See Ref. 28.
[f] See Ref. 29.
[g] See Ref. 30.
[h] SeeRef. 31.
[i] See Ref. 32.
[j] See Ref. 33.
[k] See Ref. 34.
'See Ref. 35.

ring systems such as naphthalene[37] and heterocyclic rings,[38] and for ethylenic and acetylenic systems.[39]

The Hammett equation is a *linear free energy relationship (LFER).* This can be demonstrated as follows for the case of equilibrium constants (for rate constants a similar demonstration can be made with $\Delta G^{\ddagger}$ instead of AG). For each reaction, where X is any group,

$$\Delta G = -RT \ln K$$

For the unsubstituted case,

$$\Delta G_0 = -R1\text{n } K_0$$

The Hammett equation can be rewritten

$$\log K - \log K_0 = \sigma\rho$$

so that

$$\frac{-\text{AG}}{23RT} + \frac{\Delta G_0}{23RT} \sim \sigma\rho$$

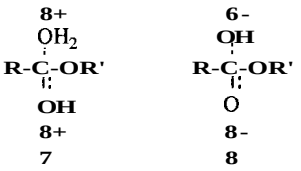
and

$$-\text{AG} = \sigma\rho 2.3RT - \Delta G_0$$

For a given reaction under a given set of conditions, σ, R, T, and ΔG_0 are all constant, so that σ is linear with AG.

The Hammett equation is not the only LFER.[40] Some, like the Hammett equation, correlate structural changes in reactants, but the Grunwald-Winstein relationship (see p. 452) correlates changes in solvent and the Br0nsted relation (see p. 337) relates acidity to catalysis. The Taft equation is a structure-reactivity equation that correlates only field effects.[41]

Taft, following Ingold,[42] assumed that for the hydrolysis of carboxylic esters, steric, and resonance effects will be the same whether the hydrolysis is catalyzed by acid or base (see the discussion of ester-hydrolysis mechanisms, Reaction 10-10). Rate differences would therefore be caused only by the field effects of R and R' in RCOOR'. This is presumably a good system to use for this purpose because the transition state for acid-catalyzed hydrolysis (7) has a greater positive charge (and is hence destabilized by − / and stabilized by +/ substituents) than the starting ester,



while the transition state for base-catalyzed hydrolysis (8) has a greater negative charge than the starting ester. Field effects of substituents X could therefore be determined by measuring the rates of acid- and base-catalyzed hydrolysis of a series XCH_2COOR',[43] where R' is held constant.[38] From these rate constants, a value σ_I could be determined by the equation[44]

$$\sigma_I \equiv 0.181\left[\log\left(\frac{k}{k_0}\right)_B - \log\left(\frac{k}{k_0}\right)_A\right]$$

In this equation, $(k/k_0)_B$ is the rate constant for basic hydrolysis of XCH_2COOR' divided by the rate constant for basic hydrolysis of CH_3COOR', $(k/k_0)_A$ is the similar rate-constant ratio for acid catalysis, and 0.181 is an arbitrary constant. The parameter σ_I is a substituent constant for a group X, substituted at a saturated carbon, that reflects only field effects.[45] Once a set of CT_7 values was obtained, it was found that the equation

$$\sigma_I \equiv 0.181\left[\log\left(\frac{k}{k_0}\right)_B - \log\left(\frac{k}{k_0}\right)_A\right]$$

holds for a number of reactions, among them:[46]

$$RCH_2OH \longrightarrow RCH_2O^-$$

$$RCH_2Br + PhS^- \longrightarrow RCH_2SPh + Br^-$$

$$\text{Acetone} + I_2, \text{ catalyzed by RCOOH} \longrightarrow$$

$$\text{o-Substituted-ArNH}_2 + PhCOCl \longrightarrow ArNHCOPh$$

As with the Hammett equation, CT_7 is constant for a given reaction under a given set of conditions. For very large groups, the relationship may fail because of the presence of steric effects, which are not constant. The equation also fails when X enters into resonance with the reaction center to different extents in the initial and transition states. A list of some CT_7 values is given in Table 9.5.[47] The σ_I values are about what we would expect for pure field-effect values (see p. 17) and are additive, as field effects (but not resonance or steric effects) would be expected to be. Thus, in moving a group one carbon down the chain, there is a decrease by a factor of 2.8 ± 0.5 (cf. the values of R and RCH_2 in Table 9.5 for R = Ph and CH_3CO). An inspection of Table 9.5 shows that CT_7 values for most groups are fairly close to the CT_m values (Table 9.4) for the same groups. This is not surprising, since σ_m values

TABLE 9.5 The σ_I and σ_R° Values for Some Groups

Group	a,	σ_R°	Group	σ_I	σ_R°
CMe_3	-0.07	-0.17	OMe	0.27	-0.42
Me	-0.05	-0.13	OH	0.27	-0.44
H	0	0	I	0.39	-0.12
$PhCH_2$	0.04		CF_3	0.42	0.08
NMe_2[a]	0.06	-0.55	Br	0.44	-0.16
Ph	0.10	-0.10	Cl	0.46	-0.18
CH_3COCH_2	0.10		F	0.50	-0.31
NH_2	0.12	-0.50	CN	0.56	0.08
CH_3CO	0.20	0.16	SO_2Me	0.60	0.12
COOEt	0.20	0.16	NO_2	0.65	0.15
NHAc	0.26	-0.22	NMe_3[b]	0.86	

[a] See Ref. 48.
[b] See Ref. 49.

would be expected to arise almost entirely from field effects, with little contribution from resonance.

Since CT_P values represent the sum of resonance and field effects, these values can be divided into resonance and field contributions if CT_7 is taken to represent the field-effect portion.[50] The resonance contribution σ_R[51] is defined as

$$\sigma_R = \sigma_p - \sigma_I$$

As it stands, however, this equation is not very useful because the σ_R value for a given group, which should be constant if the equation is to have any meaning, is actually not constant but depends on the nature of the reaction.[52] In this respect, the CT/ values are much better. Although they vary with solvent in some cases, σ_I values are essentially invariant throughout a wide variety of reaction series. However, it is possible to overcome[53] the problem of varying σ_R values by using a special set of σ_R values, called σ_R°,[54] that measure the ability to delocalize *n* electrons into or out of an unperturbed or "neutral" benzene ring. Several CT^ scales have been reported; the most satisfactory values are obtained from ^{13}C chemical shifts of substituted benzenes.[55] Table 9.5 lists some values of σ_R°, most of which were obtained in this way.[56]

An equation such as

$$\log \frac{k}{k^\circ} = \rho_I \sigma_I + \rho_R \sigma_R^\circ$$

which treats resonance and field effects separately, is known as a *dual substituent parameter equation.*[51]

The only groups in Table 9.5 with negative values of σ_I are the alkyl groups methyl and *tert*-butyl. There has been some controversy on this point.[58] One opinion is that CT_7 values decrease in the series methyl, ethyl, isopropyl, terf-butyl (respectively, -0.046, -0.057, -0.065, -0.074).[59] Other evidence, however, has led to the belief that all alkyl groups have approximately the same field effect and that the σ_I values are invalid as a measure of the intrinsic field effects of alkyl groups.[60]

Another attempt to divide σ values into resonance and field contributions[61] is that of Swain and Lupton, who have shown that the large number of sets of CT values (σ_m, σ_p, σ_n^-, CT_p^+, CT_y, σ_R° etc., as well as others we have not mentioned) are not entirely independent and that linear combinations of two sets of new values *F* (which expresses the field-effect contribution) and *R* (the resonance contribution) satisfactorily express 43 sets of values.[62] Each set is expressed as

$$CT = fF + rR$$

where / and *r* are weighting factors. Some *F* and *R* values for common groups are given in Table 9.6.[63] From the calculated values of/ and r, Swain and Lupton calculated that the importance of resonance, % *R*, is 20% for σ_m, 38% for CT_P, and 62% for σ_p^+.[64] This is another dual substituent parameter approach.

TABLE 9.6 The *F* and *R* Values for Some Groups

Group	*F*	*R*	Group	*F*	*R*
COO^-	-0.27	0.40	OMe	0.54	-1.68
Me_3C	−0.11	-0.29	CF_3	0.64	0.76
Et	-0.02	-0.44	I	0.65	-0.12
Me	-0.01	-0.41	Br	0.72	-0.18
H	0	0	Cl	0.72	-0.24
Ph	0.25	-0.37	F	0.74	-0.60
NH_2	0.38	-2.52	$NHCOCH_3$	0.77	-1.43
COOH	0.44	0.66	CN	0.90	0.71
OH	0.46	-1.89	NMe_3^+	1.54	
COOEt	0.47	0.67	N_2^+ "	2.36	2.81
$COCH_3$	0.50	0.90			

Taft was also able to isolate steric effects.[65] For the acid-catalyzed hydrolysis of esters in aqueous acetone, long (k/k_0) was shown to be insensitive to polar effects.[66] In cases where resonance interaction was absent, this value was proportional only to steric effects (and any others[67] that are not field or resonance). The equation is

$$\log \frac{k}{} = E_S$$

Some E_s values are given in Table 9.7,[68] where hydrogen is taken as standard, with a value of 0.[69] This treatment is more restricted than those previously discussed, since it requires more assumptions, but the E_s values are approximately in order of the size of the groups. Charton has shown that E_s values for substituents of types CH2X, CHX_2, and CX_3 are linear functions of the van der Waals radii for these groups.[70]

Table 9.7 The E_s, υ, and V^a Values for Some Groups"

Group	E_s	v	V^a x 10^2	Group	E_s	v	V^a x 10^2
H	0	0		Cyclohexyl	-2.03	0.87	6.25
F	-0.46	0.27	1.22	*i*-Bu	-2.17	0.98	5.26
CN	-0.51			*s*-Bu	-2.37	1.02	6.21
OH	-0.55			CF_3	-2.4	0.91	3.54
OMe	-0.55		3.39	*t*-Bu	-2.78	1.24	7.16
NH_2	-0.61			NMe_3^+	-2.84		
Cl	-0.97	0.55	2.54	Neopentyl	-2.98	1.34	5.75
Me	-1.24	0.52	2.84	CCl_3	-3.3	1.38	6.43
Et	-1.31	0.56	4.31	CBr_3	-3.67	1.56	7.29
I	-1.4	0.78	4.08	$(Me_3CCH_2)_2CH$	-4.42	2.03	
Pr	-1.6	0.68	4.78	Et_3C	-5.04	2.38	
i-Pr	-1.71	0.76	5.74	Ph_3C	-5.92	2.92	

[a]See Ref. 68.

Two other steric parameters are independent of any kinetic data. Charton's ν values are derived from van der Waals radii,[71] and Meyer's V^a values from the volume of the portion of the substituent that is within 0.3 nm of the reaction center.[72] The V^a values are obtained by molecular mechanics calculations based on the structure of the molecule. Table 9.7 gives ν and V^a values for some groups.[73] As can be seen in the table, there is a fair, but not perfect, correlation among the E_s, ν, and V^a values. Other sets of steric values, (e.g., E_s',[74] E_s^*,[75] Ω_s[76] and $\mathfrak{S}_f$,[77] have also been proposed.[73]

Since the Hammett equation has been so successful in the treatment of the effects of groups in the meta and para positions, it is not surprising that attempts have been made to apply it to ortho positions also.[78] The effect on a reaction rate or equilibrium constant of a group in the ortho position is called the *ortho effect*.[79] Despite the many attempts made to quantify ortho effects, no set of values has so far commanded general agreement. However, the Hammett treatment is successful for ortho compounds when the group Y in *o*-XC_6H_4Y is separated from the ring; for example, ionization constants of *o*-$XC_6H_4OCH_2COOH$ can be successfully correlated.[80]

Linear free energy relationships can have mechanistic implications. If log (k/k_0) is linear with the appropriate CT, it is likely that the same mechanism operates throughout the series. If not, a smooth curve usually indicates a gradual change in mechanism, while a pair of intersecting straight lines indicates an abrupt change,[81] though nonlinear plots can also be due to other causes, such as complications arising from side reactions. If a reaction series follows CT^+ or σ^- better than σ it generally means that there is extensive resonance interaction in the transition state.[82]

Information can also be obtained from the magnitude and sign of p. For example, a strongly negative p value indicates a large electron demand at the reaction center, from which it may be concluded that a highly electron-deficient center, perhaps an incipient carbocation, is involved. Conversely, a positive p value is associated with a developing negative charge in the transition state.[83] The $\sigma\rho$ relationship even applies to free-radical reactions, because free radicals can have some polar character (p. 896), though p values here are usually small ($\lesssim 1.5$) whether positive or negative. Reactions involving cyclic transition states (p. 275) also exhibit very small p values.

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[65] For reviews of quantitative treatments of steric effects, see Gallo, R.; Roussel, C; Berg, U. *Adv. Heterocycl. Chem.*, **1988**, *43*, 173; Gallo, R. *Prog. Phys. Org. Chem.*, **1983**, *14*, 115; Unger, S.H.; Hansch, C. *Prog. Phys. Org. Chem.*, **1976**, *12*, 91.

[66] Another reaction used for the quantitative measurement of steric effects is the aminolysis of esters **(10-58);** De Tar, D.F.; Delahunty, C. *J. Am. Chem. Soc*, **1983**, *105*, 2734.

[67] It has been shown that E_s values include solvation effects: McClelland, R. A.; Steenken, S. *J. Am. Chem. Soc*, **1988**, *110*, 5860.

[68] The E_s, *v*, and V^a values are taken from longer tables in respectively, Ref. 65; Charton, M. *J. Am. Chem. Soc*, **1975**, *97*, 1552; *J. Org. Chem.*, **1976**, *41*, 2217; and Ref. 72.

[69] In Taft's original work, Me was given the value 0. The E_s values in Table 9.7 can be converted to the orginal values by adding 1.24.

[70] Charton, M. *J. Am. Chem. Soc*, **1969**, **91**, 615.

[71] Charton, M. Ref. 68. See also Charton, M. *J. Org. Chem.*, **1978**, *43*, 3995; Idoux, J.P.; Schreck, J.O. *J. Org. Chem.*, **1978**, *43*, 4002.

[72] Meyer, A.Y *J. Chem. Soc, Perkin Trans. 2*, **1986**, 1567.

[73] For a discussion of the various steric parameters, see DeTar, D.F. Ref. 60.

[74] MacPhee, J.A.; Panaye, A.; Dubois, J.E. *J. Org. Chem.*, **1980**, *45*, 1164; Dubois, J.E.; MacPhee, J.A.; Panaye, A. *Tetrahedron*, **1980**, *36*, 919. See also Datta, D.; Sharma, G.T. *J. Chem. Res. (S)*, **1987**, 422.

[75] Fellous, R.; Luft, R. *J. Am. Chem. Soc*, **1973**, *95*, 5593.

[76] Komatsuzaki, T.; Sakakibara, K.; Hirota, M. *Tetrahedron Lett.*, **1989**, *30*, 3309; *Chem. Lett.*, **1990**, 1913.

[77] Beckhaus, H. *Angew. Chem. Int. Ed. Engl.*, *1978*, *17*, 593.

[78] For reviews, see Fujita, T.; Nishioka, T. *Prog. Phys. Org. Chem.*, **1976**, *12*, 49; Charton, M. *Prog. Phys. Org. Chem.*, **1971**, *8*, 235; Shorter, J. Ref. 58, p. 103. See also Segura, P. *J. Org. Chem.*, **1985**, *50*, 1045; Robinson, C.N.; Horton, J.L.; Foshee, D.O.; Jones, J.W.; Hanissian, S.H.; Slater, C.D. *J. Org. Chem.*, **1986**, *51*, 3535.

[79] This is not the same as the ortho effect discussed on page 688.

[80] Charton, M. *Can. J. Chem.*, **1960**, *38*, 2493.

[81] For a discussion, see Schreck, J.O. *J. Chem. Educ.*, **1971**, *48*, 103.

[82] See, however, Gawley, R.E. *J. Org. Chem.*, **1981**, *46*, 4595.

[83] For another method of determining transition state charge, see Williams, A. *Acc. Chem. Res.*, **1984**, *17*, 425.

PART TWO

In Part 2 of this book, we shall be directly concerned with organic reactions and their mechanisms. The reactions have been classified into 10 chapters, based primarily on reaction type: substitutions, additions to multiple bonds, eliminations, rearrangements, and oxidation-reduction reactions. Five chapters are devoted to substitutions; these are classified on the basis of mechanism as well as substrate. Chapters 10 and 13 include nucleophilic substitutions at aliphatic and aromatic substrates, respectively. Chapters 12 and 11 deal with electrophilic substitutions at aliphatic and aromatic substrates, respectively. All free-radical substitutions are discussed in Chapter 14. Additions to multiple bonds are classified not according to mechanism, but according to the type of multiple bond. Additions to carbon-carbon multiple bonds are dealt with in Chapter 15; additions to other multiple bonds in Chapter 16. One chapter is devoted to each of the three remaining reaction types: Chapter 17, eliminations; Chapter 18, rearrangements; Chapter 19, oxidation-reduction reactions. This last chapter covers only those oxidation-reduction reactions that could not be conveniently treated in any of the other categories (except for oxidative eliminations).

Each chapter in Part 2 consists of two main sections. The first section of each chapter (except Chapter 19) deals with mechanism and reactivity. For each reaction type the various mechanisms are discussed in turn, with particular attention given to the evidence for each mechanism and to the factors that cause one mechanism rather than another to prevail in a given reaction. Following this, each chapter contains a section on reactivity, including, where pertinent, a consideration of orientation and the factors affecting it.

The second main section of each chapter is a treatment of the reactions belonging to the category indicated by the title of the chapter. It is not possible to discuss in a book of this nature all or nearly all known reactions. However, an attempt has been made to include all the important reactions of standard organic chemistry that can be used to prepare relatively pure compounds in reasonable yields. In order to present a well-rounded picture and to include some reactions that are traditionally discussed in textbooks, a number of reactions that do not fit into the above category have been included. The scope of the coverage is apparent from the fact that $>90\%$ of the individual preparations given in *Organic Syntheses* are treated. However, certain special areas have been covered only lightly or not at all. Among these are electrochemical and polymerization reactions, and the preparation and reactions of

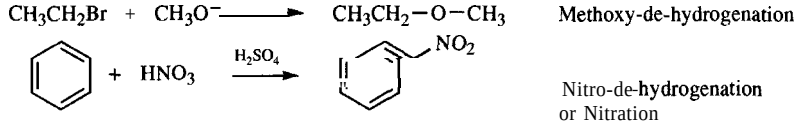
heterocyclic compounds, carbohydrates, steroids, and compounds containing phosphorus, silicon, arsenic, boron, and mercury. The basic principles involved in these areas are of course no different from those in the areas more fully treated. Even with these omissions, however, some 580 reactions are treated in this book.

Each reaction is discussed in its own numbered section.[1] These are numbered consecutively within a chapter. The *first* digit in each number is the *second* digit of the chapter number. Thus, Reaction **16-1** is the first reaction of Chapter 16 and Reaction **13-18** is the eighteenth reaction of Chapter 13. The second part of the reaction number has no other significance. The order in which the reactions are presented is not arbitrary but is based on an orderly outline that depends on the type of reaction. The placement of each reaction in a separate numbered section serves as an aid to both memory and understanding by setting clear boundary lines between one reaction and another, even if these boundary lines must be arbitrary, and by clearly showing the relationship of each reaction to all the others. Within each section, the scope and utility of the reaction are discussed and references are given to review articles, if any. If there are features of the mechanism that especially pertain to that reaction, these are also discussed within the section rather than in the first part of the chapter where the discussion of mechanism is more general.

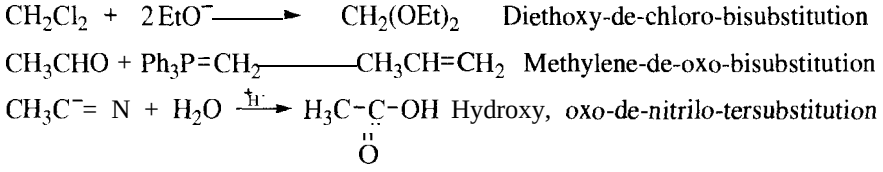
IUPAC Nomenclature for Transformations

There has long been a need for a method of naming reactions. As most students know well, many reactions are given the names of their discoverers or those who popularized them (e.g., Claisen, Diels–Alder, Stille, Wittig, Cope, Dess-Martin). This is useful as far as it goes, but each name must be individually memorized, and there are many reactions that do not have such names. The IUPAC Commission on Physical Organic Chemistry has produced a *system* for naming not reactions, but transformations (a reaction includes all reactants; a transformation shows only the substrate and product, omitting the reagents). The advantages of a systematic method are obvious. Once the system is known, no memorization is required; the name can be generated directly from the equation. The system includes rules for naming eight types of transformation: substitutions, additions, eliminations, attachments and detachments, simple rearrangements, coupling and uncoupling, insertions and extrusions, and ring opening and closing. We give here only the most basic rules for the first three of these types, which, however, will suffice for naming many transformations.[2] The complete rules give somewhat different names for speech writing and indexing. In this book, we give only the speech-writing names.

Substitutions. A name consists of the entering group, the syllable "de", and the leaving group. If the leaving group is hydrogen, it may be omitted (in all examples, the substrate is written on the left).

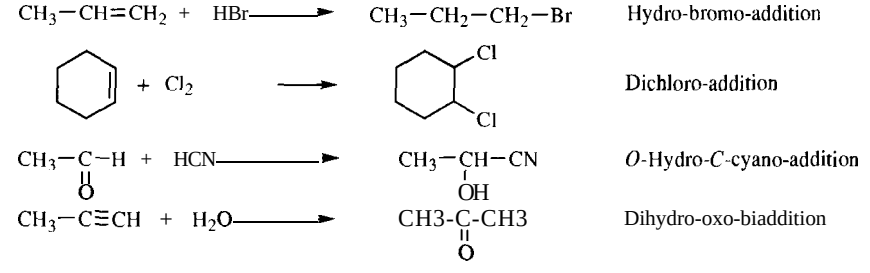


Multivalent substitutions are named by a modification of this system that includes suffixes such as "bisubstitution" and "tersubstitution".

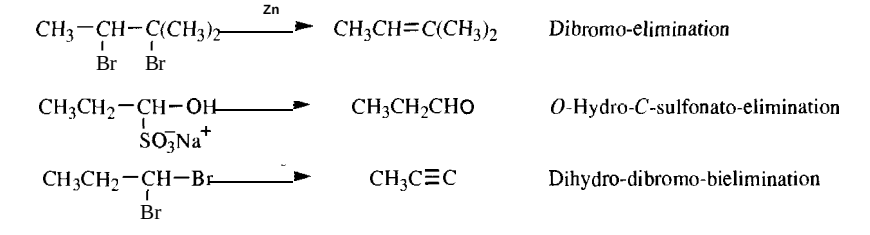


(Note: The nitrilo group is ≡N.)

Additions. For simple 1,2-additions, the names of both addends are given followed by the suffix "addition". The addends are named in order of priority in the Cahn-Ingold-Prelog system (p. 139), the lower ranking addend coming first. Multivalent addition is indicated by "biaddition", and so on,



Eliminations are named the same way as additions, except that "elimination" is used instead of "addition".



In the reaction sections of this book, we shall give IUPAC names for most transformations (these names will be printed in the same typeface used above), including examples of all eight types.[3] As will become apparent, some transformations require more rules than we have given here.[2] However, it is hoped that the simplicity of the system will also be apparent.

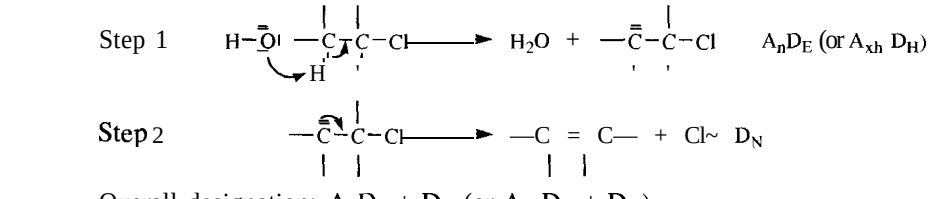
Two further notes: (1) Many transformations can be named using either of two reactants as the substrate. For example, the transformation methylene-de-oxo-bisubstitution above, can also be named ethylidene-de-triphenylphosphoranediyl-bisubstitution. In this book, unless otherwise noted, we will show only those names in which the substrate is considered to undergo the reactions indicated by the titles of the chapters. Thus the name we give to **11-12** (ArH + RC1 → ArR) is alkyl-de-

hydrogenation, not aryl-de-chlorination, though the latter name is also perfectly acceptable under the IUPAC system. (2) The IUPAC rules recognize that some transformations are too complex to be easily fitted into the system, so they also include a list of names for some complex transformations, which are IUPAC approved, but nonsystematic (for some examples, see Reactions **12—42, 18-34).**

IUPAC System for Symbolic Representation of Mechanisms

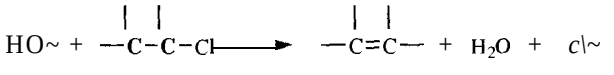
In addition to providing a system for naming transformations, the IUPAC Commission on Physical Organic Chemistry has also produced one for representing mechanisms.[4] As we shall see in Part 2, many mechanisms (though by no means all) are commonly referred to by designations such as S_N2, $A_{AC}2$, $E1_{CB}$, $S_{RN}1$, and so on, many of them devised by Ingold and his co-workers. While these designations have been useful (and we shall continue to use them in this book), the sheer number of them can be confusing, especially since the symbols do not give a direct clue to what is happening. For example, there is no way to tell directly from the symbols how S_N2' is related to S_N2 (see p. 422). The IUPAC system is based on a very simple description of bond changes.[5] The letter A represents formation of a bond (association); D is the breaking of a bond (dissociation). These are *primitive changes.* The basic description of a mechanism consists of these letters, with subscripts to indicate where the electrons are going. In any mechanism, the *core atoms* are defined as (a) the two atoms in a multiple bond that undergoes addition, or (b) the two atoms that will be in a multiple bond after elimination, or (c) the single atom at which substitution takes place.

As an example of the system, this is how an $E1_{CB}$ mechanism (p. 1308) would be represented:



Overall designation: $A_nD_E + D_N$ (or $A_{xh}D_H + D_N$)

In this case, the overall reaction is



and the core atoms are the two carbons in boldface.

Step 1, First Symbol. A bond is being formed between O and H. Bond formation is represented by A. For this particular case, the system gives two choices for subscript. In any process, the subscript is N if a core atom is forming a bond to a nucleophile (AN) or breaking a bond to a nucleofuge (D_N). If a noncore atom is doing the same thing, lowercase n is used instead. Since H and O are

noncore atoms, the lowercase n is used, and the formation of the O–H bond is designated by A_n. However, because involvement of H^+ is so common in organic mechanisms, the rules allow an alternative. The subscript H or h may replace N or n. The symbol xh denotes that the H^+ comes from or goes to an unspecified carrier atom X. Thus the term A_{xh} means that a bond is being formed between H (moving without electrons) and an outside atom, in this case O. The same subscript, xh, would be used if the outside atom were any other nucleophilic atom, say, N or S.

Step 1, Second Symbol. A bond is being broken between C and H. The symbol is D. In any process, the subscript is E if a core atom is forming a bond to an electrophile (A_E) or breaking a bond to an electrofuge (D_E). Since C is a core atom, the symbol here is D_E. Alternatively, the symbol could be D_H. The rules allow A_H or D_H to replace A_E or D_E if the electrophile or electrofuge is H^+. Because a core atom is involved in this primitive change the H in the subscript is capitalized.

Step 1, Combined Symbols. In step 1, two bond changes take place simultaneously. In such cases they are written together, with no space or punctuation:

$$A_nD_E \quad \text{or} \quad A_{xh}D_H$$

Step 2. Only one bond is broken in this step and no bonds are formed. (The movement of a pair of unshared electrons into the C–C bond, forming a double bond, is not designated by any symbol. In this system, bond multiplicity changes are understood without being specified.) Thus the symbol is D. The broken bond is between a core atom (C) and a nucleofuge (Cl). so the designation is D_N.

Overall Designation. This can be either $A_nD_N + D_N$ or $A_{xh}D_H + D_N$. The + symbol shows that there are two separate steps. If desired, rate-limiting steps can be shown by the symbol . In this case, if the first step is the slow step [old designation $(E1_{CB})_I$], the designation would be $A_nD_E + D_N$ or $A_{xh}D_H + D_N$.

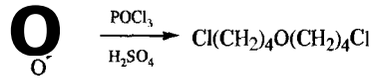
For most mechanisms (other than rearrangements), there will be only two A or D terms with uppercase subscripts, and the nature of the reaction can be immediately recognized by looking at them. If both are A, the reaction is an addition; if both are D (as in $A_nD_E + D_N$) it is an elimination. If one is A and the other D, the reaction is a substitution.

We have given here only a brief description of the system. Other IUPAC designations will be shown in Part 2, where appropriate. For more details, further examples, and additional symbols, see Ref. 4.

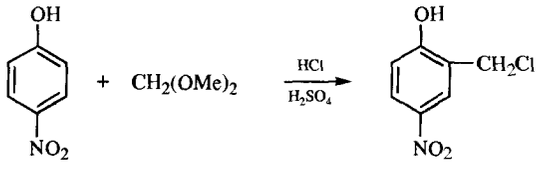
Organic Syntheses References

At the end of each numbered section there is a list of *Organic Syntheses* references (abbreviated OS). With the exception of a few very common reactions (**12-3**, **12–21**, 12-23, and 12-36) the list includes *all* OS references for each reaction. The volumes

of OS that have been covered are Collective Volumes **I-VIII** and individual volumes **70-76.** Where no OS references are listed at the end of a section, the reaction has not been reported in OS through volume **76.** These listings thus constitute a kind of index to OS.[6] Certain ground rules were followed in assembling these lists. A reaction in which two parts of a molecule independently undergo simultaneous reaction is listed under both reactions. Similarly, if two reactions happen (or might happen) rapidly in succession without the isolation of an intermediate, the reactions are listed in both places. For example, at OS **IV,** 266 is



This reaction is treated as **10-71** followed by **10-16** and is listed in both places. However, certain reactions are not listed because they are trivial examples. An instance of this is the reaction found at OS **III,** 468:



This is a chloromethylation reaction and is consequently listed at **11-24.** However, in the course of the reaction formaldehyde is generated from the acetal. This reaction is not listed at **10-6** (hydrolysis of acetals), because it is not really a preparation of formaldehyde.

REFERENCES

[1] The classification of reactions into sections is, of course, to some degree arbitrary. Each individual reaction (e.g., $CH_3Cl + CN^- \rightarrow CH_3CN$ and $C_2H_5Cl + CN^- \rightarrow C_2H_5CN$) is different, and custom generally decides how we group them together. Individual preferences also play a part. Some chemists would say that $C_6H_5N_2^+ + CuCN \rightarrow C_6H_5CN$ and $C_6H_5N_2^+ + CuCl \rightarrow C_6H_5Cl$ are examples of the "same" reaction. Others would say that they are not, but that $C_6H_5N_2^+ + CuCl \rightarrow C_6H_5Cl$ and $C_6H_5N_2^+ + CuBr \rightarrow C_6H_5Br$ are examples of the "same" reaction. No claim is made that the classification system used in this book is more valid than any other. For another way of classifying reactions, see Fujita, S. *J. Chem. Soc, Perkin Trans.* 2, *1988,* 597.

[2] For the complete rules, as so far published, see Jones, R.A. Y.; Bunnett, J.F. *Pure Appl. Chem., 1989, 61,* 725.

[3] For some examples, see: attachments **(18-27, 19-27),** detachments **(19-49),** simple rearrangements **(18-7, 18-29),** coupling **(10-93, 19-32),** uncoupling **(19-9, 19-54),** insertions (12-**19, 18-9),** extrusions **(17-37, 17-40),** ring opening **(10-18, 10-50),** ring closing **(10-13, 15-58).**

[4] Guthrie, R.D. *Pure Appl. Chem., 1989, 61,* 23. For a briefer description, see Guthrie, R.D.; Jencks, W.P. *Acc. Chem. Res., 1989, 22,* 343.

[5] There are actually two IUPAC systems. The one we use in this book (Ref. 4) is intended for general use. A more detailed system, which describes every conceivable change happening in a system, and which is designed mostly for computer handling and storage, is given by Littler, J.S. *Pure Appl. Chem.*, *1989, 61,* 57. The two systems are compatible; the Littler system uses the same symbols as the Guthrie system, but has additional symbols.

[6] Two indexes to *Organic Syntheses* have been published as part of the series. One of these, Liotta, D.C.; Volmer, M. *Organic Syntheses Reaction Guide;* Wiley. NY, *1991,* which covers the series through volume 68, is described on page 1626. There are two others. One covers the series through Collective Volume V: Shriner, R.L.; Shriner, R.H. *Organic Syntheses Collective Volumes I–V, Cumulative Indices;* Wiley: NY, *1976.* An updated version covers through Collective Volume VIII: W.H. Freeman, J.P. *Organic Syntheses Collective Volumes I–VIII, Cumulative Indices;* Wiley: NY, *1995*. For an older index to *Organic Syntheses* (through volume 45), see Sugasawa, S.; Nakai, S. *Reaction Index of Organic Syntheses;* Wiley: NY, *1967.*

CHAPTER 10

Aliphatic Nucleophilic Substitution

In nucleophilic substitution the attacking reagent (the nucleophile) brings an electron pair to the substrate, using this pair to form the new bond, and the leaving group (the nucleofuge) comes away with an electron pair:

$$R{-}\overset{\curvearrowright}{X} + \bar{Y} \longrightarrow R\text{-}Y + \bar{X}$$

This equation says nothing about charges. The molecule Y may be neutral or negatively charged; RX may be neutral or positively charged; so there are four charge types, examples of which are

Type I	$R{-}I$	+	OH^-	⟶	$R{-}OH$	+	I^-
Type II	$R{-}I$	+	NMe_3	⟶	$R{-}\overset{+}{N}Me_3$	+	I^-
Type III	$R{-}\overset{+}{N}Me_3$	+	OH^-	⟶	$R{-}OH$	+	NMe_3
Type IV	$R{-}\overset{+}{N}Me_3$	+	H_2S	⟶	$R{-}\overset{+}{S}H_2$	+	NMe_3

In all cases, Y must have an unshared pair of electrons, so that all nucleophiles are Lewis bases. When Y is the solvent, the reaction is called *solvolysis.* Nucleophilic substitution at an aromatic carbon is considered in Chapter 13.

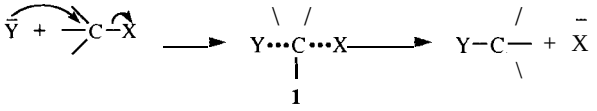
Nucleophilic substitution at an alkyl carbon is said to *alkylate* the nucleophile. For example, the above reaction between RI and NMe_3 is an *alkylation* of trimethylamine. Similarly, nucleophilic substitution at an acyl carbon is an *acylation* of the nucleophile.

MECHANISMS

Several distinct mechanisms are possible for aliphatic nucleophilic substitution reactions, depending on the substrate, nucleophile, leaving group, and reaction conditions. In all of them, however, the attacking reagent carries the electron pair with it, so that the similarities are greater than the differences. Mechanisms that occur at a saturated carbon atom are considered first.[1] By far the most common are the S_N1 and S_N2 mechanisms.

The S_N2 Mechanism

S_N2 stands for *substitution nucleophilic bimolecular.* The IUPAC designation (p. 384) is A_ND_N. In this mechanism there is *backside attack:* The nucleophile approaches the substrate from a position 180° away from the leaving group. The reaction is a one-step process with no intermediate (see, however, pp. 392-393 and 400). The C-Y bond is formed as the C-X bond is broken:



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The energy necessary to break the C—X bond is supplied by simultaneous formation of the C—Y bond. The position of the atoms at the top of the curve of free energy of activation can be represented as 1. Of course, the reaction does not stop here: This is the transition state. The group X must leave as the group Y comes in, because at no time can the carbon have more than eight electrons in its outer shell. When the transition state is reached, the central carbon atom has gone from its initial sp^3 hybridization to an sp^2 state with an approximately perpendicular *p* orbital. One lobe of this *p* orbital overlaps with the nucleophile and the other with the leaving group. This is why a frontside S_N2 mechanism has never been observed. In a hypothetical frontside transition state, both the nucleophile and the leaving group would have to overlap with the same lobe of the *p* orbital. The backside mechanism involves the maximum amount of overlap throughout the course of the reaction. During the transition state the three nonreacting substituents and the central carbon are approximately coplanar. They will be exactly coplanar if both the entering and the leaving group are the same.

There is a large amount of evidence for the S_N2 mechanism. First, there is the kinetic evidence. Since both the nucleophile and the substrate are involved in the rate-determining step (the only step, in this case), the reaction should be first order in each component, second order overall, and satisfy the rate expression

$$\text{Rate} = k[\text{RX}][\text{Y}] \qquad (10.1)$$

This rate law has been found to apply. It has been noted that the 2 in S_N2 stands for bimolecular. It must be remembered that this is not always the same as second order (see p. 291). If a large excess of nucleophile is present—for example, if it is the solvent—the mechanism may still be bimolecular, though the experimentally determined kinetics will be first order:

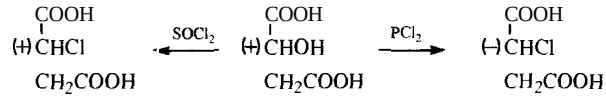
$$\text{Rate} = k[\text{RX}] \qquad (10.2)$$

As previously mentioned (p. 293), such kinetics are called *pseudo-first order.*

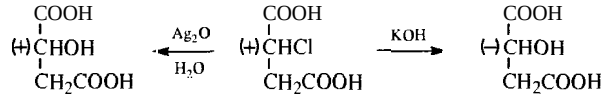
The kinetic evidence is a necessary but not a sufficient condition; we will meet other mechanisms that are also consistent with these data. Much more convincing evidence is obtained from the fact that the mechanism predicts inversion of configuration when substitution occurs at a chiral carbon and this has been observed

many times. This inversion of configuration (see p. 141) is called the *Walden inversion* and was observed long before the S_N2 mechanism was formulated by Hughes and Ingold.[2]

At this point, it is desirable for us to see just how it was originally proved that a given substitution reaction proceeds with inversion of configuration, even before the mechanism was known. Walden presented a number of examples[3] in which inversion *must* have taken place. For example, (+)-malic acid could be converted to (+)-chlorosuccinic acid by thionyl chloride and to (—)-chlorosuccinic acid by phosphorus pentachloride:

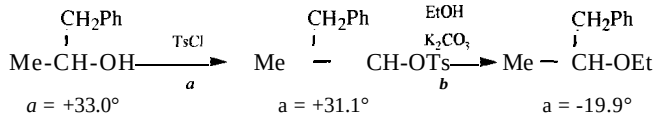


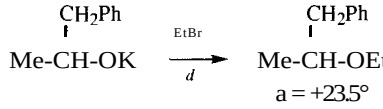
One of these must be an inversion and the other a retention of configuration, but the question is which is which? The signs of rotation are of no help in answering this question since, as we have seen (p. 138), rotation need not be related to configuration. Another example discovered by Walden is



Once again, one reaction and only one must be an inversion, but which?[4] It may also be noticed [illustrated by the use of thionyl chloride on (+)-malic acid and treatment of the product with KOH] that it is possible to convert an optically active compound into its enantiomer.[5]

A series of experiments designed to settle the matter of exactly where inversion takes place was performed by Phillips, Kenyon, and co-workers.[7] In 1923, Phillips carried out the following cycle:[6]



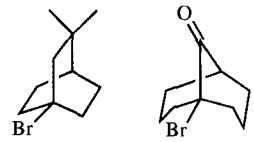


In this cycle, (+)-l-phenyl-2-propanol is converted to its ethyl ether by two routes, path *ab* giving the (—) ether, and path *cd* giving the (+) ether. Therefore, at least one of the four steps must be an inversion. It is extremely unlikely that there is inversion in step *a*, *c*, or *d*, since in all these steps the C—O bond is unbroken, and in none of them could the oxygen of the bond have come from the reagent. There is therefore a high probability that *a*, *c*, and *d* proceeded with retention, leaving *b* as the inversion. A number of other such cycles were carried out, always with nonconflicting results.[7]

These experiments not only definitely showed that certain specific reactions proceed with inversion, but also established the configurations of many compounds.

Walden inversion has been found at a primary carbon atom by the use of a chiral substrate containing a deuterium and a hydrogen atom at the carbon bearing the leaving group.[8] Inversion of configuration has also been found for S_N2 reactions proceeding in the gas phase.[9] High-pressure mass spectrometry has been used to probe the energy surface for gas-phase S_N2 reactions, which have two transition states (a "loose" transition state and a "tight" transition state).[10]

Another kind of evidence for the S_N2 mechanism comes from compounds with potential leaving groups at bridgehead carbons. If the S_N2 mechanism is correct, these compounds should not be able to react by this mechanism, since the



2 3

nucleophile cannot approach from the rear. Among the many known examples of unsuccessful reaction attempts at bridgeheads under S_N2 conditions[11] are treatment of the [2.2.2] system **2** with ethoxide ion[12] and treatment of the [3.3.1] system3 with sodium iodide in acetone.[13] In these cases, open-chain analogs underwent the reactions readily. As a final example of evidence for the S_N2 mechanism, the reaction between optically active 2-octyl iodide and radioactive iodide ion may be mentioned:

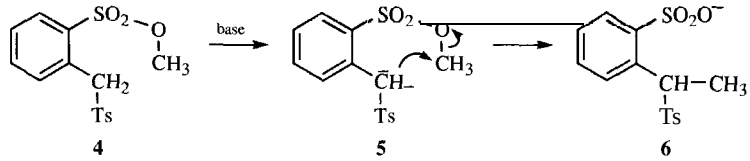
$$C_6H_{13}CHMeI + {}^*I^- \longrightarrow C_6H_{13}CHMe{}^*I + I^-$$

We expect racemization in this reaction, since if we start with the pure *(R)* isomer, at first each exchange will produce an (*S*) isomer, but with increasing concentration of *(S)* isomer, *it* will begin to compete for I^- with the *(R)* isomer, until at the end a racemic mixture is left. The point investigated was a comparison of the rate of inversion with the rate of uptake of radioactive ${}^*I^-$. It was found[14] that the rates were identical within experimental error:

Rate of inversion	$2.88 \pm 0.03 \times 10^{-5}$
Rate of exchange	$3.00 \pm 0.25 \times 10^{-5}$

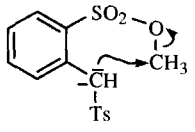
What was actually measured was the rate of racemization, which is twice the rate of inversion, since each inversion creates, in effect, two racemic molecules. The significance of this result is that it shows that every act of exchange is an act of inversion.

Eschenmoser and co-workers[15] have provided strong evidence that the transition state in an S_N2 reaction must be linear. Base treatment of methyl α-tosyl-*o*-toluenesulfonate (4) gives the *o*-(1-tosylethyl)benzenesulfonate ion (6). The role of



4 5 6

the base is to remove the a proton to give the ion 5. It might be supposed that the negatively charged carbon of 5 attacks the methyl group in an internal S_N2 process:



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but this is not the case. Crossover experiments[15] (p. 726) have shown that the negatively charged carbon attacks the methyl group of another molecule rather than the nearby one in the same molecule, that is, the reaction is intermolecular and not intramolecular, despite the more favorable entropy of the latter pathway (p. 280). The obvious conclusion is that intramolecular attack does not take place because complete linearity cannot be attained. This behavior is in sharp contrast to that in cases in which the leaving group is not constrained (p. 404), where intramolecular S_N2 mechanisms operate freely.

There is evidence, both experimental and theoretical, that there are intermediates in at least some S_N2 reactions in the gas phase, in charge type I reactions, where a negative ion nucleophile attacks a neutral substrate. Two energy minima, one before and one after the transition state, appear in the reaction coordinate (Fig. 10.1).[16] The energy surface for the S_N2 Menshutkin reaction (p. 499) has been examined and it was shown that charge separation was promoted by the solvent.[17] An *ab initio* study of the S_N2 reaction at primary and secondary carbon centers has looked at the energy barrier (at the transition state) to the reaction.[18] These minima correspond to unsymmetrical ion–dipole complexes.[19] Theoretical calculations also show such minima in certain solvents, (e.g., DMF), but not in water.[20]

For a list of some of the more important reactions that operate by the S_N2 mechanism, see Table 10.7.

The S_N1 Mechanism

The most ideal version of the S_N1 mechanism *{substitution nucleophilic unimolecular*) consists of two steps (once again, possible charges on the substrate and nucleophile are not shown):

$$\text{Step 1} \quad \text{R-X} \underset{\text{fast}}{\overset{\text{slow}}{\rightleftharpoons}} \text{R} + \text{X}$$

$$\text{Step 2} \quad \text{R} + \text{Y} \xrightarrow{\text{fast}} \text{R-Y}$$

The first step is a slow ionization of the substrate and is the rate-determining step. The second is a rapid reaction between the intermediate carbocation and the nucleophile. The ionization is always assisted by the solvent,[21] since the energy necessary to break the bond is largely recovered by solvation of R^+ and of X. For example, the ionization of *t*-BuCl to *t*-Bu^+ and Cl^- in the gas phase without a solvent requires 150 kcal mol^{-1} (630 kJ mol^{-1}). In the absence of a solvent such a process simply would not take place, except at very high temperatures. In water, this

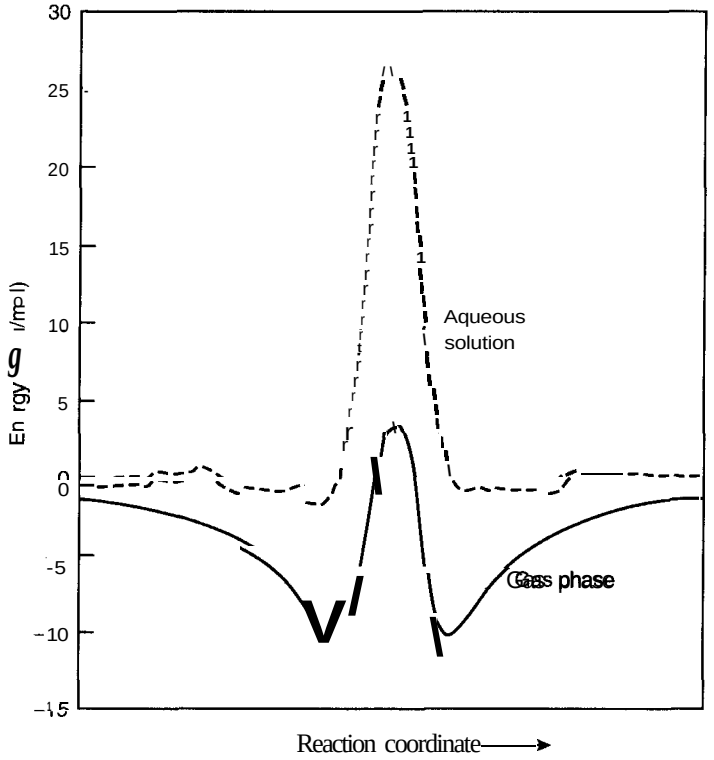


FIGURE 10.1 Free energy profile for the gas-phase (solid line) and aqueous soltuion (dashed line) S_N2 reaction between CH_3Cl and Cl^-, from MO calculations.[16]

ionization requires only 20 kcal mol^{-1} (84 kJ mol^{-1}). The difference is solvation energy. In cases where the role of the solvent is solely to assist in departure of the leaving group from the frontside, that is, where there is a complete absence of backside (S_N2) participation by solvent molecules, the mechanism is called *limiting* S_N1. There is kinetic and other evidence[22] that in pulling X away from RX, two molecules of a protic solvent form weak hydrogen bonds with X.

$$R{-}X \begin{matrix} \nearrow H{-}O{-}R \\ \searrow H{-}O{-}R \end{matrix} \longrightarrow R^+$$

In the IUPAC system, the S_N1 mechanism is $D_N + A_N$ or $D_N^{\ddagger} + A_N$ (where \ denotes the rate-determining step). The IUPAC designations for the S_N1 and S_N2 mechanisms thus clearly show the essential differences between them: A_ND_N indicates that bond breaking is concurrent with bond formation; $D_N + A_N$ shows that the former happens first.

In looking for evidence for the S_N1 mechanism, the first thought is that it should be a first-order reaction following the rate law:

$$\text{Rate} = k[\text{RX}] \tag{10.3}$$

Since the slow step involves only the substrate, the rate should be dependent only on the concentration of that. Although the solvent is necessary to assist in the process of ionization, it does not enter the rate expression, because it is present in large excess. However, the simple rate law given in Eq. (10.3) is not sufficient to account for all the data. Many cases are known where pure first-order kinetics are followed, but in many other cases more complicated kinetics are found. We can explain this by taking into account the reversibility of the first step. The X formed in this step competes with Y for the cation and the rate law must be modified as follows (see Chapter 6):

$$\mathbf{RX} \underset{k_{-1}}{\overset{k_1}{\rightleftharpoons}} \mathbf{R^+} + \mathbf{X}$$

$$\mathbf{R^+} + \mathrm{Y} \xrightarrow{k_2} \mathrm{RY}$$

$$\text{Rate} = \frac{k_1 k_2 [\mathrm{RX}][\mathrm{Y}]}{k_{-1}[\mathrm{X}] + k_2[\mathrm{Y}]} \qquad (10.4)$$

At the beginning of the reaction, when the concentration of X is very small, $k_{-1}[\mathrm{X}]$ is negligible compared with $k_2[\mathrm{Y}]$ and the rate law is reduced to Eq. (10.3). Indeed, S_N1 reactions generally do display simple first-order kinetics in their initial stages. Most kinetic studies of S_N1 reactions fall into this category. In the later stages of S_N1 solvolyses, [X] becomes large and Eq. (10.4) predicts that the rate should decrease. This is found to be the case for diarylmethyl halides,[23] though not for tert-butyl halides, which follow Eq. (10.3) for the entire reaction.[24] An explanation for this difference is that *tert*-butyl cations are less selective than the relatively stable diarylmethyl type (p. 222). Although halide ion is a much more powerful nucleophile than water, there is much more water available since it is the solvent.[25] The selective diphenylmethyl cation survives many collisions with solvent molecules before combining with a reactive halide, but the less selective tert-butyl ion cannot wait for a reactive but relatively rare halide ion and combines with the solvent.

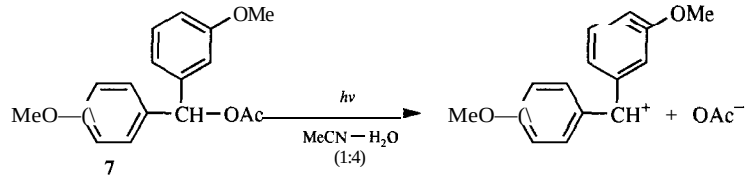
If the X formed during the reaction can decrease the rate, at least in some cases, it should be possible to *add* X from the outside and further decrease the rate in that way. This retardation of rate by addition of X is called *common-ion effect* or the *mass law effect.* Once again, addition of halide ions decreases the rate for diphenylmethyl but not for tert-butyl halides.

One factor that complicates the kinetic picture is the *salt effect.* An increase in ionic strength of the solution usually increases the rate of an S_N1 reaction (p. 451). But when the reaction is of charge type II, where both Y and RX are neutral, so that X is negatively charged (and most solvolyses are of this charge type), the ionic strength increases as the reaction proceeds and this increases the rate. This effect must be taken into account in studying the kinetics. Incidentally, the fact that the addition of outside ions *increases* the rate of most S_N1 reactions makes especially impressive the *decrease* in rate caused by the common ion.

It may be noted that the pseudo-first-order rate law for an S_N2 reaction in the presence of a large excess of Y [Eq. (10.2)] is the same as that for an ordinary S_N1 reaction [Eq. (10.3)]. It is thus not possible to tell these cases apart by simple kinetic

measurements. However, we can often distinguish between them by the common-ion effect mentioned above. Addition of a common ion will not markedly affect the rate of an S_N2 reaction beyond the effect caused by other ions. Unfortunately, as we have seen, not all S_N1 reactions show the common-ion effect, and this test fails for tert-butyl and similar cases.

Kinetic studies also provide other evidence for the S_N1 mechanism. One technique used ^{19}F NMR to follow the solvolysis of trifluoroacetyl esters.[26] If this mechanism operates essentially as shown on page 393, the rate should be the same for a given substrate under a given set of conditions, *regardless of the identity of the nucleophile or its concentration.* In one experiment that demonstrates this, benzhydryl chloride (Ph_2CHCl) was treated in SO_2 with the nucleophiles fluoride ion, pyridine, and triethylamine at several concentrations of each nucleophile.[27] In each case, the initial rate of the reaction was approximately the same when corrections were made for the salt effect. The same type of behavior has been shown in a number of other cases, even when the reagents are as different in their nucleophilicities (see p. 438) as H_2O and OH^-.



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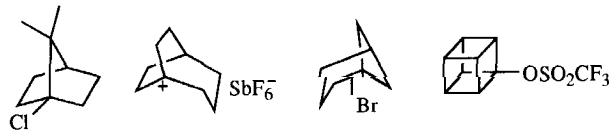
It is normally not possible to detect the carbocation intermediate of an S_N1 reaction directly, because its lifetime is very short. However, in the case of 3,4-dimethoxydiphenylmethyl acetate (7) and certain other substrates in polar solvents it was possible to initiate the reaction photolytically, and under these conditions the UV spectra of the intermediate carbocations could be obtained,[28] providing additional evidence for the S_N1 mechanism.

Further evidence for the S_N1 mechanism is that reactions run under S_N1 conditions fail or proceed very slowly at the bridgehead positions[10] of [2.2.1] (norbornyl) systems (e.g. 1-chloroapocamphane, 8).[29]

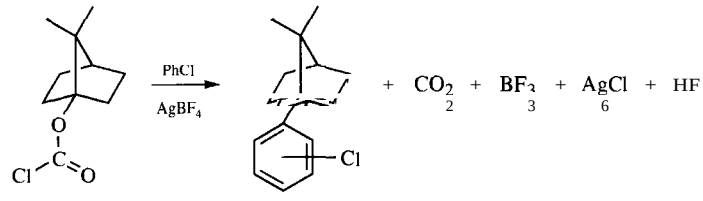


8 **9** **10** 11

If The S_N1 reactions require carbocations and if carbocations must be planar or nearly planar, then it is no surprise that bridgehead 1-norbornyl carbon atoms, which cannot assume planarity, do not become the seat of carbocations. As an example, 8, boiled 21 h with 30% KOH in 80% ethanol or 48 h with aqueous ethanolic $AgNo_3$, gave no reaction in either case,[30] though analogous open-chain systems reacted readily. According to this theory, S_N1 reactions should be possible with larger rings,

since near-planar carbocations might be expected there. This turns out to be the case. For example, [2.2.2]bicyclic systems undergo S_N1 reactions much faster than smaller bicyclic systems, though the reaction is still slower than with open-chain systems.[31] Proceeding to a still larger system, the bridgehead [3.2.2] cation 9 is actually stable enough to be kept in solution in SbF_5SO_2ClF at temperatures below $-50°C$ (see also p. 437).[32] Other small bridgehead systems that undergo S_N1 reactions are the [3.1.1] (e.g., 10)[33] and the cubyl (e.g., **11**)[34] systems. *Ab initio* calculations show that the cubyl cation, though it cannot be planar, requires less energy to form than the 1-norbornyl cation.[35] There are reactions where the cationic carbon is not coplanar with conjugating substituents (such as phenyl), and formation of the carbocation is more difficult but the reaction proceeds.[36]

Certain nucleophilic substitution reactions that normally involve carbocations can take place at norbornyl bridgeheads (though it is not certain that carbocations are actually involved in all cases)[37] if the leaving group used is of the type that cannot function as a nucleophile (and thus come back) once it has gone, for example,



In this example,[38] chlorobenzene is the nucleophile (see 11-12).

Additional evidence for the S_N1 mechanism, in particular, for the intermediacy of carbocations, is that solvolysis rates of alkyl chlorides in ethanol parallel carbocation stabilities as determined by heats of ionization measured in superacid solutions (p. 219).[39] It is important to note that some solvolysis reactions proceed by an S_N2 mechanism.[40]

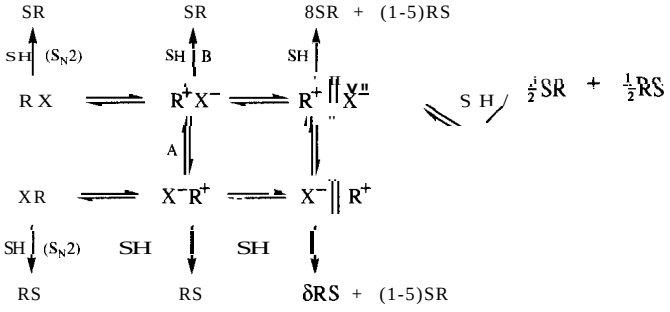
Ion Pairs in the S_N1 Mechanism[41]

Like the kinetic evidence, the stereochemical evidence for the S_N1 mechanism is less clear-cut than it is for the S_N2 mechanism. If there is a free carbocation, it is planar (p. 224), and the nucleophile should attack with equal facility from either side of the plane, resulting in complete racemization. Although many first-order substitutions do give complete racemization, many others do not. Typically there is 5-20% inversion, though in a few cases, a small amount of retention of configuration has been found. These and other results have led to the conclusion that in many S_N1 reactions at least some of the products are not formed from free carbocations but rather from *ion pairs.* According to this concept,[42] S_N1 reactions proceed in this manner:

$$\text{R-X} \rightleftharpoons \underset{12}{\text{R}^+\text{X}^-} \rightleftharpoons \underset{13}{\text{R}^+ \,\|\, \text{X}^-} \rightleftharpoons \underset{14}{\text{R}^+ + \text{X}^-}$$

where 12 is an *intimate, contact,* or *tight* ion pair; 13 a *loose,* or *solvent-separated* ion pair, and 14 is the dissociated ions (each surrounded by molecules of solvent).[43] The reaction in which the intimate ion pair recombines to give the original substrate is referred to as *internal return.* The reaction products can result from attack by the nucleophile at any stage. In the intimate ion pair 12, R^+ does not behave like the free cation of 14. There is probably significant bonding between R^+ and X^- and asymmetry may well be maintained.[44] The X^- ion "solvates" the cation on the side from which it departed, while solvent molecules near 12 can only solvate it from the opposite side. Nucleophilic attack by a solvent molecule on 12 thus leads to inversion.

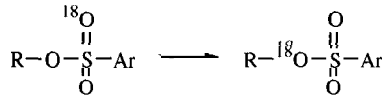
A complete picture of the possibilities for solvolysis reactions in a solvent SH (ignoring the possibilities of elimination or rearrangement, see Chapters 17 and 18) is the following,[45] though in any particular case it is unlikely that all these reactions occur



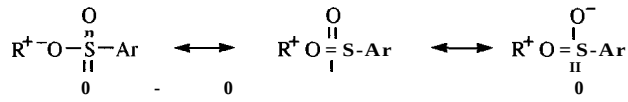
In this scheme, RS and SR represent enantiomers, and so on, and 5 represents some fraction. The following are the possibilities: (1) Direct attack by SH on RX gives SR (complete inversion) in a straight S_N2 process. (2) If the intimate ion pair R^+X^- is formed, the solvent can attack at this stage. This can lead to total inversion if Reaction *A* does not take place or to a combination of inversion and racemization if there is competition between A and *B.* (3) If the solvent-separated ion pair is formed, SH can attack here. The stereochemistry is not maintained as tightly and more racemization (perhaps total) is expected. (4) Finally, if free R^+ is formed, it is planar, and attack by SH gives complete racemization.

The ion-pair concept thus predicts that S_N1 reactions can display either complete racemization or partial inversion. The fact that this behavior is generally found is evidence that ion pairs are involved in many S_N1 reactions. There is much other evidence for the intervention of ion pairs:[46]

1. The compound 2-octyl brosylate was labeled at the sulfone oxygen with ^{18}O and solvolyzed. The unreacted brosylate recovered at various stages of solvolysis had the ^{18}O considerably, though not completely, scrambled[47]



In an intimate ion pair, the three oxygens become equivalent:

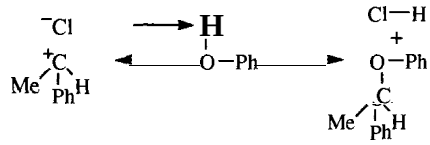


Similar results were obtained with several other sulfonate esters.[48] The possibility must be considered that the scrambling resulted from ionization of one molecule of $ROSO_2Ar$ to R^+ and $ArSO_2O^-$ followed by attack by the $ArSO_2O^-$ ion on *another* carbocation or perhaps on a molecule of $ROSO_2Ar$ in an S_N2 process. However, this was ruled out by solvolyzing unlabeled substrate in the presence of labeled $HOSO_2Ar$. These experiments showed that there was some intermolecular exchange (3-20%), but not nearly enough to account for the amount of scrambling found in the original experiments. Similar scrambling was found in solvolysis of labeled carboxylic esters $R-{}^{18}O-COR'$, where the leaving group is $R'COO^-$.[49] In this case also, the external addition of $RCOO^-$ did not result in significant exchange. However, it has been proposed that the scrambling could result from a concerted process, not involving ion-pair intermediates, and there is some evidence for this view.[50]

2. The *special salt effect.* The addition of $LiClO_4$ or LiBr in the acetolysis of certain tosylates produced an initial steep rate acceleration that then decreased to the normal linear acceleration (caused by the ordinary salt effect).[51] This is interpreted as follows: the ClO_4^- (or Br^-) traps the solvent-separated ion pair to give $R^+ \parallel ClO_4^-$ which, being unstable under these conditions, goes to product. Hence, the amount of sol vent-separated ion pair that would have returned to the starting material is reduced, and the rate of the overall reaction is increased. The special salt effect has been directly observed by the use of picosecond absorption spectroscopy.[52]
3. We have previously discussed the possibilities of racemization or inversion of the *product* RS of a solvolysis reaction. However, the formation of an ion pair followed by internal return can also affect the stereochemistry of the *substrate* molecule RX. Cases have been found where internal return racemizes an original optically active RX, an example being solvolysis in aqueous acetone of α-*p*-anisylethyl p-nitrobenzoate,[53] while in other cases partial or complete retention is found, for example, solvolysis in aqueous acetone of *p*-chlorobenzhydryl *p*-nitrobenzoate.[54] Racemization of RX is presumably caused by the pathway: $RX \leftrightarrows R^+X^- \leftrightarrows X^-R^+ \leftrightarrows XR$. Evidence for ion pairs is that, in some cases where internal return involves racemization, it has been shown that such racemization is *faster* than solvolysis. For example, optically active *p*-chlorobenzhydryl chloride racemizes ~ 30 times faster than it solvolyzes in acetic acid.[55]

Molecular orbital calculations[56] made on *t*-BuCl show that the C--Cl distance in the intimate ion pair is 2.9 Å and the onset of the solvent-separated ion pair takes place at ~5.5 Å (cf. the C—Cl bond length of 1.8 Å).

In a few cases, S_N1 reactions have been found to proceed with partial retention (20-50%) of configuration. Ion pairs have been invoked to explain some of these.[57] For example, it has been proposed that the phenolysis of optically active α-phenylethyl chloride, in which the ether of net retained configuration is obtained, involves a four-center mechanism:



This conclusion is strengthened by the fact that partial retention was obtained in this system only with chloride or other neutral leaving groups; with leaving groups bearing a positive charge, which are much less likely to form hydrogen bonds with the solvent, no retention was found.[58] Partial retention can also arise when the ion pair is shielded at the backside by an additive such as acetonitrile, acetone, or aniline.[59]

The difference between the S_N1 and S_N2 mechanisms is in the timing of the steps. In the S_N1 mechanism, first X leaves, then Y attacks. In the S_N2 case, the two things happen simultaneously. One could imagine a third possibility: first the attack of Y, and then the removal of X. This is not possible at a saturated carbon, since it would mean more than eight electrons in the outer shell of carbon. However, this type of mechanism is possible and indeed occurs at other types of substrate (p. 424; Chapter 13).

Mixed S_N1 and S_N2 Mechanisms

Some reactions of a given substrate under a given set of conditions display all the characteristics of S_N2 mechanisms; other reactions seem to proceed by S_N1 mechanisms, but cases are found that cannot be characterized so easily. There seems to be something in between, a mechanistic "borderline" region.[60] At least two broad theories have been devised to explain these phenomena. One theory holds that intermediate behavior is caused by a mechanism that is neither "pure" S_N1 nor "pure" S_N2, but some "in-between" type. According to the second theory, there is no intermediate mechanism at all, and borderline behavior is caused by simultaneous operation, in the same flask, of both the S_N1 and S_N2 mechanisms; that is, some molecules react by the S_N1, while others react by the S_N2 mechanism.

Sneen et al. formulated an intermediate-mechanism theory.[61] The formulation is in fact very broad and applies not only to borderline behavior but to all nucleophilic substitutions at a saturated carbon.[62] According to Sneen, all S_N1 and S_N2 reactions can be accommodated by one basic mechanism (the *ion-pair mechanism).* The substrate first ionizes to an intermediate ion pair that is then converted to products:

$$RX \underset{}{\overset{k_1}{\rightleftharpoons}} R^+X^- \overset{k_2}{\rightleftharpoons} \text{products}$$

The difference between the S_N1 and S_N2 mechanisms is that in the former case the *formation* of the ion pair (k_1) is rate determining, while in the S_N2 mechanism its *destruction* (k_2) is rate determining. Borderline behavior is found where the rates of formation and destruction of the ion pair are of the same order of magnitude.[63] However, a number of investigators have asserted that these results could also be explained in other ways.[64]

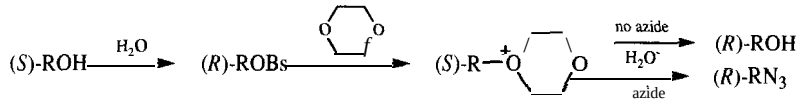
There is evidence for the Sneen formulation where the leaving group has a positive charge. In this case, there is a cation-molecule pair ($RX^+ \rightarrow R^+X$)[65] instead of the ion pair that would be present if the leaving group were uncharged. Katritzky, et al.[66] found that when such a reaction was run at varying high pressures, there was a minimum in the plot of rate constant versus pressure. A minimum of this sort usually indicates a change in mechanism, and the interpretation in this case was that the normal S_N2 mechanism operates at higher pressures and the cation–molecule mechanism at lower pressures.

An alternative view that also favors an intermediate mechanism is that of Schleyer and co-workers,[67] who believe that the key to the problem is varying degrees of nucleophilic solvent assistance to ion-pair formation. They have proposed an S_N2 (intermediate) mechanism.[68]

Among the experiments that have been cited for the viewpoint that borderline behavior results from simultaneous S_N1 and S_N2 mechanisms is the behavior of 4-methoxybenzyl chloride in 70% aqueous acetone.[69] In this solvent, hydrolysis (i.e., conversion to 4-methoxybenzyl alcohol) occurs by an S_N1 mechanism. When azide ions are added, the alcohol is still a product, but now 4-methoxybenzyl azide is another product. Addition of azide ions increases the rate of ionization (by the salt effect) but *decreases* the rate of hydrolysis. If more carbocations are produced but fewer go to the alcohol, then some azide must be formed by reaction with carbocations—an S_N1 process. However, the rate of ionization is always *less* than the total rate of reaction, so some azide must also form by an S_N2 mechanism.[69] Thus, the conclusion is that S_N1 and S_N2 mechanisms operate simultaneously.[70]

Some nucleophilic substitution reactions that seem to involve a "borderline" mechanism actually do not. Thus, one of the principal indications that a "borderline" mechanism is taking place has been the finding of partial racemization and partial inversion. However, Weiner and Sneen[71] demonstrated that this type of stereochemical behavior is quite consistent with a strictly S_N2 process. These workers studied the reaction of optically active 2-octyl brosylate in 75% aqueous dioxane, under which condition inverted 2-octanol was obtained in 77% optical purity. When sodium azide was added, 2-octyl azide was obtained along with the 2-octanol, *but the latter was now 100% inverted.* It is apparent that, in the original case, 2-octanol was produced by two different processes: an S_N2 reaction leading to inverted product, and another process in which some intermediate leads to racemization or retention. When azide ions were added, they scavenged this intermediate, so that the entire second process now went to produce azide, while the S_N2 reaction, unaffected by addition of azide, still went on to give inverted 2-octanol. What is the nature of the intermediate in the second process? At first thought, we might suppose that it is a carbocation, so that this would be another example of

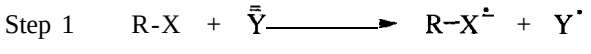
simultaneous S_N1 and S_N2 reactions. However, solvolysis of 2-octyl brosylate in pure methanol or of 2-octyl methanesulfonate in pure water, in the absence of azide ions, gave methyl 2-octyl ether or 2-octanol, respectively, *with 100% inversion of configuration,* indicating that the mechanism in these solvents was pure S_N2. Since methanol and water are more polar than 75% aqueous dioxane and since an increase in polarity of solvent increases the rate of S_N1 reactions at the expense of S_N2 (p. 448), it is extremely unlikely that any S_N1 process could occur in 75% aqueous dioxane. The intermediate in the second process is thus not a carbocation. It's nature is suggested by the fact that, in the absence of azide ions, the amount of inverted 2-octanol decreased with an increasing percentage of dioxane in the solvent. Thus the intermediate is an oxonium ion formed by an S_N2 attack *by dioxane.* This ion is not a stable product but reacts with water in another S_N2 process to produce 2-octanol with retained configuration. The entire process can be shown as follows:



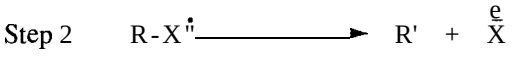
That part of the original reaction that resulted in retention of configuration[72] is thus seen to stem from two successive S_N2 reactions and not from any "borderline" behavior.[73]

SET Mechanisms

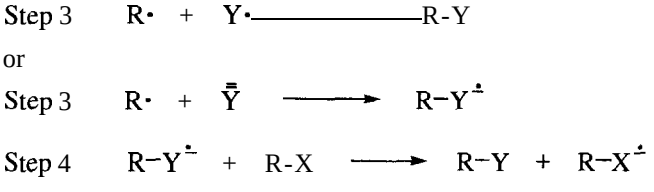
In certain reactions where nucleophilic substitutions would seem obviously indicated, there is evidence that radicals and/or radical ions are actually involved.[74] The first step in such a process is transfer of an electron from the nucleophile to the substrate to form a radical anion:



Mechanisms that begin this way are called *SET* (see p. 237) *mechanisms.*[75] Once formed, the radical ion cleaves:

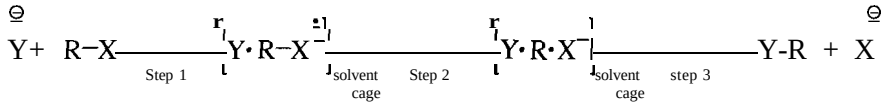


The radicals formed in this way can go on to product by reacting with the $Y\cdot$ produced in step 1 or with the original nucleophilic ion Y^-, in which case an additional step is necessary:



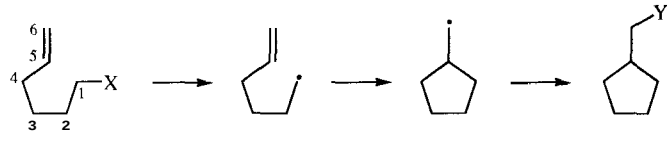
In the latter case, the radical ion $R{-}X^{\bullet-}$ is formed by Step 4 as well as by Step 1, so that a chain reaction (p. 895) can take place.

One type of evidence for an SET mechanism is the finding of some racemization. A totally free radical would of course result in a completely racemized product RY, but it has been suggested[76] that inversion can also take place in some SET processes. The suggestion is that in step 1 the Y^- still approaches from the backside, even though an ordinary S_N2 mechanism will not follow, and that the radical R·, once formed, remains in a solvent cage with Y· still opposite X^-, so that steps 1, 2, and 3 can lead to inversion.

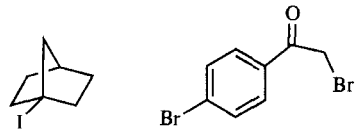


Reactions with SET mechanisms typically show predominant, though not 100%, inversion.

Other evidence cited[77] for SET mechanisms has been detection of radical or radical ion intermediates by ESR[78] or CIDNP; the finding that such reactions can take place at *1-norbornyl* bridgeheads;[79] and the formation of cyclic side products when the substrate has a double bond in the 5,6 position (such substrates are called *radical probes).*



Free radicals with double bonds in this position are known to cyclize readily (p. 978).[80]



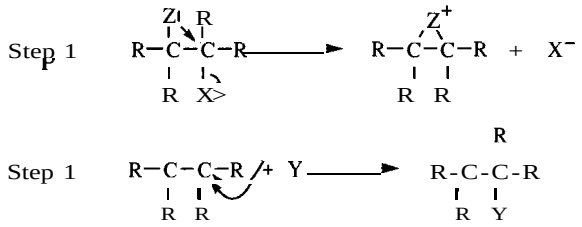
15 **16**

The SET mechanism is chiefly found where X = **I** or NO_2 (see **10-104).** A closely related mechanism, the $S_{RN}1$, takes place with aromatic substrates (Chapter 13).[81] In that mechanism the initial attack is by an electron donor, rather than a nucleophile. The $S_{RN}1$ mechanism has also been invoked for reactions of enolate anions with 2-iodobicyclo[4.1.0]heptane.[82] An example is the reaction of 1-iodobicyclo[2.2.1]-heptane (15) with $NaSnMe_3$ or $LiPPh_2$, and some other nucleophiles, to give the substitution product.[83] Another is the reaction of bromo 4-bromoacetOphenone (16) with Bu_4NBr in cumene.[84] The two mechanisms, S_N2 versus SET have been compared and contrasted.[85] There are also reactions where it is reported that radical, carbanion, and carbene pathways occur simultaneously.[86]

The mechanisms so far considered can, in theory at least, operate on any type of saturated (or for that matter unsaturated) substrate. There are other mechanisms that are more limited in scope.

The Neighboring-Group Mechanism[87]

It is occasionally found with certain substrates that (1) the rate of reaction is greater than expected, and (2) the configuration at a chiral carbon is *retained* and not inverted or racemized. In these cases, there is usually a group with an unshared pair of electrons (3 to the leaving group (or sometimes farther away). The mechanism operating in such cases is called the *neighboring-group mechanism* and consists essentially of two S_N2 substitutions, each causing an inversion so the net result is retention of configuration.[88] In the first step of this reaction the neighboring group acts as a nucleophile, pushing out the leaving group but still retaining attachment to the molecule. In the second step, the external nucleophile displaces the neighboring group by a backside attack:



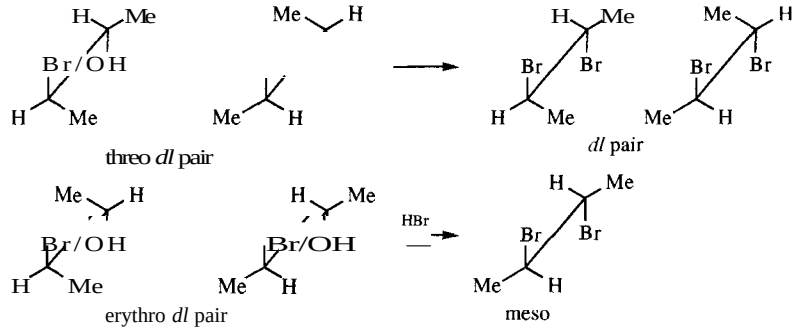
The reaction obviously must go faster than if Y were attacking directly, since if the latter process were faster, *it* would be happening. The neighboring group Z is said to be lending *anchimeric assistance.* The rate law followed in the neighboring-group mechanism is the first-order law shown in Eq. (10.2) or (10.3); that is, Y does not take part in the rate-determining step.

The reason attack by Z is faster than that by Y is that the group Z is more available. In order for Y to react, it must collide with the substrate, but Z is immediately available by virtue of its position. A reaction between the substrate and Y involves a large decrease in entropy of activation ($\Delta S^{\ddagger}$), since the reactants are far less free in the transition state than before. Reaction of Z involves a much smaller loss of $\Delta S^{\ddagger}$ (see p. 280).[89]

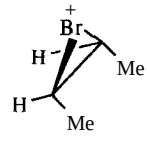
It is not always easy to determine when a reaction rate has been increased by anchimeric assistance. In order to be certain, it is necessary to know what the rate would be without participation by the neighboring group. The obvious way to examine this question is to compare the rates of the reaction with and without the neighboring group, for example, $HOCH_2CH_2Br$ versus CH_3CH_2Br. However, this will certainly not give an accurate determination of the extent of participation, since the steric and field effects of H and OH are not the same. Furthermore, no matter what the solvent, the shell of solvent molecules that surrounds the polar protic OH group must differ greatly from that which surrounds the nonpolar H. Because of

these considerations, it is desirable to have a large increase in the rate, preferably more than 50-fold, before a rate increase is attributed to neighboring-group participation.

The first important evidence for the existence of this mechanism was the demonstration that retention of configuration can occur if the substrate is suitable. It was shown that the threo *dl* pair of 3-bromo-2-butanol when treated with HBr gave *dl*-2,3-dibromobutane, while the erythro pair gave the meso isomer:[90]



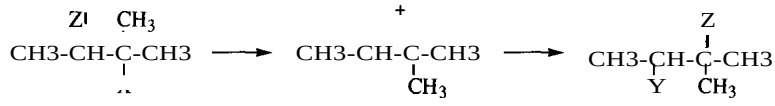
This indicated that retention had taken place. Note that both products are optically inactive and so cannot be told apart by differences in rotation. The meso and *dl* dibromides have different boiling points and indexes of refraction and were identified by these properties. Even more convincing evidence was that either of the two threo isomers alone gave not just one of the enantiomeric dibromides, but the *dl* pair. The reason for this is that the intermediate present after the attack by the neighboring group (17) is symmetrical, so the external nucleophile Br^- can attack



17

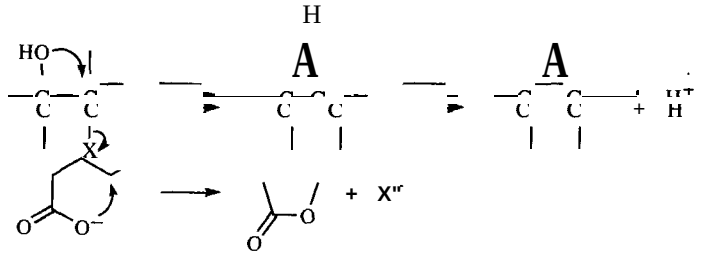
both carbon atoms equally well. Compound 17 is a bromonium ion, the existence of which has been demonstrated in several types of reactions.

Although 17 is symmetrical, intermediates in most neighboring-group mechanisms are not, and it is therefore possible to get not a simple substitution product but a rearrangement. This will happen if Y attacks not the carbon atom from which X left, but the one to which Z was originally attached:

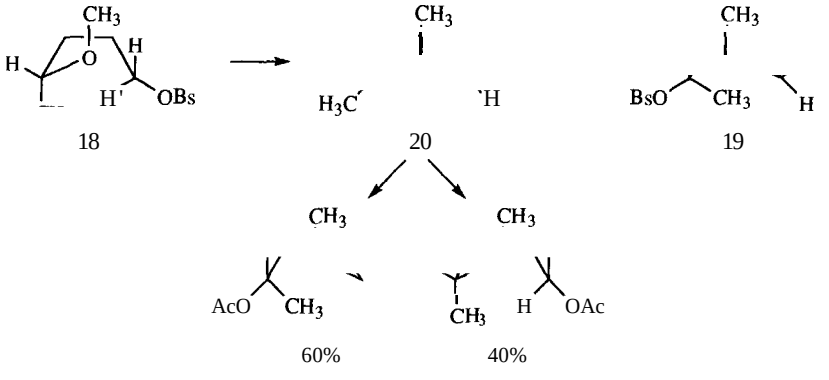


In such cases, substitution and rearrangement products are often produced together. For a discussion of rearrangements, see Chapter 18.

Another possibility is that the intermediate may be stable or may find some other way to stabilize itself. In such cases, Y never attacks at all and the product is cyclic. These are simple internal S_N2 reactions. Two examples are formation of epoxides and lactones:



The fact that acetolysis of both 4-methoxy-1-pentyl brosylate (18) and 5-methoxy-2-pentyl brosylate (19) gave the same mixture of products is further evidence for



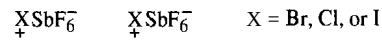
participation by a neighboring group.[91] In this case, the intermediate 20 is common to both substrates.

The neighboring-group mechanism operates only when the ring size is right for a particular type of Z. For example, for $MeO(CH_2)_nOBs$, neighboring-group participation was important for $n = 4$ or 5 (corresponding to a five- or six-membered intermediate) but not for $n = 2$, 3, or 6.[92] However, optimum ring size is not the same for all reactions, even with a particular Z. In general, the most rapid reactions occur when the ring size is three, five, or six, depending on the reaction type. The likelihood of four-membered ring neighboring-group participation is increased when there are alkyl groups α or β to the neighboring group.[93]

The following are some of the more important neighboring groups: COO^- (but not COOH), COOR, COAr, OCOR,[94] OR, OH, O^-,[95] NH_2, NHR, NR_2, NHCOR, SH, SR, S^-,[96] I, Br, and Cl. The effectiveness of halogens as neighboring groups decreases in the order I > Br > Cl.[97] Chlorine is a very weak neighboring group and

can be shown to act in this way only when the solvent does not interfere. For example, when 5-chloro-2-hexyl tosylate is solvolyzed in acetic acid, there is little participation by the Cl, but when the solvent is changed to trifluoroacetic acid, which is much less nucleophilic, neighboring-group participation by the Cl becomes the major reaction pathway.[98] Thus, Cl acts as a neighboring group *only when there is need for it* (for other examples of the *principle of increasing electron demand,* see below; p. 410).

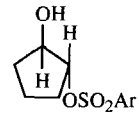
A number of intermediates of halogen participation (halonium ions, e.g., 21 and 22)" have been prepared as stable salts in SbF_5—SO_2 or SbF_5—SO_2ClF solutions.[100]



21 22

Some have even been crystallized. Attempts to prepare four-membered homologs of 21 and 22 were not successful.[101] There is no evidence that F can act as a neighboring group.[97]

The principle that a neighboring group lends assistance in proportion to the need for such assistance also applies to differences in leaving-group ability. Thus, *p*-$NO_2C_6H_4SO_2O$ (the nosylate group) is a better leaving group than *p*-$MeC_6H_4SO_2O$ (the tosylate group). Experiments have shown that the OH group in *trans*-2-hydroxycyclopentyl arenesulfonates:

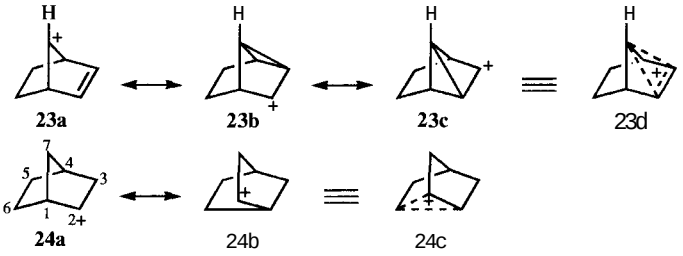


acts as a neighboring group when the leaving group is tosylate but not when it is nosylate, apparently because the nosylate group leaves so rapidly that it does not require assistance.[102]

Neighboring-Group Participation by *n* and σ Bonds: Nonclassical Carbocations[103]

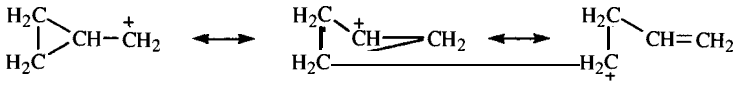
For all the neighboring groups listed in the preceding section, the nucleophilic attack is made by an atom with an unshared pair of electrons. In this section, we consider neighboring-group participation by C=C *n* bonds and C—C and C—H a bonds. There has been a great deal of controversy over whether such bonds can act as neighboring groups and about the existence and structure of the intermediates involved. These intermediates are called *nonclassical* (or *bridged)* carbocations. In classical carbocations (Chapter 5), the positive charge is localized on one carbon atom or delocalized by resonance involving an unshared pair of electrons or a double or triple bond in the allylic position. In a nonclassical carbocation, the positive charge is delocalized by a double or triple bond that is not in the allylic position or by

a single bond. Examples are the 7-norbornenyl cation (23), the norbornyl cation



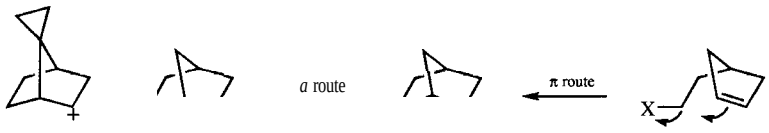
23a 23b 23c 23d

24a 24b 24c



25a 25b 25c

(**24**),[104] and the cyclopropylmethyl cation (25). A cyclopropyl group (as in 26) is capable of stabilizing the norbornyl cation, inhibiting this rearrangement.[105] Cation 23 is called a *homoallylic* carbocation, because in 23a there is one carbon atom between the positively charged carbon and the double bond. Many of these carbocations can be produced in more than one way if the proper substrates are chosen. For example, 24 can be generated by the departure of a leaving group from



26 27 24 28

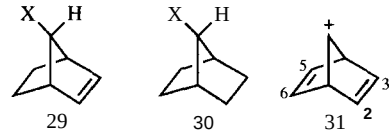
27 or from 28.[106] The first of these pathways is called the σ route to a nonclassical carbocation, because participation of a σ bond is involved. The second is called the *n* route.[107] The argument against the existence of nonclassical carbocations is essentially that the structures 23a, 23b, 23c (or 24a, 24b, etc.) are not canonical forms but real structures and that there is rapid equilibration among them.

In discussing nonclassical carbocations we must be careful to make the distinction between neighboring-group participation and the existence of nonclassical carbocations.[108] If a nonclassical carbocation exists in any reaction, then an ion with electron delocalization, as shown in the above examples, is a discrete reaction intermediate. If a carbon-carbon double or single bond participates in the departure of the leaving group to form a carbocation, it may be that a nonclassical carbocation is involved, but there is no necessary relation. In any particular case, either or both of these possibilities can be taking place.

In the following pages, we consider some of the evidence bearing on the questions of the participation of *n* and σ bonds and on the existence of nonclassical carbocations,[109] though a thorough discussion is beyond the scope of this book.[89]

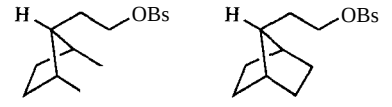
1. *C=C as a neighboring group.*[110] The most striking evidence that C=C can act as a neighboring group is that acetolysis of **29**–OTs is 10^{11} times faster

than that of 30-OTs and *proceeds with retention of configuration,*[111] where OTs=tosyl=$-OSO_2C_6H_4$-4-Ne. The rate data alone do not necessarily prove that acetolysis of 29-OTs involves a nonclassical intermediate (23d), but it is



29 30 31

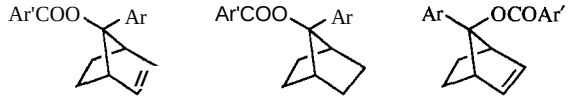
certainly strong evidence that the C=C group assists in the departure of the OTs. Evidence that 23 is indeed a nonclassical ion comes from an NMR study of the relatively stable norbornadienyl cation (31). The spectrum shows that the 2 and 3 protons are not equivalent to the 5 and 6 protons.[112] Thus there is interaction between the charged carbon and one double bond, which is evidence for the existence of **23d**.[113] In the case of 29, the double bond is geometrically fixed in an especially favorable position for backside attack on the carbon bearing the leaving group (hence the very large rate enhancement), but there is much evidence that other double bonds in the homoallylic position,[114] as well as in positions farther away,[115] can also lend anchimeric assistance, though generally with much lower rate ratios. One example of the latter is the compound β-(*syn*-7-norbornenyl)ethyl brosylate (32), which at



32 33

25°C undergoes acetolysis ~ 140,000 times faster than the saturated analog 33.[116] Triple bonds[117] and allenes[118] can also act as neighboring groups.

We have already seen evidence that participation by a potential neighboring group can be reduced or eliminated if an outside nucleophile is present that is more effective than the neighboring group in attacking the central carbon (p. 407), or if a sufficiently good leaving group is present (p. 407). In another example of the principle of increasing electron demand, Gassman et al.[119] showed that neighboring-group participation can also be reduced if the stability of the potential carbocation is increased. They found that the presence of a *p*-anisyl group at the 7 position of 29 and 30 exerts a powerful leveling effect on the rate differences. Thus, solvolysis in acetone-water at 85°C of 34 was only ~2.5 times faster than that of the saturated compound 35.

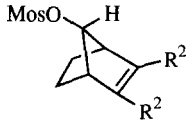


34 35 **36**

Ar = *p*-$MeOC_6H_4$ Ar' = *p*-$NO_2C_6H_4$

Furthermore, both 34 and its stereoisomer 36 gave the same mixture of solvolysis products, showing that the stereoselectivity in the solvolysis of 29 is not present here. The difference between 34 and 29 is that in the case of 34 the positive charge generated at the 7 position in the transition state is greatly stabilized by the *p*-anisyl group. Apparently, the stabilization by the *p*-anisyl group is so great that further stabilization that would come from participation by the C=C bond is not needed.[120] The use of a phenyl instead of a *p*-anisyl group is not sufficient to stop participation by the double bond completely, though it does reduce it.[121] These results permit us to emphasize our previous conclusion that *a neighboring group lends anchimeric assistance only when there is sufficient demand for it}*[22]

The ability of C=C to serve as a neighboring group can depend on its electron density. When the strongly electron-withdrawing CF_3 group was attached to a double bond carbon of 37, the solvolysis rate was lowered by a



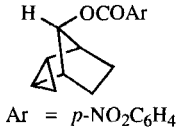
37

Relative Rates	
$R^1 = R^2 = H$	1.4×10^{12}
$R^1 = H,\ R^2 = CF_3$	1.5×10^{6}
$R^1 = R^2 = CF_3$	1

Mos = MeO-Ar-SO_2—

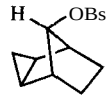
factor of $\sim 10^6$.[123] A second CF_3 group had an equally strong effect. In this case, two CF_3 groups decrease the electron density of the C=C bond to the point that the solvolysis rate for 37 ($R^1 = R^2 = CF_3$) was about the same as (actually ~ 17 times slower than) the rate for the saturated substrate 30 (X = OMos). Thus, the two CF_3 groups completely remove the ability of the C=C bond to act as a neighboring group.

2. *Cyclopropyl*[124] *as a Neighboring Group}*[25] On page 180, we saw that the properties of a cyclopropane ring are in some ways similar to those of a double bond. Therefore it is not surprising that a suitably placed cyclopropyl ring can

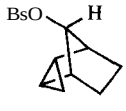


Ar = *p*-$NO_2C_6H_4$

38



39

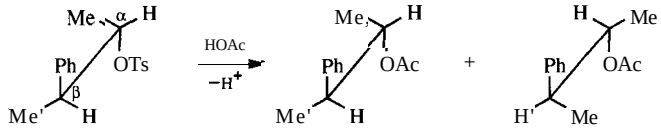


40

also be a neighboring group. Thus *endo-anti*-tricyclo[3.2.1.$0^{2,4}$]octan-8-yl *p*-nitrobenzoate (38) solvolyzed $\sim 10^{14}$ times faster that the *p*-nitrobenzoate of **30**-OH.[126] Obviously, a suitably placed cyclopropyl ring can be even more effective[127] as a neighboring group than a double bond.[128] The need for suitable placement is emphasized by the fact that 40 solvolyzed only about five times faster than **30**-OBs,[129] while 39 solvolyzed three times *slower* than 30-OBs.[130] In the case of 38 and of all other cases known where cyclopropyl lends considerable anchimeric assistance, the developing *p* orbital of the carbocation

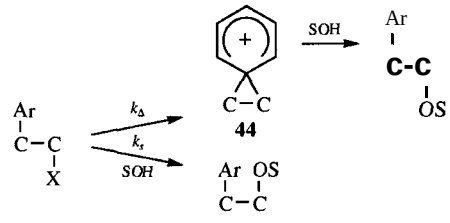
is orthogonal to the participating bond of the cyclopropane ring.[131] An experiment designed to test whether a developing *p* orbital that would be parallel to the participating bond would be assisted by that bond showed no rate enhancement.[131] This is in contrast to the behavior of cyclopropane rings directly attached to positively charged carbons, where the *p* orbital is parallel to the plane of the ring (pp. 222, 417). Rate enhancements, though considerably smaller, have also been reported for suitably placed cyclobutyl rings.[132]

3. *Aromatic Rings as Neighboring Groups.*[133] There is a great deal of evidence that aromatic rings in the (3 position can function as neighboring groups.[134] Stereochemical evidence was obtained by solvolysis of L-*threo*-3-phenyl-2-



41 42 43

butyl tosylate (41) in acetic acid.[135] Of the acetate product, 96% was the threo isomer and only ~ 4% was erythro. Moreover, both the (+) and (—) threo isomers (42 and 43) were produced in approximately equal amounts (a racemic mixture). When solvolysis was conducted in formic acid, even less erythro isomer was obtained. This result is similar to that found on reaction of 3-bromo-2-butanol with HBr (p. 404) and leads to the conclusion that configuration is retained because phenyl acts as a neighboring group. However, evidence from rate studies is not so simple. If β-aryl groups assist the departure of the leaving group, solvolysis rates should be enhanced. In general they are not. However, solvolysis rate studies in 2-arylethyl systems are complicated by the fact that, for primary and secondary systems, two pathways can exist.[136] In one of these (designated k_Δ), the aryl, behaving as a neighboring group, pushes out the leaving group to give a bridged ion, called a *phenonium ion* (44), and is in turn pushed out by the solvent SOH, so the net



result is substitution with retention of configuration (or rearrangement, if 44 is opened from the other side). The other pathway (k_s) is simple S_N2 attack by the solvent at the leaving-group carbon. The net result here is substitution with

inversion and no possibility of rearrangement. Whether the leaving group is located at a primary or a secondary carbon, there is no crossover between these pathways; they are completely independent.[137] (Both the k_Δ and k_s pathways are unimportant when the leaving group is at a tertiary carbon. In these cases the mechanism is S_N1 and open carbocations $ArCH_2CR_2^+$ are intermediates. This pathway is designated k_c). Which of the two pathways (k_s or k_Δ) predominates in any given case depends on the solvent and on the nature of the aryl group. As expected from the results we have seen for Cl as a neighboring group (p. 407), the k_Δ/k_s ratio is highest for solvents that are poor nucleophiles and so compete very poorly with the aryl group. For several common solvents, the k_Δ/k_s ratio increases in the order EtOH < MeCOOH < HCOOH< CF3COOH.[138] In accord with this, the following percentages of retention were obtained in solvolysis of 1-phenyl-2-propyl tosylate at 50°C: solvolysis in EtOH 7%, MeCOOH 35%, HCOOH 85%.[138] This indicates that k_s predominates in EtOH (phenyl participates very little), while k_Δ predominates in HCOOH. Trifluoroacetic acid is a solvent of particularly low nucleophilic power, and in this solvent the reaction proceeds entirely by k_Δ;[139] deuterium labeling showed 100% retention.[140] This case provides a clear example of neighboring-group rate enhancement by phenyl: the rate of solvolysis of $PhCH_2CH_2OTs$ at 75°C in CF_3COOH is 3040 times the rate for CH3CH2 OTs.[139]

With respect to the aromatic ring, the k_Δ pathway is electrophilic aromatic substitution (Chapter 11). We predict that groups on the ring that activate this reaction (p. 681) will increase, and deactivating groups will decrease, the rate of this pathway. This prediction has been borne out by several investigations. The *p*-nitro derivative of 41 solvolyzed in acetic acid 190 times slower than 41, and there was much less retention of configuration; the acetate produced was only 7% threo and 93% erythro.[141] At 90°C, acetolysis of *p*-$ZC_6H_4CH_2CH_2OTs$ gave the rate ratios shown in Table 10.1.[142] Throughout this series k_s is fairly constant, as it should be since it is affected only by the rather remote field effect of Z. It is k_Δ that changes substantially as Z is changed from activating to deactivating. The evidence is thus fairly clear that participation by aryl groups depends greatly on the nature of the group. For some groups, (e.g., *p*-nitrophenyl), in some solvents, (e.g., acetic acid), there is essentially no neighboring-group participation at all,[143] while for others, (e.g., *p*-methoxyphenyl), neighboring-group participation is substantial. The com-

TABLE 10.1 Approximate k_Δ/k_s Ratios for Acetolysis of *p*-$ZC_6H_4CH_2CH_2OTs$ at 90°C

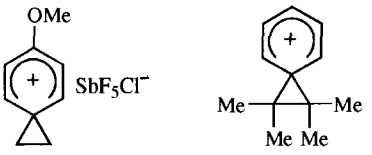
Z	k_Δ/k_s
MeO	30
Me	11
H	1.3
Cl	0.3

TABLE 10.2 Percent of Product Formed by the k_Δ Pathway in Solvolysis of p-$ZC_6H_4CH_2CH_2OTs$

Z	Solvent	Percent by k_Δ
H	CH3COOH	35-38
H	HCOOH	72-79
MeO	CH3COOH	91-93
MeO	HCOOH	99

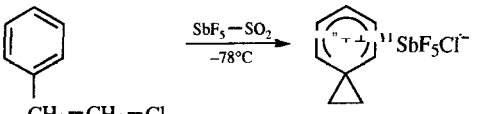
bined effect of solvent and structure is shown in Table 10.2, where the figures shown were derived by three different methods.[144] The decrease in neighboring-group effectiveness when aromatic rings are substituted by electron-withdrawing groups is reminiscent of the similar case of C=C bonds substituted by CF_3 groups (p. 410).

Several phenonium ions have been prepared as stable ions in solution where they can be studied by NMR, among them are 45,[145] 46,[146] and the unsubstituted **44**.[147] These were prepared[148] by the method shown for 44: treatment of the corresponding β-arylethyl chloride with SbF_5—SO_2 at low temperatures. These conditions are even more extreme than the solvolysis in



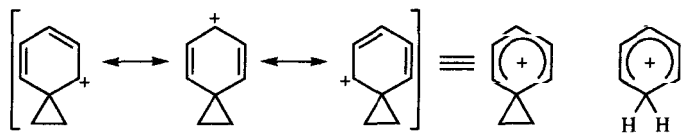
45 **46**

CF3COOH mentioned earlier. The absence of any nucleophile at all eliminates not only the k_s pathways but also nucleophilic attack on 44. Although 44 is not



44

in equilibrium with the open-chain ion $PhCH_2CH_2$ (which is primary, and hence unstable), 46 is in equilibrium with the open-chain tertiary ions $PhCMe_2C^+Me_2$ and PhC^+MeCMe_3, though only 46 is present in appreciable concentration. Proton (^1H) and ^{13}C NMR show that **44**, **45**, and 46 are classical carbocations where the only resonance is in the six-membered ring. The three-membered ring is a normal cyclopropane ring that is influenced only to a relatively small extent by the positive charge on the adjacent ring. The NMR spectra show that the six-membered rings have no aromatic character but are similar in structure to the arenium ions, for example, 47, that are intermediates



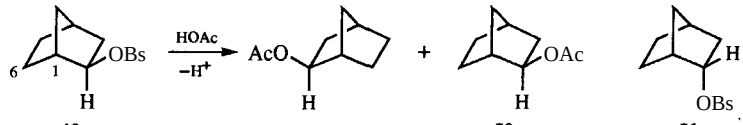
47

in electrophilic aromatic substitution (Chapter 11). A number of phenonium ions, including 44, have also been reported to be present in the gas phase, where their existence has been inferred from reaction products and from ^{13}C labeling.[149]

It is thus clear that β-aryl groups can function as neighboring groups.[150] Much less work has been done on aryl groups located in positions farther away from the leaving group, but there is evidence that these too can lend anchimeric assistance.[151]

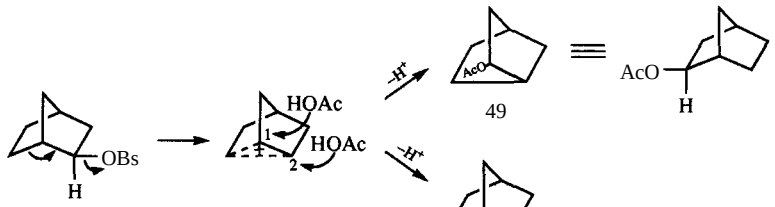
4. *The Carbon-Carbon Single Bond as a Neighboring Group*[152]

a. The 2-norbornyl system. In the investigations to determine whether a C—C a bond can act as a neighboring group, by far the greatest attention has been paid to the 2-norbornyl system.[153] Winstein found that solvolysis in acetic acid of optically active *exo*-2-norbornyl brosylate (48) gave a racemic mixture of the two exo acetates; no endo isomers were formed:[154]



48 49 50 51

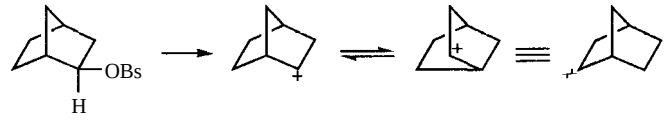
Furthermore, 48 solvolyzed ~350 times faster than its endo isomer 51. Similar high exo/endo rate ratios have been found in many other [2.2.1] systems. These two results—(1) that solvolysis of an optically active exo isomer gave only racemic exo isomers and (2) the high exo/endo rate ratio—were interpreted by Winstein and Trifan as indicating that the 1,6 bond assists in the departure of the leaving group and that a nonclassical intermediate (52) is involved. They reasoned that solvolysis of the endo isomer 51 is not assisted by the 1,6 bond because it is not in a favorable position for backside attack, and that consequently solvolysis of 51 takes



48 52 49 50

place at a "normal" rate. Therefore the much faster rate for the solvolysis of 48 must be caused by anchimeric assistance. The stereochemistry of the product is also explained by the intermediacy of 52, since in 52 the 1 and 2 positions are equivalent and would be attacked by the nucleophile with equal facility, but only from the exo direction in either case. Incidentally, acetolysis of 51 also leads exclusively to the exo acetates (49 and 50), so that in this case Winstein postulated that a classical ion (53) is first formed, and then converted to the more stable 52. Evidence for this interpretation is that the product from solvolysis of 51 is not racemic but contains somewhat more 50 than 49 (corresponding to 3-13% inversion, depending on the solvent),[154] suggesting that when 53 is formed, some of it goes to give 50 before it can collapse to 52.

The concepts of a participation and the nonclassical ion 52 have been challenged by Brown,[109] who suggested that the two results can also be explained by postulating that 48 solvolyzes without participation of the 1,6 bond to give the classical ion 53, which is in rapid equilibrium with 54. This



48 53 54

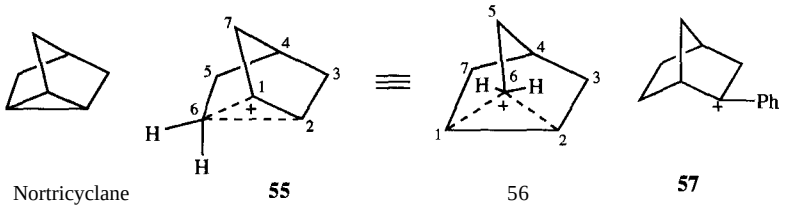
rapid interconversion has been likened to the action of a windshield wiper.[155] Obviously, in going from 53 to 54 and back again, 52 must be present, but in Brown's view it is a transition state and not an intermediate. Brown's explanation for the stereochemical result is that exclusive exo attack is a property to be expected from any 2-norbornyl system, not only for the cation but even for reactions not involving cations, because of steric hindrance to attack from the endo side. There is a large body of data showing that exo attack on norbornyl systems is fairly general in many reactions. A racemic mixture will be obtained if 53 and 54 are present in equal amounts, since they are equivalent and exo attack on 53 and 54 gives, respectively, 50 and 49. Brown explains the high exo/endo rate ratios by contending that it is not the endo rate that is normal and the exo rate abnormally high, but the exo rate that is normal and the endo rate abnormally *low*, because of steric hindrance to removal of the leaving group in that direction.[156]

A vast amount of work has been done[157] on solvolysis of the 2-norbornyl system in an effort to determine whether the 1,6 bond participates and whether 52 is an intermediate. Most,[158] although not all,[159] chemists now accept the intermediacy of 52.

Besides the work done on solvolysis of 2-norbornyl compounds, the 2-norbornyl cation has also been extensively studied at low temperatures; there is much evidence that under these conditions the ion is definitely nonclassical. Olah and co-workers[161] prepared the 2-norbornyl cation in

stable solutions at temperatures below - 150°C in SbF_5—SO_2 and FSO_3H—SbF_5—SO_2, where the structure is static and hydride shifts are absent.[160] Studies by ^1H and ^{13}C NMR, as well as by laser Raman spectra and X-ray electron spectroscopy, led to the conclusion[161] that under these conditions the ion is nonclassical.[162] A similar result has been reported for the 2-norbornyl cation in the solid state where at 77 K and even 5 K, ^{13}C NMR spectra gave no evidence of the freezing out of a single classical ion.[163]

Olah and co-workers represented the nonclassical structure as a corner-protonated nortricyclane (55); the symmetry is better seen when the ion is

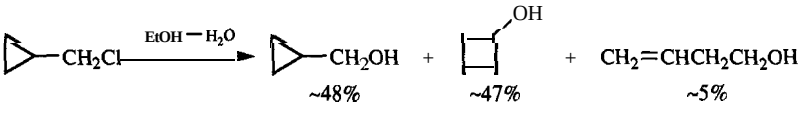


Nortricyclane **55** 56 **57**

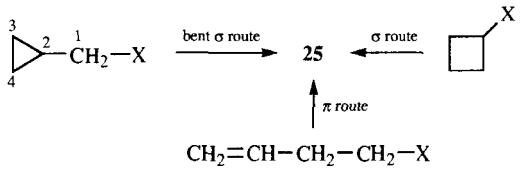
drawn as in 56. Almost all the positive charge resides on C-1 and C-2 and very little on the bridging carbon C-6. Other evidence for the nonclassical nature of the 2-norbornyl cation in stable solutions comes from heat of reaction measurements that show that the 2-norbornyl cation is more stable (by $\sim 6-10$ kcal mol^{-1} or 25–40 kJ mol^{-1}) than would be expected without the bridging.[164] Studies of IR spectra of the 2-norbornyl cation in the gas phase also show the nonclassical structure.[165] *Ab initio* calculations show that the nonclassical structure corresponds to an energy minimum.[166]

The spectra of other norbornyl cations have also been investigated at low temperatures. Spectra of the tertiary 2-methyl- and 2-ethylnorbornyl cations show less delocalization,[167] and the 2-phenylnorbornyl cation (57) is essentially classical,[168] as are the 2-methoxy-,[169] and 2-chloronorbornyl cations.[170] We may recall (p. 223) that methoxy and halo groups also stabilize a positive charge. The ^{13}C NMR data show that electron-withdrawing groups on the benzene ring of 57 cause the ion to become less classical, while electron-donating groups enhance the classical nature of the ion.[171]

b. The cyclopropylmethyl system. Apart from the 2-norbornyl system, the greatest amount of effort in the search for C—C participation has been devoted to the cyclopropylmethyl system.[172] It has long been known that cyclopropylmethyl substrates solvolyze with abnormally high rates and that the products often include not only unrearranged cyclopropylmethyl but also cyclobutyl and homoallylic compounds. An example is[173]

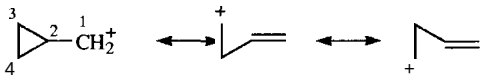


Cyclobutyl substrates also solvolyze abnormally rapidly and give similar products. Furthermore, when the reactions are carried out with labeled substrates, considerable, though not complete, scrambling is observed. For these reasons, it has been suggested that a common intermediate (some kind of nonclassical intermediate, e.g., 25, p. 408) is present in these cases. This common intermediate could then be obtained by three routes:



In recent years much work has been devoted to the study of these systems, and it is apparent that matters are not so simple. Though there is much that is still not completely understood, some conclusions can be drawn.

i. In solvolysis of simple primary cyclopropylmethyl systems, the rate is enhanced because of participation by the σ bonds of the ring.[174] The ion that forms initially is an unrearranged cyclopropylmethyl cation[175] that is *symmetrically* stabilized, that is, both the 2,3 and 2,4 σ bonds help stabilize the positive charge. We have already seen (p. 222) that a cyclopropyl group stabilizes an adjacent positive charge even better than a phenyl group. One way of representing the structure of this cation is

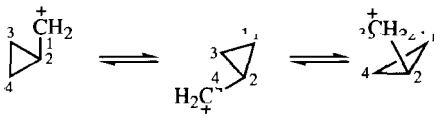


58

as shown in 58. Among the evidence that 58 is a symmetrical ion is that substitution of one or more methyl groups in the 3 and 4 positions increases the rate of solvolysis of cyclopropylcarbinyl 3,5-dinitrobenzoates by approximately a factor of 10 for *each* methyl group.[176] If only one of the σ bonds (say, the 2,3 bond) stabilizes the cation, then methyl substitution at the 3 position should increase the rate, and a second methyl group at the 3 position should increase it still more, but a second methyl group at the 4 position should have little effect.[177]

ii. The most stable geometry of simple cyclopropylmethyl cations is the bisected one shown on page 222. There is much evidence that in systems where this geometry cannot be obtained, solvolysis is greatly slowed.[178]

iii. Once a cyclopropylmethyl cation is formed, it can rearrange to two other cyclopropylmethyl cations:



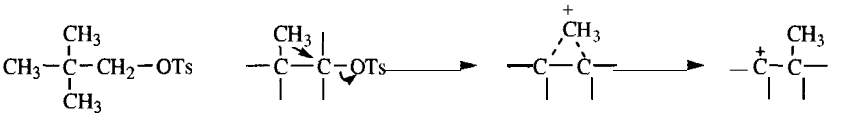
This rearrangement, which accounts for the scrambling, is completely stereospecific.[179] The rearrangements probably take place through a nonplanar cyclobutyl cation intermediate or transition state. The formation of cyclobutyl and homoallylic products from a cyclopropylmethyl cation is also completely stereospecific. These products may arise by direct attack of the nucleophile on 58 or on the cyclobutyl cation intermediate.[165] A planar cyclobutyl cation is ruled out in both cases because it would be symmetrical and the stereospecificity would be lost.

iv. The rate enhancement in the solvolysis of secondary cyclobutyl substrates is probably caused by participation by a bond leading directly to 58, which accounts for the fact that solvolysis of cyclobutyl and

of cyclopropylmethyl substrates often gives similar product mixtures. There is no evidence that requires the cyclobutyl cations to be intermediates in most secondary cyclobutyl systems, though tertiary cyclobutyl cations can be solvolysis intermediates.

v. The unsubstituted cyclopropylmethyl cation has been generated in superacid solutions at low temperatures, where ^{13}C NMR spectra have led to the conclusion that it consists of a mixture of the bicyclobutonium ion (25) and the bisected cyclopropylmethyl cation (58), in equilibrium with 25.[180] Molecular orbital calculations show that these two species are energy minima, and that both have nearly the same energy.[181]

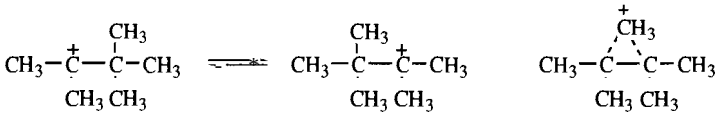
c. Methyl as a neighboring group. Both the 2-norbornyl and cyclopropylmethyl system contain a σ bond that is geometrically constrained to be in a particularly favorable position for participation as a neighboring group. However, there have been a number of investigations to determine whether a C—C bond can lend anchimeric assistance even in a simple open-chain compound such as neopentyl tosylate. On solvolysis, neopentyl systems undergo almost exclusive rearrangement and 59 must lie on the reaction path, but the two questions that have been asked are (1) Is the departure



Neopentyl tosylate 59

of the leaving group concerted with the formation of the CH_3—C bond (i.e., does the methyl participate)? (2) Is 59 an intermediate or only a transition state? With respect to the first question, there is evidence, chiefly from isotope effect studies, indicating that the methyl group in the neopentyl system does indeed participate,[182] though it may not greatly enhance the

rate. As to the second question, evidence that 59 is an intermediate is that small amounts of cyclopropanes (10-15%) can be isolated in these reactions.[183] Compound 59 is a protonated cyclopropane and would give cyclopropane on loss of a proton.[184] In an effort to isolate a species that has structure 59, the 2,3,3-trimethyl-2-butyl cation was prepared in superacid solutions at low temperatures.[185] However, proton and ^{13}C NMR, as well as Raman spectra, showed this to be a pair of rapidly equilibrating open ions.

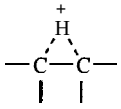


60

Of course, 60 must lie on the reaction path connecting the two open ions, but it is evidently a transition state and not an intermediate. However, evidence from X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (ESCA) has shown that the 2-butyl cation is substantially methyl bridged.[186]

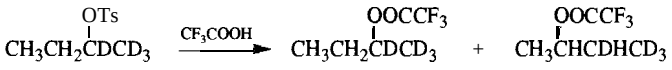
d. Silylalkyl as a neighboring group. Rates of solvolysis are enhanced in molecules that contain a silylalkyl or silylaryl group β to the carbon bearing the leaving group. This is attributed to formation of a cyclic transition state involving the silicon.[187]

5. *Hydrogen as a Neighboring Group.* The questions relating to hydrogen are similar to those relating to methyl. There is no question that hydride can migrate, but the two questions are (1) Does the hydrogen participate in the



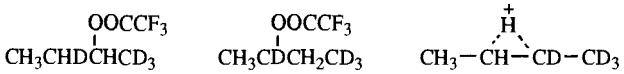
61

departure of the leaving group? (2) Is 61 an intermediate or only a transition state? There is some evidence that a β hydrogen can participate.[188] Evidence that 61 can be an intermediate in solvolysis reactions comes from a study of



62 63 64

the solvolysis in trifluoroacetic acid of deuterated sec-butyl tosylate (62). In this solvent of very low nucleophilic power, the products were an equimolar mixture of 63 and **64**,[189] but *no* 65 or 66 was found. If this reaction did not



65 66 67

involve neighboring hydrogen at all (pure S_N2 or S_N1), the product would be only 63. On the other hand, if hydrogen does migrate, but only open cations are involved, then there should be an equilibrium among these four cations:

$$CH_3CH_2\overset{+}{C}DCD_3 \rightleftharpoons CH3\overset{+}{C}HCDHCD3 \rightleftharpoons CH3CDH\overset{+}{C}HCD3$$
$$\rightleftharpoons CH3\overset{+}{C}DCH2CD3$$

leading not only to 63 and 64, but also to 65 and 66. The results are most easily compatible with the intermediacy of the bridged ion 67, which can then be attacked by the solvent equally at the 2 and 3 positions. Attempts to prepare 61 as a stable ion in superacid solutions at low temperatures have not been successful.[188]

The S_Ni Mechanism

In a few reactions, nucleophilic substitution proceeds with retention of configuration, even where there is no possibility of a neighboring-group effect. In the S_Ni mechanism *(substitution nucleophilic internal)* part of the leaving group must be able to attack the substrate, detaching itself from the rest of the leaving group in the process. The IUPAC designation is $D_N + A_ND_e$. The first step is the same as the very first step of the S_N1 mechanism dissociation into an intimate ion pair.[190] But in the second step, part the leaving group attacks, out of necessity, from the front since it is unable to get to the rear. This results in retention of configuration:

Step 1 $\quad R{-}OSOCl \longrightarrow R^+ \; {}^{-}\!O\!:\!S{=}O$

Step 2 $\quad R^+ \; {}^{-}\!O\!:\!S{=}O \longrightarrow R{-}Cl + O{=}$

The example shown is the most important case of this mechanism yet discovered, since the reaction of alcohols with thionyl chloride to give alkyl halides usually proceeds in this way, with the first step in this case being $ROH + SOCl_2 \rightarrow ROSOCl$ (these alkyl chlorosulfites can be isolated).

Evidence for this mechanism is as follows: The addition of pyridine to the mixture of alcohol and thionyl chloride results in the formation of alkyl halide with *inverted* configuration. Inversion results because the pyridine reacts with ROSOCl to give $ROSONC_5H_5$ before anything further can take place. The Cl^- freed in this process now attacks from the rear. The reaction between alcohols and thionyl chloride is second order, which is predicted by this mechanism, but the decomposition by simple heating of ROSOCl is first order.[191]

The S_Ni mechanism is relatively rare. Another example is the decomposition of ROCOCl (alkyl chloroformates) into RC1 and CO_2.[192]

Nucleophilic Substitution at an Allylic Carbon: Allylic Rearrangements

Allylic substrates undergo nucleophilic substitution reactions especially rapidly (see p. 434), but we discuss them in a separate section because they are usually accompanied by a certain kind of rearrangement known as an *allylic rearrangement.*[193] When allylic substrates are treated with nucleophiles under S_N1 conditions, two products are usually obtained: the normal one and a rearranged one.

$$R-CH=CH-CH_2X \xrightarrow{Y^-} R-CH=CH-CH_2Y + R-\underset{Y}{CH}-CH=CH_2$$

Two products are formed because an allylic type of carbocation is a resonance

$$R-CH=CH-\overset{+}{C}H_2 \longleftrightarrow R-\overset{+}{C}H-CH=CH_2$$

hybrid so that C-1 and C-3 each carry a partial positive charge and both are attacked by Y. Of course, an allylic rearrangement is undetectable in the case of symmetrical allylic cations, as in the case where R = H, unless isotopic labeling is used. This mechanism has been called the S_N1' mechanism. The IUPAC designation is $1/D_N + 3/A_N$, the numbers 1 and 3 signifying the *relative* positions where the nucleophile attacks and from which the nucleofuge leaves.

As with other S_N1 reactions, there is clear evidence that S_N1' reactions can involve ion pairs. If the intermediate attacked by the nucleophile is a completely free carbocation, then, say, should give the same mixture of alcohols when reacting with

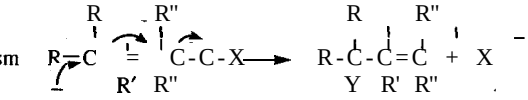
$$\underset{\textbf{68}}{CH_3CH=CHCH_2Cl} \quad \text{and} \quad \underset{\textbf{69}}{CH_3CHClCH=CH_2}$$

hydroxide ion, since the carbocation from each should be the same. When treated with 0.8 *M* aqueous NaOH at 25°C, 68 gave 60% $CH_3CH=CHCH_2OH$ and 40% $CH_3CHOHCH=CH_2$, while 69 gave the products in yields of 38 and 62%, respectively.[194] This phenomenon is called the *product spread.* In this case, and in most others, the product spread is in the direction of the starting compound. With increasing polarity of solvent, the product spread decreases and in some cases is entirely absent. It is evident that in such cases the high polarity of the solvent stabilizes completely free carbocations. There is other evidence for the intervention of ion pairs in many of these reactions. When $H_2C=CHCMe_2Cl$ was treated with acetic acid, both acetates were obtained, but also some $ClCH_2CH=CMe_2$,[195] and the isomerization was faster than the acetate formation. This could not have arisen from a completely free Cl^- returning to the carbon, since the rate of formation of the rearranged chloride was unaffected by the addition of external Cl^-. All these facts indicate that the first step in these reactions is the formation of an unsymmetrical intimate ion pair that undergoes a considerable amount of internal return and in which the counterion remains close to the carbon from which it departed. Thus, 68 and 69, for example, give rise to two *different* intimate ion pairs. The field of the

anion polarizes the allylic cation, making the nearby carbon atom more electrophilic, so that it has a greater chance of attracting the nucleophile.[196]

Nucleophilic substitution at an allylic carbon can also take place by an S_N2 mechanism, in which case no allylic rearrangement usually takes place. However, allylic rearrangements can also take place under S_N2 conditions, by the following mechanism, in which the nucleophile attacks at the y carbon rather than the usual position:[197]

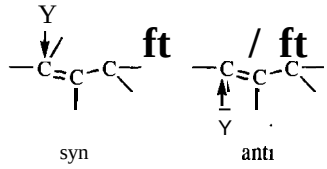
S_N2' mechanism



The IUPAC designation is $3/1/A_ND_N$. This mechanism is a second-order allylic rearrangement; it usually comes about where S_N2 conditions hold but where a substitution sterically retards the normal S_N2 mechanism. There are thus few well-established cases of the S_N2' mechanism on substrates of the type $C{=}C{-}CH_2X$, while compounds of the form $C{=}C{-}CR_2X$ give the S_N2'[198] rearrangement almost exclusively when they give bimolecular reactions at all. Increasing the size of the nucleophile can also increase the extent of the S_N2' reaction at the expense of the S_N2.[198] In certain cases, the leaving group can also have an affect on whether the rearrangement occurs. Thus $PhCH{=}CHCH_2X$, treated with $LiAlH_4$, gave 100% S_N2 reaction (no rearrangement) when X=Br or Cl, but 100% S_N2' when $X{=}PPh_3^+\ Br^-$.[199]

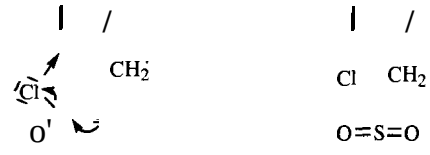
The S_N2' mechanism as shown above involves the simultaneous movement of three pairs of electrons. However, Bordwell and co-workers contended that there is no evidence requiring that this bond making and bond breaking be in fact concerted,[200] and that a true S_N2' mechanism is a myth. There is evidence both for[201] and against[202] this proposal. There is also a review of the S_N' reaction.[203]

The stereochemistry of S_N2' reactions has been investigated. It has been found that both syn[204] (the nucleophile enters on the side from which the leaving group departs) and anti[205] reactions can take place, depending on the nature of X and Y,[206] though the syn pathway predominates in most cases.



syn anti

When a molecule has in an allylic position a nucleofuge capable of giving the S_Ni reaction, it is possible for the nucleophile to attack at the y position instead of the α position. This is called the S_Ni' mechanism and has been demonstrated on 2-buten-1-ol and 3-buten-2-ol, both of which gave 100% allylic rearrangement when treated



with thionyl chloride in ether.[207] Ordinary allylic rearrangements (S_N1') or S_N2' mechanisms could not be expected to give 100% rearrangement in *both* cases. In the case shown, the nucleophile is only part of the leaving group, not the whole. But it is also possible to have reactions in which a simple leaving group, such as Cl, comes off to form an ion pair and then returns not to the position whence it came but to the allylic position:

$$R{-}CH{=}CH{-}CH_2Cl \longrightarrow R\text{-}CH{=}CH\text{-}CH_2^{+}\ Cl^{-} \longrightarrow R{-}\underset{Cl}{CH}{-}CH{=}CH_2$$

Most S_Ni' reactions are of this type.

Allylic rearrangements have also been demonstrated in propargyl systems, for example,[208]

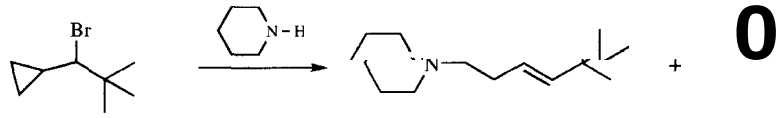
$$PhC{\equiv}CCH_2OTS + MeMgBr \xrightarrow{u\ Cr} Ph\text{-}C(Me){=}C{=}CH_2 \qquad \text{(Reaction 10-94)}$$

The product in this case is an allene,[209] but such shifts can also give triple-bond compounds or, if Y=OH, an enol will be obtained that tautomerizes to an α,β-unsaturated aldehyde or ketone.

$$R{-}C{\equiv}C{-}\underset{X}{CR_2} \xrightarrow{OH^-} R\text{-}\underset{OH}{C}{=}C{=}CR_2 \longrightarrow R{-}\underset{O}{C}{-}C{=}CR_2$$

When X=OH, this conversion of acetylenic alcohols to unsaturated aldehydes or ketones is called the *Meyer–Schuster rearrangement.*[210] The propargyl rearrangement can also go the other way; that is, 1-haloalkenes, treated with organocopper compounds, give alkynes.[211]

The S_N2' reaction has been shown to predominate in reactions of mixed cuprates (10-94) with allylic mesylates,[212] and in ring opening reactions of aziridines.[213] A related reaction is the opening of cyclopropylcarbinyl halides with organocuprates where the cyclopropane ring reacts similarly to the C=C unit of an alkene to give a homoallylic substituted product.[214] This latter reaction is interesting since the reaction of 70 with piperidine leads to the S_N2' product (71) in ~87% yield, but there is ~8% of the direct substitution product, 72. Since the carbon bearing the bromine is very hindered, formation of 72 is somewhat unusual under these conditions. As Bordwell has suggested (see above), this may not be a true S_N2 process.

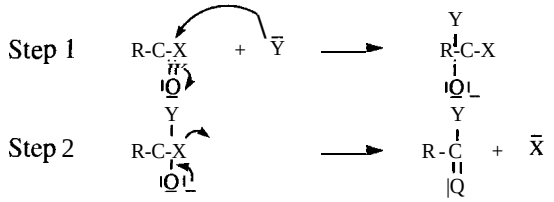


70 71 72

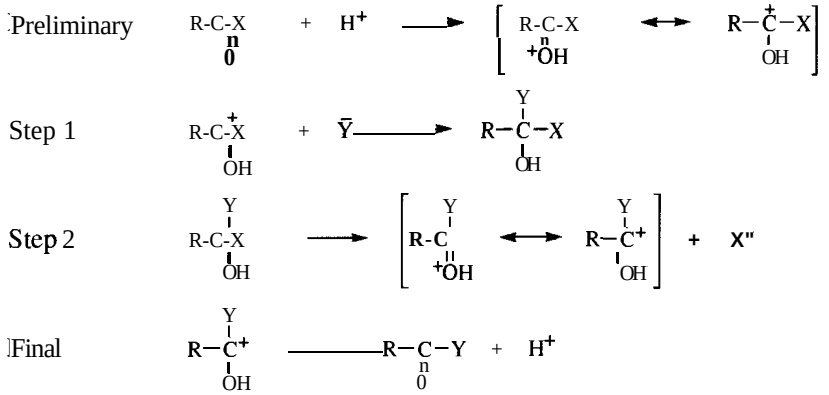
Nucleophilic Substitution at an Aliphatic Trigonal Carbon: The Tetrahedral Mechanism

All the mechanisms so far discussed take place at a saturated carbon atom. Nucleophilic substitution is also important at trigonal carbons, especially when the carbon is double bonded to an oxygen, a sulfur, or a nitrogen. Nucleophilic substitution at vinylic carbons is considered in the next section; at aromatic carbons in Chapter 13.

Substitution at a carbonyl group (or the corresponding nitrogen and sulfur analogs) most often proceeds by a second-order mechanism, which in this book is called the *tetrahedral*[215] *mechanism.*[216] The IUPAC designation is $A_N + D_N$. The S_N1 mechanisms, involving carbocations, are sometimes found with these substrates, especially with essentially ionic substrates such as $RCO^+ BF_4^-$; there is evidence that in certain cases simple S_N2 mechanisms can take place, especially with a very good leaving group such as Cl^-;[217] and an SET mechanism has also been reported.[218] However, the tetrahedral mechanism is by far the most prevalent. Although this mechanism displays second-order kinetics, it is not the same as the S_N2 mechanism previously discussed. In the tetrahedral mechanism, first Y attacks to give an intermediate containing both X and Y, and then X leaves. This sequence, impossible at a saturated carbon, is possible at an unsaturated one because the central carbon can release a pair of electrons to the oxygen and so preserve its octet:



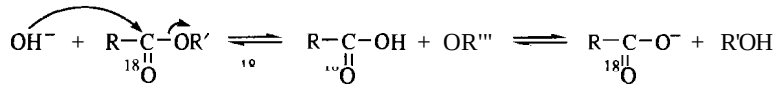
When reactions are carried out in acid solution, there may also be a preliminary and a final step:



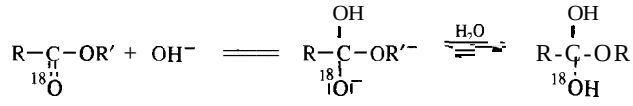
The hydrogen ion is a catalyst. The reaction rate is increased because it is easier for the nucleophile to attack the carbon when the electron density of the latter has been decreased.[219]

Evidence for the existence of the tetrahedral mechanism is as follows:[220]

1. The kinetics are first order each in the substrate and in the nucleophile, as predicted by the mechanism.
2. There is other kinetic evidence in accord with a tetrahedral intermediate. For example, the rate "constant" for the reaction between acetamide and hydroxylamine is not constant but decreases with increasing hydroxylamine concentration.[221] This is not a smooth decrease; there is a break in the curve. A straight line is followed at low hydroxylamine concentration and another straight line at high concentration. This means that the identity of the rate-determining step is changing. Obviously, this cannot happen if there is only one step: there must be two steps, and hence an intermediate. Similar kinetic behavior has been found in other cases as well,[222] in particular, plots of rate against pH are often bell shaped.
3. Basic hydrolysis has been carried out on carboxylic esters labeled with ^{18}O in the carbonyl group.[223] If this reaction proceeded by the normal S_N2 mechanism, all the ^{18}O would remain in the carbonyl group, even if, in an equilibrium process, some of the carboxylic acid formed went back to the starting material:

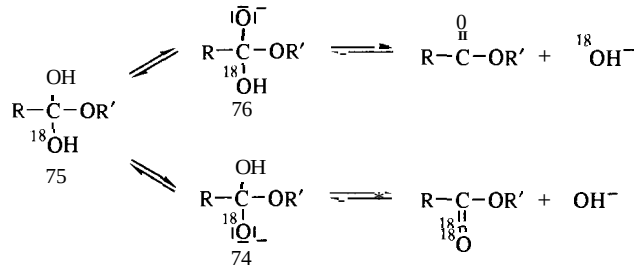


On the other hand, if the tetrahedral mechanism operates then the intermediate



74 75

74, by gaining a proton, becomes converted to the symmetrical intermediate 75. In this intermediate the OH groups are equivalent, and (except for the small $^{18}O/^{16}O$ isotope effect) either one can lose a proton with equal facility:



76 75 74

The intermediates 74 and 76 can now lose OR' to give the acid (not shown in the equations given), or they can lose OH to regenerate the carboxylic ester. If 74 goes back to ester, the ester will still be labeled, but if 76 reverts to ester, the ^{18}O will be lost. A test of the two possible mechanisms is to stop the reaction before completion and to analyze the recovered ester for ^{18}O. This is just what was done by Bender, who found that in alkaline hydrolysis of methyl, ethyl, and isopropyl benzoates, the esters had lost ^{18}O. A similar experiment carried out for acid-Catalyzed hydrolysis of ethyl benzoate showed that here too the ester lost ^{18}O. However, alkaline hydrolysis of substituted benzyl benzoates showed *no* ^{18}O loss.[224] This result does not necessarily mean that no tetrahedral intermediate is involved in this case. If 74 and 76 do not revert to ester, but go entirely to acid, no ^{18}O loss will be found even with a tetrahedral intermediate. In the case of benzyl benzoates this may very well be happening, because formation of the acid relieves steric strain. Another possibility is that 74 loses OR' before it can become protonated to 75.[225] Even the experiments that *do* show ^{18}O loss do not *prove* the existence of the tetrahedral intermediate, since it is possible that ^{18}O is lost by some independent process not leading to ester hydrolysis. To deal with this possibility, Bender and Heck[226] measured the rate of ^{18}O loss in the hydrolysis of ethyl trifluorothioloacetate-^{18}O:

$$F_3C-\underset{\underset{\ddot{}}{{}^{18}O}}{C}-SEt + H_2O \underset{k_2}{\overset{k_1}{\rightleftharpoons}} \text{intermediate} \xrightarrow{k_3} F_3CCOOH + EtSH$$

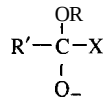
This reaction had previously been shown[227] to involve an intermediate by the kinetic methods mentioned on page 425. Bender and Heck showed that the rate of ^{18}O loss and the value of the partitioning ratio k_2/k_3 as determined by the oxygen exchange technique were exactly in accord with these values as previously determined by kinetic methods. Thus the original ^{18}O-exchange measurements showed that there is a tetrahedral species present, though not necessarily on the reaction path, while the kinetic experiments showed that there is some intermediate present, though not necessarily tetrahedral. Bender and Heck's results demonstrate that there is a tetrahedral intermediate and that it lies on the reaction pathway.

4. In some cases, tetrahedral intermediates have been isolated[228] or detected spectrally.[229]

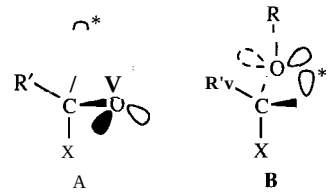
Several studies have been made of the directionality of approach by the nucleophile.[230] Menger[230] has proposed for reactions in general, and specifically for those hat proceed by the tetrahedral mechanism, that there is no single definable preferred transition state, but rather a "cone" of trajectories. All approaches within this cone lead to reaction at comparable rates; it is only when the approach comes outside of the cone that the rate falls.

Directionality has also been studied for the second step. Once the tetrahedral intermediate (73) is formed, it loses Y (giving the product) or X (reverting to the starting compound). Deslongchamps[232] proposed that one of the factors affecting

this choice is the conformation of the intermediate; more specifically, the positions of the lone pairs. In this view, a leaving group X or Y can depart only if the other two atoms on the carbon both have an orbital antiperiplanar to the C–X or C–Y bond. For example, consider an intermediate formed by attack of OR^- on a substrate



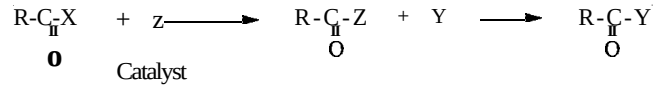
R'COX. Cleavage of the C–X bond with loss of X can take place from conformation A, because the two lone-pair orbitals marked with an * are antiperiplanar to the



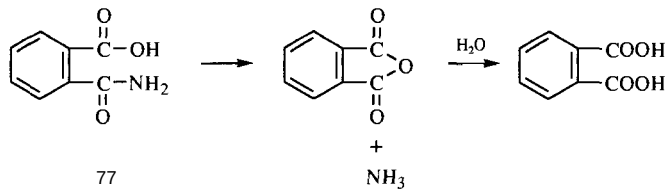
A B

C X bond, but not from B because only the O^- has such an orbital. If the intermediate is in conformation B, the OR may leave (if X has a lone-pair orbital in the proper position) rather than X. This factor is called *stereoelectronic control.*[231] Of course, there is free rotation in acyclic intermediates, and many conformations are possible, but some are preferred, and cleavage reactions may take place faster than rotation, so stereoelectronic control can be a factor in some situations. Much evidence has been presented for this concept.[232] More generally, the term *stereoelectronic effects* refers to any case in which orbital position requirements affect the course of a reaction. The backside attack in the S_N2 mechanism is an example of a stereoelectronic effect.

Some nucleophilic substitutions at a carbonyl carbon are *catalyzed* by nucleophiles.[233] There occur, in effect, two tetrahedral mechanisms:



(For an example, see 10-9.) When this happens internally, we have an example of a neighboring-group mechanism at a carbonyl carbon.[234] For example, the hydrolysis of phthalamic acid (77) takes place as follows:



77

Evidence comes from comparative rate studies.[235] Thus 77 was hydrolyzed about 10^5 times faster than benzamide ($PhCONH_2$) at about the same concentration of

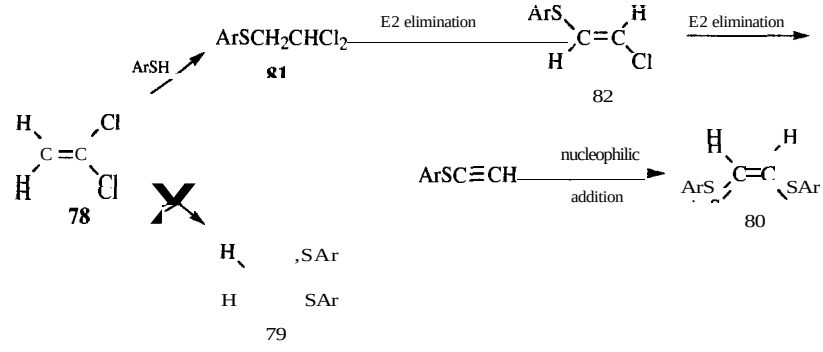
hydrogen ions. That this enhancement of rate was not caused by the resonance or field effects of COOH (an electron-withdrawing group) was shown by the fact both *o*-nitrobenzamide and terephthalamic acid (the para isomer of 77) were hydrolyzed more slowly than benzamide. Many other examples of neighboring-group participation at a carbonyl carbon have been reported.[236] It is likely that nucleophilic catalysis is involved in enzyme catalysis of ester hydrolysis.

The attack of a nucleophile on a carbonyl group can result in substitution or addition (Chapter 16), though the first step of each mechanism is the same. The main factor that determines the product is the identity of the group X in RCOX. When X is alkyl or hydrogen, addition usually takes place. When X is halogen, OH, OCOR, NH_2, and so on, the usual reaction is substitution.

For a list of some of the more important reactions that operate by the tetrahedral mechanism, see Table 10.8.

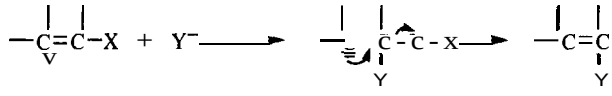
Nucleophilic Substitution at a Vinylic Carbon

Nucleophilic substitution at a vinylic carbon[237] is difficult (see p. 433), but many examples are known. The most common mechanisms are the tetrahedral mechanism and the closely related *addition-elimination mechanism.* Both of these mechanisms are impossible at a saturated substrate. The addition–elimination mechanism has

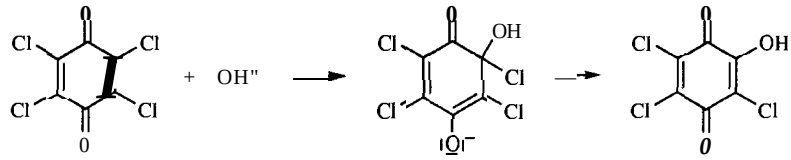


been demonstrated for the reaction between 1,1-dichloroethene (78) and ArS^-, catalyzed by EtO^-.[238] The product was not the 1,1-dithiophenoxy compound 79 but the "rearranged" compound 80. Isolation of 81 and 82 showed that an addition-elimination mechanism had taken place. In the first step, ArSH adds to the double bond (nucleophilic addition, p. 975) to give the saturated 81. The second step is an E2 elimination reaction (p. 1300) to give the alkene 82. A second elimination and addition give 80.

The tetrahedral mechanism, often also called addition–elimination ($Ad_N - E$), takes place with much less facility than with carbonyl groups, since the negative charge of the intermediate must be borne by a carbon, which is less electronegative than oxygen, sulfur, or nitrogen:



Such an intermediate can also stabilize itself by combining with a positive species. When it does, the reaction is nucleophilic addition to a *C=C* double bond (see Chapter 15). It is not surprising that with vinylic substrates addition and substitution often compete. For chloroquinones, where the charge is spread by resonance, tetrahedral intermediates have been isolated:[239]

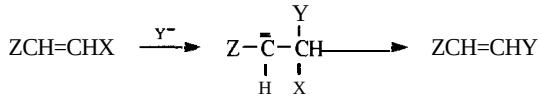


lsolated

In the case of $Ph(MeO)C{=}C(NO_2)Ph$ + RS^-, the intermediate lived long enough to be detected by UV spectroscopy.[240]

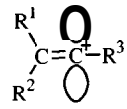
Since both the tetrahedral and addition–elimination mechanisms begin the same way, it is usually difficult to tell them apart, and often no attempt is made to do so. The strongest kind of evidence for the addition–elimination sequence is the occurrence of a "rearrangement" (as in the conversion of 72 to 74), but of course the mechanism could still take place even if no rearrangement is found. Evidence[241] that a tetrahedral or an addition-elimination mechanism takes place in certain cases (as opposed, e.g., to an S_N1 or S_N2 mechanism) is that the reaction rate increases when the leaving group is changed from Br to Cl to F (this is called the *element effect).*[242] This clearly demonstrates that the carbon-halogen bond does not break in the rate-determining step (as it would in both the S_N1 and S_N2 mechanisms), because fluorine is by far the poorest leaving group among the halogens in both the S_N1 and S_N2 reactions (p. 445). The rate is faster with fluorides in the cases cited, because the superior electron-withdrawing character of the fluorine makes the carbon of the C–F bond more positive, and hence more susceptible to nucleophilic attack.

Ordinary vinylic substrates react very poorly if at all by these mechanisms, but substitution is greatly enhanced in substrates of the type ZCH=CHX, where Z is an electron-withdrawing group such as HCO, RCO,[243] EtOOC, $ArSO_2$, NC, F, and so on, since these β groups stabilize the carbanion:



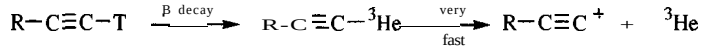
Many such examples are known. In most cases, where the stereochemistry has been investigated, retention of configuration is observed,[244] but stereoconvergence [the same product mixture from an (*E*) or (Z) substrate] has also been observed,[245] especially where the carbanionic carbon bears two electron-withdrawing groups. It is not immediately apparent why the tetrahedral mechanism should lead to retention, but this behavior has been ascribed, on the basis of MO calculations, to hyperconjugation involving the carbanionic electron pair and the substituents on the adjacent carbon.[246]

Vinylic substrates are in general very reluctant to undergo S_N1 reactions, but they can be made to do so in two ways:[247] (1) By the use of an a group that stabilizes the vinylic cation. For example, α-aryl vinylic halides $ArCBr{=}CR_2'$ have often been shown to give S_N1 reactions.[248] The S_N1 reactions have also been demonstrated with other stabilizing groups: cyclopropyl,[249] vinylic,[250] alkynyl,[251] and an adjacent double bond ($R_2C{=}C{=}CR'X$).[252] (2) Even without a stabilization, by the use of a very good leaving group, for example, OSO_2CF_3 (triflate).[253] The stereochemical outcome of S_N1 reactions at a vinylic substrate is often randomization,[254] that is, either a cis or a trans substrate gives a 1:1 mixture of cis and trans products, indicating that vinylic cations are linear. Another indication that vinylic cations prefer to be linear is the fact that reactivity in cycloalkenyl systems decreases with decreasing ring size.[255] However, a linear vinylic cation need not give random products.[256] The empty *p* orbital lies in the plane of the double bond, so entry of



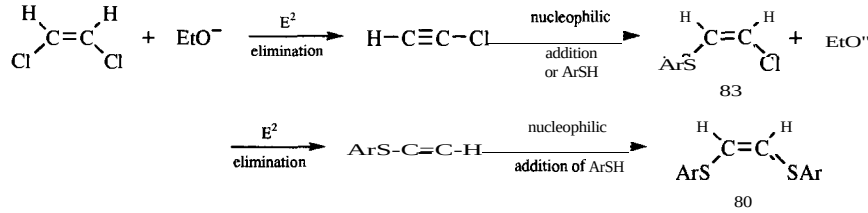
the nucleophile can be and often is influenced by the relative size of R^1 and R^2.[257] It must be emphasized that even where vinylic substrates do give S_N1 reactions, the rates are generally lower than those of the corresponding saturated compounds.

Alkynyl cations are so unstable that they cannot be generated even with very good leaving groups. However, one way in which they have been generated was by formation of a tritiated substrate.



When the tritium (half-life 12.26 years) decays it is converted to the helium-3 isotope, which, of course, does not form covalent bonds, and so immediately departs, leaving behind the alkynyl cation. When this was done in the presence of benzene, $RC{\equiv}CC_6H_5$ was isolated.[258] The tritium-decay technique has also been used to generate vinylic and aryl cations.[259]

Besides the mechanisms already discussed, another mechanism, involving an *elimination-addition* sequence, has been observed in vinylic systems (a similar mechanism is known for aromatic substrates, p. 854). An example of a reaction involving this mechanism is the reaction of 1,2-dichloroethane with ArS^- and OEt^- to produce 80. The mechanism may be formulated as



The steps are the same as in the addition–elimination mechanism, but in reverse order. Evidence for this sequence[260] is as follows: (1) The reaction does not proceed without ethoxide ion, and the rate is dependent on the concentration of this ion and not on that of ArS^-. (2) Under the same reaction conditions, chloroacetylene gave 83 and 80. (3) Compound 83, treated with ArS~, gave no reaction but, when EtO^- was added, 80 was obtained. It is interesting that the elimination–addition mechanism has even been shown to occur in five- and six-membered cyclic systems, where triple bonds are greatly strained.[261] Note that both the addition–elimination and elimination–addition sequences, as shown above, lead to overall retention of configuration, since in each case both addition and elimination are anti.

The elimination-addition sequence has also been demonstrated for certain reactions of saturated substrates, (e.g., $ArSO_2CH_2CH_2SO_2Ar$).[262] Treatment of this with ethoxide proceeds as follows:

$$ArSO_2CH_2CH_2SO_2Ar \xrightarrow[\text{E2 elimination}]{EtO^-} ArSO_2CH{=}CH_2 \xrightarrow[\text{addition}]{EtO^-} ArSO_2CH_2CH_2OEt$$

Mannich bases (see 16-15) of the type $RCOCH_2CH_2NR_2$ similarly undergo nucleophilic substitution by the elimination-addition mechanism.[263] The nucleophile replaces the NR_2 group.

The simple S_N2 mechanism has never been convincingly demonstrated for vinylic substrates.[264]

Vinylic halides can react by a $S_{RN}1$ mechanism (p. 855) in some cases. An example is the $FeCl_2$ catalyzed reaction of 1 -bromo-2-phenylethene and the enolate anion of pinacolone (t-$BuCOCH_2^-$), which gave a low yield of substitution products along with alkynes.[265]

REACTIVITY

A large amount of work has been done on this subject. Though a great deal is known, much is still poorly understood, and many results are anomalous and hard to explain. In this section, only approximate generalizations are attempted. The work discussed here, and the conclusions reached, pertain to reactions taking place in solution. Some investigations have also been carried out in the gas phase.[266]

The Effect of Substrate Structure

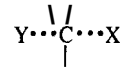
The effect on the reactivity of a change in substrate structure depends on the mechanism.

1. *Branching at the α and β Carbons.* For the S_N2 mechanism, branching at either the α or the β carbon decreases the rate. Tertiary systems seldom[267] react by the S_N2 mechanism and neopentyl systems react so slowly as to make such reactions, in general, synthetically useless.[268] Table 10.3[269] shows average relative rates for some alkyl substrates. The reason for these low rates

TABLE 10.3 Average Relative S_N2 Rates for Some Alkyl Substrates

R	Relative Rate	R	Relative Rate
Methyl	30	Isobutyl	0.03
Ethyl	1	Neopentyl	10^{-5}
Propyl	0.4	Allyl	40
Butyl	0.4	Benzyl	120
Isopropyl	0.025		

is almost certainly steric.[270] The transition state 1 is more crowded when larger groups are close to the central carbon. The tetrahedral mechanism for substitution at a carbonyl carbon is also slowed or blocked completely by a or β branching for similar reasons. Solvolysis in such systems is linked to relief of B strain, but solvent participation can overshadow this as steric hindrance increases.[271] Severe steric strain can cause distortion from coplanarity in the carbocation intermediate,[272] although there seems to be no loss of resonance stability.[273] Adding electron-donating substituents to such molecules improves coplanarity in the cation.[274] For example, esters of the formula R3CCOOR' cannot generally be hydrolyzed by the tetrahedral mechanism (see 10-10), nor can acids R_3CCOOH be easily esterified.[275] Synthetic advantage can be taken of this fact, for example, when in a molecule containing two ester groups only the less hindered one is hydrolyzed.



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For the S_N1 mechanism, a branching increases the rate, as shown in Table 10.4.[276] We can explain this by the stability order of alkyl cations (tertiary > secondary > primary). Of course, the rates are not actually dependent on the stability of the ions, but on the difference in free energy between the starting compounds and the transition states. We use the Hammond postulate (p. 284) to make the assumption that the transition states resemble the cations and that anything (such as a branching) that lowers the free energy

TABLE 10.4 Relative Rates of Solvolysis of RBr in Two Solvents

RBr Substrate	In 60% Ethanol at 55°C	In Water at 50°C
MeBr	2.08	1.05
EtBr	1.00	1.00
i-PrBr	1.78	11.6
t-BuBr	2.41×10^4	1.2×10^6

of the ions also lowers it for the transition states. For simple alkyl groups, the S_N1 mechanism is important under all conditions only for tertiary substrates.[277] As previously indicated (p. 401), secondary substrates generally react by the S_N2 mechanism,[278] except that the S_N1 mechanism may become important at high solvent polarities. Table 10.4 shows that isopropyl bromide reacts less than twice as fast as ethyl bromide in the relatively nonpolar 60% ethanol (compare this with the 10^4 ratio for *tert*-butyl bromide, where the mechanism is certainly S_N1), but in the more polar water the rate ratio is 11.6. The 2-adamantyl system is an exception; it is a secondary system that reacts by the S_N1 mechanism because backside attack is hindered for steric reasons.[279] Because there is no S_N2 component, this system provides an opportunity for comparing the pure S_N1 reactivity of secondary and tertiary substrates. It has been found that substitution of a methyl group for the a hydrogen of 2-adamantyl substrates (thus changing a secondary to a tertiary system) increases solvolysis rates by a factor of $\sim 10^8$.[280] Simple primary substrates react by the S_N2 mechanism (or with participation by neighboring alkyl or hydrogen) but not by the S_N1 mechanism, even when solvolyzed in solvents of very low nucleophilicity (e.g., trifluoroacetic acid or trifluoroethanol),[281] and even when very good leaving groups (e.g., OSO_2F) are present[282] (see, however, p. 451).

For some tertiary substrates, the rate of S_N1 reactions is greatly increased by the relief of B strain in the formation of the carbocation (see p. 366). Except where B strain is involved, (3 branching has little effect on the S_N1 mechanism, except that carbocations with (3 branching undergo rearrangements readily. Of course, isobutyl and neopentyl are primary substrates, and for this reason they react very slowly by the S_N1 mechanism, but not more slowly than the corresponding ethyl or propyl compounds.

To sum up, primary and secondary substrates generally react by the S_N2 mechanism and tertiary by the S_N1 mechanism. However, tertiary substrates seldom undergo nucleophilic substitution at all. Elimination is always a possible side reaction of nucleophilic substitutions (wherever a (3 hydrogen is present), and with tertiary substrates it usually predominates. With a few exceptions, nucleophilic substitutions at a tertiary carbon have little or no preparative value. However, tertiary substrates that can react by the SET mechanism (e.g., *p*-$NO_2C_6H_4CMe_2Cl$) give very good yields of substitution products when treated with a variety of nucleophiles.[283]

2. *Unsaturation at the α Carbon.* Vinylic, acetylenic,[284] and aryl substrates are very unreactive toward nucleophilic substitutions. For these systems both the S_N1 and S_N2 mechanisms are greatly slowed or stopped altogether. One reason that has been suggested for this is that sp^2 (and even more, *sp)* carbons have a higher electronegativity than sp^3 carbons and thus a greater attraction for the electrons of the bond. As we have seen (p. 347), an sp—H bond has a higher acidity than an sp^3—H bond, with that of an sp^2— H bond in between. This is reasonable; the carbon retains the electrons when the proton is lost and an *sp*

carbon, which has the greatest hold on the electrons, loses the proton most easily. But in nucleophilic substitution, the leaving group *carries off* the electron pair, so the situation is reversed and it is the sp^3 carbon that loses the leaving group and the electron pair most easily. It may be recalled (p. 20) that bond distances decrease with increasing *s* character. Thus the bond length for a vinylic or aryl C—Cl bond is 1.73 Å compared with 1.78 Å for a saturated C—Cl bond. Other things being equal, a shorter bond is a stronger bond.

Of course, we have seen (p. 430) that S_N1 reactions at vinylic substrates can be accelerated by α substituents that stabilize that cation, and that reactions by the tetrahedral mechanism can be accelerated by (3 substituents that stabilize the carbanion. Also, reactions at vinylic substrates can in certain cases proceed by addition-elimination or elimination-addition sequences (pp. 428, 430).

In contrast to such systems, substrates of the type RCOX are usually much *more* reactive than the corresponding RCH_2X. Of course, the mechanism here is almost always the tetrahedral one. Three reasons can be given for the enhanced reactivity of RCOX: (1) The carbonyl carbon has a sizable partial positive charge that makes it very attractive to nucleophiles. (2) In an S_N2 reaction a σ bond must break in the rate-determining step, which requires more energy than the shift of a pair of *n* electrons, which is what happens in a tetrahedral mechanism. (3) A trigonal carbon offers less steric hindrance to a nucleophile than a tetrahedral carbon.

For reactivity in aryl systems, see Chapter 13.

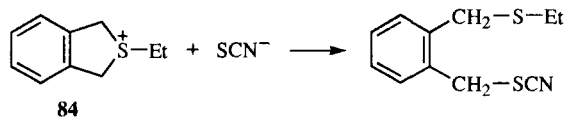
3. *Unsaturation at the* (3 *Carbon.* The S_N1 rates are increased when there is a double bond in the (3 position, so that allylic and benzylic substrates react rapidly (Table 10.5).[285] The reason is that allylic (p. 221) and benzylic (p. 222) cations are stabilized by resonance. As shown in Table 10.5, a second and a third phenyl group increase the rate still more, because these carbocations are more stable yet. It should be remembered that allylic rearrangements are possible with allylic systems.

In general, S_N1 rates at an allylic substrate are increased by any substituent in the 1 or 3 position that can stabilize the carbocation by resonance or hyper-

TABLE 10.5 Relative Rates for the S_N1 Reaction Between ROTs and Ethanol at 25° C

Group	Relative Rate
Et	0.26
‹-Pr	0.69
CH_2=$CHCH_2$	8.6
$PhCH_2$	100
Ph_2CH	$\approx 10^5$
Ph_3C	$\approx 10^{10}$

conjugation.[286] Among these are alkyl, aryl, and halo groups.



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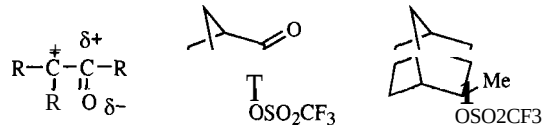
The S_N2 rates for allylic and benzylic systems are also increased (see Table 10.3), probably owing to resonance possibilities in the transition state. Evidence for this in benzylic systems is that the rate of the reaction was 8000 times slower than the rate with $(PhCH_2)_2SEt^+$.[287] The cyclic 84 does not have the proper geometry for conjugation in the transition state.

Triple bonds in the (3 position (in propargyl systems) have about the same effect as double bonds.[288] Alkyl, aryl, halo, and cyano groups, among others, in the 3 position of allylic substrates increase S_N2 rates, owing to increased resonance in the transition state, but alkyl and halo groups in the 1 position decrease the rates because of steric hindrance.

4. α *Substitution.* Compounds of the formula ZCH_2X, where Z = RO, RS, or R_2N undergo S_N1 reactions very rapidly,[289] because of the increased resonance in the carbocation. These groups have an unshared pair on an atom directly attached to the positive carbon, which stabilizes the carbocation (p. 223). The field effects of these groups would be expected to decrease S_N1 rates (see effect 6, p. 436), so the resonance effect is far more important.

When Z in ZCH_2X is RCO,[290] HCO, ROCO, NH_2CO, NC, or F_3C,[291] S_N1 rates are decreased compared to CH3X, owing to the electron-withdrawing field effects of these groups. Furthermore, carbocations[292] with an α CO or CN group are greatly destabilized because of the partial positive charge on the adjacent carbon (85). The S_N1 reactions have been carried out on such compounds,[293] but the rates are very low. For example, from a comparison of the solvolysis rates of 86 and 87, a rate-retarding effect of $10^{7.3}$ was estimated for



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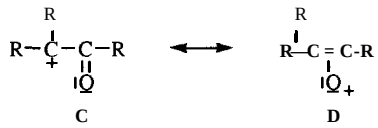
the C=O group.[294] However, when a different kind of comparison is made: $RCOCR_2'X$ versus $HCR_2'X$ (where X = a leaving group), the RCO had only a small or negligible rate-retarding effect, indicating that resonance stabilization[295] may be offsetting the inductive destabilization for this group.[296]



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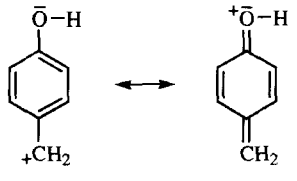
For a CN group also, the rate-retarding effect is reduced by this kind of resonance.[297] A carbocation with an a COR group has been isolated.[298]

When S_N2 reactions are carried out on these substrates, rates are greatly increased for certain nucleophiles (e.g., halide or halide-like ions), but decreased or essentially unaffected by others.[299] For example, α-Chloroacetophenone ($PhCOCH_2Cl$) reacts with KI in acetone at 75°C ~32,000 times faster than 1-Chlorobutane,[300] but α-bromoacetophenone reacts with the nucleophile triethylamine 0.14 times as fast as iodomethane.[299] The reasons for this varying behavior are not clear, but those nucleophiles that form a "tight" transition state (one in which bond making and bond breaking have proceeded to about the same extent) are more likely to accelerate the reaction.[301]

When Z is SOR or SO_2R (e.g., α-halo sulfoxides and sulfones), nucleophilic substitution is retarded.[302] The S_N1 mechanism is slowed by the electron-withdrawing effect of the SOR or SO_2R group,[303] and the S_N2 mechanism presumably by the steric effect.

5. *β Substitution.* For compounds of the type ZCH_2CH_2X, where Z is any of the groups listed in the previous section as well as halogen or phenyl, S_N1 rates are lower than for unsubstituted systems, because the resonance effects mentioned in effect 4 are absent, but the field effects are still there, though smaller. These groups in the (3 position do not have much effect on S_N2 rates unless they behave as neighboring groups and enhance the rate through anchimeric assistance,[304] or unless their size causes the rates to decrease for steric reasons.[305]
6. *The Effect of Electron-Donating and Electron-Withdrawing Groups.* If substitution rates of series of compounds *p*-$ZC_6H_4CH_2X$ are measured, it is possible to study the electronic effects of groups Z on the reaction. Steric effects of Z are minimized or eliminated, because Z is so far from the reaction site. For S_N1 reactions, electron-withdrawing Z decrease the rate and electron-donating Z increase it,[306] because the latter decrease the energy of the transition state (and of the carbocation) by spreading the positive charge, for example, while electron-withdrawing groups concentrate the charge. The



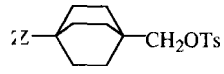
Hammett σρ relationship (p. 368) correlates fairly successfully the rates of many of these reactions (with σ^+ instead of σ). The p values are generally about -4, which is expected for a reaction where a positive charge is created in the transition state.

For S_N2 reactions, no such simple correlations are found.[307] In this mechanism bond breaking is about as important as bond making in the rate-determining step, and substituents have an effect on both processes, often in

opposite directions. The unsubstituted benzyl chloride and bromide solvolyze by the S_N2 mechanism.[306]

For Z = alkyl, the Baker-Nathan order (p. 72) is usually observed both for S_N1 and S_N2 reactions.

In para-substituted benzyl systems, steric effects have been removed, but resonance and field effects are still present. However, Holtz and Stock[308] studied a system that removes not only steric effects but also resonance effects. This is the 4-substituted bicyclo[2.2.2]octylmethyl tosylate system (88). In



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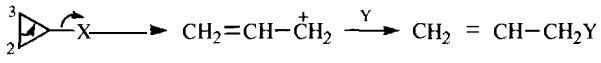
this system steric effects are completely absent, owing to the rigidity of the molecules, and only field effects operate. By this means, Holtz and Stock showed that electron-withdrawing groups increase the rate of S_N2 reactions. This can be ascribed to stabilization of the transition state by withdrawal of some of the electron density.

For substrates that react by the tetrahedral mechanism, electron-withdrawing groups increase the rate and electron-donating groups decrease it.

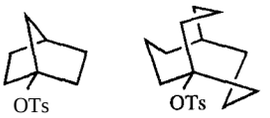
7. *Cyclic Substrates.* Cyclopropyl substrates are extremely resistant to nucleophilic attack.[309] For example, cyclopropyl tosylate solvolyzes $\sim 10^6$ times more slowly than cyclobutyl tosylate in acetic acid at 60°C.[310] When such attack does take place, the result is generally not normal substitution (though exceptions are known,[311] especially when an a stabilizing group such as aryl or alkoxy is present) but ring opening:[310]



There is much evidence that the ring opening is usually concerted with the departure of the leaving group[312] (as in the similar case of cyclobutyl substrates, p. 418), from which we can conclude that if the 2,3 bond of the cyclopropane ring did not assist, the rates would be lower still. It has been estimated[313] that without this assistance the rates of these already slow reactions would be further reduced by a factor of perhaps 10^{12}. For a discussion of the stereochemistry of the ring opening, see page 1434. For larger rings, we have seen (p. 366) that, because of I strain, cyclohexyl substrates solvolyze slower than analogous compounds in which the leaving group is attached to a ring of 5 or of from 7 to 11 members.

8. *Bridgeheads.*[11] The S_N2 mechanism is impossible at most bridgehead compounds (p. 392). Nucleophilic attack in [1.1.1]propellane has been reported, however.[314] In general, a relatively large ring is required for an S_N1 reaction to take place (p. 396).[315] The S_N1 reactions have been claimed to occur for 1-iodobicyclo[1.1.1]pentane via the bicyclo[1.1.1]pentyl cation,[316] but this has been disputed and the bicyclo[1.1.0]butyl carbinyl cation was

calculated to be the real intermediate.[317] Solvolytic reactivity at bridgehead positions spans a wide range; for example, from $k = 4 \times 10^{-17}\ s^{-1}$ for 89



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(very slow) to $3 \times 10^{6}\ s^{-1}$ for the [3.3.3] compound 90 (very fast);[318] a range of 22 orders of magnitude. Molecular mechanics calculations show that S_N1 bridgehead reactivity is determined by strain changes between the substrate and the carbocation intermediate.[319]

9. *Deuterium Substitution.* The a and (3 secondary isotope effects affect the rate in various ways (p. 298). The measurement of a secondary isotope effects provides a means of distinguishing between S_N1 and S_N2 mechanisms, since for S_N2 reactions the values range from 0.95 to 1.06 per a D, while for S_N1 reactions the values are higher.[320] This method is especially good because it provides the minimum of perturbation of the system under study; changing from α H to a D hardly affects the reaction, while other probes, such as changing a substituent or the polarity of the solvent, may have a much more complex effect.

Table 10.6 is an approximate listing of groups in order of S_N1 and S_N2 reactivity. Table 10.7 shows the main reactions that proceed by the S_N2 mechanism (if R = primary or, often, secondary alkyl); Table 10.8 shows the main reactions that proceed by the tetrahedral mechanism.

The Effect of the Attacking Nucleophile[321]

Any species that has an unshared pair (i.e., any Lewis base) can be a nucleophile, whether it is neutral or has a negative charge. The rates of S_N1 reactions are independent of the identity of the nucleophile, since it does not appear in the rate-determining step.[322] This may be illustrated by the effect of changing the nucleophile from H_2O to OH^- for a primary and a tertiary substrate. For methyl bromide, which reacts by an S_N2 mechanism, the rate is multiplied more than 5000 by the change to the more powerful nucleophile OH^-, but for *tert*-butyl bromide, which reacts by an S_N1 mechanism, the rate is unaffected.[323] A change in nucleophile can, however, change the *product* of an S_N1 reaction. Thus solvolysis of benzyl tosylate in methanol gives benzyl methyl ether (the nucleophile is the solvent methanol). If the more powerful nucleophile Br^- is added, the rate is unchanged, but the product is now benzyl bromide.

For S_N2 reactions in solution, there are four main principles that govern the effect of the nucleophile on the rate, though the nucleophilicity order is not invariant but depends on substrate, solvent, leaving group, and so on.

TABLE 10.6 List of Groups in Approximately Descending Order of Reactivity Toward S_N1 and S_N2 Reactions[a]

S_N1 Reactivity	S_N2 Reactivity
Ar_3CX	Ar_3CX
Ar_2CHX	Ar_2CHX
$ROCH_2X$, $RSCH_2X$, R_2NCH_2X	$ArCH_2X$
R_3CX	ZCH_2X
$ArCH_2X$	$-\overset{\vert}{C}=\overset{\vert}{C}-CH_2X$
$-\overset{\vert}{C}=\overset{\vert}{C}-CH_2X$	$RCH_2X \approx RCHDX \approx RCHDCH_2X$
R_2CHX	R_2CHX
$RCH_2X \approx R_3CCH_2X$	R_3CX
$RCHDX$	ZCH_2CH_2X
$RCHDCH_2X$	R_3CCH_2X
$-\overset{\vert}{C}=\overset{\vert}{C}-C-X$	$-\overset{\vert}{C}=\overset{\vert}{C}-C-X$
ZCH_2X	
ZCH_2CH_2X	ArX
ArX	Bridgehead-X
f2.2.1] Bridgehead-X	

[a] Here Z is RCO, HCO, ROCO, NH_2CO, NC, or a similar group.

1. A nucleophile with a negative charge is always a more powerful nucleophile than its conjugate acid (assuming the latter is also a nucleophile). Thus OH^- is more powerful than H_2O, NH_2^- is more powerful than NH3, and so on.
2. In comparing nucleophiles whose attacking atom is in the same row of the periodic table, nucleophilicity is approximately in order of basicity, though basicity is thermodynamically controlled and nucleophilicity is kinetically controlled. So an approximate order of nucleophilicity is $NH_2^- > RO^- >$ OH" > $R_2NH > ArO^- > NH_3 >$ pyridine > $F^- > H_2O > ClO_4^-$, and another is $R_3C^- > R_2N^- > RO^-$ > F" (see Table 8.1). This type of correlation works best when the structures of the nucleophiles being compared are similar, as with a set of substituted phenoxides. Within such a series, linear relationships can often be established between nucleophilic rates and pK values.[324]
3. Going down the periodic table, nucleophilicity increases, though basicity decreases. Thus the usual order of halide nucleophilicity is $I^- > Br^- > Cl^- > F^-$ (though as we shall see below, this order is solvent dependent). Similarly, any sulfur nucleophile is more powerful than its oxygen analog, and the same is true for phosphorus versus nitrogen. The main reason for this distinction between basicity and nucleophilic power is that the smaller negatively charged nucleophiles are more solvated by the usual polar protic solvents; that is, because the negative charge of Cl^- is more concentrated than the charge of I^-, the former is more tightly surrounded by a shell of solvent

TABLE 10.7 The More Important Synthetic Reactions of Chapter 10 That Take Place by S_N2 Mechanism"*

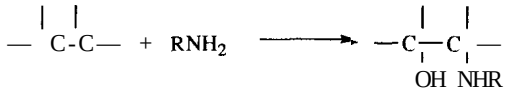
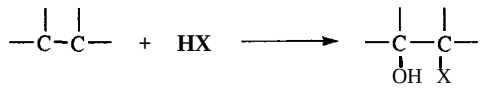
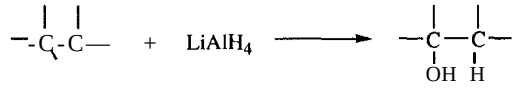
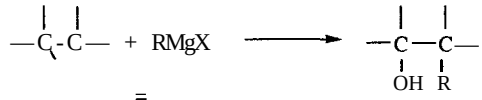
10-1	$RX + OH^- \longrightarrow ROH$
10-12	$RX + OR' \longrightarrow ROR'$
10-13	
10-14	$R{-}OSO_2OR'' + OR' \longrightarrow ROR'$
10-16	$2\ ROH \longrightarrow ROR$
10-18	
10-19	$R_3O^+ + R'OH \longrightarrow ROR'$
10-26	$RX + R'COO^- \longrightarrow R'COOR$
10-32	$RX + OOH^- \longrightarrow ROOH$
10-37	$RX + SH^- \longrightarrow RSH$
10-38	$RX + R'S^- \longrightarrow RSR'$
10-40	$RX + S_2^{2-} \longrightarrow RSSR$
10-43	$RX + SCN^- \longrightarrow RSCN$
10-44	$RX + R'_2NH \longrightarrow RR'_2N$
10-44	$RX + R'_3N \longrightarrow RR'_3N^+\ X^-$
10-50	
10-61	$RX + R'CONH^- \longrightarrow RNHCOR'$
10-64	$RX + NO_2^- \longrightarrow RNO_2 + RONO$
10-65	$RX + N_2^- \longrightarrow RN_3$
10-66	$RX + NCO^- \longrightarrow RNCO$
10-66	$RX + NCS^- \longrightarrow RNCS$

TABLE 10.7 *(Continued)*

10-68	$RX + X'^- \longrightarrow RX'$
10-69	$R{-}OSO_2OR' + X''^- \longrightarrow RX$
10-70	$ROH + PCl_5 \longrightarrow RCl$
10-71	$ROR' + 2\,HI \longrightarrow RI + R'I$
10-72	
10-73	$R{-}O{-}COR' + LiI \longrightarrow RI + R'COO^-$
10-79	$RX + LiAlH_4 \longrightarrow RH$
10-80	$R{-}OSO_2R' + LiAlH_4 \longrightarrow RH$
10-85	
10-94	$RX + R'_2CuLi \longrightarrow RR'$
10-102	
10-104	$RX + H\bar{C}(CO_2R')_2 \longrightarrow RCH(CO_2R')_2$
10-105	$RX + R''\bar{C}H{-}COR' \longrightarrow RCR''{-}COR'$
10-106	$RX + R'\bar{C}HCOO^- \longrightarrow RR'CHCOO^-$
10-107	
10-110	$RX + R'C{\equiv}C^- \longrightarrow RC{\equiv}CR'$
10-111	$RX + CN^- \longrightarrow RCN$

[a] Here R = primary, often secondary alkyl and catalysts are not shown.
[b] This is a schematic list only. Some of these reactions may also take place by other mechanisms and the scope may vary greatly. See the discussion of each reaction for details

molecules that constitute a barrier between it and the substrate. This is most important for protic polar solvents in which the solvent may be hydrogen bonded to small nucleophiles. Evidence for this is that many nucleophilic substitutions with small negatively charged nucleophiles are much more rapid in aprotic polar solvents than in protic ones[325] and that, in DMF, an aprotic solvent, the order of nucleophilicity was $Cl^- > Br^- > I^-$.[326] Another

TABLE 10.8 The More Important Synthetic Reactions of Chapter 10 that Take Place by the Tetrahedral Mechanism[a]

10-8	$RCOX + H_2O \longrightarrow$	$RCOOH$
10-9	$RCOOCOR' + H_2O \longrightarrow$	$RCOOH + R'COOH$
10-10	$RCO_2R' + H_2O \longrightarrow$	$RCOOH + R'OH$
10-11	$RCONR'_2 + H_2O \longrightarrow$	$RCOOH + R'_2NH$ (R′ = H, alkyl, aryl)
10-21	$RCOX + R'OH \longrightarrow$	RCO_2R'
10-22	$RCOOCOR + R'OH \longrightarrow$	RCO_2R'
10-23	$RCOOH + R'OH \longrightarrow$	RCO_2R'
10-24	$RCO_2R' + R''OH \longrightarrow$	$RCO_2R'' + R'OH$
10-29	$RCOX + R'COO^- \longrightarrow$	$RCOOCOR'$
10-32	$RCOX + H_2O_2 \longrightarrow$	$RCO3H$
10-39	$RCOX + R'SH \longrightarrow$	$RCOSR'$
10-55	$RCOX + NHR'_2 \longrightarrow$	$RCONR'_2$ (R' = H, alkyl, aryl)
10-56	$RCOOCOR + NHR'_2 \longrightarrow$	$RCONR'_2$ (R' = H, alkyl, aryl)
10-57	$RCOOH + NHR'_2 \xrightarrow[\text{agent}]{\text{coupling}}$	$RCONR'_2$ (R' = H, alkyl, aryl)
10-58	$RCO_2R' + NHR''_2 \longrightarrow$	$RCONR''_2$ (R'' = H, alkyl, aryl)
10-77	$RCOOH + SOCl_2 \longrightarrow$	$RCOCl$
10-89	$RCOX + LiAlH(O\text{-}t\text{-}Bu)_3 \longrightarrow$	$RCHO$
10-91	$RCONR'_2 + LiAlH_4 \longrightarrow$	$RCHO$
10-114	$RCOX + R_2CuLi \longrightarrow$	$RCOR'$
10-118	$2\,RCH_2CO_2R' \longrightarrow$	$RCH_2COCHRCO_2R'$

[a] Catalysts are not shown.

experiment was the use of $Bu_4N^+X^-$ and LiX as nucleophiles in acetone, where X^- was a halide ion. The halide ion in the former salt is much less associated than in LiX. The relative rates with LiX were Cl^-, 1; Br^-, 5.7; I^-, 6.2, which is in the normal order, while with $Bu_4N^+X^-$, where X^- is much freer, the relative rates were Cl^-, 68; Br", 18; I~, 3.7.[327] In a further experiment, halide ions were allowed to react with the molten salt $(n\text{-}C_5H_{11})_4N^+X^-$ at 180°C in the absence of a solvent.[328] Under these conditions, where the ions are unsolvated and unassociated, the relative rates were

Cl^-, 620; Br~, 7.7; I^-, 1. In the gas phase, where no solvent is present, an approximate order of nucleophilicity was found to be $OH^- > F^- \approx MeO^- > MeS^- \gg Cl^- > CN^- > Br^-$,[329] providing further evidence that solvation is responsible for the effect in solution.

However, solvation is not the entire answer since, even for *uncharged* nucleophiles, nucleophilicity increases going down a column in the periodic table. These nucleophiles are not so greatly solvated and changes in solvent do not greatly affect their nucleophilicity.[330] To explain these cases, we may use the principle of hard and soft acids and bases (p. 338).[331] The proton is a hard acid, but an alkyl substrate, which may be considered to act as a Lewis acid toward the nucleophile considered as a base, is a good deal softer. According to the principle given on page 342, we may then expect the alkyl group to prefer softer nucleophiles than the proton does. Thus the larger, more polarizable (softer) nucleophiles have a greater (relative) attraction toward an alkyl carbon than toward a proton.

4. The freer the nucleophile, the greater the rate.[332] We have already seen one instance of this.[327] Another is that the rate of attack by $(EtOOC)_2CBu^-Na^+$ in benzene was increased by the addition of substances (e.g., 1,2-dimethoxyethane, adipamide) that specifically solvated the Na^+ and thus left the anion freer.[333] In a nonpolar solvent such as benzene, salts such as $(EtOOC)_2CBu^-Na^+$ usually exist as ion-pair aggregations of large molecular weights.[334] Similarly, it was shown that the half-life of the reaction between $C_6H_5COCHEt^-$ and ethyl bromide depended on the positive ion: K^+, 4.5×10^{-3}; Na^+, 3.9×10^{-5}; Li^+, 3.1×10^{-7}.[335] Presumably, the potassium ion leaves the negative ion most free to attack most rapidly. Further evidence is that in the gas phase,[336] where nucleophilic ions are completely free, without solvent or counterion, reactions take place orders of magnitude faster than the same reactions in solution.[329] It has proven possible to measure the rates of reaction of OH^- with methyl bromide in the gas phase, with OH^- either unsolvated or solvated with one, two, or three molecules of water.[337] The rates were, with the number of water molecules in parentheses: (0) 1.0×10^{-9}; (1) 6.3×10^{-10}; (2) 2×10^{-12}; (3) 2×10^{-13} cm^3 $molecule^{-1}$ s^{-1}. This provides graphic evidence that solvation of the nucleophile decreases the rate. The rate of this reaction in aqueous solution is 2.3×10^{-25} cm^3 $molecule^{-1}$ s^{-1}. Similar results were found for other nucleophiles and other solvents.[338] In solution too, studies have been made of the effect of solvation of the nucleophile by a specific number of water molecules. When the salt $(n\text{-}C_6H_{13})_4N^+F^-$ was allowed to react with *n*-octyl methanesulfonate, the relative rate fell from 822 for no water molecules to 96 for 1.5 water molecules to 1 for 6 water molecules.[339]

In Chapter 3, we saw that cryptands specifically solvate the alkali metal portion of salts like KP, KOAc, and so on. Synthetic advantage can be taken of this fact to allow anions to be freer, thus increasing the rates of nucleophilic substitutions and other reactions (see p. 455).

However, the four rules given above do not always hold. One reason is that steric influences often play a part. For example, the tert-butoxide ion Me_3CO^- is a stronger base than OH^- or OEt^-, but a much poorer nucleophile because its large bulk hinders it from closely approaching a substrate.

The following overall nucleophilicity order for S_N2 mechanisms (in protic solvents) was given by Edwards and Pearson:[340] RS~ > ArS^- > I~ > CN^- > OH" > N_3^- > Br^- > ArO" > Cl^- > pyridine > AcO" > H_2O. A quantitative relationship (the *Swain-Scott equation)*[341] has been worked out similar to the linear free energy equations considered in Chapter 9:[342]

$$\log \frac{k}{k_0} = sn$$

where n is the nucleophilicity of a given group, s is the sensitivity of a substrate to nucleophilic attack, and k_0 is the rate for H_2O, which is taken as the standard and for which n is assigned a value of zero. The parameter s is defined as 1.0 for methyl bromide. Table 10.9[343] contains values of n for some common nucleophiles. The order is similar to that of Edwards and Pearson. The Swain-Scott equation can be derived from Marcus theory.[344]

It is now evident that an absolute order of either nucleophilicity[345] or leaving-group ability, even in the gas phase where solvation is not a factor, does not exist, because they have an effect on each other. When the nucleophile and leaving group are both hard or both soft, the reaction rates are relatively high, but when one is hard and the other soft, rates are reduced.[346] Although this effect is smaller than the effects in paragraphs 1 and 4 above, it still prevents an absolute scale of either nucleophilicity or leaving-group ability. There has been controversy as to whether the selectivity of a reaction should increase with decreasing reactivity of a series of nucleophiles, or whether the opposite holds. There is evidence for both views.[347]

For substitution at a carbonyl carbon, the nucleophilicity order is not the same as it is at a saturated carbon, but follows the basicity order more closely. The reason is presumably that the carbonyl carbon, with its partial positive charge, resembles a proton more than does the carbon at a saturated center. That is, a carbonyl carbon is a much harder acid than a saturated carbon. The following nucleophilicity order for

TABLE 10.9 Nucleophilicities of Some Common Reagents

Nucleophile	n	Nucleophile	n
SH^-	5.1	Br^-	3.5
CN^-	5.1	PhO^-	3.5
I^-	5.0	AcO^-	2.7
$PhNH_2$	4.5	cr	2.7
OH^-	4.2	F^-	2.0
N_3^-	4.0	NO_3^-	1.0
Pyridine	3.6	H_2O	0.0

these substrates has been determined:[348] $Me_2C{=}NO^- > EtO^- > MeO^- > OH^- > OAr^- > N_3^- > F^- > H_2O > Br^- \approx I^-$. Soft bases are ineffective at a carbonyl carbon.[349] In a reaction carried out in the gas phase with alkoxide nucleophiles OR^- solvated by only one molecule of an alcohol R'OH, it was found that both RO^- and $R'O^-$ attacked the formate substrate (HCOOR") about equally, though in the unsolvated case, the more basic alkoxide is the better nucleophile.[350] In this study, the product ion $R''O^-$ was also solvated by one molecule of ROH or R'OH.

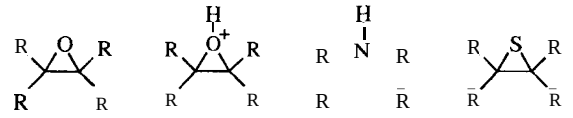
If, adjacent to the attacking atom on the nucleophile, there is an atom containing one or more unshared pairs, the nucleophilicity is enhanced. Examples of such nucleophiles are HO_2^-, $Me_2C{=}NO^-$, NH_2NH_2, and so on. This is called the *alpha effect*,[351] and the reasons for it are not completely understood. Several possible explanations have been offered.[352] One is that the ground state of the nucleophile is destabilized by repulsion between the adjacent pairs of electrons;[353] another is that the transition state is stabilized by the extra pair of electrons;[354] a third is that the adjacent electron pair reduces solvation of the nucleophile.[355] Evidence supporting the third explanation is that there was no alpha effect in the reaction of HO_2^- with methyl formate in the gas phase,[356] though HO_2^- shows a strong alpha effect in solution. The alpha effect is substantial for substitution at a carbonyl or other unsaturated carbon, at some inorganic atoms,[357] and for reactions of a nucleophile with a carbocation,[358] but is generally smaller or absent entirely for substitution at a saturated carbon.[359]

The Effect of the Leaving Group

1. *At a Saturated Carbon.* The leaving group comes off more easily the more stable it is as a free entity. This is usually inverse to its basicity, and the best leaving groups are the weakest bases. Thus iodide is the best leaving group among the halides and fluoride is the poorest. Since XH is always a weaker base than X", nucleophilic substitution is always easier at a substrate RXH^+ than at RX. An example of this effect is that OH and OR are not leaving groups from ordinary alcohols and ethers but can come off when the groups are protonated, that is, converted to ROH_2^+ or $RORH^+$.[360] Reactions in which the leaving group does not come off until it has been protonated have been called S_N1cA or S_N2cA, depending on whether after protonation the reaction is an S_N1 or S_N2 process (these designations are often shortened to A1 and A2). The cA stands for conjugate acid, since the substitution takes place on the conjugate acid of the substrate. The IUPAC designations for these mechanisms are, respectively, $A_h + D_N + A_N$ and $A_h + A_ND_N$; that is, the same designations as S_N1 and S_N2, with A_h to show the preliminary step. When another electrophile assumes the role of the proton, the symbol A_e is used instead. The ions ROH_2^+ and $RORH^+$ can be observed as stable entities at low temperatures in superacid solutions.[361] At higher temperatures, they cleave to give carbocations.

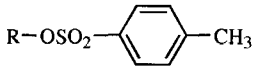
   It is obvious that the best nucleophiles (e.g., NH_2^-, OH^-) cannot take part in S_N1cA or S_N2cA processes, because they would be converted to their

conjugate acids under the acidic conditions necessary to protonate the leaving groups.[362] Because S_N1 reactions do not require powerful nucleophiles but do require good leaving groups, most of them take place under acidic conditions. In contrast, S_N2 reactions, which do require powerful nucleophiles, which are generally strong bases, most often take place under basic or neutral conditions.



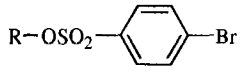
Another circumstance that increases leaving-group power is ring strain. Ordinary ethers do not cleave at all and protonated ethers only under strenuous conditions, but epoxides[363] are cleaved quite easily and protonated epoxides even more easily. Aziridines[364] and episulfides, three-membered rings containing, respectively, nitrogen and sulfur, are also easily cleaved (see p. 458).[365]

Although halides are common leaving groups in nucleophilic substitution for synthetic purposes, it is often more convenient to use alcohols. Since OH does not leave from ordinary alcohols, it must be converted to a group that does leave. One way is protonation, mentioned above. Another is conversion to a reactive ester, most commonly a sulfonic ester. The sulfonic ester groups *tosylate, brosylate, nosylate,* and *mesylate* are better leaving groups than



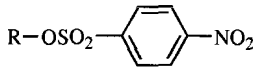
ROTs

p-Toluenesulfonates
Tosylates



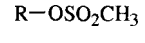
ROBs

p-Bromobenzenesulfonates
Brosylates



RONs

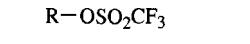
p-Nitrobenzenesulfonates
Nosylates



ROMs

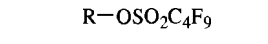
Methanesulfonates
Mesylates

halides and are frequently used.[366] Other leaving groups are still better, and compounds containing these groups make powerful alkylating agents. Among them are oxonium ions (ROR_2^+),[367] and the fluorinated compounds

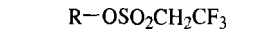


ROTf

Trifluoromethanesulfonates
Triflates



Nonafluorobutanesulfonates
Nonaflates

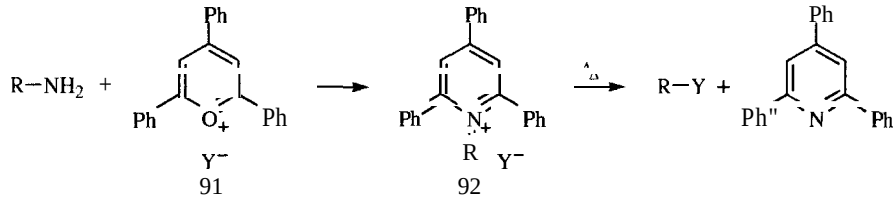


2,2,2-Trifluoroethanesulfonates
Tresylates

triflates[368] and *nonaflates*.[368] *Tresylates* are ~ 400 times less reactive than triflates, but still ~ 100 times more reactive than tosylates.[369] Halonium ions ($RClR^+$, $RBrR^+$, RIR^+), which can be prepared in superacid solutions

(p. 219) and isolated as solid SbF_6^- salts, are also extremely reactive in nucleophilic substitution.[370] Of the above types of compound, the most important in organic synthesis are tosylates, mesylates, oxonium ions, and triflates. The others have been used mostly for mechanistic purposes.

The groups NH_2, NHR, and NR_2 are extremely poor leaving groups,[371] but the leaving-group ability of NH_2 can be greatly improved by converting a primary amine RNH_2 to the ditosylate $RNTs_2$. The NTs_2 group has been successfully replaced by a number of nucleophiles.[372] Another way of converting NH_2 into a good leaving group has been extensively developed by Katritzky and co-workers.[373] In this method, the amine is converted to a



91 92

pyridinium compound (92) by treatment with a pyrylium salt (frequently a 2,4,6-triphenylpyrylium salt, **91**).[374] When the salt is heated, the counterion acts as a nucleophile. In some cases, a nonnucleophilic ion such as BF_4^- is used as the counterion for the conversion 91 —+ 92, and then Y^- is added to 92. Among the nucleophiles that have been used successfully in this reaction are I", Br^-, Cl~, F^-, OAc^-, N_3^-, NHR_2, and H^-. Ordinary, NR_2 groups are good leaving groups when the substrate is a Mannich base (these are compounds of the form $RCOCH_2CH_2NR_2$; see Reaction 16-15).[375] The elimination-addition mechanism applies in this case.

Probably the best leaving group is N_2 from the species RN_2^+, which can be generated in several ways,[376] of which the two most important are the treatment of primary amines with nitrous acid (see p. 816 for this reaction)

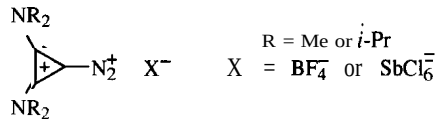
$$RNH_2 + HONO \longrightarrow RN_2^+$$

and the protonation of diazo compounds[377]

$$R_2C{=}\overset{+}{N}{=}\bar{N} + H^+ \longrightarrow R_2CHN_2^+$$

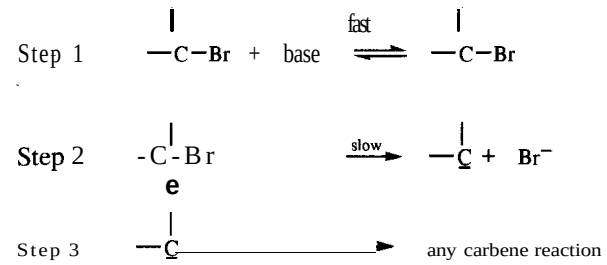
No matter how produced, RN_2^+ are usually too unstable to be isolable,[378] reacting presumably by the S_N1 or S_N2 mechanism.[379] Actually, the exact mechanisms are in doubt because the rate laws, stereochemistry, and products have proved difficult to interpret.[380] If there are free carbocations, they should give the same ratio of substitution to elimination to rearrangements, and so on, as carbocations generated in other S_N1 reactions, but they often do not. "Hot" carbocations (unsolvated and/or chemically activated) that can hold their configuration have been postulated,[381] as have ion pairs, in which OH" (or OAc^-, etc., depending on how the diazonium ion is generated) is the coun-

terion.[382] One class of aliphatic diazonium salts of which several members have been isolated as stable salts are the cyclopropeniumyldiazonium salts:[383]



Diazonium ions generated from ordinary aliphatic primary amines are usually useless for preparative purposes, since they lead to a mixture of products giving not only substitution by any nucleophile present, but also elimination and rearrangements if the substrate permits. For example, diazotization of *n*-butylamine gave 25% 1-butanol, 5.2% 1-Chlorobutane, 13.2% 2-butanol, 36.5% butenes (consisting of 71% 1-butene, 20% *trans*-2-butene, and 9% *cis*-2-butene), and traces of butyl nitrites.[384]

In the S_N1cA and S_N2cA mechanisms (p. 445) there is a preliminary step, the addition of a proton, before the normal S_N1 or S_N2 process occurs. There are also reactions in which the substrate *loses* a proton in a preliminary step. In these reactions there is a carbene intermediate.



Once formed by this process, the carbene may undergo any of the normal carbene reactions (see p. 250). When the net result is substitution, this mechanism has been called the S_N1cB (for conjugate base) mechanism.[385] Though the slow step is an S_N1 step, the reaction is second order; first order in substrate and first order in base.

Table 10.10 lists some leaving groups in approximate order of ability to leave. The order of leaving-group ability is about the same for S_N1 and S_N2 reactions.

2. *At a Carbonyl Carbon.* In both the S_N1 and S_N2 mechanisms, the leaving group departs during the rate-determining step and so directly affects the rate. In the tetrahedral mechanism at a carbonyl carbon, the bond between the substrate and leaving group is still intact during the slow step. Nevertheless, the nature of the leaving group still affects the reactivity in two ways: (1) By altering the electron density at the carbonyl carbon, the rate of the reaction is affected. The greater the electron-withdrawing character of X, the greater the partial positive charge on C and the more rapid the attack by a nucleophile. (2) The nature of the leaving group affects the *position of equilibrium.* In the

TABLE 10.10 Leaving Groups Listed in Approximate Order of Decreasing Ability to Leave[a]

	Common Leaving Groups	
Substrate RX	At Saturated Carbon	At Carbonyl Carbon
RN_2^+	x	
$ROR'_2{}^+$		
$ROSO_2C_4F_9$		
$ROSO_2CF_3$	x	
$ROSO_2F$		
ROTs, etc.[b]	x	
RI	x	
RBr	x	
ROH_2^+	x (conjugate acid of alcohol)	
RC1	x	x (acyl halides)
$RORH^+$	x (conjugate acid of ether)	
$RONO_2$, etc.[b]		
$RSR'_2{}^+$[c]		
$RNR'_3{}^+$	x	
RF		
ROCOR'[d]	x	x (anhydrides)
RNH_3^+		
ROAr[e]		x (aryl esters)
ROH		x (carboxylic acids)
ROR		x (alkyl esters)
RH		
RNH_2		x (amides)
RAr		
RR		

"Groups that are common leaving groups at saturated and carbonyl carbons are indicated.
[b]The compounds ROTs, and so on, include esters of sulfuric and sulfonic acids in general, for example, $ROSO_2OH$, $ROSO_2OR$, and $ROSO_2R$. The compounds $RONO_2$, and so on include inorganic ester leaving groups, such as $ROPO(OH)_2$ and $ROB(OH)_2$.
[c]See Ref. 390.
[d]See Ref. 391.
'See Ref. 392.

intermediate 73 (p. 424) there is competition between X and Y as to which group leaves. If X is a poorer leaving group than Y, then Y will preferentially leave and 73 will revert to the starting compounds. Thus there is a partitioning factor between 73 going on to product (loss of X) or back to starting compound (loss of Y). The sum of these two factors causes the sequence of reactivity to be $RCOCl > RCOOCOR' > RCOOAr > RCOOR' > RCONH_2 > RCONR'_2 > RCOO^-$.[386] Note that this order is approximately the order of decreasing stability of the leaving-group anion. If the leaving group is bulky, it may exert a steric effect and retard the rate for this reason.

The Effect of the Reaction Medium[387]

The effect of solvent polarity[388] on the rate of S_N1 reactions depends on whether the substrate is neutral or positively charged.[389] For neutral substrates, which constitute the majority of cases, the more polar the solvent, the faster the reaction, since there is a greater charge in the transition state than in the starting compound (Table 10.11[393]) and the energy of an ionic transition state is reduced by polar solvents. However, when the substrate is positively charged, the charge is more spread out in the transition state than in the starting ion, and a greater solvent polarity slows the reaction. Even for solvents with about the same polarity, there is a difference between protic and aprotic solvents.[394] The S_N1 reactions of un-ionized substrates are more rapid in protic solvents, which can form hydrogen bonds with the leaving group. Examples of protic solvents are water, alcohols, and carboxylic acids, while some polar aprotic solvents are DMF, DMSO,[395] acetonitrile, acetone, sulfur dioxide, and hexamethylphosphoramide $[(Me_2N)_3PO$, HMPA$]$.[396] An algorithm has been developed to accurately calculate dielectric screening effects in solvents.[397]

For S_N2 reactions, the effect of the solvent depends on which of the four charge types the reaction belongs to (p. 389). In types I and IV, an initial charge is dispersed in the transition state, so the reaction is hindered by polar solvents. In type III initial charges are *decreased* in the transition state, so that the reaction is even more hindered by polar solvents. Only type II, where the reactants are uncharged but the transition state has built up a charge, is aided by polar solvents. These effects are summarized in Table 10.11.[393] Westaway[398] proposed a "solvation rule" for S_N2 reactions, which states that changing the solvent will not change the structure of the transition state for type I reactions, but will change it for type II reactions. For S_N2 reactions also, the difference between protic and aprotic solvents must be considered.[399] For reactions of types I and III the transition state is more solvated in polar aprotic solvents than in protic ones,[400] while (as we saw on p. 439) the original charged nucleophile is less solvated in aprotic solvents[401] (the second factor is generally much greater than the first).[402] So the change from, say, methanol to

TABLE **10.11 Transition States for S_N1 Reactions of Charged and Uncharged Substrates, and for S_N2 Reactions of the Four Charge Types**

Reactants and Transition States		Charge in the Transition State Relative to Starting Materials	How an Increase in Solvent Polarity Affects the Rate
S_N2			
Type I	$RX + Y^- \rightarrow Y^{\delta-} \cdots R \cdots X^{\delta-}$	Dispersed	Small decrease
Type II	$RX + Y \rightarrow Y^{\delta+} \cdots R \cdots X^{\delta-}$	Increased	Large increase
Type III	$RX + Y^- \rightarrow Y^{\delta-} \cdots R \cdots X^{\delta+}$	Decreased	Large decrease
Type IV	$RX + Y \rightarrow Y^{\delta+} \cdots R \cdots X^{\delta+}$	Dispersed	Small decrease
	$RX \rightarrow R^{\delta+} \ldots X^{\delta-}$	Increased	Large increase
S_N1			
	$RX^- \rightarrow R^{\delta-} \cdots X^{\delta-}$	Dispersed	Small decrease

DMSO should greatly increase the rate. As an example, the relative rates at 25°C for the reaction between methyl iodide and Cl^- were[325] in MeOH, 1; in $HCONH_2$ (still protic though a weaker acid), 12.5; in HCONHMe, 45.3; and $HCONMe_2$, 1.2 x 10^6. The change in rate in going from a protic to an aprotic solvent is also related to the *size* of the attacking anion. Small ions are solvated best in protic solvents, since hydrogen bonding is most important for them, while large anions are solvated best in aprotic solvents (protic solvents have highly developed structures held together by hydrogen bonds; aprotic solvents have much looser structures, and it is easier for a large anion to be fitted in). So the rate of attack by small anions is most greatly increased by the change from a protic to an aprotic solvent. This may have preparative significance. The review articles in Ref. 399 have lists of several dozen reactions of charge types I and III in which yields are improved and reaction times reduced in polar aprotic solvents. Reaction types II and IV are much less susceptible to the difference between protic and aprotic solvents.

Since for most reactions S_N1 rates go up and S_N2 rates go down in solvents of increasing polarity, it is quite possible for the same reaction to go by the S_N1 mechanism in one solvent and the S_N2 in another. Table 10.12[403] is a list of solvents in order of ionizing power; a solvent high on the list is a good solvent for S_N1 reactions. Trifluoroacetic acid, which was not studied by Smith, Fainberg, and Winstein, has greater ionizing power[404] than any solvent listed in Table 10.12. Because it also has very low nucleophilicity, it is an excellent solvent for S_N1 solvolyses. Other good solvents for this purpose are 1,1,1-trifluoroethanol, CF_3CH_2OH, and 1,1,1,3,3,3-hexafluoro-2-propanol, $(F_3C)_2CHOH$.[405]

We have seen how the polarity of the solvent influences the rates of S_N1 and S_N2 reactions. The ionic strength of the medium has similar effects. In general, the addition of an external salt affects the rates of S_N1 and S_N2 reactions in the same way as an increase in solvent polarity, though this is not quantitative; different salts have different effects.[406] However, there are exceptions: though the rates of S_N1 reactions are usually increased by the addition of salts (this is called the *salt effect),* addition of the leaving-group ion often decreases the rate (the common-ion effect, p. 395).

TABLE 10.12 Relative Rates of Ionization of *p*-Methoxyneophyl Toluenesulfonate in Various Solvents

Solvent	Relative Rate	Solvent	Relative Rate
HCOOH	153	Ac_2O	0.020
H_2O	39	Pyridine	0.013
80% EtOH–H_2O	1.85	Acetone	0.0051
AcOH	1.00	EtOAc	6.7×10^{-4}
MeOH	0.947	THF	5.0×10^{-4}
EtOH	0.370	Et_2O	3×10^{-5}
Me_2SO	0.108	$CHCl_3$	Lower still
Octanoic acid	0.043	Benzene	
MeCN	0.036	Alkanes	
$HCONMe_2$	0.029		

There is also the special salt effect of $LiClO_4$, mentioned on page 399. In addition to these effects, S_N1 rates are also greatly accelerated when there are ions present that specifically help in pulling off the leaving group.[407] Especially important are Ag^+, Hg^{2+}, and Hg_2^{2+}, but H^+ helps to pull off F (hydrogen bonding).[408] Even primary halides have been reported to undergo S_N1 reactions when assisted by metal ions.[409] This does not mean, however, that reactions in the presence of metallic ions invariably proceed by the S_N1 mechanism. It has been shown that alkyl halides can react with $AgNO_2$ and $AgNO_3$ by the S_N1 or S_N2 mechanism, depending on the reaction conditions.[410]

The effect of solvent has been treated quantitatively (for S_N1 mechanisms, in which the solvent pulls off the leaving group) by a linear free energy relationship[411]

$$\log\frac{k}{k_0} = mY$$

where m is characteristic of the substrate (defined as 1.00 for *t*-BuCl) and is usually near unity, Y is characteristic of the solvent and measures its "ionizing power," and k_0 is the rate in a standard solvent, 80% aqueous ethanol at 25°C. This is known as the Grunwald–Winstein equation (p. 371), and its utility is at best limited. The Y values can of course be measured for solvent *mixtures* too, and this is one of the principal advantages of the treatment, since it is not easy otherwise to assign a polarity arbitrarily to a given mixture of solvents.[412] The treatment is most satisfactory for different proportions of a given solvent pair. For wider comparisons, the treatment is not so good quantitatively, although the Y values do give a reasonably good idea of solvolyzing power.[413] Table 10.13[414] contains a list of some Y values.

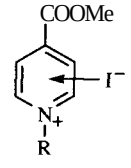
Ideally, Y should measure only the ionizing power of the solvent, and should not reflect any backside attack by a solvent molecule in helping the nucleofuge to leave (nucleophilic assistance; k_s, p. 411). Actually, there is evidence that many solvents do lend some nucleophilic assistance,[415] even with tertiary substrates.[416] It was proposed that a better measure of solvent "ionizing power" would be a relationship based on 2-adamantyl substrates, rather than *t*-BuCl, since the structure of this system completely prevents backside nucleophilic assistance (p. 433). Such a scale, called Y_{OTs}, was developed, with m defined as 1.00 for 2-adamantyl tosylate.[417] Some values of Y_{OTs} are given in Table 10.13. These values, which are actually based on both 1- and 2-adamantyl tosylates (both are equally impervious to nucleophilic assistance and show almost identical responses to solvent ionizing power[418]) are called Y_{OTs} because they apply only to tosylates. It has been found that solvent "ionizing power" depends on the leaving group, so separate scales[419] have been set up for OTf,[420] Cl,[392] Br,[421] I,[422] and other nucleofuges,[423] all based on the corresponding adamantyl compounds. A new Y scale has been established based on benzylic bromides.[424] In part, this was done because benzylic tosylates did not give a linear correlation with the 2-adamantyl Y_{OTs} parameter.[425] This is substrate dependent, since solvolysis of 2,2,-dimethyl-1-phenyl-1-propanol tosylate showed no nucleophilic solvent participation.[426]

In order to include a wider range of solvents than those in which any of the Y values can be conveniently measured, other attempts have been made at correlating

TABLE 10.13 The Y, Y_{OTs}, Z, and E_T (30) Values for some Solvents

Solvent	Y	Y_{OTs}	Z	E_T (30)
CF3COOH		4.57		
H_2O	3.5	4.1	94.6	63.1
$(CF_3)_2CHOH$		3.82		65.3
HCOOH	2.1	3.04		
H_2O–EtOH (1:1)	1.7	1.29	90	55.6
CF_3CH_2OH	1.0	1.77		59.8
$HCONH_2$	0.6		83.3	56.6
80% EtOH	0.0	0.0	84.8	53.7
MeOH	**-1.1**	-0.92	83.6	55.4
AcOH	-1.6	-0.9	79.2	51.7
EtOH	-2.0	-1.96	79.6	51.9
90% dioxane	-2.0	-2.41	76.7	46.7
i-PrOH	-2.7	-2.83	76.3	48.4
95% acetone	-2.8	-2.95	72.9	48.3
t-BuOH	-3.3	-3.74	71.3	43.9
MeCN		-3.21	71.3	45.6
Me_2SO			71.1	45.1
$HCONMe_2$		-4.14	68.5	43.8
Acetone			65.7	42.2
HMPA				40.9
CH_2Cl_2				40.7
Pyridine			64.0	40.5
$CHCl_3$			63.2	39.1
PhCl				37.5
THF				37.4
Dioxane				36.0
Et_2O				34.5
C_6H_6			54	34.3
PhMe				33.9
CCl_4				32.4
n-Octane				31.1
n-Hexane				31.0
Cyclohexane				30.9

solvent polarities.[427] Kosower found that the position of the charge-transfer peak (see p. 102) in the UV spectrum of the complex (93) between iodide ion



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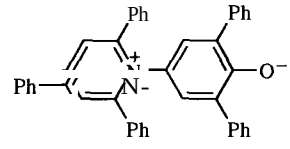


94

R = Me or Et

and 1-methyl- or 1-ethyl-4-carbomethoxypyridinium ion was dependent on the polarity of the solvent.[428] From these peaks, which are very easy to measure, Kosower calculated transition energies that he called Z values. The Z values are thus measures of solvent polarity analogous to *Y* values. Another scale is based on the position of electronic spectra peaks of the pyridinium-*N*-phenolbetaine (94) in various solvents.[429] Solvent polarity values on this scale are called $E_T(30)$[430] values. The $E_T(30)$ values are related to Z values by the expression[431]

$$Z = 1.41E_T(30) + 6.92$$

Table 10.13 shows that Z and $E_T(30)$ values are generally in the same order as *Y* values. Other scales, the π^* scale,[432] the π^*_{azo} scale,[433] and the Py scale,[434] are also based on spectral data.[435]

Carbon dioxide can be liquefied under high pressure (supercritical CO_2). Several reactions have been done using supercritical CO_2 as the medium, but special apparatus is required. This medium offers many advantages,[436] and some disadvantages, but is an interesting new area of research.

The effect of solvent on nucleophilicity has already been discussed (p. 438-445).

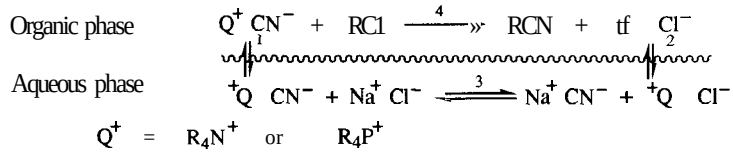
Phase-Transfer Catalysis

A difficulty that occasionally arises when carrying out nucleophilic substitution reactions is that the reactants do not mix. For a reaction to take place the reacting molecules must collide. In nucleophilic substitutions the substrate is usually insoluble in water and other polar solvents, while the nucleophile is often an anion, which is soluble in water but not in the substrate or other organic solvents. Consequently, when the two reactants are brought together, their concentrations in the same phase are too low for convenient reaction rates. One way to overcome this difficulty is to use a solvent that will dissolve both species. As we saw on page 450, a dipolar aprotic solvent may serve this purpose. Another way, which is used very often, is *phase-transfer catalysis*.[437]

In this method, a catalyst is used to carry the nucleophile from the aqueous into the organic phase. As an example, simply heating and stirring a two-phase mixture of 1-chlorooctane for several days with aqueous NaCN gives essentially no yield of 1-cyanooctane. But if a small amount of an appropriate quaternary ammonium salt is added, the product is quantitatively formed in about 2 h.[438] There are two principal types of phase-transfer catalyst. Though the action of the two types is somewhat different, the effects are the same. Both get the anion into the organic phase and allow it to be relatively free to react with the substrate.

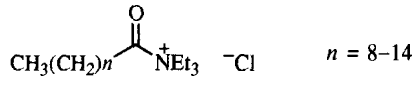
1. *Quaternary Ammonium or Phosphonium Salts.* In the above-mentioned case of NaCN, the uncatalyzed reaction does not take place because the CN^- ions cannot cross the interface between the two phases, except in very low concentration. The reason is that the Na^+ ions are solvated by the water, and this solvation energy would not be present in the organic phase. The CN^- ions

cannot cross without the Na^+ ions because that would destroy the electrical neutrality of each phase. In contrast to Na^+ ions, quaternary ammonium (R_4N^+)[439] and phosphonium (R_4P^+) ions with sufficiently large R groups are poorly solvated in water and prefer organic solvents. If a small amount of such a salt is added, three equilibria are set up:



The Na^+ ions remain in the aqueous phase; they cannot cross. The Q^+ ions do cross the interface and carry an anion with them. At the beginning of the reaction the chief anion present is CN^-. This gets carried into the organic phase (equilibrium 1) where it reacts with RC1 to produce RCN and Cl^-. The CP then gets carried into the aqueous phase (equilibrium 2). Equilibrium 3, taking place entirely in the aqueous phase, allows Q^+CN^- to be regenerated. All the equilibria are normally reached much faster than the actual Reaction (4), so the latter is the rate-determining step.

In some cases, the Q^+ ions have such a low solubility in water that virtually all remain in the organic phase.[440] In such cases, the exchange of ions (equilibrium 3) takes place across the interface. Still another mechanism *(the interfacial mechanism)* can operate where OH^- extracts a proton from an organic substrate.[441] In this mechanism, the OH^- ions remain in the aqueous phase and the substrate in the organic phase; the deprotonation takes place at the interface.[442] Thermal stability of the quaternary ammonium salt is a problem, limiting the use of some catalysts. The trialkylacyl ammonium halide 95 is thermally stable, however, even at high reaction temperatures.[443] The use of molten quaternary ammonium salts as ionic reaction media for substitution reactions has also been reported.[444]



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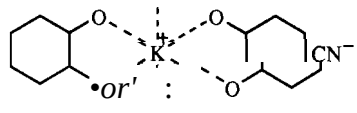
2. *Crown Ethers and Other Cryptands.*[445] We saw in Chapter 3 that certain cryptands are able to surround certain cations. In effect, a salt like KCN is converted by dicyclohexano-18-crown-6 into a new salt (96) whose anion is the same, but whose cation is now a much larger species with the positive charge



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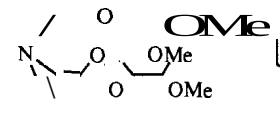

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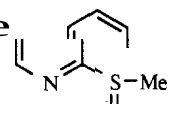


98

spread over a large volume and hence much less concentrated. This larger cation is much less solubilized by water than K^+ and much more attracted to organic solvents. Though KCN is generally insoluble in organic solvents, the cryptate salt is soluble in many of them. In these cases, we do not need an aqueous phase at all but simply add the salt to the organic phase. Suitable cryptands have been used to increase greatly the rates of reactions where F^-, Br^-, I^-, OAc^-, and CN^- are nucleophiles.[446] Certain compounds that are not cryptands can act in a similar manner. One example is the podand tris(3,6-dioxaheptyl)amine (97), also called TDA-1.[447] Another, not related to the crown ethers, is the pyridyl sulfoxide **98**.[448]

Both of the above-mentioned catalyst types get the anions into the organic phase, but there is another factor as well. There is evidence that sodium and potassium salts of many anions, even if they could be dissolved in organic solvents, would undergo reactions very slowly (dipolar aprotic solvents are exceptions) because in these solvents the anions exist as ion pairs with Na^+ or K^+ and are not free to attack the substrate (p. 443). Fortunately, ion pairing is usually much less with the quaternary ions and with the positive cryptate ions, so the anions in these cases are quite free to attack. Such anions are sometimes referred to as "naked" anions.

Not all quaternary salts and cryptands work equally well in all situations. Some experimentation is often required to find the optimum catalyst.

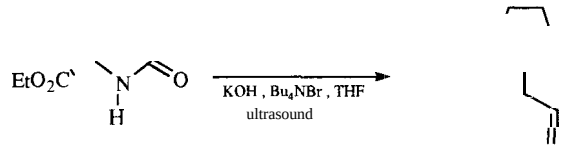
Although phase-transfer catalysis has been most often used for nucleophilic substitutions, it is not confined to these reactions. Any reaction that needs an insoluble anion dissolved in an organic solvent can be accelerated by an appropriate phase transfer catalyst. We shall see some examples in later chapters. In fact, in principle, the method is not even limited to anions, and a small amount of work has been done in transferring cations,[449] radicals, and molecules.[450] The reverse type of phase-transfer catalysis has also been reported: transport into the aqueous phase of a reactant that is soluble in organic solvents.[451]

The catalysts mentioned above are soluble. Certain cross-linked polystyrene resins, as well as alumina[452] and silica gel, have been used as insoluble phase-transfer catalysts. These, called *triphase catalysts*,[453] have the advantage of simplified product work up and easy and quantitative catalyst recovery, since the catalyst can easily be separated from the product by filtration.

Influencing Reactivity by External Means

In many cases, reactions are slow. This is sometimes due to poor mixing or the aggregation state of one or more reactants. A powerful technique used to increase reaction rates is *ultrasound*.[454] In this technique, the reaction mixture is subjected to high-energy sound waves, most often 20 KHz, but sometimes higher (a frequency of 20 KHz is about the upper limit of human hearing). When these waves are passed through a mixture, small bubbles form *(cavitation)*. Collapse of these bubbles produces powerful shock waves that greatly increase the temperatures and pressures within these tiny regions, resulting in an increased reaction rate.[455] In the common

instance where a metal, as a reactant or catalyst, is in contact with a liquid phase, a further effect is that the surface of the metal is cleaned and/or eroded by the ultrasound, allowing the liquid-phase molecules to come into closer contact with the metal atoms. Among the advantages of ultrasound is that it may increase yields, reduce side reactions, and permit the use of lower temperatures and/or pressures. The reaction of pyrrolidinone (99) with allyl bromide, under phase-transfer conditions, gave <10% of the *N*-allyl product, **100.** When the reaction was done under identical conditions, but with exposure to ultrasound (in an ultrasonic bath), the yield of **100** was 78%.[456] It has been postulated that ultrasound has its best results with reactions that proceed, at least partially, through free-radical intermediates.[457]



99 **100**

The common microwave oven has been brought into the laboratory. Using special Teflon reaction vessels, components are mixed together, the vessel sealed and put into the microwave oven. Reaction times are greatly accelerated in many reactions, and reactions that took hours to be complete in refluxing solvents are done in minutes. Benzyl alcohol was converted to benzyl bromide, for example, using microwaves (650 W) in only 9 min on a doped Montmorillonite K-10 clay.[458] This is a growing and very useful technique.

The rate of many reactions can be increased by application of high pressure.[459] In solution, the rate of a reaction can be expressed in terms of the activation volume, $\Delta V^{\ddagger}$.[460]

$$\frac{\delta \ln k}{\delta p} \sim \frac{\Delta V^{\ddagger}}{RT}$$

The value of $\Delta V^{\ddagger}$ is the difference in partial molal volume between the transition state and the initial state, but it can be approximated by the molar volume.[460] Increasing pressure decreases the value of $\Delta V^{\ddagger}$ and if $\Delta V^{\ddagger}$ is negative the reaction rate is accelerated. This equation is not strictly obeyed above 10 kbar. If the transition state of a reaction involves bond formation, concentration of charge, or ionization, a negative volume of activation often results. Cleavage of a bond, dispersal of charge, neutralization of the transition state and diffusion control lead to a positive volume of activation. Reactions for which rate enhancement is expected at high pressure include:[460]

1. Reactions in which the number of molecules decreases when starting materials are converted to products: cycloadditions such as the Diels–Alder **(15-58),** condensations such as the Knoevenagel condensation **(16-41).**
2. Reactions that proceed via cyclic transition states: Claisen **(18-33)** and Cope **(18-32)** rearrangements.

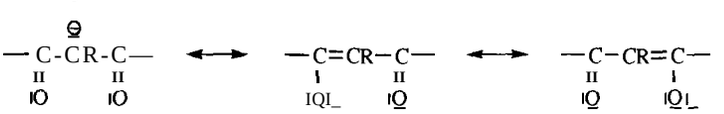
3. Reactions that take place through dipolar transition states: Menschutkin reaction (10-44), electrophilic aromatic substitution.
4. Reactions with steric hindrance.

Many high-pressure reactions are done neat, but if a solvent is used, the influence of pressure on that solvent is important. The melting point generally increases at elevated pressures, which influences the viscosity of the medium (viscosity of liquids increases approximately two times per kilobar increase in pressure). Controlling the rate of diffusion of reactants in the medium is also important.[461] In most reactions, pressure is applied (5–20 kbar) at room temperature, and then the temperature is increased until reaction takes place.

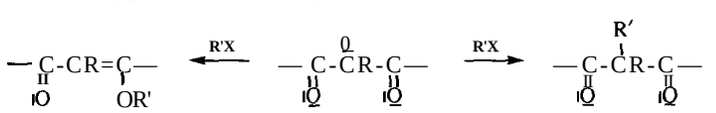
Ambident Nucleophiles: Regioselectivity

Some nucleophiles have a pair of electrons on each of two or more atoms, or canonical forms can be drawn in which two or more atoms bear an unshared pair. In these cases, the nucleophile may attack in two or more different ways to give different products. Such reagents are called *ambident nucleophiles.*[462] In most cases, a nucleophile with two potentially attacking atoms can attack with either of them, depending on conditions, and mixtures are often obtained, though this is not always the case. For example, the nucleophile NCO^- usually gives only isocyanates (RNCO) and not the isomeric cyanates (ROCN).[463] When a reaction can potentially give rise to two or more structural isomers (e.g., ROCN or RNCO) but actually produces only one, the reaction is said to be *regioselective* (cf. the definitions of stereoselective, p. 166 and enantioselective, p. 150).[464] Some important ambident nucleophiles are

1. *Ions of the Type.* $-CO-CR-CO-$. These ions, which are derived by removal of a proton from malonic esters, P-keto esters, p-diketones, and so on, are resonance hybrids:



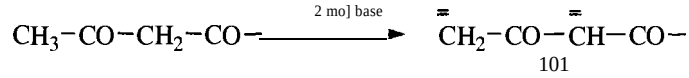
They can thus attack a saturated carbon with their carbon atoms (C-alkylation) or with their oxygen atoms (O-alkylation):



With unsymmetrical ions, three products are possible, since either oxygen can attack. With a carbonyl substrate the ion can analogously undergo C- or O-acylation.

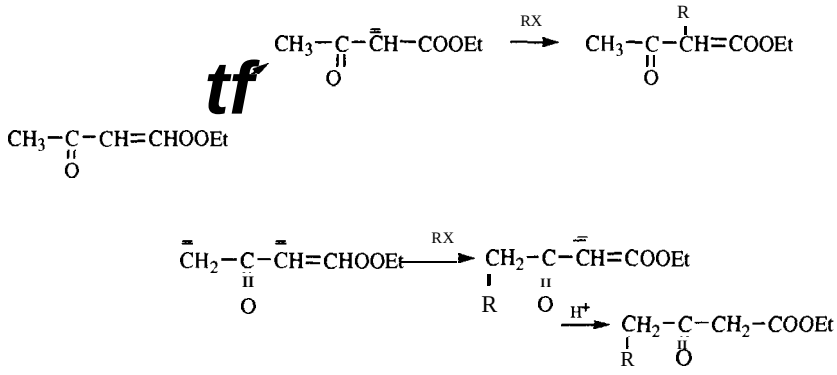
2. *Compounds of the type* CH_3CO-CH_2-CO-. These compounds can give up two protons, if treated with 2 mol of a strong enough base, to give

dicarbanions:

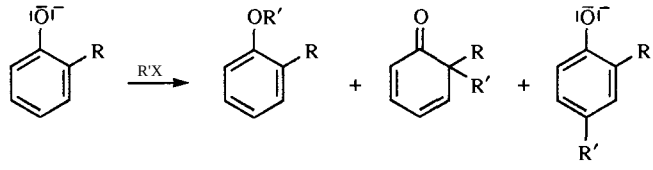


101

Such ions are *ambident* nucleophiles, since they have two possible attacking carbon atoms, aside from the possibility of attack by oxygen. In such cases, the attack is virtually always by the more basic carbon.[465] Since the hydrogen of a carbon bonded to two carbonyl groups is more acidic than that of a carbon bonded to just one (see Chapter 8), the CH group of 101 is less basic than the CH_2 group, so the latter attacks the substrate. This gives rise to a useful general principle: Whenever we desire to remove a proton at a given position for use as a nucleophile but there is a stronger acidic group in the molecule, it may be possible to take off both protons; if it is, then attack is always by the desired position since it is the ion of the weaker acid. On the other hand, if it is desired to attack with the more acidic position, all that is necessary is to remove just one proton.[466] For example, ethyl acetoacetate can be alkylated at either the methyl or the methylene group (10-104):

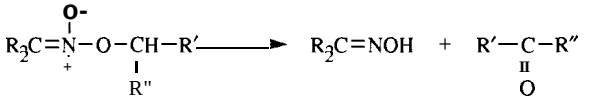


3. *The CN~ Ion.* This nucleophile can give nitriles (RCN) (10-111) or isocyanides ($RN{\equiv}C$).
4. *The Nitrite Ion.* This ion can give nitrite esters ($R{-}O{-}N{=}O$) (10-33) or nitro compounds (RNO_2) (10-64), which are not esters.
5. *Phenoxide Ions.* These ions, which are analogous to enolate ions, can undergo C- or O-alkylation:



6. Nitro Anions Removal of a proton from an aliphatic nitro compound gives a carbanion ($R_2\bar{C}\text{-}NO_2$) that can be alkylated at oxygen or carbon.[467]

O-Alkylation gives nitronic esters, which are generally unstable to heat but break down to give an oxime and an aldehyde or ketone.



There are many other ambident nucleophiles.

It would be useful to have general rules as to which atom of an ambident nucleophile will attack a given substrate under a given set of conditions.[468] Unfortunately, the situation is complicated by the large number of variables. It might be expected that the more electronegative atom would always attack, but this is often not the case. Where the products are determined by thermodynamic control (p. 284), the principal product is usually the one in which the atom of higher basicity has attacked (i.e., $C > N > O > S$).[469] However, in most reactions, the products are kinetically controlled and matters are much less simple. Nevertheless, the following generalizations can be made, while recognizing that there are many exceptions and unexplained results. As in the discussion of nucleophilicity in general (p. 439), there are two major factors: the polarizability (hard-soft character) of the nucleophile and solvation effects.

1. The principle of hard and soft acids and bases states that hard acids prefer hard bases and soft acids prefer soft bases (p. 341). In an S_N1 mechanism the nucleophile attacks a carbocation, which is a hard acid. In an S_N2 mechanism the nucleophile attacks the carbon atom of a molecule, which is a softer acid. The more electronegative atom of an ambident nucleophile is a harder base than the less electronegative atom. We may thus make the statement: As the character of a given reaction changes from S_N1-like to S_N2 like, an ambident nucleophile becomes more likely to attack with its less electronegative atom.[470] Therefore, changing from S_N1 to S_N2 conditions should favor C attack by CN~, N attack by NO_2^-, C attack by enolate or phenoxide ions, and so on. As an example, primary alkyl halides are attacked (in protic solvents) by the carbon atom of the anion of CH_3COCH_2COOEt, while α-chloro ethers, which react by the S_N1 mechanism, are attacked by the oxygen atom. However, this does not mean that attack is by the less electronegative atom in all S_N2 reactions and by the more electronegative atom in all S_N1 reactions. The position of attack also depends on the nature of the nucleophile, the solvent, the leaving group, and other conditions. The rule merely states that increasing the S_N2 character of the transition state makes attack by the less electronegative atom more likely.
2. All negatively charged nucleophiles must of course have a positive counterion. If this ion is Ag^+ (or some other ion that specifically helps in removing the leaving group, p. 451), rather than the more usual Na^+ or K^+, then the transition state is more S_N1 like. Therefore the use of Ag^+ promotes attack at the more electronegative atom. For example, alkyl halides treated with NaCN

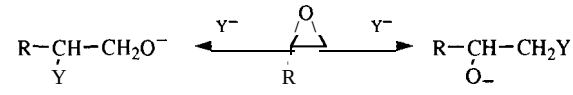
generally give mostly RCN, but the use of AgCN increases the yield of isocyanides (RNC).[471]

3. In many cases, the solvent influences the position of attack. The freer the nucleophile, the more likely it is to attack with its more electronegative atom, but the more this atom is encumbered by either solvent molecules or positive counterions, the more likely is attack by the less electronegative atom. In protic solvents, the more electronegative atom is better solvated by hydrogen bonds than the less electronegative atom. In polar aprotic solvents, neither atom of the nucleophile is greatly solvated, but these solvents are very effective in solvating cations. Thus in a polar aprotic solvent the more electronegative end of the nucleophile is freer from entanglement by both the solvent and the cation, so that a change from a protic to a polar aprotic solvent often increases the extent of attack by the more electronegative atom. An example is attack by sodium p-naphthoxide on benzyl bromide, which resulted in 95% O-alkylation in DMSO and 85% C-alkylation in 2,2,2-trifluoroethanol.[472] Changing the cation from Li^+ to Na^+ to K^+ (in nonpolar solvents) also favors O- over C-alkylation[473] for similar reasons (K^+ leaves the nucleophile much freer than Li^+), as does the use of crown ethers, which are good at solvating cations (p. 105).[474] Alkylation of the enolate ion of cyclohexanone in the gas phase, where the nucleophile is completely free, showed only O- and no C-alkylation.[475]

4. In extreme cases, steric effects can govern the regioselectivity.[476]

Ambident Substrates

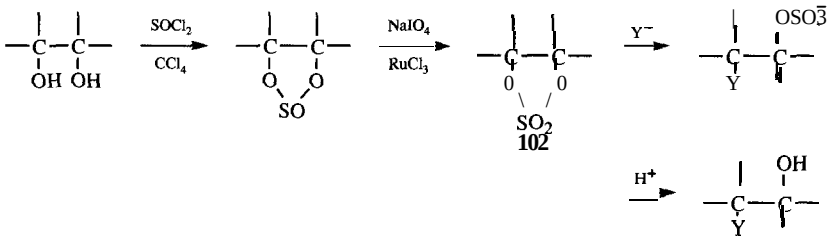
Some substrates (e.g., 1,3-dichlorobutane) can be attacked at two or more positions. We may call these *ambident substrates.* In the example given, there happen to be two leaving groups in the molecule, but there are two kinds of substrates that are inherently ambident (unless symmetrical). One of these, the allylic type, has already been discussed (p. 421). The other is the epoxy (or the similar aziridine[477] or episulfide) substrate.[478]



Substitution of the free epoxide, which generally occurs under basic or neutral conditions, usually involves an S_N2 mechanism. Since primary substrates undergo S_N2 attack more readily than secondary, unsymmetrical epoxides are attacked in neutral or basic solution at the less highly substituted carbon, and stereospecifically, with inversion at that carbon. Under acidic conditions, it is the protonated epoxide that undergoes the reaction. Under these conditions the mechanism can be either S_N1 or S_N2. In S_N1 mechanisms, which favor tertiary carbons, we might expect that attack would be at the more highly substituted carbon, and this is indeed the case. However, even when protonated epoxides react by the S_N2 mechanism, attack is

usually at the more highly substituted position.[479] Thus, it is often possible to change the direction of ring opening by changing the conditions from basic to acidic or vice versa. In the ring opening of 2,3-epoxy alcohols, the presence of $Ti(O\text{—}i\text{-}Pr)_4$ increases both the rate and the regioselectivity, favoring attack at C-3 rather than C-2.[480] When an epoxide ring is fused to a cyclohexane ring, S_N2 ring opening invariably gives diaxial rather than diequatorial ring opening.[481]

Cyclic sulfates **(102),** prepared from 1,2-diols, react in the same manner as epoxides, but usually more rapidly:[482]



REACTIONS

The reactions in this chapter are classified according to the attacking atom of the nucleophile in the order O, S, N, halogen, H, C. For a given nucleophile, reactions are classified by the substrate and leaving group, with alkyl substrates usually considered before acyl ones. Nucleophilic substitutions at a sulfur atom are treated at the end.

Not all the reactions in this chapter are actually nucleophilic substitutions. In some cases the mechanisms are not known with enough certainty even to decide whether a nucleophile, an electrophile, or a free radical is attacking. In other cases (such as **10-79),** conversion of one compound to another can occur by two or even all three of these possibilities, depending on the reagent and the reaction conditions. However, one or more of the nucleophilic mechanisms previously discussed do hold for the overwhelming majority of the reactions in this chapter. For the alkylations, the S_N2 is by far the most common mechanism, as long as R is primary or secondary alkyl. For the acylations, the tetrahedral mechanism is the most common.

Oxygen Nucleophiles

A. *Attack by OH at an Alkyl Carbon*

10-1 *Hydrolysis of Alkyl Halides*

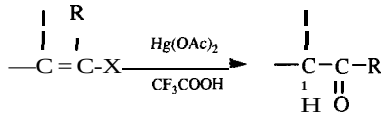
HYDROXY-DE-HALOGENATION

$$RX + H_2O \longrightarrow ROH_2^+ \xrightarrow{-H^+} ROH + H^+$$

$$RX + OH^- \longrightarrow ROH$$

Alkyl halides can be hydrolyzed to alcohols. Hydroxide ion is usually required, except that especially active substrates such as allylic or benzylic types can be hydrolyzed by water. Ordinary halides can also be hydrolyzed by water,[483] if the solvent is HMPA or *N*-methyl-2-pyrrolidinone.[484] In contrast to most nucleophilic substitutions at saturated carbons, this reaction can be performed on tertiary substrates without significant interference from elimination side reactions. Tertiary alkyl α-halocarbonyl compounds can be converted to the corresponding alcohol with silver oxide in aqueous acetonitrile.[485] The reaction is not frequently used for synthetic purposes, because alkyl halides are usually obtained from alcohols.

Vinylic halides are unreactive (pp. 428, 433), but they can be hydrolyzed to ketones at room temperature with mercuric trifluoroacetate, or with mercuric acetate

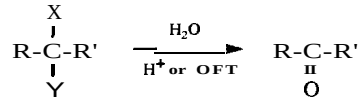


in either trifluoroacetic acid or acetic acid containing BF_3 etherate.[486] Primary bromides and iodides give alcohols when treated with bis(tributyltin)oxide $Bu_3Sn{-}O{-}SnBu_3$ in the presence of silver salts.[487]

OS **II,** 408; **III,** 434; IV, 128; VI, 142, 1037.

10-2 *Hydrolysis of gem-Dihalides*

OXO-DE-DIHALO-BISUBSTITUTION



gem-Dihalides can be hydrolyzed with either acid or basic catalysis to give aldehydes or ketones.[488] Formally, the reaction may be regarded as giving R—C(OH)XR′, which is unstable and loses HX to give the carbonyl compound. For aldehydes, strong bases cannot be used, because the product undergoes the aldol reaction **(16-38)** or the Cannizzaro reaction **(19-60)** but a mixture of calcium carbonate and sodium acetate is effective.[489]

OS I, 95; II, 89, 133, 244, 549; **III,** 538, 788; IV, 110, 423, 807. Also see OS **III,** 737.

10-3 *Hydrolysis of 1,1,1-Trihalides*

HYDROXY, OXO-DE-TRIHALO-TERSUBSTITUTION

$$RCX_3 + H_2O \longrightarrow RCOOH$$

This reaction is similar to the previous one. The utility of the method is limited by the lack of availability of trihalides, though these compounds can be prepared by addition of CCl_4 and similar compounds to double bonds **(15-44)** and by the free

radical halogenation of methyl groups on aromatic rings (14-1). When the hydrolysis is carried out in the presence of an alcohol, a carboxylic ester can be obtained directly.[490] 1,1-Dichloroalkenes can also be hydrolyzed to carboxylic acids, by treatment with H_2SO_4. In general, 1,1,1-trifluorides do not undergo this reaction,[491] though exceptions are known.[492]

Aryl 1,1,1-trihalomethanes can be converted to acyl halides by treatment with sulfur trioxide.[493]

$$ArCCl_3 + SO_3 \longrightarrow Ar-\underset{\underset{O}{\|}}{C}-Cl + (ClSO_2)_2O$$

Chloroform is more rapidly hydrolyzed with base than dichloromethane or carbon tetrachloride and gives not only formic acid but also carbon monoxide.[494] Hine[495] has shown that the mechanism of chloroform hydrolysis is quite different from that of dichloromethane or carbon tetrachloride, though superficially the three reactions appear similar. The first step is the loss of a proton to give CCl_3^-, which then loses Cl^- to give dichlorocarbene CCl_2, which is hydrolyzed to formic acid or carbon monoxide.

$$HCCl_3 \xrightleftharpoons{OH^-} CCl_3 \xrightarrow{-Cl^-} \bar{C}Cl_2 \xrightarrow{H_2O} HCOOH \text{ or } CO$$

This is an example of an S_N1cB mechanism (p. 448). The other two compounds react by the normal mechanisms. Carbon tetrachloride cannot give up a proton and dichloromethane is not acidic enough.

OS **III,** 270; V, 93. Also see OS I, 327.

10-4 *Hydrolysis of Alkyl Esters of Inorganic Acids*

HYDROXY-DE-SULFONYLOXY-SUBSTITUTION, AND SO ON

$$R\text{-}X \longrightarrow \mathbf{R\text{-}OH}$$

X = OSO_2R', OSO_2OH, OSO_2OR, OSO_2R', OSOR'
= ONO_2, ONO, $OPO(OH)_2$, $OPO(OR')_2$, OB $(OH)_2$, and others

Esters of inorganic acids, including those given above and others, can be hydrolyzed to alcohols. The reactions are most successful when the ester is that of a strong acid, but it can be done for esters of weaker acids by the use of hydroxide ion (a more powerful nucleophile) or acidic conditions (which make the leaving group come off more easily). When vinylic substrates are hydrolyzed, the products are aldehydes or ketones.

$$R_2C{=}CH\text{-}X \xrightarrow{H_2O} R_2C{=}CH\text{-}OH \rightleftharpoons R_2CH{-}CHO$$

These reactions are all considered at one place because they are formally similar, but though some of them involve R–O cleavage and are thus nucleophilic substitutions

at a saturated carbon, others involve cleavage of the bond between the inorganic atom and oxygen and are thus nucleophilic substitutions at a sulfur, nitrogen, and so on. It is even possible for the same ester to be cleaved at either position, depending on the conditions. Thus benzhydryl *p*-toluenesulfinate ($Ph_2CHOSOC_6H_4CH_3$) was found to undergo C—O cleavage in $HClO_4$ solutions and S—O cleavage in alkaline media.[496] In general, the weaker the corresponding acid, the less likely is C—O cleavage. Thus, sulfonic acid esters ($ROSO_2R'$) generally give C—O cleavage,[497] while nitrous acid esters (RONO) usually give N—O cleavage.[498] Esters of sulfonic acids that are frequently hydrolyzed are mentioned on page 446. For hydrolysis of sulfonic acid esters, see also **10-124.**

OS **VI,** 852. See also **VIII, 50.**

10-5 *Hydrolysis of Diazo Ketones*

HYDRO, HYDROXY-DE-DIAZO-BISUBSTITUTION

$$R-\underset{\underset{O}{\|}}{C}-CHN_2 + H_2O \xrightarrow{H^+} R-\underset{\underset{O}{\|}}{C}-CH_2OH$$

Diazo ketones are relatively easy to prepare (see **10-122).** When treated with acid, they add a proton to give α-keto diazonium salts, which are hydrolyzed to the alcohols by the S_N1 or S_N2 mechanism.[499] Relatively good yields of α-hydroxy ketones can be prepared in this way, since the diazonium ion is somewhat stabilized by the presence of the carbonyl group, which discourages N_2 from leaving because that would result in an unstable α-carbonyl carbocation.

10-6 *Hydrolysis of Acetals, Enol Ethers, and Similar Compounds*[500]

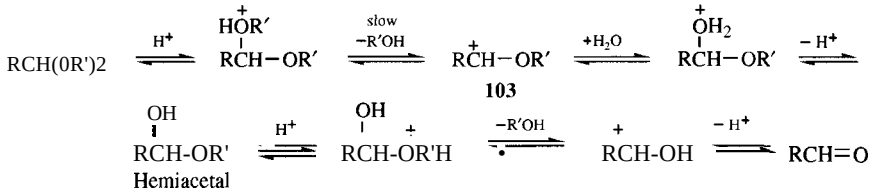
$$\text{—}\overset{|}{C}=\overset{|}{C}-OR \xrightarrow[H_2O]{} \text{—}\overset{|}{C}H-\overset{|}{C}{=}O + ROH \quad \text{3/Hydro-de-}O\text{-alkylation}$$

$$R-\overset{R}{\underset{OR'}{C}}-OR' \xrightarrow{H^+} R-\overset{R}{C}{=}O + 2\ R'OH \quad O\text{-Alkyl-}C\text{-alkoxy-elimination}$$

$$R-\overset{OR'}{\underset{OR'}{C}}-OR' \xrightarrow[H_2O]{H^+} R-\underset{\underset{O}{\|}}{C}-OR' \text{ or } R-\underset{\underset{O}{\|}}{C}-OH + 2 \text{ or } 3\ R'OH$$

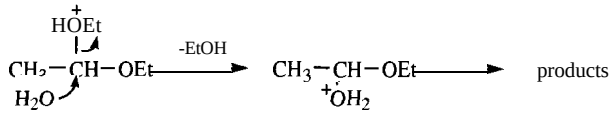
The alkoxyl group OR is not a leaving group, so these compounds must be converted to the conjugate acids before they can be hydrolyzed. Although 100% sulfuric acid and other concentrated strong acids readily cleave simple ethers,[501] the only acids used preparatively for this purpose are HBr and **HI (10-71).** However, acetals, ketals, and ortho esters[502] are easily cleaved by dilute acids. These compounds are hydrolyzed with greater facility because carbocations of the type $RO-\overset{|}{C}^+-$ are greatly stabilized by resonance (p. 223). The reactions therefore proceed by the S_N1

mechanism,[503] as shown for acetals:[504]



This mechanism (which is an S_N1cA or A1 mechanism) is the reverse of that for acetal formation by reaction of an aldehyde and an alcohol (16-5). Among the facts supporting the mechanism are:[505] (1) The reaction proceeds with *specific* H_3O^+ catalysis (see p. 337). (2) It is faster in D_2O. (3) Optically active ROH are not racemized. (4) Even with *tert*-butyl alcohol the R—O bond does not cleave, as shown by ^{18}O labeling.[506] (5) In the case of acetophenone ketals, the intermediate corresponding to **103,** $ArCMe(OR)_2$, could be trapped with sulfite ions (SO_3^{2-}).[507] (6) Trapping of this ion did not affect the hydrolysis rate,[507] so the rate-determining step must come earlier. (7) In the case of 1,1-dialkoxyalkanes, intermediates corresponding to **103** were isolated as stable ions in superacid solution at —75°C, where their spectra could be studied.[508] (8) Hydrolysis rates greatly increase in the order $CH_2(OR')_2 < RCH(OR')_2 < R_2C(OR')_2 < RC(OR')_3$, as would be expected for a carbocation intermediate. Formation of **103** is usually the rate-determining step (as marked above), but there is evidence that at least in some cases this step is fast, and the rate-determining step is loss of R'OH from the protonated hemiacetal.[509] Rate-determining addition of water to **103** has also been reported.[510]

While the A1 mechanism shown above operates in most acetal hydrolyses, it has been shown that at least two other mechanisms can take place with suitable substrates.[511] In one of these mechanisms the second and third of the above steps are concerted, so that the mechanism is S_N2cA (or A2). This has been shown, for example, in the hydrolysis of 1,1-diethoxyethane, by isotope effect studies:[512]



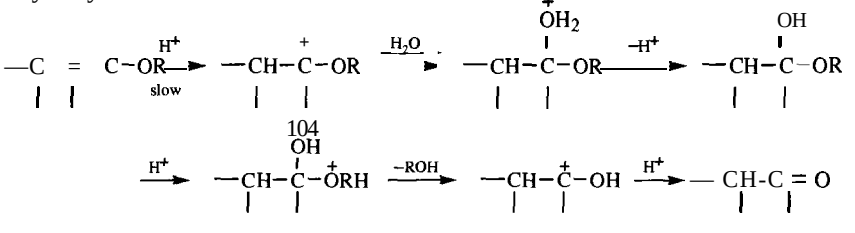
In the second mechanism, the first and second steps are concerted. In the case of hydrolysis of 2-(*p*-nitrophenoxy)tetrahydropyran, *general* acid catalysis was shown[513] demonstrating that the substrate is protonated in the rate-determining step (p. 337). Reactions in which a substrate is protonated in the rate-determining step are called $A\text{-}S_E2$ reactions.[514] However, if protonation of the substrate were all that happens in the slow step, then the proton in the transition state would be expected to lie closer to the weaker base (p. 337). Because the substrate is a much weaker base than water, the proton should be largely transferred. Since the Br0nsted coefficient was found to be 0.5, the proton was actually transferred only about halfway. This can be explained if the basicity of the substrate is increased by partial breaking of the C—O bond. The conclusion is thus drawn that steps 1 and 2 are concerted. The hydrolysis of ortho esters in most cases is also subject to general acid catalysis.[515]

The hydrolysis of acetals and ortho esters is governed by the stereoelectronic control factor previously discussed (see A and B on p. 427)[516] though the effect can generally be seen only in systems where conformational mobility is limited, especially in cyclic systems. There is evidence for synplanar stereoselection in the acid hydrolysis of acetals.[517] The mechanism of Lewis acid mediated cleavage of chiral acetals is also known.[518]

Particularly convenient reagents for acetals are wet silica gel[519] and Amberlyst-15 (a sulfonic acid based polystyrene cation exchange resin).[520] Both cyclic and acyclic acetals and ketals can be converted to aldehydes or ketones under nonaqueous conditions by treatment with Montmorillonite K10 clay in various solvents,[521] with Lewis acids such as $FeCl_3 \cdot 6\ H_2O$ in chloroform,[522] $SnCl_2 \cdot 2\ H_2O$ in dichloromethane,[523] or $CeCl_3 \cdot 7\ H_2O$ in acetonitrile,[524] or Me_3SiI in CH_2Cl_2 or $CHCl_3$.[525] They can also be hydrolyzed with $LiBF_4$,[526] CBr_4,[527] or DDQ[528] in wet MeCN.

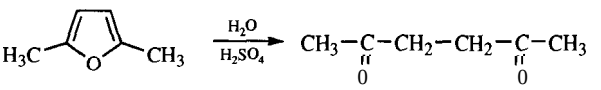
Although acetals, ketals, and ortho esters are easily hydrolyzed by acids, they are extremely resistant to hydrolysis by bases. An aldehyde or ketone can therefore be protected from attack by a base by conversion to the acetal or ketal (16-5), and then can be cleaved with acid. Thioacetals, thioketals, *gem*-diamines, and other compounds that contain any two of the groups OR, OCOR, NR_2, NHCOR, SR, and halogen on the same carbon can also be hydrolyzed to aldehydes or ketones, in most cases, by acid treatment. Several $ArCH(OAc)_2$ derivatives were hydrolyzed to the aldehyde using Montmorillonite K10 clay,[529] alumina with microwaves,[530] ceric ammonium nitrate on silica gel,[531] or by heating with $FeSO_4$.[532] Thioacetals $RCH(SR')_2$ and thioketals $R_2C(SR')_2$ are among those compounds generally resistant to acid hydrolysis.[533] Because conversion to these compounds **(16-10)** serves as an important method for protection of aldehydes and ketones, many methods have been devised to cleave them to the parent carbonyl compounds. Among reagents[534] used for this purpose are $HgCl_2$,[535] ferric nitrate on silica gel,[536] *t*-BuBr–Me_2SO,[537] Me_2SO–HCl–dioxane,[538] *m*-chloroperoxybenzoic acid and CF_3COOH in CH_2Cl_2,[539] ammonium nitrate on Clayfen,[540] Oxone® on wet alumina,[541] silver nitrate and iodine,[542] 2,3-dichloro-5,6-dicyano-1,4-benzoquinone (DDQ) in acetonitrile under photolysis conditions,[543] and bis(trifluoroacetoxy)iodobenzene, $(CF_3CO_2)_2IPh$.[544] Electrochemical methods have also been used.[545]

Enol ethers are readily hydrolyzed by acids; the rate-determining step is protonation of the substrate.[546] However, protonation does not take place at the oxygen but at the β carbon,[547] because that gives rise to the stable carbocation 104.[548] After that, the mechanism is similar to the A1 mechanism given above for the hydrolysis of acetals.



Among the facts supporting this mechanism (which is an $A\text{-}S_E2$ mechanism because the substrate is protonated in the rate-determining step) are (1) ^{18}O labeling shows

that in $ROCH{=}CH_2$ it is the vinyl-oxygen bond and not the RO bond that cleaves;[549] (2) the reaction is subject to general acid catalysis;[550] (3) there is a solvent isotope effect when D_2O is used.[550] Enamines are also hydrolyzed by acids (see 6-2); the mechanism is similar. Ketene dithioacetals $R_2C{=}C(SR')_2$ also hydrolyze by a similar mechanism, except that the initial protonation step is partially reversible.[551] Furans represent a special case of enol ethers that are cleaved by acid to give 1,4 diones.[552] Thus

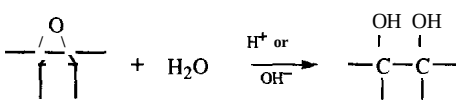


Oxonium ions are cleaved by water to give an alcohol and an ether:

OS I, 67, 205; II, 302, 305, 323; III, 37, 127, 465, 470, 536, 541, 641, 701, 731, 800; IV, 302, 499, 660, 816, 903; V, 91, 292, 294, 703, 716, 937, 967, 1088; VI, 64, 109, 312, 316, 361, 448, 496, 683, 869, 893, 905, 996; VII, 12, 162, 241, 249, 251, 263, 271, 287, 381, 495; VIII, 19, 155, 241, 353, 373.

10-7 *Hydrolysis of Epoxides*

(3)*OC-SECO*-HYDROXY-DE-ALKOXY-SUBSTITUTION



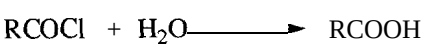
The hydrolysis of epoxides is a convenient method for the preparation of *vic*-diols. The reaction is catalyzed by acids or bases (see discussion of the mechanism on p. 462). Among acid catalysts the reagent of choice is perchloric acid, since side reactions are minimized with this reagent.[553] Dimethyl sulfoxide is a superior solvent for the alkaline hydrolysis of epoxides.[554] Water at 10 kbar and 60°C opens epoxides with high stereoselectivity,[555] and enzymes in *Beauveria sulfurescens* kinetically resolves racemic epoxides to give enantio-enriched diols.[556] Cobalt salen catalysts, in the presence of water, open epoxides with high stereoselectivity.[557]

OS V, 414.

B. *Attack by OH at an Acyl Carbon*

10-8 *Hydrolysis of Acyl Halides*

HYDROXY-DE-HALOGENATION



Acyl halides are so reactive that hydrolysis is easily carried out.[558] In fact, most simple acyl halides must be stored under anhydrous conditions lest they react with water in the air. Consequently, water is usually a strong enough nucleophile for the reaction, though in difficult cases hydroxide ion may be required. The reaction is

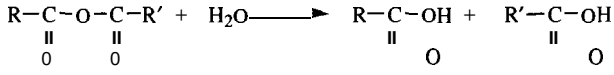
seldom synthetically useful, because acyl halides are normally prepared from acids. The reactivity order is F < Cl < Br < I.[559] If a carboxylic acid is used as the nucleophile, an exchange may take place (see **10-77).** The mechanism[559] of hydrolysis can be either S_N1 or tetrahedral, the former occurring in highly polar solvents and in the absence of strong nucleophiles.[560] There is also evidence for the S_N2 mechanism in some cases.[561]

Hydrolysis of acyl halides is not usually catalyzed by acids, except for acyl fluorides, where hydrogen bonding can assist in the removal of F.[562] There are several methods available for the hydrolysis of acyl fluorides.[563]

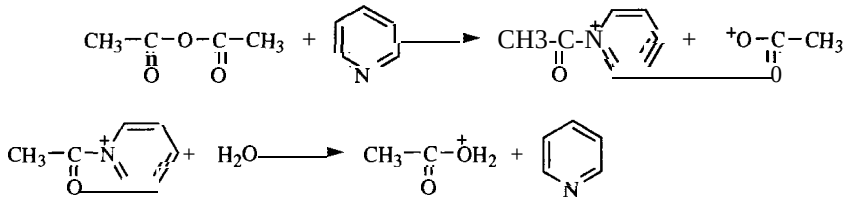
OS II, 74.

10-9 *Hydrolysis of Anhydrides*

HYDROXY-DE-ACYLOXY SUBSTITUTION



Anhydrides are somewhat more difficult to hydrolyze than acyl halides, but here too water is usually a strong enough nucleophile. The mechanism is usually tetrahedral.[564] Only under acid catalysis does the S_N1 mechanism occur and seldom even then.[565] Anhydride hydrolysis can also be catalyzed by bases. Of course, OH^- attacks more readily than water, but other bases can also catalyze the reaction. This phenomenon, called *nucleophilic catalysis* (p. 427), is actually the result of two successive tetrahedral mechanisms. For example, pyridine catalyzes the hydrolysis of acetic anhydride in this manner.[566]

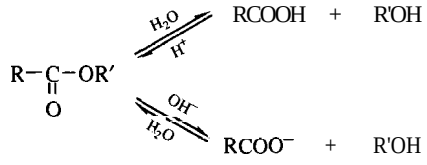


Many other nucleophiles similarly catalyze the reaction.

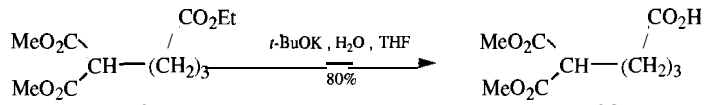
OS I, 408; II, 140, 368, 382; IV, 766; V, 8, 813.

10-10 *Hydrolysis of Carboxylic Esters*

HYDROXY-DE-ALKOXYLATION



Ester hydrolysis is usually catalyzed by acids or bases. Since OR is a much poorer leaving group than halide or OCOR, water alone does not hydrolyze most esters. When bases catalyze the reaction, the attacking species is the more powerful nucleophile OH^-. This reaction is called *saponification* and gives the salt of the acid. Acids catalyze the reaction by making the carbonyl carbon more positive, and therefore more susceptible to attack by the nucleophile. Both reactions are equilibrium reactions, so they are practicable only when there is a way of shifting the equilibrium to the right. Since formation of the salt does just this, ester hydrolysis is almost always done for preparative purposes in basic solution, unless the compound is base sensitive. Even in the case of 105, however, selective base hydrolysis of the ethyl ester gave an 80%

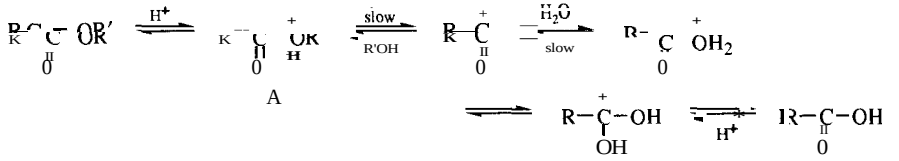
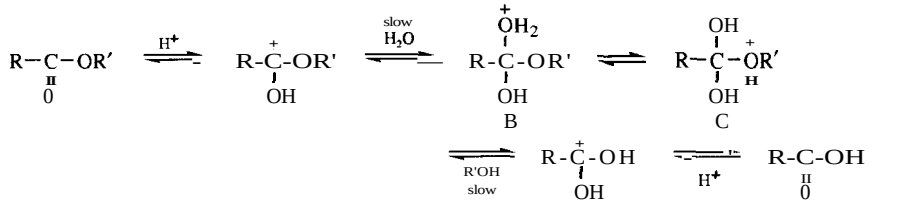
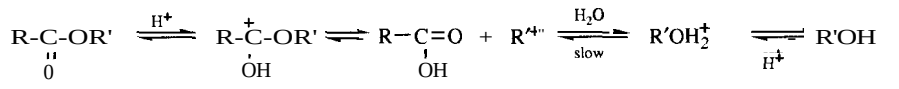
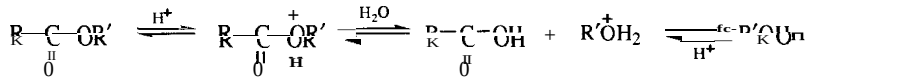
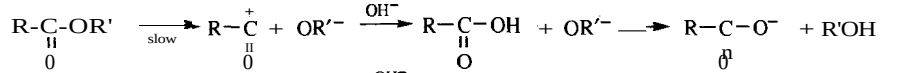
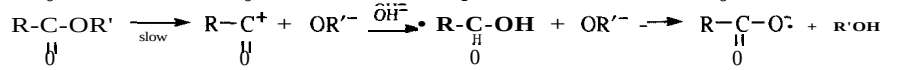
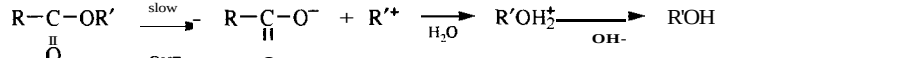
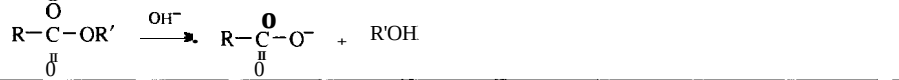


105 106

yield on the acid-dimethyl ester (106).[567] Ester hydrolysis can also be catalyzed[568] by metal ions, by cyclodextrins,[569] by enzymes,[570] and by nucleophiles (see 10-9).[216] Among other compounds used to cleave carboxylic esters have been Dowex-50,[571] Me_3SiI,[572] and $KOSiMe_3$.[573] Phenolic esters can be similarly cleaved; in fact the reaction is usually faster for these compounds.[574] Phenolic esters have been selectively hydrolyzed in the presence of alkyl esters on alumina, using irradiation with microwaves,[575] and also with Sm/I_2 at -78°C.[576] Lactones also undergo the reaction[577] (though if the lactone is five- or six-membered, the hydroxy acid often spontaneously reforms the lactone) and thiol esters ($RCOSR'$) give thiols R'SH.[578] Sterically hindered esters are hydrolyzed with difficulty (p. 433), though this can be accomplished at room temperature with "anhydrous hydroxide", generated via the reaction of 2 mol of *t*-BuOK with 1 mol of H_2O.[579] Hindered esters can also be cleaved with *n*-propyllithium,[580] and on alumina when irradiated with microwaves.[581] For esters insoluble in water the rate of two-phase ester saponification can be greatly increased by the application of ultrasound.[582] Phase-transfer techniques have also been applied.[583] Enzymatic hydrolysis of diesters, with pig liver esterase, has been shown to give the hydroxy-ester.[584]

Ingold[585] has classified the acid- and base-catalyzed hydrolyses of esters (and the formation of esters, since these are reversible reactions and thus have the same mechanisms) into eight possible mechanisms (Table 10.14[585]), depending on the following criteria: (1) acid or base catalyzed, (2) unimolecular or bimolecular, and (3) acyl cleavage or alkyl cleavage.[587] All eight of these are S_N1, S_N2, or tetrahedral mechanisms. The acid-catalyzed mechanisms are shown with reversible arrows. They are not only reversible but symmetrical; that is, the mechanisms for ester formation are exactly the same as for hydrolysis, except that H replaces R. Internal proton transfers, such as shown for B and C, may not actually be direct but may take place through the solvent. There is much physical evidence to show that esters are initially protonated on the carbonyl and not on the alkyl oxygen (Chapter 8, Ref. 17). We have nevertheless shown the $A_{AC}1$ mechanism as proceeding through the ether-

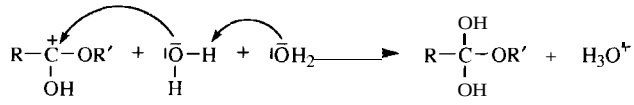
TABLE 10.14 Classification of the Eight Mechanisms for Ester Hydrolysis and Formation

Name			
Ingold	IUPAC[a]	Type	
$A_{AC}1$	$A_h + D_N + A_N + D_h$	S_N1	
$A_{AC}2$	$A_h + A_N + A_hD_h + D_h$	Tetrahedral	
$A_{AL}1$	$A_h + D_N + A_N + D_h$	S_N1	
$A_{AL}2$	$A_h + A_ND_N + D_h$	S_N2	
$B_{AC}1$	$D_N + A_N + A_{xh}D_h$	S_N1	
$B_{AC}2$	$A_N + D_N + A_{xh}D_h$	Tetrahedral	
$B_{AL}1$	$D_N + A_N + A_{xh}D_h$	S_N1	
$B_{AL}2$	A_ND_N	S_N2	

[a] See Ref. 586.

protonated intermediate A, since it is difficult to envision OR' as a leaving group here. It is of course possible for a reaction to proceed through an intermediate even if only a tiny concentration is present. The designations $A_{AC}1$, and so on, are those of Ingold. The $A_{AC}2$ and $A_{AC}1$ mechanisms are also called A2 and A1, respectively. It may be noted that the $A_{AC}1$ mechanism is actually the same as the S_N1cA mechanism for this type of substrate and that $A_{AL}2$ is analogous to SN2CA. Some authors use A1 and A2 to refer to all types of nucleophilic substitution in which the leaving group first acquires a proton. The base-catalyzed reactions are not shown with reversible arrows, since they are reversible only in theory and not in practice. Hydrolyses taking place under neutral conditions are classified as B mechanisms.

Of the eight mechanisms, seven have actually been observed in hydrolysis of carboxylic esters. The one that has not been observed is the $B_{AC}1$ mechanism.[588] The most common mechanisms are the $B_{AC}2$ for basic catalysis and the $A_{AC}2$[589] for acid catalysis, that is, the two tetrahedral mechanisms. Both involve acyl-oxygen cleavage. The evidence is (1) hydrolysis with $H_2{}^{18}O$ results in the ^{18}O appearing in the acid and not in the alcohol;[590] (2) esters with chiral R' groups give alcohols with *retention* of configuration;[591] (3) allylic R' gives no allylic rearrangement;[592] (4) neopentyl R' gives no rearrangement;[593] all these facts indicate that the O—R′ bond is not broken. It has been concluded that two molecules of water are required in the $A_{AC}2$ mechanism.



If this is so, the protonated derivatives B and C would not appear at all. This conclusion stems from a value of *w* (see p. 335) of ~5, indicating that water acts as a proton donor here as well as a nucleophile.[594] Termolecular processes are rare, but in this case the two water molecules are already connected by a hydrogen bond. (A similar mechanism, called $B_{AC}3$, also involving two molecules of water, has been found for esters that hydrolyze without a catalyst.[595] Such esters are mostly those containing halogen atoms in the R group.)

The other mechanism involving acyl cleavage is the $A_{AC}1$ mechanism. This is rare, being found only where R is very bulky, so that bimolecular attack is sterically hindered, and only in ionizing solvents. The mechanism has been demonstrated for esters of 2,4,6-trimethylbenzoic acid (mesitoic acid). This acid depresses the freezing point of sulfuric acid four times as much as would be predicted from its molecular weight, which is evidence for the equilibrium

$$ArCOOH + 2\ H_2SO_4 \rightleftharpoons ArCO^+ + H_3O^+ + 2\ HSO_4^-$$

In a comparable solution of benzoic acid the freezing point is depressed only twice the predicted amount, indicating only a normal acid-base reaction. Further, a sulfuric acid solution of methyl mesitoate when poured into water gave mesitoic acid, while a similar solution of methyl benzoate similarly treated did not.[596] The

$A_{AC}1$ mechanism is also found when acetates of phenols or of primary alcohols are hydrolyzed in concentrated (> 90%) H_2SO_4 (the mechanism under the more usual dilute acid conditions is the normal $A_{AC}2$).[597]

The mechanisms involving alkyl–oxygen cleavage are ordinary S_N1 and S_N2 mechanisms in which OCOR (an acyloxy group) or its conjugate acid is the leaving group. Two of the three mechanisms, the $B_{AL}1$ and $A_{AL}1$ mechanisms, occur most readily when R' comes off as a stable carbocation, that is, when R' is tertiary alkyl, allylic, benzylic, and so on. For acid catalysis, most esters with this type of alkyl group (especially tertiary alkyl) cleave by this mechanism, but even for these substrates, the $B_{AL}1$ mechanism occurs only in neutral or weakly basic solution, where the rate of attack by OH^- is so slowed that the normally slow (by comparison) unimolecular cleavage takes over. These two mechanisms have been established by kinetic studies, ^{18}O labeling, and isomerization of R'.[598] Secondary and benzylic acetates hydrolyze by the $A_{AC}2$ mechanism in dilute H_2SO_4, but in concentrated acid the mechanism changes to $A_{AL}1$.[597] Despite its designation, the $B_{AL}1$ mechanism is actually uncatalyzed (as is the unknown $B_{AC}1$ mechanism).

The two remaining mechanisms, $B_{AL}2$ and $A_{AL}2$, are very rare, the $B_{AL}2$ because it requires OH^- to attack an alkyl carbon when an acyl carbon is also available,[599] and the $A_{AL}2$ because it requires water to be a nucleophile in an S_N2 process. Both have been observed, however. The $B_{AL}2$ has been seen in the hydrolysis of β-lactones under neutral conditions (because cleavage of the C—O bond in the transition state opens the four-membered ring and relieves strain),[600] the alkaline hydrolysis of methyl 2,4,6-tri-*tert*-butyl benzoate,[601] and in the unusual reaction[602]

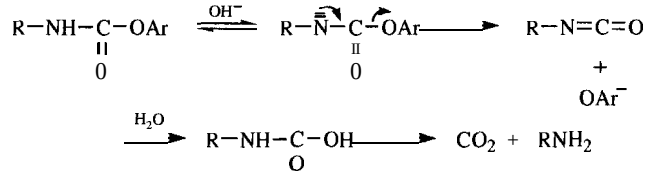
$$\text{ArCOOMe} + \text{RO}^- \longrightarrow \text{ArCOO}^- + \text{ROMe}$$

When it does occur, the $B_{AL}2$ mechanism is easy to detect, since it is the only one of the base-catalyzed mechanisms that requires inversion at R'. However, in the last example given, the mechanism is evident from the nature of the product, since the ether could have been formed in no other way. The $A_{AL}2$ mechanism has been reported in the acid cleavage of γ-lactones.[603]

To sum up the acid-catalysis mechanisms, $A_{AC}2$ and $A_{AL}1$ are the common mechanisms, the latter for R' that give stable carbocations, the former for practically all the rest. The $A_{AC}1$ mechanism is rare, being found mostly with strong acids and sterically hindered R. The $A_{AL}2$ mechanism is even rarer. For basic catalysis, $B_{AC}2$ is almost universal; $B_{AL}1$ occurs only with R' that give stable carbocations and then only in weakly basic or neutral solutions; $B_{AL}2$ is very rare; and $B_{AC}1$ has never been observed.

The above results pertain to reactions in solution. In the gas phase[604] reactions can take a different course, as illustrated by the reaction of carboxylic esters with MeO^-, which in the gas phase was shown to take place only by the $B_{AL}2$ mechanism,[605] even with aryl esters,[606] where this means that an S_N2 mechanism takes place at an aryl substrate. However, when the gas-phase reaction of aryl esters was carried out with MeO^- ions, each of which was solvated with a single molecule of MeOH or H_2O, the $B_{AC}2$ mechanism was observed.[606]

In the special case of alkaline hydrolysis of N-substituted aryl carbamates, there is another mechanism[607] involving elimination-addition:[608]



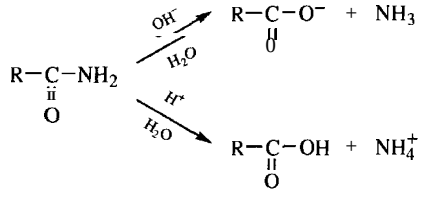
This mechanism does not apply to unsubstituted or N,N-disubstituted aryl carbamates, which hydrolyze by the normal mechanisms. Carboxylic esters substituted in the a position by an electron-withdrawing group (e.g., CN or COOEt) can also hydrolyze by a similar mechanism involving a ketene intermediate.[609] These elimination-addition mechanisms usually are referred to as E1cB mechanisms, because that is the name given to the elimination portion of the mechanism (p. 1308).

The acid-catalyzed hydrolysis of enol esters ($RCOOCR'=CR$) can take place either by the normal $A_{AC}2$ mechanism or by a mechanism involving initial protonation on the double-bond carbon, similar to the mechanism for the hydrolysis of enol ethers given in 10-6,[610] depending on reaction conditions.[611] In either case, the products are the carboxylic acid RCOOH and the aldehyde or ketone R_2'' CHCOR'.

OS I, 351, 360, 366, 379, 391, 418, 523; **II,** 1, 5, 53, 93, 194, 214, 258, 299, 416, 422, 474, 531, 549; **III,** 3, 33, 101, 209, 213, 234, 267, 272, 281, 300, 495, 510, 526, 531, 615, 637, 652, 705, 737, 774, 785, 809 (but see OS V, 1050), 833, 835; IV, 15, 55, 169, 317, 417, 444, 532, 549, 555, 582, 590, 608, 616, 628, 630, 633, 635, 804; V, 8, 445, 509, 687, 762, 887, 985, 1031; **VI,** 75, 121, 560, 690, 824, 913, 1024; **VII,** 4, 190, 210, 297, 319, 323, 356, 411; **VIII,** 43, 141, 219, 247, 258, 263, 298, 486, 516, 527. Ester hydrolyses with concomitant decarboxylation are listed at reaction **12-38.**

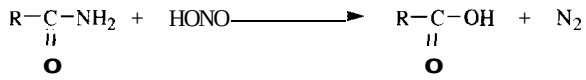
10-11 *Hydrolysis of Amides*

HYDROXY-DE-AMINATION



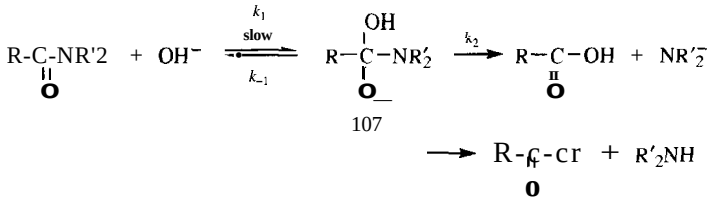
Unsubstituted amides (RCONH2) can be hydrolyzed with either acidic or basic catalysis, the products being, respectively, the free acid and the ammonium ion or the salt of the acid and ammonia. N-Substituted ($RCONHR'$) and N,N-disubstituted ($RCONR_2''$) amides can be hydrolyzed analogously, with the primary or secondary amine, respectively (or their salts), being obtained instead of ammonia. Lactams, imides, cyclic imides, hydrazides, and so on, also undergo the reaction. Water alone is not sufficient to hydrolyze most amides, since NH_2 is even a poorer leaving group than OR.[612] Prolonged heating is often required, even with acidic or basic

catalysts.[613] In difficult cases, nitrous acid, NOCl, N2O4,[614] or a similar compound can be used (unsubstituted amides only[615]).

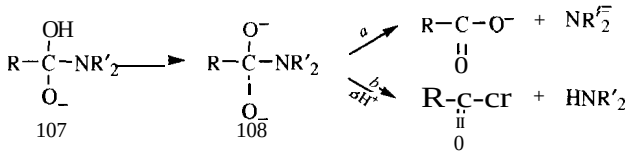


These reactions involve a diazonium ion (see **12-47)** and are much faster than ordinary hydrolysis; for benzamide the nitrous acid reaction took place 2.5 x 10^7 times faster than ordinary hydrolysis.[616] Another procedure for difficult cases involves treatment with aqueous sodium peroxide.[617] In still another method, the amide is treated with water and *t*-BuOK at room temperature.[618] The strong base removes the proton from 107, thus preventing the reaction marked k_{-1}. A kinetic study has been done on the alkaline hydrolyses of *N*-trifluoroacetyl aniline derivatives.[619] Amide hydrolysis can also be catalyzed by nucleophiles (see p. 427).

The same framework of eight possible mechanisms that was discussed for ester hydrolysis can also be applied to amide hydrolysis.[620] Both the acid- and base-catalyzed hydrolyses are essentially irreversible, since salts are formed in both cases. For basic catalysis[621] the mechanism is $B_{AC}2$.



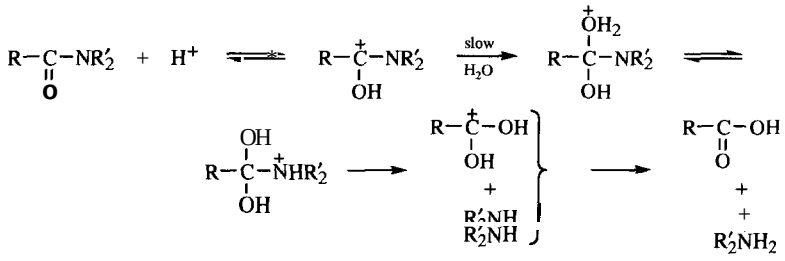
There is much evidence for this mechanism, similar to that discussed for ester hydrolysis. A MO study on the mechanism of amide hydrolysis is available.[622] In certain cases, kinetic studies have shown that the reaction is second order in OH^-, indicating that **107** can lose a proton to give 108.[623] Depending on the nature



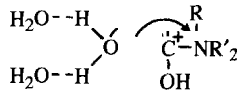
of R', **108** can cleave directly to give the two negative ions (path *a)* or become N-protonated prior to or during the act of cleavage (path *b),* in which case the products are obtained directly and a final proton transfer is not necessary.[624] Studies of the effect, on the rate of hydrolysis and on the ratio k_{-1}/k_2, of substituents on the aromatic rings in a series of amides $CH_3CONHAr$ led to the conclusion that path *a* is taken when Ar contains electron-withdrawing substituents and path *b* when electron-donating groups are present.[625] The presence of electron-withdrawing groups helps stabilize the negative charge on the nitrogen, so that NR'^-_2 can be a leaving group (path *a).* Otherwise, the C–N bond does not cleave until the nitrogen is protonated (either prior to or in the act of cleavage), so that the leaving group, *even in the base-catalyzed reaction,* is not NR'^-_2 but the conjugate NHR'_2 (path *b).* Though we have

shown formation of **107** as the rate-determining step in the $B_{AC}2$ mechanism, this is true only at high base concentrations. At lower concentrations of base, the cleavage of **107** or **108** becomes rate determining.[626]

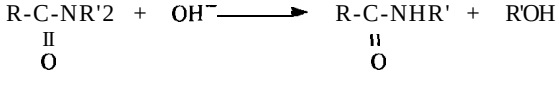
For acid catalysis, matters are less clear. The reaction is generally second order, and it is known that amides are primarily protonated on the oxygen (Chapter 8, Ref. 24). Because of these facts it has been generally agreed that most acid-catalyzed amide hydrolysis takes place by the $A_{AC}2$ mechanism.



Further evidence for this mechanism is that a small but detectable amount of ^{18}O exchange (see p. 425) has been found in the acid-catalyzed hydrolysis of benzamide.[627] (The ^{18}O exchange has also been detected for the base-catalyzed process,[628] in accord with the $B_{AC}2$ mechanism). Kinetic data have shown that three molecules of water are involved in the rate-determining step,[629] suggesting that, as in the $A_{AC}2$ mechanism for ester hydrolysis **(10-10),** additional water molecules take part in a process such as



The four mechanisms involving alkyl–N cleavage (the AL mechanisms) do not apply to this reaction. They are not possible for unsubstituted amides, since the only N–C bond is the acyl bond. They are possible for N-substituted and N,N-disubstituted amides, but in these cases they give entirely different products and are not amide hydrolyses at all.



This reaction, while rare, has been observed for various *N-tert*-butyl amides in 98% sulfuric acid, where the mechanism was the $A_{AL}1$ mechanism,[630] and for certain amides containing an azo group, where a $B_{AL}1$ mechanism was postulated.[631] Of the two first-order acyl cleavage mechanisms, only the $A_{AC}1$ has been observed, in concentrated sulfuric acid solutions.[632] Of course, the diazotization of unsubstituted amides might be expected to follow this mechanism, and there is evidence that this is true.[616]

OS I, 14, 111, 194, 201, 286; **II,** 19, 25, 28, 49, 76, 208, 330, 374, 384, 457, 462, 491, 503, 519, 612; **III,** 66, 88, 154, 256, 410, 456, 586, 591, 661, 735, 768, 813; IV,

39, 42, **55, 58,** 420, 441, 496, 664; **V, 27, 96, 341,** 471, 612, 627; **VI, 56,** 252, 507, 951, 967; **VII, 4,** 287; **VIII,** 26, 204, 241, 339, 451.

The oxidation of aldehydes to carboxylic acids can proceed by a nucleophilic mechanism, but more often it does not. The reaction is considered in Chapter 14 (14-6). Basic cleavage of (3-keto esters and the haloform reaction could be considered at this point, but they are also electrophilic substitutions and are treated in Chapter 12 **(12-41** and **12-42).**

C. *Attack by OR at an Alkyl Carbon*

10-12 *Alkylation With Alkyl Halides: The Williamson Reaction*

ALKOXY-DE-HALOGENATION

$$RX + OR'^{-} \longrightarrow ROR'$$

The *Williamson reaction,* discovered in 1850, is still the best general method for the preparation of unsymmetrical ethers or, for that matter, symmetrical ones.[633] The reaction can also be carried out with aromatic R', though C-alkylation is sometimes a side reaction (see p. 459).[634] The normal method involves treatment of the halide with alkoxide or aroxide ion prepared from an alcohol or phenol, but it is also possible to mix the halide and alcohol or phenol directly with Cs_2CO_3 in acetonitrile,[635] or with solid KOH in Me_2SO.[636] The reaction can also be carried out in a dry medium[637] or neat[638] using microwaves. The reaction is not successful for tertiary R (because of elimination), and low yields are obtained with secondary R. Many other functional groups can be present in the molecule without interference. Ethers with one tertiary group *can* be prepared by treatment of an alkyl halide or sulfate ester **(10-14)** with a tertiary alkoxide $R'O^-$. Di-*tert*-butyl ether was prepared in high yield by direct attack by *t*-BuOH on the *tert*-butyl cation (at $-80°C$ in SO_2ClF).[639] Di-*tert*-alkyl ethers in general have proved difficult to make, but they can be prepared in low-to-moderate yields by treatment of a tertiary halide with Ag_2CO_3 or Ag_2O.[640] Active halides such as Ar_3CX may react directly with the alcohol without the need for the more powerful nucleophile alkoxide ion.[641] Even tertiary halides have been converted to ethers in this way, with no elimination,[642] and hindered alcohols react as well.[643] Treatment of tertiary halides ($R_3C—Cl$) with zinc acetate and ultrasound leads to the corresponding acetate ($R_3C—OAc$) in a related reaction.[644] The mechanism is these cases is of course S_N1. *tert*-Butyl halides can be converted to aryl *tert*-butyl ethers by treatment with phenols and an amine such as pyridine.[645] Aryl alkyl ethers can be prepared from alkyl halides by treatment with an aryl acetate (instead of a phenol) in the presence of K_2CO_3 and a crown ether.[646] It is possible to selectively alkylate the primary hydroxyl in a diol $HOCH_2CH(OH)R$ using a tin complex.[647] It is also possible to hydrogenate aldehydes and ketones (16-23) and trap the intermediate with an alcohol to form an ether.[648]

gem-Dihalides react with alkoxides to give acetals, and 1,1,1-trihalides give ortho esters.[649] Both aryl alkyl and dialkyl ethers can be efficiently prepared with the use of phase transfer catalysis (p. 456)[650] and with micellar catalysis.[651]

Hydroxy groups can be protected[652] by reaction of their salts with chloromethyl methyl ether.

$$RO^- + CH_3OCH_2Cl \longrightarrow ROCH_2OCH_3$$

This protecting group is known as (methoxymethyl MOM) and such compounds are called MOM ethers. The resulting acetals are stable to bases and are easily cleaved with mild acid treatment (**10-6**). Another protecting group, the 2-methoxyethoxymethyl (the MEM) group, is formed in a similar manner. Both MOM and MEM groups can be cleaved with dialkyl- and diarylboron halides such as Me_2BBr.[653]

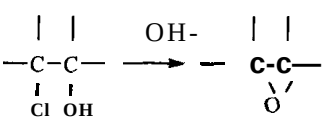
Aryl cyanates[654] can be prepared by reaction of phenols with cyanogen halides in the presence of a base: $ArO^- + ClCN \rightarrow ArOCN + Cl^-$.[655] This reaction has also been applied to certain alkyl cyanates.[656]

Though most Williamson reactions proceed by the S_N2 mechanism, there is evidence (see p. 404) that in some cases the SET mechanism can take place, especially with alkyl iodides.[657]

OS **I,** 75, 205, 258, 296, 435; **II,** 260; **III,** 127, 140, 209, 418, 432, 544; **IV,** 427, 457, 558, 590, 836; V, 251, 258, 266, 403, 424, 684; **VI,** 301, 361, 395, 683; **VII,** 34, 386, 435; **VIII, 26,** 161, 155, 373.

10-13 *Epoxide Formation*

(3) *OC-CYCLO*-ALKOXY-DE-HALOGENATION



This is a special case of **10-12**. The base removes the proton from the OH group and the epoxide then attacks in an internal S_N2 reaction.[658] Many epoxides have been made in this way.[659] The course of the reaction can be influenced by neighboring group effects.[660] The method can also be used to prepare larger cyclic ethers: five- and six-membered rings.[661] Additional treatment with base yields the glycol **(10-7).**

OS **I,** 185, 233; **II,** 256; **III,** 835; **VI,** 560; **VII,** 164, 356; **VIII,** 434.

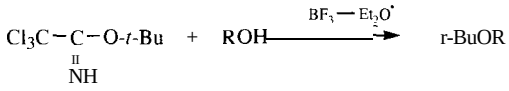
10-14 *Alkylation With Inorganic Esters*

ALKOXY-DE-SULFONYLOXY-SUBSTITUTION

$$R{-}OSO_2OR'' + R'O^- \longrightarrow ROR$$

The reaction of alkyl sulfates with alkoxide ions is quite similar to **10-12** in mechanism and scope. Other inorganic esters can also be used. One of the most common usages of the reaction is the formation of methyl ethers of alcohols and phenols by treatment of alkoxides or aroxides with methyl sulfate. The alcohol or phenol can be methylated directly, by treatment with dimethyl sulfate and alumina in cyclohexane.[662] Carboxylic esters sometimes give ethers when treated with alkoxides ($B_{AL}2$ mechanism, p. 473) in a very similar process (see also **10-24).**

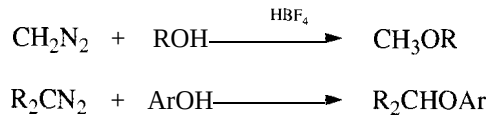
tert-Butyl ethers can be prepared by treating the compound tert-butyl 2,2,2-trichloroacetimidate with an alcohol or phenol in the presence of boron trifluoride etherate.[663] ferf-Butyl ethers can be cleaved by acid catalyzed hydrolysis.[664]



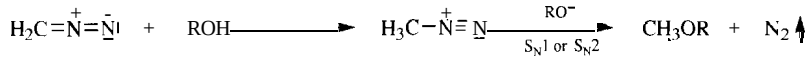
OS I, 58, 537; **II,** 387, 619; **III,** 127, 564, 800; IV, 588; VI, 737, 859, **VII,** 41. Also see OS V, 431.

10-15 *Alkylation With Diazo Compounds*

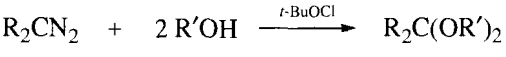
HYDRO, ALKOXY-DE-DIAZO-BISUBSTITUTION



Reaction with alcohols is general for diazo compounds, but it is most often performed with diazomethane to produce methyl ethers or with diazo ketones to produce α-keto ethers, since these kinds of diazo compounds are most readily available. With diazomethane[665] the method is expensive and requires great caution. It is used chiefly to methylate alcohols and phenols that are expensive or available in small amounts, since the conditions are mild and high yields are obtained. Hydroxy compounds react better as their acidity increases; ordinary alcohols do not react at all unless a catalyst such as HBF_4[666] or silica gel[667] is present. The more acidic phenols react very well in the absence of a catalyst. Oximes, and ketones that have substantial enolic contributions, give O-alkylation to form, respectively, O-alkyl oximes and enol ethers. The mechanism[668] is as in **10-5**:



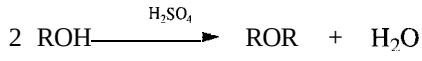
Diazoalkanes can also be converted to ethers by thermal or photochemical cleavage in the presence of an alcohol. These are carbene or carbenoid reactions.[669] Similar intermediates are involved when diazoalkanes react with alcohols in the presence of *t*-BuOCl to give acetals.[670]



OS V, 245. Also see OS V, 1099.

10-16 *Dehydration of Alcohols*

ALKOXY-DE-HYDROXYLATION



The dehydration of alcohols to form ethers[671] is analogous to **10-12** and **10-14,** but the species from which the leaving group departs is ROH_2^+ or ROSO2OH. The former is obtained directly on treatment of alcohols with sulfuric acid and may go, by an S_N1 or S_N2 pathway, directly to the ether if attacked by another molecule of alcohol. On the other hand, it may, again by either an S_N1 or S_N2 route, be attacked by the nucleophile HSO_4^-, in which case it is converted to $ROSO_2OH$, which in turn may be attacked by an alcohol molecule to give ROR. Elimination is always a side reaction and, in the case of tertiary alkyl substrates, completely predominates. Good yields of ethers were obtained by heating diarylcarbinols, ArAr'CHOH → (Ar $Ar'CH)_2O$, with TsOH in the solid state.[672]

The ether prepared is symmetrical. Mixed ethers can be prepared if one group is tertiary alkyl and the other primary or secondary, since the latter group is not likely to compete with the tertiary group in the formation of the carbocation, while a tertiary alcohol is a very poor nucleophile.[673] If one group is not tertiary, the reaction of a mixture of two alcohols leads to all three possible ethers. Unsymmetrical ethers from two different benzylic alcohols have been formed by treating them with $MeReO_3$.[674] Diols can be converted to cyclic ethers,[675] though the reaction is most successful for five-membered rings, but five-, six-, and seven-membered rings have been prepared.[676] Thus, 1,6-hexanediol gives mostly 2-ethyltetrahydrofuran. This reaction is also important in preparing furfural derivatives from aldoses, with concurrent elimination:

Phenols and primary alcohols form ethers when heated with dicyclohexylcarbodiimide (DCC; see 10-23).[677] 1,2-Diols can be converted to epoxides by treatment with dimethylformamide dimethyl acetal, $(MeO)_2CHNMe_2$,[678] with diethyl azodicarboxylate, EtOOCN=NCOOEt, and Ph_3P[679] with a dialkoxytriphenylphosphorane,[680] or with $TsCl–NaOH–PhCH_2NEt_3^+ Cl^-$.[681]

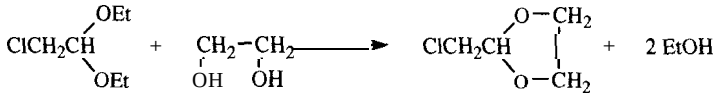
OS I, 280; **II,** 126; IV, 25, 72, 266, 350, 393, 534; V, 539, 1024; **VI,** 887; **VIII,** 116. Also see OS V, 721.

10-17 *Transetherification*

HYDROXY-DE-ALKOXYLATION
ALKOXY-DE-HYDROXYLATION

$$ROR' + R''OH \longrightarrow ROR'' + R'OH$$

The exchange of one alkoxy group for another is very rare for *ethers,* though it has been accomplished with reactive R, for example, diphenylmethyl with *p*-toluenesulfonic acid as a catalyst,[682] and by treatment of alkyl aryl ethers with alkoxide ions: $ROAr + R'O^- \rightarrow ROR' + ArO^-$.[683] 3-(2-Benzyloxyethyl)-3-methyl-oxetane was transformed into 3-benzyloxymethyl-3-methyltetrahdyrofuran by an internal transetherification catalyzed by $BF_3 \cdot OEt_2$.[684] However, acetals and ortho esters undergo transetherification readily,[685] for example,[686]



because, as we have seen (10-6), departure of the leaving group from an acetal gives a particularly stable carbocation. It is also possible to convert a dimethylketal directly to a dithiane by reaction with butane 1,4-dithiol on clay.[687] These are equilibrium reactions, and most often the equilibrium is shifted by removing the lower boiling alcohol by distillation. Enol ethers can be prepared by treating an alcohol with an enol ester or a different enol ether, with mercuric acetate as a catalyst,[688] for example,

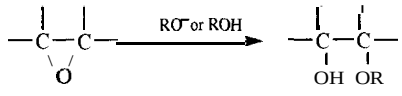
$$ROCH{=}CH_2 + R'OH \xrightarrow{Hg(OAc)_2} R'OCH{=}CH_2 + ROH$$

1,2-Diketones can be converted to α-keto enol ethers by treatment with an alkoxytrimethylsilane ($ROSiMe_3$).[689]

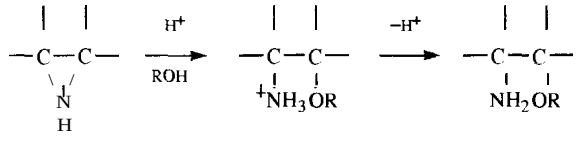
OS **VI,** 298, 491, 584, 606, 869; **VII,** 334; **VIII,** 155, 173. Also see OS V, 1080, 1096.

10-18 *Alcoholysis of Epoxides*

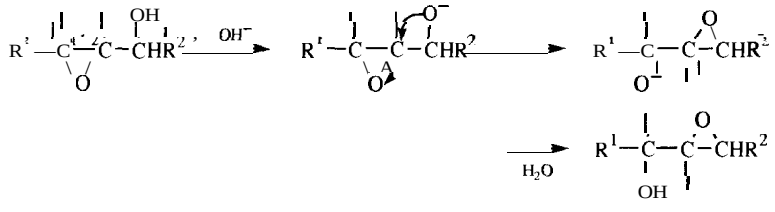
(3) *OC-SECO*-ALKOXY-DE-ALKOXYLATION



This reaction is analogous to **10-7.** It may be acid (including Lewis acids),[690] base, or alumina[691] catalyzed, occur with electrolysis,[692] and may occur by either an S_N1 or S_N2 mechanism. Many of the (3-hydroxy ethers produced in this way are valuable solvents, for example, diethylene glycol, Cellosolve, and so on. Reaction with thiols leads to hydroxy thioethers.[693] Aziridines can similarly be converted to (3-amino ethers.[694]



In the *Payne rearrangement,* a 2,3-epoxy alcohol is converted to an isomeric one, by treatment with aqueous base:[695]



The reaction results in inverted configuration at C-2. Of course, the product can also revert to the starting material by the same pathway, so a mixture of epoxy alcohols is generally obtained.

10-19 *Alkylation With Onium Salts*

ALKOXY-DE-HYDROXYLATION

$$R_3O^+ + R'OH \longrightarrow ROR' + R_2O$$

Oxonium ions are excellent alkylating agents, and ethers can be conveniently prepared by treating them with alcohols or phenols.[696] Quaternary ammonium salts can sometimes also be used.[697]

OS VIII, 536.

10-20 *Hydroxylation of Silanes*

HYDROXY-DE-SILYLALKYLATION

$$R-SiR^1_2Ar \xrightarrow{F^-} R-SiR^1_2F \xrightarrow{\text{oxidation}} R-OH$$

$$R-SiR^1_2SiR^2_3 \xrightarrow{F^-} R-SiR^1_2F \xrightarrow{\text{oxidation}} R-OH$$

Alkylsilanes can be oxidized, with the silyl unit converted to a hydroxy unit. This requires either an aryl group[698] or another silyl group[699] attached to silicon. Treatment with a fluorinating agent such as tetrabutylammonium fluoride or CsF replaces Ar or SiR_3 with F, which is oxidized with hydrogen peroxide or a peroxy acid to give the alcohol. This sequence is often called the *Tamao–Fleming oxidation*.[698] There are several variation in substrate that allow versatility in the initial incorporation of the silyl unit.[700]

D. *Attack by OR at an Acyl Carbon*

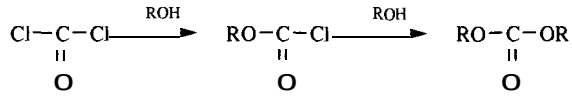
10-21 *Alcoholysis of Acyl Halides*

ALKOXY-DE-HALOGENATION

$$\underset{\underset{O}{\|}}{R-C-X} + R'OH \longrightarrow \underset{\underset{O}{\|}}{R-C-OR'}$$

The reaction between acyl halides and alcohols or phenols is the best general method for the preparation of carboxylic esters. It is believed to proceed by a S_N2 mechanism.[701] As with 10-8, the mechanism can be S_N1 or tetrahedral.[559] Pyridine catalyzes the reaction by the nucleophilic catalysis route (see 10-9). The reaction is of wide scope, and many functional groups do not interfere. A base is frequently added to combine with the HX formed. When aqueous alkali is used, this is called the *Schotten-Baumann procedure*, but pyridine is also frequently used. Both R and R' may be primary, secondary, or tertiary alkyl or aryl. Enolic esters can also be prepared by this method, though C-acylation competes in these cases. In difficult cases, especially with hindered acids or tertiary R′, the alkoxide can be used instead of the alcohol.[702] Activated alumina has also been used as a catalyst, for tertiary R'.[703] Thallium salts of phenols give very high yields of phenolic esters.[704] Phase-transfer catalysis has been used for hindered phenols.[705] Zinc has been used to couple alcohols and acyl chlorides.[706] Selective acylation is possible in some cases.[707]

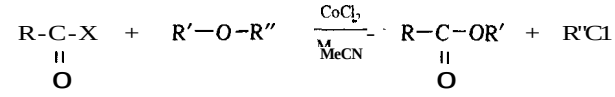
When phosgene is the acyl halide, haloformic esters or carbonates can be obtained.



An important example is the preparation of carbobenzoxy chloride ($PhCH_2OCOCl$) from phosgene and benzyl alcohol. This compound is widely used for protection of amino groups during peptide synthesis (see **10-55).**

Acyl halides react with thiols, in the presence of zinc, to give the corresponding thio ester.[708]

Acyl halides can also be converted to carboxylic acids by using ethers instead of alcohols, in MeCN in the presence of certain catalysts such as cobalt(II) chloride.[709]

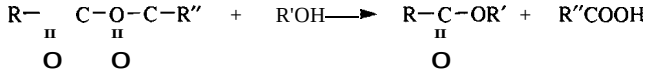


This is a method for the cleavage of ethers (see also **10-71).**

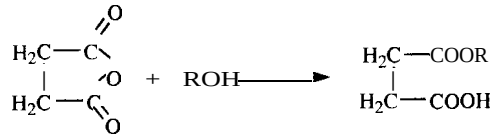
OS I, 12; **III,** 142, 144, 167, 187, 623, 714; **IV,** 84, 263, 478, 479, 608, 616, 788; **V, 1,** 166, 168, 171; **VI,** 199, 259, 312, 824; **VII,** 190; **VIII,** 257, 516.

10-22 *Alcoholysis of Anhydrides*

ALKOXY-DE-ACYLOXY-SUBSTITUTION



The scope of this reaction is similar to that of **10-21.** Though anhydrides are somewhat less reactive than acyl halides, they are often used to prepare carboxylic esters. Acids, Lewis acids, and bases are often used as catalysts—most often, pyridine.[710] Catalysis by pyridine is of the nucleophilic type (see **10-9).** *4-(N,N-*Dimethylamino)pyridine is a better catalyst than pyridine and can be used in cases where pyridine fails.[711] Nonbasic catalysts are cobalt(II) chloride[712] and $TaCl_5$—SiO_2.[713] Formic anhydride is not a stable compound but esters of formic acid can be prepared by treating alcohols[714] or phenols[715] with acetic-formic anhydride. Cyclic anhydrides give monoesterified dicarboxylic acids, for example,



Alcohols can also be acylated by mixed organic-inorganic anhydrides, such as acetic-phosphoric anhydride, $MeCOOPO(OH)_2$ (see **10-35).**[716]

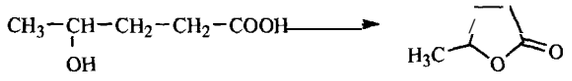
OS **I,** 285, 418; **II,** 69, 124; **III,** 11, 127, 141, 169, 237, 281, 428, 432, 690, 833; **IV,** 15, 242, 304; **V,** 8, 459, 591, 887; **VI,** 121, 245, 560, 692; 486; **VIII,** 141, 258.

10-23 *Esterification of Carboxylic Acids*

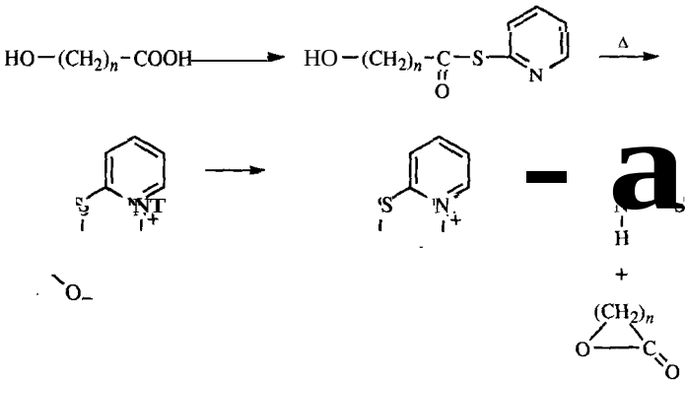
ALKOXY-DE-HYDROXYLATION

$$RCOOH + R'OH \underset{}{\overset{H^+}{\rightleftharpoons}} RCOOR' + H_2O$$

The esterification of carboxylic acids with alcohols[717] is the reverse of 10-11 and can be accomplished only if a means is available to drive the equilibrium to the right.[718] There are many ways of doing this, among which are (1) addition of an excess of one of the reactants, usually the alcohol; (2) removal of the ester or the water by distillation; (3) removal of water by azeotropic distillation; and (4) removal of water by use of a dehydrating agent, silica gel,[719] or a molecular sieve. When R' is methyl, the most common way of driving the equilibrium is by adding excess MeOH; when R' is ethyl, it is preferable to remove water by azeotropic distillation.[720] The most common catalysts are H_2SO_4 and TsOH, though some reactive acids (e.g., formic,[721] trifluoroacetic[722]) do not require a catalyst. The R' group may be primary or secondary alkyl groups other than methyl or ethyl, but tertiary alcohols usually give carbocations and elimination. Phenols can sometimes be used to prepare phenolic esters, but yields are generally very low. Mixing the carboxylic acid and alcohol with *p*-toluenesulfonic acid (neat), gave the ester in 3 min upon irradiation with microwaves.[723]

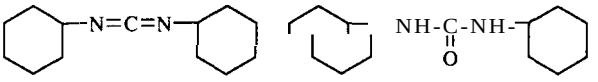


Both y- and 8-hydroxy acids are easily lactonized by treatment with acids, or often simply on standing, but larger and smaller lactone rings cannot be made in this manner, because polyester formation occurs more readily.[724] Often the conversion of a group such as keto or halogen, y or 8 to a carboxyl group, to a hydroxyl group gives the lactone directly, since the hydroxy acid cyclizes too rapidly for isolation. β-Substituted β-hydroxy acids can be converted to |3-lactones by treatment with benzenesulfonyl chloride in pyridine at 0–5°C.[725] E-Lactones (seven-membered rings) have been made by cyclization of E-hydroxy acids at high dilution.[726] Macrocyclic lactones[727] can be prepared indirectly in very good yields by conversion of the hydroxy acids to 2-pyridinethiol esters and adding these to refluxing xylene.[728]



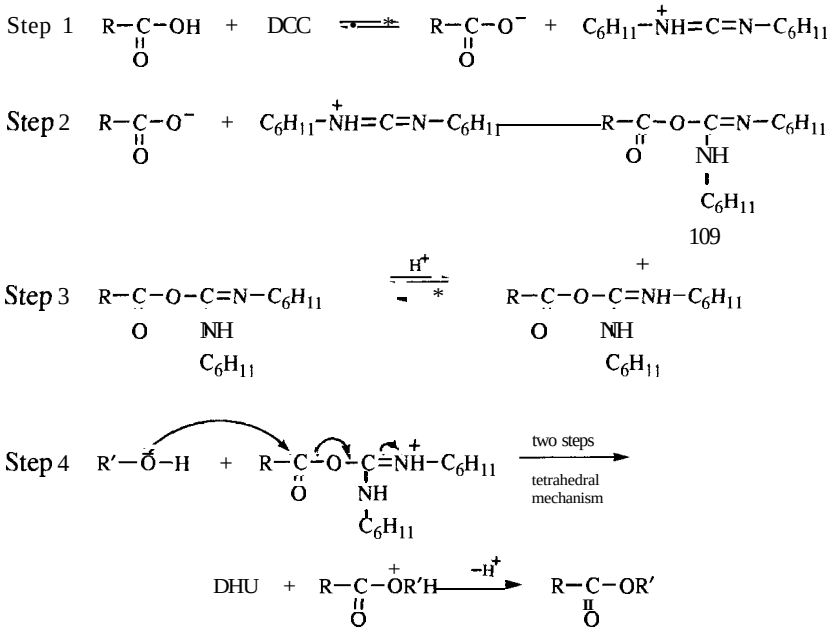
A closely related method, which often gives higher yields of a macrocyclic lactone, involves treatment of the hydroxy acids with 1-methyl- or 1-phenyl-2-halopyridinium salts, especially 1-methyl-2–chloropyridinium iodide *(Mukaiyama's reagent).*[729] Another method uses organotin oxides[730] and both $TiCl_4/AgClO_4$[731] and $TiCl_2(OSO_2CF_3)_2$[732] have been used.

Esterification is catalyzed by acids (not bases) in ways that were discussed on pages 470.[587] The mechanisms are usually $A_{AC}2$, but $A_{AC}1$ and $A_{AL}1$ have also been observed.[733] Certain acids, such as 2,6-di-ortho-substituted benzoic acids, cannot be esterified by the $A_{AC}2$ mechanism because of steric hindrance (p. 433). In such cases, esterification can be accomplished by dissolving the acid in 100% H_2SO_4 (forming the ion RCO^+) and pouring the solution into the alcohol ($A_{AC}1$ mechanism). The reluctance of hindered acids to undergo the normal $A_{AC}2$ mechanism can sometimes be put to advantage when, in a molecule containing two COOH groups, only the less hindered one is esterified. The $A_{AC}1$ pathway cannot be applied to unhindered carboxylic acids.



DCC DHU

Another way to esterify a carboxylic acid is to treat it with an alcohol in the presence of a dehydrating agent.[718] One of these is DCC, which is converted in the process to dicyclohexylurea (DHU). The mechanism[734] has much in common with the nucleophilic catalysis mechanism; the acid is converted to a compound with a better leaving group. However, the conversion is not by a tetrahedral mechanism (as it is in nucleophilic catalysis), since the C–O bond remains intact during this step:



Evidence for this mechanism was the preparation of O-acylureas similar to **109** and the finding that when catalyzed by acids they react with alcohols to give esters.[735]

However, there are limitations to the use of DCC; yields are variable and N-acylureas are side products. Many other dehydrating agents[736] have been used, including DCC and an aminopyridine,[737] Amberlyst-15,[738] diethyl azodicarboxylate EtOOCN=NCOOEt and Ph_3P[739] (when these reagents are used the procedure is called the *Mitsunobu esterification reaction*[140]). New Mitsunobu catalysts have also been developed.[741] It is noted that other functional groups, including azides, can be generated from alcohols using Mitsunobu conditions. Other

HO **111**

dehydrating agents include chlorosilanes, [742] $MeSO_2Cl$–Et_3N,[743] and *N,N'*-carbonyldiimidazole(llO).[744] In the latter case easily alcoholyzed imidazolides (**111**) are intermediates. Boron trifluoride promotes the esterification by converting the acid to $RCO^+ BF_3OH^-$, so the reaction proceeds by an $A_{AC}1$ type of mechanism. The use of BF_3–etherate is simple and gives high yields.[745] Carboxylic esters can also be prepared by treating carboxylic acids with *tert*-butyl ethers and acid catalysts.[746]

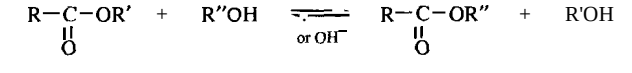
$$RCOOH + t\text{-}Bu\text{-}OR' \longrightarrow RCOOR' + H_2C{=}CMe_2 + H_2O$$

Carboxylic acids can be converted to tert-butyl esters by treatment with te/t-butyl 2,2,2-trichloroacetimidate (see **10-14**) and BF_3-Et_2O.[663] Treatment of carboxylic acids with iodoethane and Cs_2CO_3[747] or CsF–Celite[748] gave the ethyl ester and hexanoic acid and benzyl bromide on solid benzyltributylammonium chloride gave the ester upon irradiation with microwaves.[749].

OS **I**, 42, 138, 237, 241, 246, 254, 261, 451; **II**, 260, 264, 276, 292, 365, 414, 526; **III**, 46, 203, 237, 381, 413, 526, 531, 610; **IV**, 169, 178, 302, 329, 390, 398, 427, 506, 532, 635, 677; **V**, 80, 762, 946; **VI**, 471, 797; **VII**, 93, 99, 210, 319, 356, 386, 470; **VIII**, 141, 251, 597; **IX**, 24, 58; **75**, 116; **75**, 129. Also see OS **III**, 536, 742.

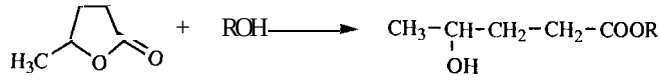
10-24 *Alcoholysis of Carboxylic Esters: Transesterification*

ALKOXY-DE-ALKOXYLATION



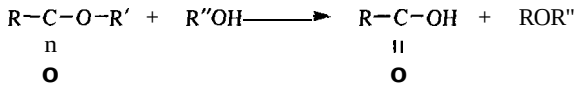
Transesterification[750] is catalyzed[751] by acids or bases,[752] or performed under neutral conditions.[753] It is an equilibrium reaction and must be shifted in the desired direction. In many cases, low-boiling esters can be converted to higher boiling ones by the distillation of the lower boiling alcohol as fast as it is formed. Reagents used to catalyze transesterification include In/I_2,[754] Montmorillonite K10 clay,[755] $Ti(OEt)_4$,[756] $Cu(NO_3)_2$, which with ethyl acetate is elective for primary alcohols,[757]

and $Sn(OTf)_2$.[758] This reaction has been used as a method for the acylation of a primary OH in the presence of a secondary OH.[759] Regioselectivity has also been accomplished by using enzymes (lipases) as catalysts.[760] Lactones are easily opened by treatment with alcohols[761] to give open-chain hydroxy esters:



Transesterification has been carried out with phase-transfer catalysis, without an added solvent.[762] In another procedure, RCOOR' are converted to RCOOR" by treatment of the ester and an alcohol R'OH with n-BuLi, which converts the R"OH to R"OLi.[763]

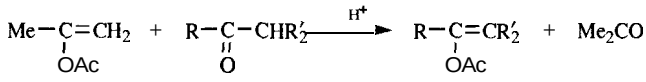
Transesterification occurs by mechanisms[764] that are identical with those of ester hydrolysis—except that ROH replaces HOH—that is, by the acyl–oxygen fission mechanisms. When alkyl fission takes place, the products are the *acid* and the *ether*.



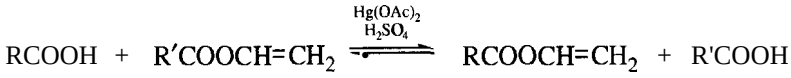
Therefore, transesterification reactions frequently fail when R' is tertiary, since this type of substrate most often reacts by alkyl–oxygen cleavage. In such cases, the reaction is of the Williamson type with OCOR as the leaving group (see 10-14).

With enol esters, the free alcohol is the enol of a ketone, so such esters easily undergo the reaction

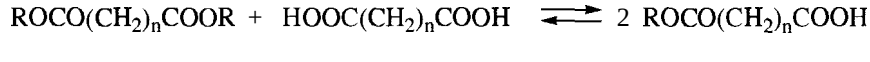
Hence, enol esters such as isopropenyl acetate are good acylating agents for alcohols.[765] Isopropenyl acetate can also be used to convert other ketones to the corresponding enol acetates in an exchange reaction:[766]



Enol esters can also be prepared in the opposite type of exchange reaction, catalyzed by mercuric acetate[767] or Pd(II) chloride,[768] for example,



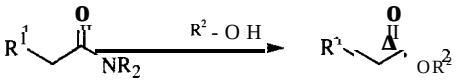
A closely related reaction is equilibration of a dicarboxylic acid and its diester to produce monoesters:



OS II, 5, 122, 360; III, 123, 146, 165, 231, 281, 581, 605; IV, 10, 549, 630, 977; V, 155, 545, 863; VI, 278; VII, 4, 164, 411; VIII, 155, 201, 235, 263, 350, 444, 528. See also OS VII, 87; VIII, 71.

10-25 *Alcoholysis of Amides*

ALKOXY-DE-AMIDATION



Alcoholysis of amides is possible,[769] although it is usually difficult. It has been most common with the imidazolide type of amides (such as **111**). For other amides, an activating agent is usually necessary before the alcohol will replace the NR_2 unit. Treatment of an amide with triflic anhydride ($CF_3SO_2OSO_2CF_3$) in the presence of pyridine, and then with an excess of alcohol leads to the ester,[770] as does treatment with $Me_2NCH(OMe)_2$ followed by the alcohol.[771] Trimethyloxonium tetrafluoroborate converted primary amides to methyl esters.[772] Acyl hydrazides ($RCONHNH_2$) were converted to esters using hypervalent iodine species and alcohols,[773] and methoxyamides (RCONHOMe) were converted to esters with $TiCl_4$/ROH.[774]

E. *Attack by OCOR at an Alkyl Carbon*

10-26 *Alkylation of Carboxylic Acid Salts*

ACYLOXY-DE-HALOGENATION

$$RX + R'COO^- \xrightarrow{HMPA} R'COOR$$

Sodium salts of carboxylic acids, including hindered acids such as mesitoic, rapidly react with primary and secondary bromides and iodides at room temperature in dipolar aprotic solvents, especially HMPA, to give high yields of carboxylic esters.[775] The mechanism is S_N2. Another method uses phase transfer catalysis.[776] With this method good yields of esters have been obtained from primary, secondary, benzylic, allylic, and phenacyl halides,[777] In another procedure, which is applicable to long-chain primary halides, the dry carboxylate salt and the halide, impregnated on alumina as a solid support, are subjected to irradiation by microwaves in a commercial microwave oven.[778] In still another method, carboxylic acids have been esterified by treatment with primary or secondary halides in benzene in the presence of 1,8-diazabicyclo[5.4.0] undecene (DBU, p. 1337).[779] In most cases, good yields of esters can be obtained only with one of these methods. Without phase-transfer catalysts and in protic solvents, the reaction is useful only for fairly active R, such as benzylic, allylic, and so on. (S_N1 mechanism), but not for tertiary alkyl, since elimination occurs instead.[780] Sodium salts are often used, but potassium, silver, cesium,[781] and substituted ammonium salts have also been used. Lactones can be prepared from halo acids by treatment with base (see **10-23).** This has most often been accomplished with y and 5 lactones, but macrocyclic lactones (e.g., 11–17 members) have also been prepared in this way.[782] An interesting variation treated 2-ethylbenzoic acid with hypervalent iodine and then $I_2/h\nu$ to give the five-membered ring lactone.[783]

Cooper(I) carboxylates give esters with primary (including neopentyl without rearrangement), secondary, and tertiary alkyl, allylic, and vinylic halides.[784] A simple S_N mechanism is obviously precluded in this case. Vinylic halides can be converted to vinylic acetates by treatment with sodium acetate if palladium(II) chloride is present.[785]

A carboxylic acid (not the salt) can be the nucleophile if F^- is present.[786] Mesylates are readily displaced, for example, by benzoic acid/CsF.[787] Dihalides have been converted to diesters by this method.[786] A COOH group can be conveniently protected by reaction of its ion with a phenacyl bromide ($ArCOCH_2Br$).[788] The resulting ester is easily cleaved when desired with zinc and acetic acid. Dialkyl carbonates can be prepared without phosgene (see 10-21) by phase-transfer catalyzed treatment of primary alkyl halides with dry $KHCO_3$ and K_2CO_3.[789]

Other leaving groups can also be replaced by OCOR. Alkyl chlorosulfites (ROSOCl) and other derivatives of sulfuric, sulfonic, and other inorganic acids can be treated with carboxylate ions to give the corresponding esters. Treatment with oxalyl chloride allows displacement by carboxylate salts.[790] The use of dimethyl sulfate[791] or trimethyl phosphate[792] allows sterically hindered COOH groups to be methylated. With certain substrates, carboxylic acids are strong enough nucleophiles for the reaction. Examples of such substrates are trialkyl phosphites $P(OR)_3$[793] and acetals of DMF.[794]

$$(RO)_2CHNMe_2 + R'COOH \longrightarrow R'COOR + ROH + HCONMe_2$$

This is an S_N2 process, since inversion is found at R. Another good leaving group is NTs_2; ditosylamines react quite well with acetate ion in dipolar aprotic solvents:[795] $RNTs_2 + OAc^- \rightarrow ROAc$. Ordinary primary amines have been converted to acetates and benzoates by the Katritzky pyrylium-pyridinium method (p. 447).[796] Quaternary ammonium salts can be cleaved by heating with AcO^- in an aprotic solvent.[797] Oxonium ions can also be used as substrates:[798] $R_3O^+ + R'COO^- \rightarrow R'COOR + R_2O$.

In a variation of this reaction, alkyl halides can be converted to carbamates, by treatment with a secondary amine and K_2CO_3 under phase-transfer conditions.[799]

$$RX + R'_2NH + K_2CO_3 \xrightarrow{Bu_4NH^+HSO_4^-} R{-}O{-}\overset{\overset{O}{\|}}{C}{-}NR'_2$$

OS II, 5; III, 650; IV, 582; V, 580; VI, 273, 576, 698.

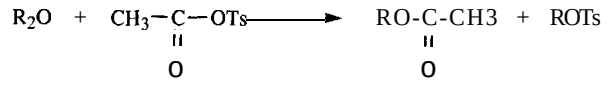
10-27 *Cleavage of Ethers With Acetic Anhydride*

ACYLOXY-DE-ALKOXYLATION

$$R{-}O{-}R' + Ac_2O \xrightarrow{FeCl_3} ROAc + R'OAc$$

Dialkyl ethers can be cleaved by treatment with anhydrous ferric chloride in acetic anhydride,[800] or with Me_3SiOTf in acetic anhydride.[801] In this reaction, both R

groups are converted to acetates. Yields are moderate to high. Ethers can also be cleaved by the mixed anhydride acetyl tosylate:[802]

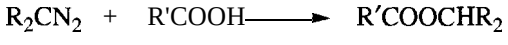


Epoxides give β-hydroxyalkyl carboxylates when treated with a carboxylic acid or a carboxylate ion and a suitable catalyst.[803] Tetrahydrofuran was opened to give *O*-benzoyl-4-iodo-1-butanol by treatment with benzoyl chloride and SmI_3.[804]

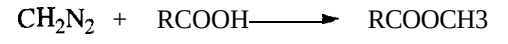
OS **VIII,** 13.

10-28 *Alkylation of Carboxylic Acids With Diazo Compounds*

HYDRO, ACYLOXY-DE-DIAZO-BISUBSTITUTION



Carboxylic acids can be converted to esters with diazo compounds in a reaction essentially the same as **10-15.** In contrast to alcohols, carboxylic acids undergo the reaction quite well at room temperature, since the reactivity of the reagent increases with acidity. The reaction is used where high yields are important or where the acid is sensitive to higher temperatures. Because of availability, the diazo compounds most often used are diazomethane (for methyl esters)[665]



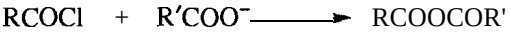
and diazo ketones. The mechanism is as shown in **10-15.**

OS **V,** 797.

F. *Attack by OCOR at an Acyl Carbon*

10-29 *Acylation of Carboxylic Acids With Acyl Halides*

ACYLOXY-DE-HALOGENATION



Unsymmetrical as well as symmetrical anhydrides are often prepared by the treatment of an acyl halide with a carboxylic acid salt. The compound $CoCl_2$ has been used as a catalyst.[805] If a metallic salt is used, Na^+, K^+, or Ag^+ are the most common cations, but more often pyridine or another tertiary amine is added to the free acid and the salt thus formed is treated with the acyl halide. Mixed formic anhydrides are prepared from sodium formate and an aryl halide, by use of a solid-phase copolymer of pyridine-1-oxide.[806] Symmetrical anhydrides can be prepared by reaction of the acyl halide with aqueous NaOH or $NaHCO_3$ under phase-transfer conditions,[807] or with sodium bicarbonate with ultrasound.[808]

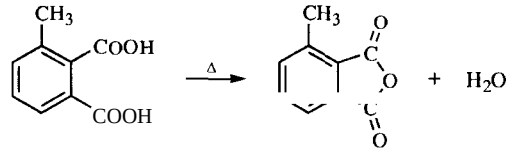
OS **III,** 28, 422, 488; **IV,** 285; **VI,** 8, 910; **VIII,** 132. See also OS **VI,** 418.

10-30 *Acylation of Carboxylic Acids With Carboxylic Acids*

ACYLOXY-DE-HYDROXYLATION

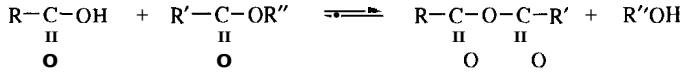
$$2\,RCOOH \rightleftharpoons (RCO)_2O + H_2O$$

Anhydrides can be formed from two molecules of an ordinary carboxylic acid only if a dehydrating agent is present so that the equilibrium can be driven to the right. Common dehydrating agents[809] are acetic anhydride, trifluoroacetic anhydride, DCC,[810] and P_2O_5. The method is very poor for the formation of mixed anhydrides, which in any case generally undergo disproportionation to the two simple anhydrides when they are heated. However, simple heating of dicarboxylic acids does give cyclic anhydrides, provided that the ring formed contains five, six, or seven members, for example,

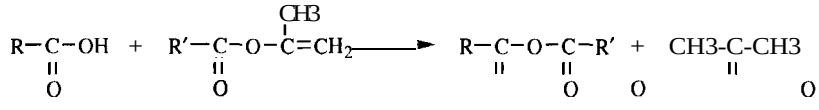


Malonic acid and its derivatives, which would give four-membered cyclic anhydrides, do not give this reaction when heated but undergo decarboxylation **(12-38)** instead.

Carboxylic acids exchange with amides and esters; these methods are sometimes used to prepare anhydrides if the equilibrium can be shifted, for example,



Enolic esters are especially good for this purpose, because the equilibrium is shifted by formation of the ketone.



The combination of KF with 2-acetoxypropene under microwave conditions was effective.[811] Carboxylic acids also exchange with anhydrides; indeed, this is how acetic anhydride acts as a dehydrating agent in this reaction.

Anhydrides can be formed from certain carboxylic acid salts; for example, by treatment of trimethylammonium carboxylates with phosgene:[812]

or of thallium(I) carboxylates with thionyl chloride,[704] or of sodium carboxylates with CCl_4 and a catalyst such as CuCl or $FeCl_2$.[813]

OS I, 91, 410; **II,** 194, 368, 560; **III,** 164, 449; **IV,** 242, 630, 790; V, 8, 822; IX, 151. Also see OS **VI,**757; **VII,** 506.

G. *Other Oxygen Nucleophiles*

10-31 *Formation of Oxonium Salts*

$$RX + R_2O \longrightarrow R_3O^+\,\bar{B}F_4 + AgX \qquad \text{Dialkyloxonio-de-halogenation}$$

$$RX + R'_2CO \longrightarrow R'_2C{=}\overset{+}{O}{-}\bar{R}\,BF_4 + AgX$$

Alkyl halides can be alkylated by ethers or ketones to give oxonium salts, if a very weak, negatively charged nucleophile is present to serve as a counterion and a Lewis acid is present to combine with X^-.[814] A typical procedure consists of treating the halide with the ether or the ketone in the presence of $AgBF_4$ or $AgSbF_6$. The Ag^+ serves to remove X^- and the BF_4^- or SbF_6^- acts as the counterion. Another method involves treatment of the halide with a complex formed between the oxygen compound and a Lewis acid, for example, $R_2O{\cdot}BF_3 + RX \rightarrow R_3O^+BF_4^-$, although this method is most satisfactory when the oxygen and halogen atoms are in the same molecule so that a cyclic oxonium ion is obtained. Ethers and oxonium ions also undergo exchange reactions:

$$2\,R_3O^+BF_4^- + 3\,R'_2O \rightleftharpoons 2\,R_3O^+BF_4^- + 3\,R_2O$$

OS V, 1080, 1096, 1099; VI, 1019.

10-32 *Preparation of Peroxides and Hydroperoxides*

HYDROPEROXY-DE-HALOGENATION

$$RX + \bar{O}OH \longrightarrow ROOH$$

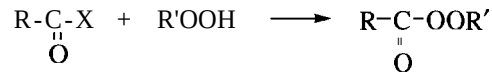
Hydroperoxides can be prepared by treatment of alkyl halides, esters of sulfuric or sulfonic acids, or alcohols with hydrogen peroxide in basic solution, where it is actually HO_2^-.[815] Sodium peroxide is similarly used to prepare dialkyl peroxides ($2\,RX + Na_2O_2 \rightarrow ROOR$). Another method, which gives primary, secondary, or tertiary hydroperoxides and peroxides, involves treatment of the halide with H_2O_2 or a peroxide in the presence of silver trifluoroacetate.[816] Peroxides can also be prepared[817] by treatment of alkyl bromides or tosylates with potassium superoxide (KO_2) in the presence of crown ethers (though alcohols may be side products[818]) and by the reaction between alkyl triflates and germanium or tin peroxide.[819] However, alkyl halides can be converted to symmetrical ethers by treatment with oxide ion generated *in situ* by a reaction between an organotin oxide and fluoride ion in the presence of a quaternary ammonium iodide or a crown ether.[820]

Diacyl peroxides and acyl hydroperoxides can similarly be prepared[821] from acyl halides or anhydrides

$$PhCCl + H_2O_2 \xrightarrow{OH^-} PhCOOCPh$$

$$(CH_3C)_2O + H_2O_2 \xrightarrow{H_2SO_4} CH_3COOH$$

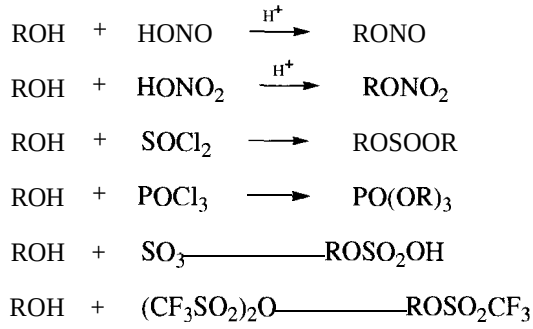
and from carboxylic acids.[822] Diacyl peroxides can also be prepared by the treatment of carboxylic acids with hydrogen peroxide in the presence of DCC,[823] H_2SO_4, methanesulfonic acid, or some other dehydrating agent. Mixed alkyl–acyl peroxides (peresters) can be made from acyl halides and hydroperoxides.



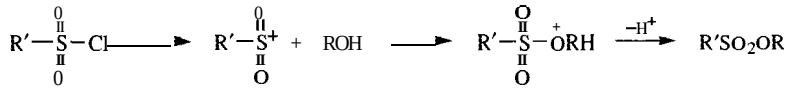
OS III, 619, 649; V, 805, 904; VI, 276.

10-33 *Preparation of Inorganic Esters*

NITROSOOXY-DE-HYDROXYLATION, AND SO ON



The above transformations show a few of the many inorganic esters that can be prepared by attack of an inorganic acid or, better, its acid halide or anhydride, on an alcohol.[824] Although for convenience all these similar reactions are grouped together, these are not all nucleophilic substitutions at R. The other possible pathway is nucleophilic substitution at the inorganic central atom:[825]



or a corresponding S_N2 type (see p. 574). In such cases, there is no alkyl-O cleavage. Monoesters of sulfuric acid (alkylsulfuric acids), which are important industrially because their salts are used as detergents, can be prepared by treating alcohols with SO_3, H_2SO_4, $ClSO_2OH$, or SO_3 complexes.[826] Alcohols are often converted to silyl ethers, for protection and other synthetic purposes: ROH + Me_3C-SiCl → ROSiMe$_3$.[827] Alkyl nitrites[828] can be conveniently prepared by an exchange reaction ROH + R'ONO → RONO + R'OH, where R = *t*-Bu.[829] Primary amines can be converted to alkyl nitrates (RNH_2 → $RONO_2$) by treatment with N_2O_4 at −78°C in the presence of an excess of amidine base.[830]

Alkyl halides are often used as substrates instead of alcohols. In such cases, the *salt* of the inorganic acid is usually used and the mechanism is nucleophilic substitution at the carbon atom. An important example is the treatment of alkyl

halides with silver nitrate to form alkyl nitrates. This is used as a test for alkyl halides. In some cases, there is competition from the central atom. Thus nitrite ion is an ambident nucleophile that can give nitrites or nitro compounds (see **10-64**).[831] Dialkyl or aryl alkyl ethers can be cleaved with anhydrous sulfonic acids.[832]

$$ROR' + R''SO_2OH \longrightarrow ROSO_2R'' + R'OH$$

R" may be alkyl or aryl. For dialkyl ethers, the reaction does not end as indicated above, since R'OH is rapidly converted to R'OR' by the sulfonic acid (Reaction **10-16**), which in turn is further cleaved to $R'OSO_2R''$ so that the product is a mixture of the two sulfonates. For aryl alkyl ethers, cleavage always takes place to give the phenol, which is not converted to the aryl ether under these conditions. Ethers can also be cleaved in a similar manner by mixed anhydrides of sulfonic and carboxylic acids[833] (prepared as in **10-35**). β-Hydroxyalkyl perchlorates[834] and sulfonates can be obtained from epoxides.[835] Epoxides and oxetanes give α,ω-dinitrates when treated with N_2O_5.[836] Aziridines and azetidines react similarly, giving nitramine nitrates; for example, *N*-butylazetidine gave $NO_2OCH_2CH_2CH_2N(Bu)NO_2$.[836]

OS **II,** 106, 108, 109, 112, 204, 412; **III,** 148, 471; **IV,** 955; V, 839; **VIII,** 46, 50, 616. Also see OS **II,** 111.

10-34 *Alcohols from Amines*

HYDROXY-DE-AMINATION

$$RNH_2 \longrightarrow ROH$$

This is a rare transformation. The reaction of *S*-phenethylamine and the bis-sulfonyl chloride of 1,2-benzenesulfonic acid, followed by KNO_2 and 18-crown-6 gave *R*-phenethyl alcohol in 70% yield and 40% enantiomeric excess (ee).[837]

10-35 *Preparation of Mixed Organic-Inorganic Anhydrides*

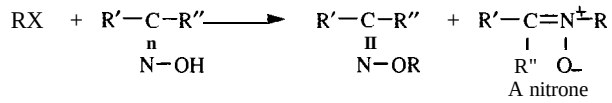
NITROOXY-DE-ACYLOXY-SUBSTITUTION

$$(RCO)_2O + HONO_2 \longrightarrow RCOONO_2$$

Mixed organic-inorganic anhydrides are seldom isolated, though they are often intermediates when acylation is carried out with acid derivatives catalyzed by inorganic acids. Sulfuric, perchloric, phosphoric, and other acids form similar anhydrides, most of which are unstable or not easily obtained because the equilibrium lies in the wrong direction. These intermediates are formed from amides, carboxylic acids, and esters, as well as anhydrides. Organic anhydrides of phosphoric acid are more stable than most others and, for example, $RCOOPO(OH)_2$ can be prepared in the form of its salts.[838] Mixed anhydrides of carboxylic and sulfonic acids ($RCOOSO_2R'$) are obtained in high yields by treatment of sulfonic acids with acyl halides or (less preferred) anhydrides.[839]

OS I, 495; VI, 207; **VII,** 81.

10-36 *Alkylation of Oximes*



A nitrone

Oximes can be alkylated by alkyl halides or sulfates. N-Alkylation is a side reaction, yielding a nitrone.[840] The relative yield of oxime ether and nitrone depends on the nature of the reagents, including the configuration of the oxime, and on the reaction conditions.[841] For example, *anti*-benzaldoximes give nitrones, while the syn isomers give oxime ethers.[842]

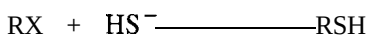
OS **III,** 172; V, 1031. Also see OS V, 269; VI, 199.

Sulfur Nucleophiles

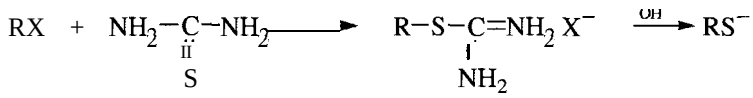
Sulfur compounds[843] are better nucleophiles than their oxygen analogs (p. 439), so in most cases these reactions take place faster and more smoothly than the corresponding reactions with oxygen nucleophiles. There is evidence that some of these reactions take place by SET mechanisms.[844]

10-37 *Attack by SH at an Alkyl Carbon: Formation of Thiols*[845]

MERCAPTO-DE-HALOGENATION



Sodium sulfhydride (NaSH) is a much better reagent for the formation of thiols (mercaptans) from alkyl halides than H_2S and is used much more often. It is easily prepared by bubbling H_2S into an alkaline solution. The reaction is most useful for primary halides. Secondary substrates give much lower yields, and the reaction fails completely for tertiary halides because elimination predominates. Sulfuric and sulfonic esters can be used instead of halides. Thioethers (RSR) are often side products.[846] The conversion can also be accomplished under neutral conditions by treatment of a primary halide with F^- and a tin sulfide such as $Ph_3SnSSnPh_3$.[847] An indirect method for the conversion of an alkyl halide to a thiol consists of treatment with thiourea to give an isothiuronium salt, which with alkali or a high-molecular-weight amine is cleaved to the thiol:



Other indirect methods are treatment of the halide with silyl-thiols and KH, followed by treatment with fluoride ion and water,[848] and hydrolysis of Bunte salts (see **10-41)** is another method.

Thiols have also been prepared from alcohols. One method involves treatment with H_2S and a catalyst such as Al_2O_3,[849] but this is limited to primary alcohols. Another method involves treatment with Lawesson's reagent (see **16-10**).[850] When epoxides are substrates, the products are β-hydroxy thiols.[851] Tertiary nitro compounds give thiols ($RNO_2 \rightarrow RSH$) when treated with sulfur and sodium sulfide, followed by amalgamated aluminum.[852]

OS **III,** 363, 440; **IV,** 401, 491; V, 1046; **VIII,** 582. Also see OS **II,** 345, 411, 573; **IV,** 232; V, 223; **VI,** 620.

10-38 *Attack by S at an Alkyl Carbon: Formation of Thioethers*

ALKYLTHIO-DE-HALOGENATION

$$RX + R'S^- \longrightarrow RSR'$$

Thioethers (sulfides) can be prepared by treatment of alkyl halides with salts of thiols (thiolate ions).[853] The R' group may be alkyl or aryl and organolithium bases can be used to deprotonate the thiol.[854] As in **10-37,** RX cannot be a tertiary halide, and sulfuric and sulfonic esters can be used instead of halides. As in the Williamson reaction **(10-12),** yields are improved by phase-transfer catalysis.[855] Instead of RS^- ions, thiols themselves can be used, if the reaction is run in benzene in the presence of DBU (p. 1337).[856] Neopentyl bromide was converted to Me_3CCH_2SPh in good yield by treatment with PhS^- in liquid NH_3 at -33°C under the influence of light.[857] This probably takes place by an $S_{RN}1$ mechanism (see p. 856). Vinylic sulfides can be prepared by treating vinylic bromides with PhS~ in the presence of a nickel complex,[858] with R_3SnSPh[859] or with PhSLi[860] in the presence of $Pd(PPh_3)_4$.

The R group can be tertiary if an alcohol is the substrate, for example,[861]

$$R_3COH + R3CSH \xrightarrow{H_2SO_4} R_3CSCR_3$$

This reaction is analogous to **10-16.** Primary and secondary alcohols can be converted to alkyl aryl sulfides (ROH → RSAr) in high yields by treatment with Bu_3P and an *N*-(arylthio)succinimide in benzene.[862] Thioethers RSR' can be prepared from an alcohol ROH and a halide R'Cl by treatment with tetramethylthiourea $Me_2NC(=S)NMe_2$ followed by NaH.[863]

Thiolate ions are also useful for the demethylation of certain ethers,[864] esters, amines, and quaternary ammonium salts. Aryl methyl ethers[865] can be cleaved by heating with EtS^- in the dipolar aprotic solvent DMF: ROAr + EtS" → ArO^- + EtSR.[866] Carboxylic esters and lactones are cleaved (the lactones give ω-alkylthio carboxylic acids) with a thiol and $AlCl_3$ or $AlBr_3$.[867] Esters and lactones are similarly cleaved in high yield by phenyl selenide ion $PhSe^-$.[868] Allylic sulfides have been prepared by treating allylic carbonates ROCOOMe (R = an allylic group) with a thiol and a Pd(0) catalyst.[869] A good method for the demethylation of quaternary ammonium salts consists of refluxing them with PhS~ in butanone:[870]

$$R_3\overset{+}{N}Me + PhS^- \xrightarrow{McCOEt} R_3N + PhSMe$$

A methyl group is cleaved more readily than other simple alkyl groups (such as ethyl), though loss of these groups competes, but benzylic and allylic groups cleave even more easily, and this is a useful procedure for the cleavage of benzylic and allylic groups from quaternary ammonium salts, even if methyl groups are also present.[871]

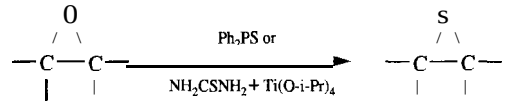
Symmetrical thioethers can also be prepared by treatment of an alkyl halide with sodium sulfide,[872] or with $S(MgBr)_2$ with allylic halides.[873]

$$2\,RX + Na_2S \longrightarrow RSR$$

This reaction can be carried out internally, by treatment of sulfide ions with 1,4-, 1,5-, or 1,6-dihalides, to prepare five-, six-, and seven-membered[874] sulfur-containing heterocyclic rings. Certain larger rings have also been closed in this way.[875]

gem-Dihalides can be converted to thioacetals $RCH(SR')_2$,[876] and acetals have been converted to monothioacetals $R_2C(OR')(SR'')$,[877] and to dithioacetals.[878]

Selenides and tellurides can be prepared similarly,[879] and selenium and borohydride exchange resin followed by the halide give the selenoether.[880] When epoxides are substrates,[881] β-hydroxy sulfides are obtained in a manner analogous to that mentioned in **10-37,** and $PhSeSnBu_3/BF_3{\cdot}OEt_2$ gives this transformation[882] Reaction of an epoxide with Ph_3SiSH followed by treatment with Bu_4NF gives hydroxy-thiols.[883] Epoxides can also be directly converted to episulfides,[884] by treatment with a phosphine sulfide such as Ph_3PS,[885] with thiourea and titanium tetraisopropoxide,[886] or with NH_4SCN and $TiO(tfa)_2$, where tfa = trifluoroacetyl.[887]



Alkyl halides, treated with thioethers, give sulfonium salts.[888] Other leaving groups have also been used for this purpose.[889]

OS **II,** 31, 345, 547, 576; **III,** 332, 751, 763; **IV,** 396, 667, 892, 967; V, 562, 780, 1046; **VI,** 5, 31, 268, 364, 403, 482, 556, 601, 683, 704, 737, 833, 859; **VII,** 453; **VIII,** 592. See also OS **VI,** 776.

$$RI + R'_2S \longrightarrow R'_2\overset{+}{S}R \quad I''$$

10-39 *Attack by SH or SR at an Acyl Carbon*[890]

$$RCOCl + H_2S \longrightarrow R\text{-}C(=O)\text{-}SH \qquad \text{Mercapto-de-halogenation}$$

$$RCOCl + R'SH \longrightarrow R\text{-}C(=O)\text{-}SR' \qquad \text{Alkylthio-de-halogenation}$$

Thiol acids and thiol esters[891] can be prepared in this manner, which is analogous to **10-8** and **10-24.** Anhydrides[892] and aryl esters (RCOOAr)[893] are also used as substrates, but the reagents in these cases are usually SH^- and SR^-. Thiol esters can

also be prepared by treatment of carboxylic acids with P_4S_{10}–Ph_3SbO,[894] or with a thiol (RSH) and either polyphosphate ester or phenyl dichlorophosphate (PhO-$POCl_2$).[895] Esters (RCOOR') can be converted to thiol esters (RCOSR") by treatment with trimethylsilyl sulfides (Me_3SiSR'') and $AlCl_3$.[896]

Alcohols, when treated with a thiol acid and zinc iodide, give thiol esters (R'COSR).[897]

OS III, 116, 599; IV, 924, 928; VII, 81; VIII, 71.

10-40 *Formation of Disulfides*

DITHIO-DE-DIHALO-*AGGRE*-SUBSTITUTION

$$2\,RX + S_2^{2-} \longrightarrow RSSR + 2\,X^-$$

Disulfides can be prepared by treatment of alkyl halides with disulfide ions and also indirectly by the reaction of Bunte salts (see 10-41) with acid solutions of iodide, thiocyanate ion, or thiourea,[898] or by pyrolysis or treatment with hydrogen peroxide. Alkyl halides also give disulfides when refluxed with sulfur and NaOH,[899] and with piperidinium tetrathiotungstate or piperidinium tetrathiomolybdate.[900]

There are no OS references, but a similar preparation of a polysulfide may be found in OS IV, 295.

10-41 *Formation of Bunte Salts*

SULFONATOTHIO-DE-HALOGENATION

$$RX + S_2O_3^{2-} \longrightarrow R{-}S{-}SO_3^- + X^-$$

$$2\,RX + S_2 \longrightarrow RSSR + 2X^-$$

Primary and secondary but not tertiary alkyl halides are easily converted to Bunte salts ($RSSO_3^-$) by treatment with thiosulfate ion.[901] Bunte salts can be hydrolyzed with acids to give the corresponding thiols[902] or converted to disulfides, tetrasulfides, or pentasulfides.[903]

OS VI, 235.

10-42 *Alkylation of Sulfinic Acid Salts*

ALKYLSULFONYL-DE-HALOGENATION

$$RX + R'SO_2^- \longrightarrow R{-}SO_2{-}R' + X^-$$

Alkyl halides or alkyl sulfates, treated with the salts of sulfinic acids, give sulfones.[904] A palladium catalyzed reaction with a chiral complexing agent led to sulfones with modest asymmetric induction.[905] Alkyl sulfinates ($R'SO{-}OR$) may be side products.[906] Sulfonic acids themselves can be used, if DBU (p. 1337) is

present.[907] Sulfones have also been prepared by treatment of alkyl halides with tosylhydrazide.[908]

Vinyl sulfones were prepared from $PhSO_2Na$ and vinyl iodinium salts $C{=}C{-}I^+Ph\ BF_4^-$.[909]

OS IV, 674; IX, 497. See also OS VI, 1016.

10-43 *Formation of Alkyl Thiocyanates*

THIOCYANATO-DE-HALOGENATION

$$RX + SCN^- \longrightarrow RSCN + X^-$$

Alkyl halides or sulfuric or sulfonic esters can be heated with sodium or potassium thiocyanate to give alkyl thiocyanates,[910] though the attack by the analogous cyanate ion **(10-66)** gives exclusive N-alkylation. Primary amines can be converted to thiocyanates by the Katritzky pyrylium–pyridinium method (pp. 447, 489).[911]

OS II, 366.

Nitrogen Nucleophiles

A. *Attack by NH_2, NHR, or NR_2 at an Alkyl Carbon*

10-44 *Alkylation of Amines*

AMINO-DE-HALOGENATION (ALKYL)

$$3\,RX + NH_3 \longrightarrow R_3N + RX \longrightarrow R_4N^+X^-$$

$$2\,RX + R'NH_2 \longrightarrow R_2R'N + RX \longrightarrow R_3R'N^+X^-$$

$$RX + R''R'NH_2 \longrightarrow RR'R''N + RX \longrightarrow R_2R'R''N^+X^-$$

$$RX + RR'R''N \longrightarrow RR'R''R'''N^+X''$$

The reaction between alkyl halides and ammonia or primary amines is not usually a feasible method for the preparation of primary or secondary amines, since they are stronger bases than ammonia and preferentially attack the substrate. However, the reaction is very useful for the preparation of tertiary amines[912] and quaternary ammonium salts. If ammonia is the nucleophile,[913] the three or four alkyl groups on the nitrogen of the product must be identical. If a primary, secondary, or tertiary amine is used, then different alkyl groups can be placed on the same nitrogen atom. The conversion of tertiary amines to quaternary salts is called the *Menshutkin reaction*.[914] It is sometimes possible to use this method for the preparation of a primary amine by the use of a large excess of ammonia or a secondary amine by the use of a large excess of primary amine. However, the limitations of this approach can be seen in the reaction of a saturated solution of ammonia in 90% ethanol

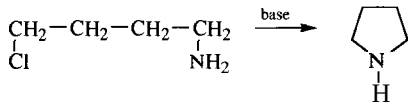
with ethyl bromide in a 16:1 molar ratio, under which conditions the yield of primary amine was 34.2% (at a 1:1 ratio the yield was 11.3%).[915] Alkyl amines can be one type of substrate that does give reasonable yields of primary amine (provided a large excess of NH_3 is used) are α-halo acids, which are converted to amino acids. *N*-Chloromethyl lactams also react with amines to give good yields to the *N*-aminomethyl lactam.[916] Primary amines can be prepared from alkyl halides by **10-65,** followed by reduction of the azide **(19-46),** or by the Gabriel synthesis **(10-61).**

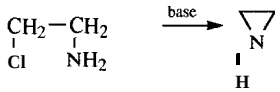
The immediate product in any particular step is the protonated amine, but it rapidly loses a proton to another molecule of ammonia or amine in an equilibrium process, for example,

$$RX + R_2NH \longrightarrow R_3\overset{+}{N}H + R_2NH \rightleftharpoons R_3N + R_2\overset{+}{N}H_2$$

When it is desired to convert a primary or secondary amine directly to the quaternary salt *(exhaustive alkylation),* the rate can be increased by the addition of a nonnucleophilic strong base that serves to remove the proton from $RR'NH_2^+$ or $RR'R''NH^+$ and thus liberates the amine to attack another molecule of RX.[917]

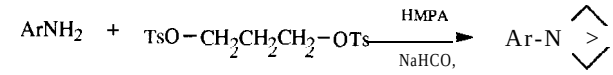
The conjugate bases of ammonia and of primary and secondary amines (NH_2^-, RNH^-, R_2N^-) are sometimes used as nucleophiles,[918] including amide bases generated from organolithium reagents and amines (R_2NLi),[919] but in most cases offer no advantage over ammonia or amines, since the latter are basic enough. This is in contrast to the analogous methods **10-1, 10-12, 10-37,** and **10-38.** Primary alkyl, allylic, and benzylic bromides, iodides, and tosylates react with sodium bis(trimethylsilyl)amide to give derivatives that are easily hydrolyzed to produce amine salts in high overall yields.[920] Primary arylamines are easily alkylated, but diaryl- and triarylamines are very poor nucleophiles. However, the reaction has been carried out with diarylamines.[921] Sulfates or sulfonates can be used instead of halides. The reaction can be carried out intramolecularly to give cyclic amines, with three-, five-, and six-membered (but not four-membered) rings being easily prepared. Thus, 4-chloro-1-aminobutane treated with base gives pyrrolidine, and 2-chloroethylamine gives aziridine (analogous to 10-13):[922]





Reduction of *N*-(3-bromopropyl) imines gives a bromo-amine *in situ,* which cyclizes to the aziridine.[923] Five-membered ring amines (pyrrolidines) can be prepared from alkenyl amines via treatment with *N*-chlorosuccinimide (NCS) and then Bu_3SnH.[924] Internal addition of amine to allylic acetates, catalyzed by $Pd(PPh_3)_4$, leads to cyclic products via a S_N2' reaction.[925] Acyclic amines can be prepared by a closely related reaction using palladium catalysts.[926] Three-membered cyclic amines (aziridines)

can be prepared from chiral conjugated amides via bromination and reaction with an amine.[927] Four-membered cyclic amines (azetidines) have been prepared in a different way:[928]

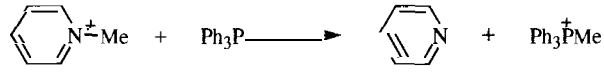


This reaction was also used to close five-, six-, and seven-membered rings.

As usual, tertiary substrates do not give the reaction at all but undergo preferential elimination. However, tertiary (but not primary or secondary) halides R_3CCl can be converted to primary amines R_3CNH_2 by treatment with NCl_3 and $AlCl_3$[929] in a reaction related to **10-53.**

Amines can be N-alkylated by reaction with alcohols, in a sealed tube with irradiation by microwaves,[930] with the alcohol and $RuCl_2(PPh_3)_2$,[931] or by treatment with the amine, $SnCl_2$ and $Pd(PPh_3)_4$.[932] Chlorodiethylaluminum (Et_2AlCl), with a Cu(II) catalysts can N-ethylate aniline derivatives.[933] tert-Butylamines can be prepared from isobutylene, HBr and the amine by heating a sealed tube.[934]

Phosphines behave similarly, and compounds of the type R_3P and $R_4P^+ X^-$ can be so prepared. The reaction between triphenylphosphine and quaternary salts of nitrogen heterocycles in an aprotic solvent is probably the best way of dealkylating the heterocycles, for example,[935]



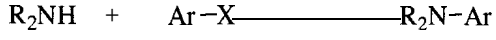
Primary amines can be prepared from alkyl halides by the use of hexamethylenetetramine[936] followed by cleavage of the resulting salt with ethanolic HC1. The method, called the *Delépine reaction,* is most successful for active halides such as allylic and benzylic halides and α-halo ketones, and for primary

A convenient way of obtaining secondary amines without contamination by primary or tertiary amines involves treatment of alkyl halides with the sodium or calcium salt of cyanamide NH_2—CN to give disubstituted cyanamides, which are then hydrolyzed and decarboxylated to secondary amines. Good yields are obtained when the reaction is carried out under phase-transfer conditions.[937] The R group may be primary, secondary, allylic, or benzylic. 1 ,ω-Dihalides give cyclic secondary amines.

OS I, 23, 48, 102, 300, 488; **II,** 85, 183, 290, 328, 374, 397, 419, 563; HI, 50, 148, 254, 256, 495, 504, 523, 705, 753, 774, 813, 848; IV, 84, 98, 383, 433, 466, 582, 585, 980; V, 88, 124, 306, 361, 434, 499, 541, 555, 608, 736, 751, 758, 769, 825, 883, 985, 989, 1018, 1085, 1145; **VI,** 56, 75, 104, 106, 175, 552, 652, 704, 818, 967; **VIII,** 9, 152, 231, 358. Also see OS **II,** 395; IV, 950; OS V, 121; OS I, 203.

10-45 *N-Arylation of Amines*

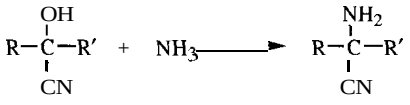
AMINO-DE-HALOGENATION (ARYL)



The reaction of amines with aryl halides requires a catalyst in most cases to initiate the reaction. There are several approaches that result in N-aryl amines. Treatment of cyclohexylamine with p-$MeC_6H_4B(OH)_2$ and $Cu(OAc)_2$ gave the N-aryl amide in 63% yield.[938] Aryl halides react with amines in the presence of palladium catalysts[939] or nickel catalysts[940] to give the N-aryl amine. Aryl fluorides react in the presence of KF-alumina and 18-crown-6 in DMSO.[941] Lithium amides have been shown to react directly with aryl halides.[942] Amines react with $PH_2I^+BF_4^-$, in the presence of palladium catalysts, to give the N-pheny] amine.[943]

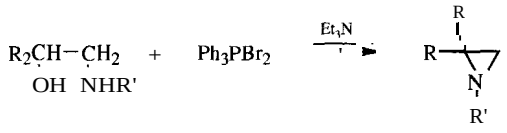
10-46 *Replacement of a Hydroxy by an Amino Group*

AMINO-DE-HYDROXYLATION



Cyanohydrins can be converted to amines by treatment with ammonia. The use of primary or secondary amines instead of ammonia leads to secondary and tertiary cyanoamines, respectively. It is more common to perform the conversion of an aldehyde or ketone directly to the cyanoamine without isolation of the cyanohydrin (see **16-51).** α-Hydroxy ketones (acyloins and benzoins) behave similarly.[944] The conversion ROH → RNH_2 can be accomplished for primary and secondary alcohols by treatment with hydrazoic acid (HN_3), diisopropyl azodicarboxylate (*i*-Pr-OOCN=NCOO-*i*-Pr), and excess Ph_3P in THF, followed by water or aqueous acid.[945] This is a type of Mitsunobu reaction (see **10-23).** Other alcohol-to-amine Mitsunobu reactions have also been reported.[946] Primary and secondary alcohols ROH (but not methanol) can be converted to tertiary amines[947] R'_2NR by treatment with the secondary amine R'_2NH and $(t\text{-}BuO)_3Al$ in the presence of Raney nickel.[948] The use of aniline gives secondary amines PhNHR. Allylic alcohols ROH react with primary ($R'NH_2$) or secondary (R'_2NH) amines in the presence of platinum or palladium complexes, to give secondary (RNHR') or tertiary (RNR2) allylic amines.[949]

β-Amino alcohols give aziridines when treated with triphenylphosphine dibromide in the presence of triethylamine:[950]



The fact that inversion takes place at the OH carbon indicates that an S_N2 mechanism is involved, with $OPPh_3$ as the leaving group.

Alcohols can be converted to amines in an indirect manner.[951] The alcohols are converted to alkyloxyphosphonium perchlorates which in DMF successfully *monoalkylate* not only secondary but also primary amines.[952]

Thus, by this means secondary as well as tertiary amines can be prepared in good yields.

A solution of the sodium salt of *N*-methylaniline in HMPA can be used to cleave the methyl group from aryl methyl ethers:[953] $ArOMe + PhNMe^- \rightarrow ArO^- + PhNMe_2$. This reagent also cleaves benzylic groups. In a similar reaction, methyl groups of aryl methyl ethers can be cleaved with lithium diphenylphosphide (PH_2PLi).[954] This reaction is specific for methyl ethers and can be carried out in the presence of ethyl ethers with high selectivity.

OS II, 29, 231; IV, 91, 283; VI, 567, 788; **VII,** 501. Also see OS I, 473; **III,** 272, 471.

10-47 *Transamination*

ALKYLAMINO-DE-AMINATION

$$RNH_2 + R'NH^- \longrightarrow RR'NH + NH_2^-$$

Where the nucleophile is the conjugate base of a primary amine, NH_2 can be a leaving group. The method has been used to prepare secondary amines.[955] In another process, primary amines are converted to secondary amines in which both R groups are the same ($2\ RNH_2 \rightarrow R_2NH + NH_3$)[956] by refluxing in xylene in the presence of Rancy nickel.[957] Quaternary salts can be dealkylated with ethanolamine.[958]

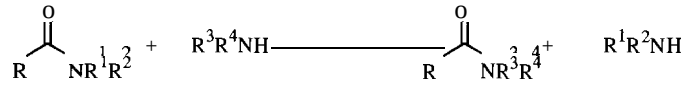
$$R_4N^+ + NH_2CH_2CH_2OH \longrightarrow R_3N + \overset{+}{R}NH_2CH_2CH_2OH$$

In this reaction, methyl groups are cleaved in preference to other saturated alkyl groups. A similar reaction takes place between a Mannich base (see **16-15)** and a secondary amine, where the mechanism is elimination-addition (see p. 430). See also **19-5**.

OS V, 1018.

10-48 *Transamidation*

ALKYLAMINO-DE-AMIDATION



It is sometimes necessary to replace one amide group with another, particularly when the group attached to nitrogen functions as a protecting group[658] Reaction of N-Boc 2-phenylethylamine (BOC is butoxycarbonyl) with $Ti(Oi\text{-}Pr)_4$ and benzyl alcohol, for example, gives the N-Cbz (Cbz in the carbobenzoxy group) derivative.[959] N-Carbamoyl amines were converted to N-acetyl amines with acetic anhydride, Bu_3SnH, and $Pd(PPh_3)_4$.[960]

A related process reacts acetamide with amines and aluminum chloride to give the N-acetyl amine.[961]

10-49 *Alkylation of Amines With Diazo Compounds*

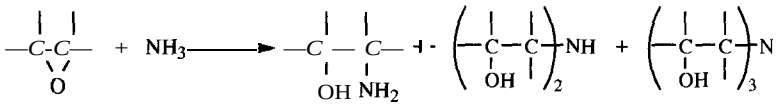
HYDRO,DIALKYLAMINO-DE-DIAZO-BISUBSTITUTION

$$CR_2N_2 + R_2'NH \xrightarrow{BF_3} CHR_2NR'_2$$

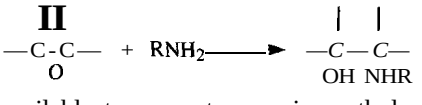
The reaction of diazo compounds with amines is similar to **10-15**.[962] The acidity of amines is not great enough for the reaction to proceed without a catalyst, but BF_3, which converts the amine to the $F_3B\text{-}NHR_2'$ complex, enables the reaction to take place. Cuprous cyanide can also be used as a catalyst.[963] The most common substrate is diazomethane,[663] in which case this is a method for the methylation of amines. Ammonia has been used as the amine but, as in the case of **10-44,** mixtures of primary, secondary, and tertiary amines are obtained. Primary aliphatic amines give mixtures of secondary and tertiary amines. Secondary amines give successful alkylation. Primary aromatic amines also give the reaction, but diaryl or arylalkylamines react very poorly.

10-50 *Amination of Epoxides*

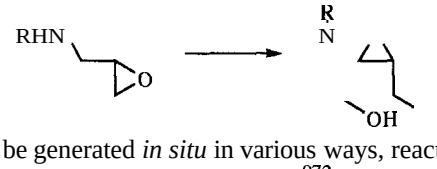
(3) *OC-SECO*-AMINO-DE-ALKOXYLATION



The reaction between epoxides and ammonia is a general and useful method for the preparation of P-hydroxyamines.[964] Ammonia gives largely the primary amine, but also some secondary and tertiary amines. The useful solvents, the ethanolamines, are prepared by this reaction. For another way of accomplishing this conversion, see 10-54. The reaction can be catalyzed with $Yb(OTf)_3$ and in the presence of α-BINOL is 1,1′-bi-2-naphthol derivative gives amino alcohols with high asymmetric induction.[965] A variation used $Yb(OTf)_3$ at 10 kbar[966] or at ambient pressure.[967] Lithium triflate can also be used.[968] Primary and secondary amines give, respectively, secondary and tertiary amines,[969] for example,



Various methods are available to convert an aminomethyl epoxide to a hydroxymethyl aziridine:[970]

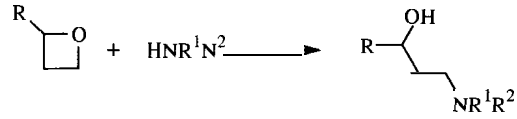


Episulfides, which can be generated *in situ* in various ways, react similarly to give β-amino thiols,[971] and aziridines give 1,2-diamines.[972] Triphenylphosphine similarly reacts with epoxides to give an intermediate that undergoes elimination to give alkenes (see the Wittig reaction, **16-47).**

There are no OS references, but see OS VI, 652 for a related reaction.

10-51 *Amination of Oxetanes*

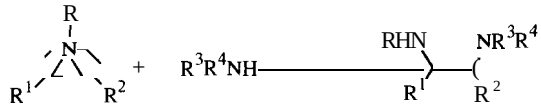
(4) *OC-HOMOSECO*-AMINO-DE-ALKOXYLATION



Oxetanes are significantly less reactive with nucleophiles due to diminished ring strain. Under certain conditions, however, amines can open oxetanes to give amino alcohols. *tert*-Butylamine reacts with oxetanes in the presence of $Yb(OTf)_3$ to give 3-hydroxy amines.[973] Lithium tetrafluoroborate has also been used for this purpose.[974]

10-52 *Amination of Aziridines*

(3) *NC-seco*-AMINO-DE-AMINOALKYLATION



Just as epoxides can be opened by amines to give hydroxy-amines, there are a limited number of examples of aziridines being opened to give diamines. Amines reacts with N-tosylaziridines, in the presence of $Yb(OTf)_3$, to give the corresponding diamine.[975]

10-53 *Amination of Alkanes*

AMINO-DE-HYDROGENATION OR AMINATION

$$R_3CH + NCl_3 \xrightarrow{AlCl_3} R_3CNH_2$$

Alkanes, arylalkanes, and cycloalkanes can be aminated, at tertiary positions only, by treatment with trichloroamine and aluminum chloride at 0-10°C.[976] For example, *p*-$MeC_6H_4CHMe_2$ gives *p*-$MeC_6H_4CMe_2NH_2$, methylcyclopentane gives 1-amino-1-methylcyclopentane, and adamantane gives 1-aminoadamantane, all in good yields. This is a useful reaction, since there are not many other methods for the preparation of tert-alkyl amines. The mechanism has been rationalized as an S_N1 process with H^- as the leaving group:[976]

$$NCl_3 + AlCl_3 \longrightarrow (Cl_2N{-}AlCl_3)^- Cl^+$$

$$R_3CH \xrightarrow{Cl^+} R_3C^+ \xrightarrow{NCl_2^-} R_3CNCl_2 \xrightarrow[2\,H^+]{-2\,Cl^+} R_3CNH_2$$

See also **12-11.**

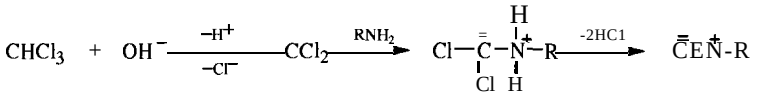
OS **V,** 35.

10-54 *Formation of Isocyanides*

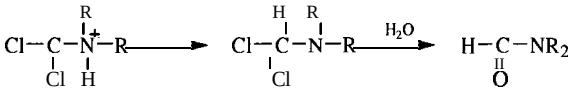
HALOFORM-ISOCYANIDE TRANSFORMATION

$$CHCl_3 + RNH_2 \xrightarrow{OH^-} R\text{-}\overset{+}{N}\equiv\overset{-}{C}$$

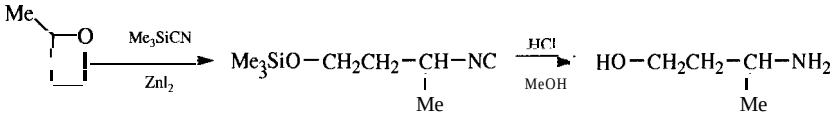
Reaction with chloroform under basic conditions is a common test for primary amines, both aliphatic and aromatic, since isocyanides have very strong bad odors. The reaction probably proceeds by an S_N1cB mechanism with dichlorocarbene as an intermediate:



The reaction can also be used synthetically for the preparation of isocyanides, though yields are generally not high.[977] An improved procedure has been reported.[978] When secondary amines are involved, the adduct cannot lose 2 mol of HC1. Instead it is hydrolyzed to an *N,N*-disubstituted formamide:[979]



A completely different way of preparing isocyanides involves the reaction of epoxides or oxetanes with trimethylsilyl cyanide and zinc iodide, for example,[980]



112

The products can be hydrolyzed to hydroxyamines, (e.g., 112).

OS VI, 232.

B. *Attack by* NH_2, *NHR, or* NR_2 *at an Acyl Carbon*[981]

10-55 *Acylation of Amines by Acyl Halides*

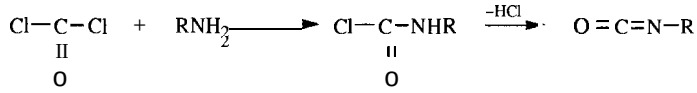
AMINO-DE-HALOGENATION

$$RCOX + NH_3 \longrightarrow RCONH_2 + HX$$

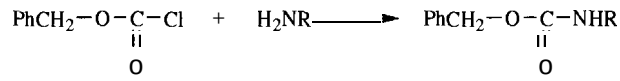
The treatment of acyl halides with ammonia or amines is a very general reaction for the preparation of amides.[982] The reaction is highly exothermic and must be carefully controlled, usually by cooling or dilution. Ammonia gives unsubstituted amides, primary amines give *N*-substituted amides, and secondary amines give *N,N*-disubstituted amides. Arylamines can be similarly acylated. In some cases aqueous

alkali is added to combine with the liberated HC1. This is called the *Schotten-Baumann procedure,* as in **10-21.** Activated zinc can be used to increase the rate of amide formation when hindered amines and/or acid chlorides are used.[983]

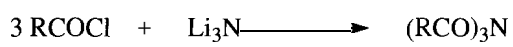
Hydrazine and hydroxylamine also react with acyl halides to give, respectively, hydrazides ($RCONHNH_2$)[984] and hydroxamic acids (RCONHOH),[985] and these compounds are often made in this way. When phosgene is the acyl halide, both aliphatic and aromatic primary amines give *chloroformamides* ClCONHR that lose HC1 to give isocyanates RNCO.[986] This is one of the most common methods for



the preparation of isocyanates.[987] Thiophosgene,[988] similarly treated, gives isothiocyanates. A safer substitute for phosgene in this reaction is trichloromethyl chloroformate (CCl_3OCOCl).[989] When chloroformates (ROCOCl) are treated with primary amines, carbamates (ROCONHR') are obtained.[990] An example of this reaction is the use of benzyl chloroformate to protect the amino group of amino acids and peptides:



The $PhCH_2OCO$ group is called the carbobenzoxy group, and is often abbreviated Cbz or Z. Another important group similarly used is the tert-butoxycarbonyl group, Me_3COCO, abbreviated as tBoc. In this case, the chloride, $Me_3COCOCl$, is unstable, so the anhydride, $(Me_3COCO)_2O$, is used instead, in an example of **10-56.** Amino groups in general are often protected by conversion to amides. The treatment of acyl halides with lithium nitride gives N,N-diacyl amides (triacylamines):[991]



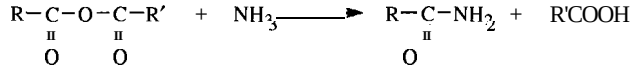
The reactions proceed by the tetrahedral mechanism.[992]

A novel variation of this reaction uses nitrogen gas as the nitrogen source in the amide. The reaction of benzoyl chloride with $TiCl_4$/Li.Me_3SiCl/CsF and N_2, gave a 77% yield of benzamide.[993]

OS **I,** 99, 165; **II,** 76, 208, 278, 328, 453; **III,** 167, 375, 415, 488, 490, 613; **IV,** 339, 411, 521, 620, 780; V, 201, 336; **VI,** 382, 715; **VII,** 56, 287, 307; **VIII,** 16, 339; **IX,** 559. See also OS **VII,** 302.

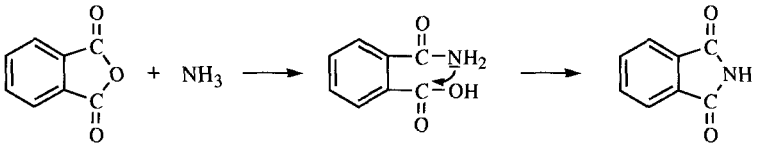
10-56 *Acylation of Amines by Anhydrides*

AMINO-DE-ACYLOXY-SUBSTITUTION



This reaction, similar in scope and mechanism[994] to **10-55,** can be carried out with ammonia or primary or secondary amines.[995] Amino acids can be N-acylated using

acetic anhydride and ultrasound.[996] However, ammonia and primary amines can also give imides, in which two acyl groups are attached to the nitrogen. This is especially easy with cyclic anhydrides, which produce cyclic imides.[997] Occasionally, elevated temperatures are required to generate the imide.[998]



The second step in this case, which is much slower than the first, is the attack of the amide nitrogen on the carboxylic carbon. Unsubstituted and *N*-substituted amides have been used instead of ammonia. Since the other product of this reaction is RCOOH, this is a way of "hydrolyzing" such amides in the absence of water.[999]

Even though formic anhydride is not a stable compound (see p. 714), amines can be formylated with the mixed anhydride of acetic and formic acids (HCOO-COMe)[1000] or with a mixture of formic acid and acetic anhydride. Acetamides are not formed with these reagents. Secondary amines can be acylated in the presence of a primary amine by conversion to their salts and addition of 18-crown-6.[1001] The crown ether complexes the primary ammonium salt, preventing its acylation, while the secondary ammonium salts, which do not fit easily into the cavity, are free to be acylated.

The reaction of anhydrides with aryl azides, in the presence of Me_3SiCl and NaI, gives N-aryl imides.[1002]

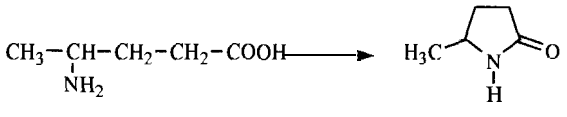
OS **I**, 457; **II,** 11; **III**, 151, 456, 661, 813; **IV,** 5, 42, 106, 657; V, 27, 373, 650, 944, 973; **VI,** 1; **VII,** 4, 70; **VIII,** 132; **76,** 123.

10-57 *Acylation of Amines by Carboxylic Acids*

AMINO-DE-HYDROXYLATION

$$RCOOH + NH_3 \longrightarrow RCOO^- NH_4^+ \xrightarrow{\text{pyrolysis}} RCONH_2$$

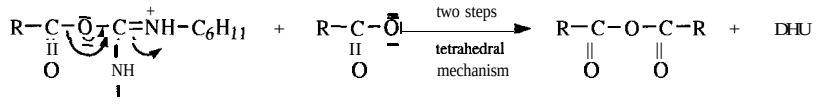
When carboxylic acids are treated with ammonia or amines, salts are obtained. The salts of ammonia or primary or secondary amines can be pyrolyzed to give amides,[1003] but the method is less convenient than **10-55, 10-56,** and **10-58** and is seldom of preparative value.[1004] Lactams are readily produced from 7- or 5-amino acids,[1005] for example,



This lactamization process can be promoted by enzymes such as pancreatic porcine lipase.[1006] Reduction of ω-azido carboxylic acids leads to macrocyclic lactams.[1007]

Although treatment of carboxylic acids with amines does not directly give amides, the reaction can be made to proceed in good yield at room temperature or

slightly above by the use of coupling agents,[1008] the most important of which is DCC. This is very convenient and is used[1009] a great deal in peptide synthesis.[1010] The mechanism is probably the same as in **10-23** up to the formation of 99. This intermediate is then attacked by another molecule of $RCOO^-$ to give the anhydride $(RCO)_2O$, which is the actual species that reacts with the amine:



109

The anhydride has been isolated from the reaction mixture and then used to acylate an amine.[1011] Other promoting agents[1012] are $ArB(OH)_2$ reagents,[1013] Sn[N-$(TMS)_2]_2$ (TMS is tetramethylsilane),[1014] *N,N′*-carbonyldiimidazole **(110,** p. 486),[744] which behaves as in reaction **10-23,** $POCl_3$,[1015] $TiCl_4$,[1016] molecular sieves,[1017] Lawesson's reagent (p. 1184),[1018] and $(MeO)_2POCl$.[1019] Certain dicarboxylic acids form amides simply on treatment with primary aromatic amines. In these cases, the cyclic anhydride is an intermediate and is the species actually attacked by the amine.[1020] Carboxylic acids can also be converted to amides by heating with amides of carboxylic acids (exchange),[1021] sulfonic acids, or phosphoric acids, for example,[1022] or by treatment with trisalkylaminoboranes,

$$RCOOH + Ph_2PONH_2 \longrightarrow RCONH_2 + Ph_2POOH$$

$B(NHR')_3$, with trisdialkylaminoboranes, $B(NR'_2)_3$,[1023] or with bis(diorganoamino)-

$$RCOOH + B(NR'_2)_3 \longrightarrow RCONR'_2$$

magnesium reagents, $(R_2N)_2Mg$.[1024]

An important technique, discovered by Merrifield in 1963[1025] and since used for the synthesis of many peptides,[1026] is called *solid-phase synthesis* or *polymer-supported synthesis}*[021] The reactions used are the same as in ordinary synthesis, but one of the reactants is anchored onto a solid polymer. For example, if it is desired to couple two amino acids (to form a dipeptide), the polymer selected might be polystyrene with CH_2Cl side chains. One of the amino acids, protected by a *t*-tBoc, would then be coupled to the side chains. It is not necessary that all the side chains be converted, but a random selection will be. The Boc group is then removed by hydrolysis with trifluoroacetic acid in CH_2Cl_2 and the second amino acid is coupled to the first, using DCC or some other coupling agent. The second Boc group is removed, resulting in a dipeptide that is still anchored to the polymer. If this dipeptide is the desired product, it can be cleaved from the polymer by various methods,[1028] one of which is treatment with HF. If a longer peptide is wanted, additional amino acids can be added by repeating the requisite steps.

The basic advantage of the polymer support techniques is that the polymer (including all chains attached to it) is easily separated from all other reagents, because it is insoluble in the solvents used. Excess reagents, other reaction products

(such as DHU), side products, and the solvents themselves are quickly washed away. Purification of the polymeric species (such as **104, 105,** and **106)** is rapid and complete. The process can even be automated,[1029] to the extent that six or more amino acids can be added to a peptide chain in 1 day. Commercial automated peptide synthesizers are now available.[1030]

Although the solid-phase technique was first developed for the synthesis of peptide chains and has seen considerable use for this purpose, it has also been used to synthesize chains of polysaccharides and polynucleotides; in the latter case, solid-phase synthesis has almost completely replaced synthesis in solution.[1031] The technique has been applied less often to reactions in which only two molecules are brought together (nonrepetitive syntheses), but many examples have been reported.[1032]

OS I, 3, 82, 111, 172, 327; **II,** 65, 562; **III,** 95, 328, 475, 590, 646, 656, 768; IV, 6, 62, 513; V, 670, 1070; **VIII,** 241. Also see OS **III,** 360; **VI,** 263; **VIII,** 68.

10-58 *Acylation of Amines by Carboxylic Esters*

AMINO-DE-ALKOXYLATION

$$RCOOR' + NH_3 \longrightarrow RCONH_2 + R'OH$$

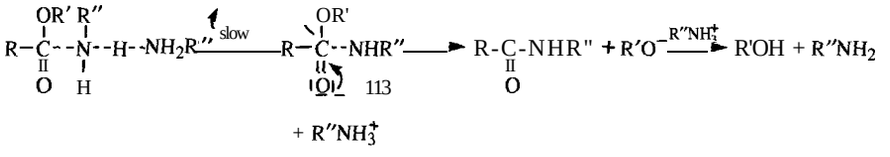
The conversion of carboxylic esters to amides is a useful reaction, and unsubstituted, N-substituted, and N,N-disubstituted amides can be prepared this way from the appropriate amine.[1033] Both R and R' can be alkyl or aryl. An especially good leaving group is *p*-nitrophenyl. Ethyl trifluoroacetate was found to react selectively with primary amines to form the corresponding trifluoroacetyl amide.[1034] Many simple esters (R = Me, Et, etc.) are not very reactive, and strongly basic catalysis has been used,[1035] as well as catalysis by cyanide ion[1036] and high pressure.[1037] Lithium amides have been used to convert esters to amides as well.[1038] β-Keto esters undergo the reaction especially easily.[1039] In another procedure, esters are treated with dimethylaluminum amides (Me_2AlNRR') to give good yields of amides under mild conditions.[1040] The reagents are easily prepared from Me_3Al and NH_3 or a primary or secondary amine or their salts. This is particularly effective when a reactive substituent, such as a primary halide, is present elsewhere in the molecule.[1041] Tin reagents such as $Sn[N(TMS)_2]_2$ in the presence of an amine can also be use to convert an ester to an amide.[1042] This reagent can also be used to convert p-amino esters to β-lactams.[1043] The ester-to-amide conversion has also been accomplished electrochemically, by passing electric current in the cathodic compartment.[1044]

As in **10-55** hydrazides and hydroxamic acids can be prepared from carboxylic esters, with hydrazine and hydroxylamine, respectively. Both hydrazine and hydroxylamine react more rapidly than ammonia or primary amines (the alpha effect, p. 445). Imidates, $RC(=NH)OR'$, give amidines, $RC(=NH)NH_2$. Lactones, when treated with ammonia or primary amines, give lactams. Lactams are also produced from γ- and 5-amino esters in an internal example of this reaction.

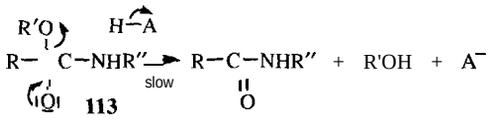
Isopropenyl formate is a useful compound for the formylation of primary and secondary amines.[1045]

$$R_2NH + HCOOCMe{=}CH_2 \longrightarrow R_2NCHO + CH_2{=}CMeOH \rightleftharpoons MeCOMe$$

Although more studies have been devoted to the mechanism of the acylation of amines with carboxylic esters than with other reagents, the mechanistic details are not yet entirely clear.[1046] In its broad outlines, the mechanism appears to be essentially BAC2.[1047] Under the normal basic conditions, the reaction is general base catalyzed,[1048] indicating that a proton is being transferred in the rate-determining step and that two molecules of amine are involved.[1049]

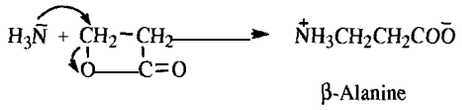


Alternatively, another base, such as H_2O or OH^-, can substitute for the second molecule of amine. With some substrates and under some conditions, especially at low pH, the breakdown of 113 can become rate determining.[1050] The reaction also takes place under acidic conditions and is general acid catalyzed, so that breakdown of 113 is rate determining and proceeds as follows:[1051]



HA may be $R''NH_3^+$ or another acid. Compound 113 may or may not be further protonated on the nitrogen. Even under basic conditions, a proton donor may be necessary to assist leaving-group removal. Evidence for this is that the rate is lower with NR_2^- in liquid ammonia than with NHR_2 in water, apparently owing to the lack of acids to protonate the leaving oxygen.[1052]

In the special case of β-lactones, where small-angle strain is an important factor, alkyl-oxygen cleavage is observed ($B_{AL}2$ mechanism, as in the similar case of hydrolysis of β-lactones, 10-10), and the product is not an amide but a β-amino acid:



A similar result has been found for certain sterically hindered esters.[1053] This reaction is similar to 10-44, with OCOR as the leaving group.

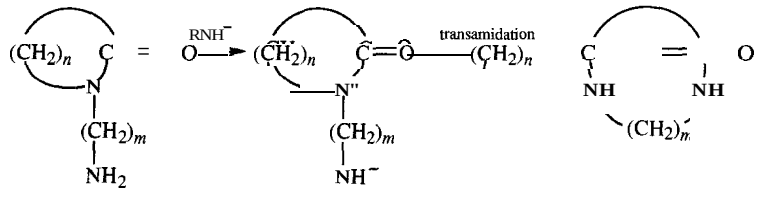
OS I, 153, 179; II, 67, 85; III, 10, 96, 108, 404, 440, 516, 536, 751, 765; IV, 80, 357, 441, 486, 532, 566, 819; V, 168, 301, 645; VI, 203, 492, 620, 936; VII, 4, 30, 41, 411; VIII, 26, 204, 528. Also see OS I, 5; V, 582; VII, 75.

10-59 *Acylation of Amines by Amides*

ALKYLAMINO-DE-AMINATION

$$RCONH_2 + R'\overset{+}{N}H_3 \longrightarrow RCONHR' + NH_4^+$$

This is an exchange reaction and is usually carried out with the salt of the amine.[1054] The leaving group is usually NH_2 rather than NHR or NR_2 and primary amines (in the form of their salts) are the most common reagents. Boron trifluoride can be added to complex with the leaving ammonia. Neutral amines also react in some cases to give the new amide.[1055] The reaction is often used to convert urea to substituted ureas: $NH_2CONH_2 + RNH_3^+ \rightarrow NH_2CONHR + NH_4^+$.[1056] N-R-Substituted amides are converted to NR′-substituted amides by treatment with N_2O_4 to give an N-nitroso compound, followed by treatment of this with a primary amine $R'NH_2$.[1057] Lactams can be converted to ring-expanded lactams if a side chain



containing an amino group is present on the nitrogen. A strong base is used to convert the NH_2 to NH^-, which then acts as a nucleophile, expanding the ring by means of a transamidation.[1058] The discoverers call it the Zip reaction, by analogy with the action of zippers.[1059]

Lactams can be opened to ©-amino amides by reaction with amines at lOkbar.[1060]

OS I, 302 (but see V, 589), 450, 453; **II**,461; **III**,151, 404; IV, 52, 361. See also OS **VIII,** 573.

10-60 *Acylation of Amines by Other Acid Derivatives*

Acid derivatives that can be converted to amides include thiol acids (RCOSH), thiol esters (RCOSR),[1061] acyloxyboranes [$RCOB(OR')_2$],[1062] silicic esters [$(RCOO)_4Si$], 1,1,1-trihalo ketones ($RCOCX_3$),[1063] α-keto nitriles, acyl azides, and non-enolizable ketones (see the Haller–Bauer reaction **12-31).** A polymer-bound acyl derivative was converted to an amide using tributylvinyl tin, trifluoroacetic acid, $AsPh_3$, and a palladium catalyst.[1064] The source of amine in this reaction was the polymer itself, which was an amide resin.

OS **III,** 394; IV, **6,** 569; V, 160, 166; VI, 1004.

C. *Attack by NHCOR*

10-61 *N-Alkylation or N-Arylation of Amides and Imides*

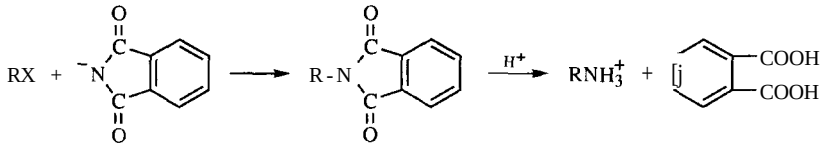
ACYLAMINO-DE-HALOGENATION

$$RX + N\bar{H}COR' \longrightarrow RNHCOR'$$

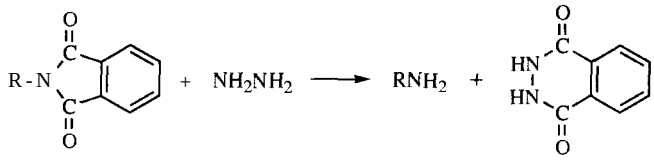
$$ArX + \bar{N}HCOR' \longrightarrow ArNHCOR'$$

Amides are very weak nucleophiles,[1065] far too weak to attack alkyl halides, so they must first be converted to their conjugate bases. By this method, unsubstituted amides can be converted to N-substituted, or N-substituted to N,N-disubstituted, amides.[1066] Esters of sulfuric or sulfonic acids can also be substrates. Tertiary substrates give elimination. O-Alkylation is at times a side reaction.[1067] Both amides and sulfonamides have been alkylated under phase-transfer conditions.[1068] Lactams can be alkylated using similar procedures. Ethyl pyroglutamate (5-carboethoxy 2-pyrrolidinone) and related lactams were converted to N-alkyl derivatives via treatment with NaH (short contact time) followed by addition of the halide.[1069] 2-Pyrrolidinone derivatives can be alkylated using a similar procedure.[1070] Lactams can be reductively alkylated using aldehydes under catalytic hydrogenation conditions.[1071] N-Aryl lactams can be prepared using Ph_3Bi and $Cu(OAc)_2$.[1072]

The *Gabriel synthesis*[1073] for converting halides to primary amines is based on this reaction. The halide is treated with potassium phthalimide and the product hydrolyzed (10-11):



It is obvious that the primary amines formed in this reaction will be uncontaminated by secondary or tertiary amines (unlike 10-44). The reaction is usually rather slow but can be conveniently speeded by the use of a dipolar aprotic solvent such as DMF[1074] or with a crown ether.[1075] Hydrolysis of the phthalimide, whether acid or base catalyzed (acid catalysis is used far more frequently), is also usually very slow, and better procedures are generally used. A common one is the *Ing–Manske procedure*,[1076] in which the phthalimide is heated with hydrazine in an exchange



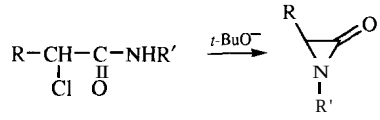
reaction,[1077] but other methods have been introduced, using Na_2S in aqueous THF or acetone,[1078] $NaBH_4$-2-propanol followed by acetic acid;[1079] and 40% aqueous methylamine.[1080] N-Aryl imides can be prepared from $ArPb(OAc)_3$ and NaH.[1081]

N-Alkyl amides or imides can also be prepared starting from alcohols by treatment of the latter with equimolar amounts of the amide or imide, Ph_3P, and diethyl azodicarboxylate ($EtOOCN{=}NCOOEt$) at room temperature (the Mitsunobu reaction, see p. 486).[1082] A related reaction treats the alcohol with $ClCH{=}NMe_2^+Cl^-$, followed by potassium phthalimide and treatment with hydrazine give the amine.[1083]

An alternative to the Gabriel synthesis, in which alkyl halides can be converted to primary amines in good yields, involves treatment of the halide with the strong base guanidine followed by alkaline hydrolysis.[1084] There are several alternative procedures.[1085]

Amides can also be alkylated with diazo compounds, as in **10-49.** Salts of sulfonamides ($ArSO_2NH^-$) can be used to attack alkyl halides to prepare N-alkyl sulfonamides ($ArSO_2NHR$) that can be further alkylated to $ArSO_2NRR'$. Hydrolysis of the latter is a good method for the preparation of secondary amines. Secondary amines can also be made by crown ether assisted alkylation of $F_3CCONHR$ (R = alkyl or aryl) and hydrolysis of the resulting $F_3CCONRR'$.[1086]

Internal N-alkylation has been used to prepare the highly strained compounds α-lactams.[1087]



OS I, 119, **203,** 271; II, 25, 83, **208; III,** 151; **IV,** 810; V, 1064; VI, 951; **VII,** 501.

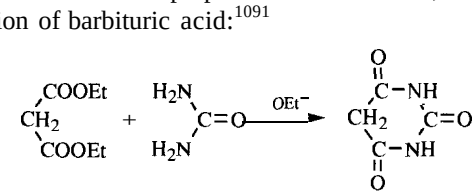
10-62 *N-Acylation of Amides and Imides*

ACYLAMINO-DE-HALOGENATION

$$RCOCl + H_2NCOR' \longrightarrow RCONHCOR'$$

Imides can be prepared by the attack of amides or their salts on acyl halides, anhydrides, and carboxylic acids or esters.[1088] The best synthetic method for the preparation of acyclic imides is the reaction between an amide and an anhydride at 100°C catalyzed by H_2SO_4.[1089] When acyl chlorides are treated with amides in a 2:1 molar ratio at low temperatures in the presence of pyridine, the products are N,N-diacylamides, $(RCO)_3N$.[1090]

This reaction is often used to prepare urea derivatives, an important example being the preparation of barbituric acid:[1091]



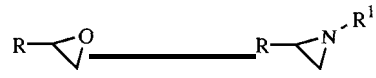
When the substrate is oxalyl chloride (ClCOCOCl) and the reagent an unsubstituted amide, an acyl isocyanate (RCONCO) is formed. The "normal" product (RCONH-COCOCl) does not form, or if it does, it rapidly loses CO and HC1.[1092]

OS II, 60, 79, 422; III,763; IV,245, 247, 496, 566, 638, 662, 744; V, 204, 944.

D. *Other Nitrogen Nucleophiles*

10-63 *Formation of Aziridines from Epoxides*

AMINO-DE-ALKOXYLATION



It is possible to prepare aziridines, which are synthetically important molecules, directly from the corresponding epoxide. Reaction of $Ph_3P{=}NPh$ with an epoxide in the presence of $ZnCl_2$ gives the N-phenyl aziridine.[1093]

10-64 *Formation of Nitro Compounds*[1094]

NITRO-DE-HALOGENATION

$$RX + NO_2^- \longrightarrow RNO_2$$

Sodium nitrite can be used to form nitro compounds with primary or secondary alkyl bromides or iodides, though the method is of limited scope. Silver nitrite gives nitro compounds only when RX is a primary bromide or iodide. Nitrite esters are an important side product in all the.se cases **(10-33)** and become the major product (by an S_N1 mechanism) when secondary or tertiary halides are treated with silver nitrite.

OS I, 410; IV,368, 454, 724.

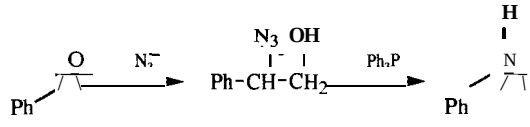
10-65 *Formation of Azides*

AZIDO-DE-HALOGENATION

$$RX + N_3^- \longrightarrow RN_3$$

$$RCOX + N_3^- \longrightarrow RCON3$$

Alkyl azides can be prepared by treatment of the appropriate halide with azide ion.[1095] Phase-transfer catalysis,[1096] ultrasound,[1097] and using reactive clays as a medium[1098] have been used. Other leaving groups have also been used,[1099] for example, OH,[1100] OMs, OTs,[1101] and OAc.[1102] Epoxides react with NaN_3, $SnCl_2$/Mg with NaN_3,[1103] $TMSN_3$ and Ph_4SbOH[1104] or SmI_2,[1105] or $(i\text{-}Bu)_2AlHN_3Li$[1106] to give β-azido alcohols; these are easily converted to aziridines,[1107] for example,



This conversion has been used as a key step in the preparation of optically active aziridines from optically active 1,2-diols (prepared by **15-46**).[1108] Even hydrogen can be the leaving group. Benzylic hydrogens have been replaced by N_3 by treatment with HN_3 in $CHCl_3$ in the presence of DDQ (p. 1511).[1109]

Tertiary alkyl azides can be prepared by stirring tertiary alkyl chlorides with NaN_3 and $ZnCl_2$ in CS_2[1110] or by treating tertiary alcohols with NaN_3 and CF_3COOH[1111] or with HN_3 and $TiCl_4$[1112] or BF_3.[1113] Acyl azides, which can be used in the Curtius reaction (18-14), can be similarly prepared from acyl halides, anhydrides,[1114] esters,[1115] or other acyl derivatives.[1116] Acyl azides can also be prepared form aldehydes using $SiCl_4/NaN_3/MnO_2$[1117] or $TMSN_3/CrO_3$.[1118]

OS III, 846; IV, 715; V, 273, 586; VI, 95, 207, 210, 910; VII, 433; VIII, 116; IX, 220. See also OS VII, 206.

10-66 *Formation of Isocyanates and Isothiocyanates*

ISOCYANATO-DE-HALOGENATION
ISOTHIOCYANATO-DE-HALOGENATION

$$RX + NCO^- \longrightarrow RNCO$$

$$RX + NCS^- \longrightarrow RNCS$$

When the reagent is the thiocyanate ion, S-alkylation is an important side reaction (10-43), but the cyanate ion practically always gives exclusive N-alkylation.[462] Primary alkyl halides have been converted to isocyanates by treatment with sodium nitrocyanamide ($NaNCNNO_2$) and *m*-chloroperoxybenzoic acid, followed by heating of the initially produced $RN(NO_2)CN$.[1119] When alkyl halides are treated with NCO^- in the presence of ethanol, carbamates can be prepared directly (see **16-7**).[1120] Acyl halides give the corresponding acyl isocyanates and isothiocyanates.[1121] For the formation of isocyanides, see 10-111.

OS **III**, 735.

10-67 *Formation of Azoxy Compounds*

ALKYL-*NNO*-AZOXY-DE-HALOGENATION

$$RX + \underset{\textbf{114}}{R'N{=}N{-}O^-} \longrightarrow R{-}\overset{+}{N}{=}N{-}R'\ (O^-)$$

The reaction between alkyl halides and alkanediazotates (114) gives azoxyalkanes.[1122] The R and R' groups may be the same or different, but neither may be aryl or tertiary alkyl. The reaction is regioselective; only the isomer shown is obtained.

Halogen Nucleophiles[1123]

A. *Attack at an Alkyl Carbon*

10-68 *Halide Exchange*

HALO-DE-HALOGENATION

$$RX + X'^{\sim} \rightleftharpoons RX' + X$$

Halide exchange, sometimes call the *Finkelstein reaction,* is an equilibrium process, but it is often possible to shift the equilibrium.[1124] The reaction is most often applied to the preparation of iodides and fluorides. Iodides can be prepared from chlorides or bromides by taking advantage of the fact that sodium iodide, but not the bromide or chloride, is soluble in acetone. When an alkyl chloride or bromide is treated with a solution of sodium iodide in acetone, the equilibrium is shifted by the precipitation of sodium chloride or bromide. Since the mechanism is S_N2, the reaction is much more successful for primary halides than for secondary or tertiary halides; sodium iodide in acetone can be used as a test for primary bromides or chlorides. Tertiary chlorides can be converted to iodides by treatment with excess NaI in CS_2, with $ZnCl_2$ as catalyst.[1125] Vinylic bromides give vinylic iodides with retention of configuration when treated with KI and a nickel bromide-zinc catalyst,[1126] or with KI and CuI in hot HMPA.[1127]

Fluorides[1128] are prepared by treatment of other alkyl halides with any of a number of fluorinating agents,[1129] among them anhydrous HF (which is useful only for reactive substrates such as benzylic or allylic), AgF, KF, HgF_2, $Et_3N{\cdot}2\ HF$,[1130] and, for polyhalo compounds (such as chloroform). The equilibria in these cases are shifted because the alkyl fluoride once formed has little tendency to react, owing to the extremely poor leaving-group ability of fluorine. Phase-transfer catalysis of the exchange reaction is a particularly effective way of preparing both fluorides and iodides.[1131]

Primary alkyl chlorides can be converted to bromides with ethyl bromide, *N*-methyl-2-pyrrolidinone and a catalytic amount of NaBr,[1132] with LiBr under phase-transfer conditions,[1133] and with $Bu_4N^+\ Br^-$.[1134] Primary bromides were converted to chlorides with TMSCl/imidazole in hot DMF.[1135] For secondary and tertiary alkyl chlorides, treatment in CH_2Cl_2 with excess gaseous HBr and an anhydrous $FeBr_3$ catalyst has given high yields (this procedure is also successful for chloride-to-iodide conversions).[1136] Alkyl chlorides or bromides can be prepared from iodides by treatment with HC1 or HBr in the presence of HNO3, making use of the fact that the leaving I" is oxidized to I_2 by the HNO_3.[1137] Primary iodides give the chlorides when treated with PCl_5 in $POCl_3$.[1138] Alkyl fluorides and chlorides are converted to the bromides and iodides (and alkyl fluorides to the chlorides) by heating with the corresponding HX in excess amounts.[1139]

OS II, 476; IV,84, 525; VIII, 486; IX, 502.

10-69 *Formation of Alkyl Halides from Esters of Sulfuric and Sulfonic Acids*

HALO-DE-SULFONYLOXY-SUBSTITUTION, AND SO ON

$$ROSO_2R' + X^- \longrightarrow RX$$

Alkyl sulfates, tosylates, and other esters of sulfuric and sulfonic acids can be converted to alkyl halides with any of the four halide ions.[1140] Neopentyl tosylate reacts with Cl^-, Br^-, or I^- without rearrangement in HMPA.[1141] Similarly, allylic tosylates can be converted to chlorides without allylic rearrangement by reaction with LiCl in the same solvent.[1142] Inorganic esters are intermediates in the conversion of alcohols to alkyl halides with $SOCl_2$, PCl_5, PCl_3, and so on. **(10-70),** but are seldom isolated.

OS I, 25; II, 111, 404; IV, 597, 753; V, 545.

10-70 *Formation of Alkyl Halides from Alcohols*

HALO-DE-HYDROXYLATION

$$ROH + HX \longrightarrow RX$$

$$ROH + SOCl_2 \longrightarrow RC1$$

Alcohols can be converted to alkyl halides with several reagents,[1143] the most common of which are halogen acids HX and inorganic acid halides such as $SOCl_2$,[1144] PCl_5, PCl_3, $POCl_3$, and so on.[1145] Hydrogen bromide is usually used for alkyl bromides[1146] and HI for alkyl iodides. These reagents are often generated *in situ* from the halide ion and an acid such as phosphoric or sulfuric. The use of HI sometimes results in reduction of the alkyl iodide to the alkane **(10-79)** and, if the substrate is unsaturated, can also reduce the double bond.[1147] The reaction can be used to prepare primary, secondary, or tertiary halides, but alcohols of the isobutyl or neopentyl type often give large amounts of rearrangement products. Tertiary chlorides are easily made with concentrated HC1, but primary and secondary alcohols react with HC1 so slowly that a catalyst, usually zinc chloride, is required.[1148] Primary alcohols give good yields of chlorides upon treatment with HC1 in HMPA.[1149] The inorganic acid chlorides $SOCl_2$, PCl_3, and so on, give primary, secondary, or tertiary alkyl chlorides with much less rearrangement than is observed with HC1. Iodides have been prepared by simply heating the alcohol with iodine.[1150]

Analogous bromides and iodides, especially PBr_3, have also been used, but they are more expensive and used less often than HBr or HI, though some of them may also be generated *in situ* (e.g., PBr_3 from phosphorous and bromine). Bromides have also been prepared with NaBr on doped K-10 montmorillonite[1151] and iodides were prepared by using NaI on KSF-clay,[1152] both using with microwave irradiation. Secondary alcohols always gives *some* rearranged bromides if another secondary position is available, even with PBr_3, PBr_5, or $SOBr_2$; thus 3-pentanol gives both 2- and 3-bromopentane. Such rearrangement can be avoided by converting the alcohol to a sulfonate and then using **10-69**,[1153] or by the use of phase-transfer catalysis.[1154]

Tertiary alcohols can be converted to the bromide with BBr_3 at 0°C.[1155] Hydrogen fluoride does not generally convert alcohols to alkyl fluorides.[1156] The most important reagent for this purpose is the commercially available diethylaminosulfur trifluoride (Et_2NSF_3) (DAST),[1157] which converts primary, secondary, tertiary, allylic, and benzylic alcohols to fluorides in high yields under mild conditions.[1158] Fluorides have also been prepared from alcohols by treatment with SF4,[1159] SeF_4,[1160] TsF,[1161] and indirectly, by conversion to a sulfate or tosylate, and so on **(10-69).**

Primary, secondary, and tertiary alcohols can be converted to any of the four halides by treatment with the appropriate NaX, KX, or NH_4X in polyhydrogen fluoride-pyridine solution.[1162] This method is even successful for neopentyl halides. Another reagent that converts neopentyl alcohol to neopentyl chloride, in 95% yield, is PPh_3–CCl_3CN.[1163]

Other reagents[1164] have also been used, for example, $(RO)_3PRX$[1165] and R_3PX_2 (made from R_3P and X_2),[1166] which give good yields for primary (including neopentyl), secondary, and tertiary halides without rearrangements,[1167] Me_3SiCl and $BiCl_3$,[1168] or simply Me_3SiCl in DMSO,[1169] Me_2SBr_2[1170] (prepared from Me_2S and BR_2), and a mixture of PPh_3 and CCl_4[1171] (or CBr_4).[1172]

$$ROH + Ph_3P + CCl_4 \longrightarrow RC1 + Ph_3PO + HCCl_3$$

The last method converts allylic alcohols[1173] to the corresponding halides without allylic rearrangements[1174] and also cyclopropylcarbonyl alcohols to the halides without ring opening.[1175] A simple method that is specific for benzylic and allylic alcohols (and does not give allylic rearrangement) involves reaction with NCS or *N*-bromosuccinimide (NBS) and methyl sulfide.[1176] The specificity of this method is illustrated by the conversion, in 87% yield, of (*Z*)-$HOCH_2CH_2CMe{=}CHCH_2OH$ to (*Z*)-$HOCH_2CH_2Me{=}CHCH_2Cl$. Only the allylic OH group was affected. Allylic and benzylic alcohols can also be converted to bromides or iodides with $NaX–BF_3$ etherate,[1177] and to iodides with AlI_3.[1178]

When the reagent is HX, the mechanism is S_N1cA or S_N2cA; that is, the leaving group is not OH^-, but OH_2 (p. 445). The leaving group is not OH^- with the other reagents either, since in these cases the alcohol is first converted to an inorganic ester, for example, ROSOCl with $SOCl_2$ **(10-33).** The leaving group is therefore $OSOCl^-$ or a similar group **(10-69).** These may react by the S_N1 or S_N2 mechanism and, in the case of ROSOCl, by the S_Ni mechanism (p. 420).[1179]

OS **I,** 25, 36, 131, 142, 144, 292, 294, 533; **II,** 91, 136, 159, 246, 308, 322, 358, 399, 476; **III,** 11, 227, 370, 446, 698, 793, 841; **IV,** 106, 169, 323, 333, 576, 681; V, 1, 249, 608; **VI,** 75, 628, 634, 638, 781, 830, 835; **VII,** 210, 319, 356; **VIII,** 451. Also see OS **III,** 818; **IV,** 278, 383, 597.

10-71 *Formation of Alkyl Halides from Ethers*

HALO-DE-ALKOXYLATION

$$ROR' + HI \longrightarrow RI + R'OH$$

Ethers can be cleaved by heating with concentrated HI or HBr.[1180] The use of HCl is seldom successful[1181] and HBr reacts more slowly than HI, but it is often a superior reagent, since it causes fewer side reactions. Phase-transfer catalysis has also been used.[1182] Dialkyl ethers and alkyl aryl ethers can be cleaved. In the latter case, the alkyl–oxygen bond is the one broken. As in **10-70** the actual leaving group is not OR'^-, but OHR'. Although alkyl aryl ethers always cleave so as to give an alkyl halide and a phenol, there is no general rule for dialkyl ethers. Often cleavage occurs from both sides, and a mixture of two alcohols and two alkyl halides is obtained. However, methyl ethers are usually cleaved so that methyl iodide or bromide is a product. An excess of HI or HBr converts the alcohol product into alkyl halide, so that dialkyl ethers (but not alkyl aryl ethers) are converted to 2 mol of alkyl halide. This procedure is often carried out so that a mixture of only two products is obtained instead of four. Cyclic ethers (usually THF derivatives) can be similarly cleaved (see **10-72** for epoxides). Treatment of 2-methyltetrahydrofuran with acetyl chloride and $ZnCl_2$ gave primarily *O*-acetyl-4-chloro-1-pentanol.[1183] Ethers have also been cleaved with Lewis acids such as BF_3, BCl_3, Me_2BBr,[1184], BBr_3,[1185] or $AlCl_3$.[1186] In such cases, the departure of the OR is assisted by complex formation with the Lewis acid:

$$R-\overset{\pm}{O}(R')-\bar{B}F_3$$

Lewis acids are also used in conjunction with acyl halides. The reagent NaI–BF_3 etherate selectively cleaves ethers in the order benzylic ethers > alkyl methyl ethers > aryl methyl ethers.[1187]

Dialkyl and alkyl aryl ethers can be cleaved with iodotrimethylsilane:[1188] $ROR' + Me_3SiI \rightarrow RI + Me_3SiOR$.[1189] A more convenient and less expensive alternative, which gives the same products, is a mixture of chlorotrimethylsilane and NaI.[1190] Alkyl aryl ethers can also be cleaved with LiI to give alkyl iodides and salts of phenols[1191] in a reaction similar to **10-73.** Triphenyldibromophosphorane (Ph_3PBr_2) cleaves dialkyl ethers to give 2 mol of alkyl bromide.[1192]

A closely related reaction is cleavage of oxonium salts.

$$R_3O + X^- \longrightarrow RX + R_2O$$

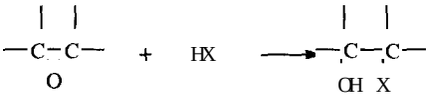
For these substrates, HX is not required, and X can be any of the four halide ions.

tert-Butyldimethylsilyl ethers ($ROSiMe_2CMe_3$) can be converted to bromides (RBr) by treatment with Ph_3PBr_2,[1193] Ph_3P–CBr_4,[1194] or BBr_3.[1195] Alcohols are often protected by conversion to this kind of silyl ether.[1196]

OS I, 150; **II,** 571; **III,** 187, 432, 586, 692, 753, 774, 813; IV, 266, 321; V, 412; VI, 353. See also OS **VIII,** 161, 556.

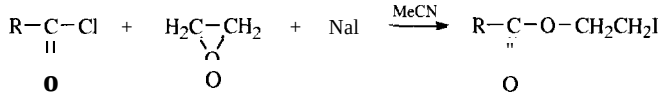
10-72 *Formation of Halohydrins from Epoxides*

(3)*OC-seco*-HALO-DE-ALKOXYLATION



This is a special case of **10-71** and is frequently used for the preparation of halohydrins. In contrast to the situation with open-chain ethers and with larger rings, many epoxides react with all four hydrohalic acids, though with HF[1197] the reaction is unsuccessful with simple aliphatic and cycloalkyl epoxides.[1198] Hydrogen fluoride does react with more rigid epoxides, such as those in steroid systems. The reaction can be applied to simple epoxides[1199] if polyhydrogen fluoride-pyridine is the reagent. The epoxide-to-fluorohydrin conversion has also been carried out with SiF_4 and a tertiary amine.[1200] Chloro-, bromo-, and iodohydrins can also be prepared[1201] by treating epoxides with Ph_3P and X_2,[1202] with $SnCl_2/Mg$,[1203] LiBr on Amberlyst-15 resin,[1204] $TiCl_4$–LiCl,[1205] $SiCl_4$ and HMPA,[1206] chlorotrimethylsilane and phosphaferrocene,[1207] and reaction with LiI on silica gel leads to iodohydins.[1208] Epoxides can be converted directly to 1,2-dichloro compounds by treatment with $SOCl_2$ and pyridine,[1209] or with Ph_3P and CCl_4.[1210] These are two-step reactions: A halohydrin is formed first and is then converted by the reagents to the dihalide **(10-70).** As expected, inversion is found at both carbons. Meso epoxides were cleaved enantioselectively with the chiral reagents B-halodiisopinocampheylboranes (see **15-16),** where the halogen was Cl, Br, or I.[1211]

Acyl chlorides react with ethylene oxide in the presence of NaI to give 2-iodoethyl esters.[1212]

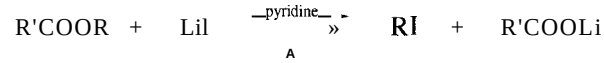


Acyl chlorides react with epoxides in the presence of a Eu(dpm)3 catalyst[1213] or a $YC_{p2}Cl$ catalyst[1214] (where C_p is cyclopentadienyl) to give chloro esters. A related reaction with epi-sulfides leads to 2-chlorothio-esters.[1215] Aziridines have been opened with $MgBr_2$ to give 2-haloamides in a related reaction.[1216]

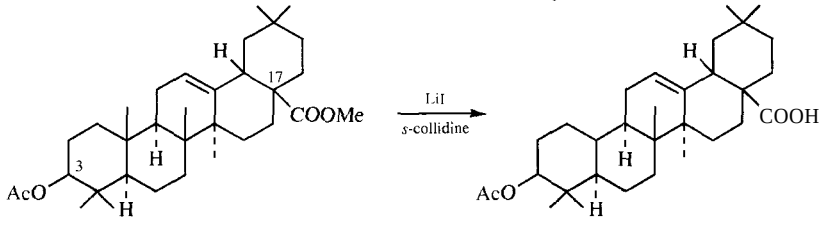
OS I, 117; VI, 424; IX, 220.

10-73 *Cleavage of Carboxylic Esters With Lithium Iodide*

IODO-DE-ACYLOXY-SUBSTITUTION



Carboxylic esters where R is methyl or ethyl can be cleaved by heating with lithium iodide in refluxing pyridine or a higher boiling amine.[1217] The reaction is useful where a molecule is sensitive to acid and base (so that **10-10** cannot be used) or where it is desired to cleave selectively only one ester group in a molecule containing two or more. For example, refluxing *O*-acetyloleanolic acid methyl ester



with LiI in *s*-collidine cleaved only the 17-carbomethoxy group, not the 3-acetyl group.[1218] Esters RCOOR' and lactones can also be cleaved with a mixture of Me_3SiCl and NaI to give R'I and RCOOH.[1219]

10-74 *Conversion of Diazo Ketones to* α-Halo Ketones

HYDRO, HALO-DE-DIAZO-BISUBSTITUTION

$$RCOCHN_2 + HBr \longrightarrow RCOCH_2Br$$

When diazo ketones are treated with HBr or HC1, they give the respective α-halo ketones, but HI does not give the reaction, since it reduces the product to a methyl ketone **(10-87).** α-Fluoro ketones can be prepared by addition of the diazo ketone to polyhydrogen fluoride-pyridine.[1220] This method is also successful for diazoalkanes.

Diazotization of α-amino acids in the above solvent at room temperature gives α-fluoro carboxylic acids.[1221] If this reaction is run in the presence of excess KC1 or KBr, the corresponding α-chloro or α-bromo acid is obtained instead.[1222]

OS III, 119.

10-75 *Conversion of Amines to Halides*

HALO-DE-AMINATION

$$RNH_2 \longrightarrow RNTs_2 \xrightarrow[DMF]{I^-} RI$$

Primary alkyl amines RNH_2 can be converted[1223] to alkyl halides by (1) conversion to $RNTs_2$ (p. 447) and treatment of this with I^- or Br^- in DMF,[372] or to $N(Ts)-NH_2$ derivatives followed by treatment with NBS under photolysis conditions,[1224] (2) diazotization with tert-butyl nitrite and a metal halide such as $TiCl_4$ in DMF,[1225] or (3) the Katritzky pyrylium-pyridinium method (pp. 447, 489).[1226] Alkyl groups can be cleaved from secondary and tertiary aromatic amines by concentrated HBr in a reaction similar to **10-71,** for example,[1227]

$$ArNR_2 + HBr \longrightarrow RBr + ArNHR$$

Tertiary aliphatic amines are also cleaved by HI, but useful products are seldom obtained. Tertiary amines can be cleaved by reaction with phenyl chloroformate:[1228] $R_3N + ClCOOPh \rightarrow RC1 + R_2NCOOPh$. α-Chloroethyl chloroformate behaves similarly.[1229] Alkyl halides may be formed when quaternary ammonium salts are heated: $R_4N^+X^- \rightarrow R_3N + RX$.[1230]

OS VIII, 119. See also OS I, 428.

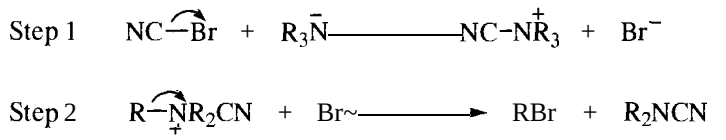
10-76 *Conversion of Tertiary Amines to Cyanamides: The von Braun Reaction*

BROMO-DE-DIALKYLAMINO-SUBSTITUTION

$$R_3NH + BrCN \longrightarrow R_2NCN + RBr$$

The *von Braun reaction*, which involves the cleavage of tertiary amines by cyanogen bromide to give an alkyl bromide and a disubstituted cyanamide, has been applied to many tertiary amines.[1231] Usually, the R group that cleaves is the one that gives the most reactive halide (e.g., benzyl or allyl). For simple alkyl groups, the smallest are the most readily cleaved. One or two of the groups on the amine may be aryl, but they do not cleave. Cyclic amines have been frequently cleaved by this reaction. Secondary amines also give the reaction, but the results are usually poor.[1232]

The mechanism consists of two successive nucleophilic substitutions, with the tertiary amine as the first nucleophile and the liberated bromide ion as the second:



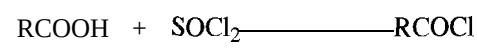
The intermediate *N*-cyanoammonium bromide has been trapped, and its structure confirmed by chemical, analytical, and spectral data.[1233] The BrCN in this reaction has been called a *counterattack reagent;* that is, a reagent that accomplishes, in one flask, two transformations designed to give the product.[1234]

OS III, 608.

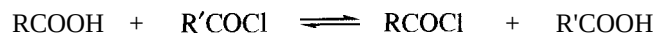
B. *Attack at an Acyl Carbon*

10-77 *Formation of Acyl Halides from Carboxylic Acids*

HALO-DE-HYDROXYLATION



The same inorganic acid halides that convert alcohols to alkyl halides (10-70) also convert carboxylic acids to acyl halides.[1235] The reaction is the best and the most common method for the preparation of acyl chlorides. Bromides and iodides[1236] are also made in this manner, but much less often. Acyl bromides can be prepared with BBr_3 on alumina.[1237] Thionyl chloride[1144] is the best reagent, since the byproducts are gases and the acyl halide is easily isolated, but PX_3 and PX_5 (X = Cl or Br) are also commonly used.[1238] Hydrogen halides do not give the reaction. A particularly mild procedure, similar to one mentioned in 10-70, involves reaction of the acid with Ph_3P in CCl_4, whereupon acyl chlorides are produced without obtaining any acidic compound as a byproduct.[1239] Acyl fluorides can be prepared by treatment of carboxylic acids with cyanuric fluoride.[1240] Acid salts are also sometimes used as substrates. Acyl halides are also used as reagents in an exchange reaction:



which probably involves an anhydride intermediate. This is an equilibrium reaction that must be driven to the desired side. Oxalyl chloride and bromide are frequently

used as the acyl halide reagent, since oxalic acid decomposes to CO and CO_2, and the equilibrium is thus driven to the side of the other acyl halide.

OS **I,** 12, 147, 394; **II,** 74, 156, 169, 569; **III,** 169, 490, 547, 555, 613, 623, 712, 714; IV, 34, 88, 154, 263, 339, 348, 554, 608, 616, 620, 715, 739, 900; **V,** 171, 258, 887; **VI,** 95, 190, 549, 715; **VII,** 467; **VIII,** 441, 486, 498.

10-78 *Formation of Acyl Halides from Acid Derivatives*

HALO-DE-ACYLOXY-SUBSTITUTION
HALO-DE-HALOGENATION

$$(RCO)_2O + HF \longrightarrow RCOF$$

$$RCOCl + HF \longrightarrow RCOF$$

These reactions are most important for the preparation of acyl fluorides.[1241] Acyl chlorides and anhydrides can be converted to acyl fluorides by treatment with polyhydrogen fluoride-pyridine solution[1162] or with liquid HF at $-10°C$.[1242] Formyl fluoride, which is a stable compound, was prepared by the latter procedure from the mixed anhydride of formic and acetic acids.[1243] Acyl fluorides can also be obtained by reaction of acyl chlorides with KF in acetic acid[1244] or with DAST.[1245] Carboxylic esters and anhydrides can be converted to acyl halides other than fluorides by the inorganic acid halides mentioned in **10-77,** as well as with Ph_3PX_2 (X = Cl or Br),[1246] but this is seldom done. Halide exchange can be carried out in a similar manner. When halide exchange is done, it is always acyl bromides and iodides that are made from chlorides, since chlorides are by far the most readily available.[1247]

OS II, 528; **III,** 422; V, 66, 1103; IX, 13. See also OS IV, 307.

Hydrogen as Nucleophile

The reactions in this section **(10-79-10-91)** are reductions and could have been considered in Chapter 19. They are treated here because they involve replacement of a leaving group by hydrogen, which frequently attacks as the nucleophile hydride ion. However, not all the reactions in this section are true nucleophilic substitutions and for some of them more than one kind of mechanism may be involved, depending on the reagents and on the conditions. When cleavage of a carbon-heteroatom bond is accomplished by catalytic hydrogenation, the reaction is called *hydrogenolysis.*

A. *Attack at an Alkyl Carbon*

10-79 *Reduction of Alkyl Halides*

HYDRO-DE-HALOGENATION OR DEHALOGENATION

$$RX \longrightarrow RH$$

This type of reduction can be accomplished with many reducing agents,[1248] the most common being lithium aluminum hydride ($LiAlH_4$).[1249] This reagent reduces almost all types of alkyl halide, including vinylic, bridgehead, and cyclopropyl halides.[1250] Reduction with lithium aluminum deuteride serves to introduce deuterium into organic compounds. An even more powerful reducing agent, reportedly the strongest S_N2 nucleophile known, is lithium triethylborohydride $LiEt_3BH$. This reagent rapidly reduces primary, secondary, allylic, benzylic, and neopentyl halides, but not tertiary (these give elimination) or aryl halides.[1251] Another powerful reagent, which reduces primary, secondary, tertiary, allylic, vinylic, aryl, and neopentyl halides, is a complex formed from lithium trimethoxyaluminum hydride, $LiAlH(OMe)_3$, and CuI.[1252] A milder reducing agent is $NaBH_4$ in a dipolar aprotic solvent such as Me_2SO, DMF, or sulfolane,[1253] which at room temperature or above reduces primary, secondary, and some tertiary[1254] halides in good yield without affecting other functional groups that would be reduced by $LiAlH_4$, for example, COOH, COOR, and CN.[1255] Borohydride exchange resin is also an effective reducing agent in the presence of metal catalysts such as $Ni(OAc)_2$.[1256] Other reducing agents[1257] are zinc (with acid or base); $SnCl_2$; tris(trimethylsilyl)silane, $(Me_3Si)_3SiH$–$NaBH_4$;[1258] SmI_2–THF–HMPA;[1259] and Et_3SiH in the presence of $AlCl_3$.[1260] The last two methods are good for primary, secondary, and tertiary halides. Diethyl phosphonate–Et_3N,[1261] phosphorus tris(dimethylamide), $(Me_2N)_3P$,[1262] a metal carbonyl such as $Fe(CO)_5$ and a hydrogen donor,[1263] or organotin hydrides R_nSnH_{4-n}[1264] (chiefly Bu_3SnH)[1265] can be used to reduce just one halogen of a *gem*-dihalide or a 1,1,1-trihalide.[1266] The organotin hydride ($MeOCH_2CH_2OCH_2CH_2CH_2)_3SnH$ reduces alkyl halides and is water soluble, unlike Bu_3SnH.[1267] Reduction, especially of bromides and iodides, can also be effected by catalytic hydrogenation,[1268] and electrochemically.[1269] A good reducing agent for the removal of all halogen atoms in a polyhalo compound (including vinylic, allylic, geminal, and even bridgehead halogens) is lithium[1270] or sodium[1271] and *t*-BuOH in THF. Propargylic halides can often be reduced with allylic rearrangement to give allenes.[1272]

$$R_2\underset{\displaystyle X}{\underset{|}{C}}-C^- \equiv CH \xrightarrow{LiAlH_4} R_2C{=}C = CH$$

The choice of a reducing agent usually depends on what other functional groups are present. Each reducing agent reduces certain groups and not others. This type of selectivity is called *chemoselectivity.* A chemoselective reagent is one that reacts with one functional group (e.g., halide) but not another (e.g., C=O). For example, there are several reagents that reduce only the halogen of α-halo ketones, leaving the carbonyl group intact.[1273] Among them are polymer-supported triphenylphosphine,[1274] aqueous HI,[1275] Bi in aqueous THF,[1276] NaI in aqueous acid-THF,[1277] *i*-Bu_2AlH–$SnCl_2$,[1278] and $MeSiCl_3$–NaI.[515] Both $NaBH_3CN$–$SnCl_2$.[1279] and the *n*-butyllithium ate complex (p. 338) of *B*-*n*-butyl-9-BBN (see p. 1013)[1280] reduce tertiary alkyl, benzylic, and allylic halides, but do not react with primary or secondary alkyl or aryl halides. Another highly selective reagent, in this case for

primary and secondary iodo and bromo groups, is sodium cyanoborohydride $NaBH_3CN$ in HMPA.[1281] Most of the reducing agents mentioned reduce chlorides, bromides, and iodides, but organotin hydrides also reduce fluorides.[1282] See page 1544 for a discussion of selectivity in reduction reactions.

With $LiAlH_4$ and most other metallic hydrides, the mechanism usually consists of simple nucleophilic substitution with attack by hydride ion that may or may not be completely free. The mechanism is S_N2 rather than S_N1, since primary halides react better than secondary or tertiary (tertiary generally give alkenes or do not react at all) and since Walden inversion has been demonstrated. However, rearrangements found in the reduction of bicyclic tosylates with $LiAlH_4$ indicate that the S_N1 mechanism can take place.[1283] There is evidence that $LiAlH_4$ and other metal hydrides can also reduce halides by an SET mechanism,[1284] especially those, such as vinylic,[1285] cyclopropyl,[1286] or bridgehead halides, that are resistant to nucleophilic substitution. Reduction of halides by $NaBH_4$ in 80% aqueous diglyme[1287] and by BH_3 in nitromethane[1288] takes place by an S_N1 mechanism. Sodium borohydride in sulfolane reduces tertiary halides possessing a β hydrogen by an elimination–addition mechanism.[1289]

With other reducing agents the mechanism is not always nucleophilic substitution. For example, reductions with organotin hydrides generally[1290] take place by free-radical mechanisms,[1291] as do those with $Fe(CO)_5$. Alkyl halides, including fluorides and polyhalides, can be reduced with magnesium and a secondary or tertiary alcohol (most often 2-propanol).[1292] This is actually an example of the occurrence in one step of the sequence:

$$RX \longrightarrow RMgX \xrightarrow{H^+} RH$$

More often the process is carried out in two separate steps **(12-36** and **12-22).**

OS I, 357, 358, 548; **II,** 320, 393; **V,** 424; **VI,** 142, 376, 731; **VIII,** 82. See also OS **VIII,** 583.

10-80 *Reduction of Tosylates and Similar Compounds*

HYDRO-DE-SULFONYLOXY SUBSTITUTION

$$RCH_2OTs + LiAlH_4 \longrightarrow RCH_3$$

Tosylates and other sulfonates can be reduced[1293] with $LiAlH_4$,[1294] with $NaBH_4$ in a dipolar aprotic solvent,[1295] with $LiEt_3BH$, with *i*-Bu_2AlH (DIBAL-H, diisobutylaluminum hydride),[1296] or with Bu_3SnH–NaI.[1297] The scope of the reaction seems to be similar to that of **10-79.** When the reagent is $LiAlH_4$, alkyl tosylates are reduced more rapidly than iodides or bromides if the solvent is Et_2O, but the order is reversed in diglyme.[1298] The reactivity difference is great enough so that a tosylate function can be reduced in the presence of a halide and vice versa. Tertiary allyl–cyclopropyl tosylates have been reduced with BuZnCl and a palladium catalyst.[1299]

OS **VI,** 376, 762; **VIII,** 126. See also OS **VII,** 66.

10-81 *Hydrogenolysis of Alcohols*[1300]

HYDRO-DE-HYDROXYLATION OR DEHYDROXYLATION

$$ROH + H_2 \xrightarrow{\text{catalyst}} RH$$

The hydroxyl groups of most alcohols can seldom be cleaved by catalytic hydrogenation and alcohols are often used as solvents for hydrogenation of other compounds. However, benzyl-type alcohols undergo the reaction readily and have often been reduced.[1301] Diaryl and triarylcarbinols are similarly easy to reduce and this has been accomplished with $LiAlH_4$–$AlCl_3$,[1302] with $NaBH_4$ in F_3CCOOH,[1303] and with iodine, water, and red phosphorus (OS I, 224). Other reagents have been used,[1304] among them PPh_3/diethyl-azo-dicarboxylate and arylsulfonyl hydrazine,[1305] PPh_3 and electrolysis,[1306] Me_3SiCl–MeI–MeCN,[1307] Et_3SiH–BF_3,[1308] SmI_2–THF–HMPA,[1309] and tin and HC1. 1,3-Diols are especially susceptible to hydrogenolysis. Tertiary alcohols can be reduced by catalytic hydrogenolysis when the catalyst is Raney nickel.[1310] Allylic alcohols (and ethers and acetates) can be reduced (often with accompanying allylic rearrangement) with Zn amalgam and HC1, as well as with certain other reagents.[1311] α-Acetylenic alcohols are converted to alkynes by reduction of their cobalt carbonyl complexes with $NaBH_4$ and CF_3COOH.[1312] Reagents that reduce the OH group of α-hydroxy ketones without affecting the C=O group include lithium diphenylphosphide (Ph_2PLi),[1313] red phosphorus–iodine,[1314] and Me_3SiI.[1315]

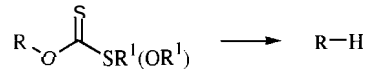
Alcohols can also be reduced indirectly by conversion to a sulfonate and reduction of that compound **(10-80).** The two reactions can be carried out without isolation of the sulfonate if the alcohol is treated with pyridine–SO_3 in THF, and then $LiAlH_4$ added.[1316] Another indirect reduction that can be done in one step involves treatment of the alcohol (primary, secondary, or benzylic) with NaI, Zn, and Me_3SiCl.[1317] In this case the alcohol is first converted to the iodide, which is reduced. For other indirect reductions of OH, see **10-86.**

The mechanisms of most alcohol reductions are obscure.[1318] Hydrogenolysis of benzyl alcohols can give inversion or retention of configuration, depending on the catalyst.[1319]

OS I, 224; IV, 25, 218, 482; V, 339; VI, 769.

10-82 *Hydrogenolysis of esters (Barton–McCombie Reaction)*

HYDRO-DE-THIOACETOXYLATION



Alcohols can readily be converted to carbonate and thiocarbonate derivatives. Under radical conditions,[1320] using azobisisobutyronitrile (AIBN) and Bu_3SnH, the carbonate or thiocarbonate unit is reduced and replaced with hydrogen. The overall process is reduction of the ROH unit to RH. This is called the Barton–McCombie

reaction.[1321] When R is cyclododecane (OCSOR), for example, this reduction yields the parent cyclododecane in 76% yield.[1322] When R = cyclododecane (OCSSMe), treatment with $Bu_3P{=}O$ and AIBN gives the alkane in 94% yield.[1323] Both $PhSiH_3$/AIBN[1324] and $PhSiH_2{-}BEt_3{\cdot}O_2$ can be used.[1325] This reaction can be catalytic in Bu_3SnH.[1326] variations include reduction of ROCSNHPh derivatives using Ph_3SiH/BEt_3.[1327]

10-83 *Hydrogenolysis of Nitrites*

HYDRO-DE-CYANATION

$$\text{R-CN} \longrightarrow \text{R-H}$$

This transformation is not common, but given the proliferation of nitriles in organic chemistry, it is potentially quite useful. In the presence of mercuric compounds, tertiary nitriles can be reduced to the hydrocarbon with sodium cyanoborohydride.[1328] *gem*-Dinitriles can be reduced to the corresponding mononitrile with SmI_2.[1329]

10-84 *Replacement of Alkoxyl by Hydrogen*

HYDRO-DE-ALKOXYLATION OR DEALKOXYLATION

$$\text{—C(OR)}_2 \xrightarrow{\text{LiAlH}_4-\text{AlCl}_3} \text{—CHOR} + \text{ROH}$$

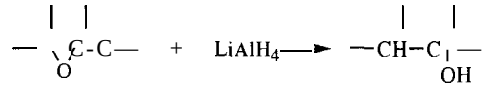
$$\text{—C(OR)}_2 \xrightarrow{\text{LiAlH}_4} \text{—CH(OR)}_2 + \text{ROH}$$

Simple ethers are not normally cleaved by reducing agents, although such cleavage has sometimes been reported[1330] [e.g., THF treated with $LiAlH_4$–$AlCl_3$[1331] or with a mixture of $LiAlH(O\text{—}t\text{—}Bu)_3$ and Et_3B[1332] gave 1-butanol; the latter reagent also cleaves methyl alkyl ethers].[1333] Certain types of ethers can be cleaved quite well by reducing agents.[1334] Among these are allyl aryl,[1335] vinyl aryl,[1336] benzylic ethers,[1301,1337] and anisole (for epoxides, see **10-85**).[1338] 7-Oxobicyclo[2.2.1]heptanes can be reductively cleaved with DIBAL and nickel catalysts.[1339] α-Methoxy ketones are demethoxylated ($O{=}C{-}COMe \rightarrow O{=}C{-}CH$) with SmI_2.[1340] Acetals and ketals are resistant to $LiAlH_4$ and similar hydrides, and carbonyl groups are often converted to acetals or ketals for protection. However, a combination of $LiAlH_4$ and $AlCl_3$[1341] does reduce acetals and ketals, removing one group, as shown above.[1342] The actual reducing agents in this case are primarily chloroaluminum hydride (AlH_2Cl) and dichloroaluminum hydride ($AlHCl_2$), which are formed from the reagents.[1343] This conversion can also be accomplished with DIBAL-H,[1344] as well as with other reagents.[1345] Ortho esters are easily reduced to acetals by $LiAlH_4$ alone, offering a route to aldehydes, which are easily prepared by hydrolysis of the acetals (10-6). Mixed ketals, $R(OMe)OR'$, can be demethoxylated (to give RHOR') with $Bn_3SnCl/NaCHBH_3$ in the presence of AIBN.[1346]

OS **III,** 693; **IV,** 798; V, 303. Also see OS **III,** 742; **VII,** 386.

10-85 *Reduction of Epoxides*

(3)*OC-SECO*-HYDRO-DE-ALKOXYLATION



Reduction of epoxides is a special case of 10-84 and is easily carried out.[1347] The most common reagent is $LiAlH_4$,[1348] which reacts by the S_N2 mechanism, giving inversion of configuration. An epoxide on a substituted cyclohexane ring cleaves in such a direction as to give an axial alcohol. As expected for an S_N2 mechanism, cleavage usually occurs so that a tertiary alcohol is formed if possible. If not, a secondary alcohol is preferred. However, for certain substrates, the epoxide ring can be opened the other way by reduction with $NaBH_4$–$ZrCl_4$,[1349] Pd/C and $HCOONH_4$,[1350] SiO_2–$Zn(BH_4)_2$,[1351] Cp_2TiCl,[1352] or with BH_3 in THF.[1353] The reaction has also been carried out with other reagents, for example, sodium amalgam in EtOH, Li in ethylenediamine,[1354] Bu_3SnH–NaI,[1355] and by catalytic hydrogenolysis.[1356] Chemoselective and regioselective ring opening (e.g., of allylic epoxides and of epoxy ketones and esters) has been achieved with SmI_2,[1357] sodium bis(2-methoxyethoxy)aluminum hydride (Red-Al),[1358] and H_2 and a Pd-phosphine catalyst.[1359] Highly hindered epoxides can be conveniently reduced, without rearrangement, with lithium triethylborohydride.[1360]

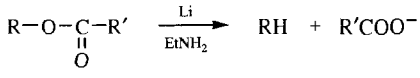
Epi-sulfides can be reduced to give the alkene using Bu_3SnH in the presence of BEt_3.[1361]

Epoxides can be reductively halogenated (the product is the alkyl bromide or iodide rather than the alcohol) with Me_3SiCl–NaX–$(Me_2SiH)_2O$ (1,1,3,3-tetramethyldisiloxane).[1362]

See 19-40 for another type of epoxide reduction.

10-86 *Reductive Cleavage of Carboxylic Esters*

HYDRO-DE-ACYLOXYLATION OR DEACYLOXYLATION



The alkyl group R of certain carboxylic esters can be reduced to RH[1363] by treatment with lithium in ethylamine.[1364] The reaction is successful when R is a tertiary or a sterically hindered secondary alkyl group. A free-radical mechanism is likely.[1365] Similar reduction, also by a free-radical mechanism, has been reported with sodium in HMPA-*t*-BuOH.[1366] In the latter case, tertiary R groups give high yields of RH, but primary and secondary R are converted to a mixture of RH and ROH. Both of these methods provide an indirect method of accomplishing 10-81 for tertiary R.[1367] The same thing can be done for primary and secondary R by treating alkyl chloroformates (ROCOCl) with tri-*n*-propylsilane in the presence of *tert*-butyl peroxide[1368] and by treating thiono ethers ROC(=S)W (where W can be OAr or other

groups) with Ph_2SiH_2[1369] or Ph_3SiH[1370] and a free-radical initiator. Allylic acetates can be reduced with $NaBH_4$ and a palladium complex,[1371] and with SmI_2—Pd(0).[1372] The last reagent converts propargylic acetates to allenes $R^1C{=}C{=}CR^2R_3OAc \rightarrow R^1CH{=}C{=}CR^2R^3$.[1372] For other carboxylic ester reductions, see **19-36**, **19-38**, and **19-39.**

It is noted that acid chlorides can be reduced (R—COCl → R—H) using $(Me_3Si)_3SiH/AIBN$.[1373]

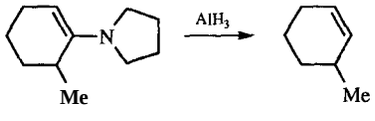
OS **VII,** 139.

10-87 *Reduction of the C–N Bond*

HYDRO-DE-AMINATION OR DEAMINATION

$$RNH_2 + NH_2OSO_2OH \xrightarrow[0°C]{OH^-} RH + N_2 + SO_4^{-2}$$

Primary amines have been reduced to RH with hydroxylamine-*O*-sulfonic acid and aqueous NaOH.[1374] It is postulated that R—N=N—H is an intermediate that decomposes to the carbocation. The reaction has also been accomplished with difluoroamine (HNF_2);[1375] the same intermediates are postulated in this case. Treatment of aniline with 20 equivalents of NO gave benzene.[1376] An indirect means of achieving the same result is the conversion of the primary amine to the sulfonamide ($RNHSO_2R'$) **(10-126)** and treatment of this with NH_2OSO_2OH[1377] or NaOH, and then NH_2Cl.[1378] Other indirect methods involve reduction of N,N-ditosylates (p. 447) with $NaBH_4$ in HMPA[1379] and modifications of the Katritzky pyrylium–pyridinium method.[1380] Allylic and benzylic amines[1301] can be reduced by catalytic hydrogenolysis. Aziridines can be reductively opened with SmI_2[1381] or with Bu_3SnH and AIBN.[1382] Enamines are cleaved to alkenes with alane (AlH_3),[1383] for example,



and with 9-BBN (p. 1013) or borane methyl sulfide (BMS).[1384] Since enamines can be prepared from ketones **(16-12),** this is a way of converting ketones to alkenes. In the latter case, BMS gives retention of configuration [an (*E*) isomer gives the (*E*) product] while 9-BBN gives the other isomer.[1384] Diazo ketones are reduced to methyl ketones by HI: $RCOCHN_2 + HI \rightarrow RCOCH_3$.[1385]

Quaternary ammonium salts can be cleaved with $LiAlH_4$ as can quaternary

$$R_4N^+ + LiALH_4 \longrightarrow R_3N + RH$$

phosphonium salts R_4P^+. Other reducing agents have also been used, for example, lithium triethylborohydride (which preferentially cleaves methyl groups)[1386] and sodium in liquid ammonia. When quaternary salts are reduced with sodium amalgam in water, the reaction is known as the *Emde reduction.* However, this reagent is not applicable to the cleavage of ammonium salts with four *saturated*

alkyl groups. Of course, aziridines[1356] can be reduced in the same way as epoxides **(10-85).**

Nitro compounds RNO_2 can be reduced to RH[1387] by sodium methylmercaptide CH_3SNa in an aprotic solvent[1388] or by Bu_3SnH.[1389] Both reactions have free-radical mechanisms.[1390] Tertiary nitro compounds can be reduced to RH by NaHTe.[1391] The compound Bu_3SnH also reduces isocyanides (RNC, prepared from RNH_2 by formylation followed by **17-33)** to **RH,**[1392] a reaction that can also be accomplished with Li or Na in liquid NH_3,[1393] or with K and a crown ether in toluene.[1394] α-Nitro ketones can be reduced to ketones with $Na_2S_2O_4$– Et_3SiH in HMPA-H2O.[1395]

Hydrogenolysis with a Pt catalyst in the gas phase has been reported to reduce nitro compounds, as well as primary and secondary amines.[1396]

OS **III,** 148; **IV,** 508; **VIII,** 152.

10-88 *Desulfurization*

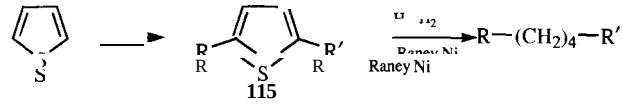
HYDRO-DE-THIO-SUBSTITUTION, AND SO ON,

$$RSH \longrightarrow RH$$
$$RSR' \longrightarrow RH + R'H$$
$$RS(O)_nR' \longrightarrow RH + R'H$$

Thiols and thioethers,[1397] both alkyl and aryl, can be desulfurized by hydrogenolysis with Raney nickel.[1398] The hydrogen is usually not applied externally, since Raney nickel already contains enough hydrogen for the reaction. Other sulfur compounds can be similarly desulfurized, including disulfides, thiono esters,[1399] thioamides, sulfoxides, and thioacetals. Reduction of thioacetals is an indirect way of accomplishing reduction of a carbonyl to a methylene group (see **19-33),** and it can also give the alkene if a hydrogen is present.[1400] In most of the examples given, R can also be aryl. Other reagents[1401] have also been used.[1402]

Lithium aluminum hydride reduces most sulfur compounds with cleavage of the C–S bond, including thiols.[1403] Thioesters can be reduced with Ni_2B (from $NiBr_2$/$NaBH_4$).[1404] β-Ketosulfones are reduced with $TiCl_4$–Zn,[1405] $TiCl_4$–Sm,[1406] or Bu_3SnCl–$NaCNBH_3$/AIBN.[1407]

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:



115

Thiophenes can also be desulfurized to alkenes ($RCH_2CH{=}CHCH_2R'$ from **115)** with a nickel boride catalyst prepared from nickel(II) chloride and $NaBH_4$ in methanol.[1408] It is possible to reduce just one SR group of a dithioacetal by treatment

with borane-pyridine in trifluoroacetic acid or in CH_2Cl_2 in the presence of $AlCl_3$.[1409] Phenyl selenides RSePh can be reduced to RH with Ph_3SnH[1410] and with nickel boride.[1411] Cleavage of the C—Se bond can also be achieved with SmI_2.[1412]

The exact mechanisms of the Raney nickel reactions are still in doubt, though they are probably of the free radical type.[1413] It has been shown that reduction of thiophene proceeds through butadiene and butene, not through 1-butanethiol or other sulfur compounds, that is, the sulfur is removed before the double bonds are reduced. This was demonstrated by isolation of the alkenes and the failure to isolate any potential sulfur-containing intermediates.[1414]

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

B. *Attack at an Acyl Carbon*

10-89 *Reduction of Acyl Halides*

HYDRO-DE-HALOGENATION OR DEHALOGENATION

$$\text{RCOCl} \xrightarrow[-78^\circ\text{C}]{\text{LiAlH(O}-t\text{-Bu)}_3} \text{RCHO}$$

Acyl halides can be reduced to aldehydes[1415] by treatment with lithium tri-*tert*-butoxyaluminum hydride in diglyme at -78°C.[1416] The R group may be alkyl or aryl and may contain many types of substituents, including NO_2, CN, and EtOOC groups. The reaction stops at the aldehyde stage because steric hindrance prevents further reduction under these conditions. Acyl halides can also be reduced to aldehydes by hydrogenolysis with palladium-on-barium sulfate as catalyst. This is called the *Rosenmund reduction.*[1417] A more convenient hydrogenolysis procedure involves palladium-on-charcoal as the catalyst, with ethyldiisopropylamine as acceptor of the liberated HCl and acetone as the solvent.[1418] The reduction of acyl halides to aldehydes has also been carried out[1419] with Bu_3SnH,[1420] with $NaBH_4$ in a mixture of DMF and THF,[1421] with formic acid/NH_4OH,[1422] and with $NaEt_2AlH_2$ if the acyl chloride is pretreated with piperidine.[1423] In some of these cases, the mechanisms are free radical. There are several indirect methods for the conversion of acyl halides to aldehydes, most of them involving prior conversion of the halides to certain types of amides (see **10-91).** There is also a method in which the COOH group is replaced by a completely different CHO group **(10-120).**

OS **III,** 551, 627; **VI,** 529, 1007. Also see OS **III,** 818; VI, 312.

10-90 *Reduction of Carboxylic Acids, Esters, and Anhydrides to Aldehydes*[1424]

HYDRO-DE-HYDROXYLATION OR DEHYDROXYLATION
(OVERALL TRANSFORMATION)

$$\text{RCOOH} \xrightarrow{\text{Li}} \text{RCH=N-Me} \xrightarrow{\text{H}_3\text{O}^+} \text{RCHO}$$

With most reducing agents, reduction of carboxylic acids generally gives the primary alcohol **(19-34)** and the isolation of aldehydes is not feasible. However, simple straight-chain carboxylic acids have been reduced to aldehydes[1425] by treatment with Li in $MeNH_2$ or NH_3 followed by hydrolysis of the resulting imine,[1426] with borane–Me_2S followed by pyridinium chlorochromate,[1427] with thexylchloro(or bromo)borane-Me_2S (see **15-16** for the thexyl group),[1428] $Me_2N{=}CHCl^+Cl^-$ in pyridine,[1429] and with diaminoaluminum hydrides.[1430] Caproic and isovaleric acids have been reduced to aldehydes in 50% yields or better with DIBAL-H (*i*-Bu_2AlH) at -75 to -70°C.[1431] Carboxylic acids can be reduced directly on Claycop–H_2O_2 using microwave irradiation.[1432]

Carboxylic esters have been reduced to aldehydes with DIBALH at -70°C, with diaminoaluminum hydrides,[1430] with $LiAlH_4$–Et_2NH,[1433] and with $NaAlH_4$ at -65° to -45°C, and (for phenolic esters) with $LiAlH(O\text{-}t\text{-}Bu)_3$ at 0°C.[1434] Aldehydes have also been prepared by reducing ethyl thiol esters RCOSEt with Et_3SiH and a Pd–C catalyst.[1435] Pretreatment of the acid with Me_3SiCl followed by reduction with DIBAL-H also gives the aldehyde.[1436] Thioesters have been reduced to the aldehyde with lithium metal in THF at -78°C, followed by quenching with methanol.[1437]

Anhydrides, both aliphatic and aromatic, as well as mixed anhydrides of carboxylic and carbonic acids, have been reduced to aldehydes in moderate yields with disodium tetracarbonylferrate $Na_2Fe(CO)_4$.[1438] Heating a carboxylic acid, presumably to form the anhydride, and then reaction with Na/EtOH leads to the aldehyde.[1439]

Acid chlorides are reduced to aldehydes with Bu_3SnH and $Ni(dppe)Cl_2$ [1,2-bis(diphenylphosphino)ethane = dppe].[1440] Also see **19-36** and **19-38.**

OS VI, 312; **VIII,** 241,498.

10-91 *Reduction of Amides to Aldehydes*

HYDRO-DE-DIALKYLAMINO SUBSTITUTION

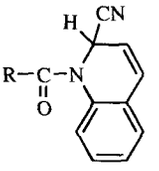
$$RCONR'_2 + LiAlH_4 \longrightarrow RCHO + NHR_2$$

N,N-Disubstituted amides can be reduced to amines with $LiAlH_4$ (see **19-35),** but also to aldehydes.[1441] Keeping the amide in excess gives the aldehyde rather than the amine. Sometimes it is not possible to prevent further reduction and primary alcohols are obtained instead. Other reagents[1442] that give good yields of aldehydes are DIBAL-H,[1443] $LiAlH(O\text{-}t\text{-}Bu)_3$, diaminoaluminum hydrides,[1444] disiamylborane (see **15-16** for the disiamyl group),[1445] and Ph_2SiH_2–$Ti(O\text{-}i\text{-}Pr)_4$.[1446]

Aldehydes have been prepared from carboxylic acids or acyl halides by first converting them to certain types of amides that are easily reducible. The following are some examples:[1447]

1. *Reissert compounds*[1448] **(116)** are prepared from the acyl halide by treatment with quinoline and cyanide ion. Treatment of **116** with sulfuric acid gives the

corresponding aldehyde.



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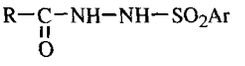

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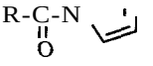

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2. Acyl sulfonylhydrazides **(117)** are cleaved with base to give aldehydes. This is known as the *McFadyen–Stevensreduction* and is applicable only to aromatic aldehydes or aliphatic aldehydes with no a hydrogen.[1449] RCON=NH (see 10-87) has been proposed as an intermediate in this reaction.[1450]
3. Imidazoles (**111**)[744] can be reduced to aldehydes with $LiAlH_4$.
4. See also the Sonn–Müller method **(16-26).**

OS VIII, 68. See OS **IV,** 641, **VI,** 115 for the preparation of Reissert compounds.

Carbon Nucleophiles

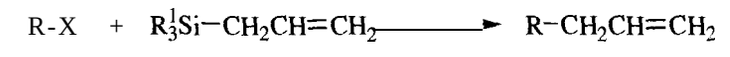
In any heterolytic reaction in which a new carbon-carbon bond is formed[1451] one carbon atoms attacks as a nucleophile and the other as an electrophile. The classification of a given reaction as nucleophilic or electrophilic is a matter of convention and is usually based on analogy. Although not discussed in this chapter, **11-12-11-28** and **12-14-12-19** are nucleophilic substitutions with respect to one reactant, though, following convention, we classify them with respect to the other. Similarly, all the reactions in this section **(10-93-10-123)** would be called electrophilic substitution (aromatic or aliphatic) if we were to consider the reagent as the substrate.

A. *Attack at an Alkyl Carbon*

In 10-93-10-102 the nucleophile is a "carbanion" part of an organometallic compound and is often a Grignard reagent. There is much that is still not known about the mechanisms of these reactions and many of them are not nucleophilic substitutions at all. In those reactions that are nucleophilic substitutions, the attacking carbon brings a pair of electrons with it to the new C–C bond, whether or not free carbanions are actually involved. The connection of two alkyl or aryl groups is called *coupling.* Reactions **10-93-10-102** include both symmetrical and unsymmetrical coupling reactions. The latter are also called *cross-coupling reactions.* Other coupling reactions are considered in chapters 13, 14, 15, 16, and 19.

10-92 *Coupling with Silanes*

DE-SILYLALKYL-COUPLING



Organosilanes ($RSiMe_3$ or $RSiMe_2F$, where R can be vinylic, allylic, or alkynyl) couple with vinylic, allylic, and aryl bromides and iodides R'X, in the presence of certain catalysts, to give RR' in good yields.[1452] The transition metal catalyzed coupling of silanes, particularly allyl silanes, is a relatively new and mild method for incorporating alkyl fragments into a molecule. The compound $PhSiMe_2Cl$ couples to give biphenyl in the presence of CuI and Bu_4NF,[1453] and vinyl silanes have been similarly coupled to give dienes.[1454] In a typical reaction, vinyl silanes react with allylic carbonates and a palladium catalyst to give the coupling product.[1455] Homoallyl silanes coupled to Ph_3BiF_2 in the presence of $BF_3{\cdot}OEt_2$ to give the phenyl coupling product.[1456]

α-Silyloxy methoxy derivatives, $RCH(OMe)OSiR'_3$, react with allyltrimethylsilane, $Me_3SiCH_2CH{=}CH_2$ in the presence of TiX_4 derivatives to give displacement of the OMe group and $RCH(OSiR'_3)CH_2CH{=}CH_2$.[1457] A tertiary silyloxy group was displaced by allyl in the presence of $ZnCl_2$.[1458] Electrolysis with allyltrimethylsilane and RCH(OMe)SPh leads to $RCH(OMe)CH_2CH{=}CH_2$.[1459] Similar reaction with a dithioacetal leads to the allylic silane.[1460] Allylic acetates react with $Me_3SiSiMe_3$ and LiCl with a palladium catalyst to give the allyl silane.[1461] The $RSiF_3$ reagents can also be used in coupling reaction with aryl halides.[1462]

Allyl silanes react with epoxides, in the presence of $BF_3{\cdot}OEt_2$ to give 2-allyl alcohols.[1463] The reaction of α-bromo lactones and $CH_2{=}CHCH_2Si(SiMe_3)_3$ and AIBN leads to the α-allyl lactone.[1464] Benzyl silanes coupled with allyl silanes to give $ArCH_2{-}R$ derivatives in the presence of $VO(OEt)Cl_2$[1465] and allyltin compounds couple with allyl silanes in the presence of $SnCl_4$.[1466] Allyl silanes couple to the α-carbon of amines under photolysis conditions.[1467]

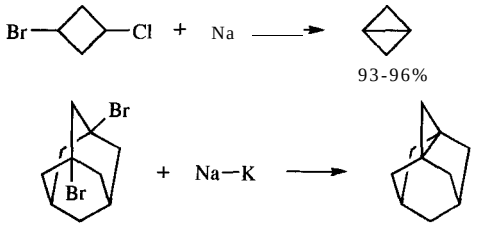
10-93 *Coupling of Alkyl Halides: The Wurtz Reaction*

DE-HALOGEN-COUPLING

$$2\ RX + Na \longrightarrow RR$$

The coupling of alkyl halides by treatment with sodium to give a symmetrical product is called the *Wurtz reaction.* Side reactions (elimination and rearrangement) are so common that the reaction is seldom used. Mixed Wurtz reactions of two alkyl halides are even less feasible because of the number of products obtained. A somewhat more useful reaction (though still not very good) takes place when a mixture of an alkyl and an aryl halide is treated with sodium to give an alkylated aromatic compound (the *Wurtz–Fittig reaction*).[1468] However, the coupling of two aryl halides with sodium is impractical (but see 13-14). Other metals have also been used to effect Wurtz reactions,[1469] notably silver, zinc,[1470] iron,[1471] activated copper,[1472] In,[1473] and $Mn/CuCl_2$.[1474] Lithium, under the influence of ultrasound, has been used to couple alkyl, aryl, and benzylic halides.[1475] Metallic nickel, prepared by the reduction of nickel halides with Li, dimerizes benzylic halides to give $ArCH_2{-}CH_2Ar$.[1476] The coupling of alkyl halides has also been achieved electrochemically[1477] and photochemically.[1478] In a related reaction, Grignard reagents (12-38) have been coupled in the presence of trifluorosulfonic anhydride.[1479]

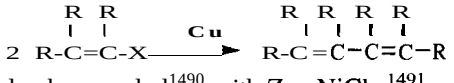
One type of Wurtz reaction that is quite useful is the closing of small rings, especially three-membered rings.[1480] For example, 1,3-dibromopropane can be converted to cyclopropane by Zn and NaI.[1481] Two highly strained molecules that



Tetracyclo[3.3.1^{3,7}.0^{1,3}]decane

have been prepared this way are bicyclobutane[1482] and tetracyclo[3.3.1.1$^{3.7}$.0$^{1.3}$]-decane.[1483] Three- and four-membered rings can also be closed in this manner with certain other reagents,[1484] including benzoyl peroxide,[1485] *t*-BuLi,[1486] and lithium amalgam,[1487] as well as electrochemically.[1488]

Vinylic halides can be coupled to give 1,3-butadienes by treatment with activated copper powder in a reaction analogous to the Ullmann reaction (**13-14**).[1489] This reaction is stereospecific, with retention of configuration at both carbons.



Vinylic halides can also be coupled[1490] with Zn–$NiCl_2$,[1491] with vinyltin reagents and a palladium catalyst,[1492] and with n-BuLi in ether in the presence of $MnCl_2$.[1493]

In a related coupling reaction, the reaction of diethyl 2,7-nonadien-l,9-dioate and Mg/MeOH generated a five-membered ring via coupling of an intermediate radical.[1494] Treatment of conjugated ketones with SmI_2 in HMPA gave the coupled diketone via Wurtz-type coupling.[1495]

It seems likely that the mechanism of the Wurtz reaction consists of two basic steps. The first is halogen-metal exchange to give an organometallic compound (RX + M → RM), which in many cases can be isolated **(12-36).** Following this, the organometallic compound reacts with a second molecule of alkyl halide (RX + RM → RR). This reaction and its mechanism are considered in the next section **(10-94).**

OS **III,** 157; **V,** 328, 1058; VI, 133, 153.

10-94 *The Reaction of Alkyl Halides and Sulfonate Esters With Group I (I A) and II (II A) Organometallic Reagents*[1496]

ALKYL-DE-HALOGENATION (1)

$$R\text{-}Na\,(K)\,(Li) + R'X \longrightarrow R\text{-}R'$$

A variety of organometallic compounds[1497] have been used to couple with alkyl halides.[1498] Organosodium and organopotassium compounds are more reactive than Grignard reagents and couple even with less reactive halides. Organolithium

reagents react with ether solvents, and their half-life in such solvents is known.[1499] The difficulty is in preparing and keeping them long enough for the alkyl halide to be added. Alkenes can be prepared by the coupling of vinylic lithium compounds with primary halides[1500] or of vinylic halides with alkyllithium reagents in the presence of a Pd or Ru catalyst.[1501] Propargyl lithium reagents formed in the presence of mercuric salts couple with halides.[1502] Organolithium reagents formed by Li–H exchange in the presence of (-)-sparteine couple with alkyl halides with high asymmetric induction.[1503] Coupling of such organolithium compounds with alkyl halides[1504] or aryl halides[1505] is also possible.

Grignard reagents can be made to couple with alkyl halides in good yields by the use of certain catalysts,[1506] and stereocontrol is possible in these reactions.[1507] Among these are Cu(I) salts (see 10-105), which permit the coupling of Grignard reagents with primary alkyl halides in good yield (organocopper salts are probably intermediates here),[1508] and iron(III)[1509] or palladium[1510] complexes, which allow the coupling of Grignard reagents and vinylic halides. Vinyl halides also couple with alkyl Grignard reagents in the presence of a catalytic amount of $Fe(acac)_3$, where acac is acetylacetonate[1511] as do vinyl triflates with CuI[1512] or vinyl halides with a cobalt catalyst.[1513] Grignard reagents prepared from primary or secondary[1514] alkyl or aryl halides can be coupled with vinylic or aryl halides in high yields in the presence of a nickel(II) catalyst.[1515] When a chiral nickel(II) catalyst is used, optically active hydrocarbons can be prepared from achiral reagents.[1516] Neopentyl iodides also couple with aryl Grignard reagents in the presence of a nickel(II) catalyst.[1517]

gem-Dichlorides have been prepared by coupling alkyl halides to $RCCl_3$ compounds electrochemically, in an undivided cell with a sacrificial anode:[1518]

$$RCCl_3 + R'X + 2\,e^- \longrightarrow RCCl_2R' + Cl^- + X^-$$

R' could also be Cl, in which case the product bears a CCl_3 group.[1519]

Much study has been devoted to the mechanisms of these reactions,[1520] but firm conclusions are still lacking, in part because the mechanisms vary depending on the metal, the R group, the catalyst, if any, and the reaction conditions. Two basic pathways can be envisioned: a nucleophilic substitution process (which might be S_N1 or S_N2) and a free-radical mechanism. This could be an SET pathway, or some other route that provides radicals. In either case, the two radicals R· and R′· would be in a solvent cage:

$$RX + R'M \longrightarrow \underbrace{[R\cdot + R'\cdot + MX]}_{\text{Solvent cage}} \longrightarrow RR'$$

It is necessary to postulate the solvent cage because, if the radicals were completely free, the products would be about 50% RR', 25% RR, and 25% R'R'. This is generally not the case; in most of these reactions RR' is the predominant or exclusive product.[1521] An example where an S_N2 mechanism has been demonstrated (by the finding of inversion of configuration at R) is the reaction between allylic or benzylic

lithium reagents with secondary halides.[1522] The fact that in some of these cases the reaction can be successfully applied to aryl and vinylic substrates indicates that a simple S_N process cannot be the only mechanism. One possibility is that the reagents first undergo an exchange reaction: ArX + RM → RX + ArM, and then a nucleophilic substitution takes place. On the other hand, there is much evidence that many coupling reactions involving organometallic reagents with simple alkyl groups occur by free-radical mechanisms. Among the evidence[1523] is the observation of CIDNP in reactions of alkyl halides with simple organolithium reagents[1524] (see p. 240), the detection of free radicals by ESR spectroscopy (p. 244),[1525] and the formation of 2,3-dimethyl-2,3-diphenylbutane when the reaction was carried out in the presence of cumene (this product is formed when a free radical abstracts a hydrogen from cumene to give $PhCMe_2$, which dimerizes).[1526] Evidence for free radical mechanisms has also been found for the coupling of alkyl halides with simple organosodium compounds (Wurtz),[1527] with Grignard reagents,[1528] and with lithium dialkylcopper reagents (see **10-105**).[1529] Free radicals have also been implicated in the metal-ion catalyzed coupling of alkyl and aryl halides with Grignard reagents.[1530]

A much older reaction is the coupling of alkyl halides with Grignard reagents.[1531] Grignard reagents have the advantage that they are usually simpler to prepare than the corresponding R'_2CuLi (see 10-105), but the reaction is much narrower in scope. Grignard reagents couple only with active halides: allylic (though allylic rearrangements are common) and benzylic. They also couple with tertiary alkyl halides, but generally in low or moderate yields.[1532] Aryl Grignard reagents usually give better yields in these reactions than alkyl Grignard reagents. Aryl triflates couple with arylmagnesium halides in the presence of a palladium catalyst,[1533] as do vinyl halides with RMgX with a palladium[1534] or nickel catalyst.[1535] It is also possible to couple alkynylmagnesium halides with aryl iodides in the presence of palladium catalysts.[1536] A silica-supported phosphine-palladium(O) medium was used to couple arylmagnesium halides with aryl iodides.[1537] Aryl Grignard reagents couple with alkyl halides, including neopentyl iodide, in the presence of $ZnCl_2$ and a nickel catalyst.[1538]

Because Grignard reagents react with the C=O group (**16-27**, **16-33**), they cannot be used to couple with halides containing ketone, COOR, or amide functions. Though the coupling of Grignard reagents with ordinary alkyl halides is usually not useful for synthetic purposes, small amounts of symmetrical coupling product are commonly formed while Grignard reagents are being prepared.

For symmetrical coupling of organometallic reagents (2 RM → RR), see 14-31-14-33.

OS I, 186; III, 121; IV, 748; VI, 407; VII, 77, 172, 326, 485; VIII, 226, 396; IX, 530; 76, 221.

10-95 *Reaction of Alkyl Halides and Sulfonate Esters With Organocuprates*

ALKYL-DE-HALOGENATION (2)

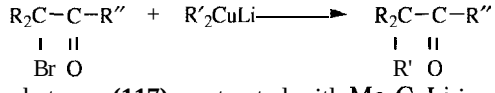
$$RX + R'_2CuLi \longrightarrow R\text{-}R'$$

The reagents lithium dialkylcopper[1539] (dialkyl cuprates, also called *Oilman reagents)*[1540] react with alkyl bromides, chlorides, and iodides in ether or THF to give good yields of the cross-coupling products.[1541] They are prepared (see **12-33)** by the reaction of an organolithium compound with CuI or CuBr, typically, most other Cu(I) compounds can be used. They are usually generated at temperatures lower than 0°C due to the thermal instability of many dialkyl cuprates. The reaction with alkyl halides is of wide scope.[1542] The R group may be primary alkyl, allylic, benzylic, aryl, vinylic, or allenic, and may contain keto, COOH, COOR, or $CONR_2$ groups. Inversion of configuration has been shown in the reaction of 2-bromobutane with Ph_2CuLi[1548] (though the same reaction with 2-iodobutane has been reported to proceed with racemization[1543]). The reaction at a vinylic substrate occurs stereospecifically, with retention of configuration.[1544] When the reagent and substrate are both vinylic, yields are low, but the reaction can be made to go (to give 1,3-butadienes) stereospecifically in high yields by the use of $ZnBr_2$ and a Pd(0) complex.[1545] Many *gem*-dihalides do not react, but when the two halogens are on a carbon a to an aromatic ring[1546] or on a cyclopropane ring,[1547] both halogens can be replaced by R, for example, $PhCHCl_2 \rightarrow PhCHMe_2$. However, 1,2-dibromides give exclusive elimination (17-22).[1548] The R' groups in $R_2'CuLi$ may be primary alkyl, vinylic, allylic, or aryl. Thus, in the reaction as it is described so far, neither R nor R' may be secondary or tertiary alkyl. However, secondary and tertiary alkyl coupling can be achieved (on primary RX) by the use of $R_2'CuLi{\cdot}PBu_3$ (though this procedure introduces problems in the workup)[1549] or by the use of PhS(R')CuLi,[1550] which selectively couples a secondary or tertiary R' with a primary iodide RI to give RR'.[1551]

From the opposite standpoint, coupling to a secondary R can be achieved in high yield with the reagents $R_2'Cu(CN)Li_2$,[1552] where R' is primary alkyl or vinylic (but not aryl),[1553] called higher order mixed cuprates. The reagents $RCu(PPh_2)Li$, $RCu(NR_2')Li$, and $RCu(PR_2')Li$ (R' = cyclohexyl) are more stable than R_2CuLi and can be used at higher temperatures.[1554] They are quite reactive. Both OTf units in $RCH(OTf)_2$ can be replaced with $Me_2(CN)CuLi_2$.[1555] With an allenic substrate, reaction with R(CN)CuLi can give ordinary displacement (with retention of configuration)[1556] or an S_N2' reaction to produce an alkyne.[1557] In the latter case, a chiral allene gave a chiral alkyne. The structures of these "higher order mixed" cuprates has been called into question[1558] by Bertz, who suggested the reagent actually existed as $R_2CuLi{\cdot}LiCN$ in THF.[1559] This was contradicted by Lipshutz.[1560]

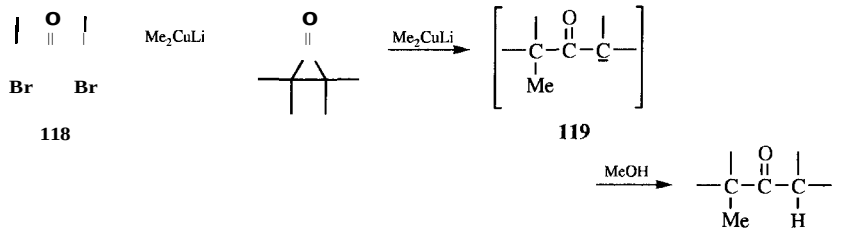
Another type of copper reagent was prepared from RZnI/CuCN, and this was shown to couple with alkenyl halides.[1561]

The fact that $R_2'CuLi$ does not react with ketones provides a method for the alkylation of ketones (see also **10-105** and **10-109**),[1562] though halogen-metal exchange **(12-37)** is a side reaction and can become the main reaction.[1563]



When α,α′-dibromo ketones **(117)** are treated with Me_2CuLi in ether at -78°C and the mixture quenched with methanol, monomethylation takes place (no dimethylation is observed).[1564] It has been suggested that the reaction involves cyclization (10-

93) to a cyclopropanone followed by nucleophilic attack to give the enolate ion 118, which is protonated by the methanol. If methyl iodide is added instead of methanol,



an α,α'-dimethyl ketone is obtained, presumably from S_N2 attack by 118 on methyl iodide (10-105). Only halides that are highly reactive to S_N2 attack (e.g., methyl and benzylic halides) react successfully with 118. Primary, secondary, *and tertiary* monoalkylation of 117 can be achieved if 117 is treated with a lithium *tert*-butoxy(alkyl)copper reagent[1565] instead of Me_2CuLi. For example, 2,6-dibromocyclohexanone, treated with lithium *tert*-butoxy(*tert*-butyl)copper, gave 66% *2-tert*-butylcyclohexanone. This is one of the few methods for introducing a tertiary alkyl group a to a carbonyl group. When dialkylcopperzinc reagents $R_2CuZnCl$ couple with allylic halides, almost complete allylic rearrangement occurs (S_N2'), and the reaction is diastereoselective if the allylic halide contains a 5 alkoxy group.[1566] When treated with organocopper compounds and Lewis acids (e.g., *n*-$BuCu{\cdot}BF_3$), allylic halides give substitution with almost complete allylic rearrangement, irrespective of the degree of substitution at the two ends of the allylic system.[1567]

OS IX, 502.

10-96 *Reaction of Alkyl Halides and Sulfonate Esters With Other Organometallic Reagents*

ALKYL-DE-HALOGENATION (3)

$$RX + R'-M \longrightarrow R\text{-}R'$$

Arylpalladium salts "ArPdX" prepared from arylmercury compounds and lithium palladium chloride couple with allylic chlorides in moderate yields, though allylic rearrangements can occur.[1568] The advantage of this procedure is that the aryl group may contain nitro, ester, or aldehyde groups, and so on, which cannot be present in a Grignard reagent. Aryl iodides have been coupled to form symmetric biphenyls using $Pd(OAc)_2$[1569] and self-coupling occurs with aryl triflates under electrolysis conditions with a palladium catalyst.[1570] Allylic, benzylic, vinylic, and aryl halides couple with organotin reagents in a reaction catalyzed by palladium complexes.[1571] Such functional groups as COOR, CN, OH, and CHO may be present in either reagent, but the substrate may not bear a (3 hydrogen on an sp^3 carbon, because that results in elimination. Vinyl triflates (trifluoromethylsulfonates) couple with aryltin reagents when a palladium catalyst is present.[1572] Aryl triflates couple with ArZnCl

reagents with a nickel catalyst.[1573] Vinyl halides coupled with vinyltin reagents in the presence of CuI,[1574] and aryl tin compounds couple with aryl iodides in the presence of a palladium catalyst.[1575] Tertiary halides have also been coupled to allyltin reagents in the presence of AIBN.[1576] Alkyl halides can be treated with SmI_2, and then CuBr to give a reactive species that couples with other alkyl halides.[1577] Arylsulfonyl chlorides couple with allyl halides in the presence of bismuth to give allyl–aryls.[1578] Aryl and alkyl halides couple with ArMnCl or RMnCl in the presence of a palladium catalyst,[1579] and vinyl iodides couple with RMnCl with an iron catalyst.[1580] α-Haloketones are coupled with aryl halides using a nickel catalyst.[1581] Arylzinc reagents (formed from the aryl halide and activated Zn) couples with aryl halides in the presence of a palladium catalyst.[1582]

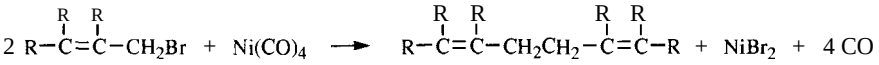
Alkenylboranes ($R'_2C{=}CHBZ_2$; Z = various groups) couple in high yields with vinylic, alkynyl, aryl, benzylic, and allylic halides in the presence of tetrakis(triphenylphosphine)palladium, $Pd(PPh_3)_4$, and a base to give $R'_2C{=}CHR$.[1583] 9-Alkyl-9-BBN compounds (p. 1013) also couple with vinylic and aryl halides[1584] as well as with α-halo ketones, nitriles, and esters.[1585] Aryl halides couple with $ArB(IR_2')$ species with a palladium catalyst.[1586]

Organoaluminum compounds couple very well with tertiary (to give products containing a quaternary carbon) and benzylic halides at -78°C.[1587] This reaction can also be applied to allylic, secondary, and some primary halides, but several days standing at room temperature is required (see also **10-99).** Products containing a quaternary carbon can also be obtained by treatment of tertiary halides with dialkyl or diaryl zinc reagents in CH_2Cl_2,[1588] with Me_4Si and $AlCl_3$,[1589] or with alkyltitanium reagents $RTiCl_3$ and R_2TiCl_2.[1590] The titanium method can also be used with secondary halides ($R_2CHCl \rightarrow R_2CHMe$), tertiary ethers ($R_3COR' \rightarrow R_3CMe$), and *gem*-dihalides ($R_2CCl_2 \rightarrow R_2CMe_2$).[1591] Vinylic aluminum compounds (in the presence of a suitable transition metal catalyst) couple with allylic halides, acetates, and alcohol derivatives to give 1,4-dienes,[1592] and with vinylic and benzylic halides to give 1,3-dienes and allylic arenes, respectively.[1593]

OS **VII,** 245; **VIII,** 295.

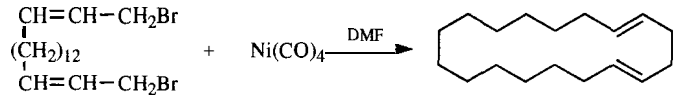
10-97 *Allylic and Propargylic Coupling With a Halide Substrate*

DE-HALOGEN-COUPLING



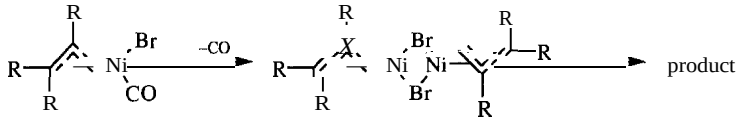
Because of the presence of the 1,5-diene moiety in many naturally occurring compounds, a great deal of effort has been expended in searching for methods to couple[1594] allylic groups.[1595] In one of these methods, allylic halides, tosylates, and acetates can be symmetrically coupled by treatment with nickel carbonyl[1596] at room temperature in a solvent such as THF or DMF to give 1,5-dienes.[1597] The order of halide reactivity is I > Br > Cl. With unsymmetrical allylic substrates, coupling nearly always takes place at the less-substituted end. The reaction can be performed

intramolecularly; large (11–20 membered) rings can be made in good yields (60-80%) by the use of high dilution. An example[1598] is It is likely that the mechanism



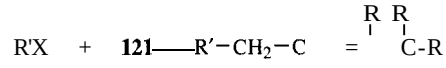
84%

involves reaction of the allylic compound with $Ni(CO)_4$ to give one or more π-allyl complexes, one of which may be **120,** which can then lose CO to give a π-allylnickel bromide (121), which reacts further, perhaps with CO, to give the product. The complexes **120** can be isolated from the solution and crystallized as stable solids.



120 121

Unsymmetrical coupling can be achieved by treating an alkyl halide directly with **121,** in a polar aprotic solvent.[1599] In this case too, unsymmetrical allylic groups couple at the less substituted end. The mechanism here cannot be simple nucleophilic substitution, since aryl and vinylic halides undergo the reaction as well as or better than simple primary bromides. There is evidence that free radicals are involved.[1600] Hydroxy or carbonyl groups in the alkyl halide do not interfere. When **121** reacts with an allylic halide, a mixture of three products is obtained because of halogen–metal interchange. For example, allyl bromide treated with **121** prepared from methallyl bromide gave an approximately statistical mixture of 1,5-hexadiene, 2-methyl-l,5-hexadiene, and 2,5-dimethyl-l,5-hexadiene.[1601]

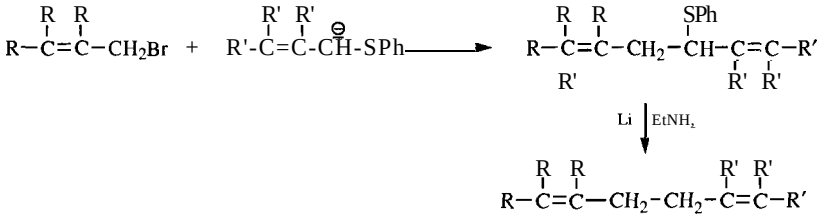


The reaction between primary and secondary halides and allyltributylstannane provides another method for unsymmetrical coupling $RX + CH_2{=}CHCH_2SnBu_3 \rightarrow RCH_2CH{=}CH_2$.[1602]

Symmetrical coupling of allylic halides can also be accomplished by heating with magnesium in ether,[1603] with a cuprous iodide-dialkylamide complex,[1604] or electrochemically.[1605] The coupling of two different allylic groups has been achieved by treatment of an allylic bromide with an allylic Grignard reagent in THF containing HMPA,[1606] or with an allylic tin reagent.[1607] This type of coupling can be achieved with almost no allylic rearrangement in the substrate (and almost complete allylic rearrangement in the reagent) by treatment of allylic halides with lithium allylic boron ate complexes ($RCH{=}CHCH_2\overset{\ominus}{B}R''_3\,Li^+$).[1608]

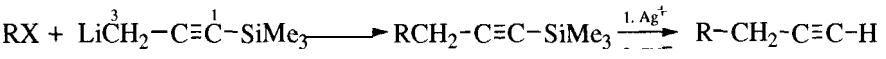
In another method for the coupling of two different allylic groups,[1609] a carbanion derived from a β,γ-unsaturated thioether couples with an allylic halide.[1610] The

product contains an SPh group that must be removed (with Li in ethylamine) to give



the 1,5-diene, but this method has the advantage that, unlike most of the methods previously discussed, the coupling preserves the original positions and configurations of the two double bonds; no allylic rearrangements take place.

In a method for propargylating an alkyl halide without allylic rearrangement, the halide is treated with lithio-1-trimethylsilylpropyne (122) which is a lithium compound protected by an $SiMe_3$ group.[1611] Attack by the ambident nucleophile



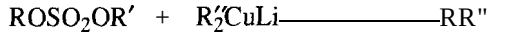
122

at its 1 position, which gives an allene, takes place only to a small extent because of steric blockage by the large $SiMe_3$ group. The $SiMe_3$ group is easily removed by treatment with Ag^+ followed by CN^-. The compound **121** is prepared by treating propynyllithium with Me_3SiCl to give $MeC{\equiv}CSiMe_3$ from which a proton is removed with BuLi. The R group may be primary or allylic.[1612] On the other hand, propargylic halides can be alkylated with essentially complete allylic rearrangement, to give allenes, by treatment with Grignard reagents and metallic salts,[1613] or with dialkylcuprates (R_2Cu).[1614]

OS **III,** 121; IV, 748; VI, 722.

10-98 *Coupling of Organometallic Reagents With Esters of Sulfuric and Sulfonic Acids, Sulfoxides and Sulfones*

ALKYL-DE-SULFONYLOXY-SUBSTITUTION, AND SO ON



Lithium dialkylcopper reagents couple with alkyl tosylates.[1615] High yields are obtained with primary tosylates; secondary tosylates give lower yields.[1616] Aryl tosylates do not react. Vinylic triflates[1617] couple very well to give alkenes[1618] and they also couple with allylic cuprates, to give 1,4-dienes.[1619] Tosylates and other sulfonates and sulfates couple with Grignard reagents,[1620] most often those prepared from aryl or benzylic halides.[1621] Alkyl sulfates and sulfonates generally make better substrates in reactions with Grignard reagents than the corresponding halides **(10-94).** The method is useful for primary and secondary R. Allylic tosylates can be symmetrically coupled with $Ni(CO)_4$ (see **10-97).** Propargylic tosylates couple with

vinylic cuprates to give vinylic allenes.[1622] Vinylic triflates, in the presence of $Pd(Ph_3P)_4$ and LiCl, couple with organotin compounds $R'SnMe_3$, where R' can be alkyl, allylic, vinylic, or alkynyl.[1623] The reaction has been performed intramolecularly, to prepare large-ring lactones.[1624]

Phosphonic esters, $ROPO(OR)_2$, react with allylic Grignard reagents to give the coupling product.[1625]

tert-Butylsulfones react with organolithium reagents, in the presence of a catalytic amount of iron complex, to give coupling.[1626] In this case, the t-$BuSO_2$ unit becomes a "leaving group". A sulfoxide was a "leaving group" in the cyclization of a carboxylic acid contain a sulfoxide unit at C-4. Treatment with phenyliodonium bistrifluoroacetate gave the five-membered ring lactone.[1627]

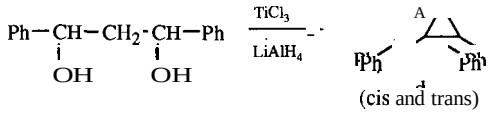
OS **I,** 471; **II,** 47, 360; **VII,** 351; **VIII, 97,** 471.

10-99 *Coupling Involving Alcohols*

DE-HYDROXYL-COUPLING

$$2\,ROH \xrightarrow[-78°C]{MeLi-TiCl_3} R\,R$$

Allylic or benzylic alcohols can be symmetrically coupled[1628] by treatment with methyllithium and titanium trichloride at -78°C[1629] or by refluxing with $TiCl_3$ and $LiAlH_4$.[1630] When the substrate is an allylic alcohol, the reaction is not regiospecific, but a mixture of normal coupling and allylically rearranged products is found. A free-radical mechanism is involved.[1631] The $TiCl_3$–$LiAlH_4$ reagent can also convert 1,3 diols to cyclopropanes, provided that at least one a phenyl is present,[1632] for example,

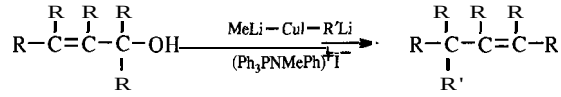


(cis and trans)

Tertiary alcohols react with trimethylaluminum at 80 to 200° C to give methylation.[1633] The presence of side products from elimination and rearrangement, as well as the lack of stereospecificity,[1634] indicate an

$$R_3COH + Me_3Al \xrightarrow{80\text{–}200°C} R_3CMe$$

S_N1 mechanism. The reaction can also be applied to primary and secondary alcohols if these contain an aryl group in the a position. Higher trialkylaluminums are far less suitable, because reduction competes with alkylation (see also reactions of Me_3Al with ketones, **16-27,** and with carboxylic acids, **16-33).** The compound Me_2TiCl_2 also reacts with tertiary alcohols in the same way.[1635] Allylic alcohols couple with a reagent prepared from MeLi, CuI, and R'Li in the presence of $(Ph_3PNMePh)^+I^-$ to give alkenes that are products of allylic rearrangement,[1636] for example,

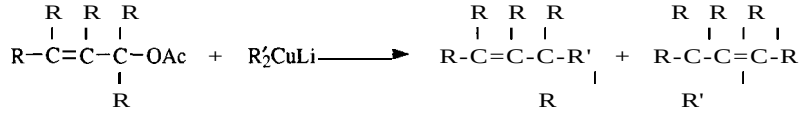


The reaction gives good yields with primary, secondary, and tertiary alcohols, and with alkyl and aryllithium reagents.[1637] Allylic alcohols also couple with certain Grignard reagents[1638] in the presence of a nickel complex to give both normal products and the products of allylic rearrangement.

Allenic alcohols couple with allyl indium reagents at 140°C to give allylic alcohol products.[1639] Similarly, ω-hydroxy lactones couple with organoindium reagents.[1640]

10-100 *Coupling of Organometallic Reagents With Carboxylic Esters*

ALKYL-DE-ACYLOXY-SUBSTITUTION



Lithium dialkylcopper reagents couple with allylic acetates to give normal coupling products or those resulting from allylic rearrangement, depending on the substrate.[1641] A mechanism involving a σ-allylic copper(III) complex has been suggested.[1642] Silyl cuprates have also been used, with benzoate esters, to give allyl silanes.[1643] With propargyl substrates, the products are allenes.[1644]

$$RC{\equiv}C{-}CR_2{-}OAc + R'_2CuLi \longrightarrow RR'C{=}C{=}CR_2$$

Allenes are also obtained when propargyl acetates are treated with methylmagnesium iodide.[1645] Lithium dialkylcopper reagents also give normal coupling products with enol acetates of β-dicarbonyl compounds.[1646] It is also possible to carry out the coupling of allylic acetates with Grignard reagents, if catalytic amounts of cuprous salts are present.[1647] With this method, yields are better and regioselectivity can be controlled by a choice of cuprous salts. Allylic, benzylic, and cyclopropylmethyl acetates couple with trialkylaluminums,[1648] and allylic acetates couple with aryl and vinylic tin reagents, in the presence of a palladium-complex catalyst.[1649] Allylic acetates can be symmetrically coupled by treatment with $Ni(CO)_4$ (Reaction 10-97) or with Zn and a palladium complex catalyst,[1650] or converted to unsymmetrical 1,5 dienes by treatment with an allylic stannane $R_2C{=}CHCH_2SnR_3$ in the presence of a palladium complex.[1651]

10-101 *Coupling of Organometallic Reagents With Compounds Containing the Ether Linkage*[1652]

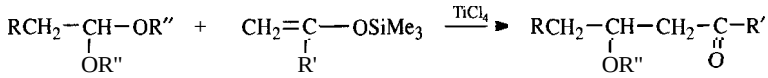
ALKYL-DE-ALKOXY-SUBSTITUTION

$$R_2C(OR')_2 + R''MgX \longrightarrow R_2CR''(OR') + R'OMgX$$

$$RC(OR')_3 + R''MgX \longrightarrow RCR''(OR')_2 + R'OMgX$$

Acetals,[1653] ketals, and ortho esters[1654] react with Grignard reagents to give, respectively, ethers and acetals (or ketals). The latter can be hydrolyzed to aldehydes

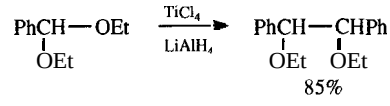
or ketones (10-6). This procedure is a way of converting a halide R"X, which may be alkyl, aryl, vinylic, or alkynyl, to an aldehyde R″CHO, increasing the length of the carbon chain by one carbon (see also **10-112).** The ketone synthesis generally gives lower yields. Acetals, including allylic acetals, also give this reaction with organocopper compounds and BF_3.[1655] Dihydropyrans react with Grignard reagents in the presence of a nickel catalyst.[1656] Acetals also undergo substitution when treated with silyl enol ethers or allylic silanes, with a Lewis acid catalyst,[1657] for example,



ω-Ethoxy lactams react with Grignard regents to give co-substituted lactams.[1658] Tertiary amines can be prepared by the reazction of amino ethers with Grignard reagents,[1659] ($R_2NCH_2–OR'$ + R'MgX → $R_2NCH_2–R'$) or with lithium dialkylcopper reagents.[1660]

Ordinary ethers are not cleaved by Grignard reagents (in fact, diethyl ether and THF are the most common solvents for Grignard reagents), though more active organometallic compounds often do cleave them.[1661] Oxetanes have been opened with organolithium reagents at $BF_3·OEt_2$.[1662] Allylic ethers can be cleaved by Grignard reagents in THF if CuBr is present.[1663] The reaction takes place either with or without allylic rearrangement.[1664] Propargylic ethers give allenes.[1665] Vinylic ethers can also be cleaved by Grignard reagents in the presence of a catalyst, in this case, a nickel complex.[1666] Silyl enol ethers $R_2C=CROSiMe_3$ behave similarly.[1667]

Certain acetals and ketals can be dimerized in a reaction similar to **10-93** by treatment with $TiCl_4$–$LiAlH_4$, for example,[1668]

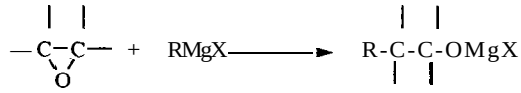


Also see **10-102.**

OS **II,** 323; **III,** 701. Also see OS V, 431.

10-102 *The Reaction of Organometallic Reagents With Epoxides*

3 *(OC)-SECO*-ALKYL-DE-ALKOXY SUBSTITUTION



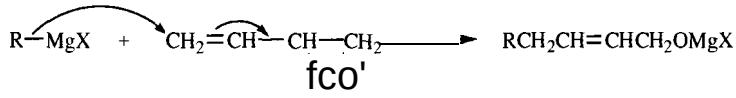
The reaction between Grignard reagents or organolithium reagents and epoxides is very valuable and is often used to increase the length of a carbon chain by two carbons.[1669] The Grignard reagent may be aromatic or aliphatic, though tertiary Grignard reagents give low yields. As expected for an S_N2 process, attack is at the less substituted carbon. Organolithium reagents,[1670] in the presence of (—)-sparteine and $BF_3·OEt_2$, leads to the 2-substituted alcohol with good %ee.[1671] Similar reaction

with a chiral Schiff base gave the same type of product, with excellent %ee.[1672] Lithium dialkylcopper reagents also give the reaction,[1673] as do higher order cuprates,[1674] often producing higher yields. They have the additional advantage that they do not react with ester, ketone, or carboxyl groups so that the epoxide ring of epoxy esters, ketones, and carboxylic acids can be selectively attacked, often in a regioselective manner.[1675] The use of BF_3 increases the reactivity of R_2CuLi, enabling it to be used with thermally unstable epoxides.[1676] Lithium diaminocyano cuprates have also been used.[1677]

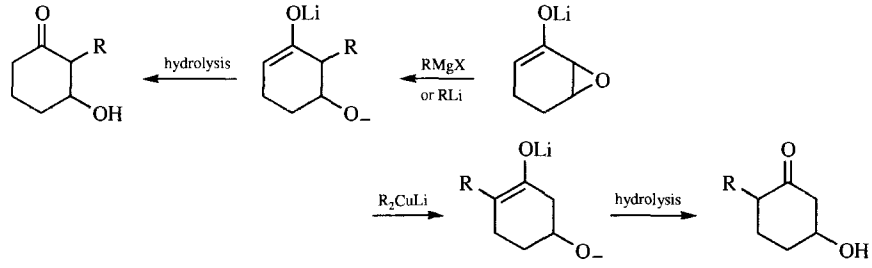
122 123

The reaction has also been performed with other organometallic compounds, for example, of Li and Al.[1678] Organobarium compounds have also been used,[1679] as well as organomanganese compounds.[1680]

When *gem*-disubstituted epoxides **(122)** are treated with Grignard reagents (and sometimes other epoxides), the product may be 123, that is, the new alkyl group may appear on the same carbon as the OH. In such cases, the epoxide is isomerized to an aldehyde or a ketone before reacting with the Grignard reagent. Halohydrins are often side products.



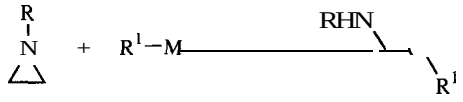
When the substrate is a vinylic epoxide,[1681] Grignard reagents generally give a mixture of the normal product and the product of allylic rearrangement.[1682] The latter often predominates. In the case of R_2CuLi,[1683] acyclic substrates give mostly allylic rearrangement.[1681] The double bond of the "vinylic" epoxide can be part of an enolate ion if the substrate is cyclic. In this case, R_2CuLi give exclusive allylic rearrangement (S_N2'), while Grignard and organolithium reagents give normal substitution, for example[1684]



An organometallic equivalent that opens epoxides is a hydrosilane, (e.g., Me_3SiH) and carbon monoxide, catalyzed by dicobalt octacarbonyl:[1685] See **10-92** for other coupling reactions with organosilanes.

OS **I,** 306; **VII,** 501; **VIII,** 33, 516; **76,** 101.

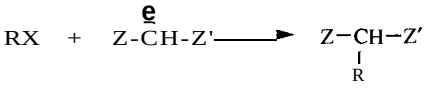
10-103 *Reaction of Organometallics With Aziridines*



Aziridines have been opened by organometallic reagents to give amines.[1686] Although less reactive than epoxides, it is also possible to open aziridines[1687] with organometallic reagents. Isopropylmagnesium chloride reacts with *N*-tosyl 2-phenylaziridine to give the corresponding *N*-tosylamine.[1688] *N*-Tosyl aziridines have also been opened with enolate anions, which led to a pyrroline derivative,[1689] and with $Me_2S{=}CHCO_2Et$ (see 16-61) to generate an *N*-tosyl azetidine.[1690]

10-104 *Alkylation at a Carbon Bearing an Active Hydrogen*

BIS(ETHOXYCARBONYL)METHYL-DE-HALOGENATION, AND SO ON

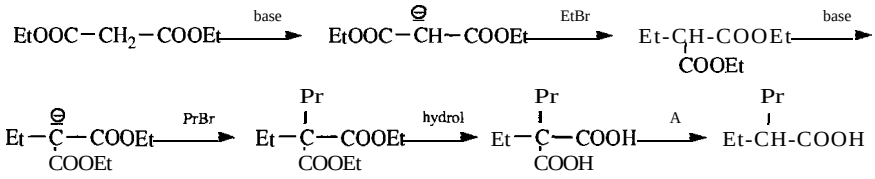


Compounds that contain two (or three, but this is rare) strong electron-withdrawing groups on a carbon atom are more acidic than compounds without such groups (p. 343) and are easily converted to their corresponding enolate ions (p. 75). These enolate ions can attack alkyl halides, resulting in their alkylation.[1691] Both Z and Z' may be COOR', CHO, COR', $CONR'_2$, COO^-, CN,[1692] NO_2, SOR', SO_2R',[1693] SO_2OR', $SO_2NR'_2$, or similar groups.[1694] A carbon atom with any two of these (the same or different) will give up a proton (if it has one) to a suitable base. Some commonly used bases are sodium ethoxide and potassium tert-butoxide, each in its respective alcohol as solvent. With particularly acidic compounds (e.g., β-diketones—Z, $Z'{=}COR'$), sodium hydroxide in water or aqueous alcohol or acetone, or even sodium carbonate,[1695] is a strong enough base for the reaction. If at least one Z group is COOR', saponification is a possible side reaction. In addition to the groups listed above, Z may also be phenyl, but if two phenyl groups are on the same carbon, the acidity is less than in the other cases and a stronger base must be used. However, the reaction can be successfully carried out with diphenylmethane with $NaNH_2$ as the base.[1696] The solvent used in the reaction must not be acidic enough to protonate either the enolate ion or the base, which in most cases rules out water. The use of polar aprotic solvents (e.g., DMF or Me_2SO) markedly increases the rate of alkylation[1697] but also increases the extent of alkylation at the oxygen rather than the carbon (p. 458). Phase-transfer catalysis has also been used.[1698]

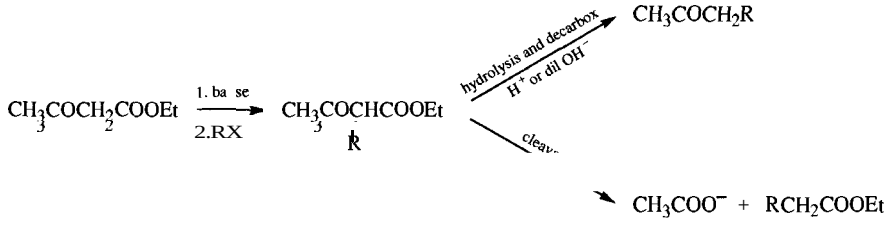
Usually, the reaction is carried out on a CH_2 group connected to two Z groups. In such cases it is possible to alkylate twice, first removing the proton with a base, then alkylating with RX, then removing the proton from ZCHRZ', and finally alkylating the resulting enolate ion with the same or a different RX. The reaction is successful for primary and secondary alkyl, allylic (with allylic rearrangement possible), and benzylic RX, but fails for tertiary halides, since these undergo elimination under the reaction conditions (see, however, p. 550). Various functional groups may be present

in RX as long as they are not sensitive to base. Side reactions that may cause problems are the above-mentioned competing O-alkylation, elimination (if the enolate ion is a strong enough base), and dialkylation.

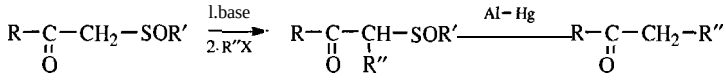
An important example of this reaction is the *malonic ester synthesis,* in which both Z groups are COOEt. The product can be hydrolyzed and decarboxylated (12-38) to give a carboxylic acid. An illustration is the preparation of 2-ethylpentanoic acid from malonic ester:



It is obvious that many carboxylic acids of the formulas RCH_2COOH and RR'CHCOOH can be synthesized by this method (for some other ways of preparing such acids, see 10-106, 10-108, and 10-109). Another important example is the *acetoacetic ester synthesis,* in which Z is COOEt and Z' is COCH3. In this case the product can be decarboxylated with acid or dilute base (12-38) to give a ketone or cleaved with concentrated base (12-41) to give a carboxylic ester and a salt of acetic acid:



Another way of preparing ketones involves alkylation[1699] of P-keto sulfoxides[1700] or sulfones,[1701] for example since the product in this case is easily reduced to a ketone



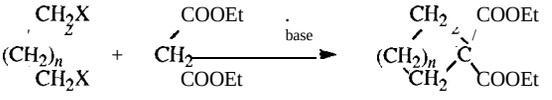
in high yields with aluminum amalgam or by electrolysis.[1702] The P-keto sulfoxides or sulfones are easily prepared (10-119). Other examples of the reaction are the *cyanoacetic ester synthesis,* in which Z is COOEt and Z' is CN (as in the malonic ester synthesis, the product here can be hydrolyzed and decarboxylated), and the *Sorensen* method of amino acid synthesis, in which the reaction is applied to *N*-acetylaminomalonic ester, $(EtOOC)_2CHNHCOCH_3$. Hydrolysis and decarboxylation of the product in this case gives an α-amino acid. The amino group is also frequently protected by conversion to a phthalimido group.

The reaction is not limited to $Z–CH_2–Z'$ compounds. Other acidic CH hydrogens, which include, for example, the methyl hydrogens of α-aminopyridines, the methyl hydrogens of ynamines of the form $CH_3C{\equiv}CNR_2$ (the product in this

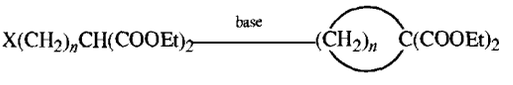
case can be hydrolyzed to an amide, $RCH_2CH_2CONR_2$),[1703] the CH_2 hydrogens of cyclopentadiene and its derivatives (p. 52), hydrogens connected to a triple-bond carbon **(10-110),** and the hydrogen of HCN **(10-111)** can also be removed with a base and the resulting ion alkylated (see also **10-105-10-108).** α-Imino esters have been used since treatment with a strong base with a titanium catalyst followed by an aldehyde leads to hydroxy amino esters.[1704]

Alkylation takes place at the most acidic position of a reagent molecule; for example, acetoacetic ester (CH_3COCH_2COOEt) is alkylated at the methylene and not at the methyl group, because the former is more acidic than the latter and hence gives up its proton to the base. However, if 2 mol of base are used, then not only is the most acidic proton removed but also the second most acidic. Alkylation of this doubly charged anion then takes place at the less acidic position (see p. 458). This technique has been used to alkylate many compounds in the second most acidic position.[1705]

When ω,ω′-dihalides are used, ring closures can be effected:[1706]



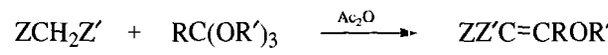
This method has been used to close rings of from three (n = 0) to seven members, although five-membered ring closures proceed in highest yields. Another ring-closing method involves internal alkylation.[1707]



This method has been shown to be applicable to medium rings (10-14 members) without the use of high-dilution techniques.[1708]

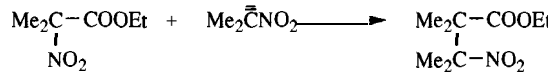
The mechanism of these reactions is usually S_N2 with inversion taking place at a chiral RX, though there is strong evidence that an SET[1709] mechanism is involved in certain cases,[1710] especially where the nucleophile is an α-nitro carbanion[1711] and/or the substrate contains a nitro or cyano[1712] group. Tertiary alkyl groups can be introduced by an S_N1 mechanism if the ZCH_2Z' compound (not the enolate ion) is treated with a tertiary carbocation generated *in situ* from an alcohol or alkyl halide and BF_3 or $AlCl_3$,[1713] or with a tertiary alkyl perchlorate.[1714]

Other leaving groups are sometimes used. Sulfates, sulfonates, and epoxides give the expected products. Acetals can behave as substrates, one OR group being replaced by ZCHZ' in a reaction similar to **10-101**.[1715] Ortho esters behave similarly, but the product loses R'OH to give an enol ether.[1716]



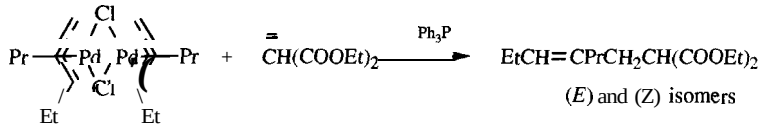
The SO_2Ph group of allylic sulfones can be a leaving group if a palladium(O) complex is present.[1717] The NR_2 group from Mannich bases such as $RCOCH_2CH_2NR_2$ can also act as a leaving group in this reaction (elimination-addition mechanism, p. 430). A nitro group can be displaced[1718] from a-nitro esters, ketones, nitriles, and

α,α-dinitro compounds,[1719] and even from simple tertiary nitro compounds of the form R_3CNO_2[1720] or ArR_2CNO_2[1721] by salts of nitroalkanes, for example,



These reactions take place by SET mechanisms.[1722] However, with α-nitro sulfones it is the sulfone group that is displaced, rather than the nitro group.[1723] The SO_2R group of allylic sulfones can be replaced by CHZZ' ($C{=}CCH_2{-}SO_2R \rightarrow C{=}CCH_2{-}CHZZ'$) if an $Mo(CO)_6$ catalyst is used.[1724] Alkylation a to a nitro group can be achieved with the Katritzky pyrylium–pyridinium reagents (pp. 447, 489).[1725] This reaction probably has a free-radical mechanism.[1726]

Palladium can be the leaving atom if the substrate is a π-allylpalladium complex (an η^3 complex). Ions of ZCHZ′ compounds react with such complexes[1727] in the presence of triphenylphosphine,[1728] for example,

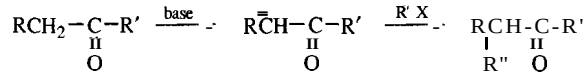


When the Pd bears chiral ligands, these reactions can be enantioselective.[1729] π-Allylmolybdenum compounds behave similarly.[1730] Because palladium compounds are expensive, a catalytic synthesis, which uses much smaller amounts of the complex, was developed. That is, a substrate such as an allylic acetate,[1731] carbonate,[1732] alcohol, amine, or nitro compound[1733] is treated with the nucleophile, and a catalytic amount of a palladium salt is added. The π-allylpalladium complex is generated *in situ*. Alkene–palladium complexes (introducing the nucleophile at a vinylic rather than an allylic carbon) can also be used.[1734]

OS I, 248, 250; **II,** 262, 279, 384, 474; **III,** 213, 219, 397, 405, 495, 705; **IV,** 10, 55, 288, 291, 623, 641, 962; V, 76, 187, 514, 523, 559, 743, 767, 785, 848, 1013; **VI,** 223, 320, 361, 482, 503, 587, 781, 991; **VII,** 339, 411; **VIII,** 5, 312, 381. See also OS **VIII,** 235.

10-105 *Alkylation of Ketones, Nitriles, and Carboxylic Esters*

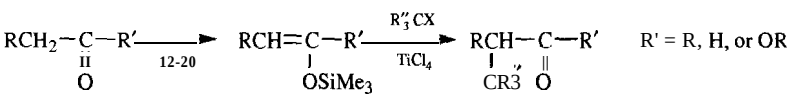
α-ACYLALKYL-DE-HALOGENATION, AND SO ON



Ketones,[1735] nitriles,[1736] and carboxylic esters[1737] can be alkylated in the a position in a reaction similar to **10-104**,[1690] but a stronger base must be employed, since only one activating group is present. Both lactones and lactams are similarly alkylated.[1738] The most common bases[1739], are Et_2NLi (LDA), when LDA = lithium diisopropylamide, $(i\text{-}Pr)_2NLi$, *t*-BuOK, $NaNH_2$, and KH. A combination of $LiN(SiMe_3)_2$ followed by $MnBr_2$ is also effective for alkylation of ketones.[1740] The base lithium *N*-isopropyl-*N*-cyclohexylamide is particularly successful for carboxylic esters[1741] and nitriles.[1742] Solid KOH in Me_2SO has been used to methylate ketones, in high

yields.[1743] Some of these bases are strong enough to convert the ketone, nitrile, or ester completely to its enolate ion conjugate base; others (especially *t*-BuOK) convert a significant fraction of the molecules. In the latter case, the aldol reaction **(16-38)** or Claisen condensation **(10-118)** may be side reactions, since both the free molecule and its conjugate base are present at the same time. It is therefore important to use a base strong enough to convert the starting compound completely. Protic solvents are generally not suitable because they protonate the base (though of course this is not a problem with a conjugate pair, such as *t*-BuOK in *t*-BuOH). Some common solvents are 1,2-dimethoxyethane, THF, DMF, and liquid NH3. Phase-transfer catalysis has been used to alkylate many nitriles, as well as some esters and ketones.[1744]

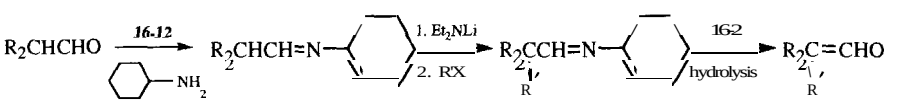
As in **10-104,** the alkyl halide may be primary or secondary. Tertiary halides give elimination. Even primary and secondary halides give predominant elimination if the enolate ion is a strong enough base (e.g., the enolate ion from Me3CCOMe).[1745] Tertiary alkyl groups, as well as other groups that normally give S_N1 reactions, can be introduced if the reaction is performed on a silyl enol ether[1746] of a ketone, aldehyde, or ester with a Lewis acid catalyst.[1747]



Vinylic and aryl halides can be used to vinylate or arylate carboxylic esters (but not ketones) by the use of $NiBr_2$ as a catalyst.[1748] However, ketones have been vinylated by treating their enol acetates with vinylic bromides in the presence of a Pd compound catalyst.[1749] Also as in **10-104,** this reaction can be used to close rings.[1750] Rings have been closed by treating a di-ion of a dialkyl succinate with a 1,ω-dihalide or ditosylate.[1751] This was applied to the synthesis of three-, four-, five-, and six-membered rings. When the attached groups were chiral (e.g., menthyl) the product was formed with greater than 90% enantiomeric excess.[1750]

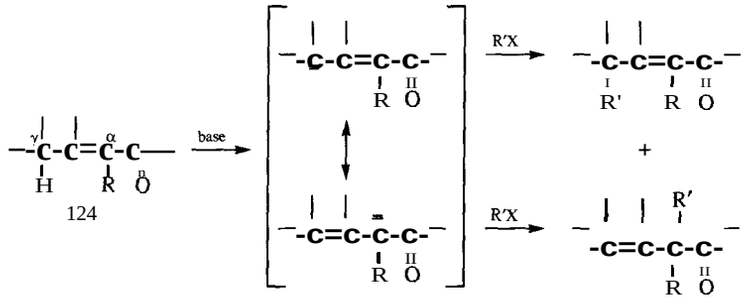
Efficient enantioselective alkylations are known.[1752] In another method, enantioselective alkylation can be achieved by using a chiral base to form the enolate.[1753]

The reaction can be applied to aldehydes, indirectly, by alkylating an imine derivative of the aldehyde.[1754] The derivative is easily prepared **(16-12)** and the product easily hydrolyzed to the aldehyde (16-2). Either or both R groups may



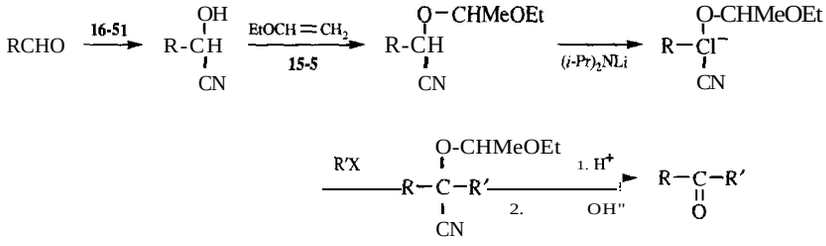
be hydrogen, so that mono-, di-, and trisubstituted acetaldehydes can be prepared by this method. The R' group may be primary alkyl, allylic, or benzylic. Direct alkylation of aldehydes is not generally possible because base treatment of aldehydes normally gives rapid aldol reaction **(16-38),** though aldehydes bearing only one a hydrogen have been alkylated with allylic and benzylic halides in good yields by the use of the base KH to prepare the potassium enolate,[1755] or in moderate yields, by the use of a phase-transfer catalyst.[1756] Hydrazones and other compounds with C=N bonds can be similarly alkylated.[1753] The use of chiral amines or

nydrazines[1757] (followed by hydrolysis 16-2 of the alkylated imine) can lead to chiral alkylated ketones in high optical yields (e.g., see p. 149).[1758]



124

In α,β-unsaturated ketones, nitriles, and esters (e.g., 125), the *y* hydrogen assumes the acidity normally held by the position α to the carbonyl group, especially when R is not hydrogen and so cannot compete. This principle, called *vinylology*, operates because the resonance effect is transmitted through the double bond. However, because of the resonance, alkylation at the α position (with allylic rearrangement) competes with alkylation at the γ position and usually predominates.



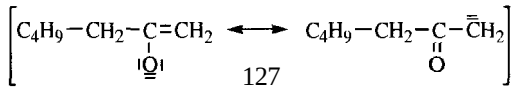
α-Hydroxynitriles (cyanohydrins), protected by conversion to acetals with ethyl vinyl ether (15-5), can be easily alkylated with primary or secondary alkyl or allylic halides.[1759] The R group can be aryl or saturated or unsaturated alkyl. Since the cyanohydrins[1760] are easily formed from aldehydes (16-51) and the product is easily hydrolyzed to a ketone, this is a method for converting an aldehyde (RCHO) to a ketone (RCOR′)[1761] (for other methods, see 10-107, 10-115, and 18-9).[1762] In this procedure, the normal mode of reaction of a carbonyl carbon is reversed. The C atom of an aldehyde molecule is normally electrophilic and is attacked by nucleophiles (Chapter 16), but by conversion to the protected cyanohydrin this carbon atom has been induced to perform as a nucleophile.[1763] The German word *umpolung*[1764] is used to describe this kind of reversal (another example is found in 10-107). Since the ion 126 serves as a substitute for the unavailable $R-\bar{C}=O$ anion, it is often called a "masked" $R-\bar{C}=O$ ion. This method fails for formaldehyde (R = H), but other masked formaldehydes have proved successful.[1765]

When the compound to be alkylated is a nonsymmetrical ketone, the question arises as to which side will be alkylated. If an a phenyl or a vinylic group is present on one side, alkylation goes predominantly on that side. When only alkyl groups are present, the reaction is generally not regioselective; mixtures are obtained in which sometimes the more alkylated and sometimes the less alkylated side is predomi-

nantly alkylated. Which product is found in higher yield depends on the nature of the substrate, the base,[1766] the cation, and the solvent. In any case, di- and trisubstitution are frequent[1767] and it is often difficult to stop with the introduction of just one alkyl group.[1768]

Several methods have been developed for ensuring that alkylation takes place regioselectively on the *desired* side of a ketone.[1769] Among these are

1. Block one side of the ketone by introducing a removable group. Alkylation takes place on the other side; the blocking group is then removed. A common reaction for this purpose is formylation with ethyl formate **(10-119);** this generally blocks the less hindered side. The formyl group is easily removed by alkaline hydrolysis **(12-41).**
2. Introduce an activating group on one side; alkylation then takes place on that side **(10-104);** the activating group is then removed.
3. Prepare the desired one of the two possible enolate ions.[1770] The two ions, for example, **127** and **128** for 2-heptanone, interconvert rapidly only in the



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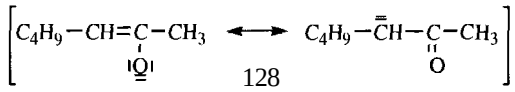
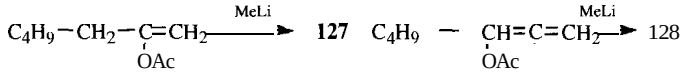


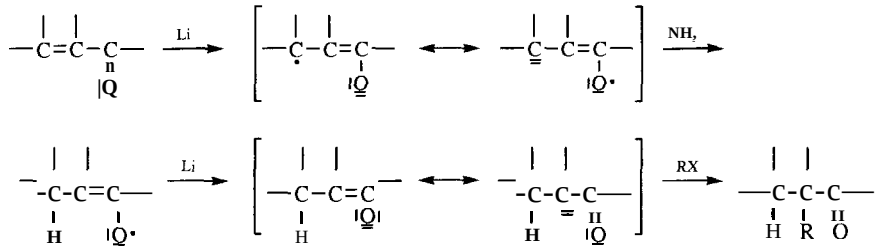
128

presence of the parent ketone or any stronger acid.[1771] In the absence of such acids, it is possible to prepare either **127** or **128** and thus achieve selective alkylation on either side of the ketone.[1772] The desired enolate ion can be obtained by treatment of the corresponding enol acetate with two equivalents of methyllithium in 1,2-dimethoxyethane. Each enol acetate gives the corresponding enolate, for example,



The enol acetates, in turn, can be prepared by treatment of the parent ketone with an appropriate reagent.[1488] Such treatment generally gives a mixture of the two enol acetates in which one or the other predominates, depending on the reagent. The mixtures are easily separable.[1771] An alternate procedure involves conversion of a silyl enol ether (see **12-22**)[1773] or a dialkylboron enol ether (an enol borinate, see p. 560)[1774] to the corresponding enolate ion. If the less hindered enolate ion is desired (e.g., **126),** it can be prepared directly from the ketone by treatment with lithium diisopropylamide in THF or 1,2-dimethoxyethane at $-78°C$.[1775]
4. Begin not with the ketone itself, but with an α,β-unsaturated ketone in which the double bond is present on the side where alkylation is desired. Upon treatment with lithium in liquid NH_3, such a ketone is reduced to an enolate

ion. When the alkyl halide is added, it must react with the enolate ion on the

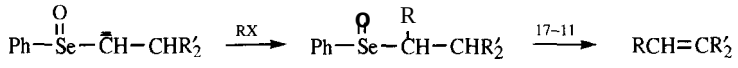


side where the double bond was.[1776] Of course, this method is not actually an alkylation of the ketone, but of the α,β-unsaturated ketone, though the product is the same as if the saturated ketone had been alkylated on the desired side.

Both sides of acetone have been alkylated with different alkyl groups, in one operation, by treatment of the *N,N*-dimethylhydrazone of acetone with n-BuLi, followed by a primary alkyl, benzylic, or allylic bromide or iodide; then another mole of n-BuLi, a second halide, and finally hydrolysis of the hydrazone.[1777]

Among other methods for the preparation of alkylated ketones are (1) the Stork enamine reaction **(12-18),** (2) the acetoacetic ester synthesis **(10-104),** (3) alkylation of β-keto sulfones or sulfoxides **(10-104),** (4) acylation of $CH_3SOCH_2^-$ followed by reductive cleavage **(10-119),** (5) treatment of α-halo ketones with lithium dialkylcopper reagents **(10-94),** and (6) treatment of α-halo ketones with trialkylboranes **(10-109).**

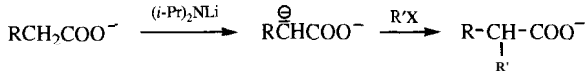
Sulfones[1778] and sulfonic esters can also be alkylated in the a position if strong enough bases are used.[1779] Alkylation at the α position of selenoxides allows the formation of alkenes, since selenoxides easily undergo elimination (**17-11**).[1780]



OS **III,** 44, 219, 221, 223, 397; **IV,** 278, 597, 641, 962; **V,** 187, 514, 559, 848; **VI,** 51, 115, 121,401,818, 897, 958, 991; **VII,** 153, 208, 241, 424; **VIII,** 141, 173,241, 403, 460, 479, 486; 76, 169; 239.

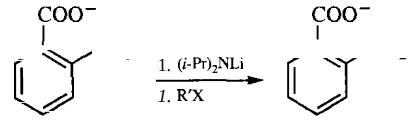
10-106 *Alkylation of Carboxylic Acid Salts*

α-CARBOXYALKYL-DE-HALOGENATION



Carboxylic acids can be alkylated in the a position by conversion of their salts to dianions [which actually have the enolate structures $RCH{=}C(O^-)_2$[1781]] by treatment with a strong base such as LDA.[1782] The use of Li^+ as the counterion is important, because it increases the solubility of the dianionic salt. The reaction has been applied[1783] to primary alkyl, allylic, and benzylic halides, and to carboxylic acids of the form RCH_2COOH and RR"CHCOOH.[1736] This method, which is an example of the alkylation of a dianion at its more nucleophilic position (see p. 458),

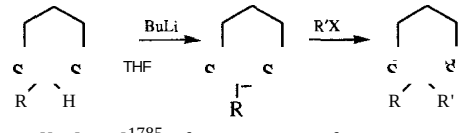
is an alternative to the malonic ester synthesis **(10-104)** as a means of preparing carboxylic acids and has the advantage that acids of the form RR'R"CCOOH can also be prepared. In a related reaction, methylated aromatic acids can be alkylated at the methyl group by a similar procedure.[1784]



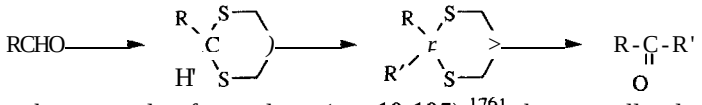
OS **V,** 526; **VI,** 517; **VII,** 249. See also OS **VII,** 164.

10-107 *Alkylation at a Position α to a Heteroatom: Alkylation of 1,3-Dithianes*

2-(2-ALKYL-1,3-DITHIANYL)DE-HALOGENATION



1,3-Dithianes can be alkylated[1785] if a proton is first removed by treatment with butyllithium in THF.[1786] Since 1,3-dithianes can be prepared by treatment of an aldehyde or its acetal (see OS VI, 556) with 1,3-propanedithiol **(16-10)** and can be hydrolyzed (10-6), this is a method for the conversion of an aldehyde to a ketone (see also **10-105, 10-115,** and **18-9**):[1787]



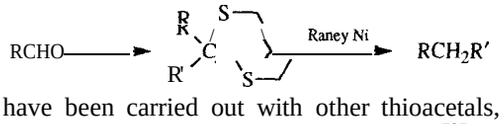
This is another example of umpolung (see **10-105**);[1761] the normally electrophilic carbon of the aldehyde is made to behave as a nucleophile. The reaction can be applied to the unsubstituted dithiane (R=H) and one or two alkyl groups can be introduced, so a wide variety of aldehydes and ketones can be made starting with formaldehyde.[1788] The R' group may be primary or secondary alkyl or benzylic. Iodides give the best results. The reaction has been used to close rings.[1789] A similar synthesis of aldehydes can be performed starting with ethyl ethylthiomethyl sulfoxide ($EtSOCH_2SEt$).[1790]

A B C D

The group A may be regarded as a structural equivalent for the carbonyl group B, since introduction of A into a molecule is actually an indirect means of introducing B. It is convenient to have a word for units within molecules; such a word is *synthon*, introduced by Corey,[1791] which is defined as a structural unit within a molecule that can be formed and/or assembled by known or conceivable synthetic operations. There are many other synthons equivalent to A and B, for example, C (by Reactions **16-23** and **19-3)** and **D** (by Reactions **10-2** and **16-22**).[1792]

Carbanions generated from 1,3-dithianes also react with epoxides[1793] to give the expected products.

Another useful application of this reaction stems from the fact that dithianes can be desulfurated with Raney nickel (14-34). Aldehydes can therefore be converted to chain-extended hydrocarbons:[1794]

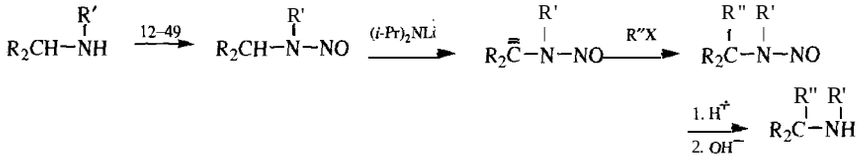


Similar reactions have been carried out with other thioacetals, as well as with compounds containing three thioether groups on a carbon.[1795]

The carbanion derived from a 1,3-dithiane is stabilized by two thioether groups. If a strong enough base is used, it is possible to alkylate at a position adjacent to only one such group. For example, benzylic and allylic thioethers ($RSCH_2Ar$ and $RSCH_2CH{=}CH_2$) and thioethers of the form $RSCH_3$ (R = tetrahydrofuranyl or 2-tetrahydropyranyl)[1796] have been successfully alkylated at the carbon adjacent to the sulfur atom.[1797] Stabilization by one thioether group has also been used in a method for the homologization of primary halides.[1798] Thioanisole is treated with BuLi to give the corresponding anion,[1799] which reacts with the halide to give the thioether, which is then refluxed with a mixture of methyl iodide and sodium iodide in DMF to give the alkyl iodide as the final product (via an intermediate sulfonium salt). By this sequence, an alkyl halide RX is converted to its homolog RCH_2X by a pathway involving two laboratory steps (see also 10-101).

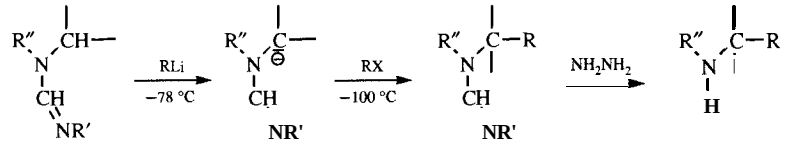
Vinylic sulfides containing an a hydrogen can also be alkylated[1800] by alkyl halides or epoxides. This is a method for converting an alkyl halide RX to an α,β-unsaturated aldehyde, which is the synthetic equivalent of the unknown $\overset{3}{H}C{=}CH{-}CHO$ ion.[1801] Even simple alkyl aryl sulfides RCH_2SAr and RR'CHSAr have been alkylated a to the sulfur.[1802]

Alkylation can also be carried out, in certain compounds, at positions α to other heteroatoms,[1803] for example, at a position α to the nitrogen of tertiary amines.[1804] Alkylation α to the nitrogen of primary or secondary amines is not generally feasible because an NH hydrogen is usually more acidic than a CH hydrogen. α-Lithiation of



N-Boc amines has been accomplished and these react with halides in the presence of a palladium catalyst.[1805] α-Methoxy amides also react with allyl halides and zinc metal to give alkylation via replacement of the OMe unit.[1806] It has been accomplished, however, by replacing the NH hydrogens with other (removable) groups.[1807] In one example, a secondary amine is converted to its N-nitroso derivative (12-**49**).[1808] The N-nitroso product is easily hydrolyzed to the product amine (19-**46**).[1809] Alkylation of secondary and primary amines has also been accomplished with more than 10 other protecting groups, involving conversion of amines to amides, carbamates,[1810] formamidines,[1811] and phosphoramides.[1806] In the case of

formamidines **(129),** use of a chiral R' leads to a chiral amine, in high enantiomeric excess, even when R is not chiral.[1812]

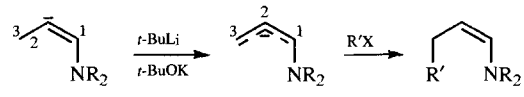


129

A proton can be removed from an allylic ether by treatment with an alkyllithium at about − 70°C [at higher temperatures the Wittig rearrangement **(18-22)** takes place] to give the ion **130,** which reacts with alkyl halides to give the two products

130

shown.[1813] Similar reactions[1814] have been reported for allylic[1815] and vinylic tertiary amines. In the latter case, enamines **(131),** treated with a strong base, are converted to anions that are then alkylated, generally at C-3.[1816] (For direct alkylation of enamines at C-2, see **12-18.)**

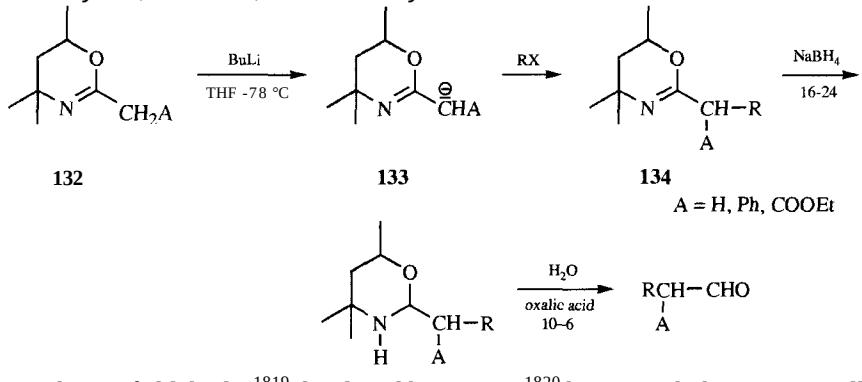


131

It is also possible to alkylate a methyl, ethyl, or other primary group of an aryl ester ArCOOR, where Ar is a 2,4,6-trialkylphenyl group.[1817] Since esters can be hydrolyzed to alcohols, this constitutes an indirect alkylation of primary alcohols. Methanol has also been alkylated by converting it to $^{\ominus}CH_2O^{\ominus}$.[1818]

OS **VI,** 316, 364, 542, 704, 869; **VIII,** 573.

10-108 *Alkylation of Dihydro-1,3-Oxazine: The Meyers Synthesis of Aldehydes, Ketones, and Carboxylic Acids*

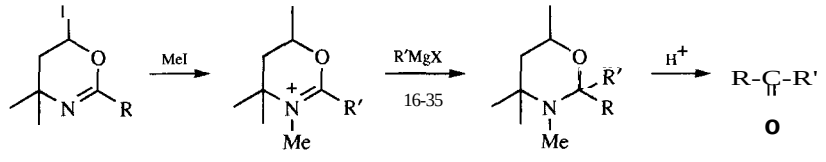


A synthesis of aldehydes[1819] developed by Meyers[1820] begins with the commercially available dihydro-1,3-oxazine derivatives **132** (A = H, Ph, or COOEt).[1821] Though the ions **(133)** prepared from **132** are ambident, they are regioselectively alkylated at

carbon by a wide variety of alkyl bromides and iodides. The R group can be primary or secondary alkyl, allylic, or benzylic and can carry another halogen or a CN group.[1822] The alkylated oxazine **(134)** is then reduced and hydrolyzed to give an aldehyde containing two more carbons than the starting RX. This method thus complements **10-107,** which converts RX to an aldehyde containing one more carbon. Since A can be H, mono- or disubstituted acetaldehydes can be produced by this method.

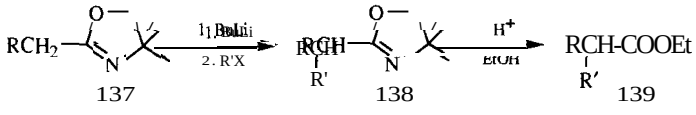
The ion **133** also reacts with epoxides to form γ-hydroxy aldehydes after reduction and hydrolysis,[1823] and with aldehydes and ketones **(16-41).** Similar aldehyde synthesis has also been carried out with thiazoles[1824] and thiazolines (five-membered rings containing N and S in the 1 and 3 positions).[1825]

The reaction has been extended to the preparation of ketones:[1826] treatment of a dihydro-l,3-oxazine **(134)** with methyl iodide forms the iminium salt **135 (10-44)** which, when treated with a Grignard reagent or organolithium compound **(16-35),**



135 136

produces **136,** which can be hydrolyzed to a ketone. The R group can be alkyl, cycloalkyl, aryl, benzylic, and so on, and R' can be alkyl, aryl, benzylic, or allylic. **132, 134,** and **135** themselves do not react with Grignard reagents. In another procedure, 2-oxazolines[1827] **(137)** can be alkylated to give **138**,[1828] which are easily converted directly to the esters **139** by heating in 5-7% ethanolic sulf uric acid.



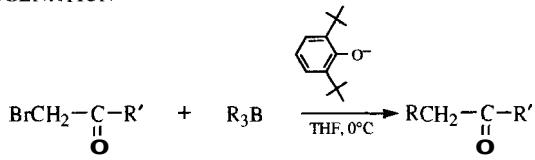
137 138 139

Compounds **137** and **138** are thus synthons for carboxylic acids; this is another indirect method for the α alkylation of a carboxylic acid,[1829] representing an alternative to the malonic ester synthesis **(10-104)** and to **10-106** and **10-109.** The method can be adapted to the preparation of optically active carboxylic acids by the use of a chiral reagent.[1830] Note that, unlike **132, 137** can be alkylated even if R is alkyl. However, the C=N bond of **137** and **138** cannot be effectively reduced, so that aldehyde synthesis is not feasible here.[1831]

OS VI, 905.

10-109 *Alkylation With Trialkylboranes*

ALKYL-DE-HALOGENATION

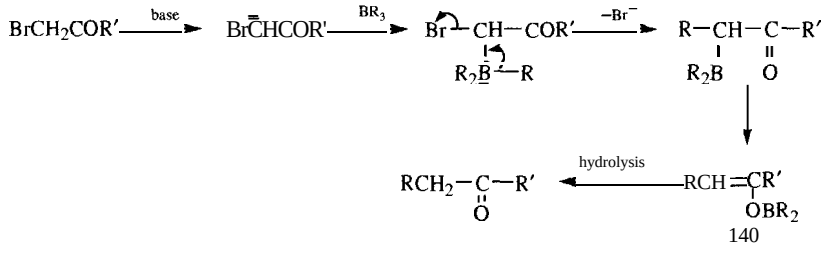


Trialkylboranes react rapidly and in high yields with a-halo ketones,[1832] a-halo esters,[1833] a-halo nitriles,[1834] and a-halo sulfonyl derivatives (sulfones, sulfonic esters, sulfonamides)[1835] in the presence of a base to give, respectively, alkylated ketones, esters, nitriles, and sulfonyl derivatives.[1836] Potassium *tert*-butoxide is often a suitable base, but potassium 2,6-di-*tert*-butylphenoxide at 0°C in THF gives better results in most cases, possibly because the large bulk of the two *tert*-butyl groups prevents the base from coordinating with the R_3B.[1837] The trialkylboranes are prepared by treatment of 3 mol of an alkene with 1 mol of BH_3 (**15-16**).[1838] With appropriate boranes, the R group transferred to a-halo ketones, nitriles, and esters can be vinylic,[1839] or (for a-halo ketones and esters) aryl.[1840]

The reaction can be extended to a,a-dihalo esters[1841] and a,a-dihalo nitriles.[1842] It is possible to replace just one halogen or both. In the latter case, the two alkyl groups can be the same or different. When dialkylation is applied to dihalo nitriles, the two alkyl groups can be primary or secondary, but with dihalo esters, dialkylation is limited to primary R. Another extension is the reaction of boranes (BR_3) with γ-halo-α,β-unsaturated esters.[1843] Alkylation takes place in the *y* position, but the double bond migrates out of conjugation with the COOEt unit [$BrCH_2CH{=}CHCOOEt \rightarrow RCH{=}CHCH_2COOEt$]. In this case, however, double-bond migration is an advantage, because nonconjugated β,γ-unsaturated esters are usually much more difficult to prepare than their a,(3-unsaturated isomers.

The alkylation of activated halogen compounds is one of several reactions of trialkylboranes developed by Brown (see also **15-16**, **15-25**, **18-31–18-40**, etc.).[1844] These compounds are extremely versatile and can be used for the preparation of many types of compounds. In this reaction, for example, an alkene (through the BR_3 prepared from it) can be coupled to a ketone, a nitrile, a carboxylic ester, or a sulfonyl derivative. Note that this is still another indirect way to alkylate a ketone (see 10-105) or a carboxylic acid (see 10-106), and provides an additional alternative to the malonic ester and acetoacetic ester syntheses (10-104).

Although superficially this reaction resembles 10-94 it is likely that the mechanism is quite different, involving migration of an R group from boron to carbon (see also 18-23-18-26). The mechanism is not known with certainty,[1845] but it may be tentatively shown as (illustrated for an a-halo ketone):



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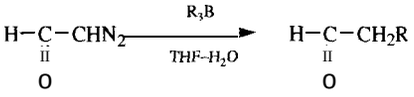
The first step is removal of the acidic proton by the base to give an enolate ion that combines with the borane (Lewis acid-base reaction). An R group then migrates, displacing the halogen leaving group.[1846] Another migration follows, this time of BR_2 from carbon to oxygen to give the enol borinate 140[1847] which is hydrolyzed. Configuration at R is retained.[1848]

The reaction has also been applied to compounds with other leaving groups. Diazo ketones, diazo esters, diazo nitriles, and diazo aldehydes[1849] react with trialkylboranes in a similar manner, for example,



The mechanism is probably also similar. In this case, a base is not needed since the carbon already has an available pair of electrons. The reaction with diazo aldehydes[1850] is especially notable, since successful reactions cannot be obtained with α-halo aldehydes.[1851]

OS VI, 919; IX, 107.

10-110 *Alkylation at an Alkynyl Carbon*

ALKYNYL-DE-HALOGENATION

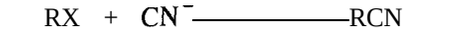
The reaction between alkyl halides and acetylide ions is useful but of limited scope.[1852] Only primary halides unbranched in the (3 position give good yields, though allylic halides can be used if CuI is present.[1853] If acetylene is the reagent, two different groups can be successively attached. Sulfates, sulfonates, and epoxides[1854] are sometimes used as substrates. The acetylide ion is often prepared by treatment of an alkyne with a strong base such as $NaNH_2$. Magnesium acetylides (ethynyl Grignard reagents; prepared as in **12-20**) are also frequently used, though they react only with active substrates, such as allylic, benzylic, and propargylic halides, and not with primary alkyl halides. Alternatively, the alkyl halide can be treated with a lithium acetylide-ethylenediamine complex.[1855] If 2 mol of a very strong base are used, alkylation can be effected at a carbon a to a terminal triple bond: $RCH_2C{\equiv}CH + 2\ BuLi \rightarrow RCHC{\equiv}C^{\theta} + R'Br \rightarrow RR'CHC{\equiv}C^{\theta}$.[1856] For another method of alkylating at an alkynyl carbon, see **18-26.**

1-Haloalkynes (R–C≡C–X) react with $ArSnBu_3$ and CuI to give R–C≡C–Ar.[1857] Acetylene reacts with two equivalents of iodobenzene, in the presence of a palladium catalyst and CuI, to give 1,2-diphenylethyne.[1858] 1-Trialkylsilyl alkynes react with 1-haloalkynes, in the presence of a CuCl catalyst, to give diynes[1859] and with aryl triflates to give 1-aryl alkynes.[1860] Alkynes couple with alkyl halides in the presence of SmI_2/Sm.[1861] Alkynes react with hypervalent iodine compounds[1862] and with reactive alkanes such as adamantane in the presence of AIBN.[1863]

OS **IV,** 117; **VI,** 273, 564, 595; **VIII,** 415; **IX,** 117, 477, 688; **76,** 263. Also see OS IV, 801; VI, 925.

10-111 *Preparation of Nitriles*

CYANO-DE-HALOGENATION



The reaction between cyanide ion (isoelectronic with HC≡C and of similar geometry) and alkyl halides is a convenient method for the preparation of nitriles.[1864] Primary, benzylic, and allylic halides give good yields of nitriles; secondary halides give moderate yields. The reaction fails for tertiary halides, which give elimination under these conditions. Many other groups on the molecule do not interfere. Though a number of solvents have been used, the high yields and short reaction times observed with DMSO make it a very good solvent for this reaction.[1865] Other ways to obtain high yields under mild conditions are to use a phase-transfer catalyst[1866] or ultrasound.[1867] This is an important way of increasing the length of a carbon chain by one carbon, since nitriles are easily hydrolyzed to carboxylic acids (16-4).

The cyanide ion is an ambident nucleophile and isocyanides may be side products. If the preparation of isocyanides is desired, they can be made the main products by the use of silver or copper(I) cyanide[1868] (p. 459). Vinylic bromides can be converted to vinylic cyanides with CuCN,[1869] with KCN, a crown ether, and a Pd(0) complex,[1870] or with KCN and a Ni(0) catalyst.[1871] Halides can be converted to the corresponding nitriles by treatment with trimethylsilyl cyanide in the presence of catalytic amounts of $SnCl_4$: $R_3CCl + Me_3SiCN \rightarrow R_3CCN$.[1872]

The cyanide nucleophile also reacts with compounds containing other leaving groups. Esters of sulfuric and sulfonic acids behave like halides. Vinylic triflates give vinylic cyanides when treated with LiCN, a crown ether, and a palladium catalyst.[1873] Epoxides give β-hydroxy nitriles. Primary, secondary, and tertiary alcohols are converted to nitriles in good yields by treatment with NaCN, Me_3SiCl, and a catalytic amount of NaI in DMF–MeCN.[1874] One alkoxy group of acetals is replaced by CN, $R_2C(OR')_2 \rightarrow R_2C(OR')CN$, with Me_3SiCN and a catalyst[1875] or with *t*-BuNC and $TiCl_4$.[1876] Cyanohydrins react with alkyl halides in some cases to give the nitrile.[1877] Sodium cyanide in HMPA selectively cleaves methyl esters in the presence of ethyl esters: RCOOMe + CIST $\rightarrow$ MeCN + $RCOO^-$.[1878]

OS I, 46, 107, 156, 181, 254, 256, 536; **II,** 292, 376; **III,** 174, 372, 557; IV, 438, 496, 576; V, 578, 614.

10-112 *Direct Conversion of Alkyl Halides to Aldehydes and Ketones*

FORMYL-DE-HALOGENATION

$$RX + Na_2Fe(CO)_4 \xrightarrow{PPh_3} \underset{\mathbf{141}}{RCOFe(CO)_3PPh_3^-} \xrightarrow{HOAc} RCHO$$

The direct conversion of alkyl bromides to aldehydes, with an increase in the chain length by one carbon, can be accomplished[1879] by treatment with sodium tetracarbonylferrate(-II) (*Collman's reagent*)[1880] in the presence of triphenylphosphine and subsequent quenching of **141** with acetic acid. The reagent $Na_2Fe(CO)_4$ can be prepared by treatment of iron pentacarbonyl, Fe(CO)5, with sodium amalgam in THF. Good yields are obtained from primary alkyl bromides; secondary bromides give lower yields. The reaction is not satisfactory for benzylic bromides. The initial species produced from RX and $Na_2Fe(CO)_4$ is the ion $RFe(CO)_4^-$ **(142)** (which can be isolated);[1881] it then reacts with Ph_3P to give **141**.[1882]

The synthesis can be extended to the preparation of ketones in six distinct ways.[1883]

1. Instead of quenching 141 with acetic acid, the addition of a second alkyl halide at this point gives a ketone: 141 + R'X → RCOR'.
2. Treatment of $Na_2Fe(CO)_4$ with an alkyl halide in the absence of Ph_3P gives rise to a solution of 142. Addition of a second alkyl halide produces a ketone: **142** + R'X → RCOR'.
3. Treatment of $Na_2Fe(CO)_4$ with an alkyl halide in the presence of CO results in an acylated iron complex (143) that can be isolated.[1880] Treatment of this with a second alkyl halide gives a ketone.

$$RX + Na_2Fe(CO)_4 \xrightarrow{CO} \underset{143}{RCOFe(CO)_4^-} \xrightarrow{R'X} RCOR'$$

4. Treatment of $Na_2Fe(CO)_4$ with an acyl halide produces 143 that, when treated with an alkyl halide, gives a ketone or, when treated with an epoxide, gives an α,β-unsaturated ketone.[1884]
5. Alkyl halides and tosylates react with $Na_2Fe(CO)_4$ in the presence of ethylene to give alkyl ethyl ketones.[1885] The reaction was not successful for higher alkenes, except that where the double bond and the tosylate group are in the same molecule, five- and six-membered rings can be closed.[1886]
6. If 1,4-dihalides are treated with $K_2Fe(CO)_4$, five-membered cyclic ketones are prepared.[1887]

Yet another approach uses electrolysis conditions with the alkyl chloride, Fe(CO)5 and a nickel catalyst, and gives the ketone directly, in one step.[1888] In the first stage of methods 1, 2, and 3, primary bromides, iodides, and tosylates and secondary tosylates can be used. The second stage of the first four methods requires more active substrates, such as primary iodides or tosylates or benzylic halides. Method 5 has been applied to primary and secondary substrates.

Aryl, benzylic, vinylic, and allylic halides have been converted to aldehydes by treatment with CO and Bu_3SnH, with a Pd(0) catalyst.[1889] Various other groups do not interfere. Symmetrical ketones R_2CO can be prepared by treatment of a primary alkyl or benzylic halide with $Fe(CO)_5$ and a phase-transfer catalyst,[1890] or from a halide RX (R = primary alkyl, aryl, allylic, or benzylic) and CO by an electrochemical method involving a nickel complex.[1891] Several procedures for the preparation of ketones are catalyzed by palladium complexes, among them the following: Alkyl aryl ketones are formed in good yields by treatment of a mixture of an aryl iodide, an alkyl iodide, and a Zn–Cu couple with CO (ArI + RI + CO → RCOAr);[1892] vinylic halides react with vinylic tin reagents in the presence of CO to give unsymmetrical divinyl ketones;[1893] and aryl, vinylic, and benzylic halides can be converted to methyl ketones (RX → RCOMe) by reaction with (α-ethoxyvinyl)tributyltin, $Bu_3SnC(OEt)=CH_2$.[1894] The compound SmI_2 can be used to convert alkyl chloride to ketones, in the presence of 50 atm of CO.[1895] Carbonylation can also be done with Zn/CuI,[1896] Zn and then $CoBr_2$,[1897] or with AIBN and $(Me_3Si)_3SiH$.[1898]

The conversion of alkyl halides to aldehydes and ketones can also be accomplished indirectly **(10-107).** See also **12-30.**

OS **VI,** 807.

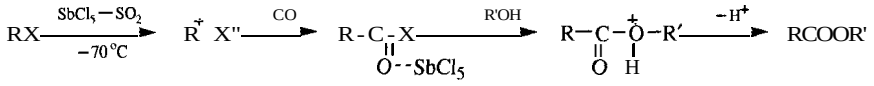
10-113 *Conversion of Alkyl Halides, Alcohols, or Alkanes to Carboxylic Acids and Their Derivatives*

ALKOXYCARBONYL-DE-HALOGENATION

$$RX + CO + R'OH \xrightarrow[-70°C]{SbCl_5-SO_2} RCOOR'$$

A direct method for preparing a carboxylic acid treats an alkyl halide with $NaNO_2$ in acetic acid and DMSO.[1899] Reaction of an alkyl halide with $ClCOCO_2Me$ and $(Bu_3Sn)_2$ under photochemical conditions leads to the corresponding methyl ester.[1900]

Several methods, all based on carbon monoxide or metal carbonyls, have been developed for converting an alkyl halide to a carboxylic acid or an acid derivative with the chain extended by one carbon.[1901] When an alkyl halide is treated with $SbCl_5$–SO_2 at -70°C, it dissociates into the corresponding carbocation (p. 219). If carbon monoxide and an alcohol are present, a carboxylic ester is formed by the following route:[1902]



This has also been accomplished with concentrated H_2SO_4 saturated with CO.[1903] Not surprisingly, only tertiary halides perform satisfactorily; secondary halides give mostly rearrangement products. An analogous reaction takes place with alkanes possessing a tertiary hydrogen, for example,[1904]

$$EtCHMe_2 \xrightarrow[2.\ H_2O]{1.\ HF-SbF_5-CO} EtCMe_2COOH \quad (75\%)$$

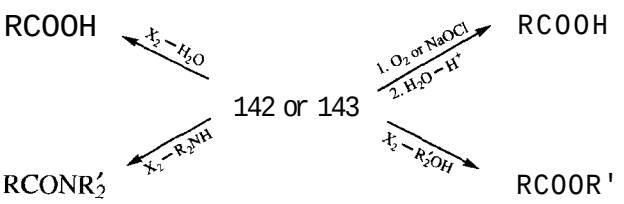
Carboxylic acids or esters are the products, depending on whether the reaction mixture is solvolyzed with water or an alcohol. Alcohols with more than seven carbons are cleaved into smaller fragments by this procedure.[1905] Similarly, tertiary alcohols[1906] react with H_2SO_4 and CO, which is often generated from HCOOH and the H_2SO_4 in the solution, to give trisubstituted acetic acids in a process called the *Koch–Haaf reaction* (see also **15-30**).[1907] If a primary or secondary alcohol is the substrate, the carbocation initially formed rearranges to a tertiary ion before reacting with the CO. Better results are obtained if trifluoromethanesulfonic acid (F_3CSO_2OH) is used instead of H_2SO_4.[1908]

$$RX + Ni(CO)_4 \xrightarrow[R'OH]{R'Cl} RCOOR'$$

Another method[1909] for the conversion of alkyl halides to carboxylic esters is treatment of a halide with nickel carbonyl, $Ni(CO)_4$, in the presence of an alcohol

and its conjugate base.[1910] When R' is primary, RX may only be a vinylic or an aryl halide; retention of configuration is observed at a vinylic R. Consequently, a carbocation intermediate is not involved here. When R' is tertiary, R may be primary alkyl as well as vinylic or aryl. This is thus one of the few methods for preparing esters of tertiary alcohols. Alkyl iodides give the best results, then bromides. In the presence of an amine, an amide can be isolated directly, at least in some instances.

Still another method for the conversion of halides to acid derivatives makes use of $Na_2Fe(CO)_4$. As described in 10-112, primary and secondary alkyl halides and tosylates react with this reagent to give the ion $RFe(CO)_4^-$ (142) or, if CO is present, the ion $RCOFe(CO)_4^-$ (143). Treatment of 142 or 143 with oxygen or sodium hypochlorite gives, after hydrolysis, a carboxylic acid.[1911] Alternatively, 142 or 143



reacts with a halogen (e.g., I_2) in the presence of an alcohol to give a carboxylic ester,[1912] or in the presence of a secondary amine or water to give, respectively, the corresponding amide or free acid. Compounds 142 and 143 prepared from primary R give high yields. With secondary R, the best results are obtained in the solvent THF by the use of 143 prepared from secondary tosylates. Ester and keto groups may be present in R without being affected. Carboxylic esters RCO_2R' have also been prepared by treating primary alkyl halides RX with alkoxides $R'O^-$ in the presence of $Fe(CO)_5$.[1913] Compound 143 is presumably an intermediate.

Palladium complexes also catalyze the carbonylation of halides.[1914] Aryl (see 13-13), vinylic,[1915] benzylic, and allylic halides (especially iodides) can be converted to carboxylic esters with CO, an alcohol or alkoxide, and a palladium complex.[1916] Similar reactivity was reported with vinyl triflates.[1917] Use of an amine instead of the alcohol or alkoxide leads to an amide.[1918] Reaction with an amine, AIBN, CO, and a tetraalkyltin catalyst also leads to an amide.[1919] Similar reaction with an alcohol, under Xe irradiation, leads to the ester.[1920] Benzylic and allylic halides were converted to carboxylic acids electrocatalytically, with CO and a cobalt imine complex.[1921] Vinylic halides were similarly converted with CO and nickel cyanide, under phase-transfer conditions.[1922]

Rhodium catalysts have also been used. Benzylic halides were converted to carboxylic esters with CO in the presence of a rhodium complex. In this case, the R' could come from an ether R'_2O,[1923] a borate ester $B(OR')_3$,[1924] or an Al, Ti, or Zr alkoxide.[1925] Reaction with an α,ω-diiodide, Bu_4NF and $Mo(CO)_6$ gave the corresponding lactone.[1926]

Reaction of an alkyl halide with $(MeS)_3C$–Li followed by aqueous HBF_4 leads to a thioester.[1927]

A number of double carbonylations have been reported. In these reactions, two molecules of CO are incorporated in the product, leading to α-keto acids or their

derivatives.[1928] When the catalyst is a palladium complex, best results are obtained in the formation of α-keto amides.[1929] The R group is usually aryl or vinylic.[1930] The formation of a-keto acids[1931] or esters[1932] requires more severe conditions. a-Hydroxy acids were obtained from aryl iodides when the reaction was carried out in the presence of an alcohol, which functioned as a reducing agent.[1933] Cobalt catalysts have also been used and require lower CO pressures.[1625]

OS V, 20, 739.

B. *Attack at an Acyl Carbon*[1934]

10-114 *The Conversion of Acyl Halides to Ketones With Organometallic Compounds*[1935]

ALKYL-DE-HALOGENATION

$$R'-\underset{\underset{O}{\|}}{C}-X + R_2CuLi \longrightarrow R'-\underset{\underset{O}{\|}}{C}-R$$

Acyl halides react cleanly and under mild conditions with lithium dialkylcopper reagents[1936] to give high yields of ketones.[1937] The R' group may be primary, secondary, or tertiary alkyl or aryl and may contain iodo, keto, ester, nitro, or cyano groups. The R groups that have been used successfully are methyl, primary alkyl, and vinylic. Secondary and tertiary alkyl groups can be introduced by the use of PhS(R)CuLi (p. 539) instead of R_2CuLi,[1938] or by the use of either the mixed homocuprate $(R'SO_2CH_2CuR)^-Li^+$,[1939] or a magnesium dialkylcopper reagent "RMeCuMgX".[1940] Secondary alkyl groups can also be introduced with the copper-zinc reagents $RCu(CN)ZnI$.[1941] The R group may be alkynyl if a cuprous acetylide ($R''C{\equiv}CCu$) is the reagent.[1942] Organocopper reagents generated *in situ* from highly reactive copper, and containing such functional groups as cyano, chloro, and ester, react with acyl halides to give ketones.[1943]

Another type of organometallic reagent[1944] that gives good yields of ketones when treated with acyl halides are organocadmium reagents R_2Cd (prepared from Grignard reagents, 12-20). In this case, R may be aryl or primary alkyl. In general, secondary and tertiary alkylcadmium reagents are not stable enough to be useful in this reaction.[1945] An ester group may be present in either R'COX or R_2Cd. Direct treatment of the acid chloride with an alkyl halide and cadmium metal leads to the ketone in some cases.[1946] Organozinc compounds behave similarly, but are used less often.[1947] Organotin reagents R_4Sn react with acyl halides to give high yields of ketones, if a Pd complex is present.[1948] Allylic halides and indium metal react with acyl chlorides to give the ketone.[1949] Various other groups, for example, nitrile, ester, and aldehyde, can be present in the acyl halide without interference. Still other reagents are organomanganese compounds (R can be primary, secondary, or tertiary alkyl, vinylic, alkynyl, or aryl),[1950] organozinc,[1951] and organothallium compounds (R can be primary alkyl or aryl).[1952] The reaction of an α-halo-ketone and an acyl chloride with SmI_2 leads to a β-diketone.[1953]

When the organometallic compound is a Grignard reagent,[1954] ketones are generally not obtained because the initially formed ketone reacts with a second molecule of RMgX to give the salt of a tertiary alcohol **(16-33).** Ketones *have* been prepared in this manner by the use of low temperatures, inverse addition (i.e., addition of the Grignard reagent to the acyl halide rather than the other way), excess acyl halide, and so on, but the yields are usually low, though high yields have been reported in THF at $-78°C$.[1955] Pretreatment with a trialkylphosphine, and then the Grignard reagent, can lead to the ketone.[1956] Using CuBr[1957] or a nickel catalyst[1958] with the Grignard reagent can lead to the ketone. Some ketones are unreactive toward Grignard reagents for steric or other reasons; these can be prepared in this way.[1959] Other methods involve running the reaction in the presence of Me_3SiCl,[1960] which reacts with the initial adduct 67 in the tetrahedral mechanism, (p. 424), and the use of a combined Grignard-lithium diethylamide reagent.[1961] Also, certain metallic halides, notably ferric and cuprous halides, are catalysts that improve the yields of ketone at the expense of tertiary alcohol.[1962] For these catalysis, both free-radical and ionic mechanisms have been proposed.[1963] The reactions with R_2CuLi, R_2Cd, and the rhodium complexes are successful because these compounds do not generally react with ketones.

Grignard reagents react with ethyl chloroformate to give carboxylic esters, EtOCOCl + RMgX → EtOCOR. Acyl halides can also be converted to ketones by treatment with $Na_2Fe(CO)_4$ followed by R'X (**10-112**, method 4).

OS **II,** 198; **III,** 601; **IV,** 708; **VI,** 248, 991; **VII,** 226, 334; **VIII,** 268, 274, 371, 441,486.

10-115 *The Conversion of Anhydrides, Carboxylic Esters, or Amides to Ketones With Organometallic Compounds*[1964]

ALKYL-DE-ACYLOXY-SUBSTITUTION

$$\underset{\underset{O}{\|}}{R\text{-}C\text{-}W} + R'MgX \longrightarrow \underset{\underset{O}{\|}}{R\text{-}C\text{-}R'} \qquad W = OCOR'', OR'', NR''_2$$

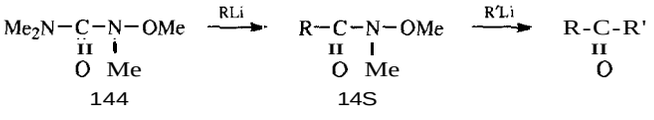
As is the case with acyl halides **(10-114),** anhydrides and carboxylic esters give tertiary alcohols **(16-33)** when treated with Grignard reagents. Low temperatures,[1965] the solvent HMPA,[1966] and inverse addition have been used to increase the yields of ketone.[1967] Amides give better yields of ketone at room temperature, but still not very high.[1968] Thiol esters (RCOSR') give good yields of ketones when treated with lithium dialkylcopper reagents, R'iCuLi (R" = primary or secondary alkyl or aryl).[1969] Ketones can also be prepared by treatment of thioamides with organolithium compounds (alkyl or aryl).[1970] Organocadmium reagents are less successful with these substrates than with acyl halides **(10-114).** Esters of formic acid, dialkylformamides, and lithium or sodium formate[1971] give good yields of aldehydes, when treated with Grignard reagents.

Trimethylaluminum reacts with esters to form ketones, in the presence of *N,N'*-dimethylethylenediamine.[1972]

Alkyllithium compounds have been used to give ketones from carboxylic esters. The reaction must be carried out in a high-boiling solvent, such as toluene, since

reaction at lower temperatures gives tertiary alcohols.[1973] Alkyllithium reagents also give good yields of carbonyl compounds with N,N-disubstituted amides.[1974] Dialkylformamides give aldehydes and other disubstituted amides give ketones and other acid derivatives have been used.[1975]

N,N-Disubstituted amides can be converted to alkynyl ketones by treatment with alkynylboranes: $RCONR'_2 + (R'C{\equiv}C)_3B \rightarrow RCOC{\equiv}CR'$.[1976] N,N-Disubstituted carbamates (X = OR") and carbamoyl chlorides (X = Cl) react with 2 mol of an alkyl- or aryllithium or Grignard reagent to give symmetrical ketones, in which both R groups are derived from the organometallic compound: $R'_2NCOX + 2\ RMgX \rightarrow R_2CO$.[1977] N,N-Disubstituted amides give ketones in high yields when treated with alkyllanthanum triflates, $RLa(OTf)_2$.[1978]



144 145

By the use of the compound *N*-methoxy-*N*,*N*′,*N*′-trimethylurea (144), it is possible to add two R groups, the same or different, to a CO group. Both reactions can be done in the same vessel without the isolation of **145**.[1979]

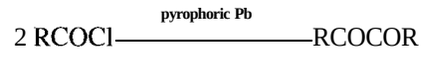
Carboxylic esters can be converted to their homologs (RCOOEt → RCH_2-COOEt) by treatment with Br_2CHLi followed by BuLi at −90°C. The ynolate $RC{\equiv}COLi$ is an intermediate.[1980] If the ynolate is treated with 1,3-cyclohexadiene, followed by $NaBH_4$, the product is the alcohol RCH_2CH_2OH.[1981]

Ketones can also be obtained by treatment of the lithium salt of a carboxylic acid with an alkyllithium reagent (16-31). For an indirect way to convert carboxylic esters to ketones, see 16-33.

OS II, 282; 72, 32; III, 353; IV, 285; VI, 611; VII, 323, 451.

10-116 *The Coupling of Acyl Halides*

DE-HALOGEN-COUPLING

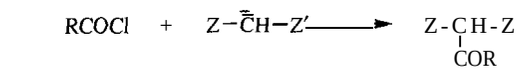


Acyl halides can be coupled with pyrophoric lead to give symmetrical α-diketones in a Wurtz-type reaction.[1982] The reaction has been performed with R = Me and Ph. Samarium iodide (SmI_2)[1983] gives the same reaction. Benzoyl chloride was coupled to give benzil by subjecting it to ultrasound in the presence of Li wire: 2 PhCOCl + Li → PhCOCOPh.[1475]

Unsymmetrical α-diketones RCOCOR' have been prepared by treatment of an acyl halide RCOCl with an acyltin reagent $R'COSnBu_3$, with a palladium complex catalyst.[1984]

10-117 *Acylation at a Carbon Bearing an Active Hydrogen*

BIS(ETHOXYCARBONYL)METHYL-DE-HALOGENATION, AND SO ON



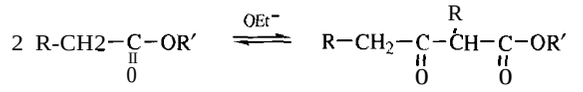
This reaction is similar to **10-104**, though many fewer examples have been reported.[1985] Both Z and Z' may be any of the groups listed in 10-104.[1986] Anhydrides react similarly but are used less often. The product contains three Z groups, since RCO is a Z group. One or two of these can be cleaved (**12-38**, **12-41**). In this way a compound ZCH_2Z' can be converted to ZCH_2Z'' or an acyl halide RCOCl to a methyl ketone $RCOCH_3$. O-Acylation is sometimes a side reaction.[1987] When thallium(I) salts of ZCH_2Z' are used, it is possible to achieve regioselective acylation at either the C or the O position. For example, treatment of the thallium(I) salt of $MeCOCH_2COMe$ with acetyl chloride at -78°C gave >90% O-acylation, while acetyl fluoride at room temperature gave >95% C-acylation.[1988] The use of an alkyl chloroformate gives triesters.[1989]

The application of this reaction to simple ketones (in parallel with 10-105)[1734] requires a strong base, such as $NaNH_2$ or Ph_3CNa, and is often complicated by O-acylation, which in many cases becomes the principal pathway because acylation at the oxygen is usually much faster. It is possible to increase the proportion of C-acylated product by employing an excess (2 to 3 equivalents) of enolate ion (and adding the substrate to this, rather than vice versa), by the use of a relatively nonpolar solvent and a metal ion (such as Mg^{2+}), which is tightly associated with the enolate oxygen atom, by the use of an acyl halide rather than an anhydride,[1990] and by working at low temperatures.[1991] In cases where the use of an excess of enolate ion results in C-acylation, it is because O-acylation takes place first, and the O-acylated product (an enol ester) is then C-acylated. Simple ketones can also be acylated by treatment of their silyl enol ethers with an acyl chloride in the presence of $ZnCl_2$ or $SbCl_3$.[1992] Ketones can be acylated by anhydrides to give β-diketones, with BF_3 as catalyst.[1993] Simple esters RCH_2COOEt can be acylated at the α carbon (at −78°C) if a strong base such as lithium *N*-isopropylcyclohexylamide is used to remove the proton.

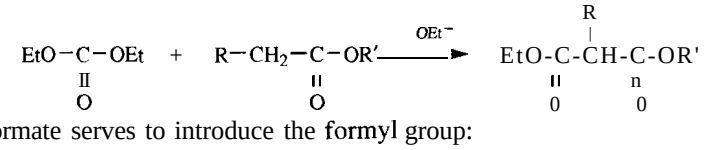
OS **II,** 266, 268, 594, 596; **III,** 16, 390, 637; **IV,** 285, 415, 708; V, 384, 937; **VI,** 245; **VII,** 213, 359; **VIII,** 71, 326, 467. See also OS VI, 620.

10-118 *Acylation of Carboxylic Esters by Carboxylic Esters: The Claisen and Dieckmann Condensations*

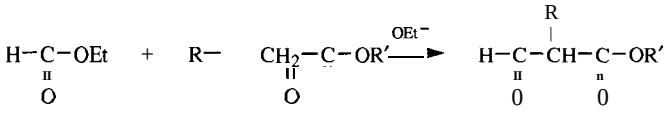
ALKOXYCARBONYLALKYL-DE-ALKOXY-SUBSTITUTION



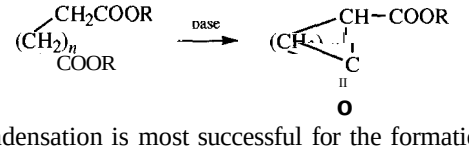
When carboxylic esters containing an a hydrogen are treated with a strong base such as sodium ethoxide, a condensation occurs to give a β-keto ester. This reaction is called the *Claisen condensation.* When it is carried out with a mixture of two different esters, each of which possesses an a hydrogen, a mixture of all four products is generally obtained and the reaction is seldom useful synthetically.[1995] However, if only one of the esters has an a hydrogen, the mixed reaction is frequently satisfactory. Among esters lacking a hydrogens (hence acting as the substrate ester) that are commonly used in this way are esters of aromatic acids, and ethyl carbonate and ethyl oxalate. Ethyl carbonate gives malonic esters.



Ethyl formate serves to introduce the formyl group:

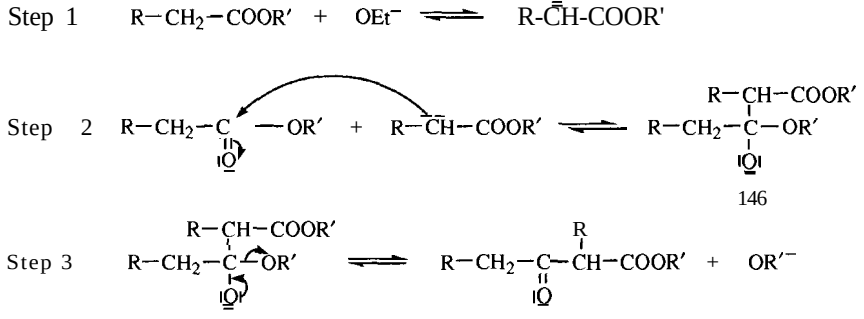


When the two ester groups involved in the condensation are in the same molecule, the product is a cyclic P-keto ester and the reaction is called the *Dieckmann condensation.*[1996]



The Dieckmann condensation is most successful for the formation of 5-, 6-, and 7-membered rings. Yields for rings of 9-12 members are very low or nonexistent; larger rings can be closed with high-dilution techniques. Reactions in which large rings are to be closed are generally assisted by high dilution, since one end of the molecule has a better chance of finding the other end than of finding another molecule. A solvent-free Dieckmann condensation has been reported on solid potassium *tert*-butoxide.[1997] Dieckmann condensation of unsymmetrical substrates can be made regioselective (unidirectional) by the use of solid-phase supports.[1998]

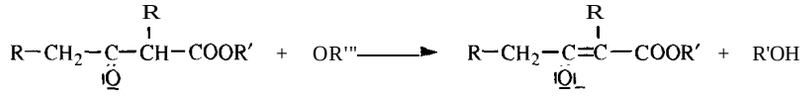
The mechanism of the Claisen and Dieckmann reactions is the ordinary tetrahedral mechanism,[1999] with one molecule of ester being converted to a nucleophile by the base and the other serving as the substrate.



146

This reaction illustrates the striking difference in behavior between carboxylic esters on the one hand and aldehydes and ketones on the other. When a carbanion such as an enolate ion is added to the carbonyl group of an aldehyde or ketone (**16-41**), the H or R is not lost, since these groups are much poorer leaving groups than OR. Instead the intermediate similar to **146** adds a proton at the oxygen to give a hydroxy compound.

In contrast to **10-104** ordinary esters react quite well, that is, two Z groups are not needed. A lower degree of acidity is satisfactory because it is not necessary to convert the attacking ester entirely to its ion. Step 1 is an equilibrium that lies well to the left. Nevertheless, the small amount of enolate ion formed is sufficient to attack the readily approachable ester substrate. All the steps are equilibria. The reaction proceeds because the product is converted to its conjugate base by the base present (that is, a β-keto ester is a stronger acid than an alcohol):

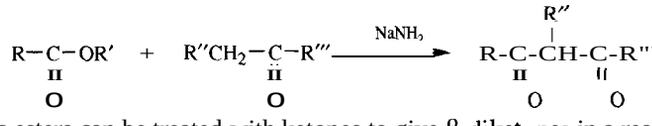


The use of a stronger base, such as $NaNH_2$, NaH, or KH,[2000] often increases the yield. For some esters stronger bases *must* be used, since sodium ethoxide is ineffective. Among these are esters of the type $R_2CHCOOEt$, the products of which ($R_2CHCOCR_2COOEt$) lack an acidic hydrogen, so that they cannot be converted to enolate ions by sodium ethoxide.[2001] The Dieckmann condensation has also been done using $TiCl_3/NBu_3$ with a TMSOTf catalyst.[2002]

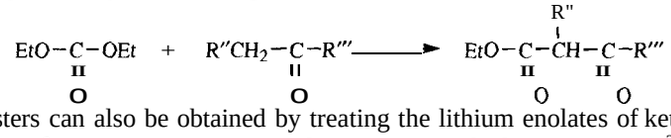
OS **I,** 235; **II,** 116, 194, 272, 288; **III,** 231, 300, 379, 510; **IV,** 141; **V,** 288. 687, 989; **VIII,** 112.

10-119 *Acylation of Ketones and Nitriles by Carboxylic Esters*

α-ACYLALKYL-DE-ALKOXY-SUBSTITUTION

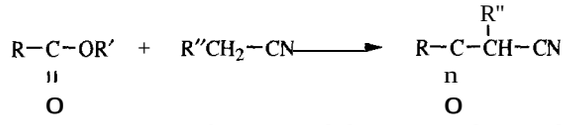


Carboxylic esters can be treated with ketones to give β-diketones in a reaction that is essentially the same as **10-118.** The reaction is so similar that it is sometimes also called the Claisen condensation, though this usage is unfortunate. A fairly strong base, such as sodium amide or sodium hydride, is required. Yields can be increased by the catalytic addition of crown ethers.[2003] Esters of formic acid (R = H) give β-keto aldehydes. Ethyl carbonate gives β-keto esters.



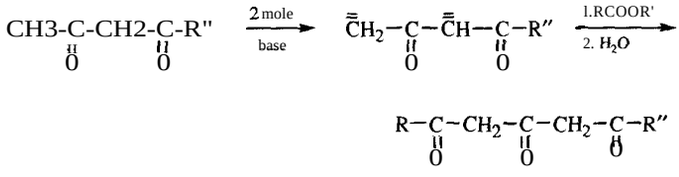
β-Keto esters can also be obtained by treating the lithium enolates of ketones with methyl cyanoformate, MeOCOCN (in this case CN is the leaving group),[2004] and by treating ketones with KH and diethyl dicarbonate, $(EtOCO)_2O$.[2005]

In the case of unsymmetrical ketones, the attack usually comes from the less highly substituted side, so that CH_3 is more reactive than RCH_2, and the R_2CH group rarely attacks. As in the case of **10-118,** this reaction has been used to effect cyclization, especially to prepare five- and six-membered rings. Nitriles are frequently used instead of ketones, the products being β-keto nitriles.



Other carbanionic groups, such as acetylide ions, and ions derived from α-methylpyridines have also been used as nucleophiles. A particularly useful nucleophile is the methylsulfinyl carbanion ($CH_3SOCH_2^-$),[2006] the conjugate base of DMSO, since the β-keto sulfoxide produced can easily be reduced to a methyl ketone (p. 549). The methylsulfonyl carbanion ($CH_3SO_2CH_2^-$), the conjugate base of dimethyl sulfone, behaves similarly,[2007] and the product can be similarly reduced. Certain carboxylic esters, acyl halides, and DMF acylate 1,3-dithianes (see **10-107**)[2008] to give, after oxidative hydrolysis with NBS or NCS, α-keto aldehydes or α-diketones,[535] for example,

As in **10-104,** a ketone attacks with its second most acidic position if 2 mol of base are used. Thus, β-diketones have been converted to 1,3,5-triketones.[2009]

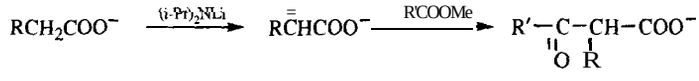


Side reactions are condensation of the ketone with itself **(16-38),** of the ester with itself **(10-118),** and of the ketone with the ester but with the ester supplying the a position **(16-40).** The mechanism is the same as in 10-118.[2010]

OS I, 238; II, 126, 200, 287, 487, 531; **III,** 17, 251, 291, 387, 829; IV, 174, 210, 461, 536; V, 187, 198, 439, 567, 718, 747; VI, 774; **VII,** 351.

10-120 *Acylation of Carboxylic Acid Salts*

α-CARBOXYALKYL-DE-ALKOXY SUBSTITUTION



We have previously seen **(10-106)** that dianions of carboxylic acids can be alkylated in the a position. These ions can also be acylated on treatment with a carboxylic

ester[2011] to give salts of P-keto acids. As in **10-106,** the carboxylic acid can be of the form RCH_2COOH or $RR''CHCOOH$. Since P-keto acids are so easily converted to ketones **(12-38),** this is also a method for the preparation of ketones $R'COCH_2R$ and R'COCHRR', where R' can be primary, secondary, or tertiary alkyl, or aryl. If the ester is ethyl formate, an α-formyl carboxylate salt (R' = H) is formed, which on acidification spontaneously decarboxylates into an aldehyde.[2012] This is a method, therefore, for achieving the conversion $RCH_2COOH \rightarrow RCH_2CHO$, and as such is an alternative to the reduction methods discussed in **10-89.** When the carboxylic acid is of the form $RR''CHCOOH$, better yields are obtained by acylating with acyl halides rather than esters.[2013]

10-121 *Preparation of Acyl Cyanides*

CYANO-DE-HALOGENATION

$$RCOX + CuCN \longrightarrow RCOCN$$

Acyl cyanides[2014] can be prepared by treatment of acyl halides with copper cyanide. The mechanism is not known and might be free radical or nucleophilic substitution. The reaction has also been accomplished with thallium(I) cyanide,[2015] with Me_3SiCN and an $SnCl_4$ catalyst,[2016] and with Bu_3SnCN,[2017] but these reagents are successful only when R = aryl or tertiary alkyl. Potassuim cyanide has also been used, along with ultrasound,[2018] as has NaCN with phase-transfer catalysts.[2019]

OS **III,** 119.

10-122 *Preparation of Diazo Ketones*

DIAZOMETHYL-DE-HALOGENATION

$$RCOX + CH_2N_2 \longrightarrow RCOCHN_2$$

The reaction between acyl halides and diazomethane is of wide scope and is the best way to prepare diazo ketones.[2020] Diazomethane must be present in excess or the HX produced will react with the diazo ketone **(10-74).** This reaction is the first step of the Arndt–Eistert synthesis (18-8). Diazo ketones can also be prepared directly from a carboxylic acid and diazomethane or diazoethane in the presence of dicyclohexylcarbodiimide.[2021]

OS **III,** 119; **VI,** 386, 613; **VIII,** 196.

10-123 *Ketonic Decarboxylation*[2022]

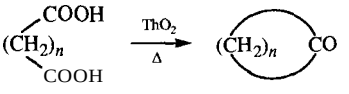
ALKYL-DE-HYDROXYLATION

$$2\ RCOOH \xrightarrow{400\text{–}500^\circ C} RCOR + CO_2$$

Carboxylic acids can be converted to symmetrical ketones by pyrolysis in the presence of thorium oxide. In a mixed reaction, formic acid and another acid heated

over thorium oxide give aldehydes. Mixed alkyl aryl ketones have been prepared by heating mixtures of ferrous salts.[2023] When the R group is large, the methyl ester rather than the acid can be decarbmethoxylated over thorium oxide to give the symmetrical ketone.

The reaction has been performed on dicarboxylic acids, whereupon cyclic ketones are obtained



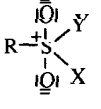
This process, called *Ruzicka cyclization*, is good for the preparation of rings of six and seven members and, with lower yields, of C_8 and C_{10} to C_{30} cyclic ketones.[2024]

Not much work has been done on the mechanism of this reaction. However, a free-radical mechanism has been suggested on the basis of a thorough study of all the side products.[2025]

OS I, 192; II, 389; IV, 854; V, 589. Also see OS IV, 55, 560.

Nucleophilic Substitution at a Sulfonyl Sulfur Atom[2026]

Nucleophilic substitution at RSO_2X is similar to attack at RCOX. Many of the reactions are essentially the same, though sulfonyl halides are less reactive than halides of carboxylic acids.[2027] The mechanisms[2028] are not identical, because a "tetrahedral" intermediate in this case **(148)** would have five groups on the central atom. Though this is possible (since sulfur can accommodate up to 12 electrons in its valence shell) it seems more likely that these mechanisms more closely resemble the S_N2 mechanism, with a trigonal bipyramidal transition state **(148).** There are two major experimental results leading to this conclusion.



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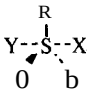

148

1. The stereospecificity of this reaction is more difficult to determine than that of nucleophilic substitution at a saturated carbon, where chiral compounds are relatively easy to prepare, but it may be recalled (p. 129) that optical activity is possible in a compound of the form RSO_2X if one oxygen is ^{16}O and the other ^{18}O. When a sulfonate ester possessing this type of chirality was converted to a sulfone with a Grignard reagent **(10-129),** inversion of configuration was found.[2029] This is not incompatible with an intermediate such as **147** but it is also in good accord with an S_N2 like mechanism with backside attack.
2. More direct evidence against **147** (though still not conclusive) was found in an experiment involving acidic and basic hydrolysis of aryl arenesulfonates, where it has been shown by the use of ^{18}O that an intermediate like **147** is not reversibly formed, since ester recovered when the reaction was stopped before

completion contained no ^{18}O when the hydrolysis was carried out in the presence of labeled water.[2030]

Other evidence favoring the S_N2 like mechanism comes from kinetics and substituent effects.[2031] However, evidence for the mechanism involving **146** is that the rates did not change much with changes in the leaving group[2032] and the p values were large, indicating that a negative charge builds up in the transition state.[2033]

In certain cases in which the substrate carries an α hydrogen, there is strong evidence[2034] that at least some of the reaction takes place by an elimination-addition mechanism (E1cB, similar to the one shown on p. 474), going through a *sulfene* intermediate,[2035] for example, the reaction between methanesulfonyl chloride and aniline.

$$CH_3-SO_2Cl \xrightarrow{\text{base}} \underset{\text{A sulfene}}{CH_2=SO_2} \xrightarrow{PhNH_2} CH_3-SO_2-NHPh$$

In the special case of nucleophilic substitution at a sulfonic ester RSO2OR', where R' is alkyl, R′—O cleavage is much more likely than S—O cleavage because the OSO_2R group is such a good leaving group (p. 446).[2036] Many of these reactions have been considered previously (e.g., **10-4** and **10-14),** because they are nucleophilic substitutions at an alkyl carbon atom and not at a sulfur atom. However, when R' is aryl, then the S—O bond is much more likely to cleave because of the very low tendency aryl substrates have for nucleophilic substitution.[2037]

The order of nucleophilicity toward a sulfonyl sulfur has been reported as $OH^- > RNH_2 > N_3^- > F^- > AcO^- > Cl^- > H_2O > P$.[2038] This order is similar to that at a carbonyl carbon (p. XXX). Both of these substrates can be regarded as relatively hard acids, compared to a saturated carbon which is considerably softer and which has a different order of nucleophilicity (p. 444).

10-124 *Attack by OH: Hydrolysis of Sulfonic Acid Derivatives*

S-HYDROXY-DE-CHLORINATION, AND SO ON

$$RSO_2Cl \xrightarrow{H_2O} RSO_2OH$$

$$RSO_2OR' \xrightarrow[H^+]{H_2O} RSO_2OH$$

$$RSO_2OR_2' \xrightarrow[H^+]{H_2O} RSO_2OH$$

Sulfonyl chlorides as well as esters and amides of sulfonic acids can be hydrolyzed to the corresponding acids. Sulfonyl chlorides can by hydrolyzed with water or with an alcohol in the absence of acid or base. Basic catalysis is also used, though of course the salt is the product obtained. Esters are readily hydrolyzed, many with water or dilute alkali. This is the same reaction as **10-4,** and usually involves R′—O cleavage, except when R' is aryl. However, in some cases retention of configuration

has been shown at alkyl R', indicating S—O cleavage in these cases.[2039] Sulfonamides are generally not hydrolyzed by alkaline treatment, not even with hot concentrated alkali. Acids, however, do hydrolyze them, though less readily than they do sulfonyl halides or sulfonic esters. Of course, ammonia or the amine appears as the salt. However, sulfonamides can be hydrolyzed with base if the solvent is HMPA.[2040] Magnesium in methanol has been used to convert sulfonate esters to the parent alcohol.[2041]

OS I, 14; **II,** 471; **III,** 262; **IV,** 34; V, 406; **VI,** 652, 727. Also see OS V, 673; **VI,** 1016.

10-125 *Attack by OR: Formation of Sulfonic Esters*

S-ALKOXY-DE-CHLORINATION, AND SO ON

$$RSO_2Cl + R'OH \xrightarrow{\text{base}} RSO_2OR'$$

$$RSO_2NR_2'' + R'OH \xrightarrow{\text{base}} RSO_2OR' + NHR_2''$$

Sulfonic esters are most frequently prepared by treatment of the corresponding halides with alcohols in the presence of a base. The method is much used for the conversion of alcohols to tosylates, brosylates, and similar sulfonic esters. Both R and R' may be alkyl or aryl. The base is often pyridine, which functions as a nucleophilic catalyst,[2042] as in the similar alcoholysis of carboxylic acyl halides (10-21). Primary alcohols react the most rapidly, and it is often possible to sulfonate selectively a primary OH group in a molecule that also contains secondary or tertiary OH groups. The reaction with sulfonamides has been much less frequently used and is limited to N,N-disubstituted sulfonamides; that is, R" may not be hydrogen. However, within these limits it is a useful reaction. The nucleophile in this case is actually $R'O^-$. However, R" may be hydrogen (as well as alkyl) if the nucleophile is a phenol, so that the product is RSO_2OAr. Acidic catalysts are used in this case.[2043] Sulfonic acids have been converted directly to sulfonates by treatment with triethyl or trimethyl orthoformate $HC(OR)_3$, without catalyst or solvent;[2044] and with a trialkyl phosphite $P(OR)_3$.[2045]

OS I, 145; **III,** 366; IV, 753; **VI,** 56, 482, 587, 652; **VII,** 117; 66, 1; **68**, 188. Also see OS **IV,** 529; **VI,** 324, 757; **VII,** 495; **VIII,** 568.

10-126 *Attack by Nitrogen: Formation of Sulfonamides*

S-AMINO-DE-CHLORINATION

$$RSO_2Cl + NH_3 \longrightarrow RSO_2NH_2$$

The treatment of sulfonyl chlorides with ammonia or amines is the usual way of preparing sulfonamides. Primary amines give N-alkyl sulfonamides, and secondary amines give N,N-dialkyl sulfonamides. The reaction is the basis of the *Hinsberg test* for distinguishing between primary, secondary, and tertiary amines. N-Alkyl sulfonamides, having an acidic hydrogen, are soluble in alkali, while N,N-dialkyl sulfon-

amides are not. Since tertiary amines are usually recovered unchanged, primary, secondary, and tertiary amines can be told apart. However, the test is limited for at least two reasons.[2046] (1) Many N-alkyl sulfonamides in which the alkyl group has six or more carbons are insoluble in alkali, despite their acidic hydrogen,[2047] so that a primary amine may appear to be a secondary amine. (2) If the reaction conditions are not carefully controlled, tertiary amines may not be recovered unchanged.[2045]

A primary or a secondary amine can be protected by reaction with phenacylsulfonyl chloride ($PhCOCH_2SO_2Cl$) to give a sulfonamide ($RNHSO_2CH_2COPh$ or $R_2NSO_2CH_2COPh$).[2048] The protecting group can be removed when desired with zinc and acetic acid. Sulfonyl chlorides react with azide ion to give sulfonyl azides RSO_2N_3.[2049]

OS IV, 34, 943; V, 39, 179, 1055; **VI,** 78, 652; **VII,** 501; **VIII,** 104. See also OS VI, 788.

10-127 *Attack by Halogen: Formation of Sulfonyl Halides*

S-HALO-DE-HYDROXYLATION

$$RSO_2OH + PCl_5 \longrightarrow RSO_2Cl$$

This reaction, parallel with **10-77,** is the standard method for the preparation of sulfonyl halides. Also used are PCl_3 and $SOCl_2$, and sulfonic acid salts can also serve as substrates. Sulfonyl bromides and iodides have been prepared from sulfonyl hydrazides ($ArSO_2NHNH_2$, themselves prepared by **10-126)** by treatment with bromine or iodine.[2050] Sulfonyl fluorides are generally prepared from the chlorides, by halogen exchange.[2051]

OS I, 84; **IV,** 571, 693, 846, 937; V, 196. See also OS **VII,** 495.

10-128 *Attack by Hydrogen: Reduction of Sulfonyl Chlorides*

S-HYDRO-DE-CHLORINATION OR *S*-DECHLORINATION

$$RSO_2Cl + Zn \longrightarrow (RSO_2)_2Zn \xrightarrow{H^+} 2\,RSO_2H$$

Sulfinic acids can be prepared by reduction of sulfonyl chlorides. Though mostly done on aromatic sulfonyl chlorides, the reaction has also been applied to alkyl compounds. Besides zinc, sodium sulfite, hydrazine, sodium sulfide, and other reducing agents have been used. For reduction of sulfonyl chlorides to thiols, see **19-57.**

OS **I,** 7, 492; **IV,** 674.

10-129 *Attack by Carbon: Preparation of Sulfones*

S-ARYL-DE-CHLORINATION

$$ArSO_2Cl + Ar'MgX \longrightarrow ArSO_2Ar'$$

Grignard reagents convert aromatic sulfonyl chlorides or aromatic sulfonates to sulfones. Organolithium reagents react with sulfonyl fluorides at —78°C to give the corresponding sulfone.[2052] Aromatic sulfonates have also been converted to sulfones with organolithium compounds,[2053] with aryltin compounds,[2054] and with alkyl halides and Zn metal.[2055] Vinylic and ally lic sulfones have been prepared by treatment of sulfonyl chlorides with a vinylic or allylic stannane and a palladium-complex catalyst.[2056] Alkynyl sulfones can be prepared by treatment of sulfonyl chlorides with trimethylsilylalkynes, with an $AlCl_3$ catalyst.[2057]

$$ArSO_2Cl + RC{\equiv}CSiMe_3 \xrightarrow{AlCl_3} ArSO_2{-}C{\equiv}CR$$

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CHAPTER 11

Aromatic Electrophilic Substitution

Most substitutions at an aliphatic carbon are nucleophilic. In aromatic systems the situation is reversed, because the high electron density at the aromatic ring attracts positive species and not negative ones. In electrophilic substitutions, the attacking species is a positive ion or the positive end of a dipole or induced dipole. The leaving group (the electrofuge) must necessarily depart without its electron pair. In nucleophilic substitutions, the chief leaving groups are those best able to carry the unshared pair: Br^-, H_2O, OTs^-, and so on that is, the weakest bases. In electrophilic substitutions, the most important leaving groups are those that can best exist without the pair of electrons necessary to fill the outer shell, that is, the weakest Lewis acids. The most common leaving group in electrophilic aromatic substitutions is the proton.

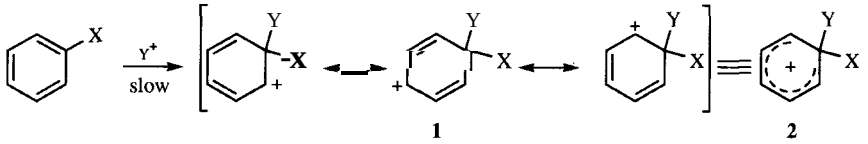
MECHANISMS

Electrophilic aromatic substitutions are unlike nucleophilic substitutions in that the large majority proceed by just one mechanism with respect to the substrate.[1] In this mechanism, which we call the *arenium ion mechanism*, the electrophile attacks in the first step, giving rise to a positively charged intermediate (the arenium ion), and the leaving group departs in the second step, so there is a resemblance to the tetrahedral mechanism of Chapter 10, but with the charges reversed. The IUPAC designation for this mechanism is $A_E + D_E$. Another mechanism, much less common, consists of the opposite behavior: The leaving group departs *before* the electrophile arrives. This mechanism, the S_E1 mechanism, corresponds to the S_N1 mechanism of nucleophilic substitution. Simultaneous attack and departure mechanisms (corresponding to S_N2) are not found at all. An addition-elimination mechanism has been postulated in one case (see 11-6).

The Arenium Ion Mechanism[2]

In the arenium ion mechamism the attacking species may be produced in various ways, but what happens to the aromatic ring is basically the same in all cases. For this reason most attention in the study of this mechanism centers around the identity

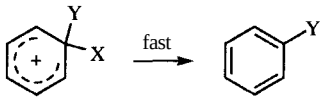
of the attacking entity and how it is produced.



1 2

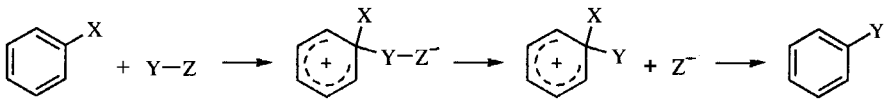
The electrophile may be a positive ion or a dipole. If it is a positive ion, it attacks the ring, removing a pair of electrons from the sextet to give a carbocation, which is a resonance hybrid, as shown in 1, and is frequently represented as in 2. Ions of this type are called[3] *Wheland intermediates, σ complexes,* or *arenium ions.*[4] In the case of benzenoid systems they are cyclohexadienyl cations. It is easily seen that the great stability associated with an aromatic sextet is no longer present in 1, though the ion is stabilized by resonance of its own. The arenium ion is generally a highly reactive intermediate and must stabilize itself by a further reaction, although it has been isolated (see p. 678).

Carbocations can stabilize themselves in various ways (see p. 227), but for this type of ion the most likely way[5] is by loss of either X^+ or Y^+. The aromatic sextet is then restored, and in fact this is the second step of the mechanism:



The second step is nearly always faster than the first, so the first is rate determining and the reaction is second order (unless the formation of the attacking species is slower still, in which case the aromatic compound does not take part in the rate expression at all). If Y^+ is lost, there is no net reaction, but if X^+ is lost, an aromatic substitution has taken place. If X^+ is a proton, a base is necessary to help remove it.

If the attacking species is not an ion but a dipole, the product must have a negative charge unless part of the dipole, with its pair of electrons, is broken off somewhere in the process, for example,



The attacking entity in each case and how it is formed are discussed for each reaction in the reactions section of this chapter.

The evidence for the arenium ion mechanism is mainly of two kinds:

1. *Isotope Effects.* If the hydrogen ion departs before the arrival of the electrophile (S_E1 mechanism) or if the arrival and departure are simultaneous, there should be a substantial isotope effect (i.e., deuterated substrates should undergo substitution more slowly than nondeuterated compounds) because, in each case, the C—H bond is broken in the rate-determining step. However, in the arenium ion mechanism, the C—H bond is not broken in the rate-

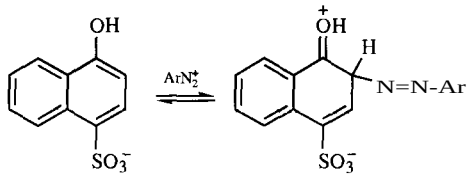
determining step, so no isotope effect should be found. Many such studies have been carried out and, in most cases, especially in the case of nitrations, there is no isotope effect.[6] This result is incompatible with either the S_E1 or the simultaneous mechanism.

However, in many instances, isotope effects have been found. Since the values are generally much lower than expected for either the S_E1 or the simultaneous mechanisms (e.g., 1-3 for k_H/k_D instead of 6-7), we must look elsewhere for the explanation. For the case where hydrogen is the leaving group, the arenium ion mechanism can be summarized:

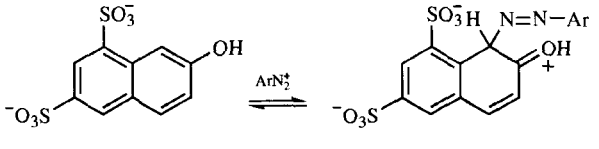
Step 1 $\mathrm{ArH} + \mathrm{Y}^+ \underset{k_{-1}}{\overset{k_1}{\rightleftharpoons}} \mathrm{Ar}\overset{+}{<}\begin{matrix}\mathrm{H}\\ \mathrm{Y}\end{matrix}$

Step 2 $\mathrm{Ar}\overset{\cdot}{<}_{\mathrm{Y}} \xrightarrow{k_2} \mathrm{ArY} + \mathrm{H}^+$

The small isotope effects found most likely arise from the reversibility of step 1 by a *partitioning effect*.[7] The rate at which ArHY^+ reverts to ArH should be essentially the same as that at which ArDY^+ (or ArTY^+) reverts to ArD (or ArT), since the Ar H bond is not cleaving. However, ArHY^+ should go to ArY faster than either ArDY^+ or ArTY^+, since the Ar–H bond is broken in this step. If $k_2 \gg k_{-1}$, this does not matter; since a large majority of the intermediates go to product, the rate is determined only by the slow step ($k_1[\mathrm{ArH}][\mathrm{Y}^+]$) and no isotope effect is predicted. However, if $k_2 \lesssim k_{-1}$, reversion to starting materials is important. If k_2 for ArDY^+ (or ArTY^+) is $< k_2$ for ArHY^+, but k_{-1} is the same, then a larger proportion of ArDY^+ reverts to starting compounds. That is, k_2/k_{-1} (the *partition factor)* for ArDY^+ is less than that for ArHY^+. Consequently, the reaction is slower for ArD than for ArH and an isotope effect is observed.



3 4



5 6

One circumstance that could affect the k_2/k_{-1} ratio is steric hindrance. Thus, diazonium coupling of 3 gave no isotope effect, while coupling of 5

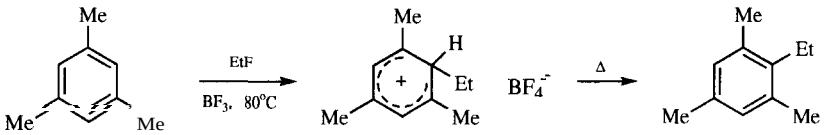
gave a k_H/k_D ratio of 6.55.[8] For steric reasons, it is much more difficult for 6 to lose a proton (it is harder for a base to approach) than it is for 4, so k_2 is greater for the latter. Since no base is necessary to remove ArN_2^+, k_{-1} does not depend on steric factors[9] and is about the same for each. Thus the partition factor k_2/k_{-1} is sufficiently different for 4 and 6 that 5 exhibits a large isotope effect and 3 exhibits none.[10] Base catalysis can also affect the partition factor, since an increase in base concentration increases the rate at which the intermediate goes to product without affecting the rate at which it reverts to starting materials. In some cases, isotope effects can be diminished or eliminated by a sufficiently high concentration of base.

Evidence for the arenium ion mechanism has also been obtained from other kinds of isotope-effect experiments, involving substitutions of the type

$$ArMR_3 + H_3O^+ \longrightarrow ArH + R_3MOH_2^+$$

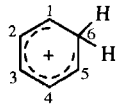
where M is Si, Ge, Sn, or Pb, and R is methyl or ethyl. In these reactions, the proton is the electrophile. If the arenium ion mechanism is operating, then the use of D_3O^+ should give rise to an isotope effect, since the D—O bond would be broken in the rate-determining step. Isotope effects of 1.55-3.05 were obtained,[11] in accord with the arenium ion mechanism.

2. *Isolation of Arenium Ion Intermediates.* Very strong evidence for the arenium ion mechanism comes from the isolation of arenium ions in a number of instances.[12] For example, 7 was isolated as a solid with melting point — 15°C



Mesitylene 7 8

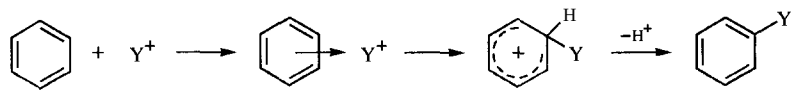
from treatment of mesitylene with ethyl fluoride and the catalyst BF_3 at —80°C. When 7 was heated, the normal substitution product 8 was obtained.[13] Even the simplest such ion, the benzenonium ion (9) has been prepared in $HF—SbF_5—SO_2ClF—SO_2F_2$ at -134°C, where it could be studied



9

spectrally.[14] The ^{13}C NMR spectra of the benzenonium ion[15] and the pentamethylbenzenonium ion[16] give graphic evidence for the charge distribution shown in 1. According to this, the 1, 3, and 5 carbons, each of which bears a charge of about $+\frac{1}{3}$, should have a greater chemical shift in the NMR than the 2 and 4 carbons, which are uncharged. The spectra bear this out. For example, ^{13}C NMR chemical shifts for 9 are C-3: 178.1; C-1 and C-5: 186.6; C-2 and C-4: 136.9, and C-6: 52.2.[15]

In Chapter 3, it was mentioned that positive ions can form addition complexes with *n* systems. Since the initial step of electrophilic substitution involves attack by a positive ion on an aromatic ring, it has been suggested[17] that such a complex, called a *n complex* (represented as 10), is formed first and then is converted to the arenium ion 11. Stable solutions of arenium ions or *n* complexes (e.g., with Br_2, I_2, picric



10 11

acid, Ag $^+$, or HC1) can be formed at will. For example, *n* complexes are formed when aromatic hydrocarbons are treated with HC1 alone, but the use of HC1 plus a Lewis acid (e.g., $AlCl_3$) gives arenium ions. The two types of solution have very different properties. For example, a solution of an arenium ion is colored and conducts electricity (showing positive and negative ions are present), while a *n* complex formed from HC1 and benzene is colorless and does not conduct a current. Furthermore, when DC1 is used to form a *n* complex, no deuterium exchange takes place (because there is no covalent bond between the electrophile and the ring), while formation of an arenium ion with DC1 and $AlCl_3$ gives deuterium exchange. The relative stabilities of some methylated arenium ions and *n* complexes are shown in Table 11.1. The arenium ion stabilities listed were determined by the relative basicity of the substrate toward HF.[18] The π complex stabilities are relative equilibrium constants for the reaction[19] between the aromatic hydrocarbon and HC1. As shown in Table 11.1, the relative stabilities of the two types of species are very different: The *n* complex stability changes very little with methyl substitution, but the arenium ion stability changes a great deal.

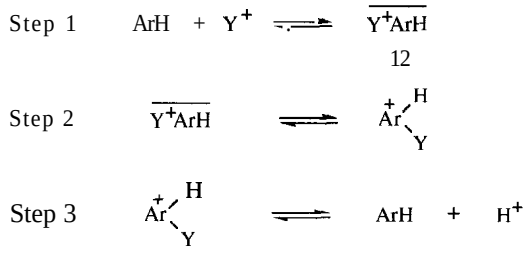
TABLE 11.1 Relative Stabilities of Arenium Ions and π Complexes and Relative Rates of Chlorination and Nitration[a]

Substituents	Relative Arenium Ion stability*	Relative π-Complex Stability[b]	Rate of Chlorination[c]	Rate of Nitration[d]
None (benzene)	0.09	0.61	0.0005	0.51
Me	0.63	0.92	0.157	0.85
p-Me_2	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00
o-Me_2	1.1	1.13	2.1	0.89
m-Me_2	26	1.26	200	0.84
1,2,4-Me_3	63	1.36	340	
1,2,3-Me_3	69	1.46	400	
1,2,3,4-Me_4	400	1.63	2000	
1,2,3,5-Me_4	16,000	1.67	240,000	
Me_5	29,900		360,000	

"In each case, *p*-xylene = 1.00
[fc]See Ref. 18.
'See Ref. 19.
[rf]See Ref. 23.

How can we tell if 10 is present on the reaction path? If it is present, there are two possibilities: (1) The formation of 10 is rate determining (the conversion of 10 to 11 is much faster), or (2) the formation of 10 is rapid, and the conversion 10 to 11 is rate determining. One way to ascertain which species is formed in the rate determining step in a given reaction is to use the stability information given in Table 11.1. We measure the relative rates of reaction of a given electrophile with the series of compounds listed in Table 11.1. If the relative rates resemble the arenium ion stabilities, we conclude that the arenium ion is formed in the slow step; but if they resemble the stabilities of the *n* complexes, the latter are formed in the slow step.[20] When such experiments are carried out, it is found in most cases that the relative rates are similar to the arenium ion and not to the *n* complex stabilities. For example, Table 11.1 lists chlorination rates.[19] Similar results were obtained in room temperature bromination with Br_2 in acetic acid[21] and in acetylation with CH_3CO^+-SbF_6^-[22]. It is clear that in these cases the *n* complex either does not form at all, or if it does, its formation is not rate determining (unfortunately, it is very difficult to distinguish between these two possibilities).

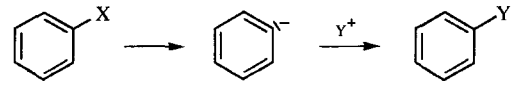
On the other hand, in nitration with the powerful electrophile NO_2^+ (in the form of NO_2^+ BF4), the relative rates resembled π complex stabilities much more than arenium ion stabilities (Table 11.1).[23] Similar results were obtained for bromination with Br_2 and $FeCl_3$ in nitromethane. These results were taken to mean[24] that in these cases *n* complex formation is rate determining. However, graphical analysis of the NO_2^+ data showed that a straight line could not be drawn when the nitration rate was plotted against *n* complex stability,[25] which casts doubt on the rate-determining formation of a *n* complex in this case.[26] There is other evidence, from positional selectivities (discussed on p. 694), that *some* intermediate is present before the arenium ion is formed, whose formation can be rate determining with powerful electrophiles. Not much is known about this intermediate, which is given the nondescriptive name *encounter complex* and generally depicted as 12. The arenium complex mechanism is therefore written as[27]



For the reason given above and for other reasons, it is unlikely that the encounter complex is a *n* complex, but just what kind of attraction exists between Y^+ and ArH is not known, other than the presumption that they are together within a solvent cage (see also p. 694). There is evidence (from isomerizations occurring in the alkyl group, as well as other observations) that *n* complexes are present on the pathway from substrate to arenium ion in the gas-phase protonation of alkylbenzenes.[28]

The S_E1 Mechanism

The S_E1 mechanism *(substitution electrophilic unimolecular*) is rare, being found only in certain cases in which carbon is the leaving atom (see **11-37**, **11-38**) or when a very strong base is present (see **11-1**, **11-11**, and **11-42**).[29] It consists of two steps with an intermediate carbanion. The IUPAC designation is $D_E + A_E$.



Reactions **12-39**, **12-43**, and **12-44** also take place by this mechanism when applied to aryl substrates.

ORIENTATION AND REACTIVITY

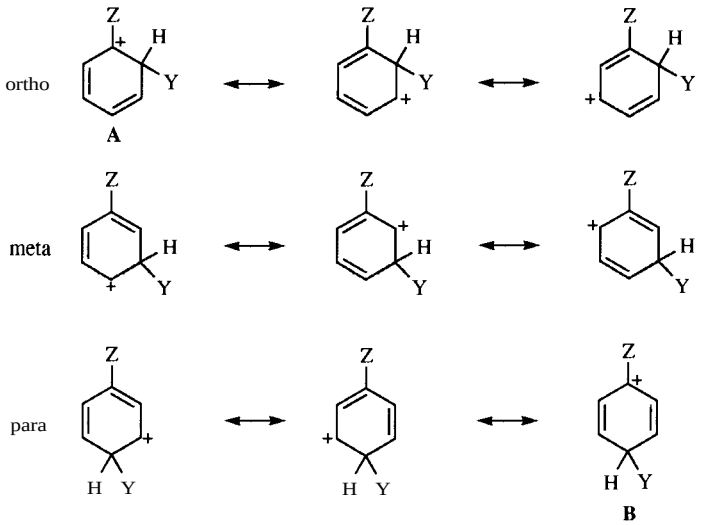
Orientation and Reactivity in Monosubstituted Benzene Rings[30]

When an electrophilic substitution reaction is performed on a monosubstituted benzene, the new group may be directed primarily to the ortho, meta, or para position and the substitution may be slower or faster than with benzene itself. The group already on the ring determines which position the new group will take and whether the reaction will be slower or faster than with benzene. Groups that increase the reaction rate are called *activating* and those that slow it *deactivating.* Some groups are predominantly meta directing; all of these are deactivating. Others are mostly ortho-para directing; some of these are deactivating too, but most are activating. Groups direct *predominantly,* but usually not *exclusively.* For example, nitration of nitrobenzene gave 93% *m*-dinitrobenzene, 6% of the ortho, and 1% of the para isomer.

The orientation and reactivity effects of each group are explained on the basis of resonance and field effects on the stability of the intermediate arenium ion. To understand why we can use this approach, it is necessary to know that in these reactions the product is usually kinetically and not thermodynamically controlled (see p. 284). Some of the reactions are irreversible and the others are usually stopped well before equilibrium is reached. Therefore, which of the three possible intermediates is formed is dependent not on the thermodynamic stability of the products but on the activation energy necessary to form each of the three intermediates. It is not easy to predict which of the three activation energies is lowest, but we make the assumption that the free energy profile resembles either Figure 6.2a or *b.* In either case, the transition state is closer in energy to the arenium ion intermediate than to the starting compounds. Invoking the Hammond postulate (p. 285), we can then assume that the geometry of the transition state also resembles that of the intermediate and that anything that increases the stability of the intermediate will also lower the activation energy necessary to attain it. Since the intermediate, once formed, is rapidly converted to products, we can use the relative stabilities of the three intermediates as guides to predict which products will

predominantly form. Of course, if reversible reactions are allowed to proceed to equilibrium, we may get product ratios that are quite different. For example, the sulfonation of naphthalene at 80°C, where the reaction does not reach equilibrium, gives mostly α-naphthalenesulfonic acid,[31] while at 160°C, where equilibrium is attained, the β isomer predominates (the a isomer is thermodynamically less stable because of steric interaction between the SO_3H group and the hydrogen at the 8 position).[32]

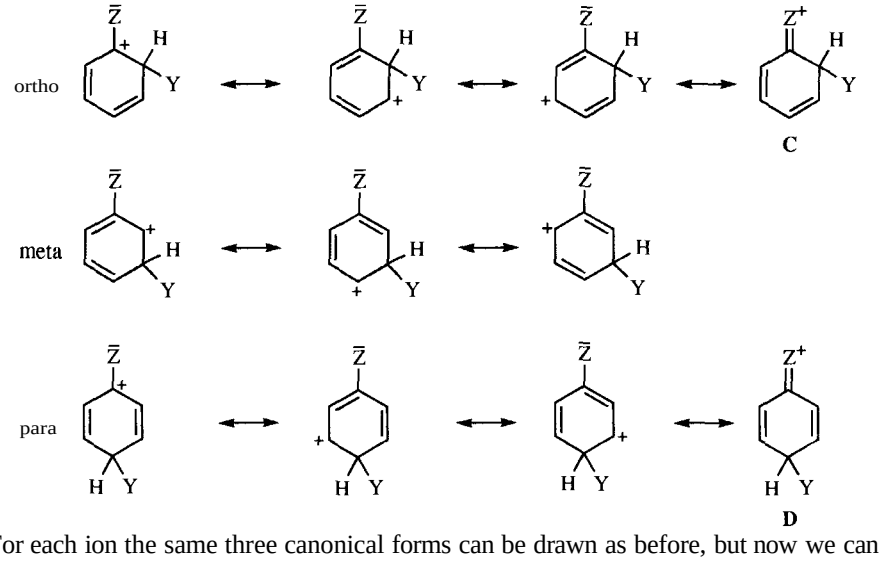
These are the three possible ions:



For each ion we see that the ring has a positive charge. We can therefore predict that any group Z that has an electron-donating field effect (+/) should stabilize all three ions (relative to 1), but that electron-withdrawing groups, which increase the positive charge on the ring, should destabilize them. We can also make a further prediction concerning field effects. These taper off with distance and are thus strongest at the carbon connected to the group Z. Of the three arenium ions, only the ortho and para have any positive charge at this carbon. None of the canonical forms of the meta ion has a positive charge there and so the hybrid has none either. Therefore, +/ groups should stabilize all three ions but mostly the ortho and para, so they should be not only activating but ortho-para directing as well. On the other hand, -/ groups, by removing electron density, should destabilize all three ions but mostly the ortho and para, and should be not only deactivating but also meta directing.

These conclusions are correct as far as they go, but they do not lead to the proper results in all cases. In many cases, there is *resonance interaction* between Z and the ring; this also affects the relative stability, in some cases in the same direction as the field effect, in others differently.

Some substituents have a pair of electrons (usually unshared) that may be contributed *toward* the ring. The three arenium ions would then look like this



For each ion the same three canonical forms can be drawn as before, but now we can draw an extra form for the ortho and para ions. The stability of these two ions is increased by the extra form not only because it is another canonical form, but because it is more stable than the others and makes a greater contribution to the hybrid. Every atom (except of course hydrogen) in these forms (C and D) has a complete octet, while all the other forms have one carbon atom with a sextet. No corresponding form can be drawn for the meta isomer. The inclusion of this form in the hybrid lowers the energy not only because of rule 6 (p. 41), but also because it spreads the positive charge over a larger area—out onto the group Z. Groups with a pair of electrons to contribute would be expected, then, in the absence of field effects, not only to direct ortho and para, but also to activate these positions for electrophilic attack.

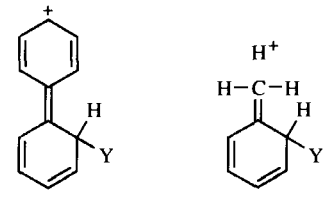
On the basis of these discussions, we can distinguish three types of groups.

1. Groups that contain an unshared pair of electrons on the atom connected to the ring. In this category are O^-, NR_2, NHR, NH_2,[33] OH, OR, NHCOR, OCOR, SR, and the four halogens.[34] The halogens deactivate the aromatic ring to substitution (the rate of reaction is slower than that of benzene), and this effect may arise from the unique energy level of the halogen lone-pair orbital, which is higher than the adjacent *n* MO of benzene (π_1).[35] The widely held explanation for this, however, is that the halogens have a $-$ / effect. The SH group would probably belong here too, except that in the case of thiophenols electrophiles usually attack the sulfur rather than the ring, and ring substitution is not feasible with these substrates.[36] The resonance explanation predicts that all these groups should be ortho–para directing, and they are, though all except O^- are electron withdrawing by the field effect

(p. 18). Therefore, for these groups, resonance is more important than the field effect. This is especially true for NR_2, NHR, NH_2, and OH, which are *strongly* activating, as is O^-. The other groups are mildly activating, except for the halogens, which are deactivating. Fluorine is the least deactivating, and fluorobenzenes usually show a reactivity approximating that of benzene itself. The other three halogens deactivate about equally. In order to explain why chlorine, bromine, and iodine deactivate the ring, even though they direct ortho-para, we must assume that the canonical forms C and D make such great contributions to the respective hybrids that they make the ortho and para arenium ions more stable than the meta, even though the -/ effect of the halogen is withdrawing sufficient electron density from the ring to deactivate it. The three halogens make the ortho and para ions more stable than the meta, but less stable than the unsubstituted arenium ion (1). For the other groups that contain an unshared pair, the ortho and para ions are more stable than either the meta ion or the unsubstituted ion. For most of the groups in this category, the meta ion is more stable than 1, so that groups such as NH_2, OH, and so on activate the meta positions too, but not as much as the ortho and para positions (see also the discussion on pp. 690-691).

2. Groups that lack an unshared pair on the atom connected to the ring and that are —/. In this category are, in approximate order of decreasing deactivating ability, NR_3^+, NO_2, CF_3, CN, SO_3H, CHO, COR, COOH, COOR, $CONH_2$, CCl_3, and NH_3^+. Also in this category are all other groups with a positive charge on the atom directly connected to the ring (SR_2^+, PR_3^+, etc.)[37] and many groups with positive charges on atoms farther away, since often these are still powerful — / groups. The field-effect explanation predicts that these should all be meta directing and deactivating, and (except for NH_3^+) this is the case. The NH_3^+ group is an anomaly, since this group directs para about as much as or a little more than it directs meta.[38] The NH_2Me^+, $NHMe_2^+$, and NMe_3^+ groups all give more meta than para substitution, the percentage of para product decreasing with the increasing number of methyl groups.[39]

3. Groups that lack an unshared pair on the atom connected to the ring and that are ortho-para directing. In this category are alkyl groups, aryl groups, and the COO^- group,[40] all of which activate the ring. We shall discuss them separately. Since aryl groups are -/ groups, they might seem to belong to category 2. They are nevertheless ortho-para directing and activating. This can be explained in a similar manner as in category 1, with a pair of electrons from the aromatic sextet playing the part played by the unshared pair, so that

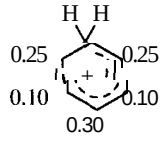


E F

we have forms like E. The effect of negatively charged groups like COO^- is easily explained by the field effect (negatively charged groups are of course electron donating), since there is no resonance interaction between the group and the ring. The effect of alkyl groups can be explained in the same way, but, in addition, we can also draw canonical forms, even though there is no unshared pair. These of course are hyperconjugation forms like F. This effect, like the field effect, predicts activation and ortho-para direction, so that it is not possible to say how much each effect contributes to the result. Another way of looking at the effect of alkyl groups, which sums up both field and hyperconjugation effects, is that (for Z = R) the ortho and para arenium ions are more stable because each contains a form (A and B) that is a tertiary carbocation, while all the canonical forms for the meta ion and for 1 are secondary carbocations. In activating ability, alkyl groups usually follow the Baker-Nathan order (p. 72), but not always.[41]

The Ortho/Para Ratio[42]

When an ortho-para directing group is on a ring, it is usually difficult to predict how much of the product will be the ortho isomer and how much the para isomer. Indeed, these proportions can depend greatly on the reaction conditions. For example, chlorination of toluene gives an ortho/para ratio anywhere from 62/38 to 34/66.[43] Nevertheless, certain points can be made. On a purely statistical basis there would be 67% ortho and 33% para, since there are two ortho positions and only one para. However, the phenonium ion (9), which arises from protonation of benzene, has the



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approximate charge distribution shown.[44] If we accept this as a model for the arenium ion in aromatic substitution, a para substitutent would have a great stabilizing effect on the adjacent carbon than an ortho substituent. If other effects are absent, this would mean that >33% para and <67% ortho substitution would be found. In hydrogen exchange (Reaction 11-1), where other effects are absent, it has been found for a number of substitutents that the average ratio of the logarithsms of the partial rate factors for these positions (see p. 690 for a definition of partial rate factor) was close to 0.865,[45] which is not far from the value predicted from the ratio of charge densities in 9. This picture is further supported by the fact that meta-directing groups, which destabilize a positive charge, give ortho/para ratios >67:33 (of course the total amount of ortho and para substitution with these groups is small, but the *ratios* are generally >67:33).[46] Another important factor is the steric effect. If either the group on the ring or the attacking group is large, steric hindrance inhibits

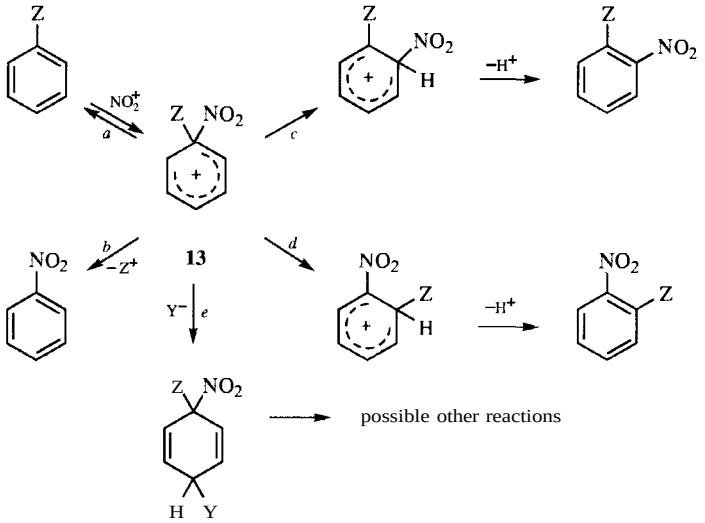
formation of the ortho product and increases the amount of the para isomer. An example may be seen in the nitration, under the same conditions, of toluene and *tert*-butylbenzene. The former gave 58% of the ortho compound and 37% of the para, while the more bulky *tert*-butyl group gave 16% of the ortho product and 73% of the para.[47] Some groups are so large that they direct almost entirely para.

When the ortho-para directing group is one with an unshared pair (this of course applies to most of them), there is another effect that increases the amount of para product at the expense of the ortho. A comparison of the intermediates involved (p. 683) shows that C is a canonical form with an ortho-quinoid structure, while D has a para-quinoid structure. Since we know that para-quinones are more stable than the ortho isomers, it seems reasonable to assume that D is more stable than C, and therefore contributes more to the hybrid and increases its stability compared to the ortho intermediate.

It has been shown that it is possible to compel regiospecific para substitution by enclosing the substrate molecules in a cavity from which only the para position projects. Anisole was chlorinated in solutions containing a cyclodextrin, a molecule in which the anisole is almost entirely enclosed (see Fig. 3.4). With a high enough concentration of cyclodextrin, it was possible to achieve a para/ortho ratio of 21.6 (in the absence of the cyclodextrin the ratio was only 1.48).[48] This behavior is a model for the regioselectivity found in the action of enzymes.

Ipso Attack

We have discussed orientation in the case of monosubstituted benzenes entirely in terms of attack at the ortho, meta, and para positions, but attack at the position bearing the substituent (called the *ipso position*[49]) can also be important. Ipso attack has mostly been studied for nitration.[50] When NO_2^+ attacks at the ipso position there are at least five possible fates for the resulting arenium ion (13).



Path a. The arenium ion can lose NO_2^+ and revert to the starting compounds. This results in no net reaction and is often undetectable.

Path b. The arenium ion can lose Z^+, in which case this is simply aromatic substitution with a leaving group other than H (see 11-36-11-44).

Path c. The electrophilic group (in this case NO_2^+) can undergo a 1,2 migration, followed by loss of the proton. The product in this case is the same as that obtained by direct attack of NO_2^+ at the ortho position of PhZ. It is not always easy to tell how much of the ortho product in any individual case arises from this pathway,[51] though there is evidence that it can be a considerable proportion. Because of this possibility, many of the reported conclusions about the relative reactivity of the ortho, meta, and para positions are cast into doubt, since some of the product may have arisen not from direct attack at the ortho position, but from attack at the ipso position followed by rearrangement.[52]

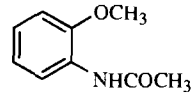
Path d. The ipso substituent (Z) can undergo 1,2 migration, which also produces the ortho product (though the rearrangement would become apparent if there were other substituents present). The evidence is that this pathway is very minor, at least when the electrophile is NO_2^+.[53]

Path e. Attack of a nucleophile on 13. In some cases, the products of such an attack (cyclohexadienes) have been isolated (this is 1,4 addition to the aromatic ring),[54] but further reactions are also possible.

Orientation in Benzene Rings With More Than One Substituent[55]

It is often possible in these cases to predict the correct isomer. In many cases, the groups already on the ring reinforce each other. Thus, 1,3-dimethylbenzene is substituted at the 4 position (ortho to one group and para to the other), but not at the 5 position (meta to both). Likewise the incoming group in *p*-chlorobenzoic acid goes to the position ortho to the chloro and meta to the carboxyl group.

When the groups oppose each other, predictions may be more difficult. In a case such as where two groups of about equal directing ability are in competing positions,

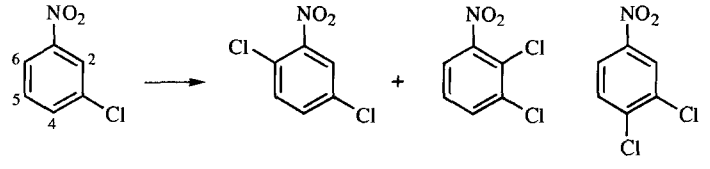


all four products can be expected, and it is not easy to predict the proportions, except that steric hindrance should probably reduce the yield of substitution ortho to the acetamido group, especially for large electrophiles. Mixtures of about equal proportions are frequent in such cases. Nevertheless, even when groups on a ring oppose each other, there are some regularities.

1. If a strong activating group competes with a weaker one or with a deactivating group, the former controls. Thus *o*-cresol gives substitution mainly ortho and para to the *hydroxyl* group and not to the methyl. For this purpose,

we can arrange the groups in the following order: NH_2, OH, NR_2, O^- > OR, OCOR, NHCOR > R, Ar > halogen > meta-directing groups.

2. All other things being equal, a third group is least likely to enter between two groups in the meta relationship. This is the result of steric hindrance and increases in importance with the size of the groups on the ring and with the size of the attacking species.[56]
3. When a meta-directing group is meta to an ortho-para directing group, the incoming group primarily goes ortho to the meta-directing group rather than para. For example, chlorination of 14 gives mostly 15. The importance of this



14 **15** **16** **17**

effect is underscored by the fact that 16, which is in violation of the preceding rule, is formed in smaller amounts, but 17 is not formed at all. This is called the *ortho effect*,[51] and many such examples are known.[58] Another is the nitration of *p*-bromotoluene, which gives 2,3-dinitro-4-bromotoluene. In this case, once the first nitro group came in, the second was directed ortho to it rather than para, even though this means that the group has to come in between two groups in the meta position. There is no good explanation yet for the ortho effect, though possibly there is intramolecular assistance from the meta-directing group.

It is interesting that chlorination of 14 illustrates all three rules. Of the four positions open to the electrophile, the 5 position violates rule 1, the 2 position rule 2, and the 4 position rule 3. The principal attack is therefore at position 6.

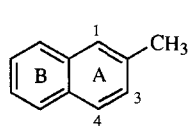
Orientation in Other Ring Systems[59]

In fused ring systems, the positions are not equivalent and there is usually a preferred orientation even in the unsubstituted hydrocarbon. The preferred positions may often by predicted as for benzene rings. Thus it is possible to draw more canonical forms for the arenium ion when naphthalene is attacked at the a position than when it is attacked at the β position, and the a position is the preferred site of attack,[60] though, as previously mentioned (p. 682), the isomer formed by substitution at the β position is thermodynamically more stable and is the product if the reaction is reversible and equilibrium is reached. Because of the more extensive delocalization of charges in the corresponding arenium ions, naphthalene is more reactive than benzene and substitution is faster at both positions. Similarly, anthracene, phenanthrene, and other fused polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons are also substituted faster than benzene.

Heterocyclic compounds, too, have nonequivalent positions, and the principles are similar,[61] in terms of mechanism and rate data is available.[62] Furan, thiophene,

and pyrrole are chiefly substituted at the 2 position, and all are substituted faster than benzene.[63] Pyrrole is particularly reactive, with a reactivity approximating that of aniline or the phenoxide ion. For pyridine[64] it is not the free base that is attacked but the conjugate acid, pyridinium ion.[65] The 3 position is most reactive, but the reactivity in this case is much less than that of benzene, being similar to that of nitrobenzene. However, groups can be introduced into the 4 position of a pyridine ring indirectly, by performing the reaction on the corresponding pyridine N-oxide.[66]

When fused ring systems contain substituents, successful predictions can often be made by using a combination of the above principles. Thus, ring A of 2-methylnaphthalene (18) is activated by the methyl group; ring B is not (though the presence



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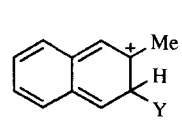

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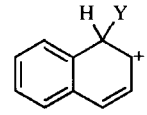

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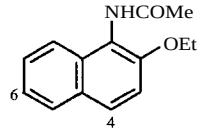
of a substituent in a fused ring system affects all the rings,[67] the effect is generally greatest on the ring to which it is attached). We therefore expect substitution in ring A. The methyl group activates positions 1 and 3, which are ortho to itself, but not position 4, which is meta to it. However, substitution at the 3 position gives rise to an arenium ion for which it is impossible to write a low-energy canonical form in which ring B has a complete sextet. All we can write are forms like 19, in which the sextet is no longer intact. In contrast, substitution at the 1 position gives rise to a more stable arenium ion, for which two canonical forms (one of them is 20) can be written in which ring B is benzenoid. We thus predict predominant substitution at C-1, and that is what is generally found.[68] However, in some cases predictions are much harder to make. For example, chlorination or nitration of 21 gives mainly the 4 derivative, but bromination yields chiefly the 6 compound.[69]



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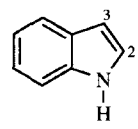
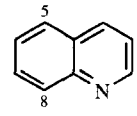
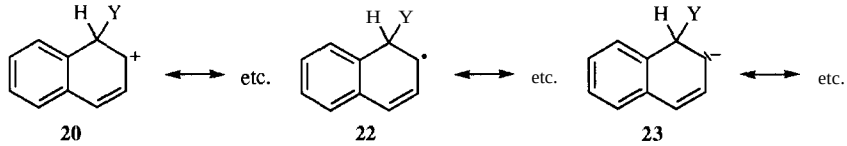


Indole



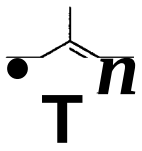
Quinoline

For fused heterocyclic systems too, we can often make predictions based on the above principles, though many exceptions are known. Thus, indole is chiefly substituted in the pyrrole ring (at position 3) and reacts faster than benzene, while quinoline generally reacts in the benzene ring, at the 5 and 8 positions, and slower than benzene, though faster than pyridine.



20 **22** **23**

In alternant hydrocarbons (p. 55), the reactivity at a given position is similar for electrophilic, nucleophilic, and free-radical substitution, because the same kind of resonance can be shown in all three types of intermediate (cf. **20**, **22**, and 23). Attack at the position that will best delocalize a positive charge will also best delocalize a negative charge or an unpaired electron. Most results are in accord with these predictions. For example, naphthalene is attacked primarily at the 1 position by NO_2^+, NH_2^-, and Ph•, and always more readily than benzene.



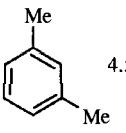
24

When strain due to a ring fused on an aromatic ring deforms that ring out of planarity, the molecule is more reactive to electrophilic aromatic substitution.[70] This has been explained by the presence of a shortened bond for the sp^2 hybridized carbon, increasing the strain at that position, and this is known as the *Mills-Nixon Effect*.[71] There is electron paramagnetic resonance (EPR) evidence for 3,6-dimethyl-1,2,4,5-tetrahydrobenzo-bis-cyclobutene (24) that supports the Mills-Nixon effect,[72] and a theoretical study supports this.[73] However, *ab initio* studies of triannelated benzene rings shows *no evidence* for the Mills-Nixon effect, and a new motif for bond-alternating benzenes was proposed.[74] Indeed, it is argued that the Mills-Nixon effect is not real.[75]

Quantitative Treatments of Reactivity in the Substrate

Quantitative rate studies of aromatic substitutions are complicated by the fact that there are usually several hydrogens that can leave, so that measurements of overall rate ratios do not give a complete picture as they do in nucleophilic substitutions, where it is easy to compare substrates that have only one possible leaving group in a molecule. What is needed is not, say, the overall rate ratio for acetylation of toluene versus that for benzene, but the *rate ratio at each position.* These can be calculated from the overall rates and a careful determination of the proportion of isomers formed, provided that the products are kinetically controlled, as is usually the case. We may thus define the *partial rate factor* for a given group and a given reaction as the rate of substitution at a single position relative to a single position in benzene. For example, for acetylation of toluene the partial rate factors are the following:

4.5x749 = 3375
4.8 x 4.8 x 23



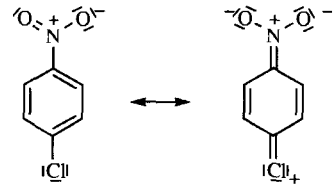
$4.5 \times 4.5 = 20$

for the ortho position $o_f^{Me} = 4.5$, for the meta $m_f^{Me} = 4.8$, and for the para $p_f^{Me} = 7.9$ [76] This means that toluene is acetylated at the ortho position 4.5 times as

fast as a single position in benzene, or 0.75 times as fast as the overall rate of acetylation of benzene. A partial rate factor > 1 for a given position indicates that the group in question activates that position for the given reaction. Partial rate factors differ from one reaction to another and are even different, though less so, for the same reaction under different conditions.

Once we know the partial rate factors, we can predict the proportions of isomers to be obtained when two or more groups are present on a ring, *if we make the assumption that the effect of substituents is independent.* For example, if the two methyl groups in m-xylene have the same effect as the methyl group in toluene, we can calculate the theoretical partial rate factors at each position by multiplying those from toluene, so they should be as indicated:

From this it is possible to calculate the overall theoretical rate ratio for acetylation of m-xylene relative to benzene, since this is one-sixth the sum of the partial rate factors (in this case 1130), and the isomer distribution if the reaction is kinetically controlled. The overall rate ratio actually is 347[77] and the calculated and observed isomer distributions are listed in Table 11.2.[76] In this case, and in many others, agreement is fairly good, but many cases are known where the effects are not additive.[78] For example,



25

this treatment predicts that for 1,2,3-trimethylbenzene there should be 35% 5 substitution and 65% 4 substitution, but acetylation gave 79% 5 substitution and 21% of the 4 isomer. The treatment is thrown off by steric effects, such as those mentioned earlier (p. 685), by products arising from ipso attack (p. 686) and by resonance interaction *between* groups (e.g., 25), which must make the results deviate from simple additivity of the effects of the groups.

Another approach that avoids the problem created by having competing leaving groups present in the same substrate is the use of substrates that contain only one leaving group. This is most easily accomplished by the use of a leaving group other

TABLE 11.2 Calculated and Experimental Isomer Distributions in the Acetylation of *m*-Xylene

	Isomer Distribution (%)	
Position	Calculated	Observed
2	0.30	0
4	9.36	97.5
5	0.34	2.5

than hydrogen. By this means, overall rate ratios can be measured for specific positions.[79] Results obtained in this way[80] give a reactivity order quite consistent with that for hydrogen as leaving group.

A quantitative scale of reactivity for aromatic substrates (fused, heterocyclic, and substituted rings) has been devised, based on the hard-soft concept (p. 338).[81] From MO theory, a quantity, called *activation hardness*, can be calculated for each position of an aromatic ring. The smaller the activation hardness, the faster the attack at that position; hence the treatment predicts the most likely orientations for incoming groups.

A Quantitative Treatment of Reactivity of the Electrophile: the Selectivity Relationship

Not all electrophiles are equally powerful. The nitronium ion attacks not only benzene but also aromatic rings that contain a strongly deactivating group. On the other hand, diazonium ions couple only with rings containing a powerful activating group. Attempts have been made to correlate the influence of substituents with the power of the attacking group. The most obvious way to do this is with the Hammett equation (p. 350):

$$\log \frac{k}{k_0} = \rho\sigma$$

For aromatic substitution, k_0 is divided by 6 and, for meta substitution, k is divided by 2, so that comparisons are made for only one position (consequently, k/k_0 for, say, the methyl group at a para position is identical to the partial rate factor p_f^{Me}). It was soon found that while this approach worked fairly well for electron-withdrawing groups, it failed for those that are electron donating. However, if the equation is modified by the insertion of the Brown σ^+ values instead of the Hammett σ values (because a positive charge develops during the transition state), more staisfactory correlations can be made, even for electron-donating groups (see Table 9.4 for a list of CT^+ values).[82] Groups with a negative value of CT_p^+ or CT_m^+ are activating for that position; groups with a positive value are deactivating. The p values correspond to the susceptibility of the reaction to stabilization or destabilization by the Z group and to the reactivity of the electrophile. The p values vary not only with the electrophile but also with conditions. A large negative value of p means an electrophile of relatively low reactivity. Of course, this approach is completely useless for ortho substitution, since the Hammett equation does not apply there.

A modification of the Hammett approach, suggested by Brown, called the *selectivity relationship*,[83] is based on the principle that reactivity of a species varies inversely with selectivity. Table 11.3[84] shows how electrophiles can be arranged in order of selectivity as measured by two indexes: (1) their selectivity in attacking toluene rather than benzene, and (2) their selectivity between the meta and para positions in toluene. As the table shows, an electrophile more selective in one respect is also more selective in the other. In many cases, electrophiles known to be more

TABLE 11.3 Relative Rates and Product Distributions in Some Electrophilic Substitutions on Toluene and Benzene

Reaction	Relative Rate $k_{toluene}/k_{benzene}$	Product Distribution (%)	
		m	p
Bromination	605	0.3	66.8
Chlorination	350	0.5	39.7
Benzoylation	110	1.5	89.3
Nitration	23	2.8	33.9
Mercuration	7.9	9.5	69.5
Isopropylation	1.8	25.9	46.2

stable (hence less reactive) than others show a higher selectivity, as would be expected. For example, the *tert*-butyl cation is more stable and more selective than the isopropyl (p. 219), and Br_2 is more selective than Br^+. However, deviations from the relationship are known.[85] Selectivity depends not only on the nature of the electrophile but also on the temperature. As expected, it normally decreases with increasing temperature.

Brown assumed that a good measurement of selectivity was the ratio of the para and meta partial rate factors in toluene. He defined the selectivity S_f of a reaction as

$$p_f^{Me}$$

That is, the more reactive an attacking species, the less preference it has for the para position compared to the meta. If we combine the Hammett-Brown $\sigma^+\rho$ relationship with the linearity between log S_f and log p_f^{Me} and between log S_f and log m_f^{Me}, it is possible to derive the following expressions:

$$\log m_f^{Me} = \frac{\sigma_m^+}{\sigma_p^+ - \sigma_m^+} S_f$$

S_f is related to p by

$$S_f = \rho(\sigma_p^+ - \sigma_m^+)$$

The general validity of these equations is supported by a great deal of experimental data on aromatic substitution reactions of toluene. Examples of values for some reactions obtained from these equations are given in Table 11.4.[86] For other substituents, the treatment works well with groups that, like methyl, are not very

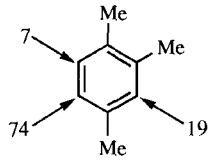
TABLE 11.4 Values of m_f^{Me}, p_f^{Me}, S_f, and p for Three Reactions of Toluene

Reaction	m_f^{Me}	p_f^{Me}	S_f	P
PhMe + EtBr $\xrightarrow[\text{benzene, 25°C}]{GaBr_3}$	1.56	6.02	0.587	-2.66
PhMe + HNO_3 $\xrightarrow[45°C]{90\%HOAc}$	2.5	58	1.366	-6.04
PhMe + BR_2 $\xrightarrow[25°C]{85\%HOAc}$	5.5	2420	2.644	-11.40

polarizable. For more polarizable groups the correlations are sometimes satisfactory and sometimes not, probably because each electrophile in the transition state makes a different demand on the electrons of the substituent group.

Not only are there substrates for which the treatment is poor, but it also fails with very powerful electrophiles; this is why it is necessary to postulate the encounter complex mentioned on page 680. For example, relative rates of nitration of *p*-xylene, 1,2,4-trimethylbenzene, and 1,2,3,5-tetramethylbenzene were 1.0, 3.7, and 6.4,[87] though the extra methyl groups should enhance the rates much more (*p*-xylene itself reacted 295 times faster than benzene). The explanation is that with powerful electrophiles the reaction rate is so rapid (reaction taking place at virtually every encounter[88] between an electrophile and substrate molecule)[89] that the presence of additional activating groups can no longer increase the rate.[90]

Given this behavior (little selectivity in distinguishing between different substrate molecules), the selectivity relationship would predict that positional selectivity should also be very small. However, it is not. For example, under conditions where nitration of *p*-xylene and 1,2,4-trimethylbenzene takes place at about equal rates, there was no corresponding lack of selectivity at positions *within* the latter.[91] Though



relative rate ratios

steric effects are about the same at both positions, more than 10 times as much 5-nitro product was formed as 6-nitro product. It is clear that the selectivity relationship has broken down and it becomes necessary to explain why such an extremely rapid reaction should occur with positional selectivity. The explanation offered is that the rate-determining step is formation of an encounter complex (12, p. 680).[92] Since the position of attack is not determined in the rate-determining step, the 5:6 ratio is not related to the reaction rate. Essentially the same idea was suggested earlier[93] and for the same reason (failure of the selectivity relationship in some cases), but the earlier explanation specifically pictured the complex as a *n* complex, and we have seen (p. 680) that there is evidence against this.

One interesting proposal[94] is that the encounter pair is a radical pair $\overline{NO_2^{\bullet}ArH^{\bullet+}}$ formed by an electron transfer (SET), which would explain why the

electrophile, once in the encounter complex, can acquire the selectivity that the free NO_2^+ lacked (it is not proposed that a radical pair is present in all aromatic substitutions; only in those that do not obey the selectivity relationship). The radical pair subsequently collapses to the arenium ion. There is evidence[95] both for and against this proposal.[96]

The Effect of the Leaving Group

In the vast majority of aromatic electrophilic substitutions, the leaving group is H^+ (it is certainly one of the best), and very little work has been done on the relative electrofugal ability of other leaving groups. However, the following orders of leaving-group ability have been suggested:[97] (1) for leaving groups that depart without assistance (S_N1 process with respect to the leaving group), NO_2^+ [98] < $i\text{-}Pr^+ \approx SO_3 < t\text{-}Bu^+ \approx ArN_2^+ < ArCHOH^+ < NO^+ < CO_2$; (2) for leaving groups that depart with assistance from an outside nucleophile (S_N2 process), $Me^+ < Cl^+ < Br^+ < D^+ \approx RCO^+ < H^+ \approx I^+ < Me_3Si^+$. We can use this kind of list to help predict which group, X or Y, will cleave from an arenium ion (1) once it has been formed, and so obtain an idea of which electrophilic substitutions are feasible. However, a potential leaving group can also affect a reaction in another way: by influencing the rate at which the original electrophile attacks directly at the ipso position. Partial rate factors for electrophilic attack at a position substituted by a group other than hydrogen are called ipso partial rate factors (i_f^X).[49] Such factors for the nitration of *p*-haloanisoles are 0.18, 0.08, and 0.06, for *p*-iodo, *p*-bromo-, and *p*-chloroanisole, respectively.[99] This means, for example, that the electrophile in this case attacks the 4 position of 4-iodoanisole 0.18 times as fast as a single position of benzene. Note that this is far slower than it attacks the 4 position of anisole itself so that the presence of the iodo group greatly slows the reaction at that position. A similar experiment on *p*-cresol showed that ipso attack at the methyl position was 6.8 times slower than attack at the para position of phenol.[100] Thus, in these cases, both an iodo and a methyl group deactivate the ipso position.[101]

REACTIONS

The reactions in this chapter are classified according to leaving group. Hydrogen replacements are treated first, then rearrangements in which the attacking entity is first cleaved from another part of the molecule (hydrogen is also the leaving group in these cases), and finally replacements of other leaving groups.

Hydrogen as the Leaving Group in Simple Substitution Reactions

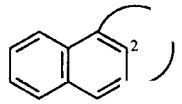
A. *Hydrogen as the Electrophile*

11-1 *Hydrogen Exchange*

DEUTERIO-DE-HYDROGENATION OR DEUTERIATION

$$ArH + D^+ \rightleftharpoons ArD + H^+$$

Aromatic compounds can exchange hydrogens when treated with acids. The reaction is used chiefly to study mechanistic questions (including substituent effects),[102] but can also be useful to deuterate (add ^2H) or tritiate (add ^3H) aromatic rings selectively. The usual directive effects apply and, for example, phenol treated with D_2O gives slow exchange on heating, with only ortho and para hydrogens being exchanged.[103] Strong acids, of course, exchange faster with aromatic substrates, and this exchange must be taken into account when studying the mechanism of any aromatic substitution catalyzed by acids. There is a great deal of evidence that exchange takes place by the ordinary arenium ion mechanism. Among the evidence are the orientation effects noted above and the finding that the reaction is general acid catalyzed, which means that a proton is transferred in the slow step (p. 337).[104] Furthermore, many examples have been reported of stable solutions of arenium ions formed by attack of a proton on an aromatic ring.[4] Simple aromatic compounds can be extensively deuterated in a convenient fashion by treatment with D_2O and BF3.[105] It has been shown that tritium exchange takes place readily at the 2 position of 26, despite the fact that this position is hindered by the bridge. The rates were not very different from the comparison compound 1,3-dimethylnaphthalene.[106]



n = 7, 8, 10

26

Hydrogen exchange can also be effected with strong bases,[107] such as NH_2^-. In these cases the slow step is the proton transfer:

$$ArH + B \longrightarrow Ar^- + BH^+$$

so the S_E1 mechanism and not the usual arenium ion mechanism is operating.[108] Aromatic rings can also be deuterated by treatment with D_2O and a rhodium(III) chloride[109] or platinum[110] catalyst or with C_6D_6 and an alkylaluminum dichloride catalyst,[111] though rearrangements may take place during the latter procedure. Tritium (^3H, abbreviated T) can be introduced by treatment with T_2O and an alkylaluminum dichloride catalyst.[111] Tritiation at specific sites (e.g., >90% para in toluene) has been achieved with T_2 gas and a microporous aluminophosphate catalyst.[112]

B. *Nitrogen Electrophiles*

11-2 *Nitration or Nitro-de-hydrogenation*

$$ArH + HNO_3 \xrightarrow{H_2SO_4} ArNO_2$$

Most aromatic compounds, whether of high or low reactivity, can be nitrated, because a wide variety of nitrating agents is available.[113] For benzene, the simple alkylbenzenes, and less reactive compounds, the most common reagent is a mixture of concentrated nitric and sulfuric acids, but for active substrates, the reaction can be

carried out with nitric acid alone, or in water, acetic acid, or acetic anhydride. In fact, these milder conditions are necessary for active compounds such as amines, phenols, and pyrroles, since reaction with mixed nitric and sulfuric acids would oxidize these substrates. A mixture of NO_2/O_2 Fe(acac)3, where acac = acetylacetonato, can also be used.[114] If anhydrous conditions are required, nitration can be effected with N_2O_5[115] in CCl_4 in the presence of P_2O_5, which removes the water formed in the reaction.[116] Nitration in alkaline media can be accomplished with esters of nitric acid such as ethyl nitrate ($EtONO_2$). These reagents can also be used with proton or Lewis acid catalysts. Other nitrating agents are $NaNO_2$ and trifluoroacetic acid,[117] N_2O_4 (which gives good yields with polycyclic hydrocarbons[118]), $VO(NO_3)_3$,[119] and nitronium salts[120] such as $NO_2^+ BF_4^-$, $NO_2^+ PF_6^-$, and $NO_2^+ CF_3SO_3^-$. The last-mentioned salt gives a very high yield of products at low temperatures.[121] A mixture of HNO_3/acetic anhydride on a H^+ beta-zeolite give high para selectivity for nitration.[122] Aromatic hydrocarbons and halobenzenes are nitrated in high yields with clay-supported cupric nitrate (Claycop),[123] with predominant para regioselectivity.[124] With active substrates such as amines and phenols, nitration can be accomplished by nitrosation under oxidizing conditions with a mixture of dilute nitrous and nitric acids.[125] Nitration of styrene poses a problem since addition occurs to the C=C unit to give a 1-nitroethyl aryl.[126] Heterocycles such as pyridine are nitrated with N_2O_5 and SO_2.[127] A mixture of NO_2/O_3 nitration electron deficient aromatics such as ethyl benzoate[128] as well as electron rich aryls such as *O*-acetylphenol.[129]

When amines are nitrated under strong-acid conditions, meta orientation is generally observed, because the species undergoing nitration is actually the conjugate acid of the amine. If the conditions are less acidic, the free amine is nitrated and the orientation is ortho-para. Although the free base may be present in much smaller amounts than the conjugate acid, it is far more susceptible to aromatic substitution (see also p. 684). Because of these factors and because they are vulnerable to oxidation by nitric acid, primary aromatic amines are often protected before nitration by treatment with acetyl chloride (10-55) or acetic anhydride (10-56). Nitration of the resulting acetanilide derivative avoids all these problems. There is evidence that when the reaction takes place on the free amine, it is the nitrogen that is attacked to give an N-nitro compound $Ar{-}NH{-}NO_2$ which rapidly undergoes rearrangement (see 11-31) to give the product.[130]

Since the nitro group is deactivating, it is usually easy to stop the reaction after one group has entered the ring, but a second and a third group can be introduced if desired, especially when an activating group is also present. Even *m*-dinitrobenzene can be nitrated if vigorous conditions are applied. This has been accomplished with $NO_2^+ BF_4^-$ in FSO_3H at 150°C.[131]

With most of the reagents mentioned, the attacking species is the nitronium ion NO_2^+. Among the ways in which this ion is formed are

1. In concentrated sulfuric acid, by an acid-base reaction in which nitric acid is the base:

$$HNO_3 + 2\,H_2SO_4 \rightleftharpoons NO_2^+ + H_3O^+ + 2\,HSO_4^-$$

This ionization is essentially complete.

2. In concentrated nitric acid alone,[132] by a similar acid-base reaction in which one molecule of nitric acid is the acid and another the base:

$$2\,HNO_3 \rightleftharpoons NO_2^+ + NO_3^- + H_2O$$

This equilibrium lies to the left (about 4% ionization), but enough NO_2^+ is formed for nitration to occur.

3. The equilibrium just mentioned occurs to a small extent even in organic solvents.
4. With N_2O_5 in CCl_4, there is spontaneous dissociation:

$$N_2O_5 \rightleftharpoons NO_2^+ + NO_3^-$$

but in this case there is evidence that some nitration also takes place with undissociated N_2O_5 as the electrophile.

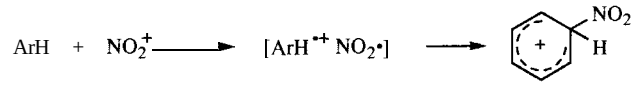
5. When nitronium salts are used, NO_2^+ is of course present to begin with. Esters and acyl halides of nitric acid ionize to form NO_2^+. Nitrocyclohexadienones are converted to NO_2^+ and the corresponding phenol.[115]

There is a great deal of evidence that NO_2^+ is present in most nitrations and that it is the attacking entity,[133] for example,

1. Nitric acid has a peak in the Raman spectrum. When nitric acid is dissolved in concentrated sulfuric acid, the peak disappears and two new peaks appear, one at $1400\,cm^{-1}$ attributable to NO_2^+ and one at $1050\,cm^{-1}$ due to HSO_4^-.[134]
2. On addition of nitric acid, the freezing point of sulfuric acid is lowered about four times the amount expected if no ionization has taken place.[135] This means that the addition of one molecule of nitric acid results in the production of four particles, which is strong evidence for the ionization reaction between nitric and sulfuric acids given above.
3. The fact that nitronium salts in which nitronium ion is known to be present (by X-ray studies) nitrate aromatic compounds shows that this ion does attack the ring.
4. The rate of the reaction with most reagents is proportional to the concentration of NO_2^+, not to that of other species.[136] When the reagent produces this ion in small amounts, the attack is slow and only active substrates can be nitrated. In concentrated and aqueous mineral acids the kinetics are second order: first order each in aromatic substrate and in nitric acid (unless pure nitric acid is used in which case there are pseudo-first-order kinetics). But in organic solvents, such as nitromethane, acetic acid, and CCl_4, the kinetics are first order in nitric acid alone and zero order in aromatic substrate, because the rate-determining step is formation of NO_2^+ and the substrate does not take part in this.

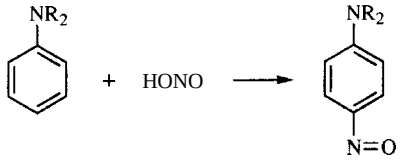
An interesting route to nitrobenzene begins with bromobenzene. Reaction with butyllithium gives phenyllithium, which reacts with an excess of N_2O_4 to give nitrobenzene.[137]

In a few cases, depending on the substrate and solvent, there is evidence that the arenium ion is not formed directly, but via the intermediacy of a radical pair (see p. 694):[138]



OS I, 372, 396, 408 (see also OS 53, 129); II, 254, 434, 438, 447, 449, 459, 466; ffl, 337, 644, 653, 658, 661, 837; IV, 42, 364, 654, 711, 722, 735; V, 346, 480, 829, 1029, 1067.

11-3 *Nitrosation or Nitroso-de-hydrogenation*



Ring nitrosation[139] with nitrous acid is normally carried out only with active substrates such as amines and phenols. However, primary aromatic amines give diazonium ions **(12-47)** when treated with nitrous acid,[140] and secondary amines tend to give N-nitroso rather than C-nitroso compounds **(12-49);** hence this reaction is normally limited to phenols and tertiary aromatic amines. Nevertheless secondary aromatic amines can be C-nitrosated in two ways. The N-nitroso compound first obtained can be isomerized to a C-nitroso compound **(11-32),** or it can be treated with another mole of nitrous acid to give an N,C-dinitroso compound. Also, a successful nitrosation of anisole has been reported, where the solvent was CF_3COOH–CH_2Cl_2.[141]

Much less work has been done on the mechanism of this reaction than on the preceding one.[142] In some cases the attacking entity is NO^+, but in others it is apparently NOCl, NOBr, N_2O_3, and so on, in each of which there is a carrier of NO^+. Both NOCl and NOBr are formed during the normal process of making nitrous acid the treatment of sodium nitrite with HC1 or HBr. Nitrosation requires active substrates because NO^+ is much less reactive than NO_2^+. Kinetic studies have shown that NO^+ is at least 10^{14} times less reactive than NO_2^+.[143] A consequence of the relatively high stability of NO^+ is that this species is easily cleaved from the arenium ion, so that k_{-1} competes with k_2 (p. 677) and isotope effects are found.[144] With phenols, there is evidence that nitrosation may first take place at the OH group, after which the nitrite ester thus formed rearranges to the C-nitroso product.[145] Tertiary aromatic amines substituted in the ortho position generally do not react with HONO, probably because the ortho substituent prevents planarity of the dialkylamino group, without which the ring is no longer activated. This is an example of steric inhibition of resonance (p. 42).

OS I, 214, 411, 511; II, 223; IV, 247.

11-4 *Diazonium Coupling*

ARYLAZO-DE-HYDROGENATION

$$ArH + Ar'N_2^+ \longrightarrow Ar{-}N{=}N{-}Ar'$$

Aromatic diazonium ions normally couple only with active substrates such as amines and phenols.[146] Many of the products of this reaction are used as dyes (*azo dyes*).[147] Presumably because of the size of the attacking species, substitution is mostly para to the activating group, unless that position is already occupied, in which case ortho substitution takes place. The pH of the solution is important both for phenols and amines. For amines, the solutions may be mildly acidic or neutral. The fact that amines give ortho and para products shows that even in mildly acidic solution they react in their un-ionized form. If the acidity is too high, the reaction does not occur, because the concentration of free amine becomes too small. Phenols must be coupled in slightly alkaline solution where they are converted to the more reactive phenoxide ions, because phenols themselves are not active enough for the reaction. However, neither phenols nor amines react in moderately alkaline solution, because the diazonium ion is converted to a diazo hydroxide Ar—N=N—OH. Primary and secondary amines face competition from attack at the nitrogen.[148] However, the resulting N-azo compounds (aryl triazenes) can be isomerized to C-azo compounds (11-33). In at least some cases, even when the C-azo compound is isolated, it is the result of initial N-azo compound formation followed by isomerization. It is therefore possible to synthesize the C-azo compound directly in one laboratory step.[149] Acylated amines and phenolic ethers and esters are ordinarily not active enough for this reaction, though it is sometimes possible to couple them (as well as such polyalkylated benzenes as mesitylene and pentamethylbenzene) to diazonium ions containing electron-withdrawing groups in the para position, since such groups increase the concentration of the positive charge and thus the electrophilicity of the ArN_2^+. Some coupling reactions which are otherwise very slow (in cases where the coupling site is crowded) are catalyzed by pyridine for reasons discussed on page 678. Phase transfer catalysis has also been used.[150] Coupling of a few aliphatic diazonium compounds to aromatic rings has been reported. All the examples reported so far involve cyclopropanediazonium ions and bridgehead diazonium ions, in which loss of N_2 would lead to very unstable carbocations.[151]

The mechanism of *(Z/E)* isomerization in Ar—N=N—Ar systems has been studied.[152]

OS I, 49, 374; II, 35, 39, 145.

11-5 *Direct Introduction of the Diazonium Group*

DIAZONIATION OR DIAZONIO-DE-HYDROGENATION

$$ArH \xrightarrow[HX]{2\ HONO} ArN_2^+\ X^-$$

Diazonium salts can be prepared directly by replacement of an aromatic hydrogen without the necessity of going through the amino group.[153] The reaction is essentially limited to active substrates (amines and phenols), since otherwise poor yields are obtained. Since the reagents and the substrate are the same as in reaction 11-3, the first species formed is the nitroso compound. In the presence of excess nitrous acid, this is converted to the diazonium ion.[154] The reagent (azidochloromethylene)dimethylammonium chloride $Me_2N{=}C(Cl)N_3$ Cl^- can also introduce the diazonium group directly into a phenol.[155] A synthesis of solid aryldiazonium chlorides is now available.[156]

11-6 *Amination or Amino-de-hydrogenation*[157]

$$ArH + HN_3 \xrightarrow{AlCl_3} ArNH_2$$

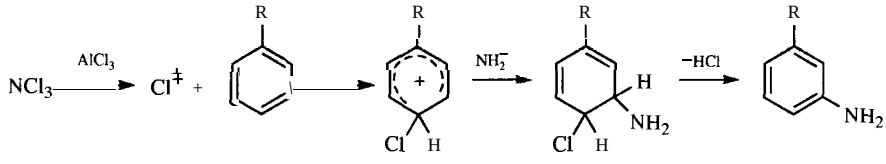
Aromatic compounds can be converted to primary aromatic amines, in 10-65% yields, by treatment with hydrazoic acid (HN_3) in the presence of $AlCl_3$ or H_2SO_4.[158] Higher yields (>90%) have been reported with trimethylsilyl azide (Me_3SiN_3) and triflic acid (F_3CSO_2OH).[159] Tertiary amines have been prepared in fairly good yields (~50-90%) by treatment of aromatic hydrocarbons with N-chlorodialkylamines, by heating in 96% sulfuric acid; or with $AlCl_3$ or $FeCl_3$ in nitroalkane solvents; or by irradiation.[160] Treatment of an aryl halide with an amine and a palladium catalyst leads to the aniline derivative.[161]

Tertiary (and to a lesser extent, secondary) aromatic amines can also be prepared in moderate to high yields by amination with an N-chlorodialkylamine (or an N-chloroalkylamine) and a metallic-ion catalyst (e.g., Fe^{2+}, Ti^{3+}, Cu^+, Cr^{2+}) in the presence of sulfuric acid.[162] The attacking species in this case is the aminium radical ion $R_2\dot{N}H$ formed by[163]

$$R_2\overset{+}{N}HCl + M^+ \longrightarrow R_2\overset{+}{N}H\cdot + M^{2+} + Cl^-$$

Because attack is by a positive species (even though it is a free radical), orientation is similar to that in other electrophilic substitutions (e.g., phenol and acetanilide give ortho and para substitution, mostly para). When an alkyl group is present, attack at the benzylic position competes with ring substitution. Aromatic rings containing only meta-directing groups do not give the reaction at all. Fused ring systems react well.[164]

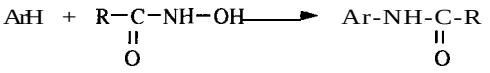
Unusual orientation has been reported for amination with halomines and with NCl_3 in the presence of $AlCl_3$. For example, toluene gave predominately meta amination.[165] It has been suggested that initial attack in this case is by Cl^+ and that a nitrogen nucleophile (whose structure is not known but is represented here as NH_2^- for simplicity) adds to the resulting arenium ion, so that the initial reaction is addition to a carbon-carbon double bond followed by elimination of HC1:[166]



According to this suggestion, the electrophilic attack is at the para position (or the ortho, which leads to the same product) and the meta orientation of the amino group arises indirectly. This mechanism is called the *σ-substitution mechanism.*

Aromatic compounds that do not contain meta-directing groups can be converted to diarylamines by treatment with aryl azides in the presence of phenol at − 60° C: ArH + $Ar'N_3$ → ArNHAr'.[167] Diarylamines are also obtained by the reaction of N-arylhydroxylamines with aromatic compounds (benzene, toluene, anisole) in the presence of F_3CCOOH: ArH + Ar'NHOH → ArNHAr'.[168]

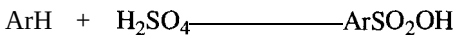
Direct *amidation* can be carried out if an aromatic compound is heated with a hydroxamic acid in polyphosphoric acid, though the scope is essentially limited to phenolic ethers.[169]



Also see 13-16.

C. *Sulfur Electrophiles*

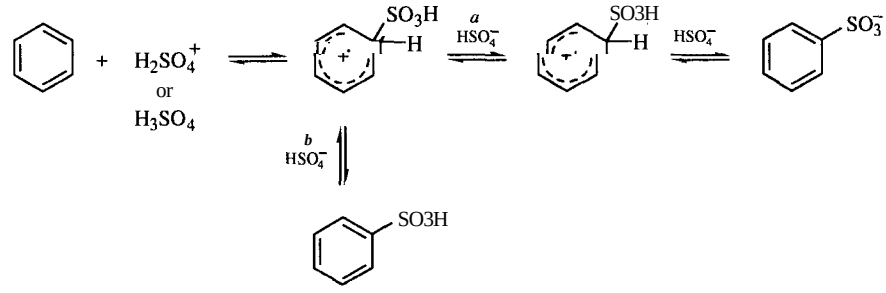
11-7 *Sulfonation or Sulfo-de-hydrogenation*



The sulfonation reaction is very broad in scope and many aromatic hydrocarbons (including fused ring systems), aryl halides, ethers, carboxylic acids, amines,[170] acylated amines, ketones, nitro compounds, and sulfonic acids have been sulfonated.[171] Phenols can also be successfully sulfonated, but attack at oxygen may compete.[172] Sulfonation is often accomplished with concentrated sulfuric acid, but it can also be done with fuming sulfuric acid, SO3, $ClSO_2OH$, or other reagents. As with nitration (11-2), reagents of a wide variety of activity are available to suit both highly active and highly inactive substrates. Since this is a reversible reaction (see 11-41), it may be necessary to drive the reaction to completion. However, at low temperatures the reverse reaction is very slow and the forward reaction is practically irreversible.[173] The SO3 reacts much more rapidly than sulfuric acid with benzene it is nearly instantaneous. Sulfones are often side products. When sulfonation is carried out on a benzene ring containing four or five alkyl and/or halogen groups, rearrangements usually occur (see 11-39).

A great deal of work has been done on the mechanism, chiefly by Cerfontain and co-workers.[174] Mechanistic study is made difficult by the complicated nature of the solutions. Indications are that the electrophile varies with the reagent, though SO_3 is involved in all cases, either free or combined with a carrier. In aqueous H_2SO_4 solutions, the electrophile is thought to be $H_3SO_4^+$ (or a combination of H_2SO_4 and H_3O^+) at concentrations below ~80-85% H_2SO_4, and $H_2S_2O_7$ (or a combination of H_2SO_4 and SO_3) at concentrations higher than this[175] (the changeover point varies with the substrate[176]). Evidence for a change in electrophile is that in the dilute and in the concentrated solutions the rate of the reaction was proportional to the activity

of $H_3SO_4^+$ and $H_2S_2O_7$, respectively. Further evidence is that with toluene as substrate the two types of solution gave very different ortho/para ratios. The mechanism is essentially the same for both electrophiles and may be shown as[175]



The other product of the first step is HSO_4^- or H_2O from $H_2S_2O_7$ or $H_3SO_4^+$, respectively. Path *a* is the principal route, except at very high H_2SO_4 concentrations, when path *b* becomes important. With $H_3SO_4^+$ the first step is rate determining under all conditions, but with $H_2S_2O_7$ the first step is the slow step only up to about 96% H_2SO_4, when a subsequent proton transfer becomes partially rate determining.[177] The compound $H_2S_2O_7$ is more reactive than $H_3SO_4^+$. In fuming sulfuric acid (H_2SO_4 containing excess SO_3), the electrophile is thought to be $H_3S_2O_7^+$ (protonated $H_2S_2O_7$) up to ~104% H_2SO_4 and $H_2S_4O_{13}$ (H_2SO_4 + 3 SO_3) beyond this concentration.[178] Finally, when pure SO_3 is the reagent in aprotic solvents, SO_3 itself is the actual electrophile.[179] Free SO_3 is the most reactive of all these species, so that attack here is generally fast and a subsequent step is usually rate determining, at least in some solvents.

OS II, 42, 97, 482, 539; III, 288, 824; IV, 364; VI, 976.

11-8 *Halosulfonation or Halosulfo-de-hydrogenation*

$$ArH + ClSO_2OH \longrightarrow ArSO_2Cl$$

Aromatic sulfonyl chlorides can be prepared directly, by treatment of aromatic rings with chlorosulfuric acid.[180] Since sulfonic acids can also be prepared by the same reagent (11-7), it is likely that they are intermediates, being converted to the halides by excess chlorosulfuric acid.[181] The reaction has also been effected with bromo- and fluorosulfuric acids.

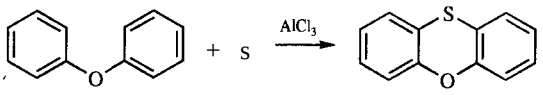
OS I, 8, 85.

11-9 *Sulfurization*

$$ArH + SCl_2 \xrightarrow{AlCl_3} ArSAr$$

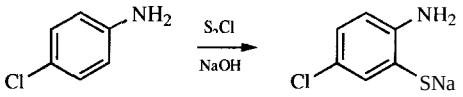
Diary 1 sulfides can be prepared by treating aromatic compounds with SCl_2 and a Friedel-Crafts catalyst. Other reagents that can bring about the same result are S_2Cl_2, thionyl chloride, and even sulfur itself. A catalyst is not always necessary.

The reaction has been used for ring closure:



When thionyl chloride is used, diaryl sulfoxides are usually the main products.[182] Unsymmetrical diaryl sulfides can be obtained by treatment of an aromatic compound with an aryl sulfenyl chloride (ArSCl) in the presence of a trace amount of iron powder.[183] Aromatic amines and phenols can be alkylthiolated (giving mostly ortho product) by treatment with an alkyl disulfide and a Lewis acid catalyst.[184]

With certain substrates (primary amines with a chloro group, or a group not replaceable by chloro, in the para position), treatment with S_2Cl_2 and NaOH gives thiophenolate salts:



This is called the *Herz reaction*.[185]

OS II, 242, 485. Also see OS I, 574; III, 76.

11-10 *Sulfonylation*

ALKYLSULFONYLATION OR ALKYLSULFO-DE-HYDROGENATION

$$ArH + Ar'SO_2Cl \xrightarrow{AlCl_3} ArSO_2Ar'$$

Diaryl sulfones can be formed by treatment of aromatic compounds with aryl sulfonyl chlorides and a Friedel–Crafts catalyst.[186] This reaction is analogous to Friedel–Crafts acylation with carboxylic acid halides (11-14). In a better procedure, the aromatic compound is treated with an aryl sulfonic acid and P_2O_5 in polyphosphoric acid.[187] Still another method uses an arylsulfonic trifluoromethanesulfonic anhydride ($ArSO_2OSO_2CF_3$) (generated *in situ* from $ArSO_2Br$ and CF_3SO_3Ag) without a catalyst.[188]

The reaction can be extended to the preparation of alkyl aryl sulfones by the use of a sulfonyl fluoride.[189]

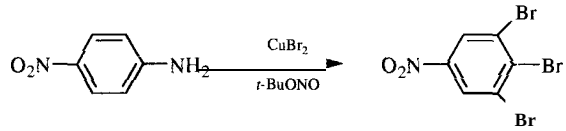
D. *Halogen Electrophiles*

11-11 *Halogenation*[190] *or Halo-de-hydrogenation*

$$ArH + Br_2 \xrightarrow{Fe} ArBr$$

1. *Chlorine and Bromine.* Aromatic compounds can be brominated or chlorinated by treatment with bromine or chlorine in the presence of a catalyst, most often iron. However, the real catalyst is not the iron itself, but the ferric bromide or ferric chloride formed in small amounts from the reaction

between iron and the reagent. Ferric chloride and other Lewis acids are often directly used as catalysts, as is iodine. Bromination of NaY zeolite brominates with high para selectivity.[191] When thallium(III) acetate is the catalyst, many substrates are brominated with high regioselectivity para to an ortho-para directing group.[192] For active substrates, including amines, phenols, naphthalene, and polyalkylbenzenes[193] such as mesitylene and isodurene, no catalyst is needed. A mixture of $Mn(OAc)_3$ and acetyl chloride, with ultrasound, chlorinates anisole with high selectivity.[194] *N*-Bromosuccinimide and HBF_4 can be used to brominate phenols with high para selectivity,[195] as can pyridinium bromide perbromide,[196] and NBS in acetic acid with ultrasound is effective.[197] Indeed, for amines and phenols the reaction is so rapid that it is carried out with a dilute solution of Br_2 or Cl_2 in water at room temperature, or with aqueous HBr in DMSO.[198] Sodium iodide in liquid NO_2 can be used to iodinate aniline derivatives,[199] and tert-butyl hypochlorite chlorinates aniline derivatives.[200] Even so, with amines it is not possible to stop the reaction before all the available ortho and para positions are substituted, because the initially formed haloamines are weaker bases than the original amines and are less likely to be protonated by the liberated HX.[201] For this reason, primary amines are often converted to the corresponding anilides if monosubstitution is desired. With phenols it is possible to stop after one group has entered.[202] The rapid room temperature reaction with amines and phenols is often used as a test for these compounds. Chlorine is a more active reagent than bromine. Phenols can be brominated exclusively in the ortho position (disubstitution of phenol gives 2,6-dibromophenol) by treatment about − 70° C with Br_2 in the presence of tert-butylamine or triethylenediamine, which precipitates out the liberated HBr.[203] Predominant ortho chlorination[204] of phenols has been achieved with chlorinated cyclohexadienes,[205] while para chlorination of phenols, phenolic ethers, and amines can be accomplished with N-chloroamines[206] and with *N*-chlorodimethylsulfonium chloride ($Me_2S^+Cl\ Cl^-$).[207] The last method is also successful for bromination. On the other hand, certain alkylated phenols can be brominated in the meta positions with Br_2 in the superacid solution SbF_5—HF.[208] It is likely that the meta orientation is the result of conversion by the superacid of the OH group to the OH_2^+ group, which should be meta directing because of its positive charge. Bromination and the Sandmeyer reaction (**14-25**) can be carried out in one laboratory step by treatment of an aromatic primary amine with $CuBr_2$ and *tert*-butyl nitrite, for example,[209]



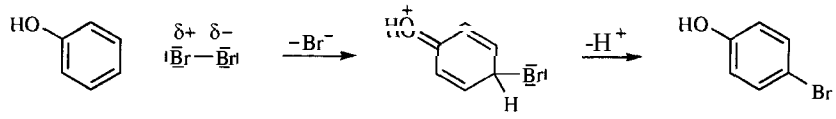
94%

Other reagents have been used, among them HOCl,[210] HOBr, and N-chloro and N-bromo amides (especially NBS and tetraalkylammonium polyha-

lides[211]). In all but the last of these cases the reaction is catalyzed by the addition of acids. Dibromoisocyanuric acid in H_2SO_4 is a very good brominating agent[212] for substrates with strongly deactivating substituents.[213] If the substrate contains alkyl groups, side-chain halogenation **(14-1)** is possible with most of the reagents mentioned, including chlorine and bromine. Since side-chain halogenation is catalyzed by light, the reactions should be run in the absence of light wherever possible.

With deactivated aromatic derivatives, such as nitrobenzene, BrF_3 and Br_2 is an effective reagent, gives the meta-brominated product.[214]

For reactions in the absence of a catalyst, the attacking entity is simply Br_2 or Cl_2 that has been polarized by the ring.[215]



27

Evidence for molecular chlorine or bromine as the attacking species in these cases is that acids, bases, and other ions, especially chloride ion, accelerate the rate about equally, though if chlorine dissociated into Cl^+ and Cl^-, the addition of chloride should decrease the rate and the addition of acids should increase it. Compound 27 has been detected spectrally in the aqueous bromination of phenol.[216]

When a Lewis acid catalyst is used with chlorine or bromine, the attacking entity may be Cl^+ or Br^+, formed by $FeCl_3 + Br_2 \rightarrow FeCl_3Br^- + Br^+$, or it may be Cl_2 or Br_2, polarized by the catalyst. With other reagents, the attacking entity in brominations may be Br^+ or a species such as H_2OBr^+ (the conjugate acid of HOBr), in which H_2O is a carrier of Br^+.[217] With HOCl in H_2O the electrophile may be Cl_2O, Cl_2, or H_2OCl^+; in acetic acid it is generally AcOCl. All these species are more reactive than HOCl itself.[218] It is extremely doubtful that Cl^+ is a significant electrophile in chlorinations by HOCl.[218] It has been demonstrated in the reaction between *N*-methylaniline and calcium hypochlorite that the chlorine attacking entity attacks the *nitrogen* to give *N*-chloro-*N*-methylaniline, which rearranges (as in **11-34)** to give a mixture of ring-chlorinated N-methylanilines in which the ortho isomer predominates.[219]

When chlorination or bromination is carried out at high temperatures (e.g., 300–400°C), ortho-para directing groups direct meta and vice versa.[220] A different mechanism operates here, which is not completely understood. It is also possible for bromination to take place by the S_E1 mechanism, (e.g., in the *t*-BuOK catalyzed bromination of 1,3,5-tribromobenzene).[221]

2. *Iodine.* Iodine is the least reactive of the halogens in aromatic substitution.[222] Except for active substrates, an oxidizing agent must normally be present to oxidize I_2 to a better electrophile.[223] Examples of such oxidizing agents are HNO_3, HIO_3, SO_3, peroxyacetic acid, and H_2O_2.[224] Note that IC1 is a better

iodinating agent than iodine itself.[225] Among other reagents used have been IF (prepared directly from the elements),[226] and benzyltrimethylammonium dichloroiodate (which iodinates phenols, aromatic amines, and N-acylated aromatic amines).[227] Iodination can also be accomplished by treatment of the substrate with I_2 in the presence of copper salts,[228] Al_2O_3,[229] and $PhI(OCOCF_3)_2$ with iodine.[230]

The actual attacking species is less clear than with bromine or chlorine. Iodine itself is too unreactive, except for active species such as phenols, where there is good evidence that I_2 is the attacking entity.[231] There is evidence that AcOI may be the attacking entity when peroxyacetic acid is the oxidizing agent,[232] and I_3^+ when SO_3 or HIO_3 is the oxidizing agent.[233] The I^+ ion has been implicated in several procedures.[234] For an indirect method for accomplishing aromatic iodination, see **12-28.**

3. *Fluorine.* Direct fluorination of aromatic rings with F_2 is not feasible at room temperature because of the extreme reactivity of F_2.[235] It has been accomplished at low temperatures (e.g., -70 to -20°C, depending on the substrate),[236] but the reaction is not yet of preparative significance. Fluorination has also been reported with acetyl hypofluorite (CH_3COOF, generated from F_2 and sodium acetate),[237] with XeF_2,[238] and with an *N*-fluoroperfluoroalkyl sulfonamide; for example, $(CF_3SO_2)2NF$.[239] However, none of these methods seems likely to displace the Schiemann reaction **(13-20)** as the most common method for introducing fluorine into aromatic rings.

The overall effectiveness of reagents in aromatic substitution is Cl_2 > BrCl > Br_2 > IC1 > I_2.

OS **I,** 111, 121, 123, 128, 207, 323; **II,** 95, 97, 100, 173, 196, 343, 347, 349, 357, 592; **III,** 132, 134, 138, 262, 267, 575, 796; **IV,** 114, 166, 256, 545, 547, 872, 947; V, 117, 147, 206, 346; **VI,** 181, 700; **VIII,** 167; **IX,** 121, 356. Also see OS **II,** 128.

E. *Carbon Electrophiles*

In the reactions in this section, a new carbon-carbon bond is formed. With respect to the aromatic ring, they are electrophilic substitutions, because a positive species attacks the ring. We treat them in this manner because it is customary. However, with respect to the electrophile, most of these reactions are nucleophilic substitutions, and what was said in Chapter 10 is pertinent to them.

11-12 *Friedel-Crafts Alkylation*

ALKYLATION OR ALKYL-DE-HYDROGENATION

$$ArH + RC1 \xrightarrow{AlCl_3} ArCl$$

The alkylation of aromatic rings, called *Friedel-Crafts alkylation,* is a reaction of very broad scope.[240] The most important reagents are alkyl halides, alkenes, and

alcohols, but many other types of reagent have also been employed.[240] When alkyl halides are used, the reactivity order is F > Cl > Br > I[241]; for example, $FCH_2CH_2CH_2Cl$ reacts with benzene to give $PhCH_2CH_2CH_2Cl$[242] when the catalyst is BCl_3. By the use of this catalyst, it is therefore possible to place a haloalkyl group on a ring (see also **11-24**).[243] Di- and trihalides, when all the halogens are the same, usually react with more than one molecule of aromatic compound; it is usually not possible to stop the reaction earlier.[244] Thus, benzene with CH_2Cl_2 gives not $PhCH_2Cl$ but Ph_2CH_2; benzene with $CHCl_3$ gives Ph_3CH. With CCl_4, however, the reaction stops when only three rings have been substituted to give Ph_3CCl.

Alkenes are especially good alkylating agents. With respect to them the reaction is addition of ArH to a C=C double bond:

$$\text{Ar-H} + \text{—C=C—} \xrightarrow{AlCl_3} \text{—C–C—}$$

Acetylene reacts with 2 mol of aromatic compound to give 1,1-diarylethanes, but other alkynes react poorly, if at all. Alcohols are more active than alkyl halides, though if a Lewis acid catalyst is used, more catalyst is required, since the catalyst complexes with the OH group. However, proton acids, especially H_2SO_4, are often used to catalyze alkylation with alcohols. When carboxylic esters are the reagents, there is competition between alkylation and acylation (11-14). Though this competition can often be controlled by choice of catalyst, and alkylation is usually favored, carboxylic esters are not often employed in Friedel–Crafts reactions. Other alkylating agents are ethers, thiols, sulfates, sulfonates, alkyl nitro compounds,[245] and even alkanes and cycloalkanes, under conditions where these are converted to carbocations. Notable here are ethylene oxide, which puts the CH_2CH_2OH group onto the ring, and cyclopropyl[246] units. For all types of reagent the reactivity order is allylic $\approx$ benzylic > tertiary > secondary > primary.

Regardless of which reagent is used, a catalyst is nearly always required.[247] Aluminum chloride and boron trifluoride are the most common, but many other Lewis acids have been used, and also proton acids such as HF and H_2SO_4.[248] For active halides, a trace of a less active catalyst (e.g., $ZnCl_2$) may be enough. For an unreactive halide, such as chloromethane, a more powerful catalyst is needed (e.g., $AlCl_3$) and in larger amounts. In some cases, especially with alkenes, a Lewis acid catalyst causes reaction only if a small amount of proton-donating cocatalyst is present. Catalysts have been arranged in the following order of overall reactivity: $AlBr_3 > AlCl_3 > GaCl_3 > FeCl_3 > SbCl_5$[249] $> ZrCl_4, SnCl_4 > BCl_3, BF_3, SbCl_3$;[250] but the reactivity order in each case depends on the substrate, reagent, and conditions. Alkyl mesylates undergo alkylation reaction with benzene rings in the presence of $Sc(OTf)_3$.[251] Allylic acetates undergo alkylation with $Mo(CO)_6$,[252] and allylic chlorides react in the presence of $ZnCl_2/SiO_2$.[253] Montmorillonite clay (K10) is an effective medium for alkylation reactions.[254] Nafion-H, a superacidic perfluorinated resinsulfonic acid, is a very good catalyst for gas-phase alkylations with alkyl halides, alcohols,[255] or alkenes.[256] A benzene ring with a pendant epoxide unit gives a bicyclo compound baring a $-CH_2OH$ unit when treated with Nafion-H.[257]

Friedel–Crafts alkylation is unusual among the principal aromatic substitutions in that the entering group is activating so that di- and polyalkylation are frequently observed. However, the activating effect of simple alkyl groups (e.g., ethyl, isopropyl) is such that compounds with these groups as substituents are attacked in Friedel-Crafts alkylations only ~ 1.5-3 times as fast as benzene,[258] so it is often possible to obtain high yields of monoalkyl product.[259] Actually, the fact that di- and polyalkyl derivatives are frequently obtained is not due to the small difference in reactivity but to the circumstance that alkylbenzenes are preferentially soluble in the catalyst layer, where the reaction actually takes place.[260] This factor can be removed by the use of a suitable solvent, by high temperatures, or by high-speed stirring.

Also unusual is the fact that the OH, OR, NH_2, and so on, groups do not facilitate the reaction, since the catalyst coordinates with these basic groups. Although phenols give the usual Friedel-Crafts reactions, orienting ortho and para, the reaction is very poor for amines. However, amines can undergo the reaction if alkenes are used as reagents and aluminum anilides as catalysts.[261] In this method, the catalyst is prepared by treating the amine to be alkylated with 0.33 mol of $AlCl_3$. A similar reaction can be performed with phenols, though here the catalyst is $Al(OAr)_2$.[262] Primary aromatic amines (and phenols) can be methylated regioselectively in the ortho position by an indirect method (see **11-26).** For an indirect method for regioselective ortho methylation of phenols, see page 1089.

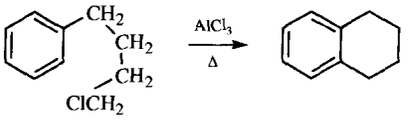
Naphthalene and other fused ring compounds are so reactive that they react with the catalyst, and therefore tend to give poor yields in Friedel-Crafts alkylation. Heterocyclic rings are also tend to be poor substrates for the reaction. Although some furans and thiophenes have been alkylated, a true alkylation of a pyridine or a quinoline has never been described.[263] However, alkylation of pyridine and other nitrogen heterocycles can be accomplished by a free radical **(14-23)** and by a nucleophilic method **(13-15).**

In most cases, meta-directing groups make the ring too inactive for alkylation. Nitrobenzene cannot be alkylated, and there are only a few reports of successful Friedel-Crafts alkylations when electron-withdrawing groups are present.[264] This is not because the attacking species is not powerful enough; indeed we have seen (p. 693) that alkyl cations are among the most powerful of electrophiles. The difficulty is caused by the fact that, with inactive substrates, degradation and polymerization of the electrophile occurs before it can attack the ring. However, if an activating and a deactivating group are both present on a ring, Friedel-Crafts alkylation can be accomplished.[265] Aromatic nitro compounds can be methylated by a nucleophilic mechanism **(13-15).**

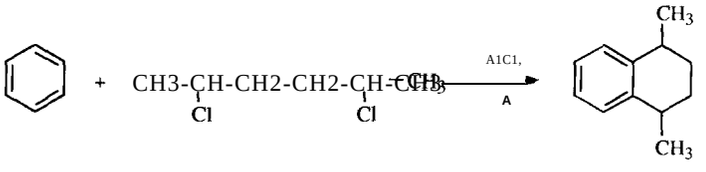
An important synthetic limitation of Friedel-Crafts alkylation is that rearrangement frequently takes place in the reagent. For example, benzene treated with *n*-propyl bromide gives mostly isopropylbenzene (cumene) and much less *n*-propylbenzene. Rearrangement is usually in the order primary → secondary → tertiary and occurs mostly by migration of H^- but also of R^- (see discussion of rearrangement mechanisms in Chapter 18). It is therefore not usually possible to put a primary alkyl group (other than methyl and ethyl) onto an aromatic ring by

Friedel-Crafts alkylation. Because of these rearrangements, *n*-alkylbenzenes are often prepared by *acylation* **(11-14),** followed by reduction **(19-33).**

An important use of the Friedel-Crafts alkylation reaction is to effect ring closure.[266] The most common method is to heat with aluminum chloride an aromatic compound having a halogen, hydroxy, or alkene group in the proper position, as, for example, in the preparation of tetralin:



Another way of effecting ring closure through Friedel-Crafts alkylation is to use a reagent containing two groups, for example,



These reactions are most successful for the preparation of six-membered rings,[267] though five- and seven-membered rings have also been closed in this manner. For other Friedel-Crafts ring-closure reactions, see **11-13, 11-14,** and **11-23.**

From what has been said thus far, it is evident that the electrophile in Friedel-Crafts alkylation is a carbocation, at least in most cases.[268] This is in accord with the knowledge that carbocations rearrange in the direction primary → secondary → tertiary (see Chapter 18). In each case, the cation is formed from the attacking reagent and the catalyst. For the three most important types of reagent these reactions are

From alkyl halides $RCl + AlCl_3 \longrightarrow R^+ + AlCl_4^-$

From alcohols[269] and Lewis acids $ROH + AlCl_3 \longrightarrow ROAlCl_2 \longrightarrow R^+ + {}^-OAlCl_2$

From alcohols and proton acids $ROH + H^+ \longrightarrow ROH_2^+ \longrightarrow R^+ + H_2O$

From alkenes (a supply of protons is usually required): $-C{=}C- + H^+ \longrightarrow H-\overset{|}{C}-\overset{+}{C}-$

There is direct evidence, from IR and NMR spectra, that the *tert*-butyl cation is quantitatively formed when *tert-butyl* chloride reacts with $AlCl_3$ in anhydrous liquid HC1.[270] In the case of alkenes, Markovnikov's rule (p. 984) is followed. Carbocation formation is particularly easy from some reagents, because of the stability of the cations. Triphenylmethyl chloride[271] and 1-chloroadamantane[272] alkylate activated

aromatic rings (e.g., phenols, amines) with no catalyst or solvent. Ions as stable as this are less reactive than other carbocations and often attack only active substrates. The tropylium ion, for example, alkylates anisole but not benzene.[273] It was noted on page 430 that relatively stable vinylic cations can be generated from certain vinylic compounds. These have been used to introduce vinylic groups into aryl substrates.[274] Lewis acids such as BF_3[275] or $AlEt_3$[276] can also be used to alkylation of aromatic rings with alkene units.

However, there is much evidence that many Friedel–Crafts alkylations, especially with primary reagents, do not go through a completely free carbocation. The ion may exist as a tight ion pair with, say, $AlCl_4^-$ as the counterion or as a complex. Among the evidence is that methylation of toluene by methyl bromide and methyl iodide gave different ortho/para/meta ratios,[277] though if the same species attacked in each case we would expect the same ratios. Other evidence is that, in some cases, the reaction kinetics are third order; first order each in aromatic substrate, attacking reagent, and catalyst.[278] In these instances, a mechanism in which the carbocation is slowly formed, and then rapidly attacks the ring is ruled out since, in such a mechanism, the substrate would not appear in the rate expression. Since it is known that free carbocations, once formed, rapidly attack the ring, there are no free carbocations here. Another possibility (with alkyl halides) is that some alkylations take place by an S_N2 mechanism (with respect to the halide), in which case no carbocations would be involved at all. However, a completely S_N2 mechanism requires inversion of configuration. Most investigations of Friedel–Crafts stereochemistry, even where an S_N2 mechanism might most be expected, have resulted in total racemization, or at best a few percent inversion. A few exceptions have been found,[279] most notably where the reagent was optically active propylene oxide, in which case 100% inversion was reported.[280]

Rearrangement is possible even with a non-carbocation mechanism. The rearrangement could occur *before* the attack on the ring takes place. It has been shown that treatment of $CH_3^{14}CH_2Br$ with $AlBr_3$ in the absence of any aromatic compound gave a mixture of the starting material and $^{14}CH_3CH_2Br$.[281] Similar results were obtained with $PhCH_2^{14}CH_2Br$, in which case the rearrangement was so fast that the rate could be measured only below $-70°C$.[282] Rearrangement could also occur *after* formation of the product, since alkylation is reversible (see **11-36**).[283]

See **14-21** and **14-23** for free-radical alkylation.

OS I, 95, 548; **II,** 151, 229, 232, 236, 248; **III,** 343, 347, 504, 842; IV, 47, 520, 620, 665, 702, 898, 960; V, 130, 654; VI, 109, 744.

11-13 *Friedel-Crafts Arylation: The Scholl Reaction*

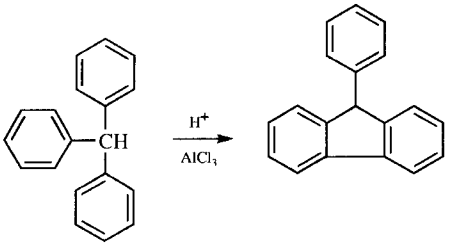
DE-HYDROGEN-COUPLING

$$2\ ArH \xrightarrow{AlCl_3} Ar{-}Ar + H_2$$

The coupling of two aromatic molecules by treatment with a Lewis acid and a proton acid is called the *Scholl reaction*.[284] Yields are low and the synthesis is seldom

useful. High temperatures and strong acid catalysts are required, and the reaction fails for substrates that are destroyed by these conditions. Because the reaction becomes important with large fused-ring systems, ordinary Friedel-Crafts reactions (**11-12**) on these systems are rare. For example, naphthalene gives binaphthyl under Friedel-Crafts conditions. Yields can be increased by the addition of a salt such as $CuCl_2$ or $FeCl_3$, which acts as an oxidant.[285] Rhodium catalysts have also been used.[286]

Intramolecular Scholl reactions, for example,



are much more successful than the intermolecular kind. The mechanism is not clear, but it may involve attack by a proton to give an arenium ion of the type 9 (p. 678), which would be the electrophile that attacks the other ring.[287] Sometimes arylations have been accomplished by treating aromatic substrates with particularly active aryl halides, especially fluorides. For free-radical arylations, see Reactions **14-17-14-22.**

OS **IV,** 482. Also see OS V, 102, 952.

11-14 *Friedel-Crafts Acylation*

ACYLATION OR ACYL-DE-HYDROGENATION

$$ArH + RCOCl \xrightarrow{AlCl_3} ArCOR$$

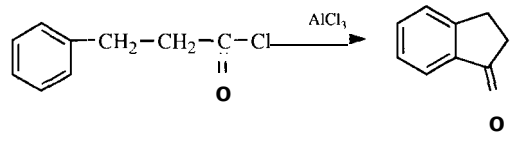
The most important method for the preparation of aryl ketones is known as *Friedel-Crafts acylation*.[288] The reaction is of wide scope. Reagents used[289] are not only acyl halides but also carboxylic acids,[290] anhydrides, and ketenes. Oxalyl chloride has been used to give diaryl 1,2-diketones.[291] Carboxylic esters usually give predominant alkylation (see **11-12).** The R group may be aryl as well as alkyl. The major disadvantages of Friedel-Crafts alkylation are not present here. Rearrangement of R is never found, and, because the RCO group is deactivating, the reaction stops cleanly after one group is introduced. All four acyl halides can be used, though chlorides are most commonly employed. The order of activity is usually, but not always, I > Br > Cl > F.[292] Catalysts are Lewis acids, similar to those in reaction **11-12,** but in acylation a little more than 1 mol of catalyst is required per mole of reagent, because the first mole coordinates with the oxygen of the reagent [as in $R(Cl)C{=}O^+{-}{}^-AlCl_3$].[293] A reusable catalyst, $Ln(OTf)_3{-}LiClO_4$, has been developed as well.[294] The HY-Zeolite compound has also been used to facilitate the reaction with acetic anhydride.[295] Proton acids can be used as catalysts when the

reagent is a carboxylic acid. The mixed carboxylic sulfonic anhydrides ($RCOOSO_2CF_3$) are extremely reactive acylating agents and can smoothly acylate benzene without a catalyst.[296] With active substrates (e.g., aryl ethers, fused-ring systems, thiophenes), Friedel-Crafts acylation can be carried out with very small amounts of catalyst, often just a trace, or even sometimes with no catalyst at all. Ferric chloride, iodine, zinc chloride, and iron are the most common catalysts when the reaction is carried out in this manner.[297]

The reaction is quite successful for many types of substrate, including fused ring systems, which give poor results in **11-12.** Compounds containing ortho-para directing groups, including alkyl, hydroxy, alkoxy, halogen, and acetamido groups, are easily acylated and give mainly or exclusively the para products, because of the relatively large size of the acyl group. However, aromatic amines give poor results. With amines and phenols there may be competition from N- or O-acylation; however, O-acylated phenols can be converted to C-acylated phenols by the Fries rearrangement **(11-30).** Friedel-Crafts acylation is usually prevented by meta-directing groups. Indeed, nitrobenzene is often used as a solvent for the reaction. Many heterocyclic systems, including furans, thiophenes, pyrans, and pyrroles but not pyridines or quinolines, can be acylated in good yield (however, pyridines and quinolines can be acylated by a free-radical mechanism, Reaction **14-23).** Gore, in Ref. 288 (pp. 36-100; with tables, pp. 105-321), presents an exhaustive summary of the substrates to which this reaction has been applied.

When a mixed anhydride RCOOCOR' is the reagent, two products are possible: ArCOR and ArCOR'. Which product predominates depends on two factors. If R contains electron-withdrawing groups, then ArCOR' is chiefly formed, but if this factor is approximately constant in R and R', the ketone with the larger R group predominantly forms.[298] This means that *formylations* of the ring do not occur with mixed anhydrides of formic acid HCOOCOR.

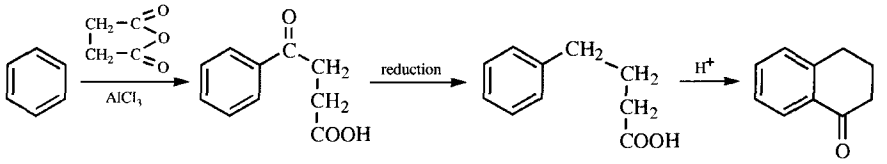
An important use of the Friedel-Crafts acylation is to effect ring closure.[299] This can be done if an acyl halide, anhydride, or acid group is in the proper position. An example is



The reaction is used mostly to close six-membered rings, but has also been done for five- and seven-membered rings, which close less readily. Even larger rings can be closed by high-dilution techniques.[300] Tricyclic and larger systems are often made by using substrates containing one of the acyl groups on a ring. Many fused ring systems are made in this manner. If the bridging group is CO, the product is a quinone.[301] One of the most common catalysts for intramolecular Friedel-Crafts acylation is polyphosphoric acid[302] (because of its high potency), but $AlCl_3$, H_2SO_4, and other Lewis and proton acids are also used, though acylations with acyl halides are not generally catalyzed by proton acids.

Friedel-Crafts acylation can be carried out with cyclic anhydrides,[303] in which case the product contains a carboxyl group in the side chain. When succinic

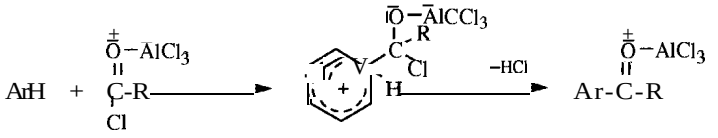
anhydride is used, the product is $ArCOCH_2CH_2COOH$. This can be reduced **(19-33)** to $ArCH_2CH_2CH_2COOH$, which can then be cyclized by an internal Friedel–Crafts acylation. The total process is called the *Haworth reaction:*[304]



The mechanism of Friedel–Crafts acylation is not completely understood,[305] but at least two mechanisms probably operate, depending on conditions.[306] In most cases the attacking species is the acyl cation, either free or as an ion pair, formed by[307]

$$RCOCl + AlCl_3 \longrightarrow RCH^+ + AlCl_4^-$$

If R is tertiary, RCO^+ may lose CO to give R^+, so that the alkylarene ArR is often a side product or even the main product. This kind of cleavage is much more likely with relatively unreactive substrates, where the acylium ion has time to break down. For example, pivaloyl chloride (Me_3CCOCl) gives the normal acyl product with anisole, but the alkyl product Me_3CPh with benzene. In the other mechanism an acyl cation is not involved, but the 1:1 complex attacks directly.[308]



Free-ion attack is more likely for sterically hindered R.[309] The ion CH_3CO^+ has been detected (by IR spectroscopy) in the liquid complex between acetyl chloride and aluminum chloride, and in polar solvents such as nitrobenzene; but in nonpolar solvents such as chloroform, only the complex and not the free ion is present.[310] In any event, 1 mol of catalyst certainly remains complexed to the product at the end of the reaction. When the reaction is performed with $RCO^+ SbF_6^-$, no catalyst is required and the free ion (or ion pair)[311] is undoubtedly the attacking entity.[312]

OS I, 109, 353, 476, 517; **II,** 3, 8, 15, 81, 156, 169, 304, 520, 569; **III,** 6, 14, 23, 53, 109, 183, 248, 272, 593, 637, 761, 798; IV, 8, 34, 88, 898, 900; V, 111; VI, 34, 618, 625.

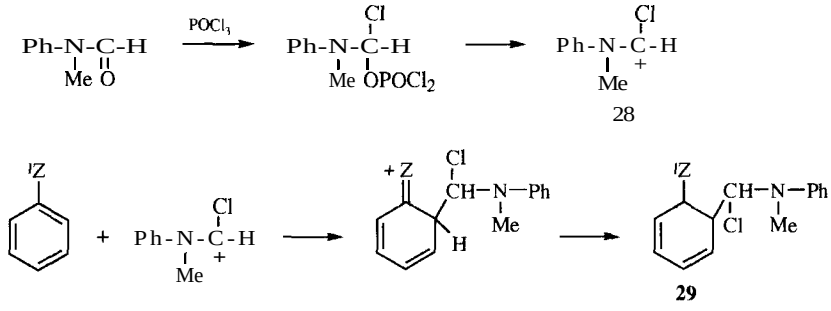
Reactions **11-15-11-18** are direct formylations of the ring.[313] Reaction **11-14** has not been used for formylation, since neither formic anhydride nor formyl chloride is stable at ordinary temperatures. Formyl chloride has been shown to be stable in chloroform solution for 1 h at $-60°$ C,[314] but it is not useful for formylating aromatic rings under these conditions. Formic anhydride has been prepared in solution, but has not been isolated.[315] Mixed anhydrides of formic and other acids are known[316] and can be used to formylate amines (see **10-56)** and alcohols, but no formylation takes place when they are applied to aromatic rings. See **13-15** for a nucleophilic method for the formylation of aromatic rings.

11-15 *Formylation With Disubstituted Formamides*

FORMYLATION OR FORMYL-DE-HYDROGENATION

$$ArH + Ph\text{-}N(Me)\text{-}C(=O)\text{-}H \xrightarrow{POCl_3} ArCHO + PhNHMe$$

The reaction with disubstituted formamides and phosphorus oxychloride, called the *Vilsmeier* or the *Vilsmeier–Haackreaction*,[317] is the most common method for the formylation of aromatic rings.[318] However, it is applicable only to active substrates, such as amines and phenols. An intramolecular version is also known.[319] Aromatic hydrocarbons and heterocycles can also be formylated, but only if they are much more active than benzene (e.g., azulenes, ferrocenes). Though *N*-phenyl-*N*-methylformamide is a common reagent, other arylalkyl amides and dialkyl amides are also used.[320] Phosgene ($COCl_2$) has been used in place of $POCl_3$. The reaction has also been carried out with other amides to give ketones (actually an example of **11-14),** but not often. The attacking species[321] is 28,[322] and the mechanism is probably:



Compound 29 is unstable and easily hydrolyzes to the product. Either formation of 28 or the reaction of 28 with the substrate can be rate determining, depending on the reactivity of the substrate.[323]

When $(CF_3SO_2)_2O$ was used instead of $POCl_3$, the reaction was extended to some less-active compounds, including naphthalene and phenanthrene.[324]

OS I, 217; **III,** 98, IV, 331, 539, 831, 915.

11-16 *Formylation with Zinc Cyanide and HCl:The Gatterman Reaction*

FORMYLATION OR FORMYL-DE-HYDROGENATION

$$ArH + Zn(CN)_2 \xrightarrow{HCl} ArCH{=}NH_2^+\,Cl^- \xrightarrow{H_2O} ArCHO$$

Formylation with $Zn(CN)_2$ and HCl is called the *Gatterman reaction.*[325] It can be applied to alkylbenzenes, phenols and their ethers, and many heterocyclic compounds. However, it cannot be applied to aromatic amines. In the original version of this reaction, the substrate was treated with HCN, HCl, and $ZnCl_2$, but the use of $Zn(CN)_2$ and HCl (HCN and $ZnCl_2$ are generated *in situ)* makes the reaction more

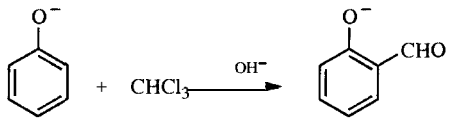
convenient to carry out and does not reduce yields. The mechanism of the Gatterman reaction has not been investigated very much, but there is an initial nitrogen-containing product that is normally not isolated but is hydrolyzed to aldehyde. The above structure is presumed for this product. When benzene was treated with NaCN under super acidic conditions (F_3CSO_2OH—SbF_5), a good yield of product was obtained, leading to the conclusion that the electrophile in this case was $H^+C{=}N^+H_2$.[326] The Gatterman reaction may be regarded as a special case of **11-27.**

Another method, formylation with CO and HC1 in the presence of $AlCl_3$ and CuCl (the *Gatterman–Kochreaction*),[327] is limited to benzene and alkylbenzenes.[328]

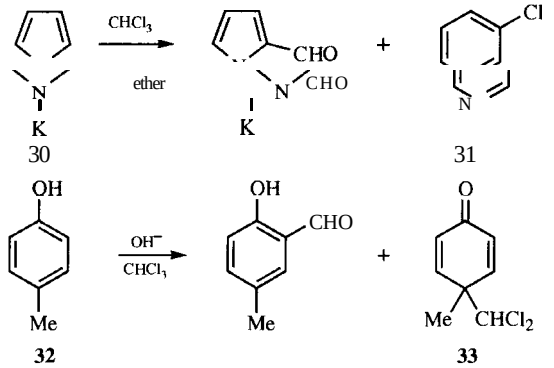
OS II, 583; HI, 549.

11-17 *Formylation with Chloroform: The Reimer–Tiemann Reaction*

FORMYLATION OR FORMYL-DE-HYDROGENATION

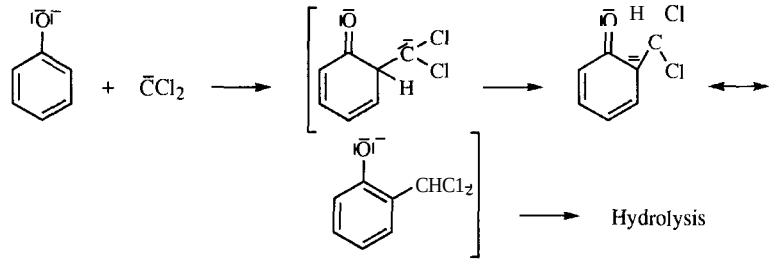


In the *Reimer-Tiemann reaction,* chloroform and hydroxide ion are used to formylate aromatic rings.[329] The method is useful only for phenols and certain heterocyclic compounds such as pyrroles and indoles. Unlike the previous formylation methods **(11-15** and **11-16),** this one is conducted in basic solution. Yields are generally low, seldom rising >50%.[330] The incoming group is directed ortho, unless both ortho positions are filled, in which case the attack is para.[331] Certain substrates have been shown to give abnormal products instead of or in addition to the normal ones. For example, 30 and 32 gave, respectively, 31 and 33 as well as the normal aldehyde products. From the nature of the reagents and from the



from the kind of abnormal products obtained, it is clear that the attacking entity in this reaction is dichlorocarbene CCl_2.[332] This in known to be produced by treatment of chloroform with bases (p. 464); it is an electrophilic reagent and is known to give

ring expansion of aromatic rings (see **15-62),** accounting for products like 30. The mechanism of the normal reaction is thus something like this.[333]



The formation of 33 in the case of 32 can be explained by attack of some of the CCl_2 ipso to the CH_3 group. Since this position does not contain a hydrogen, normal proton loss cannot take place and the reaction ends when the CCl_2^- moiety acquires a proton.

A method closely related to the Reimer–Tiemann reaction is the *Duff reaction,* in which hexamethylenetetramine, $(CH_2)_6N_4$, is used instead of chloroform. This reaction can be applied only to phenols and amines; ortho substitution is generally observed and yields are low. A mechanism[334] has been proposed that involves initial aminoalkylation **(11-25)** to give $ArCH_2NH_2$, followed by dehydrogenation to ArCH=NH and hydrolysis of this to the aldehyde product. When $(CH_2)_6N_4$ is used in conjunction with F_3CCOOH, the reaction can be applied to simple alkylbenzenes; yields are much higher and a high degree of regioselectively para substitution is found.[335] In this case too an imine seems to be an intermediate.

OS **III,** 463; IV, 866

11-18 *Other Formylations*

FORMYLATION OR FORMYL-DE-HYDROGENATION

$$ArH + Cl_2CHOMe \xrightarrow{AlCl_3} ArCHO$$

Besides **11-15-11-17,** several other formylation methods are known.[336] In one of these, dichloromethyl methyl ether formylates aromatic rings with Friedel–Crafts catalysts.[337] The Compound ArCHClOMe is probably an intermediate. Orthoformates have also been used.[338] In another method, aromatic rings are formylated with formyl fluoride HCOF and BF_3.[339] Unlike formyl chloride, formyl fluoride is stable enough for this purpose. This reaction was successful for benzene, alkylbenzenes, PhCl, PhBr, and naphthalene. Phenols can be regioselectively formylated in the ortho position in high yields by treatment with two equivalents of paraformaldehyde in aprotic solvents in the presence of $SnCl_4$ and a tertiary amine.[340] Phenols have also been formylated indirectly by conversion to the aryllithium reagent followed by treatment with *N*-formyl piperidine.[341] See also the indirect method mentioned at **11-26.**

OS **V,** 49; **VII,** 162.

Reactions **11-19** and **11-20** are direct carboxylations[342] of aromatic rings.[343]

11-19 *Carboxylation With Carbonyl Halides*

CARBOXYLATION OR CARBOXY-DE-HYDROGENATION

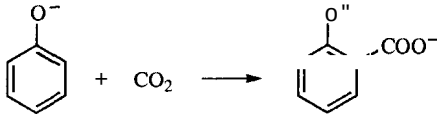
$$ArH + COCl_2 \xrightarrow{AlCl_3} ArCOOH$$

Phosgene, in the presence of Friedel–Crafts catalysts, can carboxylate the ring. This process is analogous to **11-14,** but the ArCOCl initially produced hydrolyzes to the carboxylic acid. However, in most cases the reaction does not take this course, but instead the ArCOCl attacks another ring to give a ketone ArCOAr. A number of other reagents have been used to get around this difficulty, among them oxalyl chloride, urea hydrochloride, chloral (Cl_3CCHO),[344] carbamoyl chloride (H_2NCOCl), and *N,N*-diethylcarbamoyl chloride.[345] With carbamoyl chloride the reaction is called the *Gatterman amide synthesis* and the product is an amide. Among compounds carboxylated by one or another of these reagents are benzene, alkylbenzenes, and fused ring systems.[346]

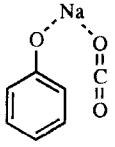
OS V, 706; **VII,** 420.

11-20 *Carboxylation with Carbon Dioxide: The Kolbe-Schmitt Reaction*

CARBOXYLATION OR CARBOXY-DE-HYDROGENATION



Sodium phenoxides can be carboxylated, mostly in the ortho position, by carbon dioxide (the *Kolbe-Schmitt reaction).* The mechanism is not clearly understood, but apparently some kind of a complex is formed between the reactants,[347] making the carbon of the CO_2 more positive and putting it in a good position to attack the ring.



Potassium phenoxide, which is less likely to form such a complex,[348] is chiefly attacked in the para position.[349] Carbon tetrachloride can be used instead of CO_2 under Reimer–Tiemann **(11-17)** conditions.

Sodium or potassium phenoxide can be carboxylated regioselectively in the para position in high yield by treatment with sodium or potassium carbonate and carbon monoxide.[350] Carbon-14 labeling showed that it is the carbonate carbon that appears in the *p*-hydroxybenzoic acid product.[351] The CO is converted to sodium or potassium formate. Carbon monoxide has also been used to carboxylate aromatic rings with palladium compounds as catalysts.[352] In addition, a palladium-catalyzed reaction has been used directly to prepare acyl fluorides ArH —> ArCOF.[353]

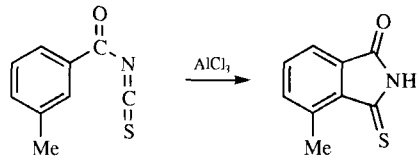
OS **II,** 557.

11-21 *Amidation With Isocyanates*

N-ALKYLCARBAMOYL-DE-HYDROGENATION

$$ArH + RNCO \xrightarrow{AlCl_3} ArCONHR$$

N-Substituted amides can be prepared by direct attack of isocyanates on aromatic rings.[354] The R group may be alkyl or aryl, but if the latter, dimers and trimers are also obtained. Isothiocyanates similarly give thioamides.[355] The reaction has been carried out intramolecularly both with aralkyl isothiocyanates and acyl isothiocyanates.[356] In the latter case, the product is easily hydrolyzable to a dicarboxylic acid; this is a way of putting a carboxyl group on a ring ortho to one already there (34 is



34

prepared by treatment of the acyl halide with lead thiocyanate). The reaction gives better yields with substrates of the type $ArCH_2CONCS$, where six-membered rings are formed.

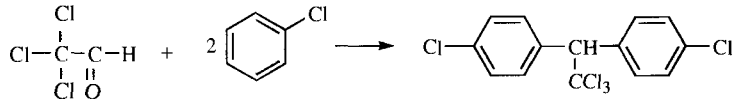
OS V, 1051; VI, 465.

Reactions **11-22-11-26** involve the introduction of a CH_2Z group, where Z is halogen, hydroxyl, amino, or alkylthio. They are all Friedel–Crafts reactions of aldehydes and ketones and, with respect to the carbonyl compound, additions to the C=O double bond. They follow mechanisms discussed in Chapter 16.

11-22 *Hydroxyalkylation or Hydroxyalkyl-de-hydrogenation*

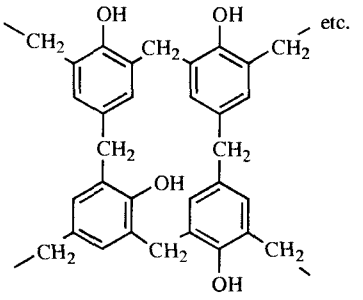
$$ArH + R\text{-}\underset{\underset{O}{\|}}{C}\text{-}R' \xrightarrow{H_2SO_4} Ar\text{-}\underset{\underset{R'}{|}}{\overset{\overset{R}{|}}{C}}\text{-}OH \text{ or } Ar\text{-}\underset{\underset{R'}{|}}{\overset{\overset{R}{|}}{C}}\text{-}Ar$$

The condensation of aromatic rings with aldehydes or ketones is called *hydroxyalkylation.*[357] The reaction can be used to prepare alcohols,[358] though more often the alcohol initially produced reacts with another molecule of aromatic compound (11-**12)** to give diarylation. For this the reaction is quite useful, an example being the preparation of l,l,l-trichloro-2, 2-bis (*p*-Chlorophenyl) ethane (DDT):



The diarylation reaction is especially common with phenols (the diaryl product here is called a *bisphenol).* The reaction is normally carried out in alkaline solution on the phenolate ion.[359] The hydroxymethylation of phenols with formaldehyde is called the *Lederer–Manasse reaction.* This reaction must be carefully controlled,[360] since it is possible for the para and both ortho positions to be substituted and for each of

these to be rearylated, so that a polymeric structure is produced:



However, such polymers, which are of the Bakelite type (phenol-formaldehyde resins), are of considerable commercial importance.

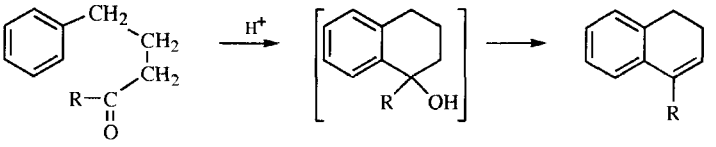
The attacking species is the carbocation, $R-\overset{+}{\underset{\displaystyle OH}{\underset{|}{C}}}-R$, formed from the aldehyde or ketone and the acid catalyst, except when the reaction is carried out in basic solution.

When an aromatic ring is treated with diethyl oxomalonate, $(EtOOC)_2C{=}O$, the product is an arylmalonic acid derivative, $ArC(OH)(COOEt)_2$, which can be converted to an arylmalonic acid, $ArCH(COOEt)_2$.[361] This is therefore a way of applying the malonic ester synthesis **(10-104)** to an aryl group (see also **13-12).** Of course, the opposite mechanism applies here: The aryl species is the nucleophile.

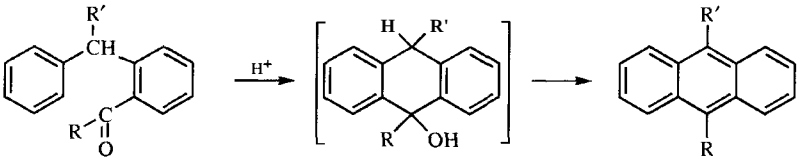
Two methods, both involving boron-containing reagents, have been devised for the regioselective ortho hydroxymethylation of phenols or aromatic amines.[362]

OS **III,** 326; **V,** 422; **VI,** 471, 856; **VIII,** 75, 77, 80. Also see OS I, 214.

11-23 *Cyclodehydration of Aldehydes and Ketones*

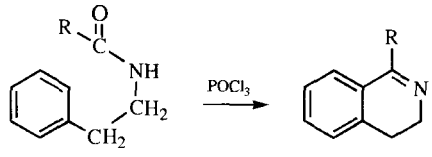


When an aromatic compound contains an aldehyde or ketone function in a position suitable for closing a six-membered ring, treatment with acid results in cyclodehydration. The reaction is a special case of **11-22,** but in this case dehydration almost always takes place to give a double bond conjugated with the aromatic ring.[363] The method is very general and is widely used to close both carbocyclic and heterocyclic rings.[364] Polyphosphoric acid is a common reagent, but other acids have also been used. In a variation known as the *Bradsher reaction*,[365] diarylmethanes containing a carbonyl group in the ortho position can be cyclized



to anthracene derivatives. In this case, 1,4-dehydration takes place, at least formally.

Among the many applications of cyclodehydration to the formation of heterocyclic systems is the *Bischler-Napieralski reaction*.[366] In this reaction, amides of the type 35 are cyclized with phosphorous oxychloride:



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If the starting compound contains a hydroxyl group in the α position, an additional dehydration takes place and the product is an isoquinoline.[367] Higher yields can be obtained if the amide is treated with PCl_5 to give an imino chloride, $ArCH_2CH_2N{=}CR{-}Cl$, which is isolated and then cyclized by heating.[368] The nitrilium ion $ArCH_2CH_2^+N{\equiv}CR$ is an intermediate.

OS I, 360, 478; **II,** 62, 194; **III,** 281, 300, 329, 568, 580, 581; IV, 590; V, 550; VI, 1. Also see OS I, 54.

11-24 *Haloalkylation or Haloalkyl-de-hydrogenation*

$$ArH + HCHO + HC1 \xrightarrow{ZnCl_2} ArCH_2Cl$$

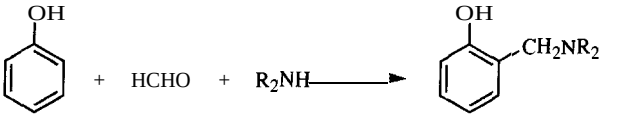
When certain aromatic compounds are treated with formaldehyde and HC1, the CH_2Cl group is introduced into the ring in a reaction called *chloromethylation.* The reaction has also been carried out with other aldehydes and with HBr and HI. The more general term *haloalkylation* covers these cases.[369] The reaction is successful for benzene, and alkyl-, alkoxy-, and halobenzenes. It is greatly hindered by meta-directing groups, which reduce yields or completely prevent the reactions. Amines and phenols are too reactive and usually give polymers unless deactivating groups are also present, but phenolic ethers and esters successfully undergo the reaction. Compounds of lesser reactivity can often be chloromethylated with chloromethyl methyl ether ($ClCH_2OMe$), or methoxyacetyl chloride ($MeOCH_2COCl$).[370] Zinc chloride is the most common catalyst, but other Friedel–Crafts catalysts are also employed. As with Reaction **11-22** and for the same reason, an important side product is the diaryl compound Ar_2CH_2 (from formaldehyde).

Apparently, the initial step involves reaction of the aromatic compound with the aldehyde to form the hydroxyalkyl compound, exactly as in **11-22,** and then the HC1 converts this to the chloroalkyl compound.[371] The acceleration of the reaction by $ZnCl_2$ has been attributed[372] to the raising of the acidity of the medium, causing an increase in the concentration of $HOCH_2^+$ ions.

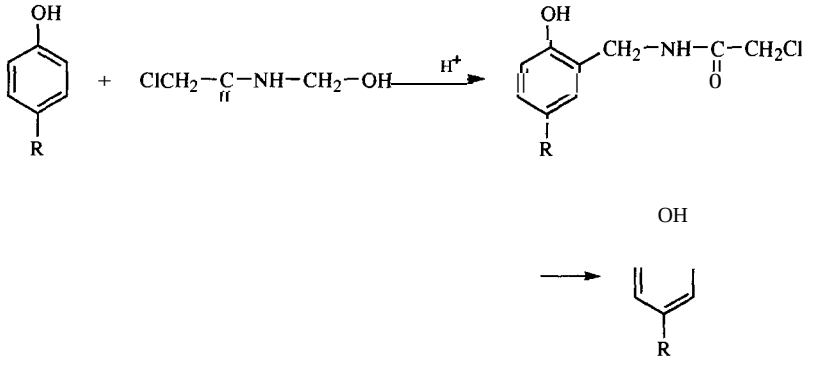
OS **III,** 195, 197, 468, 557; IV, 980.

11-25 *Aminoalkylation* and *Amidoalkylation*

DIALKYLAMINOALKYLATION OR DIALKYLAMINO-DE-HYDROGENATION



Phenols, secondary and tertiary aromatic amines,[373] pyrroles, and indoles can be aminomethylated by treatment with formaldehyde and a secondary amine. Other aldehydes have sometimes been employed. Aminoalkylation is a special case of the Mannich reaction **(16-15).** When phenols and other activated aromatic compounds are treated with *N*-hydroxymethylchloroacetamide, *amidomethylation* takes place[374]

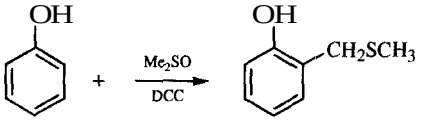


to give 36, which is often hydrolyzed *in situ* to the aminoalkylated product. Other N-hydroxyalkyl and N-chlorinated compounds have also been used.[374]

OS I, 381; IV, 626; V, 434; **VI,** 965; **VII,** 162.

11-26 *Thioalkylation*

ALKYLTHIOALKYLATION OR ALKYLTHIOALKYL-DE-HYDROGENATION



A methylthiomethyl group can be inserted into the ortho position of phenols by heating with DMSO and DCC.[375] Other reagents can be used instead of DCC, among them $SOCl_2$,[376] and acetic anhydride.[377] Alternatively, the phenol can be treated with dimethyl sulfide and NCS, followed by triethylamine.[378] The reaction can be applied to amines (to give *o*-$NH_2C_6H_4CH_2SMe$) by treatment with *t*-BuOCl, Me_2S, and NaOMe in CH_2Cl_2.[379] Aromatic hydrocarbons have been thioalkylated with ethyl α-(chloromethylthio)acetate ($ClCH_2SCH_2COOEt$) (to give $ArCH_2$-

SCH_2COOEt)[380] and with methyl methylsulfinylmethyl sulfide ($MeSCH_2SOMe$) or methylthiomethyl *p*-tolyl sulfone ($MeSCH_2SO_2C_6H_4Me$) (to give $ArCH_2$-SMe),[381] in each case with a Lewis acid catalyst.

OS VI, 581,601.

11-27 *Acylation with Nitrites: The Hoesch Reaction*

ACYLATION OR ACYL-DE-HYDROGENATION

$$ArH + RCN \xrightarrow[ZnCl_2]{} ArCOR$$

Friedel–Crafts acylation with nitriles and HC1 is called the *Hoesch* or the *Houben–Hoesch reaction*.[382] In most cases, a Lewis acid is necessary; zinc chloride is the most common. The reaction is generally useful only with phenols, phenolic ethers, and some reactive heterocyclic compounds (e.g., pyrrole), but it can be extended to aromatic amines by the use of BCl_3.[383] Acylation in the case of amines is regioselectively ortho. Monohydric phenols, however, generally do not give ketones[384] but are attacked at the oxygen to produce imino esters. Many nitriles

$$Ar-O-\overset{\overset{NH_2^+}{\|}}{C}-R \quad or$$

An imino ester

have been used. Even aryl nitriles give good yields if they are first treated with HC1 and $ZnCl_2$, and then the substrate added at 0°C.[385] In fact, this procedure increases yields with any nitrile. If thiocyanates (RSCN) are used, thiol esters (ArCOSR) can be obtained. The Gatterman reaction (11-16) is a special case of the Hoesch synthesis.

The reaction mechanism is complex and not completely settled.[386] The first stage consists of an attack on the substrate by a species containing the nitrile and HC1 (and the Lewis acid, if present) to give an imine salt (39). Among the possible attacking species are 37 and 38. In the second stage, the salts are hydrolyzed to the products:

$$ArH + R\text{-}\overset{+}{C}{=}NH \quad (37) \qquad or \qquad ArH + ZnCl_2(RCN)_2 + HCl \quad (38)$$

$$\xrightarrow{H^+} Ar\text{-}\overset{\overset{NH_2^+\ Cl^-}{\|}}{C}\text{-}R \longrightarrow Ar-\overset{\overset{O}{\|}}{C}-R$$

Ketones can also be obtained by treating phenols or phenolic ethers with a nitrile in the presence of F_3CSO_2OH.[387] The mechanism in this case is different.

OS II, 522.

11-28 *Cyanation or Cyano-de-hydrogenation*

$$ArH + Cl_3CCN \xrightarrow{HCl} Ar-\overset{\overset{NH_2^+\ Cl^-}{\|}}{C}-CCl_3 \xrightarrow{NaOH} ArCN$$

Aromatic hydrocarbons (including benzene), phenols, and phenolic ethers can be cyanated with trichloroacetonitrile, BrCN, or mercury fulminate, $Hg(ONC)_2$.[388] In the case of Cl_3CCN, the actual attacking entity is probably $Cl_3C-{}^+C{=}NH$, formed by addition of a proton to the cyano nitrogen. Secondary aromatic amines (ArNHR), as well as phenols, can be cyanated in the ortho position with Cl_3CCN and BCl_3.[389]

It is noted that aryl triflates are converted to the aryl nitrile by treatment with $Zn(CN)_2$ and a palladium catalyst.[390]

OS III, 293.

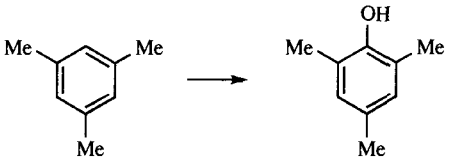
F. *Oxygen Electrophiles*

Oxygen electrophiles are very uncommon, since oxygen does not bear a positive charge very well. However, there is one reaction that can be mentioned.

11-29 *Hydroxylation or Hydroxy-de-hydrogenation*

$$ArH + F_3C-\overset{\overset{O}{\|}}{C}-O-OH \longrightarrow ArOH$$

There have been only a few reports of direct hydroxylation[391] by an electrophilic process (see, however, **14-5**).[392] In general, poor results are obtained, partly because the introduction of an OH group activates the ring to further attack. Quinone formation is common. However, alkyl-substituted benzenes such as mesitylene or durene can be hydroxylated in good yield with trifluoroperacetic acid and boron trifluoride.[393] In the case of mesitylene, the product is not subject to further attack:



In a related procedure, even benzene and substituted benzenes (e.g., PhMe, PhCl, xylenes) can be converted to phenols in good yields with sodium perborate: F3CSO2OH.[394] Aromatic amines, N-acyl amines, and phenols were hydroxylated with H_2O_2 in SbF_5—HF.[395] Pyridine and quinoline were converted to their 2-acetoxy derivatives in high yields with acetyl hypofluorite AcOF at $-75°C$.[396]

Another hydroxylation reaction is the *Elbs reaction?*[91] In this method, phenols can be oxidized to *p*-diphenols with $K_2S_2O_8$ in alkaline solution.[398] Primary, secondary, or tertiary aromatic amines give predominant or exclusive ortho substitution unless both ortho positions are blocked, in which case para substitution is found. The reaction with amines is called the *Boyland-Sims oxidation.* Yields are low with either phenols or amines, generally under 50%. The mechanisms are not clear,[399] but for the Boyland-Sims oxidation there is evidence that the $S_2O_8^{2-}$ ion attacks at the ipso position, and then a migration follows.[400]

Electrolysis of benzene, in the presence of trifluoroacetic acid and triethylamine, leads to a 73% yield of phenol.[401]

G. *Metal Electrophiles*

Reactions in which a metal replaces the hydrogen of an aromatic ring are considered along with their aliphatic counterparts in Chapter 12 (12-20 and 12-21).

Hydrogen as the Leaving Group in Rearrangement Reactions

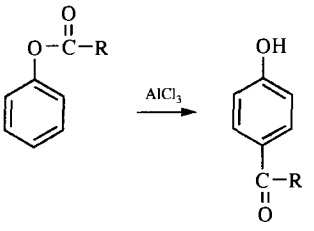
In these reactions, a group is detached from a *side chain,* and then attacks the ring, but in other aspects they resemble the reactions already treated in this chapter.[402] Since a group moves from one position to another in a molecule, these are rearrangements. In all these reactions, the question arises as to whether the group that cleaves from a given molecule attacks the same molecule or another one, that is, is the reaction intramolecular or intermolecular? For intermolecular reactions the mechanism is the same as ordinary aromatic substitution, but for intramolecular cases the migrating group could never be completely free, or else it would be able to attack another molecule. Since the migrating species in intramolecular rearrangements is thus likely to remain near the atom from which it cleaved, it has been suggested that intramolecular reactions are more likely to lead to ortho products than are the intermolecular type. This characteristic has been used, among others, to help decide whether a given rearrangement is inter- or intramolecular, though there is evidence that at least in some cases, an intermolecular mechanism can still result in a high degree of ortho migration.[403]

The Claisen (18-33) and benzidine (18-36) rearrangements, which superficially resemble those in this section, have different mechanisms and are treated in Chapter 18.

A. *Groups Cleaving from Oxygen*

11-30 *The Fries Rearrangement*

1/C-HYDRO, 5/O-ACYL-INTERCHANGE[404]



Phenolic esters can be rearranged by heating with Friedel-Crafts catalysts in a synthetically useful reaction known as the *Fries rearrangement.*[405] Both *o*- and *p*-acylphenols can be produced, and it is often possible to select conditions so that either one predominates. The ortho/para ratio is dependent on the temperature, solvent, and amount of catalyst used. Exceptions are known, but low temperatures generally favor the para product and high temperatures the ortho product. The R group may be aliphatic or aromatic. Any meta-directing substituent on the ring

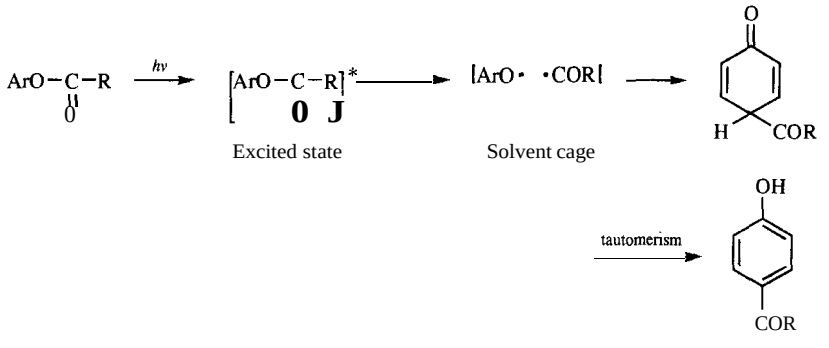
interferes with the reactions, as might be expected for a Friedel-Crafts process. In the case of aryl benzoates treated with F_3CSO_2OH, the Fries rearrangement was shown to be reversible and an equilibrium was established.[406] Transition metal catalyzed Fries rearrangements have been reported.[407]

The exact mechanism has still not been completely worked out.[408] Opinions have been expressed that it is completely intermolecular,[409] completely intramolecular,[410] and partially inter- and intramolecular.[411] One way to decide between inter- and intramolecular processes is to run the reaction of the phenolic ester in the presence of another aromatic compound, say, toluene. If some of the toluene is acylated, the reaction must be, at least in part, intermolecular. If the toluene is not acylated, the presumption is that the reaction is intramolecular, though this is not certain, for it may be that the toluene is not attacked because it is less active than the other. A number of such experiments (called *crossover experiments)* have been carried out; sometimes crossover products have been found and sometimes not. As in 11-14, an initial complex (40) is formed between the substrate and the catalyst, so that a catalyst/substrate molar ratio of at least 1:1 is required.

ArO-C(=O)-R
+0-AlC13

40

The Fries rearrangement can also be carried out with UV light, in the absence of a catalyst.[412] This reaction, called the *photo-Fries rearrangement*,[413] is predominantly an intramolecular free-radical process. Both ortho and para migration are observed.[414] Unlike the Lewis acid catalyzed Fries rearrangement, the photo-Fries reaction can be accomplished, though often in low yields, when meta-directing groups are on the ring. The available evidence strongly suggests the following mechanism[415] for the photo-Fries rearrangement[416] (illustrated for para attack):



The phenol ArOH is always a side product, resulting from some ArO· that leaks from the solvent cage and abstracts a hydrogen atom from a neighboring molecule. When the reaction was performed on phenyl acetate in the gas phase, where there are no solvent molecules to form a cage (but in the presence of isobutane as a source of abstractable hydrogens), phenol was the chief product and virtually no *o*- or *p*-hydroxyacetophenone was found.[417] Other evidence[418] for the mechanism is that

CIDNP has been observed during the course of the reaction[419] and that the ArO• radical has been detected by flash photolysis[420] and by nanosecond time-resolved Raman spectroscopy.[421]

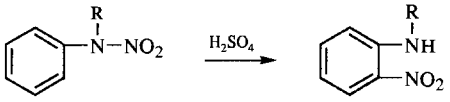
OS **II,** 543; **III,** 280, 282.

B. *Groups Cleaving from Nitrogen*[422]

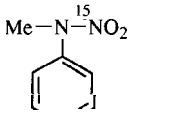
It has been shown that $PhNH_2D$ rearranges to *o*- and *p*-deuterioaniline.[423] The migration of OH, formally similar to reactions **11-31-11-35,** is a nucleophilic substitution and is treated in Chapter 13 **(13-23).**

11-31 *Migration of the Nitro Group*

1/C-HYDRO, 3/N-NITRO-INTERCHANGE



N-Nitro aromatic amines rearrange on treatment with acids to o- and p-nitroamines with the ortho compounds predominating.[424] Aside from this indication of an intramolecular process, there is also the fact that virtually no meta isomer is produced in this reaction,[425] though direct nitration of an aromatic amine generally gives a fair amount of meta product. Thus a mechanism in which NO_2^+ is dissociated from the ring, and then attacks another molecule must be ruled out. Further results indicating an intramolecular process are that rearrangement of several substrates in the presence of $K^{15}NO_3$ gave products containing no ^{15}N,[426] and that rearrangement of a mixture of $PhNH^{15}NO_2$ and unlabeled *p*-$MeC_6H_4NHNO_2$ gave 2-nitro-4-methylaniline containing no ^{15}N.[427] On the other hand, rearrangement of 41 in the presence of unlabeled $PhNMeNO_2$ gave labeled 42, which did not arise by displacement of F.[428] The R group may be hydrogen or alkyl. Two principal mechanisms have been suggested, one involving cyclic attack by the oxygen of the nitro group at the ortho position before the group cleaves,[429] and the other involving a cleavage into a radical and a radical ion held together in a solvent cage.[430] Among the evidence for the latter view[431] are



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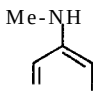

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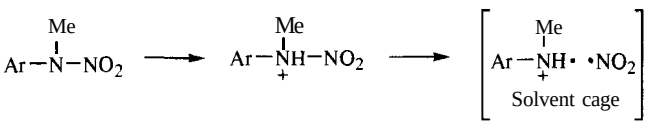
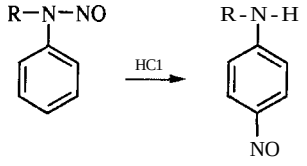


the effects of substituents on the rate of the reaction,[432] ^{15}N and ^{14}C kinetic isotope effects that show nonconcertedness,[433] and the fact that both *N*-methylaniline and nitrous acid are produced in sizable and comparable amounts in addition to the normal products *o*- and *p*-nitro-*N*-methylaniline.[434] These side products are formed when the radicals escape from the solvent cage.

11-32 *Migration of the Nitroso Group: The Fischer-Hepp Rearrangement*

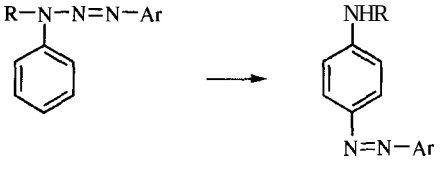
1/C-HYDRO-5/N-NITROSO-INTERCHANGE



The migration of a nitroso group, formally similar to 11-31, is important because p-nitroso secondary aromatic amines cannot generally be prepared by direct C-nitrosation of secondary aromatic amines (see 12-49). The reaction, known as the *Fischer-Hepp rearrangement*,[435] is brought about by treatment of N-nitroso secondary aromatic amines with HC1. Other acids give poor or no results. In benzene systems the para product is usually formed exclusively.[436] The mechanism of the rearrangement is not completely understood. The fact that the reaction takes place in a large excess of urea[437] shows that it is intramolecular[438] since, if NO^+, NOCl, or some similar species were free in the solution, it would be captured by the urea, preventing the rearrangement.

11-33 *Migration of an Arylazo Group*

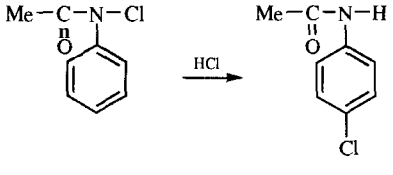
1/C-HYDRO-5/N-ARYLAZO-INTERCHANGE



Rearrangement of aryl triazenes can be used to prepare azo derivatives of primary and secondary aromatic amines.[439] These are first diazotized at the amino group (see 11-4) to give triazenes, which are then rearranged by treatment with acid. The rearrangement always gives the para isomer, unless that position is occupied.

11-34 *Migration of Halogen: The Orton Rearrangement*

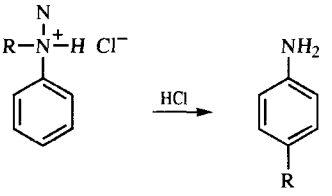
1/C-HYDRO-5/N-HALO-INTERCHANGE



Migration of a halogen from a nitrogen side chain to the ring by treatment with HC1 is called the *Orton rearrangement*.[440] The main product is the para isomer, though some ortho product may also be formed. The reaction has been carried out with N-chloro- and N-bromoamines and less often with N-iodo compounds. The amine must be acylated, except that $PhNCl_2$ gives 2,4-dichloroaniline. The reaction is usually performed in water or acetic acid. There is much evidence (cross-halogenation, labeling, etc.) that this is an intermolecular process.[441] First, the HC1 reacts with the starting material to give $ArNHCOCH_3$ and Cl_2; then, the chlorine halogenates the ring as in **11-11.** Among the evidence is that chlorine has been isolated from the reaction mixture. The Orton rearrangement can also be brought about photochemically[442] and by heating in the presence of benzoyl peroxide.[443] These are free radical processes.

11-35 *Migration of an Alkyl Group*[444]

1/C-HYDRO-5/N-ALKYL-INTERCHANGE



When HCl salts of arylalkylamines are heated at ~200-300°C, migration occurs. This is called the *Hofmann–Martius reaction.* It is an intermolecular reaction, since crossing is found. For example, methylanilinium bromide gave not only the normal products *o*- and *p*-toluidine but also aniline and di- and trimethylanilines.[445] As would be expected for an intermolecular process, there is isomerization when R is primary.

With primary R, the reaction probably goes through the alkyl halide formed initially in an S_N2 reaction:

$$R\overset{+}{N}H_2Ar + Cl^- \longrightarrow HCl + ArNH_2$$

Evidence for this view is that alkyl halides have been isolated from the reaction mixture and that Br^-, Cl^-, and I^- gave different ortho/para ratios, which indicates that the halogen is involved in the reaction.[445] Further evidence is that the alkyl halides isolated are not rearranged (as would be expected if they are formed by an S_N2 mechanism), even though the alkyl groups in the ring are rearranged. Once the alkyl halide is formed, it reacts with the substrate by a normal Friedel–Crafts alkylation process **(11-12),** accounting for the rearrangement. When R is secondary or tertiary, carbocations may be directly formed so that the reaction does not go through the alkyl halides.[446]

It is also possible to carry out the reaction by heating the amine (not the salt) at a temperature between 200 and 350°C with a metal halide such as $CoCl_2$, $CdCl_2$, or $ZnCl_2$. When this is done, the reaction is called the *Reilly–Hickinbottom rearrange-*

ment. Primary R groups larger than ethyl give both rearranged and unrearranged products.[447] The reaction is not generally useful for secondary and tertiary R groups, which are usually cleaved to alkenes under these conditions.

When acylated arylamines are photolyzed, migration of an acyl group takes place[448] in a process that resembles the photo-Fries reaction (11-30).

Other Leaving Groups

Three types of reactions are considered in this section.

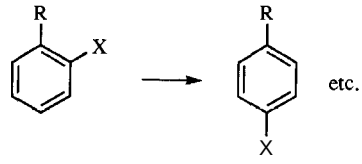
1. Reactions in which hydrogen replaces another leaving group:

$$ArX + H^+ \longrightarrow ArH$$

2. Reactions in which an electrophile other than hydrogen replaces another leaving group:

$$ArX + Y^+ \longrightarrow ArY$$

3. Reactions in which a group (other than hydrogen) migrates from one position in a ring to another. Such migrations can be either inter- or intramolecular:



The three types are not treated separately, but reactions are classified by leaving group.

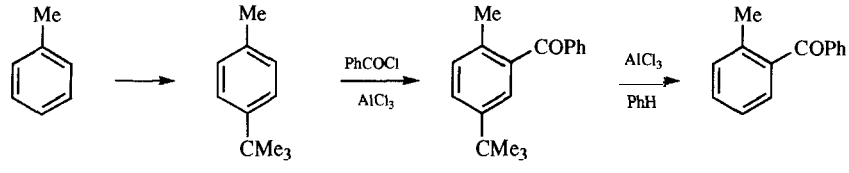
A. *Carbon Leaving Groups*

11-36 *Reversal of Friedel-Crafts Alkylation*

HYDRO-DE-ALKYLATION OR DEALKYLATION

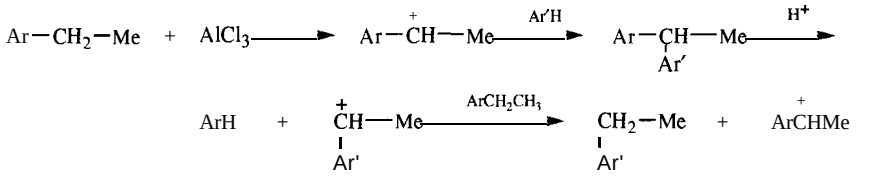
$$ArR + H^+ \xrightarrow{AlCl_3} ArH$$

Alkyl groups can be cleaved from aromatic rings by treatment with proton and/or Lewis acids. Tertiary R groups are the most easily cleaved; because this is true, the *tert*-butyl group is occasionally introduced into a ring, used to direct another group, and then removed.[449] For example,[450]

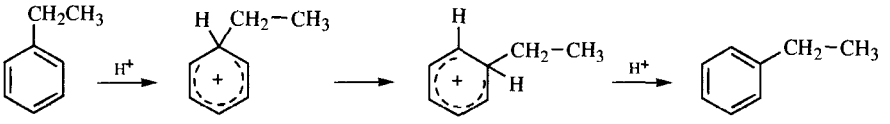


Secondary R groups are harder to cleave, and primary R harder still. Because of this reaction, care must be taken when using Friedel-Crafts catalysts (Lewis or proton acids) on aromatic compounds containing alkyl groups. True cleavage, in which the R becomes an alkene, occurs only at high temperatures—above 400°C.[451] At ordinary temperatures, the R group attacks another ring, so that the bulk of the product may be dealkylated, but there is a residue of heavily alkylated material. The isomerization reaction, in which a group migrates from one position in a ring to another or to a different ring, is therefore more important than true cleavage. In these reactions, the meta isomer is generally the most favored product among the dialkylbenzenes; and the 1,3,5 product the most favored among the trialkylbenzenes, because they have the highest thermodynamic stabilities. Alkyl migrations can be inter- or intramolecular, depending on the conditions and on the R group. The following experiments can be cited: ethylbenzene treated with HF and BF_3 gave, almost completely, benzene and diethylbenzenes (entirely intermolecular);[452] propylbenzene labeled in the (3 position gave benzene, propylbenzene, and di- and tripropylbenzenes, but the propylbenzene recovered was partly labeled in the a position and not at all in the *y* position (both intra- and intermolecular);[453] o-xylene treated with HBr and $AlBr_3$ gave a mixture of o- and *m*- but no *p*-xylene, while *p*-xylene gave *p*- and *m*- but no o-xylene, and no trimethyl compounds could be isolated in these experiments (exclusively intramolecular rearrangement).[454] Apparently, methyl groups migrate only intramolecularly, while other groups may follow either path.[455]

The mechanism[456] of intermolecular rearrangement can involve free alkyl cations, but there is much evidence to show that this is not necessarily the case. For example, many of them occur without rearrangement within the alkyl group. The following mechanism has been proposed for intermolecular rearrangement without the involvement of carbocations that are separated from the ring.[457]



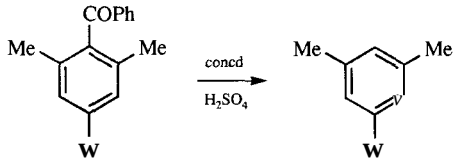
Evidence for this mechanism is that optically active $PhCHDCH_3$ labeled in the ring with ^{14}C and treated with $GaBr_3$ in the presence of benzene gave ethylbenzene containing no deuterium and two deuteriums and that the rate of loss of radioactivity was about equal to the rate of loss of optical activity.[457] The mechanism of intramolecular rearrangement is not very clear. The 1,2 shifts of this kind have been proposed:[458]



There is evidence from ^{14}C labeling that intramolecular migration occurs only through 1,2 shifts.[459] Any 1,3 or 1,4 migration takes place by a series of two or more 1,2 shifts.

Phenyl groups have also been found to migrate. Thus *o*-terphenyl, heated with $AlCl_3$–H_2O, gave a mixture containing 7% *o*-, 70% *m*-, and 23% *p*-terphenyl.[460] Alkyl groups have also been replaced by groups other than hydrogen, (e.g., nitro groups).

Unlike alkylation, *Friedel-Crafts acylation* has been generally considered to be irreversible, but a number of instances of electrofugal acyl groups have been reported,[461] especially where there are two ortho substituents, for example the hydro-de-benzoylation of 42.[462]



W = Me, Cl, OH, etc.

OS V, 332. Also see OS HI, 282, 653; V, 598.

11-37 *Decarbonylation of Aromatic Aldehydes*

HYDRO-DE-FORMYLATION OR DEFORMYLATION

$$ArCHO \xrightarrow{H_2SO_4} ArH + CO$$

The decarbonylation of aromatic aldehydes with sulfuric acid[463] is the reverse of the *Gatterman–Koch reaction* **(11-16).** It has been carried out with trialkyl- and trialkoxybenzaldehydes. The reaction takes place by the ordinary arenium ion mechanism: the attacking species is H^+ and the leaving group is HCO^+, which can lose a proton to give CO or combine with OH^- from the water solvent to give formic acid.[464] Aromatic aldehydes have also been decarbonylated with basic catalysts.[465] When basic catalysts are used, the mechanism is probably similar to the S_E1 process of **11-38.** See also **14-39.**

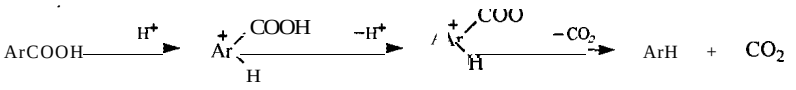
11-38 *Decarboxylation of Aromatic Acids*

HYDRO-DE-CARBOXYLATION OR DECARBOXYLATION

$$ArCOOH \xrightarrow[\text{quinoline}]{Cu} ArH + CO_2$$

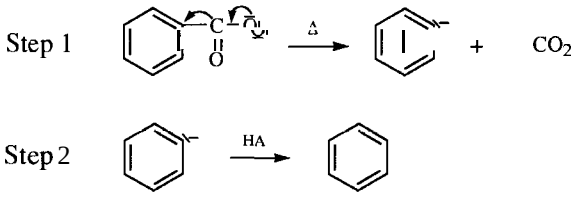
The decarboxylation of aromatic acids is most often carried out by heating with copper and quinoline. However, two other methods can be used with certain substrates. In one method, the salt of the acid ($ArCOO^-$) is heated, and in the other the carboxylic acid is heated with a strong acid, often sulfuric. The latter method is accelerated by the presence of electron-donating groups in ortho and para positions and by the steric effect of groups in the ortho positions; in benzene systems it is

generally limited to substrates that contain such groups. In this method, decarboxylation takes place by the arenium ion mechanism,[466] with H^+ as the electrophile and



CO_2 as the leaving group.[467] Evidently, the order of electrofugal ability is $CO_2 > H^+ > COOH^+$, so that it is necessary, at least in most cases, for the COOH to lose a proton before it can cleave.

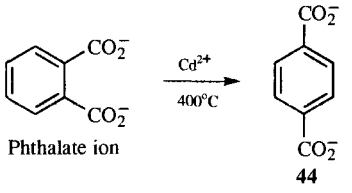
When carboxylate *ions are* decarboxylated, the mechanism is entirely different, being of the S_E1 type. Evidence for this mechanism is that the reaction is first order and that electron-withdrawing groups, which would stabilize a carbanion, facilitate the reaction.[468]



Despite its synthetic importance, the mechanism of the copper-quinoline method has been studied very little, but it has been shown that the actual catalyst is cuprous ion.[469] In fact, the reaction proceeds much faster if the acid is heated in quinoline with cuprous oxide instead of copper, provided that atmospheric oxygen is rigorously excluded. A mechanism has been suggested in which it is the cuprous salt of the acid that actually undergoes the decarboxylation.[469] It has been shown that cuprous salts of aromatic acids are easily decarboxylated by heating in quinoline[470] and that arylcopper compounds are intermediates that can be isolated in some cases.[471] Metallic silver has been used in place of copper, with higher yields.[472]

In certain cases, the carboxyl group can be replaced by electrophiles other than hydrogen, (e.g., NO,[472] I,[473] Br,[474] or Hg).[475]

Rearrangements are also known to take place. For example, when the phthalate ion is heated with a catalytic amount of cadmium, the terphthalate ion (44) is produced:[476]



Phthalate ion

44

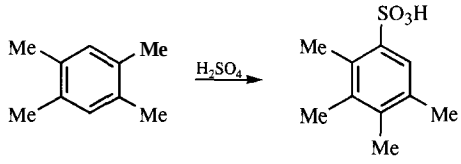
In a similar process, potassium benzoate heated with cadmium salts disproportionates to benzene and 44. The term *Henkel reaction* (named for the company that patented the process) is used for these rearrangements.[477] An S_E1 mechanism has

been suggested.[478] The terphthalate is the main product because it crystallizes from the reaction mixture, driving the equilibrium in that direction.[479]

For aliphatic decarboxylation, see **12-38.**

OS **I,** 274, 455, 541; **II,** 100, 214, 217, 341; **III,** 267, 272, 471, 637; **IV,** 590, 628; **V,** 635, 813, 982, 985. Also see OS I, 56.

11-39 *The Jacobsen Reaction*



When polyalkyl- or polyhalobenzenes are treated with sulfuric acid, the ring is sulfonated, but rearrangement also takes place. The reaction, known as the *Jacobsen reaction,* is limited to benzene rings that have at least four substituents, which can be any combination of alkyl and halogen groups, where the alkyl groups can be ethyl or methyl and the halogen iodo, chloro, or bromo. When isopropyl or *tert*-butyl groups are on the ring, these groups are cleaved to give alkenes. Since a sulfo group can later be removed **(11-41),** the Jacobsen reaction can be used as a means of rearranging polyalkylbenzenes. The rearrangement always brings the alkyl or halo groups closer together than they were originally. Side products in the case illustrated above are pentamethylbenzenesulfonic acid, 2,4,5-trimethylbenzenesulfonic acid, and so on, indicating an intermolecular process, at least partially.

The mechanism of the Jacobsen reaction is not established,[480] but there is evidence, at least for polymethylbenzenes, that the rearrangement is intermolecular, and that the species to which the methyl group migrates is a polymethylbenzene, not a sulfonic acid. Sulfonation takes place after the migration.[481] It has been shown by labeling that ethyl groups migrate without internal rearrangement.[482]

B. *Oxygen Leaving Groups*

11-40 *Deoxygenation*

$$\mathrm{ArOR} \longrightarrow \mathrm{ArH}$$

In a few cases, it is possible to remove an oxygen substituent directly from the aromatic ring. Treatment of an aryl mesylate (ArOMs) with a nickel catalyst in DMF, for example, leads to the deoxygenated product, Ar–H.[483]

C. *Sulfur Leaving Groups*

11-41 *Desulfonation or Hydro-de-sulfonation*

$$\mathrm{ArSO_3H} \xrightarrow[\text{dil. } \mathrm{H_2SO_4}]{135\text{–}200^\circ\mathrm{C}} \mathrm{ArH} + \mathrm{H_2SO_4}$$

The cleavage of sulfo groups from aromatic rings is the reverse of 11-7.[484] By the principle of microscopic reversibility, the mechanism is also the reverse.[485] Dilute H_2SO_4 is generally used, as the reversibility of sulfonation decreases with increasing H_2SO_4 concentration. The reaction permits the sulfo group to be used as a blocking group to direct meta, and then to be removed. The sulfo group has also been replaced by nitro and halogen groups. Sulfo groups have also been removed from the ring by heating with an alkaline solution of Raney nickel.[486] In another catalytic process, aromatic sulfonyl bromides or chlorides are converted to aryl bromides or chlorides, respectively, on heating with chlorotris(triphenylphosphine)rhodium(I).[487] This reaction is similar to the decarbonylation of aromatic acyl halides mentioned in **14-39.**

$$ArSO_2Br \xrightarrow{RhCl(PPh_3)_3} ArBr$$

OS I, 388; **II,** 97; **III,** 262; IV, 364. Also see OS I, 519; **II,** 128; V, 1070.

D. *Halogen Leaving Groups*

11-42 *Dehalogenation or Hydro-de-halogenation*

$$ArX \xrightarrow{AlCl_3} ArH$$

Aryl halides can be dehalogenated by Friedel–Crafts catalysts. Iodine is the most easily cleaved. Dechlorination is seldom performed and defluorination apparently never. The reaction is most successful when a reducing agent, say, Br^- or I^- is present to combine with the I^+ or Br^+ coming off.[488] Except for deiodination, the reaction is seldom used for preparative purposes. Migration of halogen is also found,[489] both intramolecular[490] and intermolecular.[491] The mechanism is probably the reverse of that of **11–11**.[492]

Rearrangement of polyhalobenzenes can also be catalyzed by very strong bases; for example, 1,2,4-tribromobenzene is converted to 1,3,5-tribromobenzene by treatment with PhNHK.[493] This reaction, which involves aryl carbanion intermediates (S_E1 mechanism), has been called the *halogen dance.*[494]

Removal of halogen from aromatic rings can also be accomplished by various reducing agents, among them Bu_3SnH,[495] catalytic hydrogenolysis,[496] catalytic transfer hydrogenolysis,[497] $Fe(CO)_5$,[498] Na-Hg in liquid NH_3,[499] $LiAlH_4$,[500] $LiAlH_4$ irradiated with light[501] or with ultrasound,[502] $NaBH_4$ and a catalyst,[503] NaH,[504] HCOOH with Pd/C,[505] and Raney nickel in alkaline solution,[506] the last method being effective for fluorine as well as for the other halogens. Carbon monoxide, with potassium tetracarbonylhydridoferrate, $KHFe(CO)_4$, as a catalyst, specifically reduces aryl iodides.[507] Not all these reagents operate by electrophilic substitution mechanisms. Some are nucleophilic substitutions and some are free-radical processes. Photochemical[508] and electrochemical[509] reduction are also known. Halogen can also be removed from aromatic rings indirectly by conversion to Grignard reagents (12-36)followed by hydrolysis **(11-44).**

OS **III,** 132, 475, 519; V, 149, 346, 998; **VI,** 82, 821.

11-43 *Formation of Organometallic Compounds*

$$ArBr + M \longrightarrow ArM$$

$$ArBr + RM \longrightarrow ArM + RBr$$

These reactions are considered along with their aliphatic counterparts at Reactions 12-36 and 12-37.

E. *Metal Leaving Groups*

11-44 *Hydrolysis of Organometallic Compounds*

HYDRO-DE-METALLATION OR DEMETALATION

$$ArM + H^+ \longrightarrow ArH + M^+$$

Organometallic compounds can be hydrolyzed by acid treatment. For active metals such as Mg, Li, and so on, water is sufficiently acidic. The most important example of this reaction is hydrolysis of Grignard reagents, but M may be many other metals or metalloids. Examples are SiR_3, HgR, Na, and $B(OH)_2$. Since aryl Grignard and aryllithium compounds are fairly easy to prepare, they are often used to prepare salts of weak acids, for example,

$$PhMgBr + H{-}C{\equiv}C{-}H \longrightarrow H{-}C{\equiv}C^- + {}^+MgBr + PhH$$

Where the bond between the metal and the ring is covalent, the usual arenium ion mechanism operates.[510] Where the bonding is essentially ionic, this is a simple acid-base reaction. For the aliphatic counterpart of this reaction, see Reaction 12-23.

Other reactions of aryl organometallic compounds are treated with their aliphatic analogs: Reactions 12-24-12-34.

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[2] This mechanism is sometimes called the S_E2 mechanism because it is bimolecular, but in this book we reserve that name for aliphatic substrates (see Chapter 12).

[3] General agreement on what to call these ions has not yet been reached. The term s complex is a holdover from the time when much less was known about the structure of carbocations and it was thought they might be complexes of the type discussed in Chapter 3. Other names have also been used. We will call them arenium ions, following the suggestion of Olah, G.A. *J. Am. Chem. Soc, 1971, 94,* 808.

[4] For reviews of arenium ions formed by addition of a proton to an aromatic ring, see Brouwer, D.M.; Mackor, E.L.; MacLean, C. in Olah; Schleyer *Carbonium Ions*, vol. 2; Wiley: NY, ***1970,*** p. 837; Perkampus, H. *Adv. Phys. Org. Chem., **1966,** 4,* 195.

[5] For a discussion of cases in which 1 stabilizes itself in other ways, see de le Mare, P.B.D. *Acc. Chem. Res., **1974,*** 7, 361.

[6] The pioneering studies were by Melander, L. *Ark. **Kemi, 1950,*** 2, 213; Berglund-Larsson, U.; Melander, L. *Ark. Kemi, 1953, 6,* 219. See also Zollinger, H. *Adv. Phys. Org. Chem., **1964,** 2,* 163.

[7] For a discussion, see Hammett, L.P. *Physical Organic Chemistry*, 2nd ed.; McGraw-Hill: NY, ***1970,*** p. 172.

[8] Zollinger, H. *Helv. Chim. Acta, **1955,** 38,* 1597, 1617, 1623.

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[10] For some other examples of isotope effects caused by steric factors, see Helgstrand, E. *Acta Chem. Scand., 1965,19,* 1583; Nilsson, A. *Acta Chem. Scand, **1967,** 21,* 2423; Baciocchi, E.; Illuminati, G.; Sleiter, G.; Stegel, F. *J. Am. Chem. Soc, **1967,** 89,* 125; Myhre, PC; Beug, M.; James, L.L. *J. Am Chem Soc, **1968,** 90,* 2105; Dubois, J.E.; Uzan, R. *Bull. Soc. Chim. Fr., **1968,*** 3534; Márton, J. *Acta Chem. Scand, **1969,** 23,* 3321, 3329.

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CHAPTER 12

Aliphatic Electrophilic Substitution

In Chapter 11, it was pointed out that the most important leaving groups in electrophilic substitution are those that can best exist with an outer shell that is deficient in a pair of electrons. For aromatic systems, the most common leaving group is the proton. The proton is also a leaving group in aliphatic systems, but the reactivity depends on the acidity. Protons in saturated alkanes are very unreactive, but electrophilic substitutions are often easily carried out at more acidic positions, for example, a to a carbonyl group, or at an alkynyl position ($RC{\equiv}CH$). Since metallic ions are easily able to bear positive charges, we might expect that organometallic compounds would be especially susceptible to electrophilic substitution, and this is indeed the case.[1] Another important type of electrophilic substitution, known as *anionic cleavage*, involves the breaking of C–C bonds; in these reactions there are carbon leaving groups (**12-38**–**12-44**). A number of electrophilic substitutions at a nitrogen atom are treated at the end of the chapter.

Since a carbanion is what remains when a positive species is removed from a carbon atom, the subject of carbanion structure and stability (Chapter 5) is inevitably related to the material in this chapter. So is the subject of very weak acids and very strong bases (Chapter 8), because the weakest acids are those in which the hydrogen is bonded to carbon.

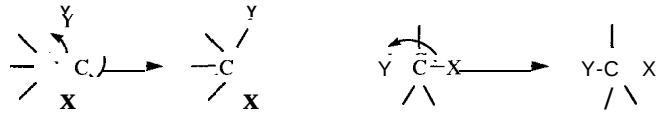
MECHANISMS

For aliphatic electrophilic substitution, we can distinguish at least four possible major mechanisms,[2] which we call S_E1, S_E2 (front), S_E2 (back), and S_Ei. The S_E1 is unimolecular; the other three are bimolecular.

Bimolecular Mechanisms: S_E2 and S_Ei

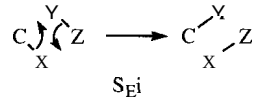
The bimolecular mechanisms for electrophilic aliphatic substitution are analogous to the S_N2 mechanism in that the new bond forms as the old one breaks. However, in the S_N2 mechanism the incoming group brings with it a pair of electrons, and this orbital can overlap with the central carbon only to the extent that the leaving group takes away *its* electrons; otherwise the carbon would have more than eight electrons at once in its outer shell. Since electron clouds repel, this means also that the incoming group attacks backside, at a position 180° from the leaving group,

resulting in inversion of configuration. When the attacking species is an electrophile, which brings to the substrate only a vacant orbital, it is obvious that this consideration does not apply and we cannot *a priori* predict from which direction the attack must come. We can imagine two main possibilities: Attack from the front, which we call S_E2 (front), and attack from the rear, which we call S_E2 (back). The possibilities can be pictured (charges not shown):



S_E2 (front) S_E2 (back)

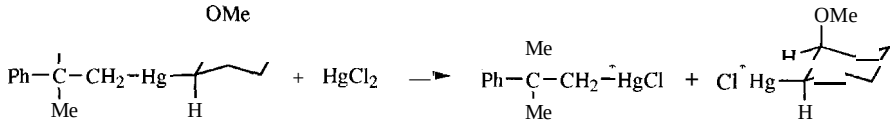
Both the S_E2 (front) and S_E2 (back) mechanisms are designated D_EA_E in the IUPAC system. With substrates in which we can distinguish the possibility, the former mechanism should result in retention of configuration and the latter in inversion. The reaction of allylsilanes with adamantyl chloride and $TiCl_4$, for example, gives primarily the antiproduct via a S_E2' reaction.[3] When the electrophile attacks from the front, there is a third possibility. A portion of the electrophile may assist in the removal of the leaving group, forming a bond with it at the same time that the new C–Y bond is formed



S_Ei

This mechanism, which we call the S_Ei mechanism (IUPAC designation: cyclo-$D_EA_ED_nA_n$),[4] also results in retention of configuration.[5] Plainly, where a second-order mechanism involves this kind of internal assistance, backside attack is impossible.

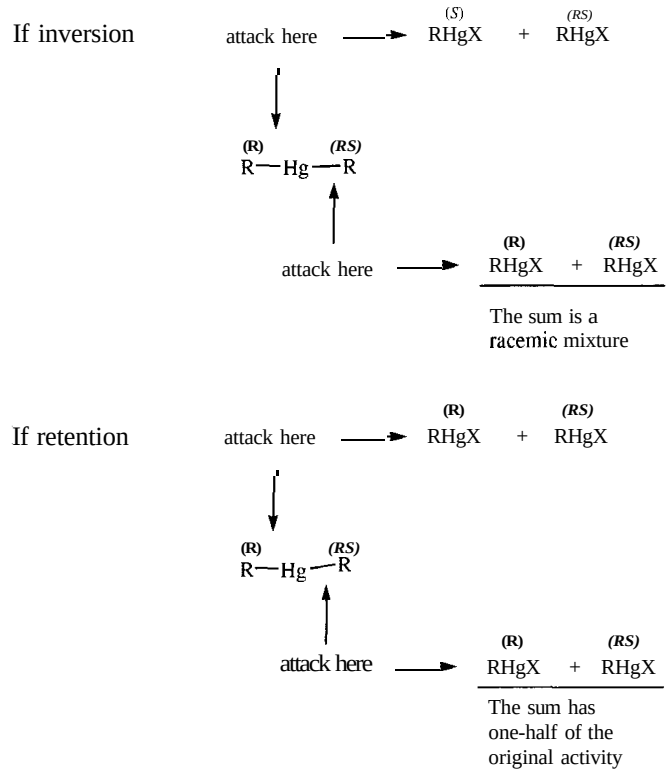
It is evident that these three mechanisms are not easy to distinguish. All three give second-order kinetics, and two result in retention of configuration.[6] In fact, although much work has been done on this question, there are few cases in which we can unequivocally say that one of these three and not another is actually taking place.



1 **2**

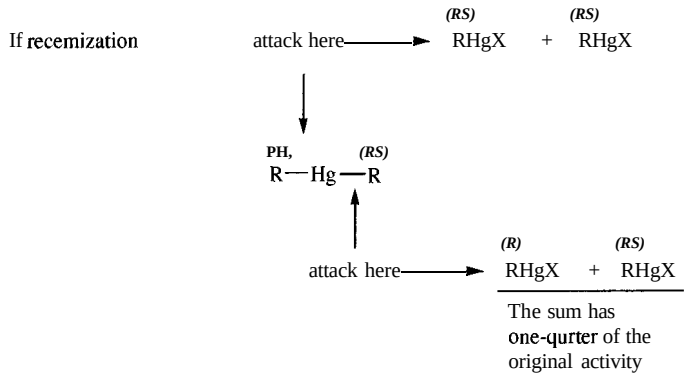
Clearly, a study of the stereochemistry can distinguish between S_E2 (back) on the one hand and S_E2 (front) or S_Ei on the other. Many such investigations have been made. In the overwhelming majority of second-order electrophilic substitutions, the result has been retention of configuration or some other indication of frontside attack, indicating an S_E2 (front) or S_Ei mechanism. For example, when *cis*-**1** was treated with labeled mercuric chloride, the 2 produced was 100% cis. The bond between the mercury and the ring must have been broken (as well as the other Hg–C

bond), since each of the products contained about one-half of the labeled mercury.[7] Another indication of frontside attack is that second-order electrophilic substitutions proceed very easily at *bridgehead* carbons (see p. 392).[8] Still another indication is the behavior of neopentyl as a substrate. The S_N2 reactions at neopentyl are extremely slow (p. 431), because attack from the rear is blocked. The fact that neopentyl systems undergo electrophilic substitution only slightly more slowly than ethyl[9] is further evidence for frontside attack. One final elegant experiment may be noted.



The compound di-*sec*-butylmercury was prepared with one sec-butyl group optically active and the other racemic.[10] This was accomplished by treatment of optically active *sec*-butylmercuric bromide with racemic *sec*-butylmagnesium bromide. The di-*sec*-butyl compound was then treated with mercuric bromide to give 2 mol of *sec*-butylmercuric bromide. The steric course of the reaction could then be predicted by the following analysis, assuming that the bonds between the mercury and each carbon have a 50% chance of breaking. The original activity referred to is the activity of the optically active *sec*-butylmercuric bromide used to make the dialkyl compound. The actual result was that, under several different sets of conditions, the product had one-half of the original activity, demonstrating retention of configuration.

However, inversion of configuration has been found in certain cases, demonstrating that the S_E2 (back) mechanism can take place. For example, the reaction of optically active *sec*-butyltrineopentyltin with bromine (12-28) gives inverted



sec-butyl bromide.[11] A number of other organometallic compounds have also been shown to give inversion when treated with halogens,[12] although others do not.[13] So far, no inversion has been found with an organomercury substrate. It may be that still other examples of backside attack exist[14] but have escaped detection because

$$s\text{-BuSnR}_3 + Br_2 \longrightarrow s\text{-BuBr} \qquad R = \text{neopentyl}$$

of the difficulty in preparing compounds with a configurationally stable carbon-metal bond. Compounds that are chiral because of an asymmetric carbon at which a carbon-metal bond is located[15] are often difficult to resolve and once resolved are often easily racemized. The resolution has been accomplished most often with organomercury compounds,[16] and most stereochemical investigations have therefore been made with these substrates. Only a few optically active Grignard reagents have been prepared (i.e., in which the only asymmetric center is the carbon bonded to the magnesium).[17] Because of this, the steric course of electrophilic substitutions at the C–Mg bond has not often been determined. However, in one such case, the reaction of both the exo and endo isomers of the 2-norbornyl Grignard reagent with $HgBr_2$ (to give 2-norbornylmercuric bromide) has been shown to proceed with retention of configuration.[18] It is likely that inversion takes place only when steric hindrance prevents frontside attack and when the electrophile does not carry a Z group (p. 760).

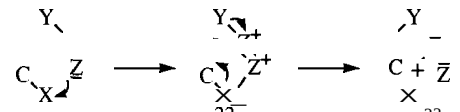
The S_E2 (back) mechanism can therefore be identified in certain cases (if inversion of configuration is found), but it is plain that stereochemical investigations cannot distinguish between the S_E2 (front) and the S_Ei mechanisms and that, in the many cases where configurationally stable substrates cannot be prepared, such investigations are of no help at all in distinguishing among all three of the second-order mechanisms. Unfortunately, there are not many other methods that lead to unequivocal conclusions. One method that has been used in an attempt to distinguish between the S_Ei mechanism on the one hand and the S_E2 pathways on the other

involves the study of salt effects on the rate. It may be recalled (p. 450) that reactions in which neutral starting molecules acquire charges in the transition state are aided by an increasing concentration of added ions. Thus the S_Ei mechanism would be less influenced by salt effects than would either of the S_E2 mechanisms. On this basis Abraham and Johnston[19] concluded that the reactions $R_4Sn + HgX_2 \rightarrow RHgX + R_3SnX$ (X = Cl or I) take place by S_E2 and not by S_Ei mechanisms. Similar investigations involve changes in solvent polarity (see also p. 769).[20] In the case of the reaction (where R = R' = *i*-Pr and R = *i*-Pr, R' = neopentyl), the use of polar

$$s\text{-BuSnR}_2\text{R}' + \text{Br}_2 \longrightarrow s\text{-BuBr}$$

solvents gave predominant inversion, while nonpolar solvents gave predominant retention.[21]

On the basis of evidence from reactivity studies, it has been suggested[22] that a variation of the S_Ei mechanism is possible in which the group Z becomes attached to X before the latter becomes detached:



This process has been called the S_EC[22] or S_E2 (co-ord)[23] mechanism (IUPAC designation A_n + cyclo-$D_EA_ED_n$).

It has been shown that in certain cases (e.g., $Me_4Sn + I_2$) the reactants in an S_E2 reaction, when mixed, give rise to an immediate charge-transfer spectrum (p. 102), showing that an electron donor–acceptor (EDA) complex has been formed.[24] In these cases it is likely that the EDA complex is an intermediate in the reaction.

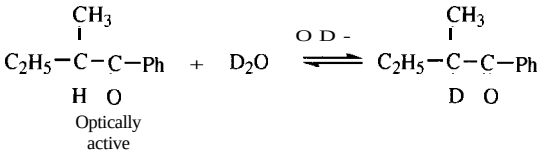
The S_E1 Mechanism

The S_E1 mechanism is analogous to the S_N1. It involves two steps: a slow ionization and a fast combination.

Step 1 $\text{R–X} \xrightarrow{\text{slow}} \text{R}^{=} + \text{X}^{+}$

Step 2 $\bar{\text{R}} + \text{Y}^{+} \longrightarrow \text{R-Y}$

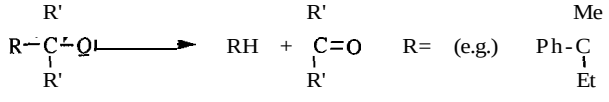
The IUPAC designation is $D_E + A_E$. First-order kinetics are predicted and many such examples have been found. Other evidence for the S_E1 mechanism was obtained in a study of base-catalyzed tautomerization. In the reaction the rate of



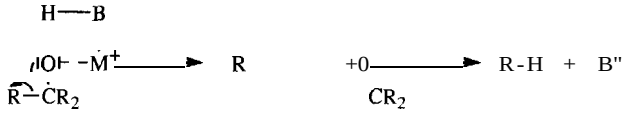
deuterium exchange was the same as the rate of racemization[25] and there was an isotope effect.[26]

The S_N1 reactions do not proceed at bridgehead carbons in [2.2.1] bicyclic systems (p. 397) because planar carbocations cannot form at these carbons. However, carbanions not stabilized by resonance are probably not planar; S_E1 reactions should readily occur with this type of substrate. This is the case. Indeed, the question of carbanion structure is intimately tied into the problem of the stereochemistry of the S_E1 reaction. If a carbanion is planar, racemization should occur. If it is pyramidal and *can hold its structure*, the result should be retention of configuration. On the other hand, even a pyramidal carbanion will give racemization if it cannot hold its structure, that is, if there is pyramidal inversion as with amines (p. 129). Unfortunately, the only carbanions that can be studied easily are those stabilized by resonance, which makes them planar, as expected (p. 233). For simple alkyl carbanions, the main approach to determining structure has been to study the stereochemistry of S_E1 reactions rather than the other way around. What is found is almost always racemization. Whether this is caused by planar carbanions or by oscillating pyramidal carbanions is not known. In either case, racemization occurs whenever a carbanion is completely free or is symmetrically solvated.

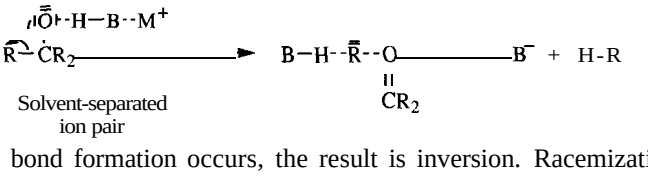
However, even planar carbanions need not give racemization. Cram[27] found that retention and even inversion can occur in the alkoxide cleavage reaction **(12-39):**



which is a first-order S_E1 reaction involving resonance-stabilized planar carbanions (here designated R^-).[27] By changing the solvent, Cram was able to produce products ranging from 99% retention to 60% inversion and including complete racemization. These results are explained by a carbanion that is not completely free but is solvated. In nondissociating, nonpolar solvents such as benzene or dioxane, the alkoxide ion exists as an ion pair, solvated by the solvent BH



In the course of the cleavage, the proton of the solvent moves in to solvate the newly forming carbanion. As is easily seen, this solvation is asymmetrical since the solvent molecule is already on the front side of the carbanion. When the carbanion actually bonds with the proton, the result is retention of the original configuration. In protic solvents, such as diethylene glycol, a good deal of inversion is found. In these solvents, the *leaving group* solvates the carbanion, so the solvent can solvate it only from the opposite side:



When C–H bond formation occurs, the result is inversion. Racemization results in polar aprotic solvents such as DMSO. In these solvents the carbanions are rela-

tively long-lived (because the solvent has no proton to donate) and symmetrically solvated.

Similar behavior was found for carbanions generated by base-catalyzed hydrogen exchange (Reaction 12-1):[28]

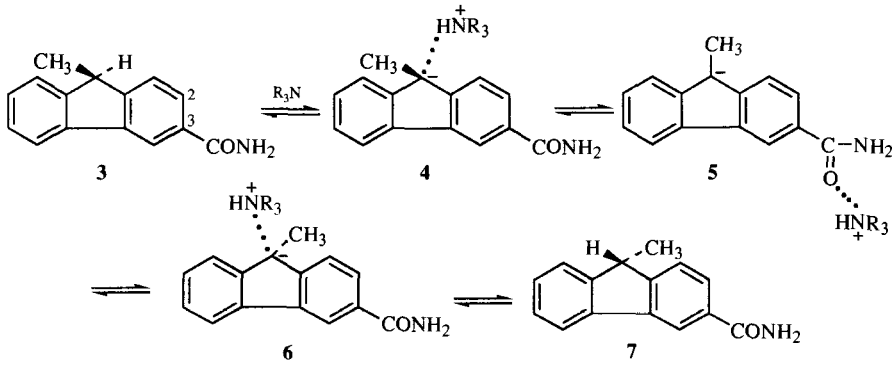
$$\text{R-H} + \text{B-D} \underset{}{\overset{B^-}{\rightleftharpoons}} \text{R-D} + \text{B-H} \qquad B^- = \text{base}$$

R = (e.g.) Ph—C(CN)—Et

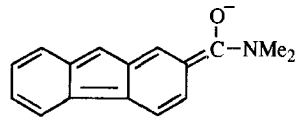
In this case, information was obtained from measurement of the ratio of k_c (rate constant for isotopic exchange) to k_a (rate constant for racemization). A k_e/k_a ratio substantially > 1 means retention of configuration, since many individual isotopic exchanges are not producing a change in configuration. A k_e/k_a ratio of ~ 1 indicates racemization and a ratio of $\frac{1}{2}$ corresponds to inversion (see p. 392). All three types of steric behavior were found, depending on R, the base, and the solvent. As with the alkoxide cleavage reaction, retention was generally found in solvents of low dielectric constant, racemization in polar aprotic solvents, and inversion in protic solvents. However, in the proton exchange reactions, a fourth type of behavior was encountered. In aprotic solvents, with aprotic bases like tertiary amines, the k_e/k_a ratio was found to be < 0.5, indicating that racemization took place *faster* than isotopic exchange (this process is known as *isoracemization*). Under these conditions, the conjugate acid of the amine remains associated with the carbanion as an ion pair. Occasionally, the ion pair dissociates long enough for the carbanion to turn over and recapture the proton:

Thus, inversion (and hence racemization, which is produced by repeated acts of inversion) occurs without exchange. A single act of inversion without exchange is called *isoinversion.*

The isoinversion process can take place by a pathway in which a positive species migrates in a stepwise fashion around a molecule from one nucleophilic position to another. For example, in the exchange reaction of 3-carboxamido-9-methylfluorene (3) with Pr_3N in r-BuOH, it has been proposed that the amine removes a proton from



the 9 position of 3 and conducts the proton out to the C=O oxygen (5), around the molecule, and back to C-9 on the opposite face of the anion. Collapse of 6 gives the inverted product 7. Of course, 5 could also go back to 3, but a molecule that undergoes the total process **3** → 4 → 5 → 6 → 7 has experienced an inversion without an exchange. Evidence for this pathway, called the *conducted tour mechanism,*[29] is that the 12-carboxamido isomer of 3 does not give isoracemization. In this case, the negative charge on the oxygen atom in the anion corresponding to 5 is less, because a canonical form in which oxygen acquires a full negative charge (8) results in disruption of the aromatic sextet in both benzene rings (cf. 9 where one



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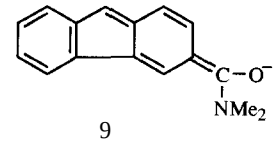

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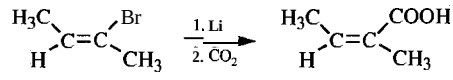
benzene ring is intact). Whether the isoracemization process takes place by the conducted tour mechanism or a simple nonstructured contact ion-pair mechanism depends on the nature of the substrate (e.g., a proper functional group is necessary for the conducted tour mechanism) and of the base.[30]

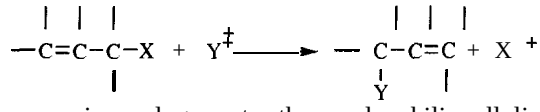
It is known that vinylic carbanions *can* maintain configuration, so that S_E1 mechanisms should produce retention there. This has been found to be the case. For example, *trans*-2-bromo-2-butene was converted to 64-74% angelic acid:[31]



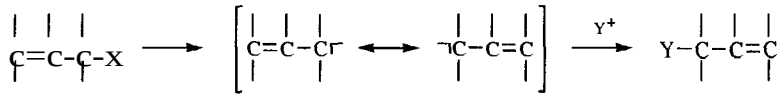
Only ~5% of the cis isomer, tiglic acid, was produced. In addition, certain carbanions in which the negative charge is stabilized by *d*-orbital overlap can maintain configuration (p. 233) and S_E1 reactions involving them proceed with retention of configuration.

Electrophilic Substitution Accompanied by Double-Bond Shifts

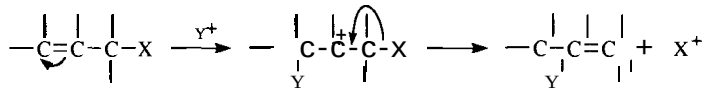
When electrophilic substitution is carried out at an allylic substrate, the product may be rearranged:



This type of process is analogous to the nucleophilic allylic rearrangements discussed in Chapter 10 (p. 420). There are two principal pathways. The first of these is analogous to the S_E1 mechanism in that the leaving group is first removed, giving a resonance-stabilized allylic carbanion, and then the electrophile attacks.

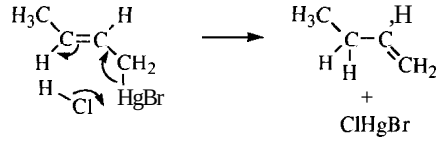


In the other pathway, the Y group first attacks, giving a carbocation, which then loses X.

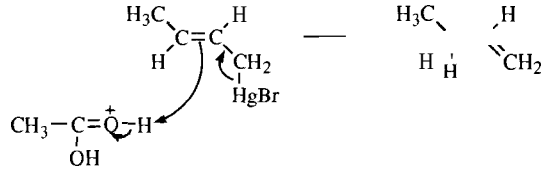


These mechanisms are more fully discussed under Reaction **12-2.**

Most electrophilic allylic rearrangements involve hydrogen as the leaving group, but they have also been observed with metallic leaving groups.[32] Sleezer et al.[33] found that crotylmercuric bromide reacted with HCl $\sim 10^7$ times faster than *n*-butylmercuric bromide and the product was > 99% 1-butene.[33] These facts point to an S_Ei' mechanism (IUPAC designation cyclo-$\frac{1}{3}/D_EA_ED_nA_n$):



The reaction of the same compound with acetic acid-perchloric acid seems to proceed by an S_E2' mechanism (IUPAC designation $\frac{1}{3}/D_EA_E$):[33]



The geometry of electrophilic allylic rearrangement has not been studied very much (cf. the nucleophilic case, p. 422), but in most cases the rearrangement takes place with anti stereoselectivity,[34] though syn stereoselectivity has also been demonstrated.[35] In one case, use of the electrophile H^+ and the leaving group $SnMe_3$ gave both syn and anti stereoselectivity, depending on whether the substrate was cis or trans.[36]

Other Mechanisms

Addition-elimination **(12-14)** and cyclic mechanisms **(12-38)** are also known.

Much less work has been done on electrophilic aliphatic substitution mechanisms than on nucleophilic substitutions, and the exact mechanisms of many of the reactions in this chapter are in doubt. For many of them, not enough work has been done to permit us to decide which of the mechanisms described in this chapter is operating, if indeed any is. There may be other electrophilic substitution mechanisms, and some of the reactions in this chapter may not even be electrophilic substitutions at all.

REACTIVITY

Only a small amount of work has been done in this area compared to the vast amount done for aliphatic nucleophilic substitution and aromatic electrophilic substitution. Only a few conclusions, most of them sketchy or tentative, can be drawn.[37]

1. *Effect of Substrate.* For S_E1 reactions electron-donating groups decrease rates and electron-withdrawing groups increase them. This result is as would be expected from a reaction in which the rate-determining step is analogous to the cleavage of a proton from an acid. For the S_E2 (back) mechanism, Jensen and Davis[11] showed that the reactivity of alkyl groups is similar to that for the S_N2 mechanism (i.e., Me > Et > Pr > /-Pr > neopentyl), as would be expected, since both involve backside attack and both are equally affected by steric hindrance. In fact, this pattern of reactivity can be regarded as evidence for the occurrence of the S_E2 (back) mechanism in cases where stereochemical investigation is not feasible.[38] For S_E2 reactions that proceed with retention, several studies have been made with varying results, depending on the reaction.[39] One such study, which examined the reaction RHgBr + Br_2 → RBr catalyzed by Br^-, gave the results shown in Table 12.1.[40] As can be seen, a branching increased the rates, while β branching decreased them. Sayre and Jensen[40] attributed the decreased rates to steric hindrance, though attack here was definitely frontside, and the increased rates to the electron-donating effect of the alkyl groups, which stabilized the electron-deficient transition state.[41] Of course, steric hindrance should also be present with the a branched groups, so these workers concluded that if it were not, the rates would be even greater. The Br electrophile is a rather large one and it is likely that smaller steric effects are present with smaller electrophiles. The rates of certain second-order substitutions of organotin compounds have been found to increase with increasing electron withdrawal by substituents. This behavior has been ascribed[42] to an S_E2 mechanism involving ion pairs, analogous to Sneen's ion-pair mechanism for nucleophilic substitution (p. 400). Solvolysis of 2-bromo-1,1,1-trifluoro-2-(*p*-methoxyphenyl)ethane in water proceeds via a free carbocation intermediate, but ion pairing influences the reaction in the presence of bromide ion.[43]

2. *Effect of Leaving Group.* For both S_E1 and second-order mechanisms, the more polar the C–X bond, the easier it is for the electrofuge to cleave. For

TABLE 12.1 Relative Rates of the Reaction of RHgBr with Br_2 and Br^-[a]

R	Relative Rate	R	Relative Rate
Me	1	Et	10.8
Et	10.8	*i*-Bu	1.24
i-Pr	780	Neopentyl	0.173
t-Bu	3370		

metallic leaving groups in which the metal has a valence > 1, the nature of the other group or groups attached to the metal thus has an effect on the reaction. For example, consider a series of organomercurials RHgY. Because a more electronegative Y decreases the polarity of the C—Hg bond and furthermore results in a less stable HgY^+, the electrofugal ability of HgY decreases with increasing electronegativity of Y Thus, HgR′ (from RHgR') is a better leaving group than HgCl (from RHgCl). Also in accord with this is the leaving-group order Hg-*t*-Bu > Hg-*i*-Pr > HgEt > HgMe, reported for acetolysis of R_2Hg,[41] since the more highly branched alkyl groups better help to spread the positive charge. It might be expected that, when metals are the leaving groups, S_E1 mechanisms would be favored, while with carbon leaving groups, second-order mechanisms would be found. However, the results so far reported have been just about the reverse of this. For carbon leaving groups, the mechanism is usually S_E1, while for metallic leaving groups the mechanism is almost always S_E2 or S_Ei. A number of reports of S_E1 reactions with metallic leaving groups have appeared,[44] but the mechanism is not easy to prove and many of these reports have been challenged.[45] Reutov and co-workers[44] expressed the view that in such reactions a nucleophile, which may be the solvent, must assist in the removal of the electrofuge and refer to such processes as $S_E1(N)$ reactions.

3. *Effect of Solvent.*[46] In addition to the solvent effects on certain S_E1 reactions, mentioned earlier (p. 764), solvents can influence the mechanism that is preferred. As with nucleophilic substitution (p. 448), an increase in solvent polarity increases the possibility of an ionizing mechanism, in this case S_E1, in comparison with the second-order mechanisms, which do not involve ions. As previously mentioned (p. 763), the solvent can also exert an influence between the S_E2 (front or back) and S_Ei mechanisms in that the rates of S_E2 mechanisms should be increased by an increase in solvent polarity, while S_Ei mechanisms are much less affected.

REACTIONS

The reactions in this chapter are arranged in order of leaving group: hydrogen, metals, halogen, and carbon. Electrophilic substitutions at a nitrogen atom are treated last.

Hydrogen as Leaving Group

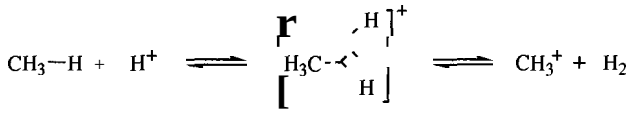
A. *Hydrogen as the Electrophile*

12-1 *Hydrogen Exchange*

DEUTERIO-DE-HYDROGENATION OR DEUTERIATION

$$R\text{-}H + D^+ \rightleftharpoons R\text{-}D + H^+$$

Hydrogen exchange can be accomplished by treatment with acids or bases. As with **11-1,** the exchange reaction is mostly used to study mechanistic questions such as relative acidities, but it can be used synthetically to prepare deuterated or tritiated molecules. When ordinary strong acids such as H_2SO_4 are used, only fairly acidic protons exchange (e.g., acetylenic and allylic). However, primary, secondary, and tertiary hydrogens of alkanes can be exchanged by treatment with superacids (p. 328).[47] The order of hydrogen reactivity is tertiary > secondary > primary. Where C—C bonds are present, they may be cleaved also **(12-45).** The mechanism of the exchange (illustrated for methane) has been formulated as involving attack of H^+ on the C—H bond to give the pentavalent methanonium ion which loses H_2 to give a



Methanonium ion

tervalent carbocation.[48] The methanonium ion CH_5^+ has a three-center, two-electron bond.[49] It is not known whether the methanonium ion is a transition state or a true intermediate, but an ion CH_5^+ has been detected in mass spectra.[50] The IR spectrum of the ethanonium ion $C_2H_7^+$ has been measured in the gas phase.[51] Note that the two electrons in the three-center, two-electron bond can move in three directions, in accord with the threefold symmetry of such a structure. The electrons can move to unite the two hydrogens, leaving the CH_3^+ free (the forward reaction), or they can unite the CH_3 with either of the two hydrogens, leaving the other hydrogen as a free H^+ ion (the reverse reaction). Actually, the methyl cation is not stable under these conditions. It can go back to CH4 by the route shown (leading to H^+ exchange) or it can react with additional CH4 molecules **(12-17)** to yield, eventually, the terr-butyl cation, which is stable in these superacid solutions. Hydride ion can also be removed from alkanes (producing tervalent carbocations) by treatment with pure SbF_5 in the absence of any source of H^+.[52] Complete or almost complete perdeuteriation of cyclic alkenes has been achieved by treatment with dilute DCl/D_2O in sealed Pyrex tubes at 165-280°C.[53]

Exchange with bases involves an S_E1 mechanism.

Step 1 $\quad RH + B^- \longrightarrow R^- + BH$

Step 2 $\quad R^- + BD \longrightarrow RD + B^-$

Of course, such exchange is most successful for relatively acidic protons, such as those α to a carbonyl group, but even weakly acidic protons can exchange with bases if the bases are strong enough (see p. 228).

Alkanes and cycloalkanes, of both low and high molecular weight, can be fully perdeuterated treatment with D_2 gas and a catalyst such as Rh, Pt, or Pd.[54]

OS VI, 432.

12-2 *Migration of Double Bonds*

3/HYDRO-DE-HYDROGENATION

$$C_5H_{11}-CH_2-CH=CH_2 \xrightarrow{KNH_2} C_5H_{11}-CH=CH-CH_3$$

The double bonds of many unsaturated compounds are shifted[55] on treatment with strong bases.[56] In many cases, equilibrium mixtures are obtained and the thermodynamically most stable isomer predominates.[57] Thus, if the new double bond can be in conjugation with one already present or with an aromatic ring, it goes that way.[58] If the choice is between an exocyclic and an endocyclic double bond (in a six-membered ring), it chooses the latter. In the absence of considerations like these, Zaitsev's rule (p. 1314) applies and the double bond goes to the carbon with the fewest hydrogens. All these considerations lead us to predict that terminal alkenes can be isomerized to internal ones, nonconjugated alkenes to conjugated, exo six-membered ring alkenes to endo, and so on, and not the other way around. This is indeed usually the case.

This reaction, for which the term *prototropic rearrangement* is sometimes used, is an example of electrophilic substitution with accompanying allylic rearrangement. The mechanism involves abstraction by the base to give a resonance-stabilized carbanion, which then combines with a proton at the position that will give the more stable alkene:[59]

Step 1 $R-CH_2-CH=CH_2 + B \longrightarrow \left[R-\bar{C}H-CH=CH_2 \longleftrightarrow R-CH=CH-\bar{C}H_2\right] + BH^+$

Step 2 $\left[R-\bar{C}H-CH=CH_2 \longleftrightarrow R-CH=\bar{C}H-\bar{C}H_2\right] \xrightarrow{BH^+} R-CH=CH-CH_3 + B$

This mechanism is exactly analogous to the allylic rearrangement mechanism for nucleophilic substitution (p. 421). The UV spectra of allylbenzene and 1-propenylbenzene in solutions containing NH_2^- are identical, which shows that the same carbanion is present in both cases, as required by this mechanism.[60] The acid BH^+ protonates the position that will give the more stable product, though the ratio of the two possible products can vary with the identity of BH^+.[61] It has been shown that base-catalyzed double-bond shifts are partially intramolecular, at least in some cases.[62] The intramolecularity has been ascribed to a conducted tour mechanism (p. 766) in which the base leads the proton from one carbanionic site to the other:[63]

$$RCH_2CH=CH_2 + B \rightleftharpoons R-\underset{\displaystyle CH}{\overset{\displaystyle H\text{-}B}{CH}}\!\!\diagup\!\!\diagdown CH_2 \rightleftharpoons R-\underset{\displaystyle CH}{\overset{\displaystyle H\text{-}B}{CH}}\!\!\diagup\!\!\diagdown CH_2 \rightleftharpoons RCH=CHCH_3 + B$$

Triple bonds can also migrate in the presence of bases,[64] but through the allene intermediate:[65]

$$R-CH_2-C\equiv CH \rightleftharpoons R-CH=C=CH_2 \rightleftharpoons R-C\equiv C-CH_3$$

In general, strong bases such as $NaNH_2$ convert internal alkynes to terminal alkynes [a particularly good base for this purpose is potassium 3-aminopropylamide ($NH_2CH_2CH_2CH_2NHK$)[66]], because the equilibrium is shifted by formation of the

acetylid ion; with weaker bases such as NaOH, which are not strong enough to remove the acetylenic proton, the internal alkynes are favored because of their greater thermodynamic stability. In some cases the reaction can be stopped at the allene stage. The reaction then becomes a method for the preparation of allenes.[67] The reaction of propargylic alcohols with tosylhydrazine, PPh_3, and diethyl azodicarboxylate (DEAD) also generates allenes.[68]

Double-bond rearrangements can also take place on treatment with acids. Both proton and Lewis[69] acids can be used. The mechanism in the case of proton acids is the reverse of the previous one; first, a proton is gained, giving a carbocation, and then another is lost:

Step 1 $CH_3-CH_2-CH=CH_2 + H^+ \longrightarrow CH_3-CH_2-\overset{+}{C}H-CH_3$

Step 2 $CH3-CH2-\overset{+}{C}H-CH3 \longrightarrow CH_3-CH=CH-CH_3 + H^+$

As in the case of the base-catalyzed reaction, the thermodynamically most stable alkene is the one predominantly formed. However, the acid-catalyzed reaction is much less synthetically useful because carbocations give rise to many side products. If the substrate has several possible locations for a double bond, mixtures of all possible isomers are usually obtained. Isomerization of 1-decene, for example, gives a mixture that contains not only 1-decene and *cis*- and *trans*-2-decene but also the cis and trans isomers of 3-, 4-, and 5-decene as well as branched alkenes resulting from rearrangement of carbocations. It is true that the most stable alkenes predominate, but many of them have stabilities that are close together. Acid-catalyzed migration of triple bonds (with allene intermediates) can be accomplished if very strong acids (e.g., $HF-PF_5$) are used.[70] If the mechanism is the same as that for double bonds, vinyl cations are intermediates.

Double-bond isomerization can also take place in other ways. Nucleophilic allylic rearrangements were discussed in Chapter 10 (p. 421). Electrocyclic and sigmatropic rearrangements are treated at **18-27-18-35.** Double-bond migrations have also been accomplished photochemically,[71] and by means of metallic ion (most often complex ions containing Pt, Rh, or Ru) or metal carbonyl catalysts.[72] In the latter case there are at least two possible mechanisms. One of these, which requires external hydrogen, is called the *metal hydride addition–elimination mechanism:*

$$RCH_2CH=CH_2 \overset{MH}{\rightleftharpoons} RCH_2\overset{M}{\underset{|}{C}}HCH_3 \overset{-MH}{\rightleftharpoons} RCH=CHCH_3$$

The other mechanism, called the *π-allyl complex mechanism,* does not require external hydrogen:

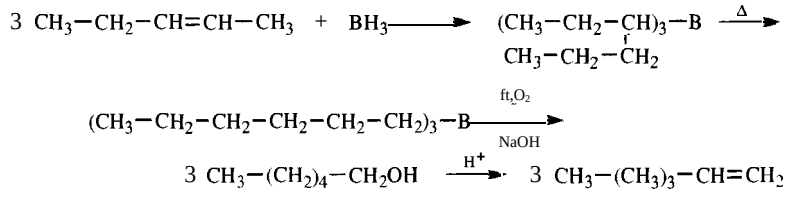
$$RCH_2CH=CH_2 \overset{M}{\rightleftharpoons} RCH_2\overset{M}{\underset{\bullet}{C}}H=CH_2 \rightleftharpoons R-\overset{M}{\underset{\diagdown\ \diagup}{CH}}-CH_2 \longrightarrow$$

$$RCH=CHCH_3 \overset{-M}{\rightleftharpoons} RCH=CHCH_3$$

Another difference between the two mechanisms is that the former involves 1,2 and the latter 1,3 shifts. The isomerization of 1-butene by rhodium(I) is an example of a reaction that takes place by the metal hydride mechanism,[73] while an example of the π-allyl complex mechanism is found in the $Fe_3(CO)_{12}$ catalyzed isomerization of 3-ethyl-1-pentene.[74] A palladium acetate or palladium complex catalyst was used to convert alkynones $RCOC{\equiv}CCH_2CH_2R'$ to 2,4-alkadien-1-ones $RCOCH{=}CHCH{=}CHCHR'$.[75]

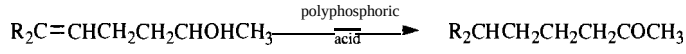
The metal catalysis method has been used for the preparation of simple enols, for example, by isomerization of allylic alcohols.[76] These enols are stable enough for isolation (see p. 75), but slowly tautomerize to the aldehyde or ketone, with half-lives ranging from 40–50 min to several days.[76]

No matter which of the electrophilic methods of double-bond shifting is employed, the thermodynamically most stable alkene is usually formed in the largest amount in most cases, though a few anomalies are known. However, there is another, indirect, method of double-bond isomerization, by means of which migration in the other direction can often be carried out. This involves conversion of the alkene to a borane **(15-16),** rearrangement of the borane **(18-11),** oxidation and hydrolysis of the newly formed borane to the alcohol **(12-28),** and dehydration of the alcohol (17-1):



Since the migration reaction is always toward the end of a chain, terminal alkenes can be produced from internal ones, so the migration is often opposite to that with the other methods. Alternatively, the rearranged borane can be converted directly to the alkene by heating with an alkene of molecular weight higher than that of the product **(17-14).** Photochemical isomerization can also lead to the thermodynamically less stable isomer.[77]

If a hydroxy group is present in the chain, *it* may lose a proton, so that a ketone is the product, for example,[78]



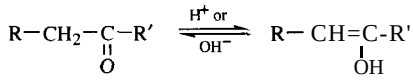
Similarly, α-hydroxy triple-bond compounds have given α,β-unsaturated ketones.[79]

See **15-1** for related reactions in which double bonds migrate or isomerize.

OS **II,** 140; **III,** 207; **IV,** 189, 192, 195, 234, 398, 683; **VI,** 68, 87, 815, 925; **VII,** 249; **VIII,** 146, 196, 251, 396, 553; **76,** 178, 199.

12-3 *Keto–Enol Tautomerization*

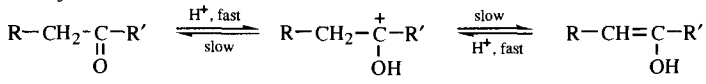
3/O-HYDRO-DE-HYDROGENATION



The tautomeric equilibrium between enols and ketones or aldehydes is not normally a preparative reaction, though for some ketones both forms can be prepared (see p. 75 for a discussion of this and other aspects of tautomerism). For most ketones and aldehydes only the keto form is detectable under ordinary conditions, though the equilibrium must occur, since aldehydes and ketones often react through their enol forms.

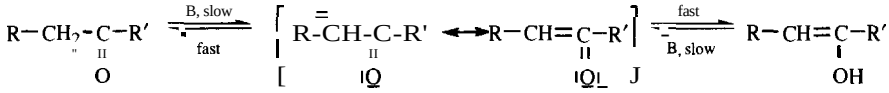
Neither the forward nor the reverse reaction can take place without at least a trace of acid or base,[80] ruling out a direct shift of a hydrogen from carbon to oxygen or vice versa. The mechanisms are identical to those in 12-2.[81]

Acid-catalyzed



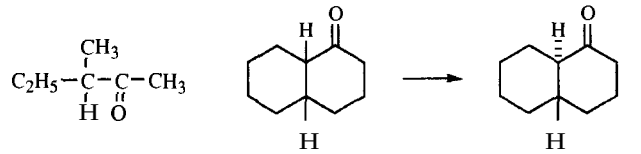
[82]

Base-catalyzed



For each catalyst, the mechanism for one direction is the exact reverse of the other, by the principle of microscopic reversibility.[83] As expected from mechanisms in which the C—H bond is broken in the rate-determining step, substrates of the type RCD_2COR show deuterium isotope effects (of ~ 5) in both the basic-[84] and the acid[85]-catalyzed processes.

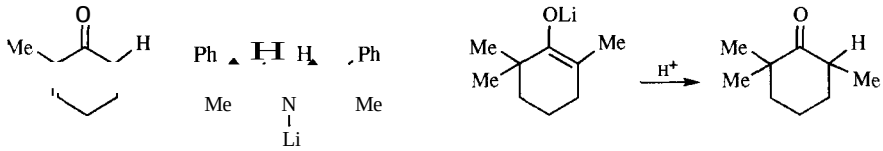
Although the conversion of an aldehyde or a ketone to its enol tautomer is not generally a preparative procedure, the reactions do have their preparative aspects. If a full mole of base per mole of ketone is used, the enolate ion (10) is formed and can be isolated[86] (see, e.g., **10-105**).[87] When enol ethers or esters are hydrolyzed, the enols initially formed immediately tautomerize to the aldehydes or ketones. In addition, the overall processes (forward plus reverse reactions) are often used for equilibration purposes. When an optically active compound in which the chirality is due to an asymmetric carbon α to a carbonyl group (as in 11) is treated with acid or base, racemization results.[88] If there is another asymmetric center in the molecule,



11 *cis*-Decalone *trans*-Decalone

the less stable epimer can be converted to the more stable one in this manner, and this is often done. For example, *cis*-decalone can be equilibrated to the trans isomer. Isotopic exchange can also be accomplished at the a position of an aldehyde or ketone in a similar manner. The role of additives such as $ZnCl_2$ on the asymmetric enolization reactions using chiral cases has been discussed.[89] For the acid-catalyzed

process, exchange or equilibration is accomplished only if the carbonyl compound is completely converted to the enol and then back, but in the base-catalyzed process exchange or equilibration can take place if only the first step (conversion to the enolate ion) takes place. The difference is usually academic. In cyclic compounds, cis- to trans- isomerization can occur via the enol.[90]



Racemic — Optically active

12 13 14 12

In the case of the ketone (12), a racemic mixture was converted to an optically active mixture (optical yield 46%) by treatment with the chiral base (**13**).[91] This happened because 13 reacted with one enantiomer of **12** faster than with the other (an example of kinetic resolution). The enolate (14) must remain coordinated with the chiral amine, and it is the amine that reprotonates **14,** not an added proton donor.

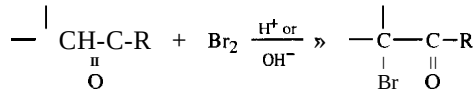
Enolizable hydrogens can be replaced by deuterium (and ^{16}O by ^{18}O) by passage of a sample through a deuterated (or ^{18}O containing) gas chromatography column.[92]

There are many enol–keto interconversions and acidifications of enolate ions to the keto forms listed in *Organic Syntheses.* No attempt is made to list them here.

B. *Halogen Electrophiles*

12-4 *Halogenation of Aldehydes and Ketones*

HALOGENATION OR HALO-DE-HYDROGENATION



Aldehydes and ketones can be halogenated in the a position with bromine, chlorine, or iodine.[93] The reaction is not successful with fluorine.[94] l-Fluoro-4-hydroxy-l,4-diazoniabicyclo[2.2.2]octane bistetrafluoroborate has been used for the monofluorination of ketones,[95] as has a mixture of $KI–KIO_3–H_2SO_4$.[96] Active compounds, such as β-keto esters and P-diketones, have been fluorinated with an N-fluoro-N-alkylsulfonamide[97] (this can result in enantioselective fluorination, if an optically active N-fluorosulfonamide is used[98]), with F_2/N_2—HCOOH.[99] and with acetyl hypofluorite.[100] The last reagent also fluorinates simple ketones in the form of their lithium enolates.[101] Silyl enol ethers can also be fluorinated, with XeF_2[102] or with 5% F_2 in N_2 at -78°C in $FCCl_3$.[103] Electrochemical fluorination has also been reported.[104] Sulfuryl chloride,[105] $NaClO_2/Mn(acac)_3$,[106] $Me_3SiCl–Me_2SO$,[107] $Me_3SiCl–MnO_2$,[108] $TiCl_3$,[109] and cupric chloride[110] have been used as reagents for chlorination, and NBS (see 14-2), *t*-BuBr—Me_2SO,[111] $Me_3SiBr–Me_2SO$,[112] and

tetrabutylammonium tribromide,[113] for bromination. Iodination has been accomplished with I_2—$HgCl_2$[114] and with I_2— cerium(IV) ammonium nitrate.[115]

For unsymmetrical ketones the preferred position of halogenation is usually a CH group, then a CH_2 group, and then CH_3;[116] however, mixtures are frequent. With aldehydes the aldehydic hydrogen is sometimes replaced (see 14-3). It is also possible to prepare di- and polyhalides. When basic catalysts are used, one a position of a ketone is completely halogenated before the other is attacked, and the reaction cannot be stopped until all the hydrogens of the first carbon have been replaced (see below). If one of the groups is methyl, the haloform reaction (12-42) takes place. With acid catalysts, it is easy to stop the reaction after only one halogen has entered, though a second halogen can be introduced by the use of excess reagent. In chlorination, the second halogen generally appears on the same side as the first,"[7] while in bromination the α,α′-dibromo product is found.[118] Actually, with both halogens it is the α,α-dihalo ketone that is formed first, but in the case of bromination this compound isomerizes under the reaction conditions to the α,α′ isomer.[117] Aryl methyl ketones can be dibrominated ($ArCOCH_3 \rightarrow ArCOCHBr_2$) in high yields with benzyltrimethylammonium tribromide.[119]

It is not the aldehyde or ketone itself that is halogenated, but the corresponding enol or enolate ion. The purpose of the catalyst is to provide a small amount of enol or enolate. The reaction is often done without addition of acid or base, but traces of acid or base are always present, and these are enough to catalyze formation of the enol or enolate. With acid catalysis the mechanism is

Step 1
$$R_2CH-\underset{\underset{O}{\|}}{C}-R' \xrightarrow[\text{slow}]{H^+} R_2C=\underset{\underset{OH}{|}}{C}-R'$$

Step 2
$$R_2C=\underset{\underset{OH}{|}}{C}-R' + Br-Br \longrightarrow R_2C-\overset{+}{\underset{\underset{Br\ OH}{|}}{C}}-R' + Br^-$$

Step 3
$$R_2C-\overset{+}{\underset{\underset{Br\ OH}{|}}{C}}-R' \longrightarrow R_2C-\underset{\underset{Br\ O}{|\ \|}}{C}-R'$$

The first step, as we have already seen (12-3), actually consists of two steps. The second step is very similar to the first step in electrophilic addition to double bonds (p. 970). There is a great deal of evidence for this mechanism: (1) the rate is first order in substrate; (2) bromine does not appear in the rate expression at all,[120] a fact consistent with a rate-determining first step;[121] (3) the reaction rate is the same for bromination, chlorination, and iodination under the same conditions;[122] (4) the reaction shows an isotope effect; and (5) the rate of the step 2–step 3 sequence has been independently measured (by starting with the enol) and found to be very fast.[123]

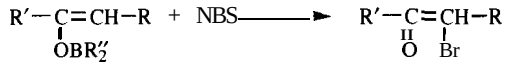
With basic catalysts the mechanism may be the same as that given above (since bases also catalyze formation of the enol), or the reaction may go directly through the enolate ion without formation of the enol:

Step 1
$$R_2CH-\underset{\underset{O}{\|}}{C}-R' \xrightarrow{OH^-} R_2C=\underset{\underset{O^-}{|}}{C}-R'$$

Step 2
$$R_2C=\underset{\underset{O^-}{|}}{C}-R' + Br-Br \longrightarrow R_2C-\underset{\underset{Br\ O}{|\ \|}}{C}-R' + Br^-$$

It is difficult to distinguish the two possibilities. It was mentioned above that in the base-catalyzed reaction, if the substrate has two or three a halogens on the same side of the C=O group, it is not possible to stop the reaction after just one halogen atom has entered. The reason is that the electron-withdrawing field effect of the first halogen increases the acidity of the remaining hydrogens, that is, a CHX group is more acidic than a CH_2 group, so that initially formed halo ketone is converted to enolate ion (and hence halogenated) more rapidly than the original substrate.

Regioselectivity in the halogenation of unsymmetrical ketones can be attained by treatment of the appropriate enol borinate of the ketone with NBS or NCS.[124] The desired halo ketone is formed in high yield. Another method for achieving the

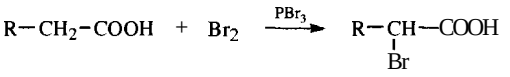


same result involves bromination of the appropriate lithium enolate at a low temperature (see p. 554 for the regioselective formation of enolate ions).[125] In a similar process, α-halo aldehydes have been prepared in good yield by treatment of silyl enol ethers $R_2C{=}CHOSiMe_3$ with Br_2 or Cl_2,[126] with sulfuryl chloride (SO_2Cl_2);[127] or with I_2 and silver acetate.[128] Enol acetates have been regioselectively iodinated with I_2 and either thallium(I) acetate[129] or copper(II) acetate.[130] α,β-Unsaturated ketones can be converted to α-halo-α,β-unsaturated ketones by treatment with phenylselenium bromide or chloride,[131] and to α-halo-β,γ-unsaturated ketones by two-phase treatment with HOCl.[132]

OS **I,** 127; **II,** 87, 88, 244, 480; **III,** 188, 343, 538; **IV,** 110, 162, 590; V, 514; **VI,** 175, 193, 368, 401, 512, 520, 711, 991; **VII,** 271; **VIII,** 286. See also OS **VI,** 1033; **VIII,** 192.

12-5 *Halogenation of Carboxylic Acids and Acyl Halides*

HALOGENATION OR HALO-DE-HYDROGENATION



The α hydrogens of carboxylic acids can be replaced by bromine or chlorine with a phosphorus halide as catalyst.[133] The reaction, known as the *Hell–Volhard–Zelinskii reaction,* is not applicable to iodine or fluorine. When there are two α hydrogens, one or both may be replaced, though it is often hard to stop with just one. The reaction actually takes place on the acyl halide formed from the carboxylic acid and the catalyst. The acids alone are inactive, except for those with relatively high enol content, such as malonic acid. Less than one full mole of catalyst (per mole of substrate) is required, because of the exchange reaction between carboxylic acids and acyl halides (see **10-77).** Each molecule of acid is α halogenated while it is in the acyl halide stage. The halogen from the catalyst does not enter the α position. For example, the use of Cl_2 and PBr_3 results in α chlorination, not bromination. As expected from the foregoing, acyl halides undergo a halogenation without a catalyst.

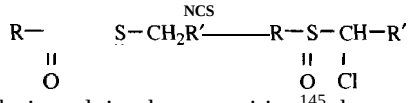
So do anhydrides and many compounds that enolize easily (e.g., malonic ester and aliphatic nitro compounds). The mechanism is usually regarded as proceeding through the enol as in **12-4**.[134] If chlorosulfuric acid ($ClSO_2OH$) is used as a catalyst, carboxylic acids can be a-iodinated,[135] as well as chlorinated or brominated.[136] *N*-Bromosuccinimide in a mixture of sulfuric acid–trifluoroacetic acid can monobrominate simple carboxylic acids.[137]

A number of other methods exist for the a halogenation of carboxylic acids or their derivatives.[138] Acyl halides can be a brominated or chlorinated by use of NBS or NCS and HBr or HC1.[139] The latter is an ionic, not a free-radical halogenation (see 14-2). Direct iodination of carboxylic acids has been achieved with I_2—Cu^{II} acetate in HOAc.[140] Acyl chlorides can be a iodinated with I_2 and a trace of HI.[141] Carboxylic esters can be a halogenated by conversion to their enolate ions with lithium *N*-isopropylcyclohexylamide in THF and treatment of this solution at $-78°C$ with I_2[141] or with a carbon tetrahalide.[142] Carboxylic acids, esters, and amides have been α-fluorinated at $-78°C$ with F_2 diluted in N_2.[143] Amides have been a-iodinated using iodine and *s*-collidine.[144]

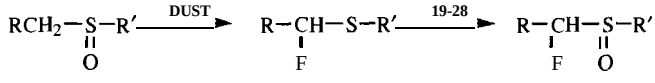
OS I, 115, 245; **II,** 74, 93; **III,** 347, 381, 495, 523, 623, 705, 848; IV, 254, 348, 398, 608, 616; V, 255; VI, 90, 190, 403; IX, 526. Also see OS IV, 877; VI, 427.

12-6 *Halogenation of Sulfoxides and Sulfones*

HALOGENATION OR HALO-DE-HYDROGENATION



Sulfoxides can be chlorinated in the a position[145] by treatment with Cl_2[146] or NCS,[147] in the presence of pyridine. These methods involve basic conditions. The reaction can also be accomplished in the absence of base with SO_2Cl_2 in CH_2Cl_2,[148] or with $TsNCl_2$.[149] The bromination of sulfoxides with bromine[150] and with NBS-bromine[151] have also been reported. Sulfones have been chlorinated by treatment of their conjugate bases RSO_2C^-HR' with various reagents, among them SO_2Cl_2, CCl_4,[152] NCS,[153] and hexachloroethane.[154] The α-fluorination of sulfoxides has been accomplished in a two-step procedure. Treatment with DAST produces an

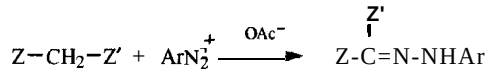


α-fluoro thioether, usually in high yield. Oxidation of this compound with *m*-chloroperoxybenzoic acid gives the sulfoxide.[155]

C. *Nitrogen Electrophiles*

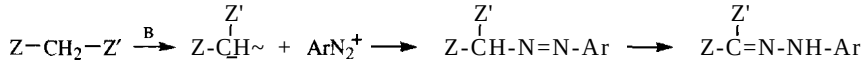
12-7 *Aliphatic Diazonium Coupling*

ARYLHYDRAZONO-DE-DIHYDRO-BISUBSTITUTION



If a C—H bond is acidic enough, it couples with diazonium salts in the presence of a base, most often aqueous sodium acetate.[156] The reaction is commonly carried out on compounds of the form $Z{-}CH_2{-}Z'$, where Z and Z' are as defined on pages 548, e.g., P-keto esters, β-keto amides, malonic ester.

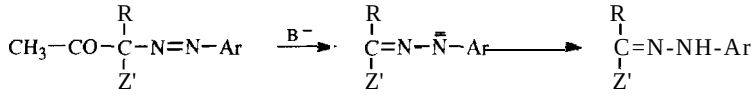
The mechanism is probably of the simple S_E1 type:



15

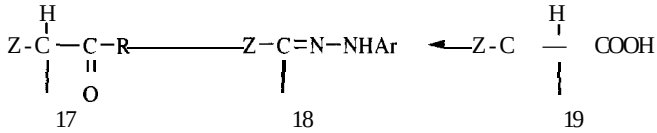
Aliphatic azo compounds in which the carbon containing the azo group is attached to a hydrogen are unstable and tautomerize to the isomeric hydrazones (**15**), which are therefore the products of the reaction.

When the reaction is carried out on a compound of the form $Z{-}CHR{-}Z'$, so that the azo compound does not have a tautomerizable hydrogen, if at least one Z is acyl or carboxyl, this group usually cleaves:



16

so the product in this case is also the hydrazone, and not the azo compound. In fact, compounds of the type 16 are seldom isolable from the reaction, though this has been accomplished.[157] The cleavage step shown is an example of **12-41** and, when a carboxyl group cleaves, of **12-38.** The overall process in this case is called the *Japp-Klingemann reaction*[158] and involves conversion of a ketone (17) or a carboxylic



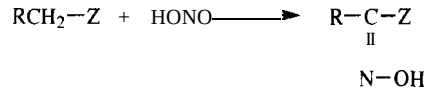
17 18 19

acid (18) to a hydrazone (19). When an acyl and a carboxyl group are both present, the leaving group order has been reported to be MeCO > COOH > PhCO.[159] When there is no acyl or carboxyl group present, the aliphatic azo compound is stable.

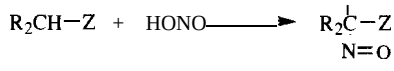
OS **III,** 660; IV, 633.

12-8 *Nitrosation at a Carbon Bearing an Active Hydrogen*

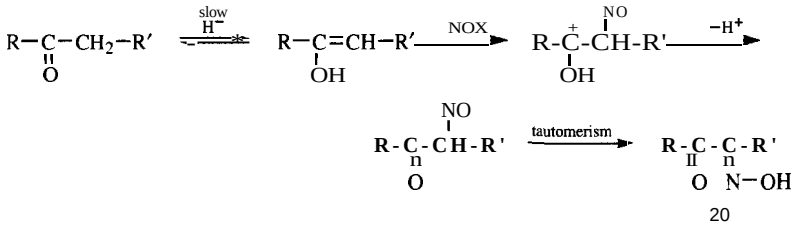
HYDROXYIMINO-DE-DIHYDRO-BISUBSTITUTION



NITROSATION OR NITROSO-DE-HYDROGENATION



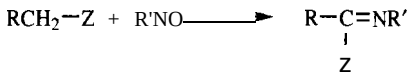
Carbons adjacent to a Z group (as defined on p. 548) can be nitrosated with nitrous acid or alkyl nitrites.[160] The initial product is the C-nitroso compound, but these are stable only when there is no tautomerizable hydrogen. When there is, the product is the more stable oxime. The situation is analogous to that with azo compounds and hydrazones (12-7). The mechanism is similar to that in **12-7**:[161] $R{-}H \rightarrow R'' + {}^{+}N{=}O \rightarrow R{-}N{=}O$. The attacking species is either NO^+ or a carrier of it. When the substrate is a simple ketone, the mechanism goes through the enol (as in halogenation **12-4):**



Evidence is that the reaction, in the presence of X~ (Br~, Cl~, or SCN~) was first order in ketone and in H^+, but zero order in HNO_2 and X^-.[162] Furthermore, the rate of the nitrosation was about the same as that for enolization of the same ketones. The species NOX is formed by HONO + X" + $H^+ \rightarrow$ HOX + H_2O. In the cases of $F_3CCOCH_2COCF_3$ and malononitrile, the nitrosation went entirely through the enolate ion rather than the enol.[163]

As in the Japp–Klingemann reaction, when Z is an acyl or carboxyl group (in the case of $R_2CH{-}Z$), it can be cleaved. Since oximes and nitroso compounds can be reduced to primary amines, this reaction often provides a route to amino acids. As in the case of **12-4,** the silyl enol ether of a ketone can be used instead of the ketone itself.[164] Good yields of α-oximinoketones (20) can be obtained by treating ketones with *tert*-butyl thionitrate.[165]

Imines can be prepared in a similar manner by treatment of an active hydrogen compound with a nitroso compound:

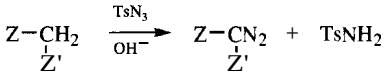


Alkanes can be nitrosated photochemically, by treatment with NOCl and UV light.[166] For nitration at an activated carbon, see **14-12.**

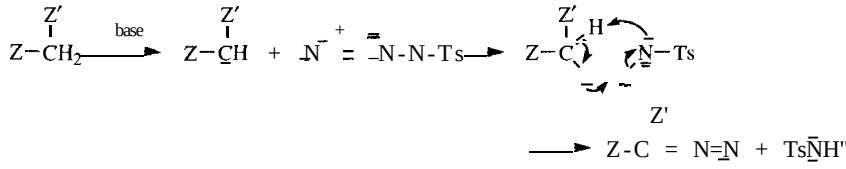
OS **II,** 202, 204, 223, 363; **III,** 191, 513; **V,** 32, 373; **VI,** 199, 840. Also see OS V, 650.

12-9 *Direct Formation of Diazo Compounds*

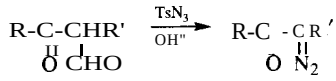
DIAZO-DE-DIHYDRO-BISUBSTITUTION



Compounds containing a CH_2 bonded to two Z groups (as defined on p. 548) can be converted to diazo compounds on treatment with tosyl azide in the presence of a base.[167] The use of phase-transfer catalysis increases the convenience of the method.[168] *p*-Dodecylbenzenesulfonyl azide,[169] methanesulfonyl azide,[170] and *p*-acetamidobenzenesulfonyl azide[171] also give the reaction. The reaction, which is called the *diazo transfer reaction,* can also be applied to other reactive positions, for example, the 5 position of cyclopentadiene.[172] The mechanism is probably as follows:



A diazo group can be introduced adjacent to a single carbonyl group indirectly by first converting the ketone to an α-formyl ketone **(10-118),** and then treating it with tosyl azide. As in the similar cases of **12-7** and **12-8,** the formyl group is cleaved

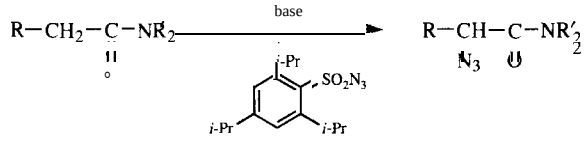


during the reaction.[173]

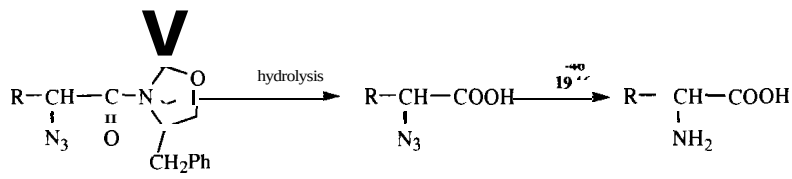
OS V, 179; VI, 389, 414.

12-10 *Conversion of Amides to* α-Azido Amides

AZIDATION OR AZIDO-DE-HYDROGENATION

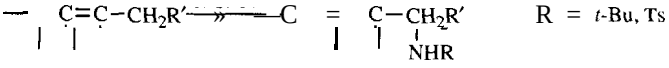


In Reaction **12-9** treatment of $Z{-}CH_2{-}Z'$ with tosyl azide gives diazo transfer. When this reaction is performed on a compound with a single Z group, formation of the azide becomes a competing process.[174] Factors favoring azide formation rather than diazo transfer include K^+ as the enolate counterion rather than Na^+ or Li^+ and the use of 2,4,6-triisopropylbenzenesulfonyl azide rather than TsN_3. When the reaction was applied to amides with a chiral R', it was highly stereoselective, and the product could be converted to an optically active amino acid.[174]

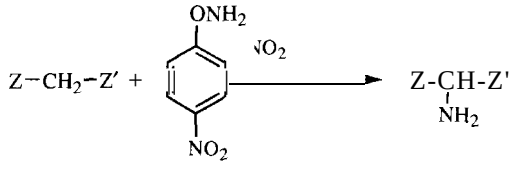


12-11 *Direct Amination at an Activated Position*

ALKYAMINO-DE-HYDROGENATION, AND SO ON



Alkenes can be aminated[175] in the allylic position by treatment with solutions of imido selenium compounds R–N=Se=N–R.[176] The reaction, which is similar to the allylic oxidation of alkenes with SeO_2 (see **14-4),** has been performed with R = *t*-Bu and R = Ts. The imido sulfur compound TsN=S=NTs has also been used[177] as well as PhNHOH–$FeCl_2$/$FeCl_3$.[178] Benzylic positions can be aminated with *t*-BuOOCONHTs in the presence of a catalytic amount of $Cu(OTf)_2$.[179] In another reaction, compounds containing an active hydrogen can be converted to primary amines in moderate yields by treatment with *O*-(2,4-dinitrophenyl)hydroxylamine.[180]

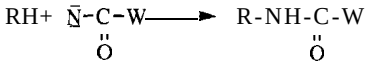


In an indirect amination process, acyl halides are converted to amino acids.[181] Reaction of the acyl halide with a chiral oxazolidinone leads to a chiral amide, which reacts with the N=N unit of a dialkyl azodicarboxylate [$R''O_2C–N=N–CO_2R'$]. Hydrolysis and catalytic hydrogenation leads to an amino acid with good enantioselectivity.[179]

See also **10-53.**

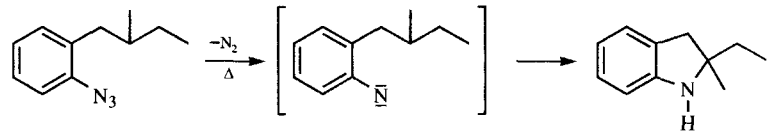
12-12 *Insertion by Nitrenes*

CH-[ACYLIMINO]-INSERTION, AND SO ON



Carbonylnitrenes NCOW (W = R', Ar, or OR') are very reactive species (p. 253) and insert into the C–H bonds of alkanes to give amides (W = R' or Ar) or carbamates (W = OR').[182] The nitrenes are generated as discussed on page 253. The order of reactivity among alkane C–H bonds is tertiary > secondary > primary.[183] Indications are that in general it is only singlet and not triplet nitrenes that insert.[184] Retention of configuration is found at a chiral carbon.[185] The mechanism is presumably similar to the simple one-step mechanism for insertion of carbenes **(12-19).** Other nitrenes (e.g., cyanonitrene, NCN,[186] and arylnitrenes, NAr[187]) can also insert into C–H bonds, but alkylnitrenes usually undergo rearrangement before they can react with the alkane. The insertion reactions are not generally useful synthetically, since they usually lead to mixtures of products, but exceptions are known,[188] chiefly

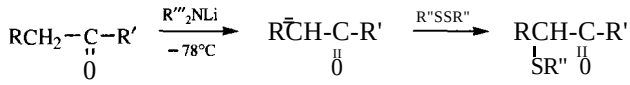
in cyclizations.[189] For example, heating of 2-(2-methylbutyl)phenyl azide gave ~ 60% 2-ethyl-2-methylindoline.[185]



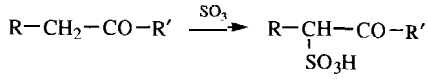
D. *Sulfur Electrophiles*

12-13 *Sulfenylation, Sulfonation, and Selenylation of Ketones and Carboxylic Esters*

ALKYLTHIO-DE-HYDROGENATION, AND SO ON



SULFONATION OR SULFO-DE-HYDROGENATION



Ketones, carboxylic esters (including lactones),[190] and amides (including lactams)[191] can be sulfenylated in the α position by conversion to the enolate ion with a base such as lithium *N*-isopropylcyclohexylamide and treatment of this with a disulfide.[192] The reaction, shown above for ketones, involves nucleophilic substitution at sulfur. Analogously, α-phenylseleno ketones, RCH(SePh)COR,′ and α-phenylseleno esters, RCH(SePh)COOR′, can be prepared[193] by treatment of the corresponding enolates with PhSeBr,[194] PhSeSePh,[195] or benzeneseleninic anhydride, PhSe(O)OSe(O)Ph.[196] Another method for the introduction of a phenylseleno group into the a position of a ketone involves simple treatment of an ethyl acetate solution of the ketone with PhSeCl (but not PhSeBr) at room temperature.[197] This procedure is also successful for aldehydes but not for carboxylic esters. *N*-Phenylselenophthalimide has been used to convert ketones to the a- PhSe derivative.[198] In another method that avoids the use of PhSeX reagents, aketone enolate is treated with selenium to give an R′COCHRSe$^-$ ion, which is treated with MeI, producing the α-methylseleno ketone R′COCHRSeMe.[199] This method has also been applied to carboxylic esters.

The α-seleno and α-sulfenyl carbonyl compounds prepared by this reaction can be converted to α,β-unsaturated carbonyl compounds (17-11). The sulfenylation reaction has also been used[200] as a key step in a sequence for moving the position of a carbonyl group to an adjacent carbon.[201]

O O OH

OS VI, 23, 109; 688.

Aldehydes, ketones, and carboxylic acids containing α hydrogens can be sulfonated with sulfur trioxide.[202] The mechanism is presumably similar to that of **12-4.** Sulfonation has also been accomplished at vinylic hydrogen.

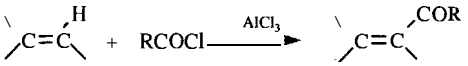
OS **VI,** 23, 109; **VIII,** 550. **OS IV,** 846, 862.

E. *Carbon Electrophiles*

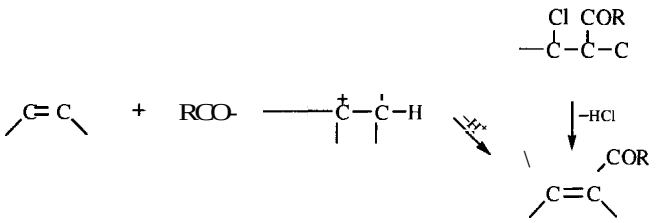
With respect to the attacking molecule, these are nucleophilic substitutions.

12-14 *Acylation at an Aliphatic Carbon*

ACYLATION OR ACYL-DE-HYDROGENATION



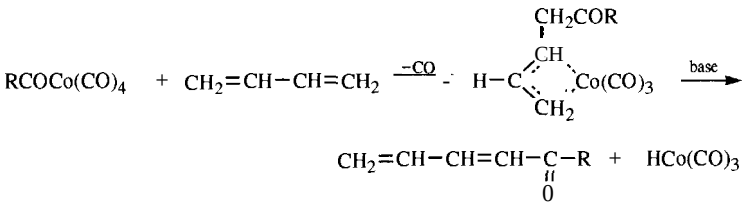
Alkenes can be acylated with an acyl halide and a Lewis acid catalyst in what is essentially a Friedel-Crafts reaction at an aliphatic carbon.[203] The product can arise by two paths. The initial attack is by the acyl cation RCO^+ (or by the acyl halide free or complexed; see **11-14)** at the double bond to give a carbocation:



Ion 21 can either lose a proton or combine with chloride ion. If it loses a proton, the product is an unsaturated ketone; the mechanism is similar to the tetrahedral mechanism of Chapter 10, but with the charges reversed. If it combines with chloride, the product is a P-halo ketone, which can be isolated, so that the result is addition to the double bond (see **15-45).** On the other hand, the P-halo ketone may, under the conditions of the reaction, lose HC1 to give the unsaturated ketone, this time by an addition-elimination mechanism. In the case of unsymmetrical alkenes, the attacking ion prefers the position at which there are more hydrogens, following Markovnikov's rule (p. 984). Anhydrides and carboxylic acids (the latter with a proton acid such as anhydrous HF, H_2SO_4, or polyphosphoric acid as a catalyst) are sometimes used instead of acyl halides. With some substrates and catalysts double-bond migrations are occasionally encountered so that, for example, when 1-methylcyclohexene was acylated with acetic anhydride and zinc chloride, the major product was 6-acetyl-1-methylcyclohexene.[204]

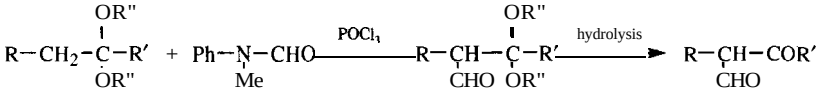
Conjugated dienes can be acylated by treatment with acyl- or alkylcobalt tetracarbonyls, followed by base-catalyzed cleavage of the resulting π-allyl carbonyl derivatives.[205] The reaction is very general. With unsymmetrical dienes, the acyl

group generally substitutes most readily at a cis double bond, next at a terminal



alkenyl group, and least readily at a trans double bond. The most useful bases are strongly basic, hindered amines such as dicyclohexylethylamine. The use of an alkylcobalt tetracarbonyl, RCo(CO)4, gives the same product as that shown above. Acylation of vinylic ethers has been accomplished with aromatic acyl chlorides, a base, and a palladium catalyst: $ROCH{=}CH_2 \rightarrow ROCH{=}CHCOAr$.[206]

Formylation of alkenes can be accomplished with N-disubstituted formamides and $POCl_3$.[207] This is an aliphatic Vilsmeier reaction (see 11-15). Vilsmeier formylation can also be performed on the α position of acetals and ketals, so that hydrolysis of the products gives keto aldehydes or dialdehydes:[208]

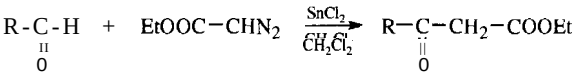


Acetylation of acetals or ketals can be accomplished with acetic anhydride and BF_3-etherate.[209] The mechanism with acetals or ketals also involves attack at an alkenyl carbon, since enol ethers are intermediates.[209] Ketones can be formylated in the α position by treatment with CO and a strong base.[210]

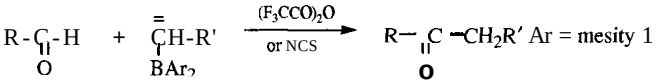
OS IV, 555, 560; VI, 744. Also see OS VI, 28.

12-15 *Conversion of Aldehydes to* P-Keto Esters or Ketones

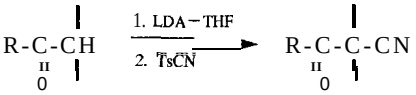
ALKOXYCARBONYLALKYLATION OR ALKOXYCARBONYLALKYL-DE-HYDROGENATION



P-Keto esters have been prepared in moderate to high yields by treatment of aldehydes with diethyl diazoacetate in the presence of a catalytic amount of a Lewis acid such as $SnCl_2$, BF3, or $GeCl_2$.[211] The reaction was successful for both aliphatic and aromatic aldehydes, but the former react more rapidly than the latter, and the difference is great enough to allow selective reactivity. In a similar process, aldehydes react with certain carbanions stabilized by boron, in the presence of $(F_3CCO)_2O$ or NCS, to give ketones.[212]



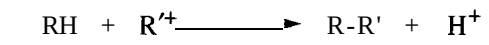
12-16 *Cyanation or Cyano-de-hydrogenation*



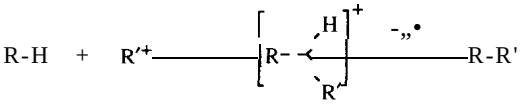
Introduction of a cyano group α to the carbonyl group of a ketone can be accomplished by prior formation of the enolate with lithium diisopropylamide (LDA) in THF and addition of this solution to *p*-TsCN at −78°C.[213] The products are formed in moderate to high yields but the reaction is not applicable to methyl ketones. Treatment of $TMSCH_2N(Me)C{=}Nt\text{-}Bu$ with *sec*-butyllithium and $R_2C{=}O$, followed by iodomethane and NaOMe leads to the nitrile, $R_2CH{-}CN$.[214] In a different kind of reaction, nitro compounds are α-cyanated by treatment with CN^- and $K_3Fe(CN)_6$.[215] The mechanism probably involves ion radicals. In still another reaction, secondary amines are converted to α-cyanoamines by treatment with phenylseleninic anhydride and NaCN or Me_3SiCN.[216] The compound Me_3SiCN has also been used in a reaction that cyanates benzylic positions.[217]

12-17 *Alkylation of Alkanes*

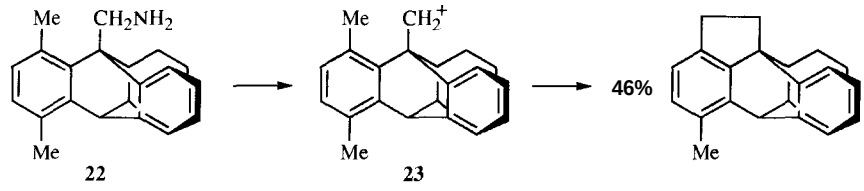
ALKYLATION OR ALKYL-DE-HYDROGENATION



Alkanes can be alkylated by treatment with solutions of stable carbocations (p. 218),[218] though the reaction is not generally useful for synthesis. Mixtures are usually obtained. In a typical experiment, the treatment of propane with isopropyl fluoroantimonate ($Me_2C^+\ SbF_6^-$) gave 26% 2,3-dimethylbutane, 28% 2-methylpentane, 14% 3-methylpentane, and 32% n-hexane, as well as some butanes, pentanes (formed by 12-45), and higher alkanes. Mixtures arise in part because intermolecular hydrogen exchange ($RH + R'^+ \rightleftharpoons R^+ + R'H$) is much faster than alkylation, so that alkylation products are also derived from the new alkanes and carbocations formed in the exchange reaction. Furthermore, the carbocations present are subject to rearrangement (Chapter 18), giving rise to new carbocations. Products result from all the hydrocarbons and carbocations present in the system. As expected from their relative stabilities, secondary alkyl cations alkylate alkanes more readily than tertiary alkyl cations (the *tert*-butyl cation does not alkylate methane or ethane). Stable primary alkyl cations are not available, but alkylation has been achieved with complexes formed between CH_3F or C_2H_5F and SbF_5.[219] The mechanism of alkylation can be formulated (similar to that shown in hydrogen exchange with superacids, 12-1) as



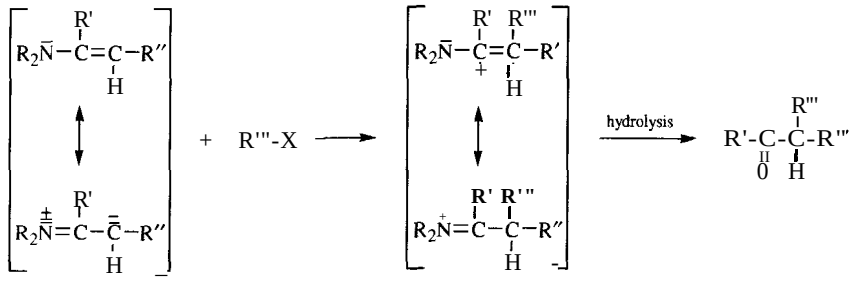
It is by means of successive reactions of this sort that simple alkanes like methane and ethane give *tert*-butyl cations in super acid solutions (p. 219).[220]



Intramolecular insertion has been reported. The positively charged carbon of the carbocation (23), generated from the diazonium salt of the triptycene compound (22), reacted with the CH_3 group in close proximity with it.[221]

12-18 *The Stork Enamine Reaction*

α-ACYLALKYL-DE-HALOGENATION[222]

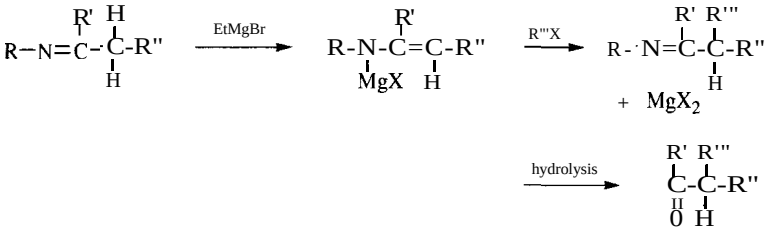


When enamines are treated with alkyl halides, an alkylation occurs that is analogous to the first step of **12-14.** Hydrolysis of the imine salt gives a ketone. Since the enamine is normally formed from a ketone **(16-12),** the net result is alkylation of the ketone at the a position. The method, known as the *Stork enamine reaction.*[223] is an alternative to the ketone alkylation considered at **10-105.** The Stork method has the advantage that it generally leads almost exclusively to monoalkylation of the ketone, while **10-105,** when applied to ketones, is difficult to stop with the introduction of just one alkyl group. Alkylation usually takes place on the less substituted side of the original ketone. The most commonly used amines are the cyclic amines piperidine, morpholine, and pyrrolidine.

The method is quite useful for particularly active alkyl halides such as allylic, benzylic, and propargylic halides, and for α-halo ethers and esters, but is not very serviceable for ordinary primary and secondary halides. Tertiary halides do not give the reaction at all since, with respect to the halide, this is nucleophilic substitution and elimination predominates. The reaction can also be applied to activated aryl halides (such as 2,4-dinitrochlorobenzene; see Chapter 13), to epoxides,[224] and to activated alkenes such as acrylonitrile. The latter is a Michael type reaction (p. 976) with respect to the alkene.

Acylation[225] can be accomplished with acyl halides or with anhydrides. Hydrolysis of the resulting iminium salt leads to a 1,3-diketone. A COOEt group can be introduced by treatment of the enamine with ethyl chloroformate (ClCOOEt),[226] a CN group with cyanogen chloride (not cyanogen bromide or iodide, which leads to halogenation of the enamine),[227] a CHO group with the mixed anhydride of formic and acetic acids[226] or with DMF and phosgene,[228] and a C(R)=NR′ group with a nitrilium salt ($RC{\equiv}N^{\oplus}R'$).[229] The acylation of the enamine can take place by the same mechanism as alkylation, but another mechanism is also possible, if the acyl halide has an a hydrogen and if a tertiary amine is present, as it often is (it is added to neutralize the HX given off). In this mechanism, the acyl halide is dehydrohalogenated by the tertiary amine, producing a ketene **(17-13),** which adds to the enamine to give a cyclobutanone **(15-61).** This compound can be cleaved in the solution to form the same acylated imine salt (27) that would form by the more direct mechanism, or it can be isolated (in the case of enamines derived from aldehydes), or it may cleave in other ways.[230]

Primary and secondary halides do not perform well, mostly because N-alkylation becomes important, particularly with enamines derived from aldehydes. An alternative method, which gives good yields of alkylation with primary and secondary halides, is alkylation of enamine *salts*, which are prepared by treating an imine with ethylmagnesium bromide in THF:[231]



The imines are prepared by **16-12.** The enamine salt method has also been used to give good yields of mono α alkylation of α,β-unsaturated ketones.[232] Enamines prepared from aldehydes and butylisobutylamine can be alkylated by simple primary alkyl halides in good yields.[233] N-alkylation in this case is presumably prevented by steric hindrance.

When the nitrogen of the substrate contains a chiral R group, both the Stork enamine synthesis and the enamine salt method can be used to perform enantioselective syntheses.[234]

Although not formally the enamine synthesis, reaction of an enamine with methyl bromoacetate in the presence of indium metal leads to α-alkylation: $R_2N{-}CH{=}CHR \rightarrow R_2N{-}CH(R')CHR$.[235]

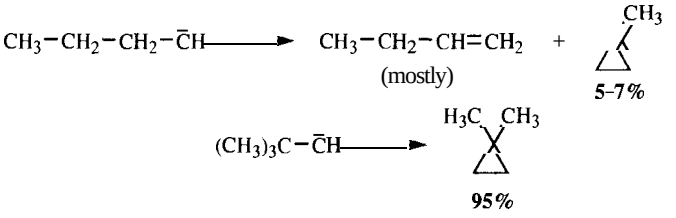
OS V, 533, 869; VI, 242, 496, 526; **VII,** 473.

12-19 *Insertion by Carbenes*

CH-METHYLENE-INSERTION

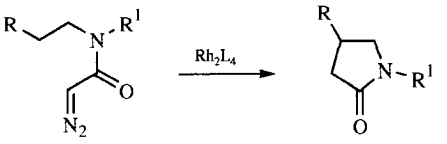
$$RH + \bar{C}H_2 \longrightarrow RCH_3$$

The highly reactive species methylene inserts into C—H bonds,[236] both aliphatic and aromatic,[237] though with aromatic compounds ring expansion is also possible (see 15-62). This version of the reaction is useless for synthetic purposes because of its nonselectivity (see p. 248). This contrasts with the metal carbene insertion reaction, which can be highly selective, and is very useful in synthesis.[238] Alkylcarbenes usually rearrange rather than give insertion (p. 249), but, when this is impossible,



intramolecular insertion[239] is found rather than intermolecular.[240] CH_2 generated by photolysis of CH_2N_2 in the liquid phase is indiscriminate—totally nonselective—in its reactivity (p. 248). The CH_2 group is generated in other ways and other carbenes are less reactive and insert in the order tertiary > secondary > primary.[241] Carbenes have been generated in the presence of ultrasound.[242] Halocarbenes insert much less readily, though a number of instances have been reported.[243] The insertion reaction has been used for synthetic purposes.[244] The carbenes can be generated in any of the ways mentioned in Chapter 5 (p. 247). For the similar insertion of nitrenes, see 12-12.

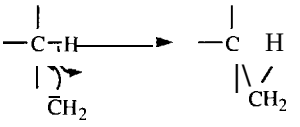
There are numerous examples of metal carbene insertion reactions, usually requiring a catalyst.[245] The C—H insertion reactions of metal carbenes can be highly selective.[246] Intramolecular insertion reactions are very versatile and tolerate a variety of functional groups.[247] A typical example is[248]



L = organic ligands

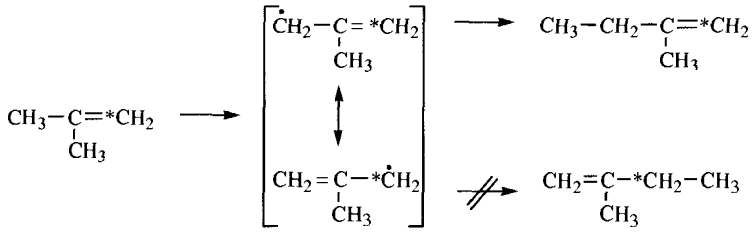
The mechanism[249] of the insertion reaction is not known with certainty, but there seem to be at least two possible pathways.

1. A simple one-step process involving a three-center cyclic transition state:



The most convincing evidence for this mechanism is that in the reaction between isobutene-1-^{14}C and carbene the product 2-methyl-1-butene was labeled only in the 1 position.[250] This rules out a free radical or other free

intermediate such as a carbocation or carbanion. If 24 (or a corresponding ion) were an intermediate, resonance would ensure that some carbene attacked at the 1 position:



24 Not found

Other evidence is that retention of configuration, which is predicted by this mechanism, has been found in a number of instances.[251] An ylid intermediate was trapped in the reaction of $:CH_2$ with allyl alcohol.[252]

2. A free-radical process in which the carbene directly abstracts a hydrogen from the substrate to generate a pair of free radicals:

$$RH + CH_2 \longrightarrow R\cdot + \cdot CH_3$$
$$R\cdot + \cdot CH_3 \longrightarrow RCH_3$$

One fact supporting this mechanism is that among the products obtained (beside butane and isobutane) on treatment of propane with CH_2 (generated by photolysis of diazomethane and ketene) were propene and ethane,[253] which could arise, respectively, by

$$2\ CH_3CH_2CH_2\cdot \longrightarrow CH_3CH{=}CH_2 + CH_3CH_2CH_3 \quad \text{(disproportionation)}$$

and

$$CH_3CH_2CH_3 + \bar{C}H_2 \longrightarrow CH_3CH_2CH_2\cdot + \cdot CH_3$$
$$2\,\dot{C}H_3 \longrightarrow CH_3CH_3$$

That this mechanism can take place under suitable conditions has been demonstrated by isotopic labeling[254] and by other means.[255] However, the formation of disproportionation and dimerization products does not always mean that the free-radical abstraction process takes place. In some cases these products arise in a different manner.[256] We have seen that the product of the reaction between a carbene and a molecule may have excess energy (p. 247). Therefore it is possible for the substrate and the carbene to react by mechanism 1 (the direct-insertion process) and for the excess energy to cause the compound thus formed to cleave to free radicals. When this pathway is in operation, the free radicals are formed *after* the actual insertion reaction.

The mechanism of cyclopropylcarbene reactions has also been discussed.[257]

It has been suggested[258] that singlet carbenes insert by the one-step direct-insertion process and triplets (which, being free radicals, are more likely to abstract hydrogen) by the free-radical process. In support of this suggestion is that CIDNP signals (p. 240)[259] were observed in the ethylbenzene produced from toluene and triplet CH_2, but not from the same reaction with singlet CH_2.[260] Carbenoids (e.g., compounds of the form R_2CMCl, see 12-37) can insert into a C—H bond by a different mechanism, similar to pathway 2, but involving abstraction of a hydride ion rather than a hydrogen atom.[261]

The reaction in which aldehydes are converted to methyl ketones, RCHO + $CH_2N_2 \rightarrow RCOCH_3$, while apparently similar, does not involve a free carbene intermediate. It is considered in Chapter 18 (18-9).

OS VII, 200.

F. *Metal Electrophiles*

12-20 *Metalation With Organometallic Compounds*

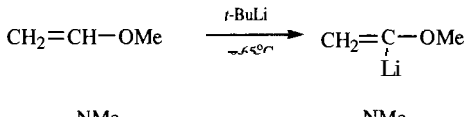
METALATION OR METALLO-DE-HYDROGENATION

$$RH + R'M \longrightarrow RM + R'H$$

Many organic compounds can be metalated by treatment with an organometallic compound.[262] Since the reaction involves a proton transfer, the equilibrium lies on the side of the weaker acid.[263] For example, fluorene reacts with butyllithium to give butane and 9-fluoryllithium. Since aromatic hydrocarbons are usually stronger acids than aliphatic ones, R is most often aryl. The most common reagent is butyllithium.[264] Normally, only active aromatic rings react with butyllithium. Benzene itself is not reactive enough, though benzene can be metalated by butyllithium either in the presence of *t*-BuOK[265] or coordinated with various diamines.[266] Metalation of aliphatic RH is most successful when the carbanions are stabilized by resonance (allylic, benzylic, propargylic,[267] etc.) or when the negative charge is at an *sp* carbon (at triple bonds). Very good reagents for allylic metalation are trimethylsilylmethyl potassium (Me_3SiCH_2K)[268] and a combination of an organolithium compound with a bulky alkoxide (LICKOR superbase).[269] The former is also useful for benzylic positions. A combination of BuLi, *t*-BuOK, and tetramethylethylenediamine has been used to convert ethylene to vinylpotassium.[270] In certain cases *gem*-dialkali metal or 1,1,1-trialkali metal compounds can be prepared.[271] Examples are the conversion of phenylacetonitrile to 1,1-dilithiophenylacetonitrile ($PhCLi_2CN$)[272] and propyne to tetralithiopropyne ($Li_3CC{\equiv}CLi$)[273] in each case by treatment with excess butyllithium. The reaction can be used to determine relative acidities of very weak acids by allowing two R—H compounds to compete for the same R'M and to determine which proton in a molecule is the most acidic.[274]

In general, the reaction can be performed only with organometallics of active metals such as lithium, sodium, and potassium, but Grignard reagents abstract protons from a sufficiently acidic C—H bond, as in $R{-}C{\equiv}C{-}H \rightarrow R{-}C{\equiv}C{-}MgX$. This method is best for the preparation of alkynyl Grignard reagents.[275]

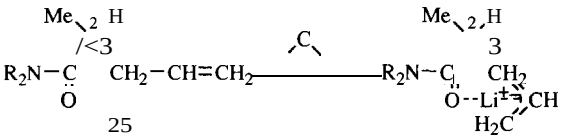
When a heteroatom, such as N, O, S,[276] or a halogen,[277] is present in a molecule containing an aromatic ring or a double bond, lithiation is usually quite regioselective.[278] The lithium usually bonds with the sp^2 carbon closest to the hetero atom, probably because the attacking species coordinates with the hetero atom.[279] Such reactions with compounds such as anisole are often called directed metalations.[280] In the case of aromatic rings, this means attack at the ortho position.[281] Two examples are



Ref 282

Ref. 283

In the second example, the lithium goes into the 2 position so as to be ortho to both substituents.[284] This regioselectivity can be quite valuable synthetically. In the case of γ,δ-unsaturated disubstituted amides (25), the lithium does not go to the closest position, but in this case too the regiochemistry is controlled by coordination to the

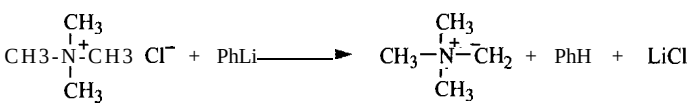


oxygen.[285] The 2 position is much more acidic than the 3 position (Table 8.1), but a negative charge at C-3 is in a more favorable position to be stabilized by the Li^+. Ortho magnesiation has been accomplished with bases of the form $(R_2N)_2Mg$.[286]

The mechanism involves a nucleophilic attack by R'^- (or a polar R') on the *hydrogen*.[287] Evidence is that resonance effects of substituents in R seem to make little difference. When R is aryl, OMe and CF_3 *both* direct ortho, while isopropyl directs meta and para (mostly meta).[288] These results are exactly what would be expected from pure field effects, with no contribution from resonance effects, which implies that attack occurs at the hydrogen and not at R. Other evidence for the involvement of H in the rate-determining step is that there are large isotope effects.[289] The nature of R' also has an effect on the rate. In the reaction between triphenylmethane and R'Li, the rate decreased in the order R' = allyl > Bu > Ph > vinyl > Me, though this order changed with changing concentration of R'Li, because of varying degrees of aggregation of the R'Li.[290]

With respect to the reagent, this reaction is a special case of 12-23.

A closely related reaction is formation of nitrogen ylids from quaternary ammonium salts (see 17-7):



Phosphonium salts undergo a similar reaction (see **16-47).**

OS II, 198; **HI,** 413, 757; **IV,** 792; **V,** 751; **VI,** 436, 478, 737, 979; **VII,** 172, 334, 456, 524; **VIII,** 19, 391, 396, 606.

12-21 *Metalation with Metals and Strong Bases*

METALATION OR METALLO-DE-HYDROGENATION

$$2\ RH + M \longrightarrow 2\ RM + H_2$$

Organic compounds can be metalated at suitably acidic positions by active metals and by strong bases.[291] The reaction has been used to study the acidities of very weak acids (see p. 228). The conversion of terminal alkynes to acetylid ions is one important application.[292] Synthetically, the most important use of the method is to convert aldehydes and ketones,[293] carboxylic esters, and similar compounds to their enolate forms,[294] for example, for use in nucleophilic substitutions (**10-104**, **10-105**,

$$CH_3-\underset{\underset{O}{\|}}{C}-CH_2-\underset{\underset{O}{\|}}{C}-OEt \xrightarrow{NaOEt} CH_3-\underset{\underset{O}{\|}}{C}-\overset{\ominus}{C}H-\underset{\underset{O}{\|}}{C}-OEt + HOEt$$

and **13-12)** and in additions to multiple bonds **(15-21** and **16-52).** It has been shown that lithiation with lithium amides can also be regioselective (see 12-20).[295] Lithium enolates exist as aggregates in solution.[296] For very weak acids, the most common reagents for synthetic purposes are lithium amides, especially LDA, which has the structure $(i\text{-Pr})_2NLi$.[297] The mechanism for this deprotonation reaction has been studied,[298] as has the rate of deprotonation.[299]

Mercuration of aromatic compounds[300] can be accomplished with mercuric salts, most often $Hg(OAc)_2$[301] to give ArHgOAc. This is ordinary electrophilic aromatic substitution and takes place by the arenium ion mechanism (p. 675).[302] Aromatic compounds can also be converted to arylthallium bis(trifluoroacetates), $ArTl(OOCCF_3)_2$, by treatment with thallium(III) trifluoroacetate[303] in trifluoroacetic acid.[304] These arylthallium compounds can be converted to phenols, aryl iodides or fluorides **(12-28),** aryl cyanides **(12-31),** aryl nitro compounds,[305] or aryl esters **(12-30).** The mechanism of thallation appears to be complex, with electrophilic and electron-transfer mechanisms both taking place.[306]

OS **I,** 70, 161, 490; **IV,** 473; **VI,** 468, 542, 611, 683, 709; **VII,** 229, 339. Conversions of ketones or esters to enolates are not listed.

12-22 *Conversion of Enolates to Silyl Enol Ethers*

3/O-TRIMETHYLSILYL-DE-HYDROGENATION

$$R-\underset{\underset{O}{\|}}{C}-\underset{\underset{H}{|}}{\overset{\overset{R'}{|}}{C}}-R'' \xrightarrow[\text{LDA}]{Me_2SiCl} R-C=\underset{\underset{OSiMe_3}{|}}{\overset{\overset{R'}{|}}{C}}-R''$$

Silyl enol ethers,[307] important reagents with a number of synthetic uses (see, e.g., **10-105, 12-4, 15-21, 15-62, 16-40),** can be prepared by base treatment of a ketone (converting it to its enolate) followed by addition of a trialkylchlorosilane. Other silylating agents have also been used.[308] Both strong bases (e.g., LDA), and weaker bases (e.g. Et_3N) have been used for this purpose. In some cases, the base and the silylating agent can be present at the same time.[309] Enolates prepared in other ways (e.g., as shown for **118** on p. 540) also give the reaction.[310] The reaction can be applied to aldehydes by the use of the base KH in 1,2-dimethoxyethane.[311] A particularly mild method for conversion of ketones or aldehydes to silyl enol ethers uses Me_3SiI and the base hexamethyldisilazane, $(Me_3Si)_2NH$.[312] Cyclic ketones can be converted to silyl enol ethers in the presence of acyclic ketones, by treatment with Me_3SiBr, tetraphenylstibonium bromide Ph_4SbBr, and an aziridine.[313]

Unsymmetrical ketones can give the more substituted (thermodynamic) silylenol ether or the less substituted (kinetic) product. Enolates formed using $LiNR_2$ in ether solvents at low temperatures tend to give the latter, and reaction with the silylating agent gives the kinetic product. Formation of the enolate anion in protic solvents with alkoxide bases at higher temperatures usually gives a significant amount of the thermodynamic enolate, that can be trapped with the silylating agent. Reaction with Me_3SiCl/KI in DMF also gives primarily the thermodynamic silyl enol ether.[314]

OS **VI,** 327, 445; **VII,** 282, 312, 424, 512; **VIII,** 1, 286, 460; **IX,** 573. See also OS **VII,** 66, 266. For the conversion of ketones to vinylic triflates.[315]

See OS **VIII**, 97, 126.

Metals as Leaving Groups

A. *Hydrogen as the Electrophile*

12-23 *Replacement of Metals by Hydrogen*

HYDRO-DE-METALATION OR DEMETALATION

$$RM + HA \longrightarrow RH + MA$$

Organometallic compounds, including enolates, react with acids in reactions in which the metal is replaced by hydrogen.[316] R may be aryl (see **11-44).** The reaction is often used to introduce deuterium or tritium into susceptible positions. For Grignard reagents, water is usually a strong enough acid, but stronger acids are also used. An important method for the reduction of alkyl halides consists of the process $RX \rightarrow RMgX \rightarrow RH$.

Other organometallic compounds that are hydrolyzed by water are those of sodium, potassium, lithium, zinc, and so on, the ones high in the electromotive series. Enantioselective protonation of lithium enolates[317] and cyclopropyllithium compounds[318] have been reported. When the metal is less active, stronger acids are required. For example, R_2Zn compounds react explosively with water, R_2Cd slowly, and R_2Hg not at all, though the latter can be cleaved with concentrated HC1. How-

ever, this general statement has many exceptions, some hard to explain. For example, BR_3 compounds are completely inert to water, and GaR_3 at room temperature cleave just one R group, but AlR_3 react violently with water. However, BR_3 can be converted to RH with carboxylic acids.[319] For less active metals it is often possible to cleave just one R group from a multivalent metal. For example,

$$R_2Hg + HCl \longrightarrow RH + RHgCl$$

Organometallic compounds of less active metals and metalloids, such as silicon,[320] antimony, bismuth, and so on, are quite inert to water. Organomercury compounds (RHgX or R_2Hg) can be reduced to RH by H_2, $NaBH_4$, or other reducing agents.[321] The reduction with $NaBH_4$ takes place by a free-radical mechanism.[322] Alkyl–silicon bonds can be cleaved by H_2SO_4, for example, $HOOCCH_2CH_2SiMe_3 \rightarrow 2\,CH_4 + (HOOCCH_2CH_2SiMe_2)_2O$.[323]

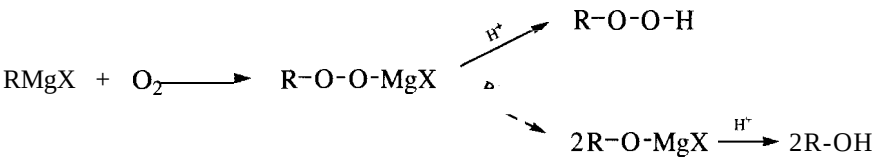
When the hydrogen of the HA is attached to carbon, this reaction is the same as 12-20.

We do not list the many hydrolyses of sodium or potassium enolates, and so on, found in *Organic Syntheses.* The hydrolysis of a Grignard reagent to give an alkane is found at OS II, 478; the reduction of a vinylic tin compound at OS VIII, 381; and the reduction of an alkynylsilane at OS VIII, 281.

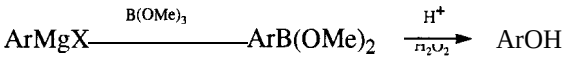
B. *Oxygen Electrophiles*

12-24 *The Reaction between Organometallic Reagents and Oxygen*[324]

HYDROPEROXY-DE-METALATION; HYDROXY-DE-METALATION



Oxygen reacts with Grignard reagents to give either hydroperoxides or alcohols. The reaction can be used to convert alkyl halides to alcohols without side reactions. With aryl Grignard reagents yields are lower and only phenols are obtained, not hydroperoxides. It is because of the possibility of this reaction that oxygen should be excluded when Grignard reagents are desired for other purposes. A better procedure for the conversion of aryl Grignard reagents to phenols involves the use of trimethyl borate followed by oxidation with H_2O_2 in acetic acid (see 12-28).[325]



Most other organometallic compounds also react with oxygen. Aryllithium reagents have been converted to phenols by treatment with oxygen.[326] Trialkylboranes and alkyldichloroboranes ($RBCl_2$) can be conveniently converted to hydroperoxides by

treatment with oxygen followed by hydrolysis.[327] Dilithiated carboxylic acids (see **10-106)** react with oxygen to give (after hydrolysis) α-hydroxy carboxylic acids.[328] There is evidence that the reaction between Grignard reagents and oxygen involves a free-radical mechanism.[329]

The 1,1-dimetallic compounds, $R_2C(SnMe_3)ZnBr$, were oxidized by dry air at −10 to 0°C in the presence of Me_3SiCl to give aldehydes or ketones, $R_2C{=}O$.[330]

In a related indirect method, arylthallium bis(trifluoroacetates) (prepared by **12-21)** can be converted to phenols by treatment with lead tetraacetate followed by triphenylphosphine, and then dilute NaOH.[331] Diarylthallium trifluoroacetates undergo the same reaction.[332]

OS V, 918. See also OS **VIII,** 315.

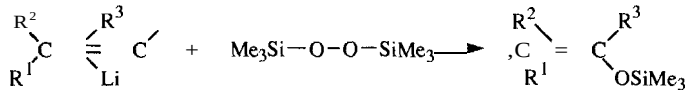
12-25 *Reaction between Organometallic Reagents and Peroxides*

TERT-BUTOXY-DE-METALATION

$$RMgX + t\text{-}Bu{-}O{-}O{-}\underset{\underset{O}{\|}}{C}{-}R' \longrightarrow R{-}O{-}t\text{-}Bu + R'COOMgX$$

A convenient method of preparation of *tert*-butyl ethers consists of treating Grignard reagents with *tert-butyl* acyl peroxides.[333] Both alkyl and aryl Grignard reagents can be used. The application of this reaction to Grignard reagents prepared from cyclopropyl halides permits cyclopropyl halides to be converted to tert-butyl ethers of cyclopropanols,[334] which can then be easily hydrolyzed to the cyclopropanols. The direct conversion of cyclopropyl halides to cyclopropanols by **10-1** is not generally feasible, because cyclopropyl halides do not generally undergo nucleophilic substitutions without ring opening.

Vinylic lithium reagents (26) react with silyl peroxides to give high yields of silyl enol ethers with retention of configuration.[335] Since the preparation of 26 from vinylic halides **(12-37)** also proceeds with retention, the overall procedure is a



26

method for the stereospecific conversion of a vinylic halide to a silyl enol ether. In a related reaction, alkynyl esters can be prepared from lithium acetylides and phenyliodine(III) dicarboxylates.[336]

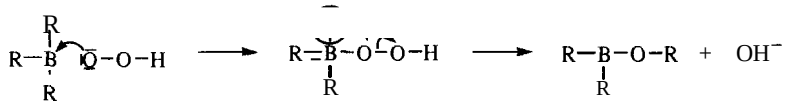
$$RC{=}CLi + PhI(O_2CR')_2 \longrightarrow RC{\equiv}C{-}O{-}\underset{\underset{O}{\|}}{C}{-}R'$$

OS V, 642, 924.

12-26 *Oxidation of Trialkylboranes to Borates*

$$R_3B \xrightarrow[NaOH]{H_2O_2} (RO)_3B \xrightarrow{3\ ROH} B(OH)_3$$

Treatment with alkaline H_2O_2 oxidizes trialkylboranes to esters of boric acid.[337] This reaction does not affect double or triple bonds, aldehydes, ketones, halides, or nitriles. The R group does not rearrange, and this reaction is a step in the hydroboration method of converting alkenes to alcohols (15-16). The mechanism has been formulated as involving a rearrangement from boron to oxygen:[337]



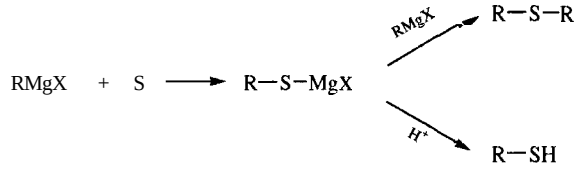
The other two R groups then similarly migrate. Retention of configuration is observed in R. Boranes can also be oxidized to borates in good yields with oxygen,[338] with sodium perborate ($NaBO_3$),[339] and with trimethylamine oxide, either anhydrous[340] or in the form of the dihydrate.[341] The reaction with oxygen is free radical in nature.[342]

OS V, 918; VI, 719, 852, 919.

C. *Sulfur Electrophiles*

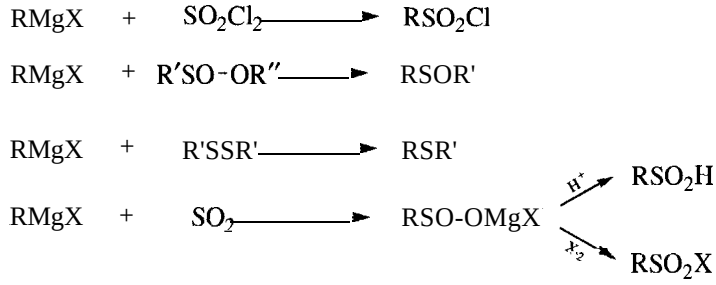
12-27 *Conversion of Grignard Reagents to Sulfur Compounds*

THIO-DE-DIMETALLO-AGGRE-SUBSTITUTION



MERCAPTO-DE-METALATION

Thiols and sulfides are occasionally prepared by treatment of Grignard reagents with sulfur.[343] Analogous reactions are known for selenium and tellurium compounds. Grignard reagents and other organometallic compounds[344] react with sulfuryl



chloride to give sulfonyl chlorides,[345] with esters of sulfinic acids to give (stereospecifically) sulfoxides,[346] with disulfides to give sulfides,[347] and with SO_2 to give

sulfinic acid salts,[348] which can be hydrolyzed to sulfinic acids or treated with halogens to give sulfonyl halides.[349]

OS **III,** 771; IV, 667; VI, 533, 979.

D. *Halogen Electrophiles*

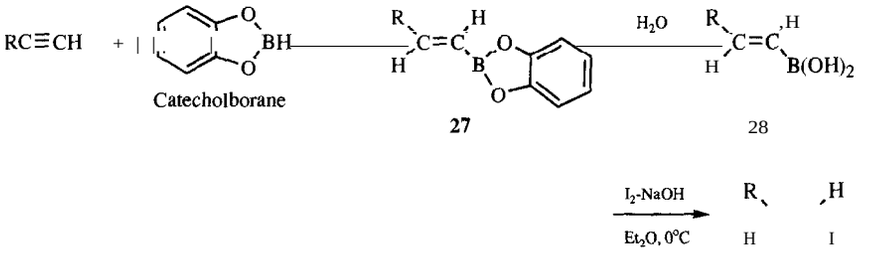
12-28 *Halo-de-metalation*

$$RMgX + I_2 \longrightarrow RI + MgIX$$

Grignard reagents react with halogens to give alkyl halides. The reaction is useful for the preparation of iodo compounds from the corresponding chloro or bromo compounds. The reaction is not useful for preparing chlorides, since the reagents RMgBr and RMgI react with Cl_2 to give mostly RBr and RI, respectively.[350]

Most organometallic compounds, both alkyl and aryl, also react with halogens to give alkyl or aryl halides.[351] The reaction can be used to convert acetylide ions to 1-haloalkynes.[352] Since acetylide ions are easily prepared from alkynes (12-21), this provides a means of making the conversion $RC{\equiv}CH \rightarrow RC{\equiv}CX$. Trialkylboranes react rapidly with I_2[353] or Br_2[354] in the presence of NaOMe in methanol, or with $FeCl_3$ or other reagents[355] to give alkyl iodides, bromides, or chlorides, respectively. Combined with the hydroboration reaction (15-16), this is an indirect way of adding HBr, HI, or HC1 to a double bond to give products with an anti-Markovnikov orientation (see **15-1).** Trialkylboranes can also be converted to alkyl iodides by treatment with allyl iodide and air in a free-radical process.[356]

trans-1-Alkenylboronic acids (**28**), prepared by hydroboration of terminal alkynes with catecholborane **(27)**[357] **(15-16)** followed by hydrolysis, react with I_2 in the presence of NaOH at 0°C in ethereal solvents to give trans vinylic iodides.[358] Treatment with IC1 also gives the vinyl iodide.[359] This is an indirect way of accomplishing the anti-Markovnikov addition of HI to a terminal triple bond. The



reaction cannot be applied to alkenylboronic acids prepared from internal alkynes. However, alkenylboronic acids prepared from both internal and terminal alkynes react with Br_2 (2 mol of Br_2 must be used) followed by base to give the corresponding vinylic bromide, but in this case with *inversion* of configuration; so the product is the cis vinylic bromide.[360] Alkenylboronic acids also give vinylic bromides and iodides when treated with a mild oxidizing agent and NaBr or NaI, respectively.[361] Treatment of 28 (prepared from terminal alkynes) with Cl_2 gave

vinylic chlorides with inversion.[362] Vinylic halides can also be prepared from vinylic silanes[363] and from vinylic copper reagents. The latter react with I_2 to give iodides,[364] and with NCS or NBS at −45°C to give chlorides or bromides.[365] Treatment of $PhB(OH)_2$ with *N*-iodosuccinimide gives iodobenzene.[366]

Aryl iodides[367] and fluorides can be prepared from arylthallium bis(trifluoroacetates) (see **12-21),** indirectly achieving the conversions ArH → ArI and ArH → ArF. The bis(trifluoroacetates) react with KI to give ArI in high yields.[368] Aryllead triacetates, $ArPb(OAc)_3$, can be converted to aryl fluorides by treatment with BF_3–etherate.[369]

For the reaction of lithium enolates of esters with I_2 or CX_4 see **12-5.**

It is unlikely that a single mechanism suffices to cover all conversions of organometallic compounds to alkyl halides.[370] In a number of cases the reaction has been shown to involve inversion of configuration (see p. 762), indicating an S_E2 (back) mechanism, while in other cases retention of configuration has been shown,[371] implicating an S_E2 (front) or S_Ei mechanism. In still other cases, complete loss of configuration as well as other evidence have demonstrated the presence of a free-radical mechanism.[372]

OS **I,** 125, 325, 326; **III,** 774, 813; V, 921; **VI,** 709; **VII,** 290; **VIII,** 586; **IX,** 573. Also see OS II, 150.

E. *Nitrogen Electrophiles*

12-29 *The Conversion of Organometallic Compounds to Amines*

AMINO-DE-METALATION

$$RLi \xrightarrow[MeLi]{CH_3ONH_2} RNH_2$$

There are several methods for conversion of alkyl- or aryllithium compounds to primary amines.[373] The two most important are treatment with hydroxylamine derivatives and with certain azides.[374] In the first of these methods, treatment of RLi with methoxyamine and MeLi in ether at − 78°C gives RNH_2.[375] Grignard reagents give lower yields. However, reaction of arylmagnesium halides with allyl azide ($CH_2{=}CHCH_2N_3$) followed by hydrolysis leads to the corresponding aniline derivative.[376] The reaction can be extended to give secondary amines by the use of N-substituted methoxyamines (CH3ONHR').[377] There is evidence[378] that the mechanism involves the direct displacement of OCH_3 by R on an intermediate CH_2ONR^{-} ($CH_3ONR'^{-}\ Li^+ + RLi \rightarrow CH_3OLi + RNR'^{-}Li^+$). The most useful azide is tosyl azide (TsN_3).[379] The initial product is usually RN_3, but this is easily reducible to the amine **(19-46).** With some azides, such as azidomethyl phenyl sulfide ($PhSCH_2N_3$), the group attached to the N_3 is a poor leaving group, so the initial product is a triazene (in this case $ArNHN{=}NCH_2SPh$ from ArMgX), which can be hydrolyzed to the amine.[380]

$$R_3B \xrightarrow{NH_3\text{-}NaOCl} 2\ RNH_2 + RB(OH)_2$$

Organoboranes react with a mixture of aqueous NH_3 and NaOCl to produce primary amines.[381] It is likely that the actual reagent is chloramine NH_2Cl. Chloramine itself,[382] hydroxylamine-O-sulfonic acid in diglyme,[383] and trimethylsilyl azide[384] also give the reaction. Since the boranes can be prepared by the hydroboration of alkenes (15-16), this is an indirect method for the addition of NH_3 to a double bond with anti-Markovnikov orientation. Secondary amines can be prepared[385] by the treatment of alkyl- or aryldichloroboranes or dialkylchloroboranes with alkyl or aryl azides.

$$RBCl_2 + R'N_3 \longrightarrow RR'NBCl_2 \xrightarrow[OH]{H_2O} RNHR'$$

$$R_2BCl + R'N_3 \xrightarrow[2.\ H_2O]{1.\ Et_2O} RNHR'$$

The use of an optically active R^*BCl_2 (where R* is a substituent boaring a chiral center) gave secondary amines of essentially 100% optical purity.[386] Aryllead triacetates, ArPb(OAc)3, give secondary amines, ArNHAr', when treated with primary aromatic amines, $Ar'NH_2$, and $Cu(OAc)_2$.[387]

Secondary amines have been converted to tertiary amines by treatment with lithium dialkylcuprate reagents: $R_2CuLi + NHR \rightarrow RNR_2'$.[388] The reaction was also used to convert primary amines to secondary, but yields were lower.[367] However, primary aromatic amines ($ArNH_2$) were converted to diaryl amines (ArNHPh) by treatment with $Ph_3Bi(OAc)_2$[389] and a copper powder catalyst.[390]

Molecular nitrogen (N_2) reacts with aryllithium compounds in the presence of compounds of such transition metals as titanium, chromium, molybdenum, or vanadium (e.g., $TiCl_4$) to give (after hydrolysis) primary aromatic amines.[391]

$$ArLi + N_2 \xrightarrow[2.\ H_2O]{1.\ MX_n} ArNH_2 + NH_3$$

OS VI, 943.

F. *Carbon Electrophiles*

12-30 *The Conversion of Organometallic Compounds to Ketones, Aldehydes, Carboxylic Esters, or Amides*

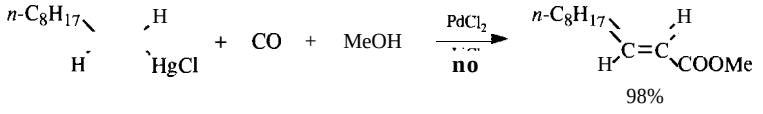
ACYL-DE-METALATION, AND SO ON

$$RHgX + Co_2(CO)_8 \xrightarrow{THF} R\text{-}\overset{\overset{O}{\|}}{C}\text{-}R$$

Symmetrical ketones[392] can be prepared in good yields by the reaction of organomercuric halides[393] with dicobalt octacarbonyl in THF,[394] or with nickel carbonyl in DMF or certain other solvents.[395] The R group may be aryl or alkyl. However, when R is alkyl, rearrangements may intervene in the $CO_2(CO)_8$ reaction, though the $Ni(CO)_4$ reaction seems to be free from such rearrangements.[395] Divinylic ketones

have been prepared in high yields by treatment of vinylic mercuric halides with CO and a rhodium catalyst.[396] When arylmercuric halides are treated with nickel carbonyl in the presence of Ar′I, unsymmetrical diaryl ketones can be obtained.[395] In a more general synthesis of unsymmetrical ketones, tetraalkyltin (R_4Sn) compounds are treated with a halide R'X (R' = aryl, vinylic, benzylic), CO, and a Pd complex catalyst.[397] Similar reactions use Grignard reagents, $Fe(CO)_5$, and an alkyl halide.[398] Aryl ketones can be prepared from aryltrimethylsilanes $ArSiMe_3$ and acyl chlorides in the presence of $AlCl_3$.[399]

Grignard reagents react with formic acid to give good yields of aldehydes. Two moles of RMgX are used; the first converts HCOOH to $HCOO^-$, which reacts with the second mole to give RCHO.[400] Aryllithium and Grignard reagents react with iron pentacarbonyl to give aldehydes ArCHO,[401] while alkyllithium reagents react with CO to give symmetrical ketones.[402] The reaction of CO with aryllithium may occur by electron transfer.[403] An interesting variation reacts CO_2 with an organolithium, which is then treated with a different organolithium reagent to give the unsymmetrical ketone.[404] α,β-Unsaturated aldehydes can be prepared by treatment of vinylic silanes with dichloromethyl methyl ether and $TiCl_4$ at −90°C.[405] α,β-Unsaturated esters can be prepared by treating boronic esters (27) with CO, $PdCl_2$, and NaOAc in MeOH.[406] The synthesis of α,β-unsaturated esters has also been accomplished by treatment of vinylic mercuric chlorides with CO at atmospheric pressure and a Pd catalyst in an alcohol as solvent, for example,[407]

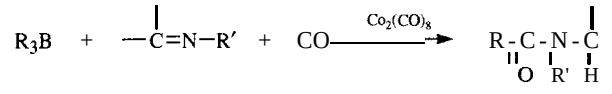


Arylthallium bis(trifluoroacetates) (see 12-21) can be carbonylated with CO, an alcohol, and a $PdCl_2$ catalyst to give esters:[408]

$$ArTl(OOCCF_3)_2 + ROH + CO \xrightarrow{PdCl_2} ArCOOR$$

Organomercury compounds undergo a similar reaction.[409] Alkyl and aryl Grignard reagents can be converted to carboxylic esters with $Fe(CO)_5$ instead of CO.[410]

Amides have been prepared by the treatment of trialkyl or triarylboranes with CO and an imine, in the presence of catalytic amounts of cobalt carbonyl:[411]



In another method for the conversion RM → RCONR′, Grignard reagents and organolithium compounds are treated with a formamide ($HCONR_2'$) to give the intermediate $RCH(OM)NR_2'$, which is not isolated, but treated with PhCHO or Ph_2CO to give the product $RCONR_2'$.[412]

A silica-supported palladium reagent has been used to convert iodobenzene to butyl benzoate, in the presence of CO and butanol.[413] Diaryl ketones can also be

prepared by coupling aryl iodides with $PhB(OH)_2$, in the presence of CO and a palladium catalyst.[414]

See also reactions **10-112, 15-27,** and **18-23-18-24.**

OS VIII, 97.

12-31 *Cyano-de-metalation*

$$ArTl(OOCCF_3)_2 + CuCN \longrightarrow ArCN$$

Arylthallium bis(trifluoroacetates) (see **12-21)** can be converted to aryl nitriles by treatment with copper(I) cyanide in acetonitrile.[415] Another procedure uses excess aqueous KCN followed by photolysis of the resulting complex ion $ArTl(CN)_3^-$ in the presence of excess KCN.[332] Alternatively, arylthallium acetates react with $Cu(CN)_2$ or CuCN to give aryl nitriles.[416] Yields from this procedure are variable, ranging from almost nothing to 90 or 100%.

Vinylic copper reagents react with C1CN to give vinyl cyanides, though BrCN and ICN give the vinylic halide instead.[417] Vinylic cyanides have also been prepared by the reaction between vinylic lithium compounds and phenyl cyanate PhOCN.[418] Alkyl cyanides (RCN) have been prepared, in varying yields, by treatment of sodium trialkylcyanoborates with NaCN and lead tetraacetate.[419] Vinyl bromides reacted with KCN, in the presence of a nickel complex and zinc metal to give the vinyl nitrile.[420] Vinyl inflates react with LiCN, in the presence of a palladium catalyst, to give the vinyl nitrile.[421]

For other electrophilic substitutions of the type RM → RC, see **10-93-10-117,** which are discussed under nucleophilic substitutions in Chapter 10. See also **16-67.**

OS **IX,** 548

G. *Metal Electrophiles*

12-32 *Transmetalation With a Metal*

METALO-DE-METALATION

$$RM + M' \rightleftharpoons RM' + M$$

Many organometallic compounds are best prepared by this reaction, which involves replacement of a metal in an organometallic compound by another metal. The compound RM' can be successfully prepared only when M' is above M in the electromotive series, unless some other way is found to shift the equilibrium. That is, RM is usually an unreactive compound and M' is a metal more active than M. Most often, RM is R_2Hg, since mercury alkyls[393] are easy to prepare and mercury is far down in the electromotive series.[422] Alkyls of Li, Na, K, Be, Mg, Al, Ga, Zn, Cd, Te, Sn, and so on have been prepared this way. An important advantage of this method over **12-36** is that it ensures that the organometallic compound will be prepared free of any possible halide. This method can be used for the isolation of solid sodium and potassium alkyls.[423] If the metals lie too close together in the series, it may not be

possible to shift the equilibrium. For example, alkylbismuth compounds cannot be prepared in this way from alkylmercury compounds.

OS V, 1116.

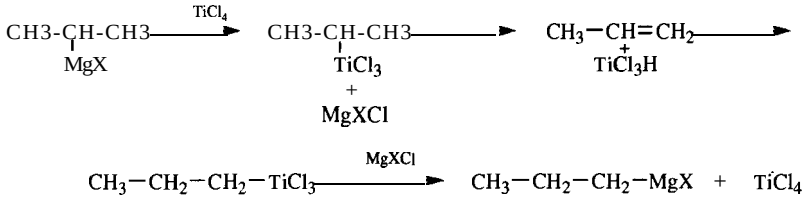
12-33 *Transmetalation With a Metal Halide*

METALLO-DE-METALATION

$$RM + M'X \rightleftharpoons RM' + MX$$

In contrast to 12-32, the reaction between an organometallic compound and a metal *halide* is successful only when M' is *below* M in the electromotive series.[424] The two reactions considered together therefore constitute a powerful tool for preparing all kinds of organometallic compounds. In this reaction the most common substrates are Grignard reagents and organolithium compounds.[425]

The MgX of Grignard reagents[426] can migrate to terminal positions in the presence of small amounts of $TiCl_4$.[427] The proposed mechanism consists of metal exchange (12-33), elimination-addition, and metal exchange:



The addition step is similar to 15-16 or 15-17 and follows Markovnikov's rule, so the positive titanium goes to the terminal carbon.

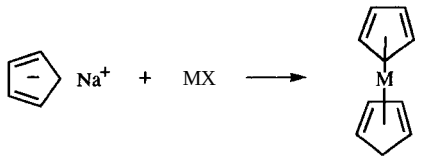
Among others, alkyls of Be, Zn,[428] Cd, Hg, Al, Sn, Pb, Co, Pt, and Au have been prepared by treatment of Grignard reagents with the appropriate halide.[429] The reaction has been used to prepare alkyls of almost all non-transition metals and even of some transition metals. Alkyls of metalloids and of nonmetals, including Si, B,[430] Ge, P, As, Sb, and Bi, can also be prepared in this manner.[431] Except for alkali metal alkyls and Grignard reagents, the reaction between RM and M'X is the most common method for the preparation of organometallic compounds.[432]

Lithium dialkylcopper reagents can be prepared by mixing 2 mol of RLi with 1 mol of a cuprous halide in ether at low temperatures:[433]

$$2\ RLi + CuX \longrightarrow R_2CuLi + LiX$$

Another way is to dissolve an alkylcopper compound in an alkyllithium solution. Higher order cuprates can also be prepared, as well as "non-ate" copper reagents.[434]

Metallocenes (see p. 53) are usually made by this method:



Among others, metallocenes of Sc, Ti, V, Cr, Mn, Fe, Co, and Ni have been prepared in this manner.[435]

Metal nitrates are sometimes used instead of halides.

OS I, 231, 550; **III,** 601; IV, 258, 473, 881; V, 211, 496, 727, 918, 1001; VI, 776, 875, 1033; **VII,** 236, 290, 524; **VIII,** 23, 57, 268, 474, 586, 606, 609. Also see OS IV, 476

12-34 *Transmetalation With an Organometallic Compound*

METALLO-DE-METALATION

$$RM + R'M' \rightleftharpoons RM' + R'M$$

This type of metallic exchange is used much less often than **12-32** and **12-33.** It is an equilibrium reaction and is useful only if the equilibrium lies in the desired direction. Usually the goal is to prepare a lithium compound that is not prepared easily in other ways,[436] for example, a vinylic or an allylic lithium, most commonly from an organotin substrate. Examples are the preparation of vinyllithium from phenyllithium and tetravinyltin and the formation of α-dialkylamino organolithium compounds from the corresponding organotin compounds[437]

$$RR'NCH_2SnBu_3 + BuLi \xrightarrow{0°C} RR'NCH_2Li + Bu_4Sn$$

The reaction has also been used to prepare 1,3-dilithiopropanes[438] and 1,1-dilithiomethylenecyclohexane[439] from the corresponding mercury compounds. In general, the equilibrium lies in the direction in which the more electropositive metal is bonded to that alkyl or aryl group that is the more stable carbanion (p. 228). The reaction proceeds with retention of configuration;[440] an S_Ei mechanism is likely.[441]

"Higher order" cuprates (see Ref. 1277 in Chapter 10) have been produced by this reaction starting with a vinylic tin compound:[442]

$$RSnR'_3 + Me_2Cu(CN)Li_2 \longrightarrow RCuMe(CN)Li_2 + MeSnR'_3$$

R = a vinylic group

These compounds are not isolated, but used directly *in situ* for conjugate addition reactions **(15-24).** Another method for the preparation of such reagents (but with Zn instead of Li) allows them to be made from α-acetoxy halides:[443]

$$R{-}\underset{\underset{OAc}{|}}{CH}{-}Br \xrightarrow[2.\ CuCN{\cdot}2\ LiCl]{1.\ Zn\ dust,\ THF,\ Me_2SO} R{-}\underset{\underset{OAc}{|}}{CH}{-}Cu(CN)ZnBr$$

OS **V,** 452; **VI,** 815; **VIII, 97.**

Halogen as Leaving Group

A. *Hydrogen as the Electrophile*

12-35 *Reduction of Alkyl Halides*

Although this reaction can proceed by an electrophilic substitution mechanism, it is considered in Chapter 10 **(10-79).**

B. *Metal* ***Electrophiles***

12-36 *Metallo-de-halogenation*

$$RX + M \longrightarrow RM$$

Alkyl halides react directly with certain metals to give organometallic compounds.[444] The most common metal is magnesium, and, of course, this is by far the most common method for the preparation of Grignard reagents.[445] The order of halide activity is I > Br > Cl. The reaction can be applied to many alkyl halides primary, secondary, and tertiary and to aryl halides, though aryl *chlorides* require the use of THF or another higher boiling solvent instead of the usual ether, or special entrainment methods.[446] Aryl iodides and bromides can be treated in the usual manner. Allylic Grignard reagents can also be prepared in the usual manner (or in THF),[447] though in the presence of excess halide these may give Wurtz-type coupling products (see **10-94**).[448] Like aryl chlorides, vinylic halides require higher boiling solvents (see OS IV, 258). A good procedure for benzylic and allylic halides is to use magnesium anthracene (prepared from Mg and anthracene in THF)[449] instead of ordinary magnesium,[450] though activated magnesium turnings have also been used.[451] Alkynyl Grignard reagents are not generally prepared by this method at all. For these, **12-20** is used.

Dihalides[452] can be converted to Grignard reagents if the halogens are different and are at least three carbons apart. If the halogens are the same, it is possible to obtain dimagnesium compounds, for example, $BrMg(CH_2)_4MgBr$.[453] 1,2-Dihalides give elimination[454] instead of Grignard reagent formation **(17-22),** and the reaction is seldom successful with 1,1-dihalides, though the preparation of *gem-di* substituted compounds, such as $CH_2(MgBr)_2$, has been accomplished with these substrates.[455] α-Halo Grignard reagents and α-halolithium reagents can be prepared by the method given in 12-37.[456] Alkylmagnesium fluorides can be prepared by refluxing alkyl fluorides with Mg in the presence of appropriate catalysts (e.g., I_2 or EtBr) in THF for several days.[457]

The presence of other functional groups in the halide usually affects the preparation of the Grignard reagent. Groups that contain active hydrogen (defined as any hydrogen that will react with a Grignard reagent), such as OH, NH_2, and COOH, can be present in the molecule, but only if they are converted to the salt form (O^-, NH^-, COO^-, respectively). Groups that react with Grignard reagents, such as $C{=}O$, $C{\equiv}N$, NO_2, COOR, and so on, inhibit Grignard formation entirely. In general, the only functional groups that may be present in the halide molecule without any interference at all are double and triple bonds (except terminal triple bonds) and OR and NR_2 groups. However, β-halo ethers generally give (3 elimination when treated with magnesium (see **17-24),** and Grignard reagents from α-halo ethers[458] can only be formed in THF or dimethoxymethane at a low temperature, for example,[459]

$$EtOCH_2Cl + Mg \xrightarrow[-30^\circ C]{THF \text{ or } CH_2(OMe)_2} EtOCH_2MgCl$$

because such reagents immediately undergo a elimination (see 12-37) at room temperature in ether solution.

Because Grignard reagents react with water (12-23) and with oxygen (12-24), it is generally best to prepare them in an anhydrous nitrogen atmosphere. Grignard reagents are generally neither isolated nor stored; solutions of Grignard reagents are used directly for the required synthesis. Grignard reagents can also be prepared in benzene or toluene, if a tertiary amine is added to complex with the RMgX.[460] This method eliminates the need for an ether solvent. With certain primary alkyl halides it is even possible to prepare alkylmagnesium compounds in hydrocarbon solvents in the absence of an organic base.[461] It is also possible to obtain Grignard reagents in powdered form, by complexing them with the chelating agent tris(3,6-dioxaheptyl)amine, $N(CH_2CH_2OCH_2CH_2OCH_3)_3$.[462]

Next to the formation of Grignard reagents, the most important application of this reaction is the conversion of alkyl and aryl halides to organolithium compounds,[463] but it has also been carried out with many other metals, (e.g., Na, Be, Zn, Hg, As, Sb, and Sn). With sodium, the Wurtz reaction (10-93) is an important side reaction. In some cases, where the reaction between a halide and a metal is too slow, an alloy of the metal with potassium or sodium can be used instead. The most important example is the preparation of tetraethyl lead from ethyl bromide and a Pb–Na alloy.

The efficiency of the reaction can often be improved by use of the metal in its powdered[464] or vapor[465] form. These techniques have permitted the preparation of some organometallic compounds that cannot be prepared by the standard procedures. Among the metals produced in an activated form are Mg,[466] Ca,[467] Zn,[468] Al, Sn, Cd,[469] Ni, Fe, Ti, Cu,[470] Pd, and Pt.[471]

The mechanism of Grignard reagent formation involves free radicals,[472] and there is much evidence for this, from CIDNP (p. 240)[473] and from stereochemical, rate, and product studies.[474] Further evidence is that free radicals have been trapped,[475] and that experiments that studied the intrinsic reactivity of MeBr on a magnesium single-crystal surface showed that Grignard reagent formation does not take place by a single-step insertion mechanism.[476] The following SET mechanism has been proposed:[473]

$$\mathrm{R\text{-}X + \bar{M}g \longrightarrow R{-}X^{\bullet -} + Mg_s^{\bullet +}}$$

$$\mathrm{R{-}X^{\bullet -} \longrightarrow R^{\bullet} + X^{-}}$$

$$\mathrm{X^{-} + Mg_s^{\bullet +} \longrightarrow XMg_s^{\bullet}}$$

$$\mathrm{R^{\bullet} + XMg_s^{\bullet} \longrightarrow RMgX}$$

The species $R{-}X^{-\cdot}$ and $Mg^{+\cdot}$ are radical ions.[477] The subscript "s" is meant to indicate that the species so marked are bound to the surface of the magnesium. Its is known that this is a surface reaction.[478] It has been suggested that some of the R· radicals diffuse from the magnesium surface into the solution and then return to the surface to react with the XMg·. There is evidence both for[479] and against[480] this suggestion. Another proposal is that the fourth step is not the one shown here, but

that the $R\cdot$ is reduced by Mg^+ to the carbanion R^-, which combines with MgX^+ to give RMgX.[481]

There are too many preparations of Grignard reagents in *Organic Syntheses* for us to list here. Use of the reaction to prepare other organometallic compounds can be found in OS I, 228; II, 184, 517, 607; III, 413, 757; VI, 240; VII, 346; VIII, 505. The preparation of unsolvated butylmagnesium bromide is described at OS V, 1141. The preparation of highly reactive (powdered) magnesium is given at OS VI, 845.

12-37 *Replacement of a Halogen by a Metal from an Organometallic Compound*

METALLO-DE-HALOGENATION

$$RX + R'M \longrightarrow RM + R'X$$

The exchange reaction between halides and organometallic compounds is almost entirely limited to the cases where M is lithium and X is bromide or iodide,[482] though it has been shown to occur with magnesium.[483] The R' group is usually, though not always, alkyl, and often butyl; R is usually aromatic.[484] Alkyl halides are generally not reactive enough, while allylic and benzylic halides usually give Wurtz coupling. Of course, the R that becomes bonded to the halogen is the one for which RH is the weaker acid. Vinylic halides react with retention of configuration.[485] The reaction can be used to prepare α-halo organolithium and α-halo organomagnesium compounds,[486] for example,[487]

$$CCl_4 + BuLi \xrightarrow[105°C]{THF} Cl_2C{-}Li$$

Such compounds can also be prepared by hydrogen-metal exchange, for example,[488]

$$BR_3CH + i\text{-}PrMgCl \xrightarrow[-95°C]{THF\text{-}HMPA} Br_3C{-}MgCl + C_3H_8$$

This is an example of 12-20. However, these α-halo organometallic compounds are stable (and configurationally stable as well[489]) only at low temperatures ($\approx -100°C$) and only in THF or mixtures of THF and other solvents (e.g., HMPA). At ordinary temperatures they lose MX (a elimination) to give carbenes (which then react further) or carbenoid reactions. The α-chloro-α-magnesio sulfones, $ArSO_2CH(Cl)MgBr$, are exceptions, being stable in solution at room temperature and even under reflux.[490] Compounds in which a halogen and a transition metal are on the same carbon can be more stable than the ones with lithium.[491]

There is evidence that the mechanism[492] of the reaction of alkyllithium compounds with alkyl and aryl iodides involves free radicals.[493]

$$RX + R'M \rightleftharpoons \underbrace{[R\cdot, X, M, R'\cdot]}_{\text{Solvent cage}} \rightleftharpoons RM + R'X$$

Among the evidence is the fact that coupling and disproportionation products are obtained from R· and R′· and the observation of CIDNP.[494] However, in the degenerate exchange between PhI and PhLi the ate complex $Ph_2I^-\ Li^+$ has been shown to be an intermediate,[495] and there is other evidence that radicals are not involved in all instances of this reaction.[496]

In a completely different kind of process, alkyl halides can be converted to certain organometallic compounds by treatment with organometallate ions, for example,

$$RX + R'_3SnLi \longrightarrow RSnR'_3 + LiX$$

Most of the evidence is in accord with a free-radical mechanism involving electron transfer, though an S_N2 mechanism can compete under some conditions.[497]

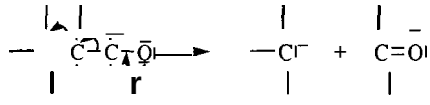
OS **VI,** 82; **VII,** 271, 326, 495; **VIII,** 430. See also OS **VII,** 512; **VIII,** 479.

Carbon Leaving Groups

In these reactions **(12-38-12-46)** a carbon-carbon bond cleaves. We regard as the substrate that side that retains the electron pair; hence the reactions are considered electrophilic substitutions. The incoming group is hydrogen in all but one **(12-40)** of the cases. The reactions in groups A and B are sometimes called *anionic cleavages*,[498] though they do not always occur by mechanisms involving free carbanions (S_E1). When they do, the reactions are facilitated by increasing stability of the carbanion.

A. *Carbonyl-Forming Cleavages*

These reactions follow the pattern



The leaving group is stabilized because the electron deficiency at its carbon is satisfied by a pair of electrons from the oxygen. With respect to the leaving group the reaction is elimination to form a C=O bond. Retrograde aldol reactions **(16-38)** and cleavage of cyanohydrins **(16-51)** belong to this classification but are treated in Chapter 16 under their more important reverse reactions. Other eliminations to form C=O bonds are discussed in Chapter 17 **(17-34).**

12-38 *Decarboxylation of Aliphatic Acids*

HYDRO-DE-CARBOXYLATION

$$RCOOH \longrightarrow RH + CO_2$$

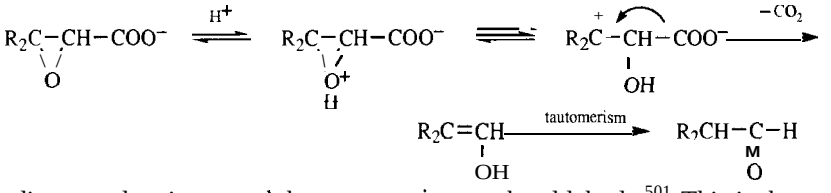
Many carboxylic acids can be successfully decarboxylated, either as the free acid or in the salt form, but not simple fatty acids.[499] An exception is acetic acid, which as

TABLE **12.2** Some **Acids that Undergo Decarboxylation Fairly Readily**"

	Acid Type	Decarboxylation Product
Malonic	HOOC−C(H)(−)−COOH	HOOC−C(H)(−)−H
α-Cyano	NC−C(H)(−)−COOH	NC-C(H)(−)-H or HOOC-C(H)(−)-H
α-Nitro	O_2N−C(H)(−)−COOH	O_2N−C(H)(−)−H
α-Aryl	Ar−C(H)(−)−COOH	Ar-C(H)(−)-H
α,α,α-Trihalo	X3C-COOH	X_3C−H
β-Keto	−C(=O)−C(H)(−)−COOH	−C(=O)−C(H)(−)−H
β,γ-Unsaturated	−C=C−C(H)(−)−COOH	−C=C−C(H)(−)−H

"Other are described in the text.

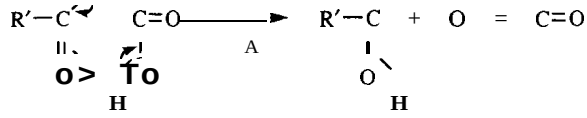
the acetate, heated with base, gives good yields of methane. Aliphatic acids that do undergo successful decarboxylation have certain functional groups or double or triple bonds in the α or (3 position. Some of these are shown in Table 12.2. For decarboxylation of aromatic acids, see 11-38. Decarboxylation of an α-cyano acid can give a nitrile or a carboxylic acid, since the cyano group may or may not be hydrolyzed in the course of the reaction. In addition to the compounds listed in Table 12.2, decarboxylation can also be carried out on α,β-unsaturated and α,β-acetylenic acids. α,β-Unsaturated acids can also be decarboxylated with copper and quinoline in a manner similar to that discussed in 11-38. Glycidic acids give aldehydes on decarboxylation. The following mechanism has been suggested:[500]



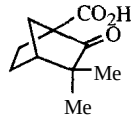
The direct product is an enol that tautomerizes to the aldehyde.[501] This is the usual last step in the Darzens reaction (16-45).

Decarboxylations can be regarded as reversals of the addition of carbanions to carbon dioxide (16-33), but free carbanions are not always involved.[502] When the carboxylate *ion* is decarboxylated, the mechanism can be either S_E1 or S_E2. In the

case of the S_E1 mechanism, the reaction is of course aided by the presence of electron-withdrawing groups, which stabilize the carbanion.[503] Decarboxylations of carboxylate ions can be accelerated by the addition of a suitable crown ether, which in effect removes the metallic ion.[504] The reaction without the metallic ion has also been performed in the gas phase.[505] But some acids can also be decarboxylated directly and, in most of these cases, there is a cyclic, six-center mechanism:

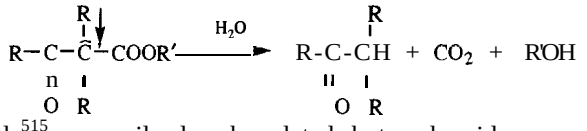


Here too there is an enol that tautomerizes to the product. The mechanism is illustrated for the case of (3-keto acids,[506] but it is likely that malonic acids, α-cyano acids, α-nitro acids, and β,γ-unsaturated acids[507] behave similarly, since similar six-membered transition states can be written for them. Some α,β-unsaturated acids are also decarboxylated by this mechanism by isomerizing to the p,y-isomers before



29

they actually decarboxylate.[508] Evidence is that 29 and similar bicyclic P-keto acids resist decarboxylation.[509] In such compounds, the six-membered cyclic transition state cannot form for steric reasons, and if it could, formation of the intermediate enol would violate Bredt's rule (p. 188).[510] Some carboxylic acids that cannot form a six-membered transition state can still be decarboxylated, and these presumably react through an S_E1 or S_E2 mechanism.[511] Further evidence for the cyclic mechanism is that the reaction rate varies very little with a change from a nonpolar to a polar solvent (even from benzene to water[512]), and is not subject to acid catalysis.[513] The rate of decarboxylation of a p,y-unsaturated acid was increased $\sim 10^5$–10^6 times by introduction of a p-methoxy group, indicating that the cyclic transition state has dipolar character.[514]



(3-Keto acids[515] are easily decarboxylated, but such acids are usually prepared from P-keto esters, and the esters are easily decarboxylated themselves on hydrolysis without isolation of the acids.[516] This decarboxylation of p-keto esters involving cleavage on the carboxyl side of the substituted methylene group (arrow) is carried out under acidic, neutral, or slightly basic conditions to yield a ketone. When strongly basic conditions are used, cleavage occurs on the other side of the CR_2 group (12-41). (3-Keto esters can be decarbalkoxylated without passing through the

free-acid stage by treatment with boric anhydride B_2O_3 at 150°C.[517] The alkyl portion of the ester (R') is converted to an alkene or, if it lacks a (3 hydrogen, to an ether R'OR'. Another method for the decarbalkoxylation of (3-keto esters, malonic esters, and α-cyano esters consists of heating the substrate in wet DMSO containing NaCl, Na_3PO_4, or some other simple salt.[518] In this method too, the free acid is probably not an intermediate, but here the alkyl portion of the substrate is converted to the corresponding alcohol. Ordinary carboxylic acids, containing no activating groups, can be decarboxylated by conversion to esters of *N*-hydroxypyridine-2-thione and treatment of these with Bu_3SnH.[519] A free-radical mechanism is likely. α-Amino acids have been decarboxylated by treatment with a catalytic amount of 2-cyclohexenone.[520] Certain decarboxylations can also be accomplished photochemically.[521] See also the decarbonylation of acyl halides, mentioned in **14-39.** In some cases, decarboxylations can give organometallic compounds: RCOOM → RM + CO_2.[522]

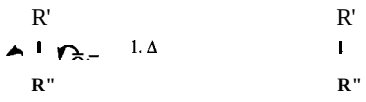
Some of the decarboxylations listed in *Organic Syntheses* are performed with concomitant ester or nitrile hydrolysis and others are simple decarboxylations.

With ester or nitrile hydrolysis: OS **I,** 290, 451, 523; **II,** 200, 391; **III,** 281, 286, 313, 326, 510, 513, 591; **IV,** 55, 93, 176, 441, 664, 708, 790, 804; **V,** 76, 288, 572, 687, 989; **VI,** 615, 781, 873, 932; **VII,** 50, 210, 319; **VIII,** 263.

Simple decarboxylations: OS **I,** 351, 401, 440, 473, 475; **II,** 21, 61, 93, 229, 302, 333, 368, 416, 474, 512, 523; **III,** 213, 425, 495, 705, 733, 783; **IV,** 234, 254, 278, 337, 555, 560, 597, 630, 731, 857; V, 251, 585; **VI,** 271, 965; **VII,** 249, 359; **VIII,** 235, 444, 536; 75, 195. Also see OS IV, 633.

12-39 *Cleavage of Alkoxides*

HYDRO-DE-(α-OXIDOALKYL)-SUBSTITUTION



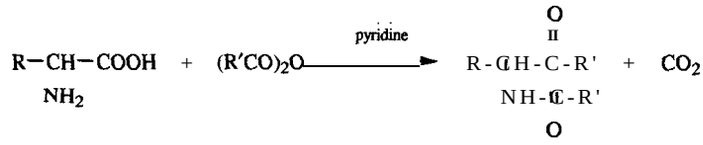
Alkoxides of tertiary alcohols can be cleaved in a reaction that is essentially the reverse of addition of carbanions to ketones (16-27).[523] The reaction is unsuccessful when the R groups are simple unbranched alkyl groups (e.g., the alkoxide of triethylcarbinol). Cleavage is accomplished with branched alkoxides such as the alkoxides of diisopropylneopentylcarbinol or tri-*tert*-butylcarbinol.[524] Allylic,[525] benzylic,[526] and aryl groups also cleave; for example, the alkoxide of triphenylcarbinol gives benzene and benzophenone. Studies in the gas phase show that the cleavage is a simple one, giving the carbanion and ketone directly in one step.[527] However, with some substrates in solution, substantial amounts of dimer R—R have been found, indicating a radical pathway.[528] Hindered alcohols (not the alkoxides) also lose one R group by cleavage, also by a radical pathway.[529]

The reaction has been used for extensive mechanistic studies (see p. 764).

OS **VI,** 268.

12-40 *Replacement of a Carboxyl Group by an Acyl Group*

ACYL-DE-CARBOXYLATION

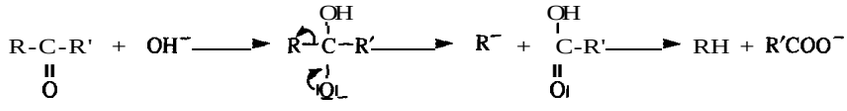


When an α-amino acid is treated with an anhydride in the presence of pyridine, the carboxyl group is replaced by an acyl group and the NH_2 becomes acylated. This is called the *Dakin-West reaction.*[530] The mechanism involves formation of an oxazolone.[531] The reaction sometimes takes place on carboxylic acids even when an amino group is not present. A number of N-substituted amino acids, RCH(NHR')COOH, give the corresponding N-alkylated products.

OS IV, 5; V, 27.

B. *Acyl Cleavages*

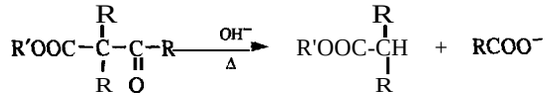
In these reactions (12-41-12-44), a carbonyl group is attacked by a hydroxide ion (or amide ion) giving an intermediate that undergoes cleavage to a carboxylic acid (or an amide). With respect to the leaving group, this is nucleophilic substitution at a carbonyl group and the mechanism is the tetrahedral one discussed in Chapter 10.



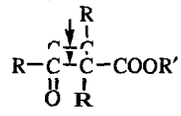
With respect to R this is of course electrophilic substitution. The mechanism is usually S_E1.

12-41 *Basic Cleavage of* P-Keto Esters and P-Diketones

HYDRO-DE-ACYLATION

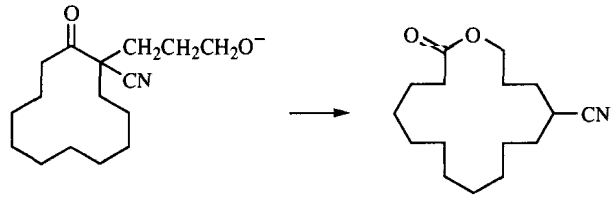


When P-keto esters are treated with concentrated base, cleavage occurs, but is on the keto side of the CR_2 group (arrow) in contrast to the acid cleavage mentioned on page 810. The products are a carboxylic ester and the salt of an acid. However, the



utility of the reaction is somewhat limited by the fact that decarboxylation is a side reaction, even under basic conditions. P-Diketones behave similarly to give a ketone and the salt of a carboxylic acid. With both p-keto esters and p-diketones, OEt^- can be used instead of OH^-, in which case the ethyl esters of the corresponding acids are

obtained instead of the salts. In the case of |3-keto esters, this is the reverse of Claisen condensation (**10-118**). The similar cleavage of cyclic α-cyano ketones, in an intramolecular fashion, has been used to effect a synthesis of macrocyclic lactones, for example,[532]



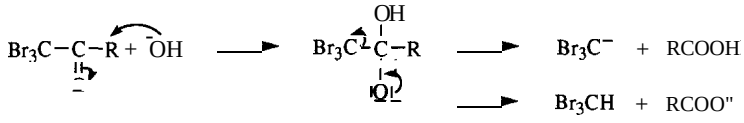
Activated F^- (from KF and a crown ether) has been used as the base to cleave an α-cyano ketone.[533]

OS **II,** 266, 531; **III,** 379; IV, 415, 957; V, 179, 187, 277, 533, 747, 767.

12-42 *Haloform Reaction*

$$CH_3-\underset{\underset{O}{\|}}{C}-R \xrightarrow[OH^-]{Br_2} HCBr_3 + RCOO^-$$

In the *haloform reaction,* methyl ketones (and the only methyl aldehyde, acetaldehyde) are cleaved with halogen and a base.[534] The halogen can be bromine, chlorine, or iodine. What takes place is actually a combination of two reactions. The first is an example of 12-4, in which, under the basic conditions employed, the methyl group is trihalogenated. Then the resulting trihalo ketone is attacked by hydroxide ion:[535]

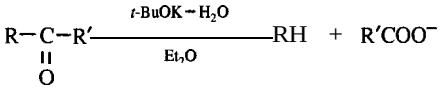


Primary or secondary methylcarbinols also give the reaction, because they are oxidized to the carbonyl compounds under the conditions employed. As with 12-4, the rate-determining step is the preliminary enolization of the methyl ketone.[536] A side reaction is α halogenation of the non-methyl R group. Sometimes these groups are also cleaved.[537] The reaction cannot be applied to F_2, but ketones of the form $RCOCF_3$ (R = alkyl or aryl) give fluoroform and RCOO when treated with base.[538] Rate constants for cleavage of X_3CCOPh (X = F, Cl, Br) were found to be in the ratio 1:5.3 x 10^{10}: 2.2 x 10^{13}, showing that an F_3C^- group cleaves much more slowly than the others.[539] The haloform reaction is often used as a test for methylcarbinols and methyl ketones. Iodine is most often used as the test reagent, since iodoform is an easily identifiable yellow solid. The reaction is also frequently used for synthetic purposes. Methyl ketones ($RCOCH_3$) can be converted directly to methyl esters ($RCOOCH_3$) by an electrochemical reaction.[540] Trifluoromethyl ketones have been converted to ethyl esters via treatment with NaH in aqueous DMF followed by reaction with bromoethane.[541]

OS I, 526; **II,** 428; **III,** 302; IV, 345; V, 8. Also see OS VI, 618.

12-43 *Cleavage of Non-enolizable Ketones*

HYDRO-DE-ACYLATION

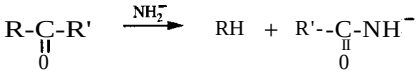


Ordinary ketones are generally much more difficult to cleave than trihalo ketones or p-diketones, because the carbanion intermediates in these cases are more stable than simple carbanions. However, nonenolizable ketones can be cleaved by treatment with a 10:3 mixture of *t*-BuOK–H_2O in an aprotic solvent such as ether, dimethyl sulfoxide, 1,2-dimethoxyethane (glyme), and so on,[542] or with solid *t*-BuOK in the absence of a solvent.[543] When the reaction is applied to mono substituted diaryl ketones, that aryl group preferentially cleaves that comes off as the more stable carbanion, except that aryl groups substituted in the ortho position are more readily cleaved than otherwise because of the steric effect (relief of stain).[544] In certain cases, cyclic ketones can be cleaved by base treatment, even if they are enolizable.[545]

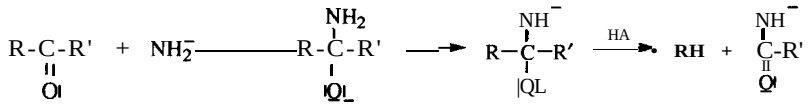
OS VI, 625. See also OS **VII,** 297.

12-44 *The Haller–Bauer Reaction*

HYDRO-DE-ACYLATION



Cleavage of ketones with sodium amide is called the *Haller-Bauer reaction.*[546] As with **12-43,** which is exactly analogous, the reaction is usually applied only to nonenolizable ketones, most often to ketones of the form $ArCOCR_3$, where the products R3CCONH2 are not easily attainable by other methods. However, many other ketones have been used, though benzophenone is virtually unaffected. It has been shown that the configuration of optically active alkyl groups (R) is retained.[547] The NH_2 loses its proton before the R group is cleaved:[548]

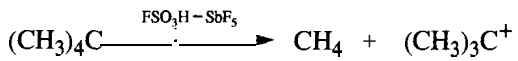


OS V, 384, 1074.

C. *Other Cleavages*

12-45 *The Cleavage of Alkanes*

HYDRO-DE-TERT-BUTYLATION, AND SO ON



The C–C bonds of alkanes can be cleaved by treatment with superacids[47] (p. 219). For example, neopentane in FSO_3H–SbF_5 can cleave to give methane and the *tert*-butyl cation. The C–H cleavage (see 12-1) is a competing reaction and, for example, neopentane can give H_2 and the *tert*-pentyl cation (formed by rearrangement of the initially formed neopentyl cation) by this pathway. In general, the order of reactivity is tertiary C–H > C–C > secondary C–H ≫ primary C–H, though steric factors cause a shift in favor of C–C cleavage in such a hindered compound as tri-*tert*-butylmethane. The mechanism is similar to that shown in 12-1 and 12-17 and involves attack by H^+ on the C–C bond to give a pentavalent cation.

Catalytic hydrogenation seldom breaks unactivated C–C bonds (i.e., $R{-}R' + H_2 \rightarrow RH + R'H$), but methyl and ethyl groups have been cleaved from substituted adamantanes by hydrogenation with a Ni-Al_2O_3 catalyst at about 250°C.[549] Certain C–C bonds have been cleaved by alkali metals.[550]

12-46 *Decyanation or Hydro-de-cyanation*

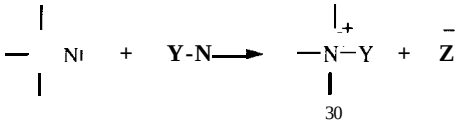
$$RCN \xrightarrow{Na\text{-}NH_3 \text{ or } Na\text{—}Fe(acac)_3} RH$$

The cyano group of alkyl nitriles can be removed[551] by treatment with metallic sodium, either in liquid ammonia,[552] or together with tris(acetylacetonato)iron(III), that is i.e., $Fe(acac)_3$[553] or, with lower yields, titanocene. The two procedures are complementary. Although both can be used to decyanate many kinds of nitriles, the Na–NH_3 method gives high yields with R groups such as trityl, benzyl, phenyl, and tertiary alkyl, but lower yields (≈35-50%) when R = primary or secondary alkyl. On the other hand, primary and secondary alkyl nitriles are decyanated in high yields by the Na–$Fe(acac)_3$ procedure. Sodium in liquid ammonia is known to be a source of solvated electrons, and the reaction may proceed through the free radical R·, which would then be reduced to the carbanion R^-, which by abstraction of a proton from the solvent, would give RH. The mechanism with $Fe(acac)_3$ is presumably different. Another procedure,[554] which is successful for R = primary, secondary, or tertiary, involves the use of potassium metal and the crown ether dicyclohexano-18-crown-6 in toluene.[555]

α-Amino and α-amido nitriles, $RCH(CN)NR_2'$ and $RCH(CN)NHCOR'$, can be decyanated in high yield by treatment with $NaBH_4$.[556]

Electrophilic Substitution at Nitrogen

In most of the reactions in this section, an electrophile bonds with the unshared pair of a nitrogen atom. The electrophile may be a free positive ion or a positive species attached to a carrier that breaks off in the course of the attack or shortly after:



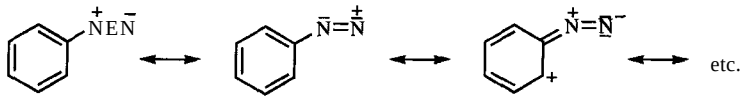
30

Further reaction of 30 depends on the nature of Y and of the other groups attached to the nitrogen.

12-47 *Diazotization*

$$Ar-NH_2 + HONO \longrightarrow Ar-\overset{+}{N}\equiv\bar{N}$$

When primary aromatic amines are treated with nitrous acid, diazonium salts are formed.[557] The reaction also occurs with aliphatic primary amines, but aliphatic diazonium ions are extremely unstable, even in solution (see p. 448). Aromatic diazonium ions are more stable, because of the resonance interaction between the nitrogens and the ring:



31 **32**

Incidentally, **31** contributes more to the hybrid than **32,** as shown by bond-distance measurements.[558] In benzenediazonium chloride, the C–N distance is $\approx$ 1.42 Å, and the N–N distance $\approx$ 1.08 Å,[559] which values fit more closely to a single and a triple bond than to two double bonds (see Table 1.5). Even aromatic diazonium salts are stable only at low temperatures, usually only below 5°C, though more stable ones, such as the diazonium salt obtained from sulfanilic acid, are stable up to 10 or 15°C. Diazonium salts are usually prepared in aqueous solution and used without isolation,[560] though it is possible to prepare solid diazonium salts if desired (see **13-20).** The stability of aryl diazonium salts can be increased by crown ether complexion.[561]

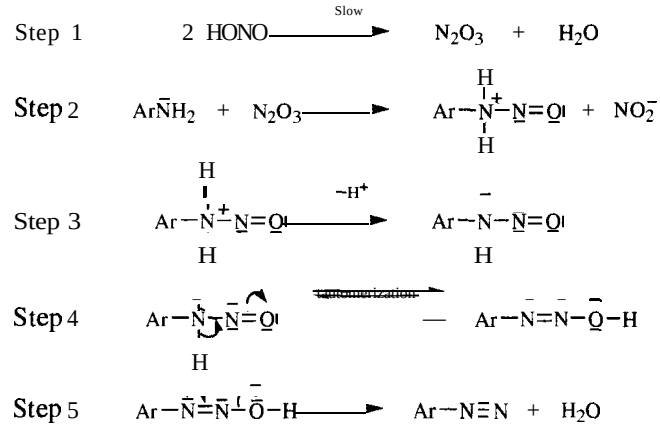
For aromatic amines, the reaction is very general. Halogen, nitro, alkyl, aldehyde, sulfonic acid, and so on, groups do not interfere. Since aliphatic amines do not react with nitrous acid below a pH of ~ 3, it is even possible, by working at a pH of ~ 1, to diazotize an aromatic amine without disturbing an aliphatic amino group in the same molecule.[562]

$$EtOOC-CH_2-NH_2 + HONO \longrightarrow EtOOC-CH=\overset{+}{N}=\bar{N}$$

If an aliphatic amino group is to a COOR, CN, CHO, COR, and so on, and has an a hydrogen, treatment with nitrous acid gives not a diazonium salt, but a *diazo compound.*[563] Such diazo compounds can also be prepared, often more conveniently, by treatment of the substrate with isoamyl nitrite and a small amount of acid.[564] Certain heterocyclic amines also give diazo compounds rather than diazonium salts.[565]

Despite the fact that diazotization takes place in acid solution, the actual species attacked is not the salt of the amine, but the small amount of free amine present.[566] It is because aliphatic amines are stronger bases than aromatic ones that at pH values below 3 there is not enough free amine present for the former to be diazotized, while the latter still undergo the reaction. In dilute acid the actual attacking species is N_2O_3, which acts as a carrier of NO^+. Evidence is that the reaction is second order

in nitrous acid and, at sufficiently low acidities, the amine does not appear in the rate expression.[567] Under these conditions the mechanism is

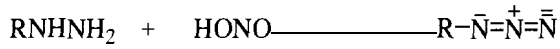


There exists other evidence for this mechanism.[568] Other attacking species can be N0C1, $H_2NO_2^+$, and at high acidities even NO^+. Nucleophiles (e.g., Cl^-, SCN^-, thiourea) catalyze the reaction by converting the HONO to a better electrophile (e.g., $HNO_2 + Cl^- + H^+ \rightarrow$ N0C1 + H_2O).[569]

There are many preparations of diazonium salts listed in *Organic Syntheses*, but they are always prepared for use in other reactions. We do not list them here, but under reactions in which they are used. The preparation of aliphatic diazo compounds can be found in OS **III,** 392; IV, 424. See also OS VI, 840.

12-48 *The Conversion of Hydrazines to Azides*

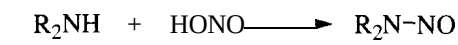
HYDRAZINE-AZIDE TRANSFORMATION



Monosubstituted hydrazines treated with nitrous acid give azides in a reaction exactly analogous to the formation of aliphatic diazo compounds mentioned in 12-**47**. Among other reagents used for this conversion have been N_2O_4[570] and nitrosyl tetrafluoroborate ($NOBF_4$).[571]

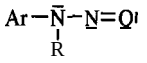
OS **III,** 710; **IV,** 819; V, 157.

12-49 *N*-Nitrosation or *N*-Nitroso-de-hydrogenation



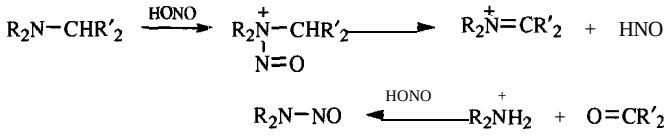
When secondary amines are treated with nitrous acid, N-nitroso compounds (also called nitrosamines) are formed.[572] The reaction can be accomplished with dialkyl-, diaryl-, or alkylarylamines, and even with mono-N-substituted amides: RCONHR'+HONO → RCON(NO)R'.[573] Tertiary amines have also been N-nitrosated, but in these cases one group cleaves, so that the product is the nitroso derivative of a secondary amine.[574] The group that cleaves appears as an aldehyde or

ketone. Other reagents have also been used, for example NOCl, which is useful for amines or amides that are not soluble in an acidic aqueous solution or where the N-nitroso compounds are highly reactive. N-Nitroso compounds can be prepared in basic solution by treatment of secondary amines with gaseous N_2O_3, N_2O_4,[575] or alkyl nitrites,[576] and, in aqueous or organic solvents, by treatment with $BrCH_2NO_2$.[577]



33

The mechanism of nitrosation is essentially the same as in **12-47** up to the point where **33** is formed. Since this species cannot lose a proton, it is stable and the reaction ends there. The attacking entity can be any of those mentioned in **12-47.** The following has been suggested as the mechanism for the reaction with tertiary amines:[578]



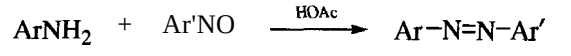
The evidence for this mechanism includes the facts that nitrous oxide is a product (formed by 2 HNO → H_2O + N_2O) and that quinuclidine, where the nitrogen is at a bridgehead, and therefore cannot give elimination, does not react. Tertiary amines have also been converted to nitrosamines with nitric acid in Ac_2O[579] and with N_2O_4.[580]

Amines and amides can be N-nitrated[581] with nitric acid,[582] or NO_2^+,[583] and aromatic amines can be converted to triazenes with diazonium salts. Aliphatic primary amines can also be converted to triazenes if the diazonium salts contain electron-withdrawing groups.[584] C-Nitrosation is discussed at **11-3** and **12-8.**

OS I, 177, 399, 417; **II,** 163, 211, 290, 460, 461, 462, 464 (also see V, 842); **III,** 106, 244; IV, 718, 780, 943; V, 336, 650, 797, 839, 962; VI, 542, 981. Also see OS **III,** 711.

12-50 *Conversion of Amines to Azo Compounds*

N-ARYLIMINO-DE-DIHYDRO-BISUBSTITUTION



Aromatic nitroso compounds combine with primary arylamines in glacial acetic acid to give symmetrical or unsymmetrical azo compounds (the *Mills reaction*).[585] A wide variety of substituents may be present in both aryl groups. Unsymmetrical azo compounds have also been prepared by the reaction between aromatic nitro compounds $ArNO_2$ and N-acyl aromatic amines Ar′NHAc.[586] The use of phase transfer catalysis increased the yields.

12-51 *Conversion of Nitroso Compounds to Azoxy Compounds*

$$RNO + R'NHOH \longrightarrow R-\overset{+}{N}=N-R' \quad (O^-)$$

In a reaction similar to 12-50, azoxy compounds can be prepared by the condensation of a nitroso compound with a hydroxylamine.[587] The position of the oxygen in the final product is determined by the nature of the R groups, not by which R groups came from which starting compound. Both R and R' can be alkyl or aryl, but when two different aryl groups are involved, mixtures of azoxy compounds (ArNONAr, ArNONAr', and Ar'NONAr') are obtained[588] and the unsymmetrical product (ArNONAr') is likely to be formed in the smallest amount. This behavior is probably caused by an equilibration between the starting compounds prior to the actual reaction (ArNO + Ar'NHOH → Ar'NO + ArNHOH).[589] The mechanism[590] has been investigated in the presence of base. Under these conditions both reactants are converted to radical anions, which couple:

$$ArNO + ArNHOH \longrightarrow 2\,Ar-\dot{N}(O^-) \longrightarrow Ar\text{-}N(O^-)\text{-}N(O)\text{-}Ar \xrightarrow[H_2O]{-2OH^-} Ar-\overset{+}{N}=N-Ar \quad (O^-)$$

These radical anions have been detected by ESR.[591] This mechanism is consistent with the following result: when nitrosobenzene and phenylhydroxylamine are coupled, ^{18}O and ^{15}N labeling show that the two nitrogens and the two oxygens become equivalent.[592] Unsymmetrical azoxy compounds can be prepared[593] by combination of a nitroso compound with an N,N-dibromoamine. Symmetrical and unsymmetrical azo and azoxy compounds are produced when aromatic nitro compounds react with aryliminodimagnesium reagents, $ArN(MgBr)_2$.[594]

12-52 *N-Halogenation or N-Halo-de-hydrogenation*

$$RNH_2 + NaOCl \longrightarrow RNHCl$$

Treatment with sodium hypochlorite or hypobromite converts primary amines into N-halo- or N,N-dihaloamines. Secondary amines can be converted to N-halo secondary amines. Similar reactions can be carried out on unsubstituted and N-substituted amides and on sulfonamides. With unsubstituted amides the N-halogen product is seldom isolated but usually rearranges (see 18-13); however, N-halo-N-alkyl amides and N-halo imides are quite stable. The important reagent NBS is made in this manner. N-Halogenation has also been accomplished with other reagents, (e.g., sodium bromite $NaBrO_2$)[595] benzyltrimethylammonium tribromide ($PhCH_2NMe_3^+ Br_3^-$),[596] and NCS.[597] The mechanisms of these reactions[598] involve attack by a positive halogen and are probably similar to those of 12-47 and 12-49.[599] N-Fluorination can be accomplished by direct treatment of amines[600] or

amides[601] with F_2. Fluorination of N-alkyl-N-fluoro amides results in cleavage to N,N-difluoroamines.[602]

$$\text{RNFCOR}' \xrightarrow{F_2} \text{RNF}_2$$

OS **HI,** 159; **IV,** 104, 157; V, 208, 663, 909; **VI,** 968; **VII,** 223; **VIII,** 167, 427.

12-53 *The Reaction of Amines With Carbon Monoxide or Carbon Dioxide*

N-FORMYLATION OR **N-FORMYL-DE-HYDROGENATION,** AND SO ON

$$\text{RNH}_2 + \text{CO} \xrightarrow{\text{catalyst}} \text{RNH-C-H (O)} \text{ or } \text{RNH-C-NHR (O)} \text{ or } \text{RNCO}$$

Three types of product can be obtained from the reaction of amines with carbon monoxide, depending on the catalyst. (1) Both primary and secondary amines react with CO in the presence of various catalysts [e.g., $Cu(CN)_2$, Me_3N– H_2Se, rhodium or ruthenium complexes] to give N-substituted and N,N-disubstituted formamides, respectively.[603] Tertiary amines react with CO and a palladium catalyst to give an amide.[604] (2) Symmetrically substituted ureas can be prepared by treatment of a primary amine (or ammonia) with CO in the presence of selenium[605] or sulfur.[606] The R group can be alkyl or aryl. The same thing can be done with secondary amines, by using $Pd(OAc)_2$–I_2– K2CO3.[607] (3) When $PdCl_2$ is the catalyst, primary amines yield isocyanates.[608] Isocyanates can also be obtained by treatment of CO with azides: RN3 + CO → RNCO,[609] or with an aromatic nitroso or nitro compound and a rhodium complex catalyst.[610] A fourth type of product, a carbamate RNHCOOR', can be obtained from primary or secondary amines, if these are treated with CO, O_2, and an alcohol R'OH in the presence of a catalyst.[611] Carbamates can also be obtained from nitroso compounds, by treatment with CO, R'OH, $Pd(OAc)_2$, and $Cu(OAc)_2$,[612] and from nitro compounds.[613] When allylic amines $R_2C{=}CHR$-$CHRNR'_2$ are treated with CO and a palladium–phosphine catalyst, the CO inserts to produce the |3,y-unsaturated amides $R_2C{=}CHRCHRCONR_2'$ in good yields.[614] Ring-expanded lactams are obtained from cyclic amines via a similar reaction.[615] See also **16-18.**

Carbon dioxide reacts with amines ($ArNH_2$) and iodoethane, under electrolysis conditions, to give the corresponding carbamate, ($ArNHCO_2Et$).[616] Urea derivatives were obtained from amines, CO_2, and an antimony catalyst.[617]

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[4] The names for these mechanisms vary throughout the literature. For example, the S_Ei mechanism has also been called the S_F2, the S_E2 (closed), and the S_E2 (cyclic) mechanism. The original designations, S_E1, S_E2, and so on, were devised by the Hughes–Ingold school.

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CHAPTER 13

Aromatic Nucleophilic Substitution

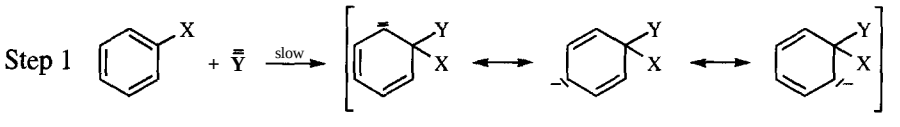
On page 433 it was pointed out that nucleophilic substitutions proceed so slowly at an aromatic carbon that the reactions of Chapter 10 are not feasible for aromatic substrates. There are, however, exceptions to this statement, and it is these exceptions that form the subject of this chapter.[1] Reactions that *are* successful at an aromatic substrate are largely of four kinds: (1) reactions activated by electron-withdrawing groups ortho and para to the leaving group; (2) reactions catalyzed by very strong bases and proceeding through aryne intermediates; (3) reactions initiated by electron donors; and (4) reactions in which the nitrogen of a diazonium salt is replaced by a nucleophile. However, not all the reactions discussed in this chapter fit into these categories.

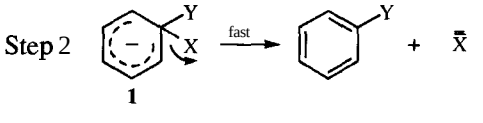
MECHANISMS

There are four principal mechanisms for aromatic nucleophilic substitution.[2] Each of the four is similar to one of the aliphatic nucleophilic substitution mechanisms discussed in Chapter 10.

The S_NAr Mechanism

By far, the most important mechanism for nucleophilic aromatic substitution consists of two steps:





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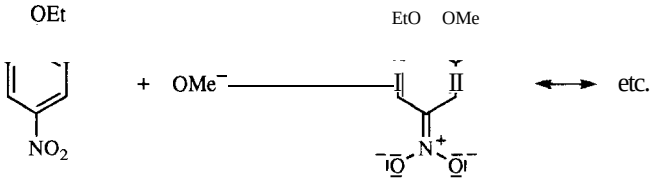
The first step is usually, but not always, rate determining. It can be seen that this mechanism greatly resembles the tetrahedral mechanism discussed in Chapter 10 and, in another way, the arenium ion mechanism of electrophilic aromatic substitution. In all three cases, the attacking species forms a bond with the

substrate, giving an intermediate, and then the leaving group departs. We refer to this mechanism as the S_NAr mechanism.[3] The IUPAC designation is $A_N + D_N$ (the same as for the tetrahedral mechanism; cf. the designation $A_E + D_E$ for the arenium ion mechanism). This mechanism is generally found where activating groups are present on the ring (see p. 857).

There is a great deal of evidence for the mechanism; we shall discuss only some of it.[2] Probably the most convincing evidence was the isolation, as long ago as 1902, of the intermediate 2 in the reaction between 2,4,6-trinitrophenetole and methoxide ion.[4] Intermediates of this type are stable salts, called *Meisenheimer* or *Meisenheimer–Jackson salts,* and many more have been isolated since 1902.[5] The structures of several of these intermediates have been proved by NMR[6] and by



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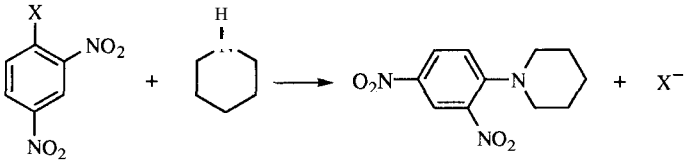
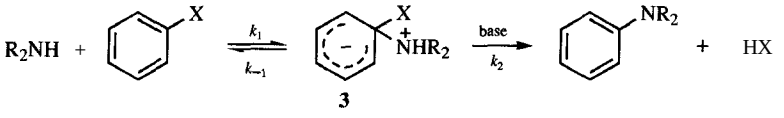
X-ray crystallography.[7] Further evidence comes from studies of the effect of the leaving group on the reaction. If the mechanism were similar to either the S_N1 or S_N2 mechanisms described in Chapter 10, the Ar—X bond would be broken in the rate-determining step. In the S_NAr mechanism, this bond is not broken until after the rate-determining step (i.e., if step 1 is rate determining). There is some evidence that electron transfer may be operative during this process.[8] We would predict from this that if the S_NAr mechanism is operating, a change in leaving group should not have much effect on the reaction rate. In the reaction when X was Cl, Br, I, SOPh, SO_2Ph,



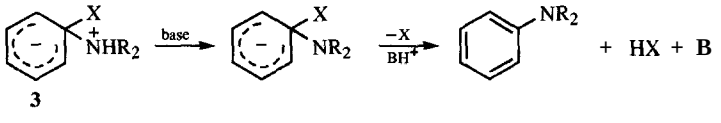
or *p*-nitrophenoxy, the rates differed only by a factor of ~ 5.[9] This behavior would not be expected in a reaction in which the Ar–X bond is broken in the rate-determining step. We do not expect the rates to be *identical,* because the nature of X affects the rate at which Y attacks. An increase in the electronegativity of X causes a decrease in the electron density at the site of attack, resulting in a faster attack by a nucleophile. Thus, in the reaction just mentioned, when X = F, the relative rate was 3300 (compared with I = 1). The very fact that fluoro is the best leaving group among the halogens in most aromatic nucleophilic substitutions is good evidence that the mechanism is different from the S_N1 and the S_N2 mechanisms, where fluoro is by far the poorest leaving group of the halogens. This is an example of the element effect (p. 429).

The pattern of base catalysis of reactions with amine nucleophiles provides additional evidence. These reactions are catalyzed by bases only when a relatively

poor leaving group (such as OR) is present (not Cl or Br) and only when relatively bulky amines are nucleophiles.[10] Bases could not catalyze step 1, but if amines are nucleophiles, bases can catalyze step 2. Base catalysis is found precisely in those cases where the amine moiety cleaves easily but X does not, so that k_{-1} is large and step 2 is rate determining. This is evidence for the S_NAr mechanism because it implies two steps. Furthermore, in cases where bases *are* catalysts, they catalyze only at low base concentrations: A plot of the rate against the base concentration

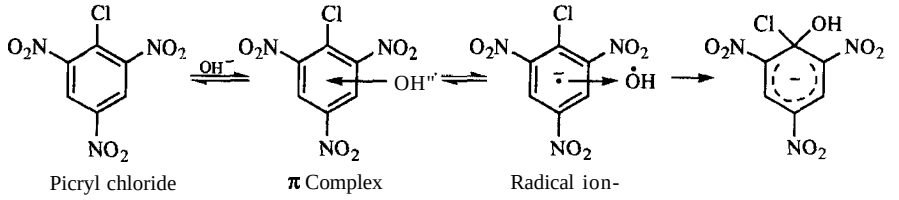


shows that small increments of base rapidly increase the rate until a certain concentration of base is reached, after which further base addition no longer greatly affects the rate. This behavior, based on a partitioning effect (see p. 677), is also evidence for the S_NAr mechanism. At low base concentration, each increment of base, by increasing the rate of step 2, increases the fraction of intermediate that goes to product rather than reverting to reactants. At high base concentration, the process is virtually complete: there is very little reversion to reactants and the rate becomes dependent on step 1. Just how bases catalyze step 2 has been investigated. For protic solvents two proposals have been presented. One is that step 2 consists of two steps: rate-determining deprotonation of 3 followed by rapid loss of X, and that bases catalyze the reaction by increasing the rate of the deprotonation step.[11] According



to the other proposal, loss of X assisted by BH^+ is rate determining.[12] Two mechanisms, both based on kinetic evidence, have been proposed for aprotic solvents such as benzene. In both proposals, the ordinary S_NAr mechanism operates, but in one the attacking species involves two molecules of the amine (the *dimer mechanism),*[13] while in the other there is a cyclic transition state.[14] Further evidence for the S_NAr mechanism has been obtained from $^{18}O/^{16}O$ and $^{15}N/^{14}N$ isotope effects.[15]

Step 1 of the S_NAr mechanism has been studied for the reaction between picryl chloride (as well as other substrates) and OH^- ions (13-1), and spectral evidence has been reported[16] for two intermediates, one a *n* complex (p. 679), and the other a radical ion-radical pair:

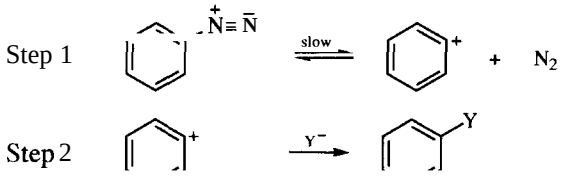


Picryl chloride — π Complex — Radical ion-Radical pair

As with the tetrahedral mechanism at an acyl carbon, nucleophilic catalysis (p. 427) has been demonstrated with an aryl substrate, in certain cases.[17]

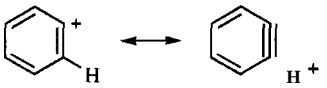
The S_N1 Mechanism

For aryl halides and sulfonates, even active ones, a unimolecular S_N1 mechanism (IUPAC: $D_N + A_N$) is very rare; it has only been observed for aryl triflates in which both ortho positions contain bulky groups (*tert*-butyl or SiR_3).[18] It is in reactions with diazonium salts[19] that this mechanism is important:[20]



Among the evidence for the S_N1 mechanism[21] with aryl cations as intermediates,[22] is the following:[23]

1. The reaction rate is first order in diazonium salt and independent of the concentration of Y.
2. When high concentrations of halide salts are added, the product is an aryl halide but the rate is independent of the concentration of the added salts.
3. The effects of ring substituents on the rate are consistent with a unimolecular rate-determining cleavage.[24]
4. When reactions were run with substrate deuterated in the ortho position, isotope effects of ~ 1.22 were obtained.[25] It is difficult to account for such high secondary isotope effects in any other way except that an incipient phenyl cation is stabilized by hyperconjugation,[26] which is reduced when hydrogen is replaced by deuterium.



5. That the first step is reversible cleavage[27] was demonstrated by the observation that when $Ar^{15}\overset{+}{N}{\equiv}N$ was the reaction species, recovered starting material contained not only $Ar^{15}\overset{+}{N}{\equiv}N$ but also $Ar^{15}\overset{+}{N}{\equiv}N$.[28] This could arise only if the nitrogen breaks away from the ring and then returns. Additional evidence was obtained by treating $Ph\overset{+}{N}{\equiv}{}^{15}N$ with unlabeled N_2 at various pressures. At 300 atm the recovered product had lost ~ 3% of the labeled nitrogen, indicating that PhN_2^+ was exchanging with atmospheric N_2.[29]

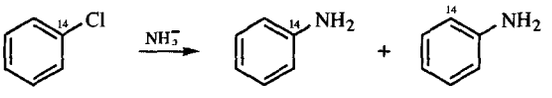
There is kinetic and other evidence[30] that step 1 is more complicated and involves two steps, both reversible:

$$ArN_2^+ \rightleftharpoons [Ar^+\ N_2] \rightleftharpoons Ar + N_2$$

Compound 4, which is probably some kind of a tight ion-molecule pair, has been trapped with carbon monoxide.[31]

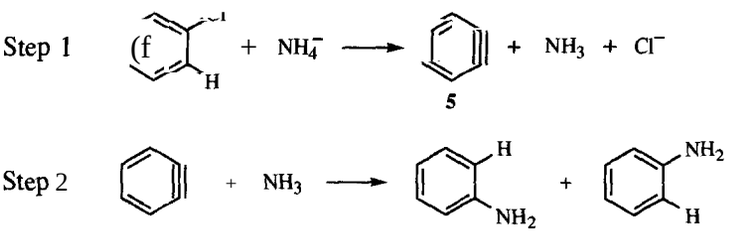
The Benzyne Mechanism[32]

Some aromatic nucleophilic substitutions are clearly different in character from those that occur by the S_NAr mechanism (or the S_N1 mechanism). These substitutions occur on aryl halides that have no activating groups; bases are required that are stronger than those normally used; and most interesting of all, the incoming group does not always take the position vacated by the leaving group. That the latter statement is true was elegantly demonstrated by the reaction of 1-^{14}C-chlorobenzene with potassium amide:



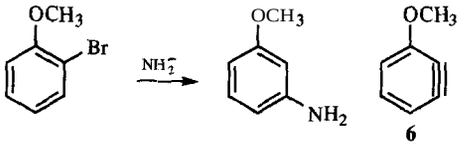
The product consisted of almost equal amounts of aniline labeled in the 1 position and in the 2 position.[33]

A mechanism that can explain all these facts involves elimination followed by addition:



The symmetrical intermediate 5 can be attacked by the NH_3 at either of two positions, which explains why about one-half of the aniline produced from the radioactive chlorobenzene was labeled at the 2 position. The fact that the 1 and 2 positions were not labeled equally is the result of a small isotope effect. Other evidence for this mechanism is the following:

1. If the aryl halide contains two ortho substituents, the reaction should not be able to occur. This is indeed the case.[31]
2. It had been known many years earlier that aromatic nucleophilic substitution occasionally results in substitution at a different position. This is called *cine substitution* and can be illustrated by the conversion of *o*-bromoanisole to *m*-aminoanisole.[34] In this particular case, only the meta isomer is formed. The

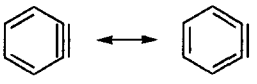


reason a 1:1 mixture is not formed is that the intermediate 6 is not symmetrical and the methoxy group directs the incoming group meta but not ortho (see p. 859). However, not all cine substitutions proceed by this kind of mechanism (see **13-21**).

3. The fact that the order of halide reactivity is Br > I > Cl > F (when the reaction is performed with KNH_2 in liquid NH_3) shows that the S_NAr mechanism is not operating here.[33]

In the conversion of the substrate to 6, either proton removal or subsequent loss of halide ion can be rate determining. In fact, the unusual leaving-group order just mentioned (Br > I > Cl) stems from a change in the rate determining step. When the leaving group is Br or I, proton removal is rate determining and the rate order for this step is F > Cl > Br > I. When Cl or F is the leaving group, cleavage of the C–X bond is rate determining and the order for this step is I > Br > Cl > F. Confirmation of the latter order was found in a direct competitive study. *m*-Dihalobenzenes in which the two halogens are different were treated with NH_2^-.[35] In such compounds, the most acidic hydrogen is the one between the two halogens; when it leaves, the remaining anion can lose either halogen. Therefore a study of which halogen is preferentially lost provides a direct measure of leaving-group ability. The order was found to be I > Br > Cl.[35]

Species such as 5 and 6 are called *benzynes* (sometimes *dehydrobenzenes*), or more generally, *arynes*, and the mechanism is known as the *benzyne mechanism.* Benzynes are very reactive. Neither benzyne nor any other aryne has yet been isolated under ordinary conditions,[36] but benzyne has been isolated in an argon matrix at 8 K,[37] where its IR spectrum could be observed. In addition, benzynes can be trapped; for example, they undergo the Diels–Alder reaction (see **15-58).** It should be noted that the extra pair of electrons does not affect the aromaticity. The



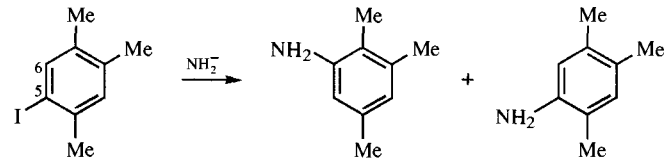
A B

original sextet still functions as a closed ring, and the two additional electrons are merely located in a π orbital that covers only two carbons. Benzynes do not have a formal triple bond, since two canonical forms (A and B) contribute to the hybrid. The IR spectrum, mentioned above, indicates that A contributes more than B. Not only benzene rings but other aromatic rings[38] and even non-aromatic rings (p. 430) can react through this kind of intermediate. Of course, the non-aromatic rings do have a formal triple bond.

The $S_{RN}1$ Mechanism

When 5-iodo-l,2,4-trimethylbenzene (7) was treated with KNH_2 in NH_3, 8 and 9 were formed in the ratio 0.63:1. From what we have already seen, the presence of an

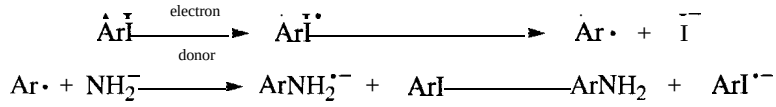
unactivated substrate, a strong base, and the occurrence of cine along with normal substitution would be strong indications of a benzyne mechanism. Yet if that were



7 8 9

so, the 6-iodo isomer of 7 should have given 8 and 9 in the same ratio (because the same aryne intermediate would be formed in both cases), but in this case the ratio of 8 to 9 was 5.9:1 (the chloro and bromo analogs did give the same ratio, 1.46:1, showing that the benzyne mechanism may be taking place there).

To explain the iodo result, it has been proposed[39] that besides the benzyne mechanism, this free radical mechanism is also operating here:



followed by termination steps

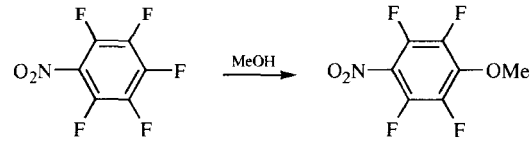
This is called the $S_{RN}1$ mechanism,[40] and many other examples are known (see **13-3**, **13-4**, **13-6**, **13-12**). The IUPAC designation is T | $D_N + A_N$.[41] Note that the last step of the mechanism produces $ArI^{\cdot -}$ radical ions, so the process is a chain mechanism (see p. 895).[42] An electron donor is required to initiate the reaction. In the case above it was solvated electrons from KNH_2 in NH_3. Evidence was that the addition of potassium metal (a good producer of solvated electrons in ammonia) completely suppressed the cine substitution. Further evidence for the $S_{RN}1$ mechanism was that addition of radical scavengers (which would suppress a free-radical mechanism) led to 8:9 ratios much closer to 1.46:1. Numerous other observations of $S_{RN}1$ mechanisms that were stimulated by solvated electrons and inhibited by radical scavengers have also been recorded.[43] Further evidence for the $S_{RN}1$ mechanism in the case above was that some 1,2,4-trimethylbenzene was found among the products. This could easily be formed by abstraction by Ar· of H from the solvent NH_3. Besides initiation by solvated electrons,[44] $S_{RN}1$ reactions have been initiated photochemically,[45] electrochemically,[46] and even thermally.[47]

The $S_{RN}1$ reactions have a fairly wide scope. The efficiency of the reaction has been traced to the energy level of the radical anion of the substitution product.[48] There is no requirement for activating groups or strong bases, but in DMSO haloarenes are less reactive as the stability of the anion increases.[49] The reaction has also been done in liquid ammonia, promoted by ultrasound (p. 456),[50] and ferrous ion has been used as a catalyst.[51] Alkyl, alkoxy, aryl, and COO^- groups do not interfere, although Me_2N, O^-, and NO_2 groups do interfere. Cine substitution is not found.

Other Mechanisms

There is no clear-cut proof that a one-step S_N2 mechanism, so important at a saturated carbon, ever actually occurs with an aromatic substrate. The hypothetical aromatic S_N2 process is sometimes called the *one-stage* mechanism to distinguish it from the *two-stage* S_NAr mechanism. A "clean" example of a $S_{RN}2$ reaction has been reported, the conversion of 10 to **11** in methanol.[52] Both the $S_{RN}1$ and $S_{RN}2$ reactions have been reviewed.[53]

Some of the reactions in this chapter operate by still other mechanisms, among them an addition-elimination mechanism (see 13-15). A new mechanism has been reported in aromatic chemistry, a reductively activated "polar" nucleophilic aromatic substitution.[54] The reaction of phenoxide with *p*-dinitrobenzene in DMF shows radical features that cannot be attributed to a radical anion, and it is not $S_{RN}2$. The new designation was proposed to account for these results.



10 **11**

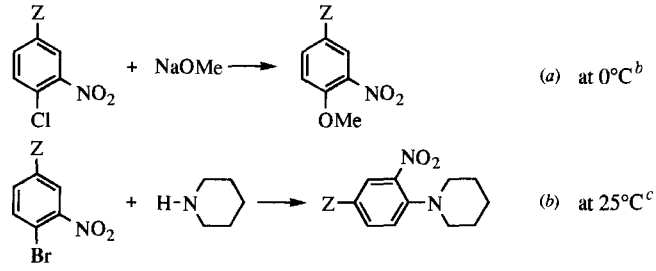
REACTIVITY

The Effect of Substrate Structure

In the discussion of electrophilic aromatic substitution (Chapter 11) equal attention was paid to the effect of substrate structure on reactivity (activation or deactivation) and on orientation. The question of orientation was important because in a typical substitution there are four or five hydrogens that could serve as leaving groups. This type of question is much less important for aromatic nucleophilic substitution, since in most cases there is only one potential leaving group in a molecule. Therefore attention is largely focused on the reactivity of one molecule compared with another and not on the comparison of the reactivity of different positions within the same molecule.

S_NAr Mechanism. These substitutions are accelerated by electron-withdrawing groups, especially in positions ortho and para to the leaving group[55] and hindered by electron-attracting groups. This is, of course, opposite to the effects of these groups on electrophilic substitutions, and the reasons are similar to those discussed in Chapter 11 (p. 677). Table 13.1[56] contains a list of groups arranged approximately in order of activating or deactivating ability. Hetero nitrogen atoms are also strongly activating (especially to the α and y positions) and are even more so when quaternized.[57] Thus 2- and

TABLE 13.1 Groups Listed in Approximate Descending Order of Activating Ability in the S_NAr Mechanism[a]



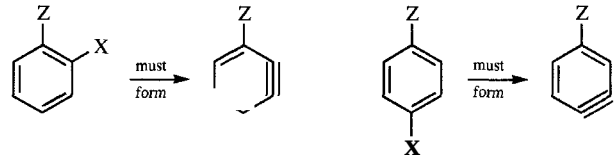
Comments[d]	Group Z	Relative Rate of Reaction (a) H = 1[e]	(b) NH_2 = 1[f]
Activates halide exchange at room temperature	N_2^+		
Activates reaction with strong nucleophiles at room temperature	$\overset{\backslash}{\underset{//}{N}}\overset{+}{-}R$ (heterocylic)		
Activate reactions with strong nucleophiles at 80–100°C	NO	5.22×10^6	
	NO_2	6.73×10^5	Very fast
	$\overset{\backslash}{\underset{//}{N}}$ (heterocylic)		
With nitro also present, activate reactions with strong nucleophiles at room temperature	SO_2Me		
	NMe_3^+		
	CF_3		
	CN	3.81×10^4	
	CHO	2.02×10^4	
With nitro also present, activate reactions with strong nucleophiles at 40–60°C	COR		
	COOH		
	SO_3^-		
	Br		6.31×10^4
	Cl		4.50×10^4
	I		4.36×10^4
	COO^-		2.02×10^4
	H		8.06×10^3
	F		2.10×10^3
	CMe_3		1.37×10^3
	Me		1.17×10^3
	OMe		145
	NMe_2		9.77
	OH		4.70
	NH_2		1

[a] For Reaction (a), the rates are relative to H and for Reaction (b) they are relative to NH_2.
[b] See Ref. 59.
[c] See Ref. 60.
[d] The comments on the left are from Bunnett and Zahler, Ref. 33, p. 308.
[e] See Ref. 57.
[f] See Ref. 58.

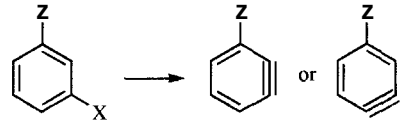
4-chloropyridine, for example, are often used as substrates. Heterocyclic N-oxides are readily attacked by nucleophiles in the 2 and 4 positions, but the oxygen is generally lost in these reactions.[58] The most highly activating group, N_2^+, is seldom deliberately used to activate a reaction, but it sometimes happens that in the diazotization of a compound such as *p*-nitroaniline or *p*-chloroaniline the group para to the diazonium group is replaced by OH from the solvent or by X from ArN_2^+ X^-, to the surprise and chagrin of the investigator, who was trying only to replace the diazonium group and to leave the para group untouched. By far the most common activating group is the nitro group and the most common substrates are 2,4-dinitrophenyl halides and 2,4,6-trinitrophenyl halides (also called picryl halides).[61] Polyfluorobenzenes, (e.g., C_6F_6)[62] also undergo aromatic nucleophilic substitution quite well.[63] Benzene rings that lack activating substituents are generally not useful substrates for the S_NAr mechanism, because the two extra electrons in 1 are in an antibonding orbital (p. 33). Activating groups, by withdrawing electron density, are able to stabilize the intermediates and the transition states leading to them. Reactions taking place by the S_NAr mechanism are also accelerated when the aromatic ring is coordinated with a transition metal (e.g., 7 in Chapter 3).[64]

Just as electrophilic aromatic substitutions were found more or less to follow the Hammett relationship (with a^+ instead of a; see p. 692), so do nucleophilic substitutions, with σ^- instead of σ for electron-withdrawing groups.[65]

Benzyne Mechanism. Two factors affect the position of the incoming group, the first being the direction in which the aryne forms.[66] When there are groups ortho or para to the leaving group, there is no choice:

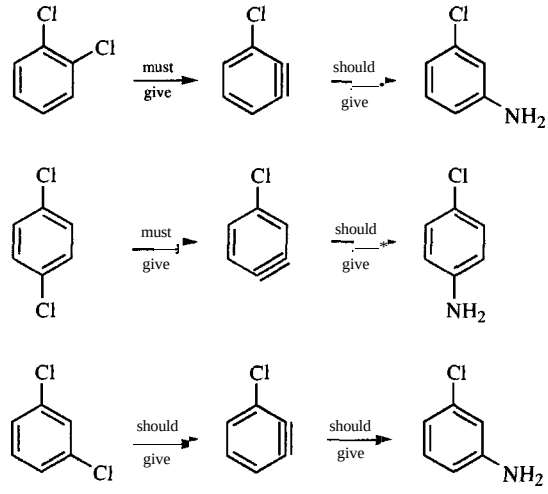


but when a meta group is present, the aryne can form in two different ways:



In such cases, the more acidic hydrogen is removed. Since acidity is related to the field effect of Z, it can be stated that an electron-attracting Z favors removal of the ortho hydrogen while an electron-donating Z favors removal of the para hydrogen. The second factor is that the aryne, once formed, can be attacked at two positions. The favored position for nucleophilic attack is the one that leads to the more stable carbanion intermediate, and this in turn also

depends on the field effect of Z. For –/ groups, the more stable carbanion is the one in which the negative charge is closer to the substituent. These principles are illustrated by the reaction of the three dichlorobenzenes with alkali metal amides. The predicted products are



In each case the predicted product was the one chiefly formed.[67] The observation that *m*-aminoanisole is obtained, mentioned on page 855, is also in accord with these predictions.

The Effect of the Leaving Group[68]

The common leaving groups in aliphatic nucleophilic substitution (halide, sulfate, sulfonate, NR_3^+, etc.) are also common leaving groups in aromatic nucleophilic substitutions, but the groups NO_2, OR, OAr, SO_2R,[69] and SR, which are not generally lost in aliphatic systems, *are* leaving groups when attached to aromatic rings. Surprisingly, NO_2 is a particularly good leaving group.[70] An approximate order of leaving-group ability is[71] F > NO_2 > OTs > SOPh > Cl, Br, I > N_3 > NR_3^+ > OAr, OR, SR, NH_2. However, this depends greatly on the nature of the nucleophile, as illustrated by the fact that $C_6Cl_5OCH_3$ treated with NH_2^- gives mostly $C_6Cl_5NH_2$; that is, one methoxy group is replaced in preference to five chlorines.[72] As usual, OH can be a leaving group if it is converted to an inorganic ester. Among the halogens, fluoro is generally a much better leaving group than the other halogens, which have reactivities fairly close together. The order is usually Cl > Br > I, but not always.[73] The leaving-group order is quite different from that for the S_N1 or S_N2 mechanisms. The most likely explanation is that the first step of the S_NAr mechanism is usually rate determining, and this step is promoted by groups with strong —/ effects. This would explain why fluoro and nitro are such good leaving groups when this mechanism is operating. Fluoro is the poorest leaving

group of the halogens when the second step of the S_NAr mechanism is rate determining or when the benzyne mechanism is operating. The four halogens, as well as SPh, NMe_3^+, and $OPO(OEt)_2$, have been shown to be leaving groups in the $S_{RN}1$ mechanism.[43] The only important leaving group in the S_N1 mechanism is N_2^+.

The Effect of the Attacking Nucleophile[74]

It is not possible to construct an invariant nucleophilicity order because different substrates and different conditions lead to different orders of nucleophilicity, but an overall approximate order is $NH_2^- > Ph_3C^- >$ PhNH~ (aryne mechanism) > ArS" > RO^- > R_2NH > ArO" > OH^- > $ArNH_2$ > NH_3 > I" > Br^- > Cl^- > H_2O > ROH.[75] As with aliphatic nucleophilic substitution, nucleophilicity is generally dependent on base strength and nucleophilicity increases as the attacking atom moves down a column of the periodic table, but there are some surprising exceptions (e.g., OH^-, a stronger base than ArO^-, is a poorer nucleophile).[76] In a series of similar nucleophiles, such as substituted anilines, nucleophilicity *is* correlated with base strength. Oddly, the cyanide ion is not a nucleophile for aromatic systems, except for sulfonic acid salts and in the von Richter **(13-21)** and Rosenmund-von Braun **(13-10)** reactions, which are special cases.

REACTIONS

In the first part of this section, reactions are classified according to attacking species, with all leaving groups considered together, except for hydrogen and N_2^+, which are treated subsequently. Finally, a few rearrangement reactions are discussed.

All Leaving Groups Except Hydrogen and N_2^+

A. *Oxygen Nucleophiles*

13-1 *Hydroxy-de-halogenation*

$$ArBr + OH" \longrightarrow ArOH$$

Aryl halides can be converted to phenols only if activating groups are present or if exceedingly strenuous conditions are employed.[77] Other leaving groups, including nitro,[78] azide, NR_3^+, and so on, can also be replaced by OH groups. When the reaction is carried out at high temperatures, cine substitution is observed, indicating a benzyne mechanism.[79] Phenols have been obtained from unactivated aryl halides by treatment with borane and a metal such as lithium, followed by oxidation with alkaline H_2O_2.[80]

A slightly related reaction involves the amino group of naphthylamines can be replaced by a hydroxyl group by treatment with aqueous bisulfite.[81] The scope is greatly limited; the amino group (which may be NH_2 or NHR) must be on a naphthalene ring, with very few exceptions. The reaction is reversible (see **13-6),** and both the forward and reverse reactions are called the *Bucherer reaction.*

OS I, 455; II, 451; V, 632. Also see OS V, 918.

13-2 *Alkali Fusion of Sulfonate Salts*

OXIDO-DE-SULFONATO-SUBSTITUTION

$$ArSO_3^- \xrightarrow[300\text{–}320^\circ C]{\text{NaOH fusion}} ArO^-$$

Aryl sulfonic acids can be converted, through their salts, to phenols, by alkali fusion. In spite of the extreme conditions, the reaction gives fairly good yields, except when the substrate contains other groups that are attacked by alkali at the fusion temperatures. Milder conditions can be used when the substrate contains activating groups, but the presence of deactivating groups hinders the reaction. The mechanism is obscure, but a benzyne intermediate has been ruled out by the finding that cine substitution does not occur.[82]

OS I, 175; HI, 288.

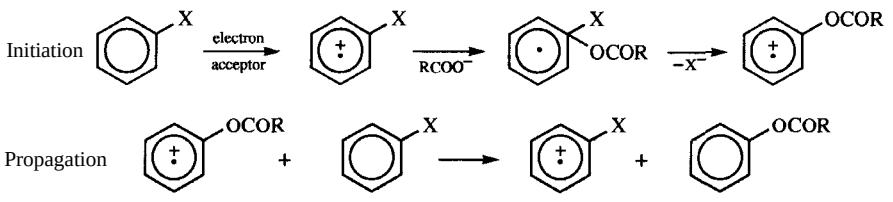
13-3 *Replacement by OR or OAr*

ALKOXY-DE-HALOGENATION

$$ArBr + OR^- \longrightarrow ArOR$$

This reaction is similar to 13-1 and, like that one, generally requires activated substrates.[77] With unactivated substrates, side reactions predominate, though aryl methyl ethers have been prepared from unactivated chlorides by treatment with MeO^- in HMPA.[83] This reaction gives better yields than 13-1 and is used more often. A good solvent is liquid ammonia. The compound NaOMe reacted with *o*- and *p*-fluoronitrobenzenes $\sim 10^9$ times faster in NH_3 at $-70^\circ C$ than in MeOH.[84] Phase-transfer catalysis has also been used.[85] The reaction of 4-iodotoluene and 3,4-dimethylphenol, in the presence of a copper catalyst and cesium carbonate, gave the diaryl ether (Ar–O–Ar′).[86] Alcohols were coupled with aryl halides in the presence of palladium catalysts to give the Ar–O–R ether.[87] Nickel catalysts have also been used.[88]

In addition to halides, leaving groups can be nitro, NR_3^+, other OR, and so on even OH.[89] Acid salts, $RCOO^-$, are sometimes used as nucleophiles. Good yields of aryl benzoates can be obtained by the treatment of aryl halides with cuprous benzoate in diglyme or xylene at 140–160°C.[90] Unactivated substrates have been converted to carboxylic esters in low-to-moderate yields under oxidizing conditions.[91] The following chain mechanism, called the $S_{ON}2$ mechanism,[92] has been suggested:[91]



For aroxide nucleophiles, the reaction is promoted by copper salts,[93] and when these are used, activating groups need not be present. This method of preparation of diaryl ethers is called the *Ullmann ether synthesis*[94] and should not be confused with the Ullmann biaryl synthesis **(13-14).** The reactivity order is typical of nucleophilic substitutions, despite the presence of the copper salts.[95] Because aryloxycopper(I) reagents ArOCu react with aryl halides to give ethers, it has been suggested that they are intermediates in the Ullmann ether synthesis.[96] Indeed, high yields of ethers can be obtained by reaction of ROCu or ArOCu with aryl halides.[97] Unactivated substrates also react with phenoxide ion with electrochemical catalysis in liquid NH_3-Me_2SO, to give diaryl ethers, presumably by the $S_{RN}1$ mechanism.[98] Diaryl ethers can be prepared from activated aryl halides by treatment with a triaryl phosphate, $(ArO)_3PO$.[99]

OS I, 219; I, 445; HI, 293, 566; V, 926; VI, 150.

B. *Sulfur Nucleophiles*

13-4 *Replacement by SH or SR*

Mercapto-de-halogenation	ArBr	+	SH^- ⟶	ArSH
Alkylthio-de-halogenation	ArBr	+	SR^- ⟶	ArSr

Aryl thiols and thioethers can be prepared by reactions that are similar to **13-1** and **13-3**.[100] Activated aryl halides generally give good results, but side reactions are occasionally important. Some reagents give the thiol directly. 4-Bromonitrobenzene reacts with Na_3SPO_3, in refluxing methanol, to give 4-nitrothiophenol.[101] Diaryl sulfides can be prepared by the use of SAr^-. Even unactivated aryl halides react with SAr^- if polar aprotic solvents, for example, DMF,[102] Me_2SO,[103] 1-methyl-2-pyrrolidinone,[104] or HMPA,[105] are used, though the mechanisms are still mostly or entirely nucleophilic substitution. 2-Iodothiophene reacts directly with thiophenol to give 2-phenylthiothiophene.[106] Unactivated aryl halides also give good yields of sulfides on treatment with SAr^- or SR^- in the presence of a catalytic amount of $(Ph_3P)_4Pd$.[107] Copper catalysts have also been used.[108] Diaryl sulfides can also be prepared (in high yields) by treatment of unactivated aryl iodides with ArS^- in liquid ammonia under irradiation.[109] The mechanism in this case is probably $S_{RN}1$. The reaction (with unactivated halides) has also been carried out electrolytically, with a nickel complex catalyst.[110]

Other sulfur nucleophiles also react with activated aryl halides:

$$2\,ArX + S_2^{2-} \longrightarrow Ar\text{-}S\text{-}S\text{-}Ar \qquad ArX + SCN^- \longrightarrow ArSCN$$

$$ArX + SO_3^{2-} \longrightarrow Ar\text{-}SO_3^- \qquad ArX + RSO_2^- \longrightarrow Ar\text{-}SO_2\text{-}R$$

Aryl sulfones have been prepared from sulfinic acid salts, aryl iodides and CuI.[111] Unactivated thiocyanation has been accomplished with charcoal supported copper(I) thiocyanate.[112]

OS I, 220; III, 86, 239, 667; V, 107, 474; VI, 558, 824. Also see OS V, 977.

C. Nitrogen Nucleophiles

13-5 Replacement by NH_2, NHR, or NR_2

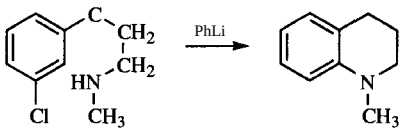
AMINO-DE-HALOGENATION

$$\begin{aligned} &ArBr + NH_3 \longrightarrow ArNH_2 \\ &ArBr + RNH_2 \longrightarrow ArNHR \\ &ArBr + R_2NH \longrightarrow ArNR_2 \end{aligned}$$

Activated aryl halides react quite well with ammonia and with primary and secondary amines to give the corresponding arylamines. Primary and secondary amines usually give better results than ammonia, with piperidine especially reactive. Picryl chloride (2,4,6-trinitrochlorobenzene) is often used to form amine derivatives. 2,4-Dinitrofluorobenzene is used to tag the amino end of a peptide or protein chain. Other leaving groups in this reaction may be NO_2, N3, OSO_2R, OR, SR, N=NAr (where Ar contains electron-withdrawing groups)[113] and even NR_2.[114] Activated halides can be converted to diethylamino compounds ArX → $ArNMe_2$ by treatment with HMPA.[115]

Nickel catalysts have been used in the reaction of aryl halides with N-alkyl aniline derivatives[116] and palladium catalysts with secondary amines[117] to give the corresponding tertiary amine. Palladium catalysts have been used with aniline and aryl halides[118] or triflates[119] to give the secondary amine. Aryl halides (Ar–X) have also been converted to the aniline derivative ($Ar–NH_2$) by reaction of the halide with an imine and a palladium catalyst, followed by hydrolysis.[120]

Unactivated aryl halides can be converted to amines by the use of $NaNH_2$, NaNHR, or $NaNR_2$.[121] With these reagents, the benzyne mechanism generally operates, so cine substitution is often found. Ring closure has been effected by this type of reaction,[122] for example,



It has also proved possible to close larger rings in this manner: 8 and even 12-membered. Triarylamines have been prepared in a similar manner from ArI and Ar'_2NLi, even with unactivated ArI.[123] In the *Goldberg reaction*, an aryl bromide reacts with an acetanilide in the presence of K_2CO_3 and CuI to give an *N*-acetyldiarylamine, which can be hydrolyzed to a diarylamine: ArBr+ Ar′NHAc → ArAr′NAc.[124]

The reaction with ammonia or amines, which undoubtedly proceeds by the S_NAr mechanism, is catalyzed by copper[93,125] and nickel[126] salts, though these are normally used only with rather unreactive halides.[127] This reaction, with phase-transfer catalysis, has been used to synthesize triarylamines.[128] Copper ion catalysts (especially cuprous oxide or iodide) also permit the Gabriel synthesis (10-61) to be

applied to aromatic substrates. Aryl bromides or iodides are refluxed with potassium phthalimide and Cu_2O or CuI in dimethylacetamide to give N-aryl phthalimides, which can be hydrolyzed to primary aryl amines.[129]

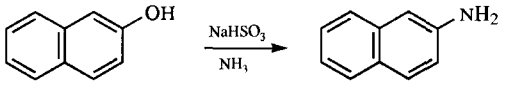
In certain cases, the $S_{RN}1$ mechanism has been found (p. 856). When the substrate is a heterocyclic aromatic nitrogen compound, still a different mechanism [the SN(ANRORC) mechanism], involving opening and reclosing of the aromatic ring, has been shown to take place.[130]

Activated aromatic compounds can be directly aminated with hydroxylamine in the presence of strong bases.[131] Conditions are mild and yields are high.

OS I, 544; **II,** 15, 221, 228; HI, 53, 307, 573; IV, 336, 364; V, 816, 1067; **VII,** 15. OS HI, 664.

13-6 *Replacement of a Hydroxy Group by an Amino Group*

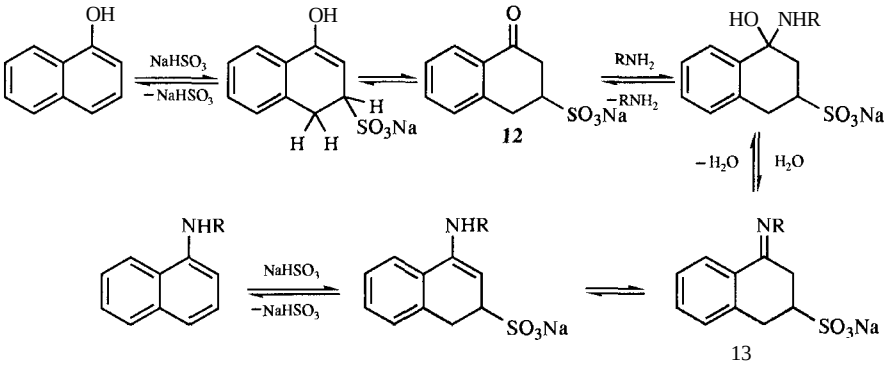
AMINO-DE-HYDROXYLATION



The reaction of naphthols with ammonia and sodium bisulfite[81] is called the *Bucherer reaction.* Primary amines can be used instead of ammonia, in which case N-substituted naphthylamines are obtained. In addition, primary naphthylamines can be converted to secondary, by a transamination reaction:

$$ArNH_2 + RNH_3 \xrightarrow{NaHSO_3} ArNHR$$

The mechanism of the Bucherer reaction amounts to a kind of overall addition-elimination:[132]



The first step in either direction consists of addition of $NaHSO_3$ to one of the double bonds of the ring, which gives an enol (or enamine) that tautomerizes to the keto (or imine) form. The conversion of **12** to 13 (or vice versa) is an example of **16-12** (or **16-2).** Evidence for this mechanism was the isolation of 12[133] and the demonstrati on that for P-naphthol treated with ammonia and HSO_3^-, the rate of the reaction depends only on the substrate and on HSO_3^-, indicating that ammonia is not involved in the rate-determining step.[134] If the starting compound is a P-naphthol,

the intermediate is a 2-keto-4-sulfonic acid compound, so the sulfur of the bisulfite in either case attacks meta to the OH or NH_2.[135]

Hydroxy groups on benzene rings can be replaced by NH_2 groups if they are first converted to aryl diethyl phosphates. Treatment of these with KNH_2 and potassium metal in liquid ammonia gives the corresponding primary aromatic amines.[136] The mechanism of the second step is $S_{RN}1$.[137]

OS III, 78.

D. *Halogen Nucleophiles*

13-7 *The Introduction of Halogens*

HALO-DE-HALOGENATION, AND SO ON

$$Ar\text{-}X + X' \longrightarrow Ar\text{-}X' + X^-$$

It is possible to replace a halogen on a ring by another halogen[138] if the ring is activated. There is an equilibrium, but it is usually possible to shift this in the desired direction by the use of an excess of added halide ion.[139] Another common leaving group is nitro, which can be replaced with chloro by use of NH_4Cl, PCl_5, $SOCl_2$, HC1, Cl_2, or CCl_4. Some of these reagents operate only at high temperatures and the mechanism is not always nucleophilic substitution. Activated aromatic nitro compounds can be converted to fluorides with F^-.[140]

A phenolic hydroxy group can be replaced by chloro with PCl_5 or $POCl_3$, but only if activated. Unactivated phenols give phosphates when treated with $POCl_3$: $3\,ArOH + POCl_3 \longrightarrow (ArO)_3PO$. Phenols, even unactivated ones, can be converted to aryl bromides by treatment with Ph_3PBr_2 (see 10-69)[141] and to aryl chlorides by treatment with $PhPCl_4$.[142]

Halide exchange is particularly useful for putting fluorine into a ring, since there are fewer alternate ways of doing this than for the other halogens. Activated aryl chlorides give fluorides when treated with KF in DMF, Me_2SO, or dimethyl sulfone.[143] Reaction of aryl halides with Bu_4PF/HF is also effective for exchanging a halogen with fluorine.[144] Halide exchange can also be accomplished with copper halides. Since the leaving-group order in this case is I > Br > Cl > >F (which means that iodides cannot normally be made by this method), the S_NAr mechanism is probably not operating.[145] However, aryl iodides have been prepared from bromides, by the use of Cu supported on charcoal or Al_2O_3,[146] and by treatment with excess KI and a nickel catalyst.[147]

OS III, 194, 272, 475; V, 142, 478; VIII, 57.

E. *Hydrogen as Nucleophile*

13-8 *Reduction of Phenols and Phenolic Esters and Ethers*[148]

HYDRO-DE-HYDROXYLATION OR DEHYDROXYLATION, AND SO ON

$$ArOH \xrightarrow{Zn} ArH$$

Phenols can be reduced by distillation over zinc dust or with HI and red phosphorus, but these methods are quite poor and are seldom feasible. Catalytic hydrogenation has also been used, but the corresponding cyclohexanol (see **15-14)** is a side product.[149]

Much better results have been obtained by conversion of phenols to certain esters or ethers and reduction of the latter:

$$ArOSO_2CF_3 \xrightarrow[Pd(OAc)_2,\ Ph_3P,\ DMF]{HCOOH,\ Et_3N} ArH \qquad \text{Ref. 150}$$

$$ArOTs + NaBH_4/NiCl_2 \longrightarrow ArH \qquad \text{Ref. 151}$$

$$ArO-\overset{\overset{O}{\|}}{P}(OEt)_2 \xrightarrow[THF]{Ti} ArH \qquad \text{Ref. 152}$$

OS VI, 150. See also OS **VII,** 476.

13-9 *Reduction of Halides and Nitro Compounds*

The reaction $ArX \rightarrow ArH$ is treated in Chapter 11 (Reaction **11-42),** although, depending on reagent and conditions, it can be nucleophilic or free-radical substitution, as well as electrophilic.

The nitro group of aromatic nitro compounds has been removed with sodium borohydride.[153] This reaction involves an addition-elimination mechanism.

F. *Carbon Nucleophiles*[154]

Some formations of new aryl–carbon bonds formed from aryl substrates have been considered in Chapter 10 (see **10-94, 10-105, 10-112, 10-113).**

13-10 *The Rosenmund–vonBraun Reaction*

CYANO-DE-HALOGENATION

$$ArBr + \text{anhydrous } CuCN \xrightarrow{200°C} ArCN$$

The reaction between aryl halides and cuprous cyanide is called the *Rosenmund–von Braun_reaction.*[155]Reactivity is in the order I > Br > Cl > F, indicating that the S_NAr mechanism does not apply.[156] Other cyanides (e.g., KCN and NaCN), do not react with aryl halides, even activated ones. However, alkali cyanides do convert aryl halides to nitriles[157] in dipolar aprotic solvents in the presence of Pd(II) salts'[158] or copper[159] or nickel[160] complexes. A nickel complex also catalyzes the reaction between aryl triflates and KCN to give aryl nitriles.[161] Aromatic ethers ArOR[162] have been photochemically converted to ArCN.

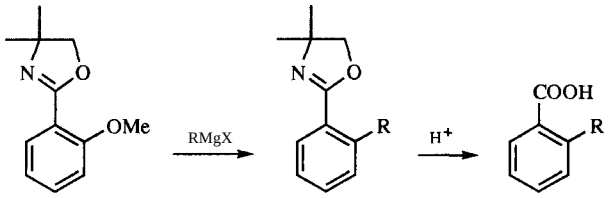
OS III, 212, 631.

13-11 *Coupling of Organometallic Compounds with Aryl Halides, Ethers, and Carboxylic Esters*

ALKYL-DE-HALOGENATION, AND SO ON

$$ArI + R_2CuLi \longrightarrow ArR$$

Aryl iodides, which need not be activated, couple with lithium dialkylcopper reagents. The reaction is discussed at 10-94. Aryl halides, even when activated, generally do not couple with Grignard reagents, though certain transition metal catalysts do effect this reaction in variable yields.[163] The reaction with Grignard reagents proceeds better when OR can be the leaving group, providing that activating groups are present in the ring. The oxazoline group actives *o*-methoxy and *o*-fluoro groups to reaction with Grignard reagents and organolithiums; the product can be hydrolyzed after coupling (see **10-108**):[164]



Unactivated aryl halides couple with alkyllithium reagents in THF[165] and with organotin compounds and a Pd complex catalyst[166] to give moderate-to-good yields of alkyl arenes. Unactivated aryl triflates[167] $ArOSO_2CF_3$ react to give ArR in good yields when treated with $R_2Cu(CN)Li_2$,[168] with R_3Al,[169] or with R'_3SnR and a Pd complex catalyst.[170] The coupling reaction between aryl halides and alkenes, with a Pd catalyst, is treated at 14-19.

Unactivated aryl halides react with copper acetylides to give good yields of arylacetylenes *(Stephens-Castro coupling).*[111]

$$ArI + RC{\equiv}CCu \longrightarrow ArC{\equiv}CR$$

R may be alkyl or aryl. A wide variety of aryl iodides has been used and the reaction is of considerable synthetic importance.

A number of methods, all catalyzed by palladium complexes, have been used to prepare unsymmetrical biaryls (see also 13-14). In these methods, aryl bromides or iodides are coupled with aryl Grignard reagents,[172] with aryltin compounds ArSnR3,[173] and with arylmercury compounds.[174] Aryl triflates react with arylboronic acids $ArB(OH)_2$,[175] or with organoboranes,[176] in the presence of a palladium catalyst, to give the arene in what is called *Suzuki coupling.*[111] Cyclopropyl groups can be attached to aromatic rings by this reaction.[178] Even hindered boronic acids give good yields of the coupled product.[179]

$$Ar\text{-}Br + Ar'B(OH)_2 \xrightarrow{PdL_4} Ar\text{-}Ar'$$

Unsymmetrical binaphthyls were synthesized by photochemically stimulated reaction of naphthyl iodides with naphthoxide ions in an $S_{RN}1$ reaction.[180] Methyl

chloroacetate coupled with aryl iodides under electrolysis conditions, using a nickel catalyst.[181] Grignard reagents also couple with aryl halides without a palladium catalyst, by the benzyne mechanism.[182] Aryl Grignard reagents coupled with phenyl allyl sulfone, in the presence of an iron catalyst, to give $ArCH_2CH{=}CH_2$.[183] In a similar manner, aryl sulfone coupled with aryl Grignard reagents in the presence of a nickel catalyst.[184]

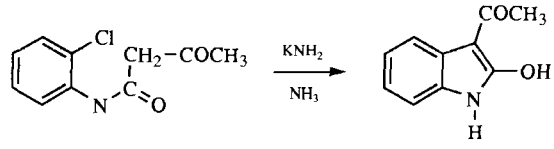
OS **VI,** 916; **VIII,** 430, 586; **75,** 53, 61 (Suzuki).

13-12 *Arylation at a Carbon Containing an Active Hydrogen*

BIS(ETHOXYCARBONYL)METHYL-DE-HALOGENATION, AND SO ON

$$ArBr + Z{-}\bar{\bar{C}}H{-}Z' \longrightarrow Z\text{-}\underset{Ar}{CH}\text{-}Z'$$

The arylation of compounds of the form ZCH_2Z' is analogous to **10-104,** and Z is as defined there. Activated aryl halides generally give good results.[185] Even unactivated aryl halides can be employed if the reaction is carried out in the presence of a strong base such as $NaNH_2$[186] or LDA. Compounds of the form ZCH_2Z' and even simple ketones[187] and carboxylic esters have been arylated in this manner. The reaction with unactivated halides proceeds by the benzyne mechanism and represents a method for extending the malonic ester (and similar) syntheses to aromatic compounds. The base performs two functions: it removes a proton from ZCH_2Z' and catalyzes the benzyne mechanism. The reaction has been used for ring closure:[188]



The reaction on unactivated halides can also be done with copper halide catalysts[93] (the *Hurtley reaction*),[189] and with palladium complex catalysts.[190]

Compounds of the form CH3Z can be arylated by treatment with an aryl halide in liquid ammonia containing Na or K, for example, [191]

$$ArX + CH_3{-}\underset{\underset{O}{\|}}{C}{-}CH_3 \xrightarrow[K]{NH_3} ArCH_2{-}\underset{\underset{O}{\|}}{C}{-}CH_3 + ArCH_2{-}\underset{\underset{OH}{|}}{CH}{-}CH_3$$

The same products are obtained (though in different proportions) when Na or K is omitted but the solution is irradiated with near-UV light.[192] In either case other leaving groups can be used instead of halogens (e.g., NR_3^+, SAr) and the mechanism is the $S_{RN}1$ mechanism. Iron(II) salts have also been used to initiate this reaction.[193] The reaction can also take place without an added initiator: Enolate ions of ketones react with PhI in the dark.[194] In this case, it has been suggested [167] that initiation takes place by

$$R_2C{=}\underset{\underset{cr}{|}}{C}\text{-}R + ArI \longrightarrow R_2\dot{C}{-}\underset{\underset{O}{\|}}{C}{-}R + ArI^{\bullet -}$$

This is an SET mechanism (see p. 402). The photostimulated reaction has also been used for ring closure.[195] In certain instances of the intermolecular reaction there is evidence that the leaving group exerts an influence on the product ratios, even when it has already departed at the time that product selection takes place.[196] Malonic and P-keto esters can be arylated in high yields by treatment with aryllead tricarboxylates: $RCOCHR'COOEt + ArPb(OAc)_3 \rightarrow RCOCArR'COOEt$,[197] and with triphenylbismuth carbonate (Ph_3BiCO_3)[198] and other bismuth reagents.[199] In a related process, manganese(III) acetate was used to convert a mixture of ArH and ZCH_2Z' to ArCHZZ'.[200]

OS V, 12, 263; VI, 36, 873, 928; **VII,** 229.

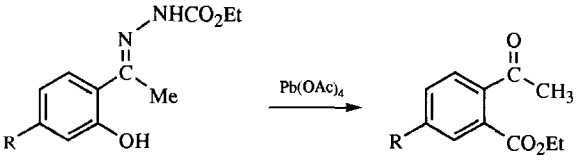
13-13 *Conversion of Aryl Substrates to Carboxylic Acids, Their Derivatives, Aldehydes, and Ketones*[201]

ALKOXYCARBONYL-DE-HALOGENATION, AND SO ON

$$ArX + ROH + CO \xrightarrow[\text{Pd complex}]{\text{base}} ArCOOR$$

Aryl bromides and iodides, when treated with carbon monoxide, an alcohol ROH, a base, and a palladium complex catalyst, give carboxylic esters. Even very sterically hindered alkoxides can be used to produce the corresponding ester.[202] The use of H_2O, RNH_2, or an alkali metal or calcium carboxylate[203] instead of ROH, gives the carboxylic acid,[204] amide,[205] or mixed anhydride, respectively.[206] With certain palladium catalysts, aryl chlorides[207] and aryl triflates[208] can also be substrates. Another reagent used (instead of CO) is dicobalt octacarbonyl, $Co_2(CO)_8$.[209] Aryl chlorides have been converted to carboxylic acids by an electrochemical synthesis,[210] and aryl iodides to aldehydes by treatment with CO, Bu_3SnH, and NCC $Me_2N{=}NCMe_2CN$ (AIBN).[211]

Lead tetraacetate has been used to convert phenols, with a hydrazone group in the ortho position, to carboxylic esters,[212] for example,



The hydrazone group is hydrolyzed **(16-2)** during the course of the reaction. Yields are high. Aryl iodides are converted to unsymmetrical diaryl ketones on treatment with arylmercury halides and nickel carbonyl: $ArI + Ar'HgX + Ni(CO)_4 \rightarrow ArCOAr'$.[213]

13-14 *The Ullmann Reaction*

DE-HALOGEN-COUPLING

$$2\ ArI \xrightarrow[\Delta]{Cu} Ar{-}Ar$$

The coupling of aryl halides with copper is called the *Ullmann reaction.*[214] The reaction is of broad scope and has been used to prepare many symmetrical and

unsymmetrical biaryls.[215] When a mixture of two different aryl halides is used, there are three possible products, but often only one is obtained. For example, picryl chloride and iodobenzene gave only 2,4,6-trinitrobiphenyl.[216] The best leaving group is iodo, and the reaction is most often done on aryl iodides, but bromides, chlorides, and even thiocyanates have been used.

The effects of other groups on the ring are unusual. The nitro group is strongly activating, but only in the ortho (not meta or para) position.[217] The R and OR groups activate in all positions. Not only do OH, NH_2, NHR, and NHCOR inhibit the reaction, as would be expected for aromatic nucleophilic substitution, but so do COOH (but not COOR), SO_2NH_2, and similar groups for which the reaction fails completely. These groups inhibit the coupling reaction by causing side reactions.

The mechanism is not known with certainty. It seems likely that it is basically a two-step process, similar to that of the Wurtz reaction **(10-93),** which can be represented schematically by

Step 1 $\quad ArI + Cu \longrightarrow ArCu$

Step 2 $\quad ArCu + ArI \longrightarrow Ar\text{-}Ar$

Organocopper compounds have been trapped by coordination with organic bases.[218] In addition, arylcopper compounds (ArCu) have been independently prepared and shown to give biaryls (ArAr') when treated with aryl iodides (Ar'I).[219] A similar reaction has been used for ring closure.[220]

An important alternative to the Ullmann method is the use of certain nickel complexes.[221] This method has also been used intramolecularly.[222] Aryl halides ArX can also be converted to Ar–Ar [223] by treatment with activated Ni metal,[224] with Zn and nickel complexes,[225] with aqueous alkaline sodium formate, Pd–C, and a phase transfer catalyst,[226] and in an electrochemical process catalyzed by a nickel complex.[227]

An asymmetric Ullmann reaction has also been reported.[228]

For other methods of coupling aromatic rings, see **13-11, 13-15, 14-17, 14-21,** and **14-22.**

OS **HI,** 339; V, 1120.

Hydrogen as Leaving Group[229]

13-15 *Alkylation and Arylation*

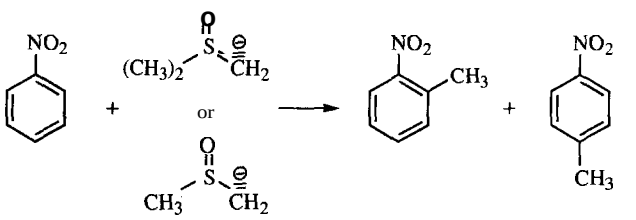
ALKYLATION OR ALKYL-DE-HYDROGENATION, AND SO ON

The alkylation of heterocyclic nitrogen compounds[230] with alkyllithium reagents is called *Ziegler alkylation.* Aryllithium reagents give arylation. The reaction occurs by an addition–elimination mechanism and the adduct can be isolated.[231] Upon

heating of the adduct, elimination of LiH occurs and an alkylated product is obtained. With respect to the 2 carbon the first step is the same as that of the S_NAr mechanism. The difference is that the unshared pair of electrons on the nitrogen combines with the lithium, so the extra pair of ring electrons has a place to go: it becomes the new unshared pair on the nitrogen.

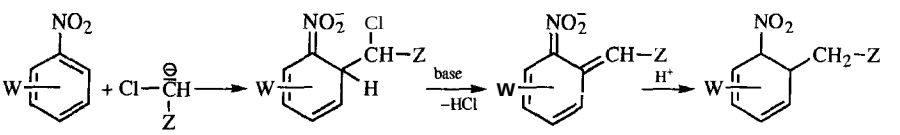
The reaction has been applied to nonheterocyclic aromatic compounds: Benzene, naphthalene, and phenanthrene have been alkylated with alkyllithium reagents, though the usual reaction with these reagents is **12-20**,[232] and Grignard reagents have been used to alkylate naphthalene.[233] The addition-elimination mechanism apparently applies in these cases too. A protected form of benzaldehyde (protected as the benzyl imine) has been similarly alkylated at the ortho position with butyllithium.[234]

Aromatic nitro compounds can be methylated with dimethyloxosulfonium methylid[235] or the methylsulfinyl carbanion (obtained by treatment of DMSO with a strong base):[236]



The latter reagent also methylates certain heterocyclic compounds (e.g., quinoline) and certain fused aromatic compounds (e.g., anthracene, phenanthrene).[237] The reactions with the sulfur carbanions are especially useful, since none of these substrates can be methylated by the Friedel–Crafts procedure (11-12). It has been reported[238] that aromatic nitro compounds can also be alkylated, not only with methyl but with other alkyl and substituted alkyl groups as well, in ortho and para positions, by treatment with an alkyllithium compound (or, with lower yields, a Grignard reagent), followed by an oxidizing agent such as Br_2 or DDQ (p. 1511).

A different kind of alkylation of nitro compounds uses carbanion nucleophiles that have a chlorine at the carbanionic carbon. The following process takes place:[239]



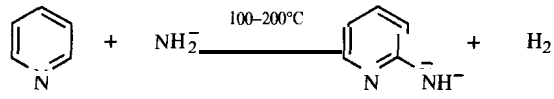
This type of process is called *vicarious nucleophilic substitution of hydrogen?*[240] The Z group is an electron-withdrawing group such as SO_2R, SO_2OR, SO_2NR_2, COOR, or CN; it stabilizes the negative charge. The carbanion attacks the activated ring ortho or para to the nitro group. Hydride ion (H^-) is not normally a leaving group, but in this case the presence of the adjacent Cl allows the hydrogen to be replaced. Hence, Cl is a "vicarious"leaving group. Other leaving groups have been used (e.g., OMe, SPh), but Cl is generally the best. Many groups W in ortho, meta, or para positions do not interfere. The reaction is also successful for di- and trinitro

compounds, for nitronaphthalenes,[241] and for many nitro heterocycles. $Z-{}^{0}CR-Cl$ may also be used.[242] When Br_3C^- or Cl_3C^- is the nucleophile the product is $ArCHX_2$, which can easily be hydrolyzed to ArCHO.[243] This is therefore an indirect way of formylating an aromatic ring containing one or more NO_2 groups, which cannot be done by any of the formylations mentioned in Chapter 11 **(11-1-11-8).**

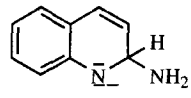
For the introduction of CH_2SR groups into phenols, see **11-26.** See also **14-23.** OS **II,** 517.

13-16 *Amination of Nitrogen Heterocycles*

AMINATION OR AMINO-DE-HYDROGENATION



Pyridine and other heterocyclic nitrogen compounds can be aminated with alkali metal amides in a process called the *Chichibabin reaction.*[244] The attack is always in the 2 position unless both such positions are filled, in which case the 4 position is attacked. Substituted alkali metal amides (e.g., RNH^- and R_2N^-) have also been used. The mechanism is probably similar to that of **13-15.** The existence of intermediate ions such as **15**



14

(from quinoline) has been demonstrated by NMR spectra.[245] A pyridyne type of intermediate was ruled out by several observations including the facts that 3-ethylpyridine gave 2-amino-3-ethylpyridine[246] and that certain heterocycles that cannot form an aryne could nevertheless be successfully aminated. Nitro compounds do not give this reaction,[247] but they have been aminated (ArH → $ArNH_2$ or ArNHR) via the vicarious substitution principle (see **13-15),** using 4-amino- or 4-alkylamino-1,2,4-triazoles as nucleophiles.[248] The vicarious leaving group in this case is the triazole ring.

Analogous reactions have been carried out with hydrazide ions (R_2NNH^-).[249] A mixture of NO_2 and O_3, with excess $NaHSO_3$, converted pyridine to 3-aminopyridine.[250] For other methods of aminating aromatic rings, see **11-6.**

There are no *Organic Syntheses* references, but see OS V, 977, for a related reaction.

N_2^+ as Leaving Group

The diazonium group can be replaced by a number of groups.[251] Some of these are nucleophilic substitutions, with S_N1 mechanisms (p. 853), but others are free-radical reactions and are treated in Chapter 14. The solvent in all these reactions is usually

water. With other solvents it has been shown that the S_N1 mechanism is favored by solvents of low nucleophilicity, while those of high nucleophilicity favor free-radical mechanisms.[252] (For *formation* of diazonium ions, see **12-47.**) The N_2^+ group can be replaced by Cl^-, Br^-, and CN^-, by a nucleophilic mechanism (see OS IV, 182), but the Sandmeyer reaction is much more useful **(14-25).** As mentioned on page 859 it must be kept in mind that the N_2^+ group can activate the removal of another group on the ring.

13-17 *Hydroxy-de-diazoniation*

$$ArN_2^+ + H_2O \longrightarrow ArOH$$

Water is usually present whenever diazonium salts are made, but at these temperatures (0-5°C) the reaction proceeds very slowly. When it is *desired* to have OH replace the diazonium group, the excess nitrous acid is destroyed and the solution is usually boiled. Some diazonium salts require even more vigorous treatment, for example, boiling with aqueous sulfuric acid or with trifluoroacetic acid containing potassium trifluoroacetate.[253] The reaction can be performed on solutions of any diazonium salts, but hydrogen sulfates are preferred to chlorides or nitrates, since in these cases there is competition from the nucleophiles Cl^- or NO_3^-. A better method, which is faster, avoids side reactions, takes place at room temperature, and gives higher yields consists of adding Cu_2O to a dilute solution of the diazonium salt dissolved in a solution containing a large excess of $Cu(NO_3)_2$.[254] Aryl radicals are intermediates when this method is used. It has been shown that aryl radicals are at least partly involved when ordinary hydroxy-de-diazoniation is carried out in weakly alkaline aqueous solution.[255] Decomposition of arenediazonium tetrafluoroborates in F_3CSO_2OH gives aryl triflates directly, in high yields.[256]

OS I, 404; **III,** 130, 453, 564; V, 1130.

13-18 *Replacement by Sulfur-Containing Groups*

MERCAPTO-DE-DIAZONIATION, AND SO ON

$$ArN_2^+ + HS^- \longrightarrow ArSH$$
$$ArN_2^+ + S^{2-} \longrightarrow ArSAr$$
$$ArN_2^+ + RS^- \longrightarrow ArSR$$
$$ArN_2^+ + SCN^- \longrightarrow ArSCN + ArNCS$$

These reactions are convenient methods for putting sulfur-containing groups onto an aromatic ring. With $Ar'S^-$, diazosulfides $Ar{-}N{=}N{-}S{-}Ar'$ are intermediates,[257] which can in some cases be isolated.[258] Thiophenols can be made as shown above, but more often the diazonium ion is treated with $EtO{-}CSS^-$ or S_2^{2-}, which give the expected products, and these are easily convertible to thiophenols. Aryl triflates have been converted to the aryl thiol using NaST(P5) and a palladium catalyst, followed by treatment with tetrabutylammonium fluoride.[259] See also **14-27.**

OS II, 580; **III,** 809 (but see **OS V, 1050).** Also see OS **II,** 238.

13-19 *Iodo-de-diazoniation*

$$ArN_2^+ + I^- \longrightarrow ArI$$

One of the best methods for the introduction of iodine into aromatic rings is the reaction of diazonium salts with iodide ions. Analogous reactions with chloride, bromide, and fluoride ions give poorer results, and **14-25** and **13-20** are preferred for the preparation of aryl chlorides, bromides, and fluorides. However, when other diazonium reactions are carried out in the presence of these ions, halides are usually side products. Aniline has also been converted to fluorobenzene by treatment with *t*-BuONO and SiF_4 followed by heating.[260] A related reaction between PhN=N-N C_4H_8 and iodine gave iodobenzene.[261]

The actual attacking species is probably not only I", if it is I^- at all. The iodide ion is oxidized (by the diazonium ion, nitrous acid, or some other oxidizing agent) to iodine, which in a solution containing iodide ions is converted to I_3^-; this is the actual attacking species, at least partly. This was shown by isolation of $ArN_2^+I_3^-$ salts, which, on standing, gave ArI.[262] From this, it can be inferred that the reason the other halide ions give poor results is not that they are poor nucleophiles but that they are poor reducing agents (compared with iodide). There is also evidence for a free-radical mechanism.[263]

OS II, 351, 355, 604; V, 1120.

13-20 *The Schiemann Reaction*

FLUORO-DE-DIAZONIATION (OVERALL TRANSFORMATION)

$$ArN_2^+ + BF_4^- \xrightarrow{\Delta} ArF + N_2 + BF_3$$

Heating of diazonium fluoroborates (the *Schiemann* or *Balz–Schiemann reaction)* is by far the best way of introducing fluorine into an aromatic ring.[264] In the most common procedure, the fluoroborate salts are prepared by diazotizing as usual with nitrous acid and HC1, and then adding a cold aqueous solution of $NaBF_4$, HBF4, or NH4BF4. A precipitate forms, which is dried, and the salt is heated in the dry state. These salts are unusually stable for diazonium salts, and the reaction is usually successful. In general, any aromatic amine that can be diazotized will form a BF_4^- salt, usually with high yields. The diazonium fluoroborates can be formed directly from primary aromatic amines with *tert*-butyl nitrite and BF_3–etherate.[265] The reaction has also been carried out on $ArN_2^+ PF_6^-$, $ArN_2^+ SbF_6^-$, and $ArN_2^+ AsF_6^-$ salts, in many cases with better yields.[266] Aryl chlorides and bromides are more commonly prepared by the Sandmeyer reaction **(14-25).** In an alternative procedure, aryl fluorides have been prepared by treatment of aryltriazenes $Ar–N=N–NR_2$ with 70% HF in pyridine.[267]

The mechanism is of the S_N1 type. That aryl cations are intermediates was shown by the following experiments:[268] aryl diazonium chlorides are known to arylate other aromatic rings by a free-radical mechanism (see **14-17).** In radical arylation it does not matter whether the other ring contains electron-withdrawing or electron-

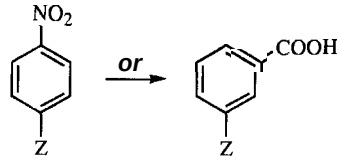
donating groups; in either case a mixture of isomers is obtained, since the attack is not by a charged species. If an aryl radical were an intermediate in the Schiemann reaction and the reaction were run in the presence of other rings, it should not matter what kinds of groups were on these other rings: Mixtures of biaryls should be obtained in all cases. But if an aryl cation is an intermediate in the Schiemann reaction, compounds containing meta-directing groups, that is, meta directing for *electrophilic* substitutions, should be meta arylated and those containing ortho-para directing groups should be ortho- and para arylated, since an aryl cation should behave in this respect like any electrophile (see Chapter 11). Experiments have shown[269] that such orientation is observed, demonstrating that the Schiemann reaction has a positively charged intermediate. The attacking species, in at least some instances, is not F" but BF_4^-.[270]

OS II, 188, 295, 299; V, 133.

Rearrangements

13-21 *The von Richter Rearrangement*

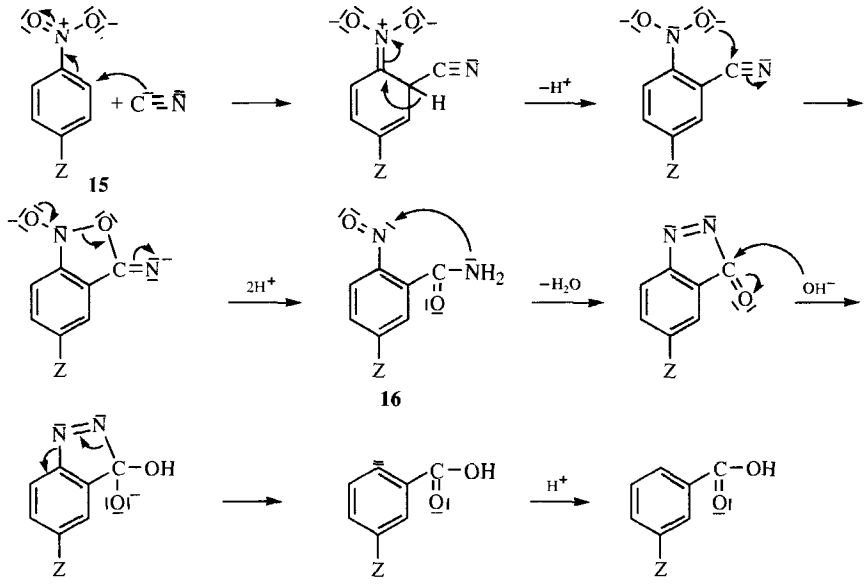
HYDRO-DE-NITRO-*cine*-substitution



When aromatic nitro compounds are treated with cyanide ion, the nitro group is displaced and a carboxyl group enters with cine substitution (p. 854), always ortho to the displaced group, never meta or para. The scope of this reaction, called the *von Richter rearrangement,* is variable.[271] As with other nucleophilic aromatic substitutions, the reaction gives best results when electron-withdrawing groups are in ortho and para positions, but yields are low, usually < 20% and never > 50%.

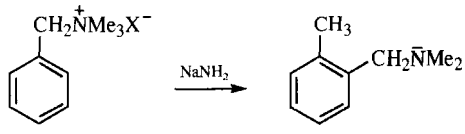
At one time it was believed that a nitrile, ArCN, was an intermediate, since cyanide is the reagent and nitriles are hydrolyzable to carboxylic acids under the reaction conditions (16-4). However, a remarkable series of results proved this belief to be in error. Bunnett and Rauhut[272] demonstrated that α-naphthyl cyanide is *not* hydrolyzable to α-naphthoic acid under conditions at which β-nitronaphthalene undergoes the von Richter rearrangement to give a-naphthoic acid. This proved that the nitrile cannot be an intermediate. It was subsequently demonstrated that N_2 is a major product of the reaction.[273] It had previously been assumed that all the nitrogen in the reaction was converted to ammonia, which would be compatible with a nitrile intermediate, since ammonia is a hydrolysis product of nitriles. At the same time it was shown that NO_2^- is not a major product. The discovery of nitrogen indicated that a nitrogen-nitrogen bond must be formed during the course of the reaction. A

mechanism in accord with all the facts was proposed by Rosenblum:[273]



It may be noted that 16 are stable compounds; hence it should be possible to prepare them independently and to subject them to the conditions of the von Richter rearrangement. This was done and the correct products are obtained.[274] Further evidence is that when 15 (Z = C1 or Br) was treated with cyanide in $H_2^{18}O$, one-half the oxygen in the product was labeled, showing that one of the oxygens of the carboxyl group came from the nitro group and one from the solvent, as required by this mechanism.[275]

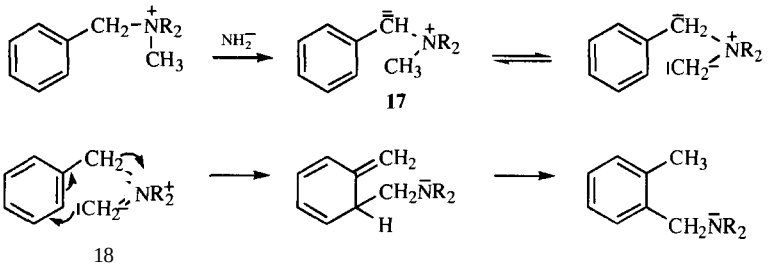
13-22 *The Sommelet–Hauser Rearrangement*



Benzylic quaternary ammonium salts, when treated with alkali metal amides, undergo a rearrangement called the *Sommelet-Hauser rearrangement*.[276] Since the product is a benzylic tertiary amine, it can be further alkylated and the product again subjected to the rearrangement. This process can be continued around the ring until an ortho position is blocked.[277]

The rearrangement occurs with high yields and can be performed with various groups present in the ring.[278] The reaction is most often carried out with three methyl groups on the nitrogen, but other groups can also be used, though if a p-hydrogen is present, Hofmann elimination (17-6) often competes. The Stevens

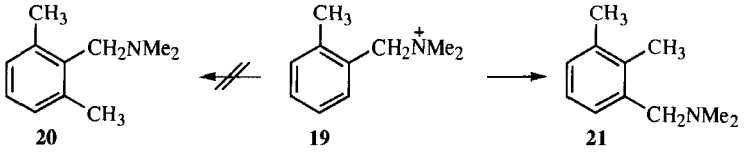
rearrangement **(18-21)** is also a competing process.[279] When both rearrangements are possible, the Stevens is favored at high temperatures and the Sommelet–Hauser at low temperatures.[280] The mechanism is



17

18

The benzylic hydrogen is most acidic and is the one that first loses a proton to give the ylid 17. However, **18,** which is present in smaller amount, is the species that undergoes the rearrangement, shifting the equilibrium in its favor. This mechanism is an example of a [2,3] sigmatropic rearrangement (see **18-35).** Another mechanism that might be proposed is one in which a methyl group actually breaks away (in some form) from the nitrogen and then attaches itself to the ring. That this is not so was shown by a product study.[281] If the second mechanism were true, 19 should give 20, but the first mechanism predicts the formation of **21,** which is what was actually obtained.[282]



20 **19** **21**

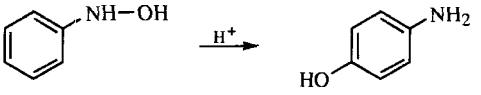
The mechanism as we have pictured it can lead only to an ortho product. However, a small amount of para product has been obtained in some cases.[283] A mechanism[284] in which there is a dissociation of the ArC–N bond (similar to the ion-pair mechanism of the Stevens rearrangement, p. 1419) has been invoked to explain the para products that are observed.

Sulfur ylids containing a benzylic group (analogous to **18)** undergo an analogous rearrangement.[285]

OS IV, 585.

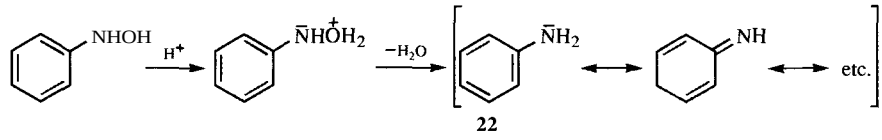
13-23 *Rearrangement of Aryl Hydroxylamines*

1/*C*-HYDRO-5/*N*-HYDROXY-INTERCHANGE



Aryl hydroxylamines treated with acids rearrange to aminophenols.[286] Although this reaction (known as the *Bamberger rearrangement)* is similar in appearance to

11-31-11-35, the attack on the ring is not electrophilic but nucleophilic. The rearrangement is intermolecular, with the following mechanism:



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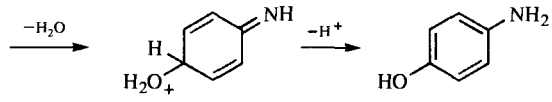
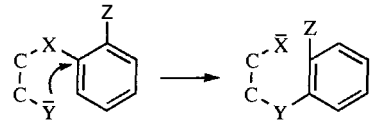


23

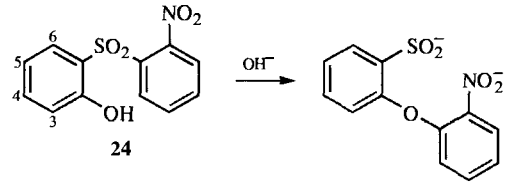
Among the evidence[287] for this mechanism are the facts that other products are obtained when the reaction is run in the presence of competing nucleophiles, for example, *p*-ethoxyaniline when ethanol is present, and that when the para position is blocked, compounds similar to 23 are isolated. In the case of 2,6-dimethylphenylhydroxylamine, the intermediate nitrenium ion 22 was trapped, and its lifetime in solution was measured.[288] The reaction of 22 with water was found to be diffusion controlled.[288]

OS IV, 148.

13-24 *The Smiles Rearrangement*



The *Smiles rearrangement* actually comprises a group of rearrangements that follow the pattern give above.[289] A specific example is



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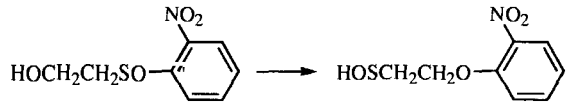
Smiles rearrangements are simply intramolecular nucleophilic substitutions. In the example given, SO_2Ar is the leaving group and ArO^- the nucleophile, and the nitro group serves to activate its ortho position. The ring at which the substitution takes place is nearly always activated, usually by ortho or para nitro groups. The X group is usually S, SO, SO_2,[290] O, or COO. The Y group is usually the conjugate base of OH, NH_2, NHR, or SH. The reaction has even been carried out with Y = CH_2^- (phenyllithium was the base here).[291]

The reaction rate is greatly enhanced by substitution in the 6 position of the attacking ring, for steric reasons. For example, a methyl, chloro, or bromo group in

the 6 position of 24 caused the rate to be $\sim 10^5$ times faster than when the same groups were in the 4 position,[292] though electrical effects should be similar at these positions. The enhanced rate comes about because the most favorable conformation the molecule can adopt to suit the bulk of the 6 substituent is also the conformation required for the rearrangement. Thus, less entropy of activation is required.

Although the Smiles rearrangement is usually carried out on compounds containing two rings, this need not be the case; for example,[293]



25

In this case, the sulfenic acid (25) is unstable[294] and the actual products isolated were the corresponding sulfinic acid (RSO2H) and disulfide (R_2S_2).

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CHAPTER 14

Free-Radical Substitution

MECHANISMS

Free-Radical Mechanisms in General[1]

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, that is, a cleavage in which each fragment retains one electron:

$$A\text{-}B \longrightarrow A\cdot + B\cdot$$

This is called an *initiation* step. It may happen spontaneously or may be induced by heat or light (see the discussion on p. 245), depending on the type of bond. Peroxides, including hydrogen peroxide, dialkyl, diacyl, alkyl acyl peroxides, and peroxyacids 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), for example, $A^+ + e^- \rightarrow A\cdot$. 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:[2]

$$A\cdot + B\cdot \longrightarrow A\text{-}B$$

This type of step is called *termination*, and it ends the reaction as far as these particular radicals are concerned.[3] 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 (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, for example,

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

in which case it may be another free radical; or it may consist of two particles, for example,

$$R\cdot + R'H \longrightarrow RH + R'\cdot$$

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]

$$R{-}CH_2\cdot + n\text{-}Bu_3Sn{-}H \longrightarrow R{-}CH_2{-}H + n\text{-}Bu_3Sn\cdot$$

$$\text{rt-Bu}\text{\^{}}Sn^* + n\text{-}Bu_3Sn\cdot \longrightarrow n\text{-}Bu_3Sn{-}Sn\,n\text{-}Bu_3$$

A useful variation of propagation and termination combines the two processes. When a carbon radical ($R\cdot$) is generated in the presence of tributyltin hydride (n-Bu_3SnH), a hydrogen atom is transferred to the radical to give R—H and a new radical, n-$Bu_3Sn\bullet$. The tin radical reacts with a second tin radical to give n-$Bu_3Sn{-}Sn\,n$-Bu_3. The net result is that the carbon radical is reduced to give the desired product and the tin dimer can be removed from the reaction. Tin hydride transfers a hydrogen atom in a chain propagation sequence that produces a new radical but terminates the carbon radical sequence. Dimerization of the tin radical then terminates that radical process. Silanes such as triethylsilane (Et_3SiH) has also been used as an effective radical reducing agent.[6] The rate constants for the reaction of both tributytin hydride and $(Me_3Si)_3Si{-}H$ with acyl radical has been measured and the silane quenches the radical faster than the tin hydride.[7] Bis(tri-n-butylstannyl)benzopinacolate has also been used as a thermal source of n-$Bu_3Sn\cdot$, used to mediate radical reactions.[8]

The following are some general characteristics of free-radical reactions:[9]

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.[10]
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. 1316). Quantum yields can be quite high, for example, 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*.[11]

In this chapter, we discuss 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.

Free-Radical Substitution Mechanisms[12]

In a free-radical substitution reaction

$$\text{R–X} \longrightarrow \text{R-Y} \qquad (14.1)$$

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

$$\text{R–X} \longrightarrow \text{R}\cdot + \text{X}\cdot \qquad (14.2)$$

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

$$\text{R-X} + \text{W}\cdot \longrightarrow \text{R}\cdot + \text{W-X} \qquad (14.3)$$

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

$$\text{R}\cdot + \text{Y-W} \longrightarrow \text{R-Y} + \text{W} \qquad (14.4)$$

or by coupling with another radical

$$\text{R}\cdot + \text{Y}\cdot \longrightarrow \text{R-Y} \qquad (14.5)$$

In a reaction with a moderately long chain, much more of the product will be produced by abstraction (14.4) than by coupling (14.5). Cleavage steps like (14.2)

have been called S_H1 (H for homolytic), and abstraction steps like (14.3) and (14.4) have been called S_H2; reactions can be classified as S_H1 or S_H2 on the basis of whether RX is converted to R by (14.2) or (14.3).[13] Most chain substitution mechanisms follow the pattern (14.3), (14.4), (14.3), (14.4)____Chains are long and reactions go well where both (14.3) and (14.4) are energetically favored (no worse that slightly endothermic, see pp. 900, 910). The IUPAC designation of a chain reaction that follows the pattern (14.3), (14.4)... 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:

$$\overset{\delta+}{\text{PhCH}_2}\cdots\text{H}\cdots\overset{\delta-}{\text{Br}}$$

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.[14] However, as we might expect, substituents have a smaller effect here ($\rho \approx -1.4$) than they do in reactions where a completely ionic intermediate is involved, for example, the S_N1 mechanism (see p. 437). Other evidence for polar transition states in radical abstraction reactions is mentioned on page 902. For abstraction by radicals such as methyl or phenyl, polar effects are very small or completely absent. For example, rates of hydrogen abstraction from ring-substituted toluenes by the methyl radical were relatively unaffected by the presence of electron-donating or electron-withdrawing substituents.[15] Those radicals (e.g., Br·) that have a tendency to abstract electron-rich hydrogen atoms are called *electrophilic radicals.*

When the reaction step $R{-}X \rightarrow R\cdot$ 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[16] and retention[17] of configuration have been reported, and in the reactions mentioned on page 899.

Mechanisms at an Aromatic Substrate[18]

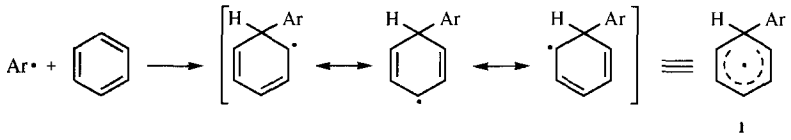
When R in Reaction (14.1) is aromatic, the simple abstraction mechanism just discussed may be operating, especially in gas-phase reactions. However, mechanisms of this type cannot account for all reactions of aromatic substrates. In processes such as the following (see **14-17, 14-21,** and **14-22):**

$$\text{Ar}\cdot + \text{ArH} \longrightarrow \text{Ar}{-}\text{Ar} \qquad (14.6)$$

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

$$Ar\cdot + ArH \longrightarrow Ar\text{-}Ar + H\cdot \qquad (14.7)$$

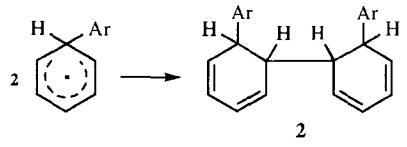
since, as discussed on page 900, abstraction of an entire group such as phenyl by a free radical is very unlikely. The products can be explained by a mechanism similar to that of electrophilic and nucleophilic aromatic substitution. In the first step, the radical attacks the ring in much the same way as would an electrophile or a nucleophile:



(14.8)

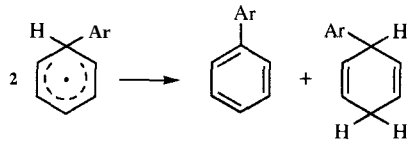
1

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



(14.9)

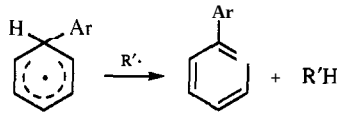
2



(14.10)

3

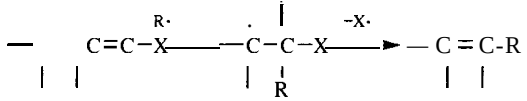
or, if a species (R'*) is present that abstracts hydrogen, by abstraction[19]



(14.11)

2 is a partially hydrogenated quaterphenyl. Of course, the coupling need not be ortho-ortho, and other isomers can also be formed. Among the evidence for Reactions (14.9) and (14.10) was isolation of compounds of types 2 and 3,[20] 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[21] and the absence of isotope effects, which would be

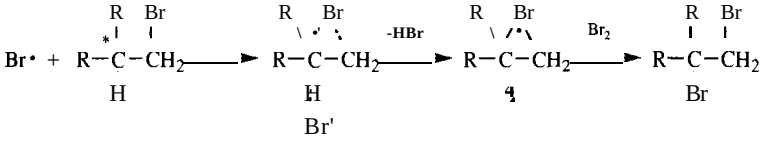
expected if the rate-determining step were Reaction (14-7), which involves cleavage of the Ar—H bond. In the mechanism just given, the rate-determining step in Reaction **(14-8)** does not involve loss of hydrogen. The reaction between aromatic rings and the OH· radical takes place by the same mechanism. A similar mechanism has been shown for substitution at some vinylic and acetylenic substrates, for example:[22]



This is reminiscent of the nucleophilic tetrahedral mechanism at a vinylic carbon (p. 429).

Neighboring-Group Assistance in Free-Radical Reactions

In a few cases, it has been shown that cleavage steps in Reaction **(14-2)** and abstraction steps in Reaction **(14-3)** have been accelerated by the presence of neighboring groups. Photolytic halogenation **(14-1)** 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 84-94% substitution at the carbon adjacent to the bromine already in the molecule.[23] This result is especially surprising because, as we shall see (p. 902), positions close to a polar group such as bromine should actually be *deactivated* by the electron-withdrawing field effect of the bromine. The unusual regioselectivity is explained by a mechanism in which abstraction in Reaction **(14-3)** is assisted by a neighboring bromine atom:[24]



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).[25] In the final step (very similar to $R\cdot + Br_2 \rightarrow RBr + Br$), 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-raethylbutane with retention of configuration.[24] 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.[26] 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,[27] though ESR spectra show that the bridging is not necessarily symmetrical.[28] Still more evidence for bridging by Br has been found in isotope effect and other studies.[29] 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 [$PhCOO\cdot\cdot CH_2CH_2Br$] within a solvent cage.[30] This evidence indicates that under these conditions $BrCH_2CH_2\cdot$ 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 (14-37),[31] and in abstraction of iodine atoms by the phenyl radical.[32] Participation by other neighboring groups (e.g. SR, SiR_3, SnR_3), has also been reported.[33]

REACTIVITY

Reactivity for Aliphatic Substrates[34]

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-[35] or tervalent atom[36] (except in strained systems, see p. 989)[37] and seldom a divalent one.[38] 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:

$$\begin{array}{rl} & H{-}Cl + CH_3CH_2\cdot \qquad Mi = -3\ \text{kcal mol}^{-1},\ -13\ \text{kJ mol}^{-1} \\ CH_3CH_3 + Cl\cdot & \\ & CH_3CH_2{-}Cl + H\cdot \qquad AH = +18\ \text{kcal mol}^{-1},\ +76\ \text{kJ mol}^{-1} \end{array}$$

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^{-1}, 419 kJ mol^{-1}, from Table 5.3) whichever pathway is taken, but in the former case an H–Cl bond is formed (D = 103 kcal mol^{-1}, 432 kJ mol^{-1}) while in the latter case it is a C_2H_5–Cl bond (D = 82 kcal mol^{-1}, 343 kJ mol^{-1}). Thus the first reaction is favored because it is exothermic by 3 kcal mol^{-1} [13 kJ mol^{-1}], while the latter is endothermic by 18 kcal mol^{-1} [76 kJ mol^{-1}].[39] However, the steric reason is clearly more important, because even in cases where AH is not very different for the two possibilities, the univalent atom is chosen.[40] *Ab initio* studies have probed the transition structures for radical hydrogen abstractions.[41]

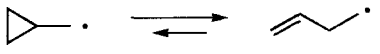
Most studies of aliphatic reactivity have been made with hydrogen as the leaving atom and chlorine atoms as the abstracting species.[42] In these reactions, every hydrogen in the substrate is potentially replaceable and mixtures are usually obtained. However, the abstracting radical is not totally unselective, and some positions on a molecule lose hydrogen more easily than others. *Ab initio* studies have studied the factors controlling hydrogen abstraction by radicals.[43] For hydrogen abstraction by the *tert*-butoxy radical (*t*-Bu–O·) the factors that influence rate in

TABLE 14.1 Relative Susceptibility to Attack by Cl· of Primary, Secondary, and Tertiary Positions at 100 and 600° C in the Gas Phase

Temperature (°C)	Primary	Secondary	Tertiary
100	1	4.3	7.0
600	1	2.1	2.6

their order of importance are structure of the radical > substituent effects > solvent effects.[44] We discuss the position of attack under several headings:[45]

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 depends on the selectivity of the abstracting radical and on the temperature. Table 14.1[46] shows that at high temperatures selectivity decreases, as might be expected.[47] 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_2SO_4 with *N*-chloro-di-*tert*-butylamine and *N*-chloro-*tert*-butyl-tert-pentylamine, the primary hydrogens are abstracted 1.7 times *faster* than the tertiary hydrogen.[48] In this case, the attacking radicals (the radical ions $R_2NH\cdot^+$, see p. 909) are bulky enough for steric hindrance to become a major factor.



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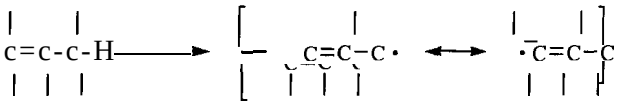
Cyclopropylcarbinyl radicals (5) are alkyl radicals but they undergo rapid ring opening to give butenyl radicals.[49] The rate constant for this process has been measured by picosecond radical kinetic techniques to be in the range of $10^7 M^{-1} s^{-1}$ for the parent[50] to $10^{10} M^{-1} s^{-1}$ for substituted derivatives.[51] This process has been observed in bicyclo[4.1.0]heptan-4-ones.[52]

2. *Alkenes.* 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. Allylic hydrogen abstraction from a cyclic alkenes is usually faster than abstraction from an acyclic alkene.[53]

This is generally attributed[54] to resonance stabilization of the allylic radical:



As might be expected, allylic rearrangements (see p. 421) are common in these cases.[55]

3. *Alkyl Side Chains of Aromatic Rings.* The preferential position of attack on a side chain is usually the one a 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:[56]

	Me-H	$MeCH_2$–H	Me_2CH–H	Me_3C–H	$PhCH_2$–H	Ph_2CH–H	Ph_3C–H
Br	0.0007	1	220	19,400	64,000	1.1×10^6	6.4×10^6
Cl	0.004	1	4.3	6.0	1.3	2.6	9.5

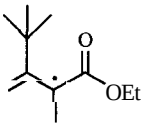
However, many anomalous results have been reported for these substrates. The benzylic position is not always the most favored. One thing certain is that *aromatic* hydrogens are seldom abstracted if there are aliphatic ones to compete (note from Table 5.3, that *D* for Ph–H is higher than that for any alkyl H bond). Several $\sigma\cdot$ scales (similar to the cr, σ^+, and σ^- scales discussed in Chapter 9) have been developed for benzylic radicals.[57]

4. *Compounds Containing Electron-Withdrawing Substituents.* In halogenations, electron-withdrawing groups greatly deactivate adjacent positions. Compounds of the type $Z–CH_2–CH_3$ are attacked predominantly or exclusively at the (3 position when Z is COOH, COCl, COOR, SO_2Cl, or CX_3. Such compounds as acetic acid and acetyl chloride are not attacked at all. This is in sharp contrast to electrophilic halogenations **(12-4-12-6),** where *only* the α-position is substituted. This deactivation of a 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 page 896. 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 a and β carbons of propionic acid are[58]

	$CH_3–CH_2–COOH$	
Me·	1	7.8
Cl·	1	0.02

It is possible to generate radicals adjacent to electron-withdrawing groups. Radical 6 can be generated and it undergoes coupling reactions with little selectivity. When 7 is generated, however, it rapidly disproportionates rather than couples, giving the corresponding alkene and alkane.[59] Such radicals have also been shown to have a conformational preference for orientation of the orbital containing the single electron. In such cases, hydrogen abstraction proceeds with good stereoselectivity.[60]

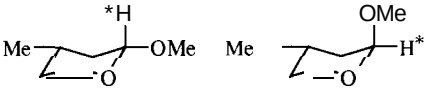
6



7

Some radicals (e.g., terf-butyl,[61] benzyl,[62] and cyclopropyl),[63] are *nucleophilic* (they tend to abstract electron-poor hydrogen atoms). The phenyl radical appears to have a very small degree of nucleophilic character.[64] For longer chains, the field effect continues, and the (3 position is also deactivated to attack by halogen, though much less so than the a position. We have already mentioned (p. 896) that abstraction of an a hydrogen atom from ring-substituted toluenes can be correlated by the Hammett equation.

5. *Stereoelectronic Effects.* On page 427, 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 ($\approx$30°) with the unshared orbitals of the O or N much more easily than from those with a large angle ($\approx$90°). For example, the starred hydrogen of 8 was abstracted about eight times faster than the starred hydrogen of 9.[65]



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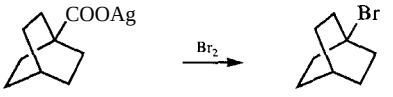
9

The presence of an OR or SiR_3 substituent β to the carbon bearing the radical accelerates the rate of halogen abstraction.[66]

Abstraction of a halogen has been studied much less,[67] but the order of reactivity is RI > RBr > RCl $\gg$ RF. There are now many cases where free-radical reactions are promoted by transition metals.[68]

Reactivity at a Bridgehead[69]

Many free-radical reactions have been observed at bridgehead carbons (e.g., see 14-37),[70]

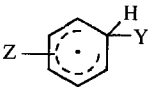


87%

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.[71] So, while bridgehead free-radical substitution is possible, it is not preferred, presumably because of the strain involved.[72]

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; that is, 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 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[73]

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.

TABLE 14.2 Partial Rate Factors for Attack of Substituted Benzenes by Phenyl Radicals Generated from Bz_2O_2 (Reaction 14-21)

	Partial Rate Factor		
Z	o	m	p
H	1	1	1
NO_2	5.50	0.86	4.90
CH_3	4.70	1.24	3.55
CMe_3	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

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).[74] The increase could be correlated with the Hammett σ_p values for X.
5. Substituents have a much smaller effect than in electrophilic or nucleophilic substitution; hence the partial rate factors (see p. 690) are not great.[75] Partial rate factors for a few groups are given in Table 14.2.[76]
6. Although hydrogen is the leaving group in most free-radical aromatic substitutions, ipso attack (p. 687) and ipso substitution (e.g., with Br, NO_2, or CH3CO as the leaving group) have been found in certain cases.[77]

Reactivity in the Attacking Radical[78]

We have already seen that some radicals are much more selective than others (p. 901). The bromine atom is so selective that when only primary hydrogens are available, as in neopentane or tert-butylbenzene, the reaction is slow or nonexistent; and isobutane can be selectively brominated to give tert-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 a position,[79] 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 a 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.[80]

TABLE 14.3 Some Common Free Radicals in Decreasing Order of **Activity**[a]

$$X\cdot + C_2H_6 \rightarrow X{-}H + C_2H_5\cdot$$[b]

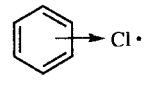
	E			E	
Radical	kcal mol^{-1}	kJ mol^{-1}	Radical	kcal mol^{-1}	kJ mol^{-1}
F·	0.3	1.3	H·	9.0	38
Cl·	1.0	4.2	Me·	11.8	49.4
MeO	7.1	30	Br·	13.2	55.2
CF_3·	7.5	31			

[a] The E values represent activation energies for the reaction *i*-Pr· is less active than Me· and *t*-Bu· still less so.[81]
[b] See Ref. 80.

It has been mentioned that some free radicals (e.g., chloro) are electrophilic and some (e.g., *tert*-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[82]

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 ~60% $(CH_3)_2CHCH(CH_3)CH_2Cl$ and 40% $(CH_3)_2CHCCl(CH_3)_2$, while in aromatic solvents the ratio became ~10:90.[83] This result is attributed to complex formation between the



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aromatic solvent and the chlorine atom that makes the chlorine more selective.[84] This type of effect is not found in cases where the differences in abstractability are caused by field effects of electron-withdrawing groups (p. 902). In such cases, aromatic solvents make little difference.[85] Complex 10 has been detected[86] as a very short-lived species by observation of its visible spectrum in the pulse radiolysis of a solution of benzene in CCl_4.[87] Differences caused by solvents have also been reported in reactions of other radicals.[88] Some of the anomalous results obtained in the chlorination of aromatic side chains (p. 902) can also be explained by this type of complexing, in this case not with the solvent but with the reacting species.[89] 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_4.[90] However, these differences are not caused by formation of a complex between Cl· and the solvent. There are cases, however, where the rate of reaction for trapping a radical depends on the polarity of the solvent, particularly in water.[91]

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*

14-1 *Halogenation at an Alkyl Carbon*[92]

HALOGENATION OR HALO-DE-HYDROGENATION

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

Alkanes can be chlorinated or brominated by treatment with chlorine or bromine in the presence of visible or UV light.[93] 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 invariably occur even if there is a large molar ratio of substrate to halogen. When functional groups are present, the principles are those outlined on page 901; favored positions are those a to aromatic rings, while positions a to electron-withdrawing groups are least likely to be substituted. Tertiary carbons are most likely to be attacked and primary least. Positions a to an OR group are very readily attacked. Nevertheless, mixtures are nearly always obtained. This can be contrasted to the regioselectivity of electrophilic halogenation (12-4-12-6), which always takes place a to a carbonyl group (except when the reaction is catalyzed by $AgSbF_6$; see the 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.[94] Of course, ring substitution *does* take place in the presence of a positive ion forming catalyst (11-11). In addition to mixtures of various alkyl halides, traces of other products are obtained. These include dihydrogen, alkenes, higher alkanes, lower alkanes, and

halogen derivatives of these compounds. Solvent plays an important role in this process.[95]

The bromine atom is much more selective than the chlorine atom. As indicated on page 906, it is often possible to brominate tertiary and benzylic positions selectively. High regioselectivity can also be obtained where the neighboring-group mechanism (p. 899) can operate.

As already mentioned, halogenation can be performed with chlorine or bromine. Fluorine has also been used,[96] but seldom, because it is too reactive and hard to control.[97] It often breaks carbon chains down into smaller units, a side reaction that sometimes becomes troublesome in chlorinations too. Fluorination[98] has been achieved by the use of chlorine trifluoride ClF_3 at $-75°C$.[99] For example, cyclohexane gave 41% fluorocyclohexane and methylcyclohexane gave 47% 1-fluoro-1-methylcyclohexane. Fluoroxytrifluoromethane (CF_3OF) fluorinates tertiary positions of certain molecules in good yields with high regioselectivity.[100] For example, adamantane gave 75% 1-fluoroadamantane. Difluorine (F_2) at -70°C, diluted with N_2,[101] and bromine trifluoride at 25-35°C[102] are also highly regioselective for tertiary positions. These reactions probably have electrophilic,[103] not free-radical mechanisms. In fact, the success of the F_2 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,[104] 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_2Cl_2).[105] A mixture of Br_2 and HgO is a more active brominating agent than bromine alone.[106] The actual brominating agent in this case is believed to be bromine monoxide (Br_2O). Among other agents used have been NBS (see 14-2), CCl_4,[107] $BrCCl_3$,[108] PCl_5,[109] and N-haloamines and sulfuric acid.[110] In all these cases a chain-initiating catalyst is required, usually peroxides or UV light.

A base-induced bromination has been reported. 2-Methyl butane reacts with 50% aqueous NaOH and CBr_4, in a phase-transfer catalyst, to give a modest yields of 2-bromo-2-methylbutane.[111]

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.[110] In particular, alkyl chains are chlorinated with high regioselectivity at the position next to the end of the chain (the $\omega - 1$ position).[112] Some typical selectivity values are[113]

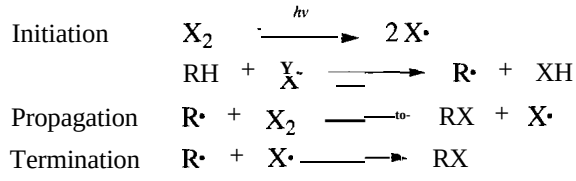
$$\underset{1}{CH_3}-\underset{56}{CH_2}-\underset{29}{CH_2}-\underset{14}{CH_2}-CH_2-CH_2-CH_3 \qquad \text{Ref. 114}$$

$$\underset{1}{CH_3}-\underset{92}{CH_2}-\underset{3}{CH_2}-\underset{1}{CH_2}-\underset{1}{CH_2}-\underset{2}{CH_2}-\underset{0}{CH_2}-\underset{0}{CH_2}-OH \qquad \text{Ref 115}$$

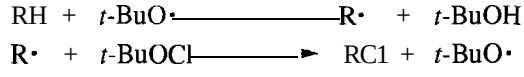
$$\underset{3}{CH_3}-\underset{72}{CH_2}-\underset{20}{CH_2}-\underset{4}{CH_2}-\underset{1}{CH_2}-\underset{0}{CH_2}-COOMe \qquad \text{Ref 116}$$

Furthermore, di- and polychlorination are much less prevalent. Dicarboxylic acids are predominantly chlorinated in the middle of the chain,[117] and adamantane and bicyclo[2.2.2]octane at the bridgeheads[118] by this procedure. The reasons for the high $\omega-1$ specificity are not clearly understood.[119] Alkyl bromides can be regioselectively chlorinated one carbon away from the bromine (to give *vic*-bromochlorides) by treatment with PCl_5.[120] Alkyl chlorides can be converted to *vic*-dichlorides by treatment with $MoCl_5$.[121] Enhanced selectivity at a terminal position of *n*-alkanes has been achieved by absorbing the substrate onto a pentasil zeolite.[122] In another regioselective chlorination, alkanesulfonamides $RCH_2CH_2CH_2SO_2NHR'$ are converted primarily to $RCHClCH_2CH_2SO_2NHR'$ by sodium peroxydisulfate ($Na_2S_2O_8$) and $CuCl_2$.[123] For regioselective chlorination at certain positions of the steroid nucleus, see **19-2.**

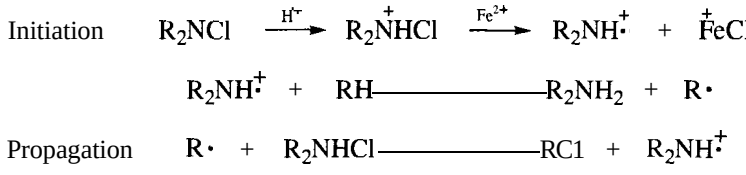
In almost all cases, the mechanism involves a free-radical chain:



When the reagent is halogen, initiation occurs as shown above.[124] 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[125]



and the abstracting radicals in the case of N-haloamines are the aminium radical cations $R_2NH^{\cdot+}$ (p. 701), with the following mechanism (in the case of initiation by Fe^{2+}):[110]



This mechanism is similar to that of the Hofmann–Löffler reaction **(18-40).**

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 accounted for by steps like these (these are for

chlorination of methane, but analogous steps can be written for other substrates):

$$Cl\cdot + HCl \longrightarrow Cl{-}Cl + H\cdot$$
$$H + H\cdot \longrightarrow H{-}H$$
$$\cdot CH_3 + \cdot CH_3 \longrightarrow CH3CH3$$
$$CH_3CH_3 + Cl\cdot \longrightarrow CH_3CH_2\cdot + HC1$$
$$CH_3CH_2\cdot + Cl_2 \longrightarrow CH_3CH_2Cl + Cl\text{-}$$
$$CH_3CH_2\cdot + CH_3CH_2\cdot \longrightarrow CH_3CH_3 + CH_2{=}CH_2$$
$$CH_3CH_2\cdot + CH_3CH_2\cdot \longrightarrow CH_3CH_2{-}CH_2CH_3$$
$$CH_3CH_2\cdot + HC1 \longrightarrow CH_3CH_3 + Cl\cdot$$

etc.

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

$$CH4 + Cl\cdot \longrightarrow \cdot CH_3 + HCl$$

since an isotope effect of 12.1 was observed at 0°C.[126] For chlorinations, chains are very long, typically 10^4–10^6 propagations before a termination step takes place.

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

	F_2	Cl_2	Br_2	I2	F2	Cl_2	Br_2	I_2
	(kcal mol^{-1})				(kJ/mol^{-1})			
CH4 + X· → CH_3· + HX	-31	+2	+ 17	+34	-132	+6	+72	+ 140
CH4 + X2 → CH_3X + X·	-70	-26	-24	-21	-293	-113	-100	-87

In each case, *D* for CH_3–H is 105 kcal mol^{-1} (438 kJ mol^{-1}), while *D* values for the other bonds involved are given in Table 14.4.[127] The F_2 compound is so reactive[128] that neither UV light nor any other initiation is needed (total $AH = -101$ kcal mol^{-1}; -425 kJ mol^{-1});[129] while Br_2 and I_2 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_2 and I_2. It is apparent that the most important single factor causing the order of halogen reactivity to be $F_2 > Cl_2 > Br_2 > I_2$ is the decreasing strength of the HX bond in the order HF > HC1 > 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 CH4, since most other aliphatic C–H bonds are weaker than those in CH4.)

Bromination and chlorination of alkanes and cycloalkanes can also take place by an electrophilic mechanism if the reaction is catalyzed by $AgSbF_6$.[130] Direct chlorination at a vinylic position by an electrophilic mechanism has been achieved with benzeneseleninyl chloride, PhSe(O)Cl, and $AlCl_3$ or $AlBr_3$.[131] However, while

TABLE 14.4 Some *D* Values

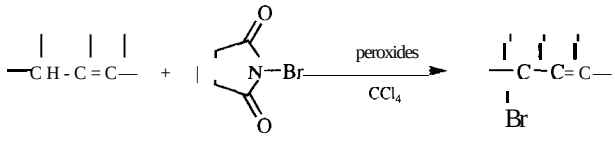
	D	
Bond	(kcal mol^{-1})	(kJ mol^{-1})
H–F	136	570
H–Cl	103	432
H-Br	88	366
H–I	71	298
F-F	38	159
Cl–Cl	59	243
Br-Br	46	193
I–I	36	151
CH_3–F	108	452
CH_3–Cl	85	356
CH_3–Br	70	293
CH_3–I	57	238

some substituted alkenes give high yields of chloro substitution products, others (such as styrene) undergo addition of Cl_2 to the double bond (**15-37**).[131] Electrophilic fluorination has already been mentioned (p. 908).

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; **VIII,** 161.

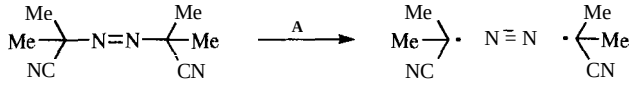
14-2 *Allylic and Benzylic Halogenation*

HALOGENATION OR HALO-DE-HYDROGENATION



This reaction is a special case of **14-1,** but is important enough to be treated separately.[132] Alkenes can be halogenated in the allylic position and also a benzylic position by a number of reagents, of which NBS[133] is by far the most common. When this reagent is used, the reaction is known as *Wohl–Ziegler bromination.* A nonpolar solvent is used, most often CCl_4. Other N-bromo amides have also been used. To a much lesser extent, allylic chlorination has been carried out, with NCS or tert-butyl hypochlorite.[134] With any reagent an initiator is needed; this is usually a peroxide such as di-*tert*-butyl peroxide or benzoyl peroxide or, less often, UV light. An extremely useful radical initiator is AIBN (**11**), which decomposes to give cyano radicals (12) and nitrogen gas upon heating.[135] A new derivative has been developed that decomposes to initiate radical reactions at room temperature, 2,2'-azobis-(2,4-

dimethyl-4-methoxyvaleronitrile), 13.[136]



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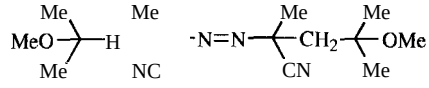

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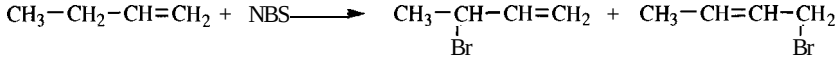
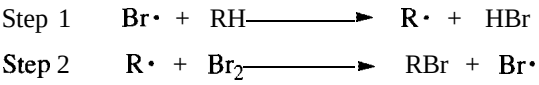
The reaction is usually quite specific at the allylic position and good yields are obtained. However, when the allylic radical intermediate is unsymmetrical, allylic rearrangements can take place, so that mixtures of both possible products are obtained, for example,



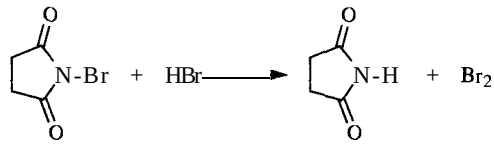
When a double bond has two different allylic positions (e.g., $CH_3CH{=}CHCH_2CH_3$) a secondary position is substituted more readily than a primary. The relative reactivity of tertiary hydrogen is not clear, though many substitutions at allylic tertiary positions have been performed.[137] It is possible to brominate both sides of the double bond.[138] Because of the electron-withdrawing nature of bromine, the second bromine substitutes on the other side of the double bond rather than a to the first bromine. Molecules with a benzylic hydrogen, such as toluene, react rapidly to give α-bromomethyl benzene (e.g., $PhCH_3 \rightarrow PhCH_2Br$).

N-Bromosuccinimide is also a highly regioselective brominating agent at other positions, including positions a 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 a to the triple bond.[139]

That the mechanism of allylic bromination is of the free-radical type was demonstrated by Dauben and McCoy,[140] 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

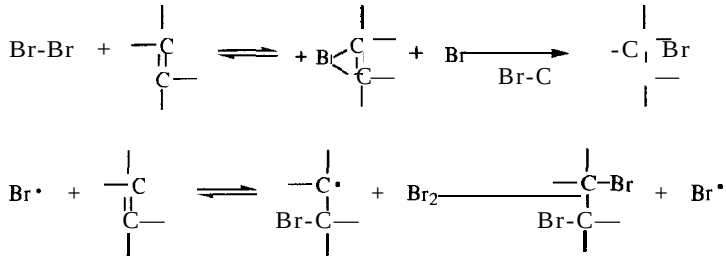


The source of the Br_2 is a fast ionic reaction between NBS and the HBr liberated in step 1:

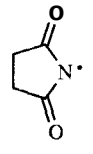


The function of the NBS is therefore to provide a source of Br_2 in a low, steady-state concentration and to use up the HBr liberated in step 1.[141] The main evidence for this mechanism is that NBS and Br_2 show similar selectivity[142] and that the various N-bromo amides also show similar selectivity,[143] which is consistent with the hypothesis that the same species is abstracting in each case.[144]

It may be asked why, if Br_2 is the reacting species, it does not add to the double bond, either by an ionic or by a free-radical mechanism (see **15-37**). 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. This is clearly not a problem in reactions with benzylic species since the benzene ring is not prone to such addition reactions. 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 alkene 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.[145]



14

When NBS is used to brominate non-alkenyl substrates such as alkanes, another mechanism, involving abstraction of the hydrogen of the substrate by the succinimidyl radical[146] 14 can operate.[147] This mechanism is facilitated by solvents (such as CH_2Cl_2, $CHCl_3$, or 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 14 are abstraction selectivities similar to those of Cl· atoms and the isolation of β-bromopropionyl isocyanate ($BrCH_2CH_2C$-ONCO), which is formed by ring opening of 14.

Allylic chlorination has also been carried out[148] with NCS 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_2O), with no catalyst, also gives allylically rearranged chlorides in high yields.[149] A free-radical mechanism is unlikely in these reactions.

Allyl silanes react with transition metals bearing chlorine ligands to give allyl chlorides, where a chlorine replaces a Me_3Si unit.[150]

OS IV, 108; V, 825; VI, 462; IX, 191.

14-3 *Halogenation of Aldehydes*

HALOGENATION OR HALO-DE-HYDROGENATION

$$RCHO + Cl_2 \longrightarrow RCOCl$$

Aldehydes can be directly converted to acyl chlorides by treatment with chlorine; however, the reaction operates only when the aldehyde does not contain an a hydrogen and even then it is not very useful. When there is an a hydrogen, a halogenation **(12-4)** occurs instead. Other sources of chlorine have also been used, among them SO_2Cl_2[151] and *t*-BuOCl.[152] The mechanisms are probably of the free-radical type. *N*-Bromosuccinimide, with AIBN (p. 912) as a catalyst, has been used to convert aldehydes to acyl bromides.[153]

OS I, 155.

B. *Substitution by Oxygen*

14-4 *Hydroxylation at an Aliphatic Carbon*

HYDROXYLATION OR HYDROXY-DE-HYDROGENATION

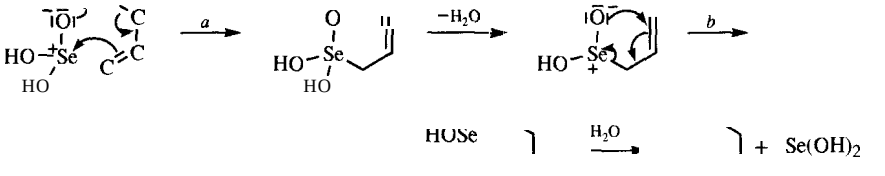
$$R_3CH \xrightarrow[\text{silica gel}]{O_3} R_3COH$$

Compounds containing susceptible C—H bonds can be oxidized to alcohols.[154] 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.[155] Yields as high as 99% have been obtained by this method. Other reagents are chromic acid,[156] potassium hydrogen persulfate ($KHSO_5$),[157] ruthenium tetroxide (RuO_4),[158] 2,6-dichloropyridine *N*-oxide with a ruthenium catalyst,[159] thallium acetate,[160] sodium chlorite ($NaClO_2$)

with a metalloporphyrin catalyst,[161] and certain peroxybenzoic acids.[162] Alkanes and cycloalkanes have been oxidized at secondary positions, to a mixture of alcohols and trifluoroacetates, by 30% aqueous H_2O_2 in trifluoroacetic acid.[163] 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 **14-1),** the 00— 1 position is the most favored. Another reagent[164] that oxidizes secondary positions is iodosylbenzene, catalyzed by $Fe^{(III)}$–porphyrin catalysts.[165] Use of an optically active $Fe^{(III)}$–porphyrin gave enantioselective hydroxylation, with moderate enantiomeric excesses.[166]

When chromic acid is the reagent, the mechanism is probably as follows: A Cr^{6+} species abstracts a hydrogen to give $R_3C\cdot$, which is held in a solvent cage near the resulting Cr^{5+} species. The two species then combine to give R_3COCr^{4+}, which is hydrolyzed to the alcohol. This mechanism predicts retention of configuration; this is largely observed.[167] The oxidation by permanganate also involves predominant retention of configuration, and a similar mechanism has been proposed.[168]

Treatment of double-bond compounds with selenium dioxide introduces an OH group into the allylic position (see also **19-14**).[169] This reaction also produces conjugated aldehydes in some cases.[170] Allylic rearrangements are common. There is evidence that the mechanism does not involve free radicals but includes two pericyclic steps (a and *b*):[171]

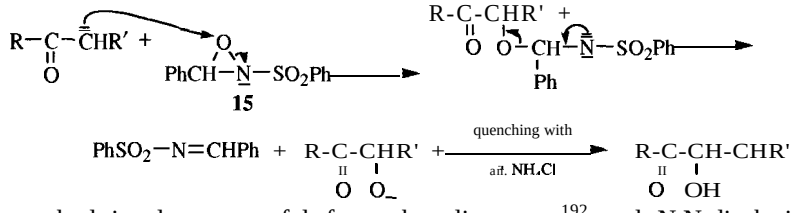


The step marked *a* is similar to the ene synthesis **(15-20).** The step marked *b* is a [2,3] sigmatropic rearrangement (see **18-35).** The reaction can also be accomplished with *tert*-butyl hydroperoxide, if SeO_2 is present in catalytic amounts (the *Sharpless method*).[172] The SeO_2 is the actual reagent; the peroxide reoxidizes the $Se(OH)_2$.[173] This method makes work up easier, but gives significant amounts of side products when the double bond is in a ring.[174] Alkynes generally give α,α' dihydroxylation.[175]

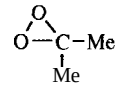
Ketones and carboxylic esters can be a hydroxylated by treatment of their enolate forms (prepared by adding the ketone or ester to LDA) with a molybdenum peroxide reagent (MoO_5–pyridine–HMPA) in THF-hexane at -70°C.[176] The enolate forms of amides and esters[177] and the enamine derivatives of ketones[178] can similarly be converted to their a hydroxy derivatives by reaction with molecular oxygen. The MoO_5 method can also be applied to certain nitriles.[179] Ketones have also been a hydroxylated by treating the corresponding silyl enol ethers with *m*-chloroperoxybenzoic acid,[179] or with certain other oxidizing agents.[180] When the silyl enol ethers are treated with iodosobenzene in the presence of trimethylsilyl trifluoromethyl sulfonate, the product is the α-keto triflate.[181]

Ketones can be a hydroxylated in good yields, without conversion to the enolates, by treatment with the hypervalent iodine reagents[182] *o*-iodosobenzoic acid[183] or phenyliodoso acetate $PhI(OAc)_2$ in methanolic NaOH.[184] The latter reagent has also been used on carboxylic esters.[185] Dioxysen and a chiral phase-transfer catalyst gave enantioselective a hydroxylation of ketones, if the a position was tertiary.[186] Titanium enolates can be oxidized with *tert*-butyl hydroperoxide [187] or with dimethyl dioxirane[188] and hydrolyzed with aqueous ammonium fluoride to give the α-hydroxy ketone. Dimethyl dioxirane is quite effective for hydroxylation of 1,3-dicarbonyl compounds.[189] Ceric ammonium nitrate has been used to hydroxylate C-2 of dibenzyl malonate.[190] α-Lithio sulfones have been hydroxylated with Me_3SiOOt-Bu.[191]

A different method for the conversion of ketones to a-hydroxy ketones consists of treating the enolate with a 2-sulfonyloxaziridine (such as **15**).[192] This is not a free-radical process; the following mechanism is likely:



This method is also successful for carboxylic esters[192] and N,N-disubstituted amides,[193] and can be made enantioselective by the use of a chiral oxaziridine.[194] Dimethyldioxirane also oxidizes ketones (through their enolate forms) to a-hydroxy ketones.[195]



Dimethyldioxirane

Tetrahydrofuran was converted to the hemiacetal 2-hydroxytetrahydrofuran (which was relatively stable under the conditions used) by electrolysis in water.[196]

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

14-5 *Hydroxylation at an Aromatic Carbon*[197]

HYDROXYLATION OR HYDROXY-DE-HYDROGENATION

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

A mixture of hydrogen peroxide and ferrous sulfate,[198] called *Fenton's reagent*,[199] can be used to hydroxylate aromatic rings, though yields are usually not high.[200] Biaryls are usually side products.[201] Among other reagents used have been H_2O_2 and titanous ion; O_2 and Cu(I)[202] or Fe(III),[203] a mixture of ferrous ion, oxygen, ascorbic acid, and ethylenetetraaminetetraacetic acid *(Udenfriend's reagent);*[204] O_2 and KOH in liquid NH_3;[205] and peroxyacids such as peroxynitrous and trifluoroperoxyacetic 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· + ArH → AR· 4- H_2O) are not intermediates. The mechanism is essentially that outlined on page 898, with HO· as the attacking species,[206] formed by

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

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

See also **11-29.**

14-6 *Oxidation of Aldehydes to Carboxylic Acids*

HYDROXYLATION OR HYDROXY-DE-HYDROGENATION

$$R\text{-}\underset{\underset{O}{\|}}{C}\text{-}H \xrightarrow{MnO_4^-} R\text{-}\underset{\underset{O}{\|}}{C}\text{-}OH$$

Oxidation of aldehydes to carboxylic acids is one of the most common oxidation reactions in organic chemistry[207] and has been carried out with many oxidizing agents, the most popular of which is permanganate in acid, basic, or neutral solution.[208] Chromic acid,[209] bromine, and Oxone®,[210] 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,[211] 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. α,β-Unsaturated aldehydes can be oxidized by sodium chlorite without disturbing the double bond.[212] Aldehydes are also oxidized to carboxylic acids by atmospheric oxygen, but the actual direct oxidation product in this case is the peroxy acid RCO_3H,[213] which with another molecule of aldehyde disproportionates to give two molecules of acid (see 14-8).[214]

Mechanisms of aldehyde oxidation[215] 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 16 in alkaline solution and 17 in acid or neutral solution. The aldehydic hydrogen of 16 or 17 is then lost as a proton to a base, while Z leaves with its electron pair.

$$R\text{-}\underset{\underset{O}{\|}}{C}\text{-}H + OZ^- \longrightarrow R\text{-}\underset{\underset{O\text{-}Z}{|}}{\overset{\overset{O\text{-}Z}{|}}{C}}\text{-}H \xrightarrow{B^-} R\text{-}\underset{\underset{O\text{-}Z}{|}}{\overset{\overset{O}{\|}}{C}} + BH + Z^-$$

16

$$R\text{-}\underset{\underset{O}{\|}}{C}\text{-}H + HOZ \longrightarrow R\text{-}\underset{\underset{O\text{-}H}{|}}{\overset{\overset{O\text{-}Z}{|}}{C}}\text{-}H \xrightarrow{B^-} R\text{-}\underset{\underset{O\text{-}H}{|}}{\overset{\overset{O}{\|}}{C}} + BH + Z^-$$

17

For oxidation with acid dichromate the picture seems to be quite complex, with several processes of both types going on:[216]

Step 1 $RCHO + H_2CrO_4 \rightleftharpoons R\text{-}CH(O\text{-}CrO_3H)(OH)$

Step 2 $R\text{-}CH(O\text{-}CrO_3H)(OH) \xrightarrow{B^-} R\text{-}C(=O)(OH) + BH + Cr^{IV}$

Step 3 $RCHO + Cr^{IV} \longrightarrow RC(=O)\cdot$

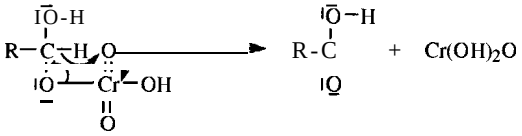
Step 4 $R\text{-}CH(OH)(OH) + Cr^{IV} \longrightarrow R\text{-}C(OH)(OH)\cdot \xrightarrow{-H_2O} R\text{-}C(=O)\cdot + Cr^{III}$

Step 5 $RC(=O)\cdot + H_2CrO_4 \longrightarrow RCOOH + Cr^{V}$

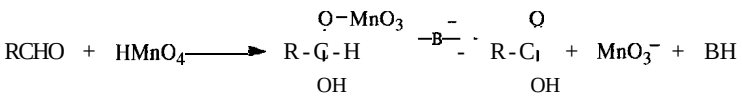
Step 6 $RCHO + Cr^{V} \rightleftharpoons R\text{-}CH(OCr^{V})(OH)$

Step 7 $R\text{-}CH(O\text{-}Cr^{V})(OH) \xrightarrow{B^-} R\text{-}C(=O)(OH) + BH + Cr^{III}$

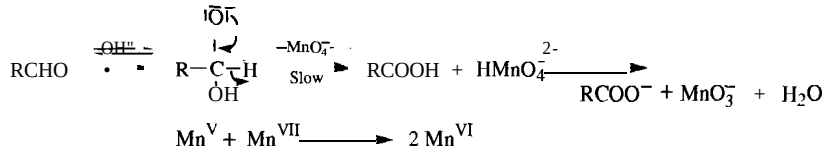
Steps 1 and 2 constitute an oxidation by the ionic pathway by $Cr^{(VI)}$, and steps 6 and 7 a similar oxidation by $Cr^{(V)}$, which is produced by an electron-transfer process. Either $Cr^{(VI)}$ (step 3) or $Cr^{(IV)}$ (step 4) [$Cr^{(IV)}$ is produced in step 2] may abstract a hydrogen and the resulting 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 been proposed in which the chromic acid ester decomposes as follows:[217]



The mechanism with permanganate is less well known, but an ionic mechanism has been proposed[218] for neutral and acid permanganate, similar to steps 1 and 2 for dichromate:



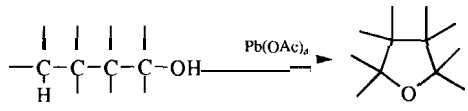
For alkaline permanganate, the following mechanism has been proposed:[219]



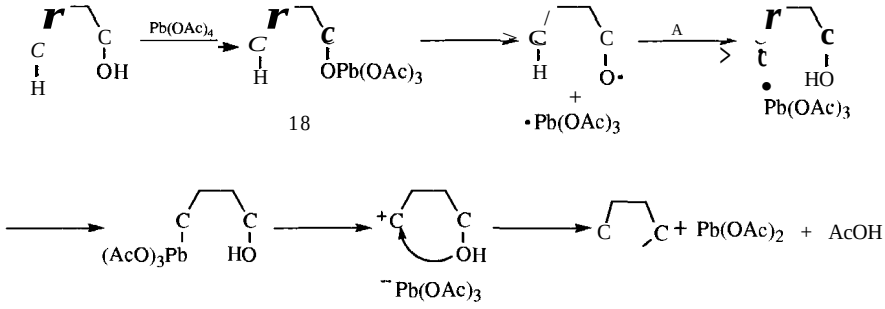
OS I, 166; II, 302, 315, 538; **III,** 745; IV, 302, 493, 499, 919, 972, 974.

14-7 *Formation of Cyclic Ethers*

(5)OC-CYCLO-ALKOXY-DE-HYDRO-SUBSTITUTION



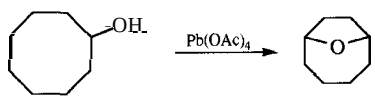
Alcohols with a hydrogen in the 8 position can be cyclized with lead tetraacetate.[220] The reaction is usually carried out at ~ 80°C (most often in refluxing benzene) but can also be done at room temperature if the reaction mixture is irradiated with UV light. Tetrahydrofurans are formed in high yields. Little or no four- and six-membered cyclic ethers (oxetanes and tetrahydropyrans, respectively) are obtained even when *y* and E hydrogens are present. The reaction has also been carried out with a mixture of halogen (Br_2 or I_2) and a salt or oxide of silver or mercury (especially HgO or AgOAc),[221] with iodosobenzene diacetate and I2,[222] and with *ceric* ammonium nitrate (CAN).[223] The following mechanism is likely for the lead tetraacetate reaction:[224]



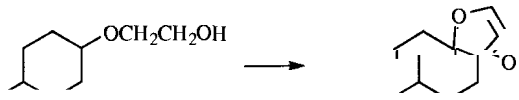
though 18 has never been isolated. The step marked A is a 1,5 internal hydrogen abstraction. Such abstractions are well known (see p. 1462) and are greatly favored over 1,4 or 1,6 abstractions (the small amounts of tetrahydropyran formed result from 1,6 abstractions).[225]

Reactions that sometimes compete are oxidation to the aldehyde or acid **(19-3** and **19-21)** and fragmentation of the substrate. When the OH group is on a ring of at

least seven members, a transannular product can be formed, for example,[226]



β-Hydroxy ethers can give cyclic acetals, for example,[227]



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

14-8 *Formation of Hydroperoxides*

HYDROPEROXY-DE-HYDROGENATION

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

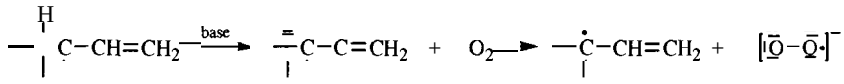
The slow atmospheric oxidation *(slow* meaning without combustion) of C—H to C—O—O—H is called *autoxidation*.[228] The reaction occurs when compounds are allowed to stand in air and is catalyzed by light, so unwanted autoxidations can be greatly slowed by keeping the compounds in dark places. The hydroperoxides produced often react further 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.[229] It is because of autoxidation that foods, rubber, paint, lubricating oils, and so on 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,[230] and these are the ones we have seen before (pp. 900-903), 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,[231] and allylic (though allylic rearrangements are common) R.[232] 2-Phenylpropane reacted with oxygen to give $PhMe_2C$— OOH, for example. Another susceptible position is aldehydic C—H, but the peroxyacids so produced are not easily isolated[213] since they are converted to the corresponding carboxylic acids (14-6). The a positions of ethers are also easily attacked by oxygen (RO—C—H → RO—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.[233]

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[234] to give R′—O—O·; since this type of radical *does* abstract hydrogen, the chain is

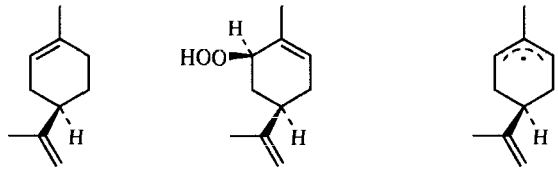
$$R'OO\cdot + RH \longrightarrow R\cdot + R'OOH$$
$$R\cdot + O_2 \longrightarrow R{-}O{-}O\cdot$$

In at least some cases (in alkaline media)[235] the radical R· can be produced by formation of a carbanion and its oxidation (by O_2) to a radical, for example,[236]



Autoxidations in alkaline media can also proceed by a different mechanism: R-H + base $\rightarrow R^- + O_2 \rightarrow ROO^-$.[237]

When alkenes are treated with oxygen that has been photosensitized (p. 316), they are substituted by OOH in the allylic position in a synthetically useful reaction.[238] 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 (in which all electrons are paired),[239] and the function of the photosensitization is to promote the oxygen to this singlet state. Singlet oxygen can also be produced by nonphotochemical means,[240] for example, by the reaction between H_2O_2 and NaOCl[241] or sodium molybdate,[242] or between ozone and triphenyl phosphite.[243] The oxygen generated by either photochemical or nonphotochemical methods reacts with alkenes in the same way;[244] 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-

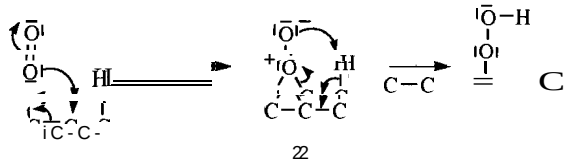


19 20 **21**

radical mechanism, and further evidence that free radicals are not involved comes from the treatment of optically active limonene (**19**) with singlet oxygen. Among other products is the optically active hydroperoxide 20, though if 21 were an intermediate, it could not give an optically active product since it possesses a plane of symmetry.[245] In contrast, autoxidation of 19 gave optically inactive 20 (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 alkene.[246] In simple trisubstituted alkenes, there is a general preference for the hydrogen to be removed from the more highly congested side of the double bond.[247] With *cis*-alkenes of the form RCH=CHR′, the hydrogen is removed from the larger R group.[248] Many functional groups in an allylic position cause the hydrogen to be removed from that side rather than the other (geminal selectivity).[249] Also, in alkyl-substituted alkenes, the hydrogen that is preferentially removed is the one geminal to the larger substituent on the double bond.[250]

Several mechanisms have been proposed for the reaction with singlet oxygen.[251] One of these is a pericyclic mechanism, similar to that of the ene synthesis (15-20) and to the first step of the reaction between alkenes and SeO_2 (14-4). However, there is strong evidence against this mechanism,[252] and a more likely mechanism involves addition of singlet oxygen to the double bond to give a perepoxide (22),[253] followed by internal proton transfer.[254]



22

Still other proposed mechanisms involve diradicals or dipolar intermediates.[255]

OS IV, 895.

14-9 *Formation of Peroxides*

ALKYLDIOXY-DE-HYDROGENATION

$$RH + R'OOH \xrightarrow{CuCl} ROOR'$$

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).[256] Very high yields can be obtained. The type of hydrogen replaced is similar to that with NBS (14-2), that is, 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_2NCH_3, since the product R_2NHCH_2OOR' can easily be hydrolyzed by acid (10-6) to give R_2NH.[257]

14-10 *Acyloxylation or Acyloxy-de-hydrogenation*

$$RH + Me_3C{-}O{-}O{-}\overset{\overset{O}{\|}}{C}{-}R' \xrightarrow{Cu^{+}/Cu^{2+}} R{-}O{-}\overset{\overset{O}{\|}}{C}{-}R'$$

Susceptible positions of organic compounds can be directly acyloxylated[258] by *tert*-butyl peroxyesters, the most frequently used being acetic and benzoic (R′ = Me or Ph).[259] 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 14-7: benzylic, allylic, and the a position of ethers and sulfides. Terminal alkenes are substituted almost entirely in the 3 position, that is, with only a small amount of allylic rearrangement, but internal alkenes generally give mixtures containing a large amount of allylic-shift product. If the reaction with alkenes is carried out in an excess of another acid R″COOH, the ester produced is of *that* acid ROCOR″. Aldehydes give anhydrides:

$$\underset{\underset{\text{O}}{\text{n}}}{\text{R-C-H}} + \underset{\underset{\text{O}}{\text{n}}}{\text{Me}_3\text{COOCR}'} \xrightarrow{\text{Cu}^+} \underset{\underset{\text{O}}{\text{II}}}{\text{R-C-O-}}\underset{\underset{\text{O}}{\text{II}}}{\text{C-R}'}$$

Acyloxylation has also been achieved with metallic acetates such as lead tetraacetate,[260] mercuric acetate,[261] and palladium(II) acetate.[262] In the case of the lead and mercuric acetates, not only does the reaction take place at allylic and benzylic positions and at those a to an OR or SR group but also at positions a to the carbonyl groups of aldehydes, ketones, or esters and at those a to two carbonyl groups (ZCH_2Z'). It is likely that in the latter cases 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,[263] enol thioethers with lead tetraacetate,[264] and enamines[265] with lead tetraacetate[266] or thallium triacetate.[267] α,β-Unsaturated ketones can be acyloxylated in good yields in the α′ position with manganese triacetate.[268] Palladium acetate converts alkenes to vinylic and/or allylic acetates.[269] Lead tetraacetate even acyloxylates alkanes, in a slow reaction (10 days to 2 weeks), with tertiary and secondary positions greatly favored over primary ones.[270] Yields are as high as 50%. Acyloxylation of certain alkanes has also been reported with palladium(II) acetate.[271]

Studies of the mechanism of the cuprous-catalyzed reaction show that the most common mechanism is the following:[272]

Step 1 $\underset{\underset{\text{O}}{\text{II}}}{\text{R}'\text{COO}}\text{—}t\text{-Bu} + \text{Cu}^+ \longrightarrow \underset{\underset{\text{O}}{\text{II}}}{\text{R}'\text{CO}}\text{—Cu}^{+\text{II}} + t\text{-BuO}\cdot$

Step 2 $\text{RH} + t\text{-BuO}\cdot \longrightarrow \text{R}\cdot + t\text{-BuOH}$

Step 3 $\text{R}\cdot + \underset{\underset{\text{O}}{\text{II}}}{\text{R}'\text{CO}}\text{—Cu}^{+\text{II}} \longrightarrow \underset{\underset{\text{O}}{\text{II}}}{\text{ROCR}'} + \text{Cu}^+$

23

This mechanism, involving a free radical (R·), is compatible with the allylic rearrangements found.[273] The finding that tert-butyl peroxyesters labeled with ^{18}O in the carbonyl oxygen gave ester with 50% of the label in each oxygen[274] is in accord with a combination of R· with the intermediate 23, in which the copper is

ionically bound, so that the oxygens are essentially equivalent. Other evidence is that *tert*-butoxyradicals have been trapped with dienes.[275] Much less is known about the mechanisms of the reactions with metal acetates.[276]

Free-radical acyloxylation of aromatic substrates[277] has been accomplished with a number of reagents including copper(II) acetate,[278] benzoyl peroxide-iodine,[279] silver(II) complexes,[280] and cobalt(III) trifluoroacetate.[281]

OS **III,** 3; **V,** 70, 151; **VIII,** 137.

C. *Substitution by Sulfur*

14-11 *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.*[282] In scope and range of products obtained, the reaction is similar to **14-1.** The mechanism is also similar, except that there are two additional main propagation steps:

$$R\cdot + SO_2 \longrightarrow R{-}SO_2\cdot$$
$$R{-}SO_2\cdot + Cl_2 \longrightarrow R{-}SO_2Cl + Cl\text{-}$$

Chlorosulfenation[283] can be accomplished by treatment with SCl_2 and UV light: $RH + SCl_2 \xrightarrow{h\nu} RSC1$.

D. *Substitution by Nitrogen*

14-12 *Nitration of Alkanes*

NITRATION OR NITRO-DE-HYDROGENATION

$$RH + HNO_3 \xrightarrow{400°C} RNO_2$$

Nitration of alkanes[284] can be carried out in the gas phase at ~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.[285] A free-radical mechanism is involved.[286]

$$-\overset{|}{\underset{|}{C}}H^- + MeONO_2 \longrightarrow -\overset{|}{\underset{|}{C}}{-}NO_2 + OMe^-$$

Activated positions (e.g., ZCH_2Z' compounds) can be nitrated by fuming nitric acid in acetic acid, by acetyl nitrate and an acid catalyst,[287] or by alkyl nitrates under alkaline conditions.[288] 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 compound. Yields are not high. Of course, the mechanism in this case is not of the free-radical type, but is electrophilic substitution with respect to the carbon (similar to the mechanisms of **12-7** and **12-8).** Positions activated by only one electron-withdrawing group (e.g., a 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 $NaNH_2$) is present to convert the substrate to the carbanionic form.[289] Electrophilic nitration of alkanes has been performed with nitronium salts (e.g., $NO_2^+ PF_6^-$ and with $HNO_3 - H_2SO_4$ mixtures, but mixtures of nitration and cleavage products are obtained and yields are generally low.[290]

Aliphatic nitro compounds can be a nitrated $[R_2\bar{C}\,\bar{N}O_2 \rightarrow R_2C(NO_2)_2]$ by treatment of their conjugate bases $RCNO_2$ with NO_2^- and $K_3Fe(CN)_6$.[291]

OS I, 390; II, 440, 512.

14-13 *The Direct Conversion of Aldehydes to Amides*

AMINATION OR AMINO-DE-HYDROGENATION

$$ArCHO \xrightarrow[NBS-AIBN]{NH_3} ArCONH_2$$

Aliphatic and aromatic aldehydes have been converted to the corresponding amides with ammonia or a primary or secondary amine, NBS, and a catalytic amount of AIBN (p. 911).[292] 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.[293] Best yields (80-90%) are obtained at -25 to -20°C. The reaction has also been performed with MnO_2 and NaCN along with ammonia or an amine at 0°C in isopropyl alcohol,[294] and with a secondary amine and a palladium acetate catalyst.[295] In the nickel peroxide reaction the corresponding alcohols ($ArCH_2OH$) have also been used as substrates. For an indirect way of converting aldehydes to amides, see **12-29.** Thioamides ($RCSNR'_2$) have been prepared in good yield from thioaldehydes (produced *in situ* from phosphoranes and sulfur) and secondary amines.[296]

14-14 *Amidation and Amination at an Alkyl Carbon*

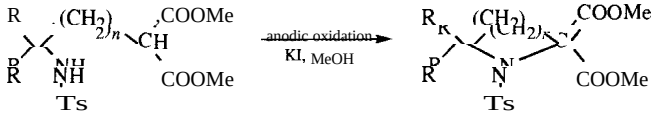
ACYLAMINO-DE-HYDROGENATION

$$R_3CH + CH_3CN \xrightarrow[H_3(PW_{12}O_{40})\cdot H_2O]{h\nu} R_3C\text{-}NH\text{-}C\text{-}CH_3 + H_2$$
$$\qquad\qquad\qquad\qquad\qquad\qquad\qquad\qquad\qquad\qquad\qquad\quad O$$

When alkanes bearing a tertiary hydrogen are exposed to UV light in acetonitrile containing a heteropolytungstic acid, they are amidated.[297] 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 (19-2).

An electrochemical method for amination has been reported by Shono et al.[298] Derivatives of malonic esters containing an N-tosyl group were cyclized in high

yields by anodic oxidation:



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

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 alkene to give the coupling product.[299]

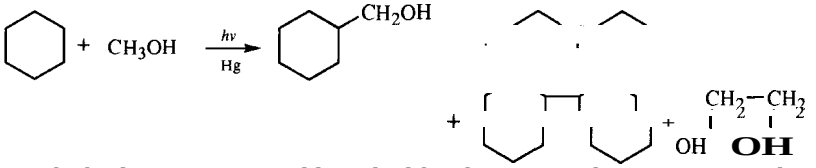
14-15 *Simple Coupling at a Susceptible Position*

DE-HYDROGEN-COUPLING

$$2\ RH \xrightarrow[Hg]{h\nu} R\text{-}R + H_2$$

Alkanes can be dimerized by vapor-phase mercury photosensitization[300] 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 a to the oxygen [e.g., 2 EtOH → MeCH(OH)-CH(OH)Me].

When a mixture of compounds is treated, cross-dimerization and homodimerization take place statistically, for example:



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 **(10-6)** gives an aldehyde, thus achieving the conversion RH → 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 a to the C=O group), and amides (which couple a to the nitrogen) by running it in the presence of H_2.[301] 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.

Radicals have also been generated at benzylic positions and shown to couple with epoxides, forming an alcohol.[302]

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. 916). This reaction is far from general, though in certain cases respectable yields have been obtained. Among susceptible positions are those at a tertiary carbon,[303] as well as those a to a phenyl group (especially if there is also an α-alkyl or α-chloro group),[304] an ether group,[305] a carbonyl group,[306] a cyano group,[307] a dialkylamino group,[308] or a carboxylic ester group, either the acid or alcohol side.[309]

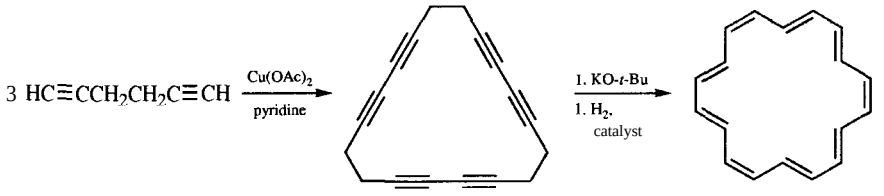
OS IV, 367; V, 1026; **VII,** 482.

14-16 *Coupling of Alkynes*

DE-HYDROGEN-COUPLING

$$2\ \text{R-C}\equiv\text{C-H} \xrightarrow[\text{pyridine}]{\text{CuX}_2} \text{R}-\text{C}\equiv\text{C}-\text{C}\equiv\text{C}-\text{R}$$

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*.[310] The large-ring annulenes of Sondheimer et al. (see p. 67)[312] were prepared by rearrangement and hydrogenation of cyclic polyynes,[311] prepared by Eglinton coupling of terminal diynes, for example,[312] 24 is a cyclic trimer of 1,5-hexadiyne. The corresponding tetramers



24

(C24), 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:[313]

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

This may be regarded as a variation of **10-110** 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. One version of this reaction binds the alkynyl bromide unit to a polymer, and the diyne is released from the polymer after the solid-state transformation.[314] Alkynes have also been coupled using CuI and a palladium catalyst.[315] Propargyl halides also give the reaction.[316] A variation of the Cadiot-Chodkiewicz method consists of treating a haloalkyne ($R'C{\equiv}CX$) with a copper acetylide ($RC{\equiv}CCu$).[317] The Cadiot-Chodkiewicz procedure can be adapted to the preparation of diynes in which $R'=H$ by the use of $BrC{\equiv}CSiEt_3$ and subsequent cleavage of the $SiEt_3$ group.[318] This protecting group can also be used in the Eglinton or Glaser methods.[319]

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

$$R{-}C{\equiv}C{-}H \xrightarrow{\text{base}} R{-}C{\equiv}C^-$$

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

$$R{-}C{\equiv}C\cdot \longrightarrow R{-}C{\equiv}C{-}C{\equiv}C{-}R$$

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,[320] 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; VIII, 63.

14-17 *Arylation of Aromatic Compounds by Diazonium Salts*

ARYLATION OR ARYL-DE-HYDROGENATION

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

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*,[321] 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.[322] The conditions of the Meerwein reaction (14-18), treatment of the solution with a copper-ion catalyst, have also been used, as has the addition of sodium nitrite in Me_2SO (to benzene diazonium fluoroborate in Me_2SO).[323] When the Gomberg-Bachmann reaction is

25

performed intramolecularly as in the formation of 25, either by the alkaline solution or by the copper-ion procedure, it is called the *Pschorr ring closure*[324] and yields are usually somewhat higher. Still higher yields have been obtained by carrying out the Pschorr reaction electrochemically.[325] 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 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.[326]

Other compounds with nitrogen-nitrogen bonds have been used instead of diazonium salts. Among these are N-nitroso amides [ArN(NO)COR], triazenes,[327] and azo compounds. Still another method involves treatment of an aromatic primary amine directly with an alkyl nitrite in an aromatic substrate as solvent.[328]

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. 852). However, in neutral or basic solution, diazonium ions are converted to covalent compounds, and these cleave to give free radicals:

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

Under Gomberg–Bachmann conditions, the species that cleaves is the anhydride:[329]

$$Ar-N=N-O-N=N-Ar \longrightarrow Ar\cdot + N_2 + \cdot O-N=N-Ar$$
26

The aryl radical thus formed attacks the substrate to give the intermediate 1 (p. 898), from which the radical 26 abstracts hydrogen to give the product. N-Nitroso amides probably rearrange to N-acyloxy compounds, which cleave to give aryl radicals:[330]

$$2\ Ar-\overset{\overset{O}{\|}}{N}-C-R \longrightarrow 2\ Ar-N=N-O-COR \longrightarrow AR\cdot + AR-N=N-O\cdot + N_2 + (RCO)_2O$$

There is evidence that the reaction with alkyl nitrites also involves attack by aryl radicals.[331]

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 S_N1 mechanism discussed on p. 853).[332] Under certain conditions the ordinary Gomberg-Bachmann reaction can also involve attack by aryl cations.[333]

OS I, 113; IV, 718.

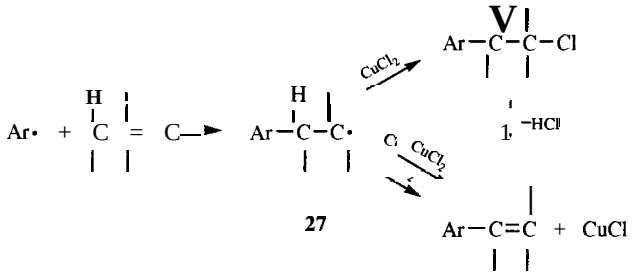
14-18 *Arylation of Activated Alkenes by Diazonium Salts: Meerwein Arylation*

ARYLATION OR ARYL-DE-HYDROGENATION

$$Z-\underset{H}{\overset{|}{C}}=\underset{|}{C} \xrightarrow[ArN_2^+\ Cl^-]{CuCl_2} Z-\overset{|}{C}=\underset{|}{C}-Ar$$

Alkenes 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[334] catalyst. This is called the *Meerwein arylation reaction.*[335] Addition of ArCl to the double bond (to give Z—C(Cl)—C(H)—Ar) is a side reaction (15-44). In an improved procedure, an arylamine is treated with an alkyl nitrite (generating ArN_2^+ *in situ)* and a copper(II) halide in the presence of the alkene.[336]

The mechanism is probably of the free-radical type, with AR· forming as in 14-25, and then[337]



Radical 27 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.

14-19 *Arylation and Alkylation of Alkenes by Organopalladium Compounds: The Heck Reaction*

ALKYLATION OR ALKYL-DE-HYDROGENATION, AND SO ON

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

Arylation of alkenes can also be achieved[338] by treatment with an "arylpalladium" reagent that can be generated *in situ* by several[339] methods: (1) by treatment of an aryl bromide with a palladium–triarylphosphine complex (ArBr → "ArPdBr");[340] (2) by treatment of an aryl iodide[341] with palladium acetate[342] in the presence of a base such as tributylamine or potassium acetate (ArI → "ArPdI");[343] (3) by treatment of an arylmercury compound (either Ar_2Hg or ArHgX) with $LiPdCl_3$ (ArHgX → "ArPdX")[344] (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 aryl *hydrogen* is replaced (ArH → "ArPdOAc")].[345] Whichever of these methods is used, the reaction is known as *the Heck reaction.* The Heck reaction can be done with heterocyclic compounds such as 3-trifylpyridine.[346] The reaction is not limited to aryl halides, and vinyl halides can be coupled to alkenes to form dienes.[347]

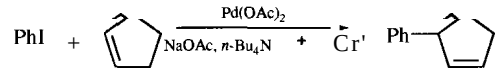
Unlike 14-18, the Heck reaction is not limited to activated substrates. The substrate can be a simple alkene, or it can contain a variety of functional groups, such as ester, ether,[348],[349] carboxyl, phenolic, or cyano groups.[350] It can also be a

diene.[351] Primary and secondary allylic alcohols (and even non-allylic unsaturated alcohols[352]) give aldehydes or ketones that are products of double-bond migration,[353] e.g.,

$$CH_2{=}CH{-}CH_2OH \xrightarrow{\text{"PdPdCl"}} PhCH_2CH_2CHO$$

Ethylene is the most reactive alkene. Increasing substitution lowers the reactivity. Substitution therefore takes place at the less highly substituted side of the double bond.[354] Alkylation can also be accomplished, but only if the alkyl group lacks a β-hydrogen, for example, the reaction is successful for the introduction of methyl, benzyl, and neopentyl groups.[355] However, vinylic groups, even those possessing β hydrogens, have been successfully introduced (to give 1,3-dienes) by the reaction of the alkene with a vinylic halide in the presence of a trialkylamine and a catalyst composed of palladium acetate and a triarylphosphine at 100–150°C.[356] Phosphine free catalysts are also known for the Heck reaction,[357] and halogen-free reactions are also known.[358] The Heck reaction can be done in aqueous media as well.[359] A Montmorillonite K10 clay mediated reaction has also been reported,[360] glass beads[361] have mediated the reaction, and microwaves[362] have been used to induce the reaction. The reaction has also been done with terminal alkynes as substrates.[363]

The evidence is in accord with an addition-elimination mechanism (addition of ArPdX followed by elimination of HPdX) in most cases.[364] The reactions are stereospecific, yielding products expected from syn addition followed by syn elimination.[365] Because the product is formed by an elimination step, with suitable substrates the double bond can go the other way, resulting in allylic rearrangement, for example,[366]



The Heck reaction has also been performed intramolecularly.[367] An intramolecular version that couples vinyl bromide with a C=C unit leads to cyclic compounds.[368] Asymmetric Heck reactions are known[369] and the effects of high pressure have been studied.[370]

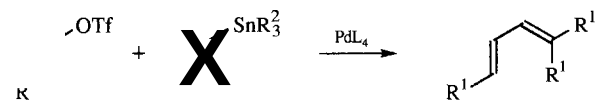
In a related reaction, aryl halides couple with vinyl tin reagents to form styrene derivatives in the presence of a nickel catalyst, for example,[371]

$$Ar\text{-}X + CH_2{=}CH{-}SnBu_3 \xrightarrow{Ni(acac)_2 - DIBAT\text{-}H} Ar{-}CH{=}CH_2$$

OS VI, 815; VII, 361.

14-20 *Arylation and Alkylation of Alkenes by Vinyltin Compounds: The Stille Reaction*

ALKYLATION OR ALKYL-DE-OXYSULFONATION, AND SO ON



Vinyl triflates ($C{=}C{-}OSO_2CF_3$) react with vinyl tin derivatives in the presence of palladium catalysts to form dienes, in what is known as the *Stille coupling?*[12] Vinyl triflates can be prepared from the enolate by reaction with *N*-phenyl triflimide.[373] This reaction is highly stereoselective. Cine substitution is known with this reaction, and its mechanism has been studied.[374] Vinylation of heterocyclic triflates is also possible.[375] By using $ArSnCl_3$ derivatives, Stille coupling can be done in aqueous KOH.[376] A related reaction couples reagents with $C{=}C{-}I^+Ph$ reagents, in the presence of a palladium catalyst.[377] Aryl halides can be coupled to reagents using a palladium catalyst.[378] Vinyl halides can be used,[379] and allenic tin compounds have been used.[380]

14-21 *Alkylation and Arylation of Aromatic Compounds by Peroxides*

ALKYLATION OR ALKYL-DE-HYDROGENATION

$$ArH + R{-}C(=O){-}O{-}O{-}C(=O){-}R \longrightarrow Ar{-}R$$

This reaction is most often carried out with R = aryl, so the net result is the same as in **14-17,** though the reagent is different.[381] It is used less often than **14-17,** but the scope is similar. When R = alkyl, the scope is more limited.[382] 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. 898 (CIDNP has been observed[383]); the radicals are produced by

$$R{-}C(=O){-}O{-}O{-}C(=O){-}R \longrightarrow 2\ R{-}C(=O){-}O\cdot \longrightarrow 2\ R\cdot + 2\ CO_2$$

Since no relatively stable free radical is present (such as **26** in **14-17),** most of the product arises from dimerization and disproportionation.[384] 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.[385]

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

Aromatic compounds can also be arylated by aryllead tricarboxylates.[386] Best yields ($\approx$70–85%) are obtained when the substrate contains alkyl groups; an electrophilic mechanism is likely. Phenols are phenylated ortho to the OH group (and enols are a phenylated) by triphenylbismuth dichloride or by certain other Bi(V) reagents.[387] O-Phenylation is a possible side reaction. As with the aryllead tricarboxylate reactions, a free-radical mechanism is unlikely.[388]

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

14-22 *Photochemical Arylation of Aromatic Compounds*

ARYLATION OR ARYL-DE-HYDROGENATION

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

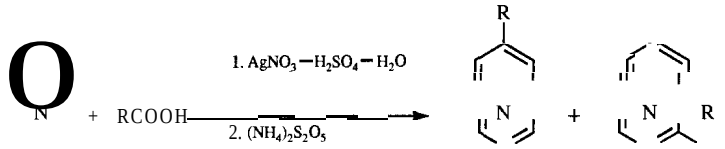
Another free-radical arylation method consists of the photolysis of aryl iodides in an aromatic solvent.[389] Yields are generally higher than in 14-17 or 14-21. The aryl iodide may contain OH or COOH groups. The mechanism is similar to that of 14-17. The aryl radicals are generated by the photolytic cleavage $ArI \rightarrow AR\cdot + I\cdot$. The reaction has been applied to intramolecular arylation (analogous to the Pschorr reaction).[390] A similar reaction is photolysis of an arylthallium bis(trifluoroacetate) (12-21) in an aromatic solvent. Here too, an unsymmetrical biaryl is produced in good yields.[391]

$$Ar'Tl(OCOCF_3)_2 \xrightarrow[ArH]{h\nu} ArAr'$$

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

14-23 *Alkylation, Acylation, and Carbalkoxylation of Nitrogen Heterocycles*[392]

ALKYLATION OR ALKYL-DE-HYDROGENATION, AND SO ON



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.[393] The R group can be primary, secondary, or tertiary. The attacking species is $R\cdot$, formed by[394]

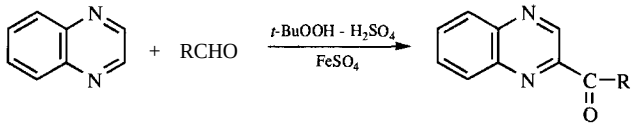
$$2\ Ag^+ + S_2O_8^{2-} \longrightarrow 2\ Ag^{2+} + 2\ SO_4^{2-}$$

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

$$RCOO\cdot \longrightarrow R\cdot + CO_2$$

A hydroxymethyl group can be introduced ($ArH \rightarrow ArCH_2OH$) by several variations of this method.[395] Alkylation of these substrates can also be accomplished by generating the alkyl radicals in other ways: from hydroperoxides and $FeSO_4$,[396] from alkyl iodides and H_2O_2—Fe^{II},[397] from carboxylic acids and lead tetraacetate, or from the photochemically induced decarboxylation of carboxylic acids by iodosobenzene diacetate.[398]

Protonated nitrogen heterocycles can be acylated by treatment with an aldehyde, *tert*-butyl hydroperoxide, sulfuric acid, and ferrous sulfate, for example,[399]

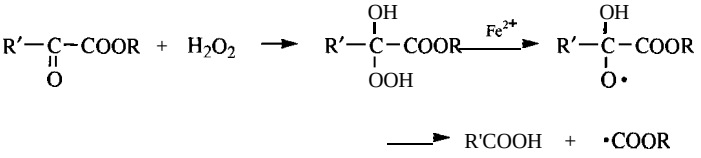


Photochemical alkylation of protonated quinoline occurred with $Ph_2Se(O_2C\ c\text{-}C_6H_{11})_2$.[400]

Other positively charged heterocycles react as well. When *N*-fluoropyridinium triflate was treated with the enolate anion of acetone, 2-(2-oxopropyl)pyridine was formed in modest yield.[401]

These alkylation and acylation reactions are important because Friedel-Crafts alkylation and acylation (11-12, 11-14) cannot be applied to most nitrogen heterocycles. See also 13-15.

Protonated nitrogen heterocycles can be carbalkoxylated[402] by treatment with esters of α-keto acids and Fenton's reagent. Pyridine is carbalkoxylated at C-2 and C-4, for example. The attack is by ·COOR radicals generated from the esters:



Similarly, a carbamoyl group can be introduced[403] by the use of the radicals $H_2N\text{—}\overset{\overset{O}{\|}}{C}\cdot$ or $Me_2N\text{—}\overset{\overset{O}{\|}}{C}\cdot$ generated from formamide or DMF and H_2SO_4, H_2O_2, and $FeSO_4$ or other oxidants.

N_2 as Leaving Group[404]

In these reactions, diazonium salts are cleaved to aryl radicals,[405] in most cases with the assistance of copper salts. Reactions 14-17 and 14-18 may also be regarded as belonging to this category with respect to the attacking compound. For nucleophilic substitutions of diazonium salts, see 13-17–13-20.

14-24 *Replacement of the Diazonium Group by Hydrogen*

DEDIAZONIATION OR HYDRO-DE-DIAZONIATION

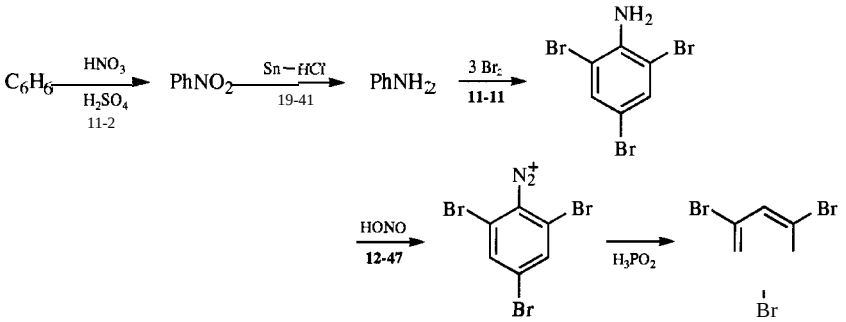
$$ArN_2^+ + H_3PO_2 \longrightarrow ArH$$

Reduction of the diazonium group *(dediazoniation)* provides an indirect method for the removal of an amino group from an aromatic ring.[406] The best and most common way of accomplishing this is by use of hypophosphorous acid H_3PO_2, though many

other reducing agents[407] have been used, among them ethanol, HMPA,[408] thiophenol,[409] 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, 5-15 mol of this reagent are required per mole of substrate. Diazonium salts can be reduced in nonaqueous media by several methods,[358] including treatment with Bu_3SnH or Et_3SiH in ethers or MeCN[410] and by isolation as the BF_4^- salt and reduction of this with NaBH4 in DMF.[411] Aromatic amines can be deaminated ($ArNH_2 \rightarrow$ ArH) in one laboratory step by treatment with an alkyl nitrite in DMF[412] or boiling THE[413] 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 (S_N1) mechanism while the reduction to ArH proceeds by a free-radical process.[414] The reduction with H_3PO_2 is also believed to have a free-radical mechanism.[415] In the reduction with $NaBH_4$, an aryldiazene intermediate (ArN=NH) has been demonstrated,[416] arising from nucleophilic attack by BH_4^- on the β nitrogen. Such diazenes can be obtained as moderately stable (half-life of several hours) species in solution.[417] It is not entirely clear how the aryldiazene decomposes, but there are indications that either the aryl radical AR· or the corresponding anion Ar^- may be involved.[418]

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:



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. 106).[419]

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

14-25 *Replacement of the Diazonium Group by Chlorine or Bromine*

CHLORO-DE-DIAZONIATION, AND SO ON

$$ArN_2^+ + CuCl \longrightarrow ArCl$$

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.*[420] The reaction can also be carried out with copper and HBr or HC1, in which case it is called the *Gatterman reaction* (not to be confused with **11-16).** 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:[421]

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

$$Ar\cdot + CuX_2 \longrightarrow ArX + CuX$$

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. The CuX compound 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,[422] including treatment of the amine (1) with *tert*-butyl nitrite and anhydrous $CuCl_2$ or $CuBr_2$ at 65°C,[423] and (2) with tert-butyl thionitrite or tert-butyl thionitrate and $CuCl_2$ or $CuBr_2$ at room temperature.[424] These procedures are, in effect, a combination of **12-47** and the Sandmeyer reaction. A further advantage is that cooling to 0°C is not needed. A mixture of Me_3SiCl and $NaNO_2$ was used to convert aniline to chlorobenzene in a related reaction.[425]

For the preparation of fluorides and iodides from diazonium salts, see **13-23** and **13-22.**

$$ArN_2^+ + CuCN \longrightarrow ArCN$$

It is noted that the reaction of aryl diazonium salts with CuCN to give benzonitrile derivatives is also called the *Sandmeyer reaction.* It is usually conducted in neutral solution to avoid liberation of HCN.

OS I, 135, 136, 162, 170; **II,** 130; **III,** 185; IV, 160. Also see OS **III,** 136; IV, 182. For the reaction with CuCN see OS I, 514.

14-26 *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 **14-25,** it was discovered by Sandmeyer. The BF_4^- ion is often used as the negative ion to avoid competition from the chloride ion. The mechanism is probably like that

of 14-25.[426] If electron-withdrawing groups are present, the catalyst is not needed; $NaNO_2$ alone gives nitro compounds in high yields.[427]

An alternative procedure used electrolysis, in 60% HNO_3 to convert 1-aminonaphthalene to naphthalene.[428]

OS II, 225; **III,** 341.

14-27 *Replacement of the Diazonium Group by Sulfur-Containing Groups*

CHLOROSULFO-DE-DIAZONIATION

$$ArN_2^+ + SO_2 \xrightarrow[HCl]{CuCl_2} ArSO_2Cl$$

Diazonium salts can be converted to sulfonyl chlorides by treatment with sulfur dioxide in the presence of cupric chloride.[429] The use of $FeSO_4$ and copper metal instead of $CuCl_2$ gives sulfinic acids ($ArSO_2H$).[430] See also **13-18.**

OS **V,** 60; **VII,** 508.

14-28 *Aryl Dimerization with Diazonium Salts*

DE-DIAZONIO-COUPLING; ARYLAZO-DE-DIAZONIO-SUBSTITUTION

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

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 **14-17** (and from **11-4)** in that *both* aryl groups in the product originate from ArN_2^+, that is, hydrogen is not a leaving group in this reaction. The mechanism probably involves free radicals.[431]

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

14-29 *Methylation, Vinylation, and Arylation of Diazonium Salts*

METHYL-DE-DIAZONIATION, AND SO ON

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

A methyl group can be introduced into an aromatic ring by treatment of diazonium salts with tetramethyltin and a palladium acetate catalyst.[432] The reaction has been performed with Me, Cl, Br, and NO_2 groups on the ring. A vinylic group can be introduced with $CH_2{=}CHSnBu_3$.

Aryl diazonium salts can be used coupled with alkenes in a Heck-like reaction (14-20).[433] Other reactive aryl species also couple with aryldiazonium salts in the

presence of a palladium catalyst.[434] A Suzuki type coupling (13-11) has also been reported using arylboronic acids, aryldiazonium salts and a palladium catalyst.[435]

14-30 *Conversion of Diazonium Salts to Aldehydes, Ketones, or Carboxylic Acids*

ACYL-DE-DIAZONIATION, AND SO ON

$$ArN_2^+ + RCH{=}NOH \xrightarrow[Na_2SO_3]{CuSO_4} Ar\text{-}\underset{\displaystyle R}{\underset{|}{C}}{=}NOH \xrightarrow[16\text{-}2]{\text{hydrolysis}} Ar\text{-}\underset{\displaystyle R}{\underset{|}{C}}{=}O$$

Diazonium salts react with oximes to give aryl oximes, which are easily hydrolyzed to aldehydes (R = H) or ketones.[436] A copper sulfate-sodium sulfite catalyst is essential. In most cases higher yields (40-60%) are obtained when the reaction is used for aldehydes than for ketones. In another method[437] for achieving the conversion $ArN_2^+ \rightarrow$ ArCOR, diazonium salts are treated with R_4Sn and CO with palladium acetate as catalyst.[438] In a different kind of reaction, silyl enol ethers of aryl ketones, $Ar'C(OSiMe_3){=}CHR$, react with solid diazonium fluoroborates, $ArN_2^+ BF_4^-$, to give ketones, ArCHRCOAr'.[439] This is, in effect, an 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[440] or copper(II) chloride.[441] 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.[442] An arylpalladium compound is probably an intermediate.[442]

OS V, 139.

Metals as Leaving Groups

14-31 *Coupling of Grignard Reagents*

DE-METALLO-COUPLING

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

Grignard reagents can be coupled to give symmetrical dimers[443] by treatment with either thallium(I) bromide[444] or with a transition metal halide such as $CrCl_2$, $CrCl_3$, $CoCl_2$, $CoBr_2$, or $CuCl_2$.[445] 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.[446] Vinylic and alkynyl Grignard reagents can be coupled (to give 1,3-dienes and 1,3-diynes, respectively) by treatment with thionyl chloride.[447] Primary alkyl, vinylic, aryl, and benzylic Grignard reagents give symmetrical dimers in high yield ($\approx$90%)

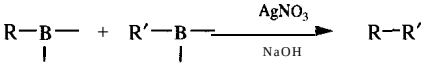
when treated with a silver(I) salt (e.g., $AgNO_3$, AgBr, $AgClO_4$) in the presence of a nitrogen-containing oxidizing agent such as lithium nitrate, methyl nitrate, or NO2.[448] This method has been used to close rings of four, five, and six members.[449]

The mechanisms of the reactions with metal halides, at least in some cases, probably begin with conversion of RMgX to the corresponding RM **(12-33),** followed by its decomposition to free radicals.[450]

OS VI, 488.

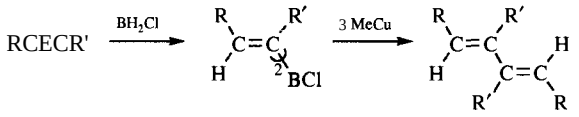
14-32 *Coupling of Boranes*

ALKYL-DE-DIALKYLBORATION



Alkylboranes can be coupled by treatment with silver nitrate and base.[451] Since alkylboranes are easily prepared from alkenes **(15-16),** this is essentially a way of coupling and reducing alkenes; in fact, alkenes can be hydroborated and coupled in the same flask. For symmetrical coupling (R = R') yields range from 60 to 80% for terminal alkenes and from 35 to 50% for internal ones. Unsymmetrical coupling has also been carried out,[452] but with lower yields. Arylboranes react similarly, yielding biaryls.[453] The mechanism is probably of the free-radical type.

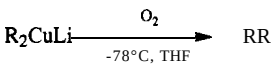
Vinylic dimerization can be achieved by treatment of divinylchloroboranes (prepared by addition of BH_2Cl to alkynes; see **15-16)** with methylcopper. (*E*,*E*)-1,3-Dienes are prepared in high yields.[454]



In a similar reaction, symmetrical conjugated diynes, $RC{\equiv}C{-}C{\equiv}CR$, can be prepared by reaction of lithium dialkyldialkynylborates, $Li^+[R'_2B(C{\equiv}CR)_2]^-$, with iodine.[455]

14-33 *Coupling of Other Organometallic* fleagenfs[388]

DE-METALLO-COUPLING



Lithium dialkylcopper reagents can be oxidized to symmetrical dimers by O_2 at -78°C in THF.[456] 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.[457]

The finding of retention of configuration for this reaction demonstrates that free-radical intermediates are not involved. Lithium organoaluminates $LiAlR_4$ are dimerized to RR by treatment with $Cu(OAc)_2$.[458] Terminal vinylic alanes (prepared by 15-17) can be dimerized to 1,3-dienes with Cud in THE[459] Symmetrical 1,3-dienes can also be prepared in high yields by treatment of vinylic mercury chlorides[460] with LiCl and a rhodium catalyst[461] and by treatment of vinylic tin compounds with a palladium catalyst.[462] Arylmercuric salts are converted to biaryls by treatment with copper and a catalytic amount of $PdCl_2$.[463] Vinylic, alkynyl, and aryl tin compounds were dimerized with $Cu(NO3)_2$.[464] Alkyl- and aryllithium compounds can be dimerized by transition metal halides in a reaction similar to 14-31.[465] Triarylbismuth compounds Ar_3Bi react with palladium(O) complexes to give biaryls ArAr.[466] Diethylzinc reacted with $Ph_2I^+ BF_4^-$ in the presence of palladium acetate, to give biphenyl.[467]

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., $PhCH{=}CHHgCl + Me_2CuLi \rightarrow PhCH{=}CHMe$).[468] Unsymmetrical biaryls were prepared by treating a cyanocuprate ArCu(CN)Li (prepared from ArLi and CuCN) with an aryllithium Ar'Li.[469]

Halogen as Leaving Group

The conversion of RX to RH can occur by a free-radical mechanism but is treated at 10-79.

Sulfur as Leaving Group

14-34 *Desulfurization with Raney Nickel*

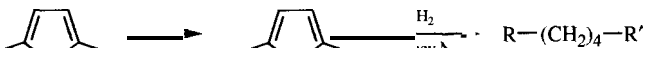
HYDRO-DE-MERCAPTO-SUBSTITUTION, AND SO ON

$$RSH \xrightarrow[Ni]{H_2} RH$$

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

Thiols and thioethers,[470] both alkyl and aryl, can be desulfurized by hydrogenolysis with Raney nickel.[471] 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), thiono esters (RCSOR'),[472] thioamides (RCDNHR'), sulfoxides, and dithioacetals. The last reaction, which is an indirect way of accomplishing reduction of a carbonyl to a methylene group (see 19-33), can also give the alkene if an a hydrogen is present.[473] In most of the examples given, R can also be aryl. Other reagents[474] have also been used.[475]

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:



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Thiophenes can also be desulfurized to alkenes ($RCH_2CH{=}CHCH_2R'$ from 28) with a nickel boride catalyst prepared from nickel(II) chloride and $NaBH_4$ in methanol.[476] It is possible to reduce just one SR group of a dithioacetal by treatment with borane-pyridine in trifluoroacetic acid or in CH_2Cl_2 in the presence of $AlCl_3$.[477] Phenyl selenides RSePh can be reduced to RH with Ph_3SnH[478] and with nickel boride.[479]

The exact mechanisms of the Raney nickel reactions are still in doubt, though they are probably of the free-radical type.[480] It has been shown that reduction of thiophene proceeds through butadiene and butene, not through 1-butanethiol or other sulfur compounds, that is, the sulfur is removed before the double bonds are reduced. This was demonstrated by isolation of the alkenes and the failure to isolate any potential sulfur-containing intermediates.[481]

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

14-35 *Conversion of Sulfides to Organolithium Compounds*

LITHIO-DE-PHENYLTHIO-SUBSTITUTION

$$RSPh \xrightarrow[THF]{\text{Li napthalenide}} RLi$$

Sulfides can be cleaved, with a phenylthio group replaced by a lithium,[482] by treatment with lithium or lithium naphthalenide in THE[483] Good yields have been obtained with R = primary, secondary, or tertiary alkyl, or allylic,[484] 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 α-lithio sulfide.[485] The reaction has also been used to prepare α-lithio ethers and α-lithio organosilanes.[482] For some of these compounds, lithium 1-(dimethylamino)-naphthalenide is a better reagent than either Li or lithium naphthalenide.[486] The mechanism is presumably of the free-radical type.

Carbon as Leaving Group

14-36 *Decarboxylative Dimerization: The Kolbe Reaction*

DE-CARBOXYLIDE-COUPLING

$$2\ RCOO^- \xrightarrow{\text{electrolysis}} R\text{-}R$$

Electrolysis of carboxylate ions, which results in decarboxylation and combination of the resulting radicals, is called the *Kolbe reaction* or the *Kolbe electrosynthesis*.[487] 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 a branching. The reaction is not successful for R = aryl. Many functional groups may be present, though many others inhibit the reaction.[487] Unsymmetrical RR′ have been made by coupling mixtures of acid salts.

A free-radical mechanism is involved:

$$RCOO^- \xrightarrow[\text{oxidation}]{\text{electrolytic}} RCOO\cdot \xrightarrow{-CO_2} R\cdot \longrightarrow R\text{-}R$$

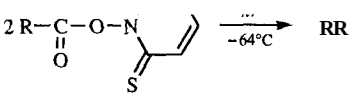
There is much evidence[488] for this mechanism, including side products (RH, alkenes) characteristic of free-radical intermediates and the fact that electrolysis of acetate ion in the presence of styrene caused some of the styrene to polymerize to polystyrene (such polymerizations can be initiated by free radicals, see p. 978). Other side products (ROH, RCOOR) are sometimes found; these stem from further oxidation of the radical R· to the carbocation R^+.[489]

When the reaction is conducted in the presence of 1,3-dienes, additive dimerization can occur:[490]

$$2\ RCOO + CH_2{=}CH{-}CH{=}CH_2 \longrightarrow RCH_2CH{=}CHCH_2CH_2CH{=}CHCH_2R$$

The radical R· adds to the conjugated system to give $RCH_2CH{=}CHCH_2\cdot$, which dimerizes. Another possible product is $RCH_2CH{=}CHCH_2R$, from coupling of the two kinds of radicals.[491]

In a nonelectrolytic reaction, which is limited to R = primary alkyl, the thiohydroxamic esters 29 give dimers when irradiated at —64°C in an argon atmosphere:[492]



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In another nonelectrolytic process, arylacetic acids are converted to *vic*-diaryl compounds $2ArCR_2COOH \rightarrow ArCR_2CR_2Ar$ by treatment with sodium persulfate ($Na_2S_2O_8$) and a catalytic amount of $AgNO_3$.[493] Both of these reactions involve dimerization of free radicals. In still another process, electron-deficient aromatic acyl chlorides are dimerized to biaryls ($2\ ArCOCl \rightarrow ArAr$) by treatment with a disilane R_3SiSiR_3 and a palladium catalyst.[494]

OS III, 401; V, 445, 463; VII, 181.

14-37 *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*[495] and is a way of decreasing the length of a carbon chain by one unit.[496] The reaction is of 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 a substituted. The R group 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.[497] A 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.[498]

Other methods for accomplishing the conversion RCOOH → RX are[499] (1) treatment of thallium(I) carboxylates[500] with bromine;[501] (2) treatment of carboxylic acids with lead tetraacetate and halide *ions* (Cl^-, Br", or 1~);[502] (3) reaction of the acids with lead tetraacetate and NCS, which gives tertiary and secondary chlorides in good yields but is not good for R — primary alkyl or phenyl;[503] (4) treatment of thiohydroxamic esters (24) with CCl_4, $BrCCl_3$ (which gives bromination), CHI3, or CH_2I_2 in the presence of a radical initiator;[504] (5) photolysis of benzophenone oxime esters of carboxylic acids in CCl_4 ($RCON{=}CPh_2 \rightarrow$ RC1).[505] Alkyl fluorides can be prepared in moderate to good yields by treating carboxylic acids RCOOH with XeF_2.[506] 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 $RCOOAg + X_2 \longrightarrow R-\underset{\underset{O}{\|}}{C}-O-X + AgX$

30

Step 2 $RC(=O)-O-X \longrightarrow RCOO\cdot + X\cdot$ (initiation)

Step 3 $RCOO\cdot \longrightarrow R\cdot + CO_2$

Step 4 $R\cdot + RCOOX \longrightarrow RX + RCOO\cdot$ (propagation)

etc.

The first step is not a free-radical process, and its actual mechanism is not known.[507] Compound 30 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. 899); 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

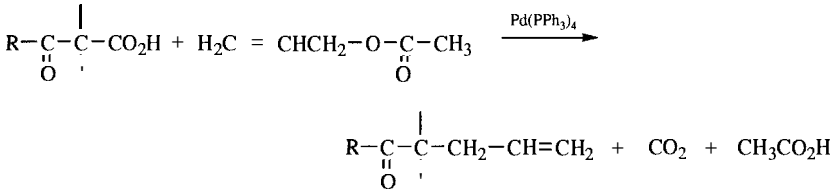
reaction involves the same mechanism as the Hunsdiecker reaction but that the alkyl halide formed then reacts with excess RCOOAg **(10-26)** to give the ester.[508] See also **19-12.**

A related reaction reacts the sodium salt of an alkylsulfonic acid with thionyl chloride at 100°C, to give the alkyl chloride.[509]

OS **III,** 578; V, 126; VI, 179; 75, 124. See also OS VI, 403.

14-38 *Decarboxylatlve Allylation*

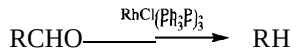
ALLYL-DE-CARBOXYLATION



The COOH group of a P-keto acid is replaced by an allylic group when the acid is treated with an allylic acetate and a palladium catalyst at room temperature.[510] The reaction is successful for various substituted allylic groups. The less highly substituted end of the allylic group forms the new bond. Thus, both $CH_2{=}CHCHMeOAc$ and $MeCH{=}CHCH_2OAc$ gave $(R)O{=}C{-}\underset{|}{\overset{|}{C}}{-}CH_2CH{=}CHMe$ as the product.

14-39 *Decarbonylation of Aldehydes and Acyl Halides*

CARBONYL-EXTRUSION



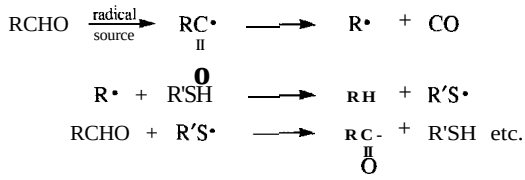
Aldehydes, both aliphatic and aromatic, can be decarbonylated[511] by heating with chlorotris(triphenylphosphir.e)rhodium[512] or other catalysts such as palladium.[513] The compound $RhCl(Ph_3P)_3$ is often called *Wilkinson's catalyst.*[514] In an older reaction, aliphatic (but not aromatic) aldehydes are decarbonylated by heating with di-*tert*-peroxide or other peroxides,[515] usually in a solution containing a hydrogen donor, such as a thiol. The reaction has also been initiated with light, and thermally (without an initiator) by heating at ~ 500°C.

Wilkinson's catalyst has also been reported to decarbonylate aromatic acyl halides at 180°C (ArCOX → ArX).[516] This reaction has been carried out with acyl iodides,[517] bromides, and chlorides. Aliphatic acyl halides that lack an a hydrogen also give this reaction,[518] but if an α hydrogen is present, elimination takes place instead **(17-16).** Aromatic acyl cyanides give aryl cyanides (ArCOCN → ArCN).[519] Aromatic acyl chlorides and cyanides can also be decarbonylated with palladium catalysts.[520]

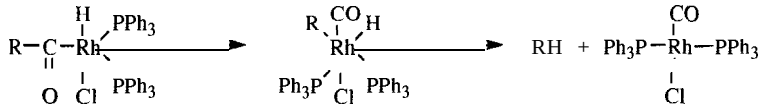
It is possible to decarbonylate acyl halides in another way, to give alkanes (RCOCl —• RH). This is done by heating the substrate with tripropylsilane Pr_3SiH in

the presence of *tert*-butyl peroxide.[521] Yields are good for R = primary or secondary alkyl and poor for R = tertiary alkyl or benzylic. There is no reaction when R = aryl. (See also the decarbonylation ArCOCl → ArAr mentioned in 14-36.)

The mechanism of the peroxide- or light-induced reaction seems to be as follows (in the presence of thiols):[522]



The reaction of aldehydes with Wilkinson's catalyst goes through complexes of the form 26 and 27, which have been trapped.[523] The reaction has been shown to give retention of configuration at a chiral R;[524] and deuterium labeling demonstrates that the reaction is intramolecular: RCOD give RD.[525] Free radicals are not involved.[526] The mechanism with acyl halides appears to be more complicated.[527]



26 27

For aldehyde decarbonylation by an electrophilic mechanism, see 11-37.

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CHAPTER 15

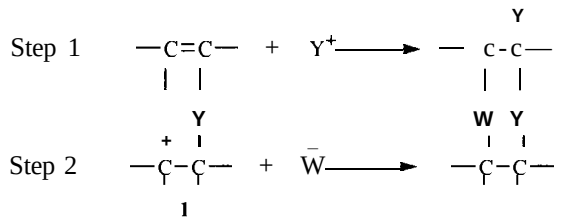
Addition to Carbon-Carbon Multiple Bonds

There are basically four ways in which addition to a double or triple bond can take place. Three of these are two-step processes, with initial attack by a nucleophile, an electrophile, or a free radical. The second step consists of combination of the resulting intermediate with, respectively, a positive species, a negative species, or a neutral entity. In the fourth type of mechanism, attack at the two carbon atoms of the double or triple bond is simultaneous. Which of the four mechanisms is operating in any given case is determined by the nature of the substrate, the reagent, and the reaction conditions. Some of the reactions in this chapter can take place by all four mechanistic types.

MECHANISMS

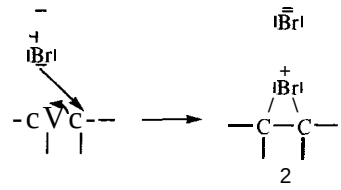
Electrophilic Addition[1]

In this mechanism, a positive species approaches the double or triple bond and in the first step forms a bond by converting the *n* pair of electrons into a a pair:



The IUPAC designation for this mechanism is A_E+A_N (or A_H+A_N if $Y^+=H^+$). As in electrophilic substitution (p. 676), Y need not actually be a positive ion but can be the positive end of a dipole or an induced dipole, with the negative part breaking off either during the first step or shortly after. The second step is a combination of 1 with a species carrying an electron pair and often bearing a negative charge. This step is the same as the second step of the S_N1 mechanism. Not all electrophilic additions follow the simple mechanism given above. In many brominations it is fairly certain

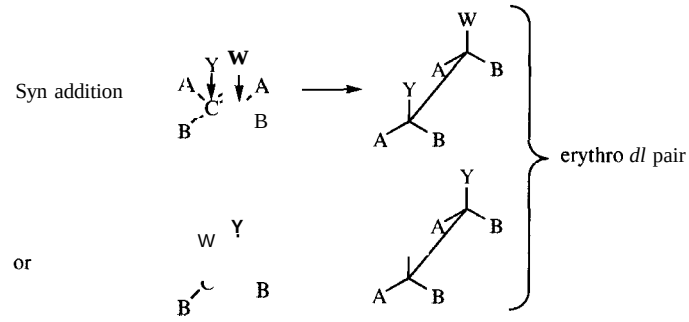
that 1, if formed at all, very rapidly cyclizes to a bromonium ion (2):



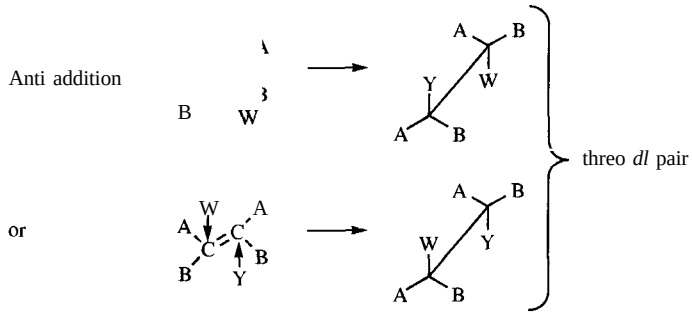
2

This intermediate is similar to those encountered in the neighboring-group mechanism of nucleophilic substitution (see p. 404). The attack of $\bar{W}$ on an intermediate like 2 is an S_N2 step. Whether the intermediate is 1 or 2, the mechanism is called Ad_E2 (electrophilic addition, bimolecular).

In investigating the mechanism of addition to a double bond, perhaps the most useful type of information is the stereochemistry of the reaction.[2] The two carbons of the double bond and the four atoms immediately attached to them are all in a plane (p. 8); there are thus three possibilities. Both Y and W may enter from the same side of the plane, in which case the addition is stereospecific and syn; they may enter from opposite sides for stereospecific anti addition; or the reaction may be nonstereospecific. In order to determine which of these possibilities is occurring in a given reaction, the following type of experiment is often done: YW is added to the cis and trans isomers of an alkene of the form ABC=CBA. We may use the cis alkene as an example. If the addition is syn, the product will be the erythro *dl* pair, because each carbon has a 50% chance of being attacked by Y:

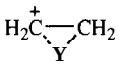


On the other hand, if the addition is anti, the threo *dl* pair will be formed:



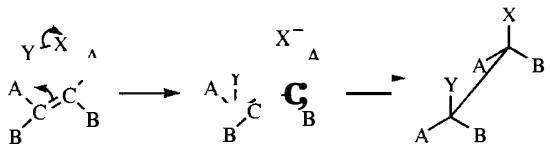
Of course, the trans isomer will give the opposite results: the threo pair if the addition is syn and the erythro pair if it is anti. The threo and erythro isomers have different physical properties. In the special case where Y = W (as in the addition of Br_2), the "erythro pair"is a meso compound. In addition to triple-bond compounds of the type AC≡CA, syn addition results in a cis alkene and anti addition in a trans alkene. By the definition given on page 166 addition to triple bonds cannot be stereospecific, though it can be, and often is, stereoselective.

It is easily seen that in reactions involving cyclic intermediates like 2 addition must be anti, since the second step is an S_N2 step and must occur from the backside. It is not so easy to predict the stereochemistry for reactions involving 1. If 1 has a relatively long life, the addition should be nonstereospecific, since there will be free rotation about the single bond. On the other hand, there may be some factor that maintains the configuration, in which case W may come in from the same side or the opposite side, depending on the circumstances. For example, the positive charge might be stabilized by an attraction for Y that does not involve a full bond:



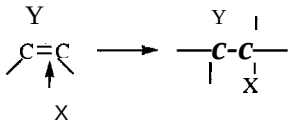
3

The second group would then come in anti. A circumstance that would favor syn addition would be the formation of an ion pair after the addition of Y:[3]



Since X is already on the same side of the plane as Y, collapse of the ion pair leads to syn addition.

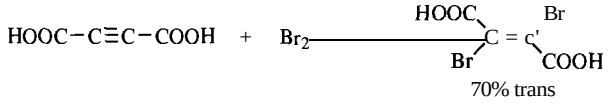
Another possibility is that anti addition might, at least in some cases, be caused by the operation of a mechanism in which attack by W and Y are essentially simultaneous but from opposite sides:



This mechanism, called the Ad_E3 mechanism (*termolecular addition,* IUPAC A_NA_E),[4] has the disadvantage that three molecules must come together in the transition state. However, it is the reverse of the E2 mechanism for elimination, for which the transition state is known to possess this geometry (p. 1300).

There is much evidence that when the attack is by Br^+ (or a carrier of it), the bromonium ion (2) is often an intermediate and the addition is anti. As long ago as 1911, McKenzie and Fischer[5] independently showed that treatment of maleic acid with bromine gave the *dl* pair of 2,3-dibromosuccinic acid, while fumaric acid (the

trans isomer) gave the meso compound. Many similar experiments have been performed since with similar results. For triple bonds, stereoselective anti addition was shown even earlier. Bromination of dicarboxyacetylene gave 70% of the trans isomer.[6]



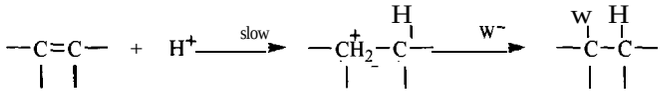
70% trans

There is other evidence for mechanisms involving 2. We have already mentioned (p. 407) that bromonium ions have been isolated in stable solutions in nucleophilic substitution reactions involving bromine as a neighboring group. Such ions have also been isolated in reactions involving addition of a Br^+ species to a double bond.[7] The following is further evidence. If the two bromines approach the double bond from opposite sides, it is very unlikely that they could come from the same bromine molecule. This means that if the reaction is performed in the presence of nucleophiles, some of these will compete in the second step with the bromide liberated from the bromine. It has been found, indeed, that treatment of ethylene with bromine in the presence of chloride ions gives some 1-chloro-2-bromoethane along with the dibromoethane.[8] Similar results are found when the reaction is carried out in the presence of water **(15-39)** or of other nucleophiles.[9] *Ab initio* MO studies show that 2 is more stable than its open isomer 1 (Y = Br).[10] There is evidence that formation of 2 is reversible.[11]

However, a number of examples have been found where addition of bromine is not stereospecifically anti. For example, the addition of Br_2 to *cis*- and *trans*-\-phenylpropenes in CCl_4 was nonstereospecific.[12] Furthermore, the stereospecificity of bromine addition to stilbene depends on the dielectric constant of the solvent. In solvents of low dielectric constant, the addition was 90-100% anti, but with an increase in dielectric constant, the reaction became less stereospecific, until, at a dielectric constant of ~ 35, the addition was completely nonstereospecific.[13] Likewise in the case of triple bonds, stereoselective anti addition was found in bromination of 3-hexyne, but both cis and trans products were obtained in bromination of phenylacetylene.[14] These results indicate that a bromonium ion is not formed where the open cation can be stabilized in other ways (e.g., addition of Br^+ to 1 -phenylpropene gives the ion $PhC^+HCHBrCH_3$, which is a relatively stable benzylic cation) and that there is probably a spectrum of mechanisms between complete bromonium ion (2, no rotation) formation and completely open-cation (1, free rotation) formation, with partially bridged bromonium ions (3, restricted rotation) in between.[15] We have previously seen cases (e.g., p. 415) where cations require more stabilization from outside sources as they become intrinsically less stable themselves.[16] Further evidence for the open cation mechanism where aryl stabilization is present was reported in an isotope effect study of addition of Br_2 to ArCH=CHCHAr' (Ar = *p*-nitrophenyl, Ar' = *p*-tolyl). The ^{14}C isotope effect for one of the double bond carbons (the one closer to the NO_2 group) was considerably larger than for the other one.[17]

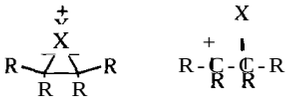
Attack by Cl^+,[18] I^+,[19] and RS^+[20] is similar to that by Br^+; there is a spectrum of mechanisms between cyclic intermediates and open cations. As might be expected from our discussion in Chapter 10 (p. 407), iodonium ions compete with open carbocations more effectively than bromonium ions, while chloronium ions compete less effectively. There is kinetic and spectral evidence that at least in some cases, for example in the addition of Br_2 or IC1, the electrophile forms a *n* complex with the alkene before a covalent bond is formed.[21]

When the electrophile is a proton,[22] a cyclic intermediate is not possible, and the mechanism is the simple A_H+A_N process shown before



This is an A-S_E2 mechanism (p. 466). There is a great deal of evidence[23] for it, including:

1. The reaction is general acid, not specific acid catalyzed, implying rate-determining proton transfer from the acid to the double bond.[24]
2. The existence of open carbocation intermediates is supported by the contrast in the pattern of alkyl substituent effects[25] with that found in brominations, where cyclic intermediates are involved. In the latter case substitution of alkyl groups on $H_2C=CH_2$ causes a cumulative rate acceleration until all four

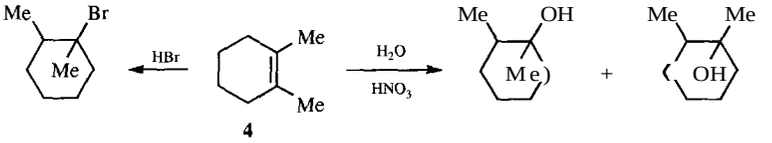


hydrogens have been replaced by alkyl groups, because each group helps to stabilize the positive charge.[26] In addition of HX, the effect is not cumulative. Replacement of the two hydrogens on one carbon causes great rate increases (primary → secondary → tertiary carbocation), but additional substitution on the other carbon produces little or no acceleration.[27] This is evidence for open cations when a proton is the electrophile.[28]

3. Open carbocations are prone to rearrange (Chapter 18). Many rearrangements have been found to accompany additions of HX and H_2O.[29]

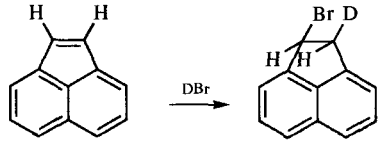
It may also be recalled that vinylic ethers react with proton donors in a similar manner (see **10-6).**

The stereochemistry of HX addition is varied. Examples are known of predominant syn, anti, and nonstereoselective addition. It was found that treatment of 1,2-dimethylcyclohexene (4) with HBr gave predominant anti addition,[30] while addition of water to 4 gave equal amounts of the cis and trans alcohols:[31]



4

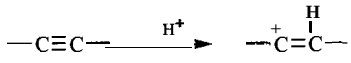
On the other hand, addition of DBr to acenaphthylene (5) and to indene and 1-phenylpropene gave predominant syn addition.[32]



5

In fact, it has been shown that the stereoselectivity of HCl addition can be controlled by changing the reaction conditions. Addition of HCl to 4 in CH_2Cl_2 at $-98°C$ gave predominantly syn addition, while in ethyl ether at 0°C, the addition was mostly anti.[33]

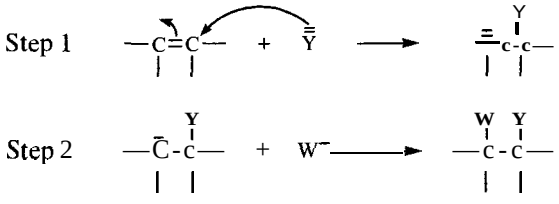
Addition of HX to triple bonds has the same mechanism, though the intermediate in this case is a vinylic cation:[34]



In all these cases (except for the Ad_E3 mechanism), we have assumed that formation of the intermediate (1, 2, or 3) is the slow step and attack by the nucleophile on the intermediate is rapid, and this is probably true in most cases. However, some additions have been found in which the second step is rate determining.[35]

Nucleophilic Addition[36]

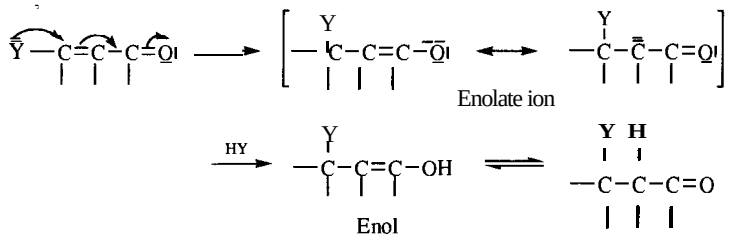
In the first step of nucleophilic addition a nucleophile brings its pair of electrons to one carbon atom of the double or triple bond, creating a carbanion. The second step is combination of this carbanion with a positive species:



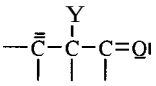
This mechanism is the same as the simple electrophilic one shown on page 970 except that the charges are reversed (IUPAC A_N+A_E or A_N+A_H). When the alkene contains a good leaving group (as defined for nucleophilic substitution), substitution is a side reaction (this is nucleophilic substitution at a vinylic substrate, see p. 428).

In the special case of addition of HY to a substrate of the form —C=C—Z, where Z = CHO, COR[37] (including quinones[38]), COOR, $CONH_2$, CN, NO_2, SOR, SO_2R,[39] and so on, addition nearly always follows a nucleophilic mechanism,[40] with Y~

bonding with the carbon *away* from the Z group, for example,



Protonation of the enolate ion is chiefly at the oxygen, which is more negative than the carbon, but this produces the enol, which tautomerizes. So, although the net result of the reaction is addition to a carbon-carbon double bond, the *mechanism* is 1,4 nucleophilic addition to the C=C–C=O (or similar) system and is thus very similar to the mechanism of addition to carbon–oxygen double and similar bonds (see Chapter 16). When Z is CN or a C=O group, it is also possible for Y" to attack at *this* carbon, and this reaction sometimes competes. When it happens, it is called 1,2 addition. 1,4 Addition to these substrates is also known as *conjugate addition.* The Y^- ion almost never attacks at the 3 position, since the resulting carbanion would have no resonance stabilization:[41]

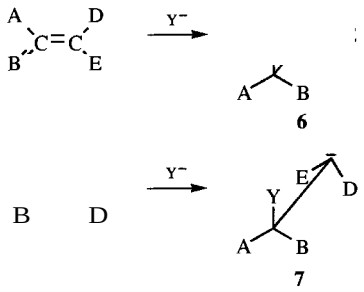


An important substrate of this type is acrylonitrile, and 1,4 addition to it is called *cyanoethylation* because the Y is cyanoethylated:

$$H_2C{=}CH{-}CN + HY \longrightarrow Y{-}CH_2{-}CH_2{-}CN$$

With any substrate, when Y is an ion of the type $Z{-}\bar{C}R_2$ (Z is as defined above; R may be alkyl, aryl, hydrogen, or another Z), the reaction is called the *Michael reaction* (see **15-21).** In this book, we will call all other reactions that follow this mechanism *Michael-type additions.* Systems of the type C=C–C=C–Z can give 1,2, 1,4, or 1,6 addition.[42] Michael-type reactions are reversible, and compounds of the type YCH_2CH_2Z can often be decomposed to YH and $CH_2{=}CHZ$ by heating, either with or without alkali.

If the mechanism for nucleophilic addition is the simple carbanion mechanism outlined on page 975, the addition should be nonstereospecific, though it might well be stereoselective (see p. 166 for the distinction). For example, the (*E*) and (Z) forms of an alkene ABC=CDE would give 6 and 7:



If the carbanion has even a short lifetime, 6 and 7 will assume the most favorable conformation before the attack of W. This is of course the same for both, and when W attacks, the same product will result from each. This will be one of two possible diastereomers, so the reaction will be stereoselective; but since the cis and trans isomers do not give rise to different isomers, it will not be stereospecific. Unfortunately, this prediction has not been tested on open-chain alkenes. Except for Michael-type substrates, the stereochemistry of nucleophilic addition to double bonds has been studied only in cyclic systems, where only the cis isomer exists. In these cases, the reaction has been shown to be stereoselective with syn addition reported in some cases[43] and anti addition in others.[44] When the reaction is performed on a Michael-type substrate, C=C–Z, the hydrogen does not arrive at the carbon directly but only through a tautomeric equilibrium. The product naturally assumes the most thermodynamically stable configuration, without relation to the direction of original attack of Y. In one such case (the addition of EtOD and of Me_3CSD to *trans*-MeCH=CHCOOEt) predominant anti addition was found; there is evidence that the stereoselectivity here results from the final protonation of the enolate, and not from the initial attack.[45] For obvious reasons, additions to triple bonds cannot be stereospecific. As with electrophilic additions, nucleophilic additions to triple bonds are usually stereoselective and anti,[46] though syn addition[47] and nonstereoselective addition[48] have also been reported.

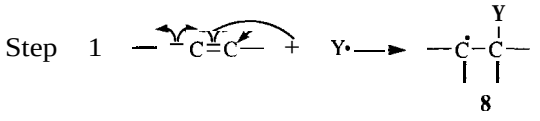
Free-Radical Addition

The mechanism of free-radical addition[49] follows the pattern discussed in Chapter 14 (pp. 894-895). The method of principal component analysis has been used to analyze polar and enthalpic effect in radical addition reactions.[50] A radical is generated by

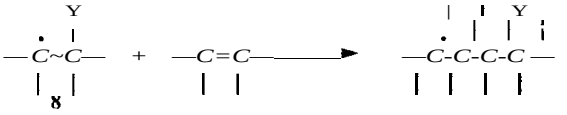
$$YW \xrightarrow[\text{dissociation}]{h\nu \text{ or spontaneous}} Y\cdot + W\cdot$$

$$R\cdot \text{ (from some other source)} + YW \longrightarrow RW + Y\cdot$$

Propagation then occurs by

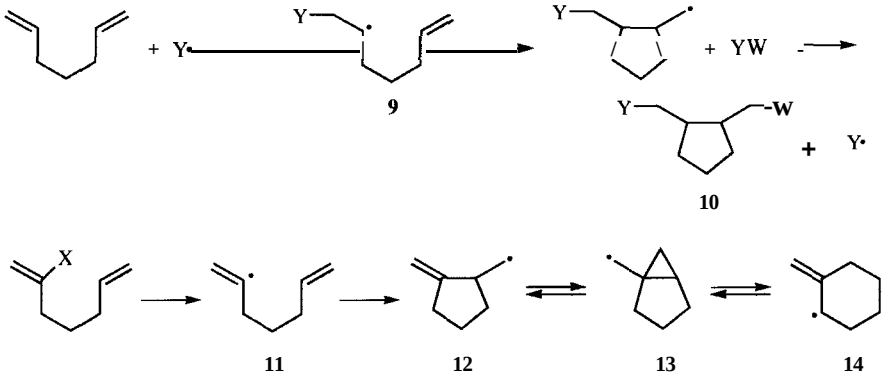


Step 2 is an abstraction, so W is nearly always univalent, either hydrogen or halogen (p. 900). Termination of the chain can occur in any of the ways discussed in Chapter 14. If 8 adds to another alkene molecule, a dimer is formed. This can add to



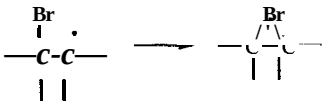
still another, and chains, long or short, may be built up. This is the mechanism of free-radical polymerization. Short polymeric molecules (called *telomers*), formed in this manner, are often troublesome side products in free-radical addition reactions.

When free radicals are added to 1,5- or 1,6-dienes, the initially formed radical (9) can add intramolecularly to the other bond, leading to a cyclic product (10).[51] When the radical is generated from an precursor that gives vinyl radical 11, however, cyclization leads to 12, which is in equilibrium with cyclopropylcarbinyl radical 13 via a 5-exo-trig reaction.[52] A 6-endo-trig reaction leads to 14, but unless there are perturbing substituent effects, however, cyclopropanation should be the major process.



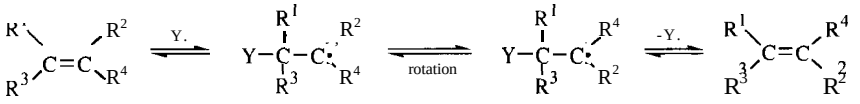
Radicals of the type 9, generated in other ways, also undergo these cyclizations. Both five- and six-membered rings can be formed in these reactions (see p. 985).

The free-radical addition mechanism just outlined predicts that the addition should be nonstereospecific, at least if 8 has any but an extremely short lifetime. However, the reactions may be stereoselective, for reasons similar to those discussed for nucleophilic addition on page 976. Not all free-radical additions have been found to be stereoselective, but many are. For example, addition of HBr to 1-bromocyclohexene gave only *cis*- 1,2-dibromocyclohexane and none of the trans isomer (anti addition),[53] and propyne (at -78 to -60°C) gave only *cis*- 1-bromopropene (anti addition).[54] However, stereospecificity has been found only in a few cases. Selectivity was observed in radical cyclization reactions of functionalized alkenes, which proceeded via a trans ring closure.[55] The most important case is probably addition of HBr to 2-bromo-2-butene under free-radical conditions at - 80°C. Under these conditions, the cis isomer gave 92% of the meso product, while the trans isomer gave mostly the *dl* pair.[56] This stereospecificity disappeared at room temperature, where both alkenes gave the same mixture of products (about 78% of the *dl* pair and 22% of the meso compound), so the addition was still stereoselective but no longer stereospecific. The stereospecificity at low temperatures is probably caused by a stabilization of the intermediate radical through the formation of a bridged bromine radical, of the type mentioned on page 899:



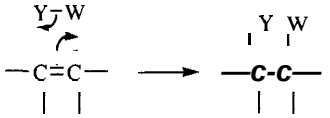
This species is similar to the bromonium ion that is responsible for stereospecific anti addition in the electrophilic mechanism. Further evidence for the existence of such bridged radicals was obtained by addition of Br· to alkenes at 77 K. The ESR spectra of the resulting species were consistent with bridged structures.[57]

For many radicals, step 1 (C=C+Y· → ·C—C—Y) is reversible. In such cases, free radicals can cause cis → trans isomerization of a double bond by the pathway.[58]



Cyclic Mechanisms

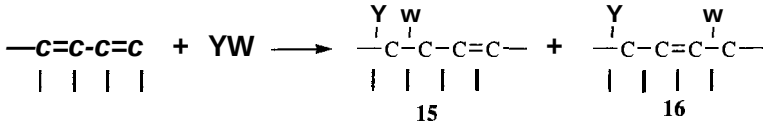
There are some addition reactions where the initial attack is not at one carbon of the double bond, but both carbons are attacked simultaneously. Some of these are four-center mechanisms, which follow this pattern:



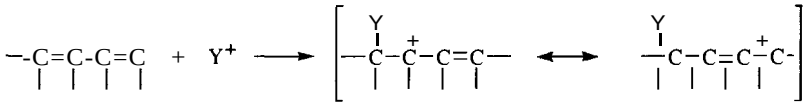
In others, there is a five- or a six-membered transition state. In these cases, the addition to the double or triple bond must be syn. The most important reaction of this type is the Diels–Alder reaction **(15-58).**

Addition to Conjugated Systems

When electrophilic addition is carried out on a compound with two double bonds in conjugation, a 1,2-addition product (15) is often obtained, but in most cases there is also a 1,4-addition product (16), often in larger yield:[59]

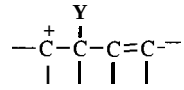


If the diene is unsymmetrical, there may be two 1,2-addition products. The competition between two types of addition product comes about because the carbocation resulting from attack by Y^+ is a resonance hybrid, with partial positive charges at the 2 and 4 positions:

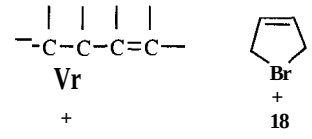


W^- may then attack either position. The original attack of Y^+ is always at the end of the conjugated system because an attack at a middle carbon would give a cation

unstabilized by resonance:



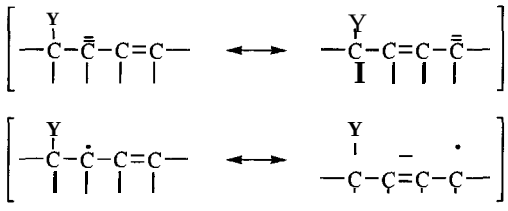
In the case of electrophiles like Br^+, which can form cyclic intermediates, both 1,2- and 1,4-addition products can be rationalized as stemming from an intermediate like 17. Direct nucleophilic attack by W~ would give the 1,2 product, while the 1,4 product could be formed by attack at the 4 position, by an S_N2' type mechanism (see p. 422). Intermediates like 18 have been postulated but ruled out for Br and Cl by the observation that chlorination or bromination of butadiene gives trans 1,4



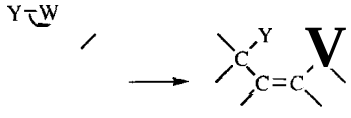
17 18

products.[60] If an ion like 18 were the intermediate, the 1,4 products would have to have the cis configuration.

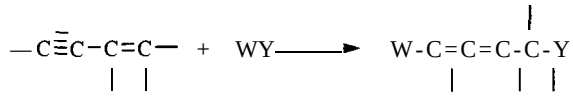
In most cases, more 1,4- than 1,2-addition product is obtained. This may be a consequence of thermodynamic control of products, as against kinetic. In most cases, under the reaction conditions, 15 is converted to a mixture of 15 and 16, which is richer in 16. That is, either isomer gives the same mixture of both, which contains more 16. It was found that at low temperatures, butadiene and HO gave only 20-25% 1,4 adduct, while at high temperatures, where attainment of equilibrium is more likely, the mixture contained 75% 1,4 product.[61] 1,2 Addition predominated over 1,4 in the reaction between DC1 and 1,3-pentadiene, where the intermediate was the symmetrical (except for the D label) $H_3CHC{-}\dot{C}H{-}CHCH_2D$.[62] Ion pairs were invoked to explain this result, since a free ion would be expected to be attacked by Cl~ equally well at both positions, except for the very small isotope effect.



Addition to conjugated systems can also be accomplished by any of the other three mechanisms. In each case, there is competition between 1,2 and 1,4 addition. In the case of nucleophilic or free-radical attack,[63] the intermediates are resonance hybrids and behave like the intermediate from electrophilic attack. Dienes can give 1,4 addition by a cyclic mechanism in this way:



Other conjugated systems, including trienes, enynes, diynes, and so on, have been studied much less but behave similarly. 1,4 Addition to enynes is an important way of making allenes:



Radical addition to conjugated systems is an important part of chain propagation reactions. The rate constants for addition of cyclohexyl radical to conjugated amides have been measured, and shown to be faster than addition to styrene.[64] In additions to $RCH{=}C(CN)_2$ systems, where the R group has a chiral center, the Felkin–Ahn rule (p. 148) is followed and the reaction proceeds with high selectivity.[65] Addition of some radicals, such as $(Me_3Si)_3Si\cdot$, is reversible and this can lead to poor selectivity or isomerization.[66]

ORIENTATION AND REACTIVITY

Reactivity

As with electrophilic aromatic substitution (Chapter 11), electron-donating groups increase the reactivity of a double bond toward electrophilic addition and electron-withdrawing groups decrease it. This is illustrated in Tables 15.1 and 15.2.[67] As a further illustration it may be mentioned that the reactivity toward electrophilic addition of a group of alkenes increased in the order $CCl_3CH{=}CH_2 < Cl_2CHCH{=}CH_2 < ClCH_2CH{=}CH_2 < CH_3CH_2{=}CH_2$.[68] For nucleophilic addition the situation is reversed. These reactions are best carried out on substrates containing three or four electron-withdrawing groups, two of the most common being $F_2C{=}CF_2$[69] and $(NC)_2C{=}C(CN)_2$.[70] The effect of substituents is so great that it is possible to make the statement that *simple alkenes do not react by the nucleophilic mechanism, and polyhalo or polycyano alkenes do not generally react by the electrophilic mechanism?*[1] There are some reagents that attack only as nucleophiles (e.g., ammonia) and these add only to substrates susceptible to nucleophilic attack. Other reagents attack

TABLE 15.1 Relative Reactivity of Some Alkenes Toward Bromine in Acetic Acid at 24°C

Alkene	Relative Rate
$PhCH{=}CH_2$	Very fast
PhCH=CHPh	18
$CH_2{=}CHCH_2Cl$	1.6
$CH_2{=}CHCH_2Br$	1.0
PhCH=CHBr	0.11
$CH_2{=}CHBr$	0.0011

TABLE 15.2 Relative Reactivity of Some Alkenes Toward Bromine in Methanol

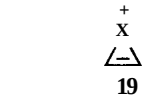
Alkene	Relative Rate
CH_2=CH2	3.0 x 10^1
$CH_3CH_2CH=CH_2$	2.9 x 10^3
cis-$CH_3CH_2CH=CHCH_3$	1.3 x 10^5
$(CH_3)_2C=C(CH_3)_2$	2.8 x 10^7

only as electrophiles, and, for example, $F_2C=CF_2$ does not react with these. In still other cases, the same reagent reacts with a simple alkene by the electrophilic mechanism and with a polyhalo alkene by a nucleophilic mechanism. For example, Cl_2 and HF are normally electrophilic reagents, but it has been shown that Cl_2 adds to $(NC)_2C=CHCN$ with initial attack by Cl^-,[72] and that HF adds to $F_2C=CClF$ with initial attack by F^-.[73] Compounds that have a double bond conjugated with a Z group (as defined on p. 975) nearly always react by a nucleophilic mechanism.[74] These are actually 1,4 additions, as discussed on page XXX. A number of studies have been made of the relative activating abilities of various Z groups.[75] On the basis of these studies, the following order of decreasing activating ability has been suggested: Z = NO_2, COAr, CHO, COR, SO_2Ar, CN, COOR, SOAr, $CONH_2$, CONHR.[76]

It seems obvious that electron-withdrawing groups enhance nucleophilic addition and inhibit electrophilic addition because they lower the electron density of the double bond. Addition of electrophilic radicals to electron rich alkenes has been reported,[77] so the reaction is possible in some cases. This is probably true, and yet similar reasoning does not always apply to a comparison between double and triple bonds.[78] There is a higher concentration of electrons between the carbons of a triple bond than in a double bond, and yet triple bonds are *less* subject to electrophilic attack and *more* subject to nucleophilic attack than double bonds.[79] This statement is not universally true, but it does hold in most cases. In compounds containing both double and triple bonds (nonconjugated), bromine, an electrophilic reagent, always adds to the double bond.[80] In fact, all reagents that form bridged intermediates like 2 react faster with double than with triple bonds. On the other hand, addition of electrophilic H^+ (acid-catalyzed hydration, **15-3;** addition of hydrogen halides, **15-**2) takes place at about the same rates for alkenes as for corresponding alkynes.[81] Furthermore, the presence of electron-withdrawing groups lowers the alkene/alkyne rate ratio. For example, while styrene $PhCH=CH_2$ was brominated 3000 times faster than PhC≡CH, the addition of a second phenyl group (PhCH=CHPh vs. PhC≡CPh) lowered the rate ratio to about 250.[82] In the case of *trans*-MeOOCCH=CHCOOMe versus MeOOCC≡CCOOMe, the triple bond compound was actually brominated faster.[83]

Still, it is true that in general triple bonds are more susceptible to nucleophilic and less to elcctrophilic attack than double bonds, in spite of their higher electron density. One explanation is that the electrons in the triple bond are held more tightly

because of the smaller carbon-carbon distance; it is thus harder for an attacking electrophile to pull out a pair. There is evidence from far-UV spectra to support this conclusion.[84] Another possible explanation has to do with the availability of the unfilled orbital in the alkyne. It has been shown that a n^* orbital of bent alkynes (such as cyclooctyne) has a lower energy than the n^* orbital of alkenes, and it has been suggested[85] that linear alkynes can achieve a bent structure in their transition states when reacting with an electrophile. Where electrophilic addition involves

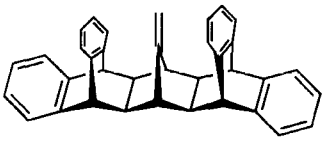


19 **20**

bridged-ion intermediates, those arising from triple bonds (19) are more strained than the corresponding 20 and furthermore are antiaromatic systems (see p. 58), which 20 are not. This may be a reason why electrophilic addition by such electrophiles as Br, I, SR, and so on, is slower for triple than for double bonds.[86] As might be expected, triple bonds connected to a Z group (C≡C—Z) undergo nucleophilic addition especially well.[87]

Although alkyl groups in general increase the rates of electrophilic addition, we have already mentioned (p. 974) that there is a different pattern depending on whether the intermediate is a bridged ion or an open carbocation. For brominations and other electrophilic additions in which the first step of the mechanism is rate determining, the rates for substituted alkenes correlate well with the ionization potentials of the alkenes, which means that steric effects are not important.[88] Where the second step is rate determining [e.g., oxymercuration (15-3), hydroboration (15-17)], steric effects are important.[88]

Free-radical additions can occur with any type of substrate. The determining factor is the presence of a free-radical attacking species. Some reagents (e.g., HBr, RSH) attack by ionic mechanisms if no initiator is present, but in the presence of a free-radical initiator, the mechanism changes and the addition is of the free-radical type. Nucleophilic radicals (see p. 896) behave like nucleophiles in that the rate is increased by the presence of electron-withdrawing groups in the substrate. The reverse is true for electrophilic radicals.[89] However, nucleophilic radicals react with alkynes more slowly than with the corresponding alkenes,[90] which is contrary to what might have been expected.[91]



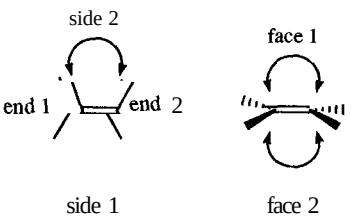
21

Steric influences are important in some cases. In catalytic hydrogenation, where the substrate must be adsorbed onto the catalyst surface, the reaction becomes more difficult with increasing substitution. The hydrocarbon 21, in which the double bond is entombed between the benzene rings, does not react with Br_2, H_2SO_4, O3, BH3, $:CBr_2$, or other reagents that react with most double bonds.[92] A similarly inactive

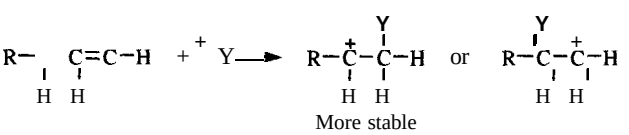
compound is tetra-*tert*-butylallene $(t\text{-Bu})_2C{=}C{=}C(t\text{-Bu})_2$, which is inert to Br_2, Cl_2, O_3, and catalytic hydrogenation.[93]

Orientation

When an unsymmetrical reagent is added to an unsymmetrical substrate, the question arises: Which side of the reagent goes to which side of the double or triple bond? The terms side and face are arbitrary, and a simple guide is shown to help understand the arguments used here. For electrophilic attack, the answer is given by

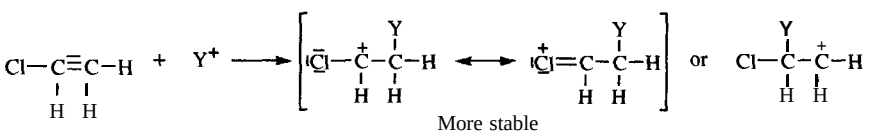


Markovnikov's rule: The positive portion of the reagent goes to the side of the double or triple bond that has more hydrogens.[94] A number of explanations have been suggested for this regioselectivity, but the most probable is that Y^+ adds to that side that will give the more stable carbocation. This premise has been examined by core electron spectroscopy and by theoretical analysis.[95] Thus, when an alkyl group is present, secondary carbocations are more stable than primary:



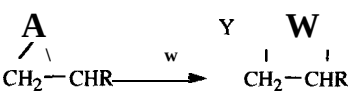
More stable

We may ask: How does Y^+ "know" which side will give the more stable carbocation? As in the similar case of electrophilic aromatic substitution (p. 681), we invoke the Hammond postulate and say that the lower energy carbocation is preceded by the lower energy transition state. Markovnikov's rule also applies for halogen substituents because the halogen stabilizes the carbocation by resonance:



More stable

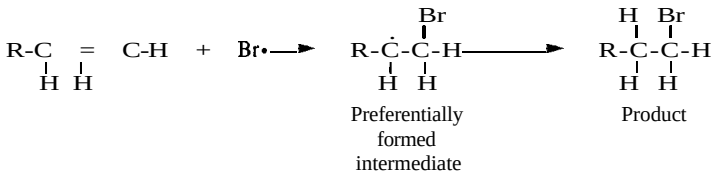
Markovnikov's rule is also usually followed where bromonium ions or other three-membered rings are intermediates.[96] This means that in these cases attack by W must resemble the S_N1 rather than the S_N2 mechanism (see p. 461), though the overall stereospecific anti addition in these reactions means that the nucleophilic substitution step is taking place with inversion of configuration.



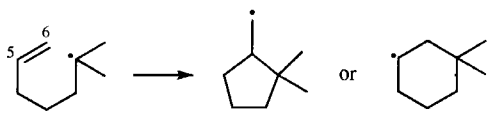
Alkenes containing strong electron-withdrawing groups may violate Markovnikov's rule. For example, attack at the Markovnikov position of $Me_3N^+-CH=CH_2$ would give an ion with positive charges on adjacent atoms. The compound $CF_3CH=CH_2$ has been reported to give electrophilic addition with acids in an anti-Markovnikov direction, but it has been shown[97] that, when treated with acids, this compound does not give simple electrophilic addition at all; the apparently anti-Markovnikov products are formed by other pathways.

For nucleophilic addition the direction of attack has been studied very little, except for Michael-type addition, with compounds of the type C=C–Z. Here the negative part of the reagent almost always attacks regioselectively at the carbon that does not carry the Z (see p. 976).

In free-radical addition,[98] the main effect seems to be steric.[99] All substrates $CH_2=CHX$ are preferentially attacked at the CH_2, regardless of the identity of X or of the attacking radical. With a reagent such as HBr, this means that the addition is anti-Markovnikov:



Thus the observed orientation in both kinds of HBr addition (Markovnikov electrophilic and anti-Markovnikov free radical) is caused by formation of the secondary intermediate. In the electrophilic case, it forms because it is more stable than the primary; in the free-radical case because it is sterically preferred. The stability order of the free-radical intermediates is also usually in the same direction: $3° > 2° > 1°$ (p. 241), but this factor is apparently less important than the steric factor. Internal alkenes with no groups present to stabilize the radical usually give an approximately 1:1 mixture.

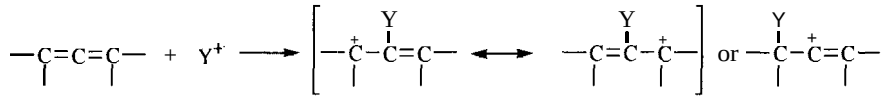


Favored

In *intramolecular* additions of radicals containing a 5,6 double bond,[51] both five- and six-membered rings can be formed, but in most cases[100] the five-membered rings are greatly preferred kinetically, even (as in the case shown) where five-membered ring closure means generating a primary radical and six-membered ring closure a secondary radical. This phenomenon may be caused by more favorable entropy factors leading to a five-membered ring, as well as by stereoelectronic factors, but other explanations have also been offered.[101] Similar behavior is found when the double bond is in other positions (from the 3,4 to the 7,8 position). In each case the smaller ring (exo-trig addition) is preferred to the larger (endo-trig

addition)[102] (see the Baldwin rules, p. 282). However, when a radical that is unsaturated in the 5,6 position contains an alkyl group in the 5 position, formation of the six-membered ring is generally favored.[103]

For conjugated dienes, attack by a positive ion, a negative ion, or a free radical is almost always at the *end* of the conjugated system, since in each case this gives an intermediate stabilized by resonance. In the case of an unsymmetrical diene, the more stable ion is formed. For example, isoprene $CH_2{=}CMeCH{=}CH_2$, treated with HCl gives only $Me_2CClCH{=}CH_2$ and $Me_2C{=}CHCH_2Cl$, with none of the product arising from attack at the other end. The compound $PhCH{=}CHCH{=}CH_2$ gives only $PhCH{=}CHCHClCH_3$ since it is the only one of the eight possible products that has a double bond in conjugation with the ring and that results from attack by H^+ at an end of the conjugated system.

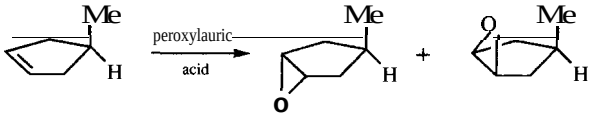


When allenes are attacked by electrophilic reagents,[104] Markovnikov's rule would predict that the attack should be at the end of the system, since there are no hydrogens in the middle. Attack at the center gives a carbocation stabilized by resonance, but not immediately. In order for such stabilization to be in effect the three *p* orbitals must be parallel, and it requires a rotation about the C–C bond for this to happen.[105] Therefore, the stability of the allylic cation has no effect on the transition state, which still has a geometry similar to that of the original allene (p. 133). Probably because of this, attack on the unsubstituted $CH_2{=}C{=}CH_2$ is most often at the end carbon, to give a vinylic cation, though center attack has also been reported. However, as alkyl or aryl groups are substituted on the allene carbons, attack at the middle carbon becomes more favorable because the resulting cation is stabilized by the alkyl or aryl groups (it is now a secondary, tertiary, or benzylic cation). For example, allenes of the form $RCH{=}C{=}CH_2$ are still attacked most often at the end, but with $RCH{=}C{=}CHR'$ center attack is more prevalent. Tetramethylallene is also attacked predominantly at the center carbon.[106] Free radicals[107] attack allenes most often at the end,[108] though attack at the middle has also been reported.[109] As with electrophilic attack and for the same reason, the stability of the allylic radical has no effect on the transition state of the reaction between a free radical and an allene. Again, as with electrophilic attack, the presence of alkyl groups increases the extent of attack by a radical at the middle carbon.[110]

Stereochemical Orientation

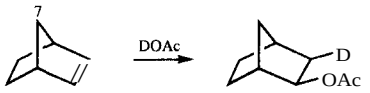
It has already been pointed out that some additions are syn, with both groups, approaching from the same side, and that others are anti, with the groups approaching from opposite sides of the double or triple bond. For cyclic compounds, there are further aspects of steric orientation. In syn addition to an unsymmetrical cyclic alkene, the two groups can come in from the more-hindered face or from the

less-hindered face of the double bond. The rule is that syn addition is usually, though not always, from the less-hindered face. For example, epoxidation of 4-methylcyclopentene gave 76% addition from the less-hindered and 24% from the more-hindered face.[111]

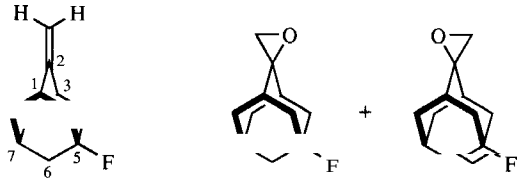


76% 24%

In anti addition to a cyclic substrate, the initial attack by the electrophile is also from the less-hindered face. However, many (though not all) electrophilic additions to norbornene and similar strained bicycloalkenes are syn additions.[112] In these cases attack is always from the exo side, for example,[113]



unless the exo side is blocked by substituents in the 7 position, in which case endo attack may predominate; for example, 7,7-dimethylnorbornene undergoes syn-endo epoxidation (15-48) and hydroboration[114] (15-16). However, addition of DCl and F_3CCOOD to, and oxymercuration (15-2) of, 7,7-dimethylnorbornene proceeds syn–exo in spite of the methyl groups in the 7 position.[115] Similarly, free-radical additions to norbornene and similar molecules are often syn-exo, though anti additions and endo attacks are also known.[116]



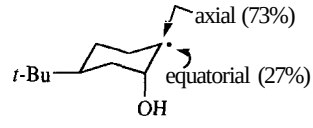
22 23 24

Ratio 66:34

Electronic effects can also play a part in determining which face is attacked. In the adamantane derivative (22), steric effects are about the same for each face of the double bond. Yet epoxidation, dibromocarbene attack (15-62), and hydroboration (15-16) all predominantly take place from the face that is syn to the electron-withdrawing fluorine.[117] In the case shown, about twice as much 23 was formed, compared to 24. Similar results have been obtained on other substrates:[118] groups that are electron-withdrawing by the field effect (-7) direct attack from the syn face; +/ groups from the anti face, for both electrophilic and nucleophilic attack. These results are attributed[119] to hyperconjugation: For the adamantane case, there is overlap between the σ^* orbital of the newly forming bond (between the attacking species and C-2 in 22) and the filled σ orbitals of the C_α–C_β bonds on the opposite

side. This is called the *Cieplak effect.* The $LiAlH_4$ reduction of 2-axial methyl or methoxy cyclohexanones supports Cieplak's proposal.[120] In addition reactions of methanol to norbornanones, however, little evidence was found to support the Cieplak effect.[121] The four possible bonds are C-3—C-4 and C-1—C-9 on the syn side and C-3—C-10 and C-1—C-8 on the anti side. The preferred pathway is the one where the incoming group has the more electron-rich bonds on the side *opposite* to it (these are the ones it overlaps with). Since the electron-withdrawing F has its greatest effect on the bonds closest to it, the C-1—C-8 and C-3—C-10 bonds are more electron rich, and the group comes in on the face syn to the F.

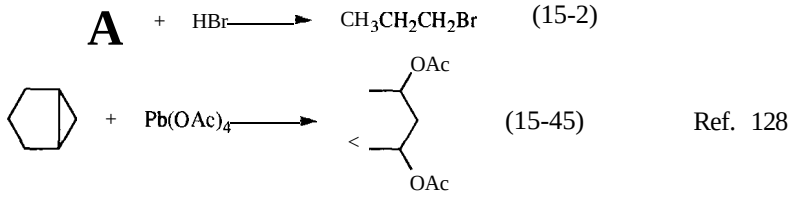
It has been mentioned that additions of Br_2 and HOBr are often anti because of formation of bromonium ions and that free-radical addition of HBr is also anti. When the substrate in any of these additions is a cyclohexene, the addition is not only anti but the initially formed product is conformationally specific too, being mostly diaxial.[122] This is so because diaxial opening of the three-membered ring preserves a maximum coplanarity of the participating centers in the transition state; indeed, on opening, epoxides also give diaxial products.[123] However, the initial diaxial product may then pass over to the diequatorial conformer unless other groups on the ring render the latter less stable than the former. In free-radical additions to cyclohexenes in which cyclic intermediates are not involved, the initial attack by the radical is also usually from the axial direction,[124] resulting in a diaxial initial product if the overall addition is anti. The direction from which unsymmetrical radicals attack has also been studied.[125] For example, when the radical 25 adds to a double bond it preferentially does so anti to the OH group, leading to a diaxial trans product.[125]



25

Addition to Cyclopropane Rings[126]

We have previously seen (p. 181) that in some respects, cyclopropane rings resemble double bonds.[127] It is not surprising, therefore, that cyclopropanes undergo addition reactions analogous to those undergone by double-bond compounds, resulting in the opening of the three-membered rings, as in the two examples shown where pertinent reaction numbers are in parentheses.



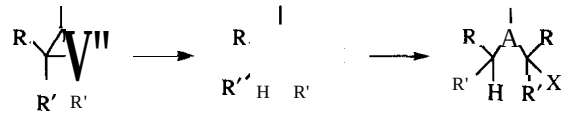
Other examples are discussed at 15-3, 15-15, and 15-61.

Additions to cyclopropanes can take place by any of the four mechanisms already discussed in this chapter, but the most important type involves electrophilic attack.[129] For substituted cyclopropanes, these reactions usually follow Markovnikov's rule, though exceptions are known and the degree of regioselectivity is often small. The application of Markovnikov's rule to these substrates can be illustrated by the reaction of 1,1,2-trimethylcyclopropane with HX.[130] The rule predicts that the electrophile (in this case H^+) goes to the carbon with the most hydrogens and the

nucleophile goes to the carbon that can best stabilize a positive charge (in this case the tertiary rather than the secondary carbon). The stereochemistry of the reaction can be investigated at two positions: the one that becomes connected to the electrophile and the one that becomes connected to the nucleophile. The results at the former position are mixed. Additions have been found to take place with 100% retention,[131] 100% inversion,[132] and with mixtures of retention and inversion.[133] At the carbon that becomes connected to the nucleophile the result is usually inversion, though retention has also been found,[134] and elimination, rearrangement, and racemization processes often compete, indicating that in many cases a positively charged carbon is generated at this position.

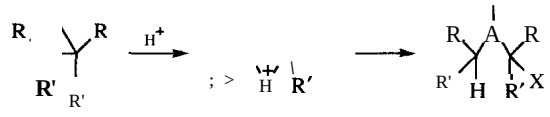
At least three mechanisms have been proposed for electrophilic addition (these mechanisms are shown for attack by HX, but analogous mechanisms can be written for other electrophiles).

Mechanism *a*



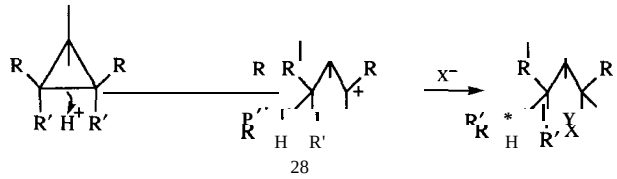
26

Mechanism *b*



27

Mechanism *c*

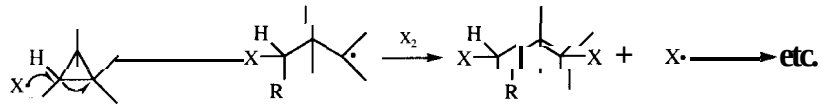


28

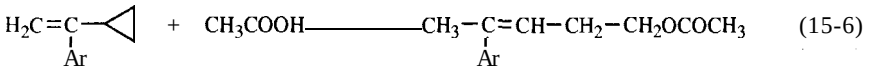
Mechanism *a* involves a corner-protonated cyclopropane (**26**);[135] we have already seen examples of such ions in the 2-norbornyl and 7-norbornenyl cations (pp. 409, 414). Mechanism *b* involves an edge-protonated cyclopropane (27). Mechanism *c* consists of a one-step S_E2-type attack by H^+ to give the classical cation 28, which

then reacts with the nucleophile. Although the three mechanisms as we have drawn them show retention of configuration at the carbon that becomes attached to the proton, mechanisms *a* and *c* at least can also result in inversion at this carbon. Unfortunately, the present available evidence does not allow us unequivocally to select any of these as the exclusive mechanism in all cases. Matters are complicated by the possibility that more than one edge-protonated cyclopropane is involved, at least in some cases. There is strong evidence for mechanism *b* with the electrophiles Br^+ and Cl^+;[136] and for mechanism *a* with D^+ and Hg^{2+}.[137] *Ab initio* studies show that the corner-protonated 26 is slightly more stable ($\sim$1.4 kcal mol^{-1}, 6 kJ mol^{-1}) than the edge-protonated **27**.[138] There is some evidence against mechanism *c*.[139]

Free-radical additions to cyclopropanes have been studied much less, but it is known that Br_2 and Cl_2 add to cyclopropanes by a free-radical mechanism in the presence of UV light. The addition follows Markovnikov's rule, with the initial radical attacking the least-substituted carbon and the second group going to the most-substituted position. Several investigations have shown that the reaction is stereospecific at one carbon, taking place with inversion there, but nonstereospecific at the other carbon.[140] A mechanism that accounts for this behavior is[141]



In some cases, conjugate addition has been performed on systems where a double bond is "conjugated" with a cyclopropyl ring. An example is[142]



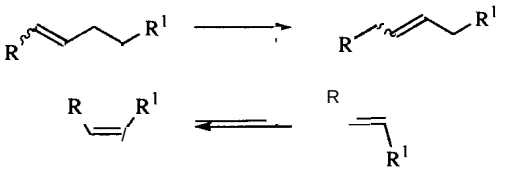
(15-6)

REACTIONS

Reactions are classified by type of reagent. Isomerization of double and triple bonds is followed by examination of all reactions where hydrogen adds to one side of the double or triple bond.

Isomerization of Double and Triple Bonds

5-1 *Isomerization*



There are several reagents that lead to isomerization of a double bond to form a new alkene. Allyl decyl ether ($CH_2{=}CHCH_2OC_{10}H_{21}$) was isomerized to 1-decyloxy-1-propene ($CH_3CH{=}CHOC_{10}H_{21}$) by treatment with $NaHFe(CO)_4$.[143] Many of these reactions were discussed in 12-2.

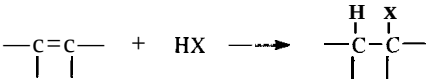
Isomerization of (*E/Z*) isomers is another important transformation. Isomerization of (*E*) and (Z-) conjugated amides is effected photochemically[144] (photoisomerization[145]). There is a rather high energy barrier for the excited state required for (*E/Z*) isomerization.[146] Isomerization of the C=C units in dienes is also induced photochemically.[147] Isomerization of cyclic alkenes is more difficult but cyclooctene is isomerized photochemically.[148] Conjugated aldehydes have been isomerized using thiourea in DMF.[149]

Reactions in Which Hydrogen Adds to One Side

A. *Halogen on the Other Side*

15-2 *Addition of Hydrogen Halides*

HYDRO-HALO-ADDITION



Any of the four hydrogen halides can be added to double bonds.[150] The compounds HI, HBr, and HF[151] add at room temperature. The addition of HC1 is more difficult and usually requires heat,[22] although HC1 adds easily in the presence of silica gel.[152] The reaction has been carried out with a large variety of double-bond compounds, including conjugated systems, where both 1,2 and 1,4 addition are possible. A convenient method for the addition of HF involves the use of a polyhydrogen fluoride-pyridine solution.[153] When the substrate is mixed with this solution in a solvent such as THF at 0°C, alkyl fluorides are obtained in moderate-to-high yields.

The addition of hydrogen halides to simple alkenes, in the absence of peroxides, takes place by an electrophilic mechanism, and the orientation is in accord with Markovnikov's rule.[154] When peroxides are added, the addition of HBr occurs by a free-radical mechanism and the orientation is anti-Markovnikov (p. 985).[155] It must be emphasized that this is true only for HBr. Free-radical addition of HF and HI has never been observed, even in the presence of peroxides, and of HC1 only rarely. In the rare cases where free-radical addition of HC1 was noted, the orientation was still Markovnikov, presumably because the more stable *product* was formed.[156] Free-radical addition of HF, HI, and HC1 is energetically unfavorable (see the discussions on pp. 900, 910). It has often been found that anti-Markovnikov addition of HBr takes place even when peroxides have not been added. This happens because the substrate alkenes absorb oxygen from the air, forming small amounts of peroxides

(14-8). Markovnikov addition can be ensured by rigorous purification of the substrate, but in practice this is not easy to achieve, and it is more common to add inhibitors (e.g., phenols or quinones), which suppress the free-radical pathway. The presence of free-radical precursors such as peroxides does not inhibit the ionic mechanism, but the radical reaction, being a chain process, is much more rapid than the electrophilic reaction. In most cases, it is possible to control the mechanism (and hence the orientation) by adding peroxides to achieve complete free-radical addition, or inhibitors to achieve complete electrophilic addition, though there are some cases where the ionic mechanism is fast enough to compete with the free-radical mechanism and complete control cannot be attained. Markovnikov addition of HBr, HC1, and HI has also been accomplished, in high yields, by the use of phase transfer catalysis.[157] For alternative methods of adding HBr (or HI) with anti-Markovnikov orientation, see **12-28.**

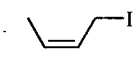
It is also possible to add 1[158] or 2 mol of any of the four hydrogen halides to triple bonds.

$$-C\equiv C- \xrightarrow{HX} -CH=CX- \xrightarrow{HX} -CH_2-CX_2-$$

Markovnikov's rule ensures that *gem*-dihalides and not *vic*-dihalides are the products of the addition of 2 mol.

Chlorotrimethylsilane can be added to alkenes to give alkyl chlorides. 1-Hexene reacts with Me_3SiCl in water to give 2-chlorohexane.[159] Treatment of an alkene with KHF_2 and SiF_4 leads to the alkyl fluoride.[160]

The HX compounds are electrophilic reagents, and many polyhalo and polycyano alkenes, (e.g., $Cl_2C=CHCl$) do not react with them at all in the absence of free-radical conditions. When such reactions do occur, however, they take place by a nucleophilic addition mechanism, (i.e., initial attack is by X^-). This type of mechanism also occurs with Michael-type substrates C=C–Z,[161] where the orientation is always such that the halogen goes to the carbon that does not bear the Z, so the product is of the form X–C–CH–Z, even in the presence of free-radical initiators. Hydrogen iodide adds 1,4 to conjugated dienes in the gas phase by a pericyclic mechanism:[162]



HX can be added to ketenes[163] to give acyl halides:

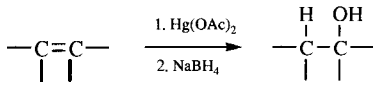
$$-\underset{|}{C} = C=O + HX \longrightarrow -\overset{H}{\underset{X}{C}}-\underset{|}{C}=O$$

OS I, 166; **II,** 137, 336; **III,** 576; IV, 238, 543; VI, 273; **VII,** 59; 76, 263.

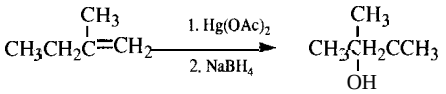
B. *Oxygen on the Other Side*

15-3 *Hydration of Double bonds*

HYDRO-HYDROXY-ADDITION



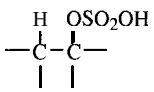
Alkenes can be hydrated quickly under mild conditions in high yields without rearrangement products by the use of *oxymercuration* (addition of oxygen and mercury)[164] followed by *in situ* treatment with sodium borohydride[165] (12-23). For example, 2-methyl-1-butene treated with mercuric acetate,[166] followed by $NaBH_4$, gave 2-methyl-2-butanol:



90%

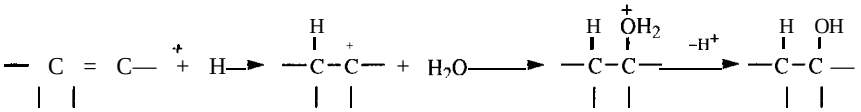
This method, which is applicable to mono-, di-, tri-, and tetraalkyl as well as phenyl-substituted alkenes, gives almost complete Markovnikov addition. Hydroxy, methoxy, acetoxy, halo, and other groups may be present in the substrate without, in general, causing difficulties.[167] When two double bonds are present in the same molecule, the use of ultrasound allows oxymercuration of the less-substituted one without affecting the other.[168] A related reaction treats an alkene with zinc borohydride on silica gel to give a 35:65 mixture of secondary:primary alcohols.[169]

Double bonds can also be hydrated by treatment with water and an acid catalyst. The most common catalyst is sulfuric acid, but other acids, such as nitric or perchloric can also be used. The mechanism is electrophilic and begins with attack by a proton (see p. 974). The negative attacking species may be HSO_4^- (or similar ion in the case of other acids) to give the initial product 29 which can be isolated, but under the conditions of the reaction, is usually hydrolyzed to the alcohol (10-4).



29

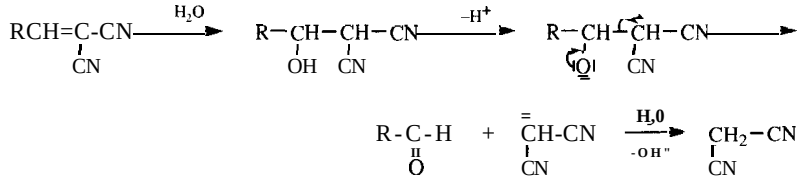
However, the conjugate base of the acid is not the only possible species that attacks the initial carbocation. The attack can also be by water:



When the reaction proceeds by this pathway, 29 and similar intermediates are not involved and the mechanism is exactly (by the principle of microscopic reversibility)

the reverse of El elimination of alcohols (**17-1**).[170] It is likely that the mechanism involves both pathways. The initial carbocation occasionally rearranges to a more stable one. For example, hydration of $CH_2{=}CHCH(CH_3)_2$ gives $CH_3CH_2COH(CH_3)_2$. With ordinary alkenes the addition predominantly follows Markovnikov's rule. Another method for Markovnikov addition of water consists of simultaneously adding an oxidizing agent (O_2) and a reducing agent (either Et_3SiH [171] or a secondary alcohol such as 2-propanol[172]) to the alkene in the presence of a cobalt-complex catalyst. No rearrangement is observed with this method. The corresponding alkane and ketone are usually side products.

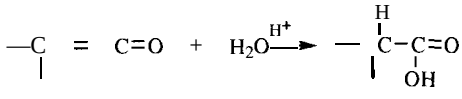
Water can be added indirectly, with anti-Markovnikov orientation, by treatment of the alkene with a 1:1 mixture of $PhCH_2NEt_3^+BH_4^-$ and Me_3SiCl, followed by addition of an aqueous solution of K_2CO_3.[173] Reaction of alkenes with $Ti(BH_4)_3$, and then aqueous K_2CO_3 also leads to the anti-Markovnikov alcohol.[174] For another method of anti-Markovnikov hydration, see **15-16.** With substrates of the type C=C–Z (Z is as defined on p. 975) the product is almost always HO–C–CH–Z and the mechanism is usually nucleophilic,[175] though electrophilic addition gives the same product[176] since a cation CH–C–Z would be destabilized by the positive charges (full or partial) on two adjacent atoms. However, the other product, HC–CH(OH)Z, was obtained by treatment of the substrate with O_2, $PhSiH_3$, and a manganese-complex catalyst.[177] When the substrate is of the type $RCH{=}CZZ'$, addition of water may result in cleavage of the adduct, to give an aldehyde and CH_2ZZ', for example,[178]



The cleavage step is an example of **12-39.**

Alkenes react with PhO_2BH and a niobium catalyst, followed by oxidation with $NaOO^-$, to give the alcohol,[179] and Cp_2TiCl_4 can also be used.[180] Reaction with $HSiCl_3$ and a chiral palladium catalyst, followed by reaction with KF and hydrogen peroxide, leads to the alcohol with high asymmetric induction.[181] Alkenes react with molecular oxygen in the presence of a cobalt porphyrin catalyst, and reduction with $P(OMe)_3$ leads to the secondary alcohol.[182] This procedure has also been used to hydrate conjugated dienes,[183] although conjugated dienes are seldom hydrated.

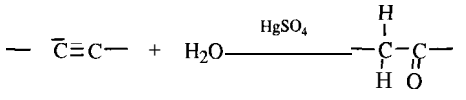
The addition of water to enol ethers causes hydrolysis to aldehydes or ketones (10-6). Ketenes add water to give carboxylic acids in a reaction catalyzed by acids:[184]



OS IV, 555, 560; VI, 766. Also see OS V, 818.

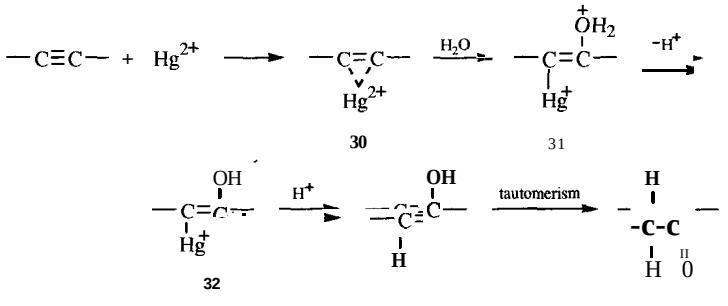
15-4 *Hydration of Triple Bonds*

DIHYDRO-OXO-BIADDITION



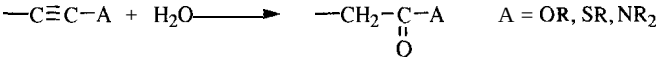
The hydration of triple bonds is generally carried out with mercuric ion salts (often the sulfate or acetate) as catalysts.[185] Mercuric oxide in the presence of an acid is also a common reagent. Since the addition follows Markovnikov's rule, only acetylene gives an aldehyde. All other triple-bond compounds give ketones (for a method of reversing the orientation for terminal alkynes, see 15-16). With alkynes of the form RC≡CH methyl ketones are formed almost exclusively, but with RC≡CR' both possible products are usually obtained. The reaction can be conveniently carried out with a catalyst prepared by impregnating mercuric oxide onto Nafion-H (a superacidic perfluorinated resinsulfonic acid).[186]

The first step of the mechanism is formation of a complex (30) (ions like Hg^{2+} form complexes with alkynes, p. 102). Water then attacks in an S_N2 type process to give the intermediate 31,



which loses a proton to give 32. Hydrolysis of 32 (an example of 12-31) gives the enol, which tautomerizes to the product. A spectrum of the enol was detected by flash photolysis when phenylacetylene was hydrated photolytically.[187]

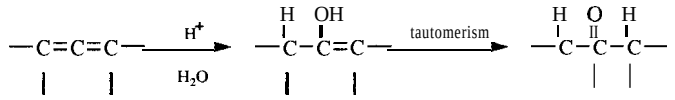
Carboxylic esters, thiol esters, and amides can be made, respectively, by acid-catalyzed hydration of acetylenic ethers, thioethers,[188] and ynamines, without a mercuric catalyst:[189]



This is ordinary electrophilic addition, with rate-determining protonation as the first step.[190] Certain other alkynes have also been hydrated to ketones with strong acids in the absence of mercuric salts.[191] Simple alkynes can also be converted to ketones by heating with formic acid, without a catalyst.[192] Lactones have been prepared from

trimethylsilyl alkenes containing an hydroxyl unit elsewhere in the molecule, when reacted with molecular oxygen, $CuCl_2$, and a palladium catalyst.[193]

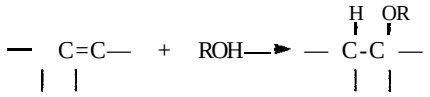
Allenes can also be hydrolyzed to ketones, with an acid catalyst.[194]



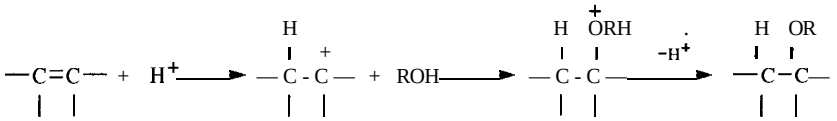
OS III, 22; IV, 13; V, 1024.

15-5 *Addition of Alcohols and Phenols*

HYDRO-ALKOXY-ADDITION

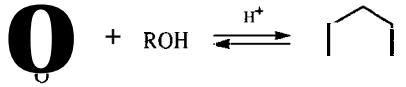


The addition of alcohols and phenols to double bonds is catalyzed by acids or bases. When the reactions are acid catalyzed, the mechanism is electrophilic, with H^+ as the attacking species. The resulting carbocation combines with a molecule of alcohol:



The addition, therefore, follows Markovnikov's rule. Primary alcohols give better results than secondary, and tertiary alcohols are very inactive. This is a convenient method for the preparation of tertiary ethers by the use of a suitable alkene such as $Me_2C{=}CH_2$. Alcohols add intramolecularly to alkenes to generate cyclic ethers, often bearing a hydroxyl unit as well.[195] This addition can be promoted by a palladium catalyst, with migration of the double bond in the final product.[196] Rhenium compounds also facilitate this cyclization reaction to form functionalized tetrahydrofurans.[197]

For those substrates more susceptible to nucleophilic attack (e.g., polyhalo alkenes and alkenes of the type C=C–Z), it is better to carry out the reaction in basic solution, where the attacking species is RO^-.[198] The reactions with C=C–Z are of the Michael type, and OR goes to the side away from the Z. Since triple bonds are more susceptible to nucleophilic attack than double bonds, it might be expected that bases would catalyze addition to triple bonds particularly well. This is the case, and enol ethers and acetals can be produced by this reaction.[199] Because enol ethers are more susceptible than triple bonds to electrophilic attack, the addition of alcohols to enol ethers can also be catalyzed by acids.[200] One utilization of this reaction involves the compound dihydropyran



33 34

(33), which is often used to protect the OH groups of primary and secondary[201] alcohols and phenols.[202] The tetrahydropyranyl acetal formed by this reaction (34) is stable to bases, Grignard reagents, $LiAlH_4$, and oxidizing agents, any of which can be used to react with functional groups located within the R group. When the reactions are completed, 34 is easily cleaved by treatment with dilute acids (10-6). The addition of alcohols to enol ethers is also catalyzed by $CoCl_2$.[203]

In base-catalyzed addition to triple bonds, the rate falls in going from a primary to a tertiary alcohol, and phenols require more severe conditions. Other catalysts, namely, BF_3 and mercuric salts, have also been used in addition of ROH to triple bonds.

Alcohols can be added to certain double-bond compounds (cyclohexenes, cycloheptenes) photochemically[204] in the presence of a photosensitizer such as benzene. The mechanism is electrophilic and Markovnikov orientation is found. The alkenes react in their first excited triplet states.[205]

The oxymercuration-demercuration procedure mentioned in **15-3** can be adapted to the preparation of ethers (Markovnikov orientation) if the oxymercuration is carried out in an alcohol (ROH) as solvent,[206] for example, 2-methyl-1-butene in ethanol gives $EtMe_2COEt$.[207] Primary alcohols give good yields when mercuric acetate is used, but for secondary and tertiary alcohols it is necessary to use mercuric trifluoroacetate.[208] However, even with this reagent the method fails where the product would be a ditertiary ether. Alkynes generally give acetals. If the oxymercuration is carried out in the presence of a hydroperoxide instead of an alcohol, the product (after demercuration with $NaBH_4$) is an alkyl peroxide (peroxy-mercuration).[209] This can be done intramolecularly.[210]

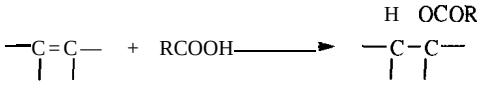
Both alcohols and phenols add to ketenes to give carboxylic esters ($R_2C{=}C{=}O + ROH \rightarrow R_2CHCO_2R$).[211] This has been done intramolecularly (with the ketene end of the molecule generated and used *in situ)* to form medium- and large-ring lactones.[212] In the presence of a strong acid, ketene reacts with aldehydes or ketones (in their enol forms) to give enol acetates.

Alcohols can also add to alkenes in a different way (see **15-28).**

OS III, 371, 774, 813; **IV,** 184, 558; **VI,** 916; **VII, 66,** 160, 304, 334, 381; **VIII,** 204, 254; **IX,** 472.

15-6 *Addition of Carboxylic Acids*

HYDRO-ACYLOXY-ADDITION



Carboxylic esters are produced by the addition of carboxylic acids to alkenes, a reaction that is usually acid catalyzed (by proton or Lewis acids[213]) and similar in mechanism to **15-5.** Since Markovnikov's rule is followed, hard-to-get esters of tertiary alcohols can be prepared from alkenes of the form $R_2C{=}CHR$.[214] A combination of V_2O_5 and trifluoroacetic acid converts alkenes to trifluoroacetate

esters.[215] When a carboxylic acid that contains a double bond in the chain is treated with a strong acid, the addition occurs internally and the product is a *y*- and/or a 8-lactone, regardless of the original position of the double bond in the chain, since strong acids catalyze double-bond shifts (12-2).[216] The double bond always migrates (also see **15-1)** to a position favorable for the reaction, whether this has to be toward or away from the carboxyl group. Carboxylic esters have also been prepared by the acyloxymercuration-demercuration of alkenes (similar to the procedures mentioned in **15-3** and **15-4**).[217] Addition of carboxylic acids to alkenes to form esters or lactones is catalyzed by palladium compounds.[218] Thallium acetate also promotes this cyclization reaction.[219]

Triple bonds can give enol esters or acylals when treated with carboxylic acids. Mercuric salts are usually catalysts,[220] and vinylic mercury compounds $-\overset{|}{\underset{HgX}{C}}=C-OCOR$ are intermediates.[221] Terminal alkynes RC≡CH react with CO_2, a secondary amine R'_2NH, and a ruthenium-complex catalyst, to give enol carbamates $RCH=CHOC(=O)NR$.[222] This reaction has also been performed intramolecularly, to produce unsaturated lactones.[223] With ketenes, carboxylic acids give anhydrides[224] and acetic anhydride is prepared industrially in this manner [$CH_2=C=O + MeCO_2H \rightarrow (MeC=O)_2O$]. Carboxylic esters can also be obtained by the addition to alkenes of diacyl peroxides.[225] These reactions are catalyzed by copper and are free-radical processes.

OS **III,** 853; IV, 261, 417, 444; V, 852, 863; **VII,** 30, 411. Also see OS I, 317.

C. *Sulfur on the Other Side*

15-7 *Addition of H_2S and Thiols*

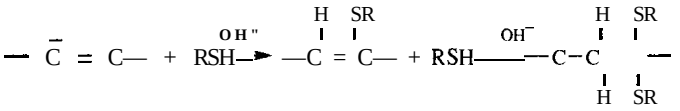
HYDRO-ALKYLTHIO-ADDITION

$$-C=C- + RSH \longrightarrow -\overset{H}{C}-\overset{SR}{C}-$$

Hydrogen sulfide and thiols add to alkenes by electrophilic, nucleophilic, or free-radical mechanisms.[226] In the absence of initiators the addition to simple alkenes is by an electrophilic mechanism, similar to that in **15-5,** and Markovnikov's rule is followed. However, this reaction is usually very slow and often cannot be done or requires very severe conditions unless a proton or Lewis acid catalyst is used. For example, the reaction can be performed in concentrated H_2SO_4[227] or together with $AlCl_3$.[228] In the presence of free-radical initiators, H_2S and thiols add to double and triple bonds by a free-radical mechanism and the orientation is anti-Markovnikov.[229] In fact, the orientation can be used as a diagnostic tool to indicate which mechanism is operating. Free-radical addition can be done with H_2S, RSH (R may be primary, secondary, or tertiary), ArSH, or RCOSH.[230] The R group may contain various functional groups. The alkenes may be terminal, internal, contain branching, be cyclic, and have various functional groups including OH, COOH, COOR, NO_2,

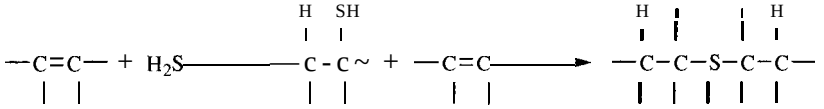
RSO_2, and so on. Addition of Ph_3SiSH to terminal alkenes under radical conditions also leads to the primary thiol.[231] With alkynes it is possible to add 1 or 2 mols of RSH.

When thiols are added to substrates susceptible to nucleophilic attack, bases catalyze the reaction and the mechanism is nucleophilic. These substrates may be of the Michael type[232] or may be polyhalo alkenes or alkynes.[199] As with the free-radical mechanism, alkynes can give either vinylic thioethers or dithioacetals:



Thiols add to alkenes under photochemical conditions to form thioethers, and the reaction can be done intramolecularly to give cyclic thioethers.[233] Thiols also add to alkynes and with a palladium catalyst, vinyl sulfides can be formed.[234] Selenium compounds (RSeH) add in a similar manner.[235]

By any mechanism, the initial product of addition of H_2S to a double bond is a thiol, which is capable of adding to a second molecule of alkene, so that sulfides are often produced:



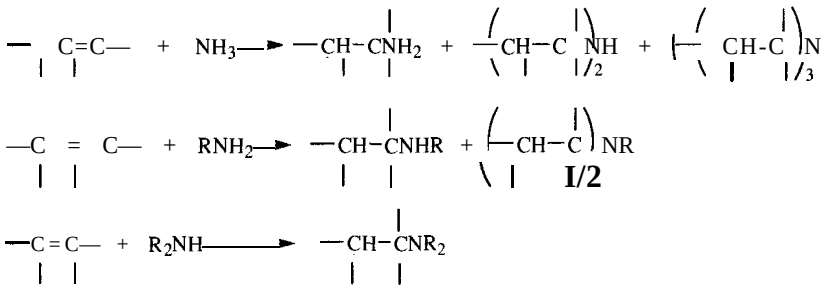
As with alcohols, ketenes add thiols to give thiol esters ($R_2C{=}C{=}O + RSH \rightarrow R_2CHCOSR$).

OS III, 458; IV, 669; VIII, 302. See also OS VIII, 458.

D. *Nitrogen on the Other Side*

15-8 *Addition of Ammonia and Amines*

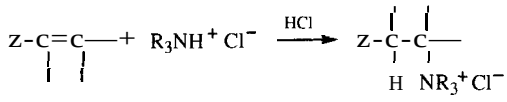
HYDRO-AMINO-ADDITION



Ammonia and primary and secondary amines add to alkenes *that are susceptible* to nucleophilic attack.[236] Since ammonia and amines are much weaker acids than

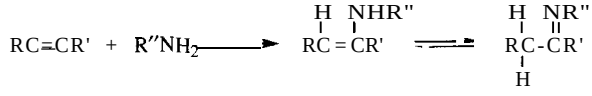
water, alcohols, and thiols (see **15-3, 15-5, 15-7)** and since acids could hardly catalyze the reaction (because they would turn NH_3 into NH_4^+), this reaction does not occur by an electrophilic mechanism and so gives very low yields, if any, with ordinary alkenes, unless extreme conditions are used (e.g., 178–200°C, 800–1000 atm, and the presence of metallic Na, for the reaction between NH3 and ethylene[237]). Ammonia gives three possible products, since the initial product is a primary amine, which may add to a second molecule of alkene, and so on. Similarly, primary amines give both secondary and tertiary products. In practice it is usually possible to control which product predominates. The mechanism is nearly always nucleophilic, and the reaction is generally performed on polyhalo alkenes,[238] Michael-type substrates,[239] and alkynes.[240] As expected, on Michael-type substrates the nitrogen goes to the carbon that does not carry the Z. With substrates of the form RCH=CZZ', the same type of cleavage of the adduct can take place as in **15-3**.[241] Ammonia adds to alkenes photochemically.[242] Reaction of a secondary amine with butyllithium generates an amide base, which can add intramolecularly to an alkene to form a pyrrolidine.[243]

Other nitrogen compounds, among them hydroxylamine, hydrazines, and amides (15-9), also add to alkenes. Even with amines, basic catalysts are sometimes used, so that RNH^- or R_2N^- is the actual nucleophile. Tertiary amines (except those that are too bulky) add to Michael-type substrates in a reaction that is catalyzed by acids like HC1 or HNO_3 to give the corresponding quaternary ammonium salts.[244]

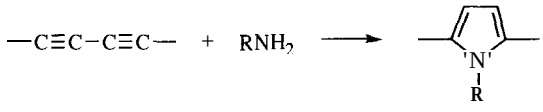


The tertiary amine can be aliphatic, cycloalkyl, or heterocyclic (including pyridine).

Primary amines add to triple bonds[245] to give enamines that have a hydrogen on the nitrogen and (analogously to enols) tautomerize to the more stable imines:

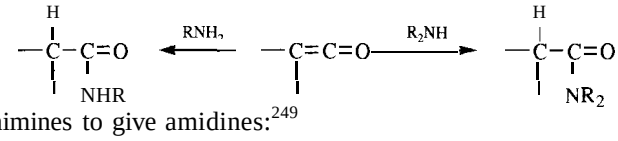


These are often stable enough for isolation.[246] When ammonia is used instead of a primary amine, the corresponding $RH_2C{-}\overset{\overset{NH}{\|}}{C}{-}R'$ is not stable enough for isolation, but polymerizes. Ammonia and primary amines (aliphatic and aromatic) add to conjugated diynes to give pyrroles:[247]

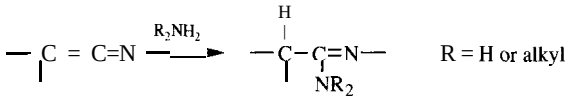


This is not 1,4 but 1,2 addition twice.

Primary and secondary amines add to ketenes to give, respectively, N-substituted and N,N-disubstituted amides:[248]

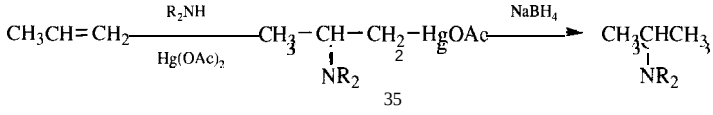


and to ketenimines to give amidines:[249]



Secondary amines can be added to certain nonactivated alkenes if palladium(II) complexes are used as catalysts.[250] The complexation lowers the electron density of the double bond, facilitating nucleophilic attack.[251] Markovnikov orientation is observed and the addition is anti.[252] An intramolecular addition to an alkyne unit in the presence of a palladium compound, generated a tetrahydropyridine,[253] and a related addition to an allene is known.[254] Amines add to allenes in the presence of a catalytic amount of CuBr[255] or palladium compounds.[256] Molybdenum complexes have also been used in the addition of aniline to alkenes.[257] Reduction of nitro compounds in the presence of rhodium catalysts, in the presence of alkenes, CO and H_2, leads to an amine unit adding to the alkene moiety.[258] An intramolecular addition of an amine unit to an alkene to form a pyrrolidine was reported using a lanthanide reagent.[259]

Ammonia can be added to double bonds (even ordinary double bonds) in an indirect manner by the use of hydroboration **(15-16)** followed by treatment with NH_2Cl or NH_2OSO_2OH **(12-29).** This produces a primary amine with anti-Markovnikov orientation. An indirect way of adding a primary or secondary amine to a double bond consists of aminomercuration followed by reduction (see **15-3** for the analogous oxymercuration-demercuration procedure), for example,[260]



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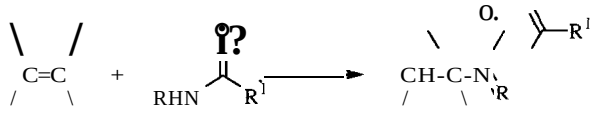
The addition of a secondary amine (shown above) produces a tertiary amine, while addition of a primary amine gives a secondary amine. The overall orientation follows Markovnikov's rule. For conversion of **35** to other products, see **15-52.**

OS **I,** 196; **HI,** 91, 93, 244, 258; **IV,** 146, 205; **V,** 39, 575, 929; **VI,** 75, 943; **VIII**, 188, 190, 536. See also OS VI, 932.

15-9 *Addition of Amides*

HYDRO-AMIDO-ADDITION



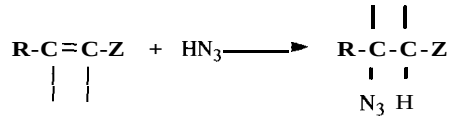
Under certain conditions, amides can add directly to alkenes to form N-alkylated amides. 3-Pentenamide was cyclized to 5-methyl-2-pyrrolidinone by treatment with trifluorosulfonic acid.[261] Acylhydrazine derivatives also cyclized in the presence of hypervalent iodine reagents to give lactams.[262] When a carbamate was treated with Bu_3SnH, and AIBN, addition to an alkene led to a bicyclic lactam.[263]

The reaction can be done intramolecularly. N-Benzyl pent-4-ynamide reacted with tetrabutylammonium fluoride to an alkylidene lactam.[264] Similar addition of a tosylamide-alkene, with a palladium catalyst, led to a vinyl *N*-tosyl pyrrolidine.[265] Similar cyclization reactions occur with tosylamide-alkynes.[266]

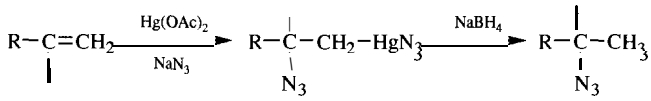
Imides can also add to alkenes or alkynes. Ethyl 2-propynoate reacted with phthalimide, in the presence of a palladium catalyst, to give ethyl 2-phthalimido-2-propenoate.[267]

15-10 *Addition of Hydrazoic Acid*

HYDRO-AZIDO-ADDITION



Hydrazoic acid can be added to certain Michael-type substrates (Z is as defined on p. 975) to give (3-azido compounds.[268] The reaction apparently fails if R is phenyl. Ammonia also adds to enol ethers $CH_2{=}CHOR$ to give $CH_3{-}CH(OR)N_3$, and to silyl enol ethers,[269] but it does not add to ordinary alkenes unless a Lewis acid catalyst, such as $TiCl_4$, is used, in which case good yields of azide can be obtained.[269] Ammonia can also be added indirectly to ordinary alkenes by azidomercuration, followed by demercuration,[270] analogous to the similar procedures mentioned in

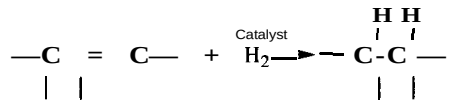


15-3, 15-5, 15-6, and 15-8. The method can be applied to terminal alkenes or strained cycloalkenes (e.g., norbornene) but fails for unstrained internal alkenes.

E. *Hydrogen on Both Sides*

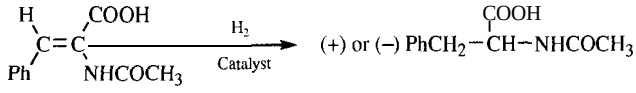
15-11 *Hydrogenation of Double and Triple Bonds*[111]

DIHYDRO-ADDITION



Most carbon-carbon double bonds, whether substituted by electron-donating or

electron-withdrawing substituents, can be catalytically hydrogenated, usually in quantitative or near-quantitative yields.[272] Almost all known alkenes added hydrogen at temperatures between 0-275°C. Many functional groups may be present in the molecule, (e.g., OH, COOH, NH_2, CHO, COR, COOR, or CN). Some of these groups are also susceptible to catalytic reduction, but it is usually possible to find conditions under which double bonds can be reduced selectively (see Table 19.2).[273] The catalysts used can be divided into two broad classes, both of which mainly consist of transition metals and their compounds: (1) catalysts insoluble in the reaction medium *(heterogeneous catalysts).* Among the most effective are Raney nickel,[274] palladium-on-charcoal (perhaps the most common), $NaBH_4$ reduced nickel[275] (also called nickel boride), platinum metal or its oxide, rhodium, ruthenium, and zinc oxide,[276] and (2) catalysts soluble in the reaction medium *(homogeneous catalysts).*[211] The most important is chlorotris(triphenylphosphine)-rhodium $[RhCl(Ph_3P)_3$,[278] *Wilkinson's catalyst],*[219] which catalyzes the hydrogenation of many alkenyl compounds without disturbing such groups as COOR, NO_2, CN, or COR present in the same molecule.[280] Even unsaturated aldehydes can be reduced to saturated aldehydes,[281] although in this case decarbonylation (14-39) may be a side reaction. Among other homogeneous catalysts are chlorotris(triphenylphosphine)hydridoruthenium(II), $(Ph_3P)_3RuClH$,[282] which is specific for terminal double bonds (other double bonds are hydrogenated slowly or not at all), and pentacyanocobaltate(II), $Co(CN)_5^{3-}$, which is effective for double and triple bonds only when they are part of conjugated systems (the conjugation may be with C=C, C=O, or an aromatic ring).[283] Colloidal palladium has also been used as a catalyst.[284] Homogeneous catalysts often have the advantages of better catalyst reproducibility and better selectivity. They are also less susceptible to catalyst poisoning[285] (heterogeneous catalysts are usually poisoned by small amounts of sulfur, often found in rubber stoppers, or by sulfur-containing compounds such as thiols and sulfides).[286] On the other hand, heterogeneous catalysts are usually easier to separate from the reaction mixture.



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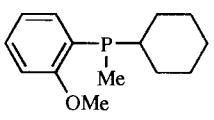
Optically active homogeneous (as well as heterogeneous) catalysts have been used to achieve partially asymmetric (enantioselective) hydrogenations of certain prochiral substrates.[287] For example,[288] hydrogenation of 31 with a suitable catalyst gives (+) or (—) 37 (depending on which enantiomer of the catalyst is used) with an ee as high as 96%.[289] Prochiral substrates that give such high optical yields generally contain functional groups similar to those in **36**.[290] The catalyst in such cases[291] is usually a ruthenium- or rhodium-phosphine in which the phosphine is optically active either because of an asymmetric phosphorus atom, (e.g., 38),[292] or because of a chiral group connected to the phosphorus, (e.g., 39).[293] Chiral complexes[294] using other chiral additives have been formed with rhodium catalysts to achieve good-

to-excellent asymmetric induction during the hydrogenation.[295] Other types of



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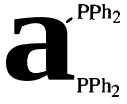
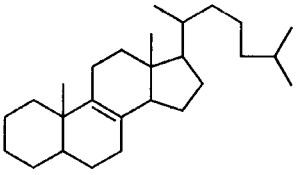


39

catalysts,[296] for example, titanocenes with chiral cyclopentadienyl ligands, have given enantioselective hydrogenation of alkenes that lack functional groups such as COOH or NHCOCH3, for example, 2-phenyl-1-butene.[297] Enantioselective reduction of certain alkenes has also been achieved by reducing with baker's yeast.[298] Hydrogenation with Ni_2B on borohydride exchange resin (BER) has also been used.[299] Chiral poisoning has been used as a strategy for asymmetric catalysis.[300]

Hydrogenations in most cases are carried out at room temperature and just above atmospheric pressure, but some double bonds are more resistant and require higher temperatures and pressures. The resistance is usually a function of increasing substitution and is presumably caused by steric factors. Trisubstituted double bonds require, say, 25°C and 100 atm, while tetrasubstituted double bonds may require 275°C and 1000 atm. Among the double bonds most difficult to hydrogenate



40

or which cannot be hydrogenated at all are those common to two rings, as in steroid 40. Hydrogenations, even at about atmospheric pressure, are ordinarily performed in a special hydrogenator, but this is not always necessary. Both the catalyst and the hydrogen can be generated *in situ*, by treatment of H_2PtCl_6 or $RhCl_3$ with $NaBH_4$;[301] ordinary glassware can then be used. The great variety of catalysts available often allows an investigator to find one that is highly selective. For example, the catalyst Pd(salen), where bis(solicylidene)ethylenediamine is salen, encapsulated in zeolites permitted the catalytic hydrogenation of 1-hexene in the presence of cyclohexene.[302] It has been shown that the pressure of the reaction can influence enantioselectivity in asymmetric catalytic hydrogenations.[303]

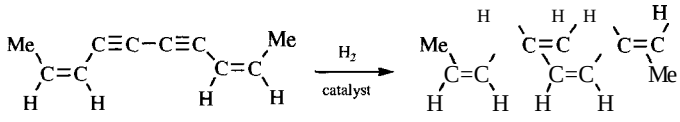
Triple bonds can be reduced, either by catalytic hydrogenation or by the other methods mentioned in the following two sections. The comparative reactivity of triple and double bonds depends on the catalyst. With most catalysts, (e.g., Pd) triple bonds are hydrogenated more easily, and therefore it is possible to add just 1 mol of hydrogen and reduce a triple bond to a double bond (usually a stereoselective syn addition) or to reduce a triple bond without affecting a double bond present in the same molecule.[304] A particularly good catalyst for this purpose is the Lindlar catalyst ($Pd\text{-}CaCO_3$—PbO).[305] An alternative catalyst used for selective hydrogena-

tion to cis-alkenes is palladium on barium sulfate ($BaSO_4$) catalyst, poisoned with quinoline (sometimes called the *Rosenmund catalyst*).[306]

An indirect method[307] of double-bond reduction involves hydrolysis of boranes (prepared by 15-16). Trialkylboranes can be hydrolyzed by refluxing with carboxylic acids,[308] while monoalkylboranes RBH2 can be hydrolyzed with base.[309] Triple bonds can be similarly reduced, to cis alkenes.[310]

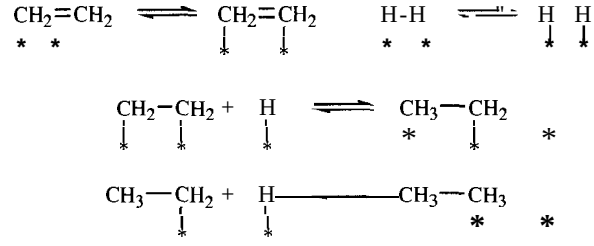
Conjugated dienes can add hydrogen by 1,2 or 1,4 addition. Selective 1,4 addition can be achieved by hydrogenation in the presence of carbon monoxide, with bis(cyclopentadienyl)chromium as catalyst.[311] With allenes[312] catalytic hydrogenation usually reduces both double bonds.

Most catalytic reductions of double or triple bonds, whether heterogeneous or homogeneous, have been shown to be syn, with the hydrogens entering from the less-hindered side of the molecule.[313] Stereospecificity can be investigated only for tetrasubstituted alkenes (except when the reagent is D_2), which are the hardest to hydrogenate, but the results of these investigations show that the addition is usually 80–100% syn, though some of the anti addition product is normally also found and in some cases predominates. Catalytic hydrogenation of alkynes is nearly always stereoselective, giving the cis alkene (usually at least 80%), even when it is thermodynamically less stable. For example, 41 gave 42, even though the steric hindrance is such that a planar molecule is impossible.[314] This is thus a useful method for preparing cis alkenes.[315] However, when steric hindrance is too great, the



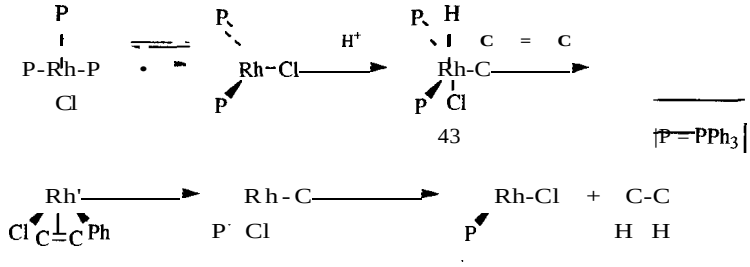
41 42

trans alkene may be formed. One factor that complicates the study of the stereochemistry of heterogeneous catalytic hydrogenation is that exchange of hydrogens takes place, as can be shown by hydrogenation with deuterium.[316] Thus deuterogenation of ethylene produced all the possible deuterated ethylenes and ethanes (even C_2H_6), as well as HD.[317] With 2-butene, it was found that double-bond migration, cis-trans isomerization, and even exchange of hydrogen with groups not on the double bond could occur (e.g., $C_4H_2D_8$ and C_4HD_9 were detected on treatment of *cis*-2-butene with deuterium and a catalyst).[318] Indeed, *alkanes* have been found to exchange with deuterium over a catalyst,[319] and even without deuterium(e.g., $CH_4+CD_4 \rightarrow CHD_3+CH_3D$ in the gas phase, with a catalyst). All this makes it difficult to investigate the stereochemistry of heterogeneous catalytic hydrogenation.



The mechanism of the heterogeneous catalytic hydrogenation of double bonds is not thoroughly understood because it is a very difficult reaction to study.[320] Because the reaction is heterogeneous, kinetic data, though easy to obtain (measurement of decreasing hydrogen pressure), are difficult to interpret. Furthermore, there are the difficulties caused by the aforementioned hydrogen exchange. The currently accepted mechanism for the common two-phase reaction was originally proposed in 1934.[321] According to this, the alkene is adsorbed onto the surface of the metal, though the nature of the actual bonding is unknown,[322] despite many attempts to elucidate it.[323] The metallic site is usually indicated by an asterisk. For steric reasons it is apparent that adsorption of the alkene takes place with its less-hindered side attached to the catalyst surface. The fact that addition of hydrogen is generally also from the less-hindered side indicates that the hydrogen too is probably adsorbed on the catalyst surface before it reacts with the alkene. It is likely that the H_2 molecule is cleaved to hydrogen atoms in the act of being adsorbed. It has been shown that platinum catalyzes homolytic cleavage of hydrogen molecules.[324] In the second step, one of the adsorbed hydrogen atoms becomes attached to a carbon atom, creating in effect, an alkyl radical (which is still bound to the catalyst though only by one bond) and two vacant catalyst sites. Finally, another hydrogen atom (not necessarily the one originally connected to the first hydrogen) combines with the radical to give the reaction product, freed from the catalyst surface, and two more vacant sites. All the various side reactions, including hydrogen exchange and isomerism, can be explained by this type of process.[325] Although this mechanism is satisfactory as far as it goes,[326] there are still questions it does not answer, among them questions[327] involving the nature of the asterisk, the nature of the bonding, and the differences caused by the differing nature of each catalyst.[328]

The mechanism of homogeneous hydrogenation[329] catalyzed by $RhCl(Ph_3P)_3$[330] involves reaction of the catalyst with hydrogen to form a metal hydride $(PPh_3)_2RhH_2Cl$ (43), which rapidly transfers two hydrogen atoms to the alkene.



44

The intermediate 43 can be isolated. If a mixture of H_2 and D_2 is used, the product contains only dideuterated and nondeuterated compounds; no monodeuterated products are found, indicating that (unlike the case of heterogeneous catalysis) H_2 or D_2 has been added to one alkene molecule and that no exchange takes place.[330] Although conversion of 44 to the products takes place in two steps,[331] the addition of H_2 to the double bond is syn.

The occurrence of hydrogen exchange and double-bond migration in heterogeneous catalytic hydrogenation means that the hydrogenation does not necessarily

take place by straightforward addition of two hydrogen atoms at the site of the original double bond. Consequently, this method is not synthetically useful for adding D_2 to a double or triple bond in a regioselective or stereospecific manner. However, this objective can be achieved (with syn addition) by a homogeneous catalytic hydrogenation, which usually adds D_2 without scrambling[332] or by the use of one of the diimide methods (15-12).[345] Deuterium can also be regioselectively added by the hydroboration-reduction procedure previously mentioned.

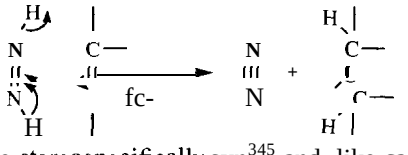
Reductions of double and triple bonds are found at OS I, 101, 311; II, 191, 491; III, 385, 794; IV, 298, 304, 408; V, 16, 96, 277; VI, 68, 459; VII, 226, 287; VIII, 420. 609; IX, 169, 533.

Catalysts and apparatus for hydrogenation are found at OS I, 61, 463; II, 142; III, 176, 181, 685; V, 880.

15-12 *Other Reductions of Double and Triple Bonds*

Although catalytic hydrogenation is the method most often used, double bonds can be reduced by other reagents, as well. Among these are sodium in ethanol, sodium and *tert*-butyl alcohol in HMPA,[333] lithium and aliphatic amines (see also 15-14),[334] zinc and acids, sodium hypophosphate and Pd-C,[335] $(EtO)_3SiH$–$Pd(OAc)_2$,[336] trifluoroacetic acid and triethylsilane (Et_3SiH),[337] and hydroxylamine and ethyl acetate.[338] However, metallic hydrides, such as lithium aluminum hydride and sodium borohydride, do not in general reduce carbon-carbon double bonds, although this can be done in special cases where the double bond is polar, as in 1,1-diarylethenes[339] and in enamines.[340]

In the above-mentioned reactions with hydrazine and hydroxylamine, the actual reducing species is diimide (NH=NH), which is formed from N_2H_4 by the oxidizing agent and from NH_2OH by the ethyl acetate.[341] The rate of this reaction has been studied.[342] Although both the syn and anti forms of diimide are produced, only the syn form reduces the double bond,[343] at least in part by a cyclic mechanism:[344]



The addition is therefore stereospecifically syn[345] and, like catalytic hydrogenation, generally takes place from the less-hindered side of a double bond, though not much discrimination in this respect is observed where the difference in bulk effects is small.[346] Diimide reductions are most successful with symmetrical multiple bonds (C=C, C≡C, N=N) and are not useful for those inherently polar (C≡N, C=N, C=O, etc.). Diimide is not stable enough for isolation at ordinary temperatures, though it has been prepared[347] as a yellow solid at −196°C.

Triple bonds can also be selectively reduced to double bonds with DIBAL-H,[348] with activated zinc (see **12-36**),[349] with hydrogen and Bi_2B–borohydride exchange resin,[350] or (internal triple bonds only) with alkali metals (Na, Li) in liquid ammonia or a low-molecular-weight amine.[351] Terminal alkynes are not reduced by the Na–NH_3 procedure because they are converted to acetylide ions under these conditions. However, terminal triple bonds can be reduced to double bonds by the

addition to the $Na–NH_3$ solution of $(NH_4)_2SO_4$, which liberates the free ethynyl group.[352] The reaction of a terminal alkyne with lithium naphthalenide and $NiCl_2$ effectively reduced the alkyne unit (i.e. $PhC{\equiv}CH \rightarrow PhCH_2CH_3$).[353] This reagent is also effect for the reduction of simple alkenes.[354] A mixture of $NaBH_4$ and $BiCl_3$ also reduced certain alkenes[355] and an alkyne unit was reduced to an alkene, in the presence of a phenylthio group elsewhere in the molecule, using $Cp_2Zr(H)Cl$.[356]

Reduction of just one double bond of an allene, to give an alkene, has been accomplished by treatment with $Na\text{-}NH_3$[357] or with DIBAL-H,[358] and by hydrogenation with $RhCl(PPh_3)_3$ as catalyst.[359]

When double bonds are reduced by lithium in ammonia or amines, the mechanism is similar to that of the Birch reduction (**15-14**).[360] The reduction with trifluoroacetic acid and Et_3SiH has an ionic mechanism, with H^+ coming in from the acid and H^- from the silane.[248] In accord with this mechanism, the reaction can be applied only to those alkenes that when protonated can form a tertiary carbocation or one stabilized in some other way (e.g., by a OR substitution).[361] It has been shown, by the detection of CIDNP, that reduction of α-methylstyrene by hydridopentacarbonylmanganese(I) $HMn(CO)_5$ involves free-radical addition.[362]

Catalytic hydrogenation of triple bonds and the reaction with DIBAL-H usually give the cis alkene **(15-11).** Most of the other methods of triple-bond reduction lead to the more thermodynamically stable trans alkene. However, this is not the case with the method involving hydrolysis of boranes or with the reductions with activated zinc, hydrazine, or NH_2OSO_3H, which also give the cis products.

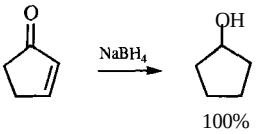
The inertness of ordinary double bonds toward metallic hydrides is quite useful, since it permits reduction of, say, a carbonyl or nitro group, without disturbing a double bond in the same molecule (see Chapter 19 for a discussion of selectivity in reduction reactions). Sodium in liquid ammonia also does not reduce ordinary double bonds,[363] although it does reduce alkynes, allenes, conjugated dienes,[364] and aromatic rings **(15-14).**

Another hydrogenation method is called *transfer hydrogenation.*[365] In this method, the hydrogen comes from another organic molecule, which is itself oxidized. A transition metal catalyst, heterogeneous or homogeneous, is frequently employed. A common reducing agent is cyclohexene, which, when a palladium catalyst is used, is oxidized to benzene, losing 2 mol of hydrogen.

Reductions of double and triple bonds are found at OS **III,** 586, 742; **IV,** 136, 302, 887; V, 281, 993; **VII,** 524.

15-13 *Reduction of The Double or Triple Bonds of Conjugated Systems*

In certain cases,[366] metallic hydride reagents may also reduce double bonds in conjugation with C=O bonds, as well as reducing the C=O bonds, for example,[367]



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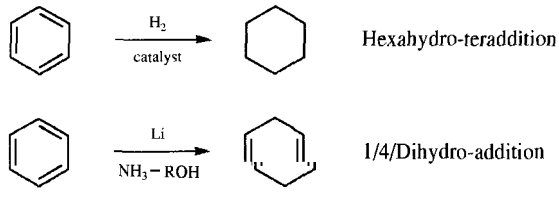
$NaBH_4$ has a greater tendency than $LiAlH_4$ to effect this double reduction, though even with $NaBH_4$ the product of single reduction (of the C=O bond) is usually formed in larger amount than the doubly reduced product. The $LiAlH_4$ gives significant double reduction only in cinnamyl systems, (e.g., with PhCH=CHCOOH).[368] Asymmetric catalytic hydrogenation has been reported for conjugated carboxylic acids[369] and conjugated ketones.[370]

Reduction of only the C=C bond of conjugated C=C–C=O and C=C–C≡N systems[371] has been achieved by many reducing agents,[372] a few of which are H_2 and a Rh catalyst,[373] $PhSiH_3$ and a nickel catalyst[374] or CuCl,[375] $PhSiH_3$–$Mo(CO)_6$,[376] $NaBH_4$–$BiCl_3$,[377] borohydride exchange resin, (BER)–$CuSO_4$,[378] SmI_2,[379] and catecholborane.[380] See **16-23** for methods of reducing C=O bonds in the presence of conjugated C=C bonds. The C=C unit of conjugated aldehydes has been reduced using $AlMe_3$ with a catalytic amount of CuBr[381] and with ammonium formate/Pd–C.[382] Selective reduction of the C=C unit in conjugated ketones was accomplished with $Na_2S_2O_4$ in aqueous dioxane, and nonconjugated alkenes were not reduced.[383] Lithium aluminiun hidride also reduces the double bonds of allylic alcohols[384] and $NaBH_4$ in MeOH-THF[385] or $NaCNBH_3$ on a zeolite[386] reduces α,β-unsaturated nitro compounds to nitroalkanes. Baker's yeast reduces conjugated nitro compounds to nitroalkanes[387] and the C=C unit of conjugated ketones.[388] Furthermore, both $LiAlH_4$ and $NaBH_4$, as well as NaH, reduce ordinary alkenes and alkynes when complexed with transition metal salts, such as $FeCl_2$ or $CoBr_2$.[389] The C=C unit proximal to the carbonyl in dienyl amides is selectively reduced with $NaBH_4$/I_2.[390] Silanes can be effective for the reduction of the C=C unit in conjugated systems in the presence of copper species.[391]

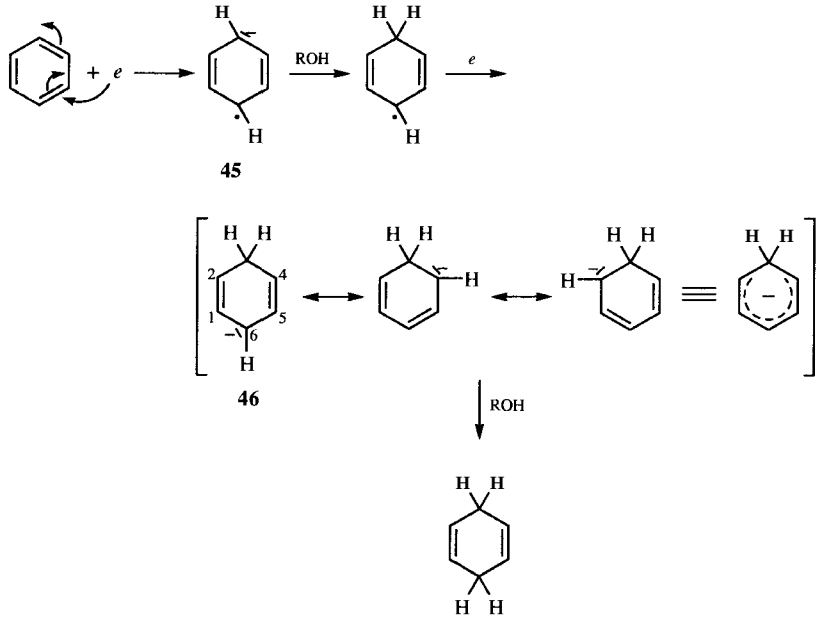
15-14 *Hydrogenation of Aromatic Rings*



Aromatic rings can be reduced by catalytic hydrogenation,[392] but higher temperatures (100-200°C) are required than for ordinary double bonds.[393] Though the reaction is usually carried out with heterogeneous catalysts, homogeneous catalysts have also been used; conditions are much milder with these.[394] Mild conditions are also successful in hydrogenations with phase-transfer catalysts.[395] Many functional groups, such as OH, O^-, COOH, COOR, and NH_2, do not interfere with the reaction, but some groups may be preferentially reduced. Among these are CH_2OH groups, which undergo hydrogenolysis to CH_3 **(10-81).** Phenols may be reduced to cyclohexanones, presumably through the enol. Heterocyclic compounds are often reduced. Thus furan gives tetrahydrofuran. With benzene rings it is usually impossible to stop the reaction after only one or two bonds have been reduced,

since alkenes are more easily reduced than aromatic rings.[396] Thus, 1 mol of benzene, treated with 1 mol of hydrogen, gives no cyclohexadiene or cyclohexene but $\frac{1}{3}$ mol of cyclohexane and $\frac{2}{3}$ mol of recovered benzene. This is not true for all aromatic systems. With anthracene, for example, it is easy to stop after only the 9,10-bond has been reduced (see p. 49). Hydrogenation of phenol derivatives can lead to conjugated cyclohexenones.[397]

When aromatic rings are reduced by lithium (or potassium or sodium) in liquid ammonia (such reductions are known as *dissolving metal reductions),* usually in the presence of an alcohol (often ethyl, isopropyl, or terf-butyl alcohol), 1,4 addition of hydrogen takes place and nonconjugated cyclohexadienes are produced.[398] This reaction is called the *Birch reduction.*[399] Heterocycles such as pyrroles[400] and furans[401] can be reduced using Birch reduction. Ammonia obtained commercially often has iron salts as impurities that lower the yield in the Birch reduction. Therefore, it is often necessary to distill the ammonia. When substituted aromatic compounds are subjected to the Birch reduction, electron-donating groups such as alkyl or alkoxyl decrease the rate of the reaction and are generally found on the nonreduced positions of the product. For example, anisole gives 1-methoxy-1,4-cyclohexadiene, not 3-methoxy-l,4-cyclohexadiene. On the other hand, electron-withdrawing groups such as COOH or $CONH_2$ increase the reaction rate and are found on the reduced positions of the product.[402] The regioselectivity of the reaction has been examined.[403] The mechanism involves solvated electrons,[404] which are transferred from the metal to the solvent, and hence to the ring:[405]



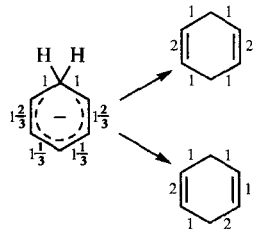
The sodium becomes oxidized to Na^+ and creates a radical ion (**45**).[406] There is a great deal of evidence from ESR spectra for these species.[407] The radical ion accepts

a proton from the alcohol to give a radical, which is reduced to a carbanion by another sodium atom. Finally, 46 accepts another proton. Thus the function of the alcohol is to supply protons, since with most substrates ammonia is not acidic enough for this purpose. In the absence of the alcohol, products arising from dimerization of 45 are frequently obtained. There is evidence[408] at least with some substrates, (e.g., biphenyl) that the radical ion corresponding to 45 is converted to the carbanion corresponding to 46 by a different pathway, in which the order of the steps is reversed: first a second electron is gained to give a dianion,[406] which then acquires a proton, producing the intermediate corresponding to 46.

Indium metal reduces the pyridine ring in quinoline in aqueou sethanol solution.[409] Samarium iodide (SmI_2) reduces pyridine in aqueous THF[410] and phenol in MeOH/KOH.[411]

Ordinary alkenes are usually unaffected by Birch-reduction conditions, and double bonds may be present in the molecule if they are not conjugated with the ring. However, phenylated alkenes, internal alkynes (p. 1009), and conjugated alkenes (with C=C or C=O) are reduced under these conditions.

Note that 46 is a resonance hybrid; that is we can write the two additional canonical forms shown. The question therefore arises: Why does the carbanion pick up a proton at the 6 position to give the 1,4-diene? Why not at the 2 position to give the 1,3-diene?[412] An answer to this question has been proposed by Hine,[413] who has suggested that this case is an illustration of the operation of the *principle of least motion.*[413] According to this principle, "those elementary reactions will be favored that involve the least change in atomic position and electronic configuration."[413] The principle can be applied to the case at hand in the following manner (simplified): The VB bond orders (p. 32) for the six carbon-carbon bonds (on the assumption that each of the three forms contributes equally) are (going around the ring) $1\frac{2}{3}$, 1, 1, $1\frac{2}{3}$, $1\frac{1}{3}$, and $1\frac{1}{3}$. When the carbanion is converted to the diene, these bond orders change as follows:

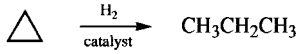


It can be seen that the two bonds whose bond order is 1 are unchanged in the two products, but for the other four bonds there is a change. If the 1,4-diene is formed, the change is $\frac{1}{3}+\frac{1}{3}+\frac{1}{3}+\frac{1}{3}$, while formation of the 1,3-diene requires a change of $\frac{1}{3}+\frac{2}{3}+\frac{2}{3}+\frac{1}{3}$. Since a greater change is required to form the 1,3-diene, the principle of least motion predicts formation of the 1,4-diene. This may not be the only factor, because the ^{13}C NMR spectrum of 46 shows that the 6 position has a somewhat greater electron density than the 2 position, which presumably would make the former more attractive to a proton.[414]

Reduction of aromatic rings with lithium[415] or calcium[416] in amines (instead of ammonia—called *Benkeser reduction)* proceeds further and cyclohexenes are obtained. It is thus possible to reduce a benzene ring, by proper choice of reagent, so that one, two, or all three double bonds are reduced.[417] Lithium triethylborohydride ($LiBEt_3H$) has also been used, to reduce pyridine derivatives to piperidine derivatives.[418]

OS I, 99, 499; II, 566; HI, 278, 742; IV, 313, 887, 903; V, 398, 400, 467, 591, 670, 743, 989; VI, 371, 395, 461, 731, 852, 856, 996; VII, 249.

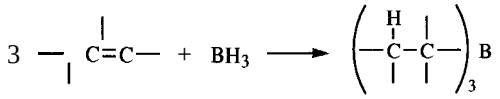
15-15 *Reductive Cleavage of Cyclopropanes*



Cyclopropanes can be cleaved by catalytic hydrogenolysis.[419] Among the catalysts used have been Ni, Pd, and Pt. The reaction can often be run under mild conditions.[420] Certain cyclopropane rings, especially cyclopropyl ketones and aryl-substituted cyclopropanes,[421] can be reductively cleaved by an alkali metal (generally Na or Li) in liquid ammonia.[422] Similar reduction has been accomplished photochemically in the presence of $LiClO_4$.[423]

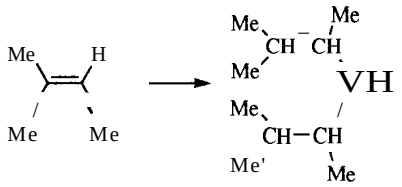
F. *A Metal on the Other Side*

15-16 *Hydroboration*



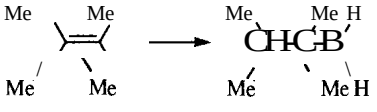
When alkenes are treated with borane[424] in ether solvents, BH_3 adds across the double bond.[425] Borane cannot be prepared as a stable pure compound[426] (it dimerizes to diborane B_2H_6), but it is commercially available in the form of complexes with THF, Me_2S,[427] phosphines, or tertiary amines. The alkenes can be treated with a solution of one of these complexes ($THF{-}BH_3$ reacts at 0°C and is the most convenient to use; $R_3N{-}BH_3$ generally require temperatures of $\sim 100°C$; however, the latter can be prepared as air stable liquids or solids, while the former can only be used as relatively dilute solutions in THF and are decomposed by moisture in air) or with a mixture of $NaBH_4$ and BF_3 etherate, which generates borane *in situ*.[428] Ordinarily, the process cannot be stopped with the addition of one molecule of BH_3 because the resulting RBH_2 adds to another molecule of alkene to give R_2BH, which in turn adds to a third alkene molecule, so that the isolated product is a trialkylborane (R_3B). The reaction can be performed on alkenes with one to four substituents, including cyclic alkenes, but when the alkene is moderately hindered, the product *is* the dialkylborane R_2BH or even the monalkylborane RBH_2.[429] For example, 47 (*disiamylborane*) and 48 (*thexylborane*)[430] have been

prepared in this manner. Monoalkylboranes (RBH_2) (which can be prepared from hindered alkenes, as above) and dialkylboranes (R_2BH) also add to alkenes, to give



Disiamylborane

47

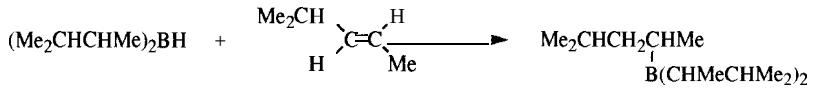


48

Thexylborane

the mixed trialkylboranes RR'_2B and $R_2R'B$, respectively. Surprisingly, when methylborane (MeBH2),[431] which is not a bulky molecule, adds to alkenes in the solvent THF, the reaction can be stopped with one addition to give the dialkylboranes (RMeBH).[432] Reaction of this with a second alkene produces the trialkylborane (RR'MeB).[433] Other monoalkylboranes, *i*-$PrBH_2$, *n*-$BuBH_2$, *s*-$BuBH_2$, and *t*-$BuBH_2$, behave similarly with internal alkenes, but not with alkenes of the type RCH=CH2.[434]

In all cases, the boron goes to the side of the double bond that has more hydrogens, whether the substituents are aryl or alkyl.[435] This actually follows Markovnikov's rule, since boron is more positive than hydrogen. However, the regioselectivity is caused mostly by steric factors, though electronic factors also play a part. Studies of the effect of ring substituents on rates and on the direction of attack in hydroboration of substituted styrenes showed that the attack by boron has electrophilic character.[436] When both sides of the double bond are monosubstituted or both disubstituted, about equal amounts of each isomer are obtained. However, it is possible in such cases to make the addition regioselective by the use of a large attacking molecule. For example, treatment of *i*-PrCH=CHMe with borane gave 57% of product with boron on the methyl-bearing carbon and 43% of the other, while treatment with 47 gave 95% 45 and only 5% of the other isomer.[437]

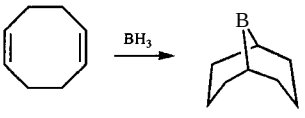


47

(95%)

49

Another reagent with high regioselectivity is 9-borabicyclo[3.3.1]nonane (9-BBN), which is prepared by hydroboration of 1,5-cyclooctadiene:[438]



9-BBN

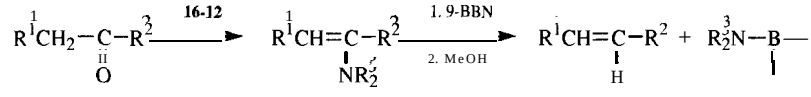
The 9-BBN has the advantage that it is stable in air. Borane is quite unselective and attacks all sorts of double bonds. Disiamylborane, 9-BBN, and similar molecules are

far more selective and preferentially attack less-hindered bonds, so it is often possible to hydroborate one double bond in a molecule and leave others unaffected or to hydroborate one alkene in the presence of a less reactive alkene.[439] For example, 1-pentene can be removed from a mixture of 1- and 2-pentenes, and a cis alkene can be selectively hydroborated in a mixture of the cis and trans isomers.

A hydroboration reagent with greater regioselectivity than BH_3 (for terminal alkenes or those of the form $R_2C{=}CHR$) is monochloroborane[440] BH_2Cl coordinated with dimethyl sulfide (the hydroboration product is a dialkylchloroborane, R_2BCl).[441] For example, 1-hexene gave 94% of the anti-Markovnikov product with BH3-THF, but 99.2% with $BH_2Cl{-}SMe_2$. Treatment of alkenes with dichloroborane-dimethyl sulfide ($BHCl_2{-}SMe_2$) in the presence of BF3[442] or with BCl_3 and Me_3SiH[443] gives alkyldichloroboranes ($RBCl_2$).

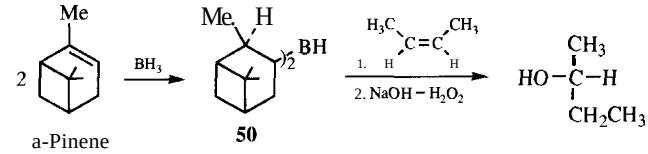
An important use of the hydroboration reaction is that alkylboranes, when oxidized with H_2O_2 and NaOH, are converted to alcohols **(12-26).** This is therefore an indirect way of adding H_2O across a double bond in an anti-Markovnikov manner. However, boranes undergo many other reactions as well. Among other things, they react with α-halo carbonyl compounds to give alkylated products (10-**109),** with α,β-unsaturated carbonyl compounds to give Michael-type addition of R and H **(15-25),** with CO to give alcohols and ketones **(18-23-18-24);** they can be reduced with carboxylic acids, providing an indirect method for reduction of double bonds **(15-11),** or they can be oxidized with chromic acid or pyridinium chlorochromate to give ketone[444] or aldehydes (from terminal alkenes),[445] dimerized with A_8No_3 and NaOH **(14-32),** isomerized **(18-11),** or converted to amines **(12-29)** or halides **(12-28).** They are thus useful intermediates for the preparation of a wide variety of compounds.

Such functional groups as OR, OH, NH_2, SMe, halogen, and COOR may be present in the molecule,[446] but not groups that are reducible by borane. Hydroboration of enamines with 9-BBN provides an indirect method for reducing an aldehyde or ketone to an alkene, for example.[447]



Enamines can also be converted to amino alcohols via hydroboration.[448] Alleneboranes react with aldehydes to give alkyne-alcohols.[449]

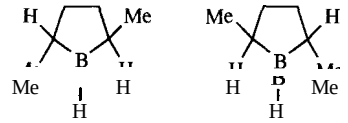
Use of the reagent diisopinocampheylborane 50 (prepared by treating optically active α-pinene with BH_3) results in enantioselective hydroboration-oxidation.[450] Since both (+) and (—) α-pinene are readily available, both enantiomers can be prepared. Alcohols with optical purities as high as 98% have been obtained in this



a-Pinene
Optically active

Optically active

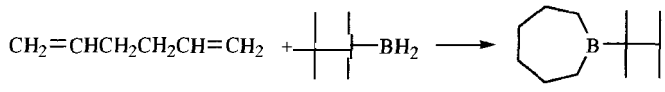
way.[451] However, 50 does not give good results with even moderately hindered alkenes; a better reagent for these compounds is isopinocampheylborane[452] though optical yields are lower. Limonylborane,[453] 2- and 4-dicaranylboranes,[454] a myrtanylborane,[455] and dilongifolylborane[456] have also been used. Other new asymmetric boranes have also been developed. The chiral cyclic boranes *trans*-2,15-dimethylborolanes (51 and 52) also add enantioselectively to alkenes (except



51 (*R, R*) **52** (*S, S*)

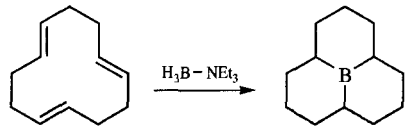
alkenes of the form $RR'C{=}CH_2$) to give boranes of high optical purity.[457] When chiral boranes are added to trisubstituted alkenes of the form RR'C=CHR", two new chiral centers are created, and, with 51 or 52, only one of the four possible diastereomers is predominantly produced, in yields >90%.[457] This has been called *double-asymmetric synthesis*.[458]

The double bonds in a conjugated diene are hydroborated separately, that is, there is no 1,4 addition. However, it is not easy to hydroborate just one of a conjugated system, since conjugated double bonds are less reactive than isolated ones. Thexylborane[430] (**48**) is particularly useful for achieving the cyclic hydroboration of dienes, conjugated or nonconjugated, as in the formation of 53.[459]



48 **53**

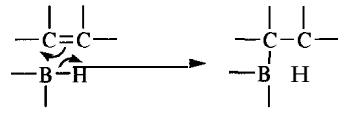
Rings of five, six, or seven members can be formed in this way. Similar cyclization can also be accomplished with other monoalkylboranes and, in some instances, with BH_3 itself.[460] One example is the formation of 9-BBN, shown above. Another is conversion of 1,5,9-cyclododecatriene to perhydro-9*b*-boraphenalene:[461]



Triple bonds[462] can be monohydroborated to give vinylic boranes, which can be reduced with carboxylic acids to cis alkenes or oxidized and hydrolyzed to aldehydes or ketones. Terminal alkynes give aldehydes by this method, in contrast to the mercuric or acid-catalyzed addition of water discussed at 15-4. However, terminal alkynes give vinylic boranes[463] (and hence aldehydes) only when treated with a hindered borane such as 47, 48, or catecholborane (p. 798),[464] or with $BHBr_2{-}SMe2$.[465] The reaction between terminal alkynes and BH_3 produces 1,1-

dibora compounds, which can be oxidized either to primary alcohols (with $NaOH–H_2O_2$) or to carboxylic acids (with *m*- chloroperoxybenzoic acid).[466] Double bonds can be hydroborated in the presence of triple bonds if the reagent is 9-BBN.[467] On the other hand, dimesitylborane selectively hydroborates triple bonds in the presence of double bonds.[468] Furthermore, it is often possible to hydroborate selectively one particular double bond of a nonconjugated diene.[469] A triple bond can be hydroborated in the presence of a ketone, and treatment with acetic acid reduces the C≡C unit to a cis- alkene (see 15-12).[470] When the reagent is catecholborane, hydroboration is catalyzed by rhodium complexes,[471] such as Wilkinson's catalyst,[472] by SmI_2,[473] or lanthanide reagents.[474] Enantioselective hydroboration-oxidation has been achieved by the use of optically active rhodium complexes.[475]

For most substrates, the addition in hydroboration is stereospecific and syn, with attack taking place from the less-hindered side.[476] The mechanism[477] may be a cyclic four-center one:[478]

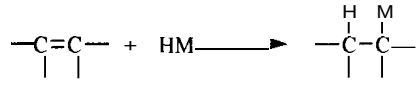


When the substrate is an allylic alcohol or amine, the addition is generally anti,[479] though the stereoselectivity can be changed to syn by the use of catecholborane and the rhodium complexes mentioned above.[480] Because the mechanism is different, use of this procedure can result in a change in regioselectivity as well, [e.g., styrene $PhCH{=}CH_2$ gave $PhCH(OH)CH_3$].[481]

OS **VI,** 719, 852, 919, 943; **VII,** 164, 339, 402, 427; **VIII,** 532.

15-17 *Other Hydrometalation*

HYDRO-METALLO-ADDITION



Metal hydrides of Groups 13 (IIIA) and 14 (IVA) of the periodic table (e.g., AlH_3, GaH_3) as well as many of their alkyl and aryl derivatives (e.g., R_2AlH, Ar_3SnH) add to double bonds to give organometallic compounds.[482] The hydroboration reaction **(15-16)** is the most important example, but other important metals in this reaction are aluminum,[483] tin,[484] and zirconium (a Group 4(IVB) metal).[485] Some of these reactions are uncatalyzed, but in other cases various types of catalyst have been used.[486] Hydrozirconation is most commonly carried out with Cp_2ZrHCl,[487] known as *Schwartz's reagent.* The mechanism with Group 13 (IIIA) hydrides seems to be electrophilic (or four-centered pericyclic with some electrophilic characteristics) while with Group 14 (IVA) hydrides a mechanism involving free radicals seems more likely. Dialkylmagnesium reagents have been obtained by adding MgH_2 to

double bonds.[488] The compound RMgX can be added to an alkene $R'CH{=}CH_2$ to give $R'CH_2CH_2MgX$, with $TiCl_4$ as a catalyst.[489] With some reagents triple bonds[490] can add 1 or 2mol for example, [491]

$$RCECH \xrightarrow{R_2AlH} RC{=}CH{-}AlR'_2 \xrightarrow{R_2AlH} RCH_2CH(AlR'_2){-}AlR'_2$$

When 2 mol are added, electrophilic addition generally gives 1,1-dimetallic products (as with hydroboration), while free-radical addition usually gives the 1,2-dimetallic products.

OS **VII,** 456; **VIII,** 268, 295, 507. See also OS **VIII,** 277, 381.

G. *Carbon on the Other Side*

15-18 Addition of Alkanes

HYDRO-ALKYL-ADDITION

$$-C{=}C- + RH \longrightarrow -\overset{H}{\underset{|}{C}}-\overset{R}{\underset{|}{C}}-$$

There are two important ways of adding alkanes to alkenes—the thermal method and the acid-catalysis method.[492] Both give chiefly mixtures, and neither is useful for the preparation of relatively pure compounds in reasonable yields. However, both are useful industrially. In the thermal method, the reactants are heated to high temperatures ($\sim$ 500°C) at high pressures (150–300 atm) without a catalyst. As an example, propane and ethylene gave 55.5% isopentane, 7.3% hexanes, 10.1% heptanes, and 7.4% alkenes.[493] The mechanism is undoubtedly of a free-radical type and can be illustrated by one possible sequence in the reaction between propane and ethylene:

Step 1 $CH_3CH_2CH_3 + CH_2{=}CH_2 \xrightarrow{\Delta} CH3\text{-}\dot{C}H\text{-}CH3 + CH_3CH_2\cdot$

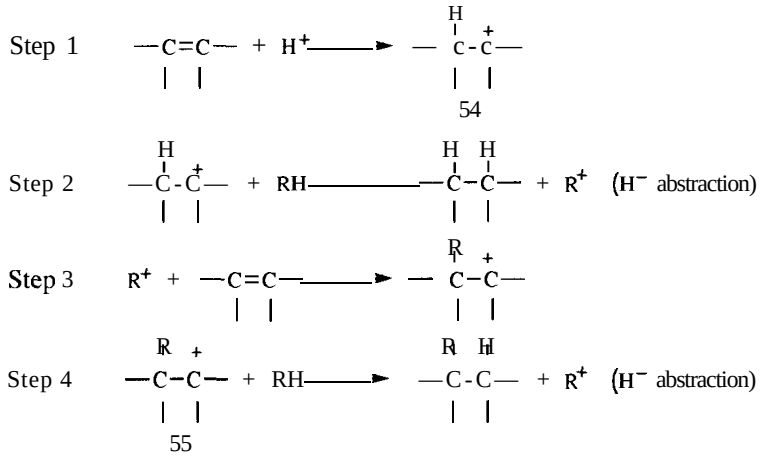
Step 2 $CH3\text{-}\dot{C}H\text{-}CH3 + CH_2{=}CH_2 \longrightarrow (CH_3)_2CHCH_2CH_2\cdot$

Step 3 $(CH_3)_2CHCH_2CH_2\cdot + CH_3CH_2CH_3 \longrightarrow (CH_3)_2CHCH_2CH_3 + CH_3\dot{C}HCH_3$

There is kinetic evidence that the initiation takes place primarily by steps like 1, which are called *symproportionation* steps (the opposite of disproportionation, p. 246).[494]

In the acid-catalysis method, a proton or Lewis acid is used as the catalyst and the reaction is carried out at temperatures between —30 and 100°C. This is a Friedel-Crafts process with a carbocation mechanism[495] (illustrated for a proton acid

catalyst):

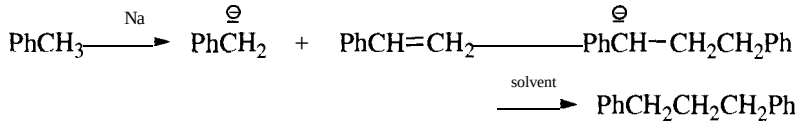


54

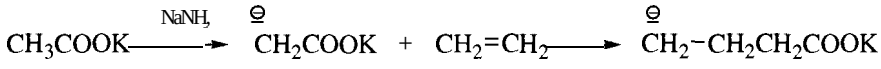
55

Compound **55** often rearranges before it abstracts a hydride ion, explaining, for example, why the principal product from the reaction between isobutane and ethylene is 2,3-dimethylbutane. It is also possible for 54 (or **55)** instead of abstracting a hydride ion, to add to another mole of alkene, so that not only rearrangement products but also dimeric and polymeric products are frequent. If the tri- or tetrasubstituted alkenes are treated with Me_4Si, HC1, and $AlCl_3$, they become protonated to give a tertiary carbocation, which reacts with the Me_4Si to give a product that is the result of addition of H and Me to the original alkene.[496] (For a free-radical hydro-methyl-addition, see **15-26.)** Addition a cation to a vinyl bromide, generated from an α-ethoxy-lactam with trifluoroacetic acid, generated a ketone.[497]

The reaction can also be base catalyzed, in which case there is nucleophilic addition and a carbanion mechanism.[498] Carbanions most often used are those stabilized by one or more α-aryl groups. For example, toluene adds to styrene in the presence of sodium to give 1,3-diphenylpropane:[499]



Conjugated dienes give 1,4 addition.[500] This reaction has also been performed with salts of carboxylic acids in what amounts to a method of alkylation of carboxylic acids (see also 10-96).[501]



Silanes (R_3SiH) also add to alkenes to form a new alkyl silane ($R_3Si{-}R'$) in the presence of a hyponitrite.[502] Silanes add to dienes with a palladium catalyst, and asymmetric induction is achieved by using a binapthyl additive.[503]

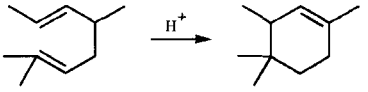
OS I, 229; IV, 665; **VII,** 479.

15-19 Addition of Alkenes and/or Alkynes to Alkenes and/or Alkynes

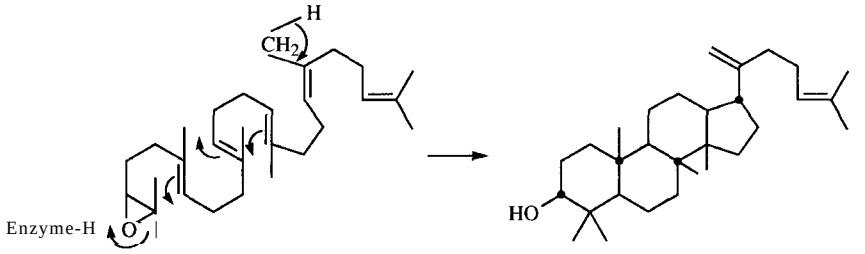
HYDRO-ALKENYL-ADDITION

$$CH_2{=}CH_2 + CH_2{=}CH_2 \xrightarrow{H^+} CH_2{=}CHCH_2CH_3$$

With certain substrates, alkenes can be dimerized by acid catalysts, so that the product is a dimer that contains one double bond.[504] This reaction is more often carried out internally, for example,

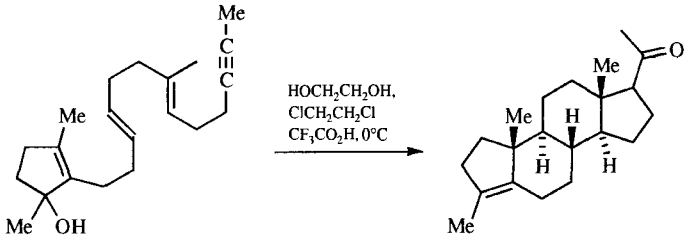


Processes of this kind are important in the biosynthesis of steroids and tetra- and pentacyclic terpenes. For example, squalene 2,3-oxide is converted by enzymatic catalysis to dammaradienol.



Squalene 2,3-oxide Dammaradienol

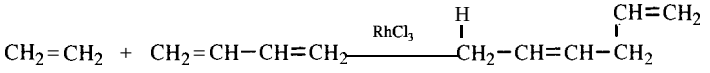
The squalene → lanosterol biosynthesis (which is a key step in the biosynthesis of cholesterol) is similar. The idea that the biosynthesis of such compounds involves this type of multiple ring closing was proposed in 1955 and is known as the *Stork–Eschenmoser hypothesis.*[505] Such reactions can also be carried out in the laboratory, without enzymes.[506] By putting cation-stabilizing groups at positions at which positive charges develop, Johnson and co-workers have been able to close as many as four rings stereoselectively and in high yield, in one operation/[507] An example is [508]



Lewis acids can be used to initiate this cyclization.[509] Cyclization to a tricyclic systems that included formation of a dihydropyran ring was reported using mercuric

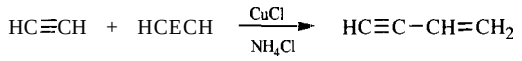
bis(trifluorosulfonate) as an initiator.[510] A radical cyclization approach to polyene cyclization using a seleno-ester anchor gave a tetracyclic system.[511] A cyclization using an epoxide anchor to form a bicyclic molecule has also been reported.[512]

The addition of alkenes to alkenes[513] can also be accomplished by bases[514] as well as by the use of catalyst systems[515] consisting of nickel complexes and alkylaluminum compounds (known as *Ziegler catalysts),*[516] rhodium catalysts,[517] and other transition metal catalysts, including iron.[518] These and similar catalysts also catalyze the 1,4 addition of alkenes to conjugated dienes,[519] for example,



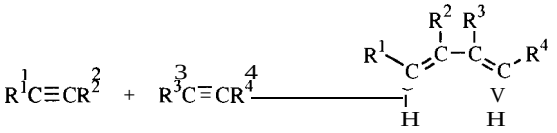
and the dimerization of 1,3-butadienes to octatrienes.[520] Ethylene adds to alkenes to form a new alkene in the presence of a nickel catalyst[521] or a zirconium catalyst,[522] to alkynes in the presence of a ruthenium catalyst[523] to form a diene, and allenes add to alkynes to give a diene with a titanium catalyst.[524]

In the presence of cuprous chloride and ammonium chloride, acetylene adds to another molecule of itself to give vinylacetylene.

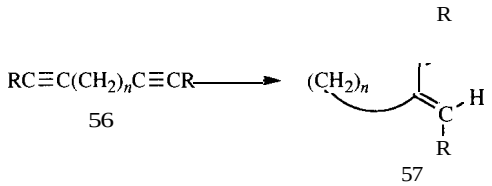


This type of alkyne dimerization is also catalyzed by certain nickel complexes, as well as other catalysts[525] and has been carried out internally to convert diynes to large-ring cycloalkynes with an exocyclic double bond.[526]

In another type of alkyne, dimerization is the reductive coupling in which two molecules of alkyne, the same or different, give a 1,3-diene[527]



In this method, one alkyne is treated with Schwartz's reagent (see 15-17) to produce a vinylic zirconium intermediate. Addition of MeLi or MeMgBr, followed by the second alkyne, gives another intermediate, which, when treated with aqueous acid, gives the diene in moderate-to-good yields. The stereoisomer shown is the one formed in usually close to 100% purity. If the second intermediate is treated with I_2 instead of aqueous acid, the 1,4-diiodo-1,3-diene is obtained instead, in comparable yield and isomeric purity. This reaction can also be done intramolecularly: Diynes 56 can be cyclized to *(E, E)* exocyclic dienes 57 by treatment with a zirconium complex.[528]



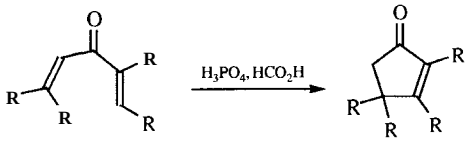
56 57

Rings of four, five, and six members were obtained in high yield; seven-membered rings in lower yield. When the reaction is applied to enynes, compounds similar to 57 but with only one double bond are obtained.[529]

In another reductive coupling, substituted alkenes (CH_2=CHY; Y = R, COOMe, OAc, CN, etc.) can be dimerized to substituted alkanes ($CH_3CHYCHYCH_3$) by photolysis in an H_2 atmosphere, using Hg as a photosensitizer.[530] Still another procedure involves palladium-catalyzed addition of vinylic halides to triple bonds to give 1,3-dienes.[531]

Alkenes and alkynes can also add to each other to give cyclic products in other ways (see **15-61** and **15-63).** The first exclusive exo-dig carbocyclization was reported using $HfCl_4$ as a catalyst.[532] Alkynes also add to alkenes for form rings in the presence of a palladium catalyst[533] or a zirconium catalyst.[534] Carbocyclization of an alkene unit to another alkene unit was reported using an yttrium catalyst[535] and alkenes add to alkynes to give cyclic compounds with titanium catalysts.[536]

An important cyclization procedure involves acid-catalyzed addition of diene-ketones such as 58, where one conjugated alkene adds to the other conjugated alkene to form cyclopentenones (59). This is called the *Nazarov cyclization.*[537] Cyclization can also give the nonconjugated five-membered ring.[538]



58 59

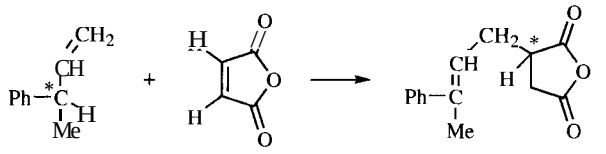
OS **VIII,** 190, 381, 505; **IX,** 310.

15-20 *The Ene Synthesis*

HYDROALLYL-ADDITION

Alkenes can add to double bonds in a reaction different from those discussed in **15-19,** which, however, is still formally the addition of RH to a double bond. This is called the *ene reaction* or the *ene synthesis.*[539] For the reaction to proceed without a catalyst, one of the components must be a reactive dienophile (see **15-58** for a definition of this word) such as maleic anhydride, but the other (which supplies the hydrogen) may be a simple alkene such as propene. Cyclopropene has also been used.[540] The reaction is compatible with a variety of functional groups that can be appended to the ene and dienophile.[541] N,N-Diallyl amides give an ene cyclization, for example.[542] The ene reaction is known with fullerene (see p. 70) derivatives.[543] There has been much discussion of the mechanism of this reaction, and both

concerted pericyclic (as shown above) and stepwise mechanisms have been



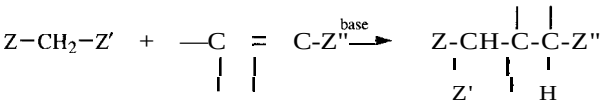
60

suggested. A retro-ene reaction is known with allylic dithiocarbonates.[544] The reaction between maleic anhydride and optically active $PhCHMeCH{=}CH_2$ gave an optically active product (**60**),[545] which is strong evidence for a concerted rather than a stepwise mechanism.[546] The reaction can be highly stereoselective.[547] The reaction can be extended to less-reactive enophiles by the use of Lewis acid catalysts, especially alkylaluminum halides.[548] Titanium catalysts,[549] $Sc(OTf)_3$,[550] $LiClO_4$[551] have also been used. The Lewis acid catalyzed reaction probably has a stepwise mechanism.[552] The ene reaction has also been mediated on certain resins.[553] The carbonyl-ene reaction is also very useful, and often gives synthetically useful yields of products when catalyzed by Lewis acids,[554] including asymmetric catalysts.[555] Scandium triflate[556] has been used to catalyze this reaction. Carbonyl ene cyclization has been reported on silica gel at high pressure (15 kbar).[557] Ene reactions with imines are also known.[558]

OS IV, 766; V, 459. See also OS **VIII,** 427.

15-21 *The Michael Reaction*

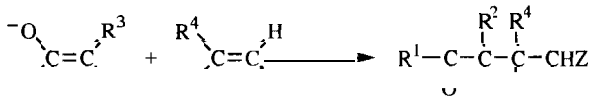
HYDRO-BIS(ETHOXYCARBONYL)METHYL-ADDITION, AND SO ON



Compounds containing electron-withdrawing groups (Z is defined on p. 975) add, in the presence of bases, to alkenes of the form C=C–Z (including quinones). This is called the *Michael reaction* and involves conjugate addition.[559] The base removes the acidic proton, and then the mechanism is as outlined on page 975. The reaction has been carried out with malonates, cyanoacetates, acetoacetates, other β-keto esters, and compounds of the form ZCH_3, ZCH_2R, $ZCHR_2$, and ZCHRZ', including carboxylic esters, ketones, aldehydes, nitriles, nitro compounds,[560] and sulfones, as well as other compounds with relatively acidic hydrogens, such as indenes and fluorenes. The aggregation state of nitrile anions plays an important role in 1,2 versus 1,4 addition to conjugated ketones.[561] These reagents do not add to ordinary double bonds, except in the presence of free-radical initiators **(15-28).** 1,2 Addition (to the C=O or C=N group) often competes and sometimes predominates (16-**41**).[562] In particular, α,β-unsaturated *aldehydes* seldom give 1,4 addition.[563] The Michael reaction has traditionally been performed in protic solvents, with catalytic amounts of base,[564] but more recently better yields with fewer side reactions have

been obtained in some cases by using an equimolar amount of base to convert the nucleophile to its enolate form *(preformed enolate).* In particular, preformed enolates are often used where stereoselective reactions are desired.[565] Transition metal compounds such as $CeCl_3$[566] or $Yb(OTf)_3$[567] also induce the reaction, as does Y-zeolite.[568] Palladium catalysts lead to Michael addition of aryl halides.[569] Water-promoted Michael additions have also been reported.[570]

In a Michael reaction with suitably different R groups, two new chiral centers are created:



Enolate Substrate

Thus the product in such cases can exist as two pairs of enantiomers.[571] In a diastereoselective process, one of the two pairs is formed exclusively or predominantly as a racemic mixture. Many such examples have been reported.[449] In many of these cases, both the enolate and substrate can exist as (Z) or (*E*) isomers. With enolates derived from ketones or carboxylic esters, (*E*) enolates gave the syn pair of enantiomers (p. 146), while (Z) enolates gave the anti pair.[572] Addition of chiral additives to the reaction, such as proline derivatives,[573] or (—)-sparteine[574] lead to product formation with good-to-excellent asymmetric induction. Ultrasound has also been used to promote asymmetric Michael reactions.[575] Intramolecular versions of Michael addition are well known.[576]

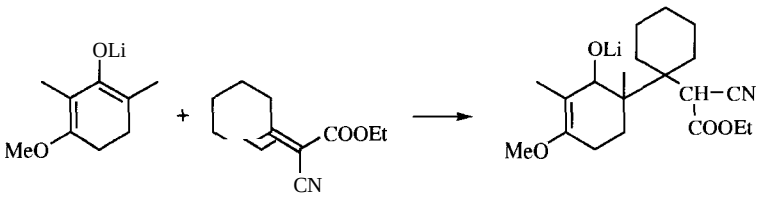
When either or both of the reaction components has a chiral substituent, the reaction can be enantioselective (only one of the four diastereomers formed predominantly), and this has been accomplished a number of times.[577] Enantioselective addition has also been achieved by the use of a chiral catalyst[578] and by using optically active enamines instead of enolates.[579] Chiral imines have also been used.[580]

Other nucleophiles add to conjugated systems to give Michael-type products. Aniline derivatives add to conjugated aldehydes in the presence of a catalytic amount of DBU (p. 488).[581] Amines add to conjugated esters in the presence of $InCl_3$,[582] $La(OTf)_3$,[583] or $YTb(OTf)_3$ at 3 kbar,[584] for example, to give P-amino esters. This reaction can be initiated photochemically.[585] An intramolecular addition of an amine unit to a conjugated ketone in the presence of a palladium catalyst, or photochemically, led to cyclic amines.[586] Amines add to conjugated thio-lactams.[587] Chiral imines add in a highly stereoselective manner.[588] Lactams have been shown to add to conjugated esters in the presence of $Si(OEt)_4$ and CsF.[589] Thioaryl moieties can be added in the presence of Yb.[590]

Mannich bases (see 16-15) and β-halo carbonyl compounds can also be used as substrates; these are converted to the C=C–Z compounds *in situ* by the base (16-15, 17-12).[591] Substrates of this kind are especially useful in cases where the C=C–Z compound is unstable. The reaction of C=C–Z compounds with enamines (12-18) can also be considered a Michael reaction. Michael reactions are reversible.

When the substrate contains *gem*- Z groups, (e.g., 62), bulky groups can be added, if the reaction is carried out under aprotic conditions. For example, addition of

enolate 61 to 62 gave 63 in which two adjacent quaternary centers have been formed.[592]

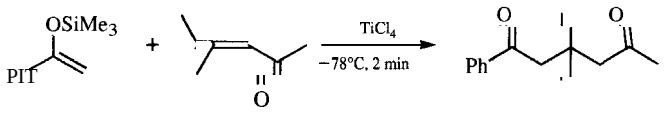


61 62 63 (68%)

In certain cases, Michael reactions can take place under acidic conditions.[593] Michael-type addition of radicals to conjugated carbonyl compounds is also known.[594] Radical addition can be catalyzed by $Yb(OTf)_3$,[595] but radicals add under standard conditions as well, even intramolecularly.[596] Electrochemical-initiated Michael additions are known, and aryl halides add in the presence of $NiBr_2$.[597]

Michael reactions are sometimes applied to substrates of the type C≡C–Z, where the co-products are conjugated systems of the type C=C–Z.[598] Indeed, because of the greater susceptibility of triple bonds to nucleophilic attack, it is even possible for nonactivated alkynes (e.g., acetylene), to be substrates in this reaction.[599]

In a closely related reaction, silyl enol ethers add to α,β-unsaturated ketones and esters when catalyzed[600] by $TiCl_4$, for example,[601]



The compound $InCl_3$ also catalyzes this reaction.[602] Aluminum compounds also catalyze this reaction[603] and the reaction has been done in neat tri-n- propylaluminum.[604] A solid-state version of the reaction used alumina·$ZnCl_2$.[605] This reaction, also, has been performed diastereoselectively.[606] Allylic silanes $R_2C{=}CHCH_2$-$SiMe_3$ can be used instead of silyl enol ethers (the *Sakurai reaction*).[607] Similarly, silyl ketene acetals, $RCH{=}C(OMe)OSiMe_3$, add to conjugated ketones to give 5-keto esters, in $MeNO_2$ as solvent,.[608]

OS I, 272; II, 200; III, 286; IV, 630, 652, 662, 776; V, 486, 1135; VI, 31, 648, 666, 940; VII, 50, 363, 368, 414, 443; VIII, 87, 210, 219, 444, 467; IX, 526. See also OS VIII, 148.

15-22 *Addition of Organometallics to Double and Triple Bonds Not Conjugated to Carbonyls*

HYDRO-ALKYL-ADDITION

Neither Grignard reagents nor lithium dialkylcopper reagents generally add to ordinary C=C double bonds.[609] An exception is the reaction of $(PhMe_2Si)_2$-Cu(CN)Li to 8-oxabicyclo[3.2. l]oct-2-ene derivatives.[610] Grignard reagents usually add only to double bonds susceptible to nucleophilic attack (e.g., fluoroalkenes and tetracyanoethylene.[611] However, active Grignard reagents (benzylic, allylic) also add to the double bonds of allylic amines,[612] and of allylic and homoallylic alcohols,[613] as well as to the triple bonds of propargyl alcohols and certain other alkynols.[614] Grignard reagents also add to alkynes in the presence of $MnCl_2$ at 100°C[615] and to alkenes in the presence of zirconium catalysts.[616] It is likely that cyclic intermediates are involved in these cases, in which the magnesium coordinates with the hetero atom. Organolithium reagents (primary, secondary. and tertiary alkyl and in some cases aryl) also add to the double and triple bonds of allylic and propargylic alcohols[617] (in this case tetramethylethylenediamine is a catalyst) and to certain other alkenes containing hetero groups such as OR, NR_2, or SR. Allylic, benzylic, and tertiary alkyl Grignard reagents also add to 1-alkenes and strained internal alkenes, (e.g., norbornene) if the reaction is carried out not in ether but in a hydrocarbon solvent such as pentane or in the alkene itself as solvent, heated, under pressure if necessary, to 60–130°C.[618] Yields are variable. *Intramolecular* addition of RMgX to completely unactivated double and triple bonds has been demonstrated,[619] for example, refluxing of 6-chloro-1-heptene with Mg for 5 h gave, after hydrolysis, an 88% yield of 1,2-dimethylcyclopentane.[620]

Organolithium reagents containing an alkene or alkyne unit cyclize at low temperatures and quenching with methanol replaces the new C–Li bond with C–H. Cyclization occurs with both alkynes[621] and alkenes.[622] Alkyllithium and alkenyllithium derivatives containing an ester moiety can be cyclized.[623] Tandem cyclization are possible with dienes and en-ynes to form more than one ring,[624] including bicyclic compounds.[625] The organolithium reagents can contain heteroatoms such as nitrogen elsewhere in the molecule, and the organolithium species can be generated from an intermediate organotin derivative.[626] Enolate anions can add to allylic sulfides, forming β-lactams in some cases.[627]

Unactivated alkenes can react with other organometallic compounds under certain conditions. Trimethylaluminum reacts with 4-methyl-1-pentene, in the presence of Cl_2ZrCp_2, for example, and subsequent reaction with molecular oxygen leads to 2(*R*),4-dimethyl-1-pentanol in good yield and 74% ee.[628] These reagents also add to alkynes.[629] Ruthenium catalysts have been used to add allylic alcohols to alkynes.[630] Samarium iodide (SmI2) induces cyclization of a halide moiety to an alkyne unit[631] or an alkene unit[632] to form cyclized products. Copper complexes can catalyze similar cyclization to alkenes, even when an ester unit is present in the molecule.[633] Vinyl halides add to allylic amines in the presence of Ni(cod)2, where cod is 1,5-cylooctadiene, followed by reduction with sodium borohydride.[634] Organomanganese reagents add to alkenes.[635] Manganese triacetate $[Mn(OAc)_3$, in the presence of cupric acetate, facilitates intramolecular cyclization of a halide unit to an alkene.[636]

Grignard reagents add to the C=C unit of $(MeO)_2CRCH{=}CH{-}R$ moieties to give a 3-alkyl substituted ketone in the presence of a nickel catalyst.[637]

When a chiral additive is used, this reaction proceeds with good enantioselectivity.

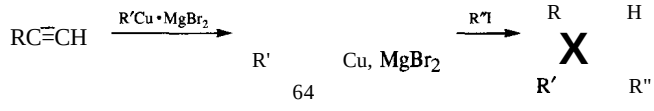
Alkynes react with indium reagents such as $(allyl)_3In_2I_3$ to form dienes (allyl substituted alkenes from the alkyne).[638] Allyltin reagents add to alkynes in a similar manner in the presence of $ZrCl_4$.[639] Alkylzinc reagents add to alkynes to give substituted alkenes in the presence of a palladium catalyst.[640]

15-23 *The Addition of Two Alkyl Groups to an Alkyne*

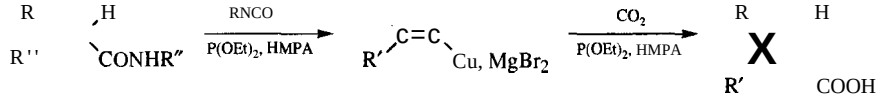
DIALKYL-ADDITION

$$RC{\equiv}CH + R'Cu{\cdot}MgBr_2 + R''I \xrightarrow[\text{ether—HPMA}]{(EtO)_2P} \underset{R'}{}\!\!\!\!\underset{R''}{}$$

Two different alkyl groups can be added to a terminal alkyne[641] in one laboratory step by treatment with an alkylcopper-magnesium bromide reagent (called *Normant reagents)*[642] and an alkyl iodide in ether–HMPA containing triethyl phosphite.[643] The groups add stereoselectively syn. The reaction, which has been applied to primary[644] R′ and to primary, allylic, benzylic, vinylic, and α-alkoxyalkyl R′, involves initial addition of the alkylcopper reagent,[645] followed by a coupling reaction (10-94):

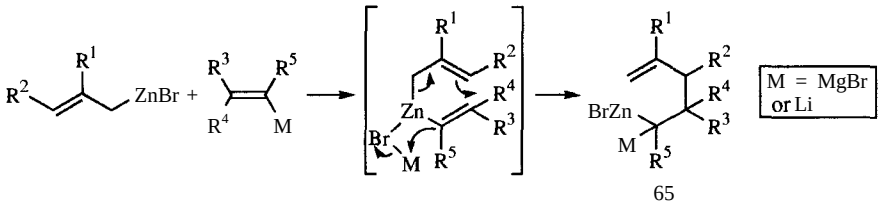


Acetylene itself (R = H) undergoes the reaction with R_2CuLi instead of the Normant reagent.[646] The use of R′ containing functional groups has been reported.[647] If the alkyl iodide is omitted, the vinylic copper intermediate 64 can be converted



to a carboxylic acid by the addition of CO_2 (see 16-34) or to an amide by the addition of an isocyanate, in either case in the presence of HMPA and a catalytic amount of triethyl phosphite.[648] The use of I_2 results in a vinylic iodide.[649]

Similar reactions, in which two alkyl groups are added to a triple bond, have been carried out with trialkylalanes R_3Al, with zirconium complexes as catalysts.[650]



65

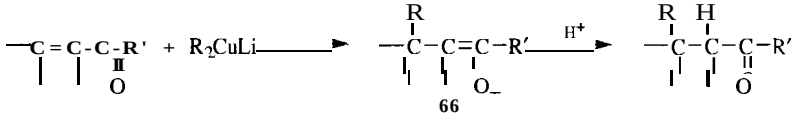
Ally] ethers and iodobenzene have also been added using a zirconium complex.[651] Similarly, allyl ethers and allyl chlorides have been added.[652]

Allylic zinc bromides add to vinylic Grignard and lithium reagents to give the *gem*-dimetallo compounds 65. The two metallo groups can be separately reacted with various nucleophiles.[653]

OS **VII,** 236, 245, 290.

15-24 *1,4 Addition of Organometallic Compounds to Activated Double Bonds*

HYDRO-ALKYL-ADDITION



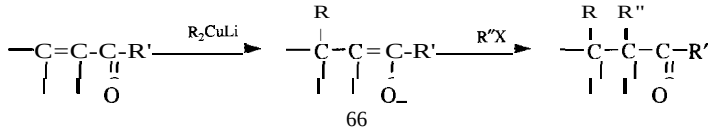
66

Lithium dialkylcopper reagents (see **10-94)** add to α,β-unsaturated aldehydes[654] and ketones (R' = H, R, Ar) to give conjugate addition products[655] in a reaction closely related to the Michael reaction. α,β-Unsaturated esters are less reactive,[656] and the corresponding acids do not react at all. The R group can be primary alkyl, vinylic, or aryl. If Me_3SiCl is present, the reaction takes place much faster and with higher yields; in this case the product is the silyl enol ether of **66** (see **12-22**).[657] The use of Me_3SiCl also permits good yields with allylic R groups.[658] Conjugated alkynyl-ketones also react via 1,4 addition to give substituted alkenyl-ketones.[659]

Various functional groups such as OH and unconjugated C=O groups may be present in the substrate.[660] Conjugated sulfones are also good substrates.[661] A characteristic of the reaction is that only one of the R groups of R_2CuLi adds to the substrate; the other is wasted. This can be a limitation where the precursor (RLi or RCu, see **12-33)** is expensive or available in limited amounts. The difficulty can be overcome by using one of the mixed reagents R(R'C≡C)CuLi,[662] R(O—*t*-Bu)CuLi,[663] or R(PhS)CuLi,[664] each of which transfers only the R group. These reagents are easily prepared by the reaction of RLi with R′C≡CCu (R′ = *n*-Pr or *t*-Bu), *t*-BuOCu, or PhSCu, respectively. A further advantage of the mixed reagents is that good yields of addition product are achieved when R is tertiary, so that use of one of them permits the introduction of a tertiary alkyl group. The mixed reagents R(CN)CuLi[665] (prepared from RLi and CuCN) and $R_2Cu(CN)Li_2$[666] also selectively transfer the R group.[667] The reaction has also been carried out with α,β-acetylenic ketones, esters, and nitriles.[668] Conjugate addition to α,β-unsaturated and acetylenic acids and esters, as well as ketones, can be achieved by the use of the coordinated reagents $RCu{\cdot}BF_3$ (R = primary).[669] Alkylcopper compounds RCu (R = primary or secondary alkyl) have also been used with tetramethylethylenediamine and Me_3SiCl to give silyl enol ethers from αβ-unsaturated ketones in high yield.[670] Amine units have been transferred in this manner to give amino-esters. N-Boc-2-lithiopyrrolidine, for example, reacted with CuCN and LiCl to give a cuprate, that reacted with methyl acrylate to give *N*-Boc-2-(2-carboxymethylethyl)pyrrolidine.[671]

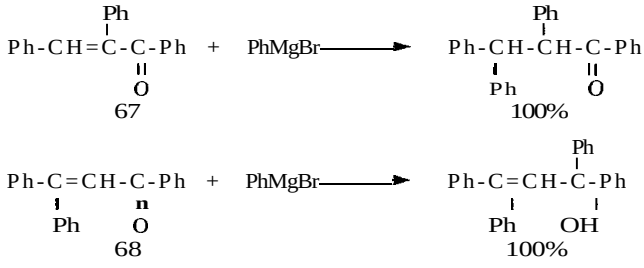
Related compounds have been generated from $BocRNCH_2SnR'_3$ and *s*-butyllithium/CuCN which also added to conjugated ketones.[672] Other amino-cuprates are known to give conjugate addition reactions.[673]

There is generally little or no competition from 1,2 addition (to the C=O). However, when R is allylic, 1,4 addition is observed with some substrates and 1,2 addition with others.[674] The compound R_2CuLi also add to α,β-unsaturated sulfones[675] but not to simple αβ-unsaturated nitriles.[676] Organocopper reagents RCu (as well as certain R_2CuLi) add to αβ-unsaturated and acetylenic sulfoxides.[677]



66

Usually, after an enolate ion is generated from an αβ-unsaturated ketone, it is converted to the β-alkylated product as shown above. But it is often possible to have the enolate react with some other electrophile *(tandem vicinal difunctionalization*), in some cases at the O and in other cases at the C.[678] For example, if an alkyl halide R′X is present (R′ = primary alkyl or allylic), and the solvent is 1,2-dimethoxyethane, the enolate (66) can be alkylated directly.[679] Thus, by this method, both the a and β positions of a ketone are alkylated in one synthetic operation (see also **15-23).**



67 100%

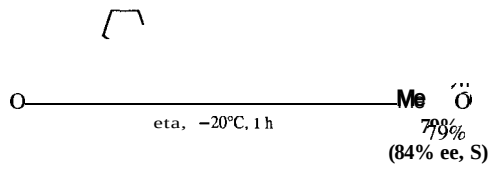
68 100%

Grignard reagents also add to these substrates, but with these reagents, 1,2 addition may seriously compete:[680] The product is often controlled by steric factors. Thus 67 with phenylmagnesium bromide gives 100% 1,4 addition, while 68 gives 100% 1,2 addition. In general, substitution at the carbonyl group increases 1,4 addition, while substitution at the double bond increases 1,2 addition. In most cases, both products are obtained, but α,β-unsaturated *aldehydes* nearly always give exclusive 1,2 addition when treated with Grignard reagents. However, the extent of 1,4 addition of Grignard reagents can be increased by the use of a copper ion catalyst, for example, CuCl, $Cu(OAc)_2$.[681] Grignard reagents mixed with $CeCl_3$ generates a reactive species that gives primarily 1,4 addition.[682] It is likely that alkylcopper reagents, formed from RMgX and Cu^+ (cupric acetate is reduced to cuprous ion by excess RMgX), are the actual attacking species in these cases.[655] Alkyllithium reagents,[683] treated with compounds of the form $C{=}C{-}COCH_3$ and $C{=}C{-}COOC_2H_5$, gave only 1,2 addition,[684] but 1,4 addition was achieved with esters of the form C=C—COOAr, where Ar was a bulky group such as *2,6-di-tert-*

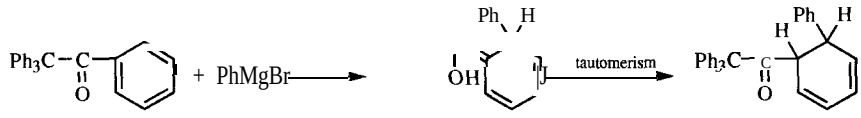
butyl-4-methoxyphenyl.[685] Also, alkyllithium reagents can be made to give 1,4 addition with α,β-unsaturated ketones[686] and aldehydes[687] if the reactions are conducted in the presence of HMPA. Among alkyllithium reagents that have been found to add 1,4 in this manner are 2-lithio-1,3-dithianes (see 10-107).[688] Lithium-halogen exchange (12-20) generates an organolithium species that adds intramolecularly to conjugated esters to give cyclic and bicyclic products.[689] 1,4 Addition of alkyllithium reagents to α,β-unsaturated aldehydes can also be achieved by converting the aldehyde to a benzothiazole derivative (masking the aldehyde function),[690] from which the aldehyde group can be regenerated. When some conjugated acids are added to *n*-butyllithium, the conjugate addition product was isolated in good yield.[691]

An alkynyl group can be added to the double bond of an α,β-unsaturated ketone by use of the diethylalkynylalane reagents $Et_2AlC{\equiv}CR$.[692] In a similar manner, the alkenyl reagents $R_2AlCH{=}CR$ transfer an alkenyl group.[693] Trialkylalanes R_3Al also add 1,4 to such ketones in the presence of nickel acetylacetonate.[694] Also used for 1,4 addition to these ketones are alkyl- and arylmanganese chlorides, catalyzed by CuCl (this reagent is successful for α,β-unsaturated aldehydes and esters also),[695] arylpalladium compounds,[696] and arylmercury compounds with phase-transfer catalysts.[697] Diethylzinc adds to conjugated nitro compounds in the presence of a catalytic amount of $Cu(OTf)_2$ and a BINOL additive to give the conjugate addition product with modest% ee.[698] The chiral bis-phosphine called *chiraphos* has also been used.[699] Reaction of alkyl iodides with Zn/CuI with ultrasound generates an organometallic that adds to conjugated esters.[700] Diarylzinc compounds (prepared with the aid of ultrasound) in the presence of nickel acetylacetonate, undergo 1,4 addition not only to α,β-unsaturated ketones, but also to α,β-unsaturated aldehydes.[701] Mixed alkylzinc compounds also add to conjugated systems.[702] An allyl group can be added, to α,β-unsaturated carboxylic esters, amides and nitriles, with $CH_2{=}CH\text{-}CH_2SiMe_3$ and F^- ion (see 15-45).[703] This reagent gave better results than lithium diallylcuprate. Functionalized allylic groups can be added to terminal alkynes with allylic halides, zinc, and ultrasound, to give 1,4-dienes.[704] An aryl group can be added to a triple bond with an aryl iodide and a $Pd{-}HCOOH{-}R_3N$ catalyst.[705] A reagent formed from $Me_3Ti{\cdot}MeLi$ adds a methyl group to conjugated ketones.[706]

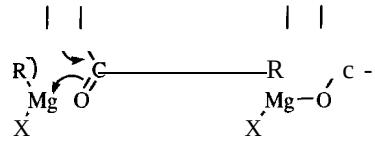
As with the Michael reaction (15-21) the 1,4 addition of organometallic compounds has been performed diastereoselectively[707] and enantioselectively.[708] The influence of solvent and additives on yield and selectivity has been examined.[709] The use of chiral ligands with MgI_2/I_2 and Bu_3SnI gave conjugate addition products with α,β-unsaturated amides with good %ee.[710] Chiral templates have also been used with Grignard reagents, directly[711] and in the presence of $AlMe_2Cl$.[712] An example is the conjugated addition ofdimethyl cuprate in the presence of the chiral ligand shown.[713]



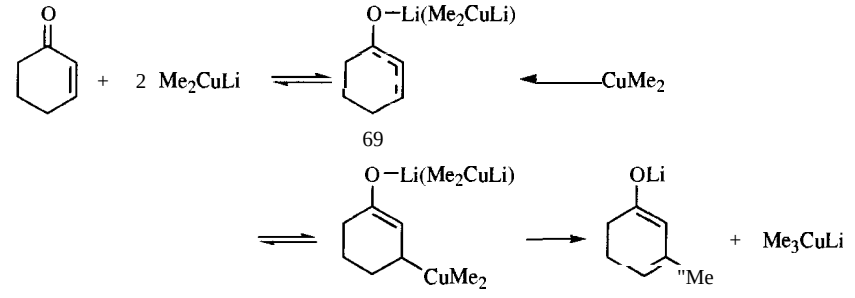
In certain cases, Grignard reagents add 1,4 to *aromatic* systems, for example,[714]



Such cyclohexadienes are easily oxidizable to benzenes (often by atmospheric oxygen), so this reaction becomes a method of alkylating and arylating suitably substituted (usually hindered) aryl ketones. A similar reaction has been reported for aromatic nitro compounds where 1,3,5-trinitrobenzene reacts with excess methylmagnesium halide to give 2,4,6-trinitro-l,3,5-trimethylcyclohexane.[715] Both Grignard and R_2CuLi reagents[716] have also been added to systems of the form $C{\equiv}C{-}C{=}O$.[717]



The mechanisms of most of these reactions are not well known. The 1,4-uncatalyzed Grignard reaction has been postulated to proceed by the cyclic mechanism shown, but there is evidence against it.[718] The R_2CuLi[719] and copper-catalyzed Grignard additions may involve a number of mechanisms, since the actual attacking species and substrates are so diverse.[720] A free-radical mechanism of some type (perhaps SET) has been suggested[721] though the fact that retention of configuration at R has been demonstrated in several cases rules out a completely free R· radical.[722] For simple α,β-unsaturated ketones, such as 2-cyclohexenone, and Me_2CuLi, there is evidence[723] for this mechanism:



69

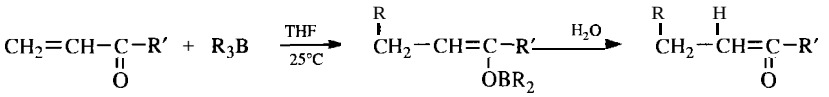
69 is a *d,n** complex, with bonding between copper, as a base supplying a pair of *d* electrons, and the enone as a Lewis acid using the π^* orbital of the allylic system.[723] The ^{13}C NMR spectrum of an intermediate similar to 69 has been reported.[724] The addition of R_3Al takes place by a free-radical mechanism.[694]

For the addition of organocopper reagents to alkynes and conjugated dienes, see 15-23.

OS IV, 93; V, 762; VI, 442, 666, 762, 786; VIII, 112, 257, 277, 479; IX, 328, 350, 640.

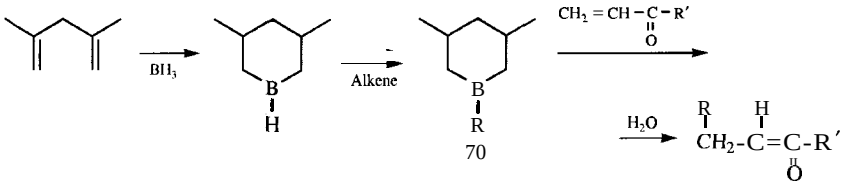
15-25 *The Addition of Boranes to Activated Double Bonds*

HYDRO-ALKYL-ADDITION (OVERALL TRANSFORMATION)



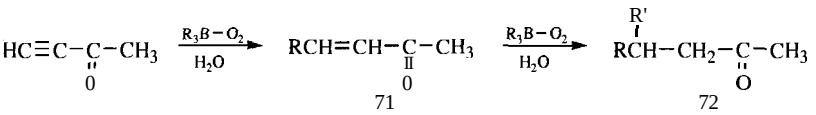
R'H, Me

Trialkylboranes rapidly add to the double bonds of acrolein, methyl vinyl ketone, and certain of their derivatives in THF at 25°C to give enol borinates, which can be hydrolyzed to aldehydes or ketones.[725] The water may be present from the beginning, so the reaction can be run in one laboratory step. Since the boranes can be prepared from alkenes (15-16), this reaction provides a means of lengthening a carbon chain by three or four carbons, respectively. Compounds containing a terminal alkyl group, such as crotonaldehyde ($CH_3CH{=}CHCHO$) and 3-penten-2-one, fail to react under these conditions, as does acrylonitrile, but these compounds can be induced to react by the slow and controlled addition of O_2 or by initiation with peroxides or UV light.[726] A disadvantage is that only one of the three R groups



70

of R_3B adds to the substrate, so that the other two are wasted. This difficulty is overcome by the use of a |3-alkyl borinate such as 70,[727] which can be prepared as shown. Compound 70 (R = *tert*-butyl) can be made by treatment of 70 (R = OMe) with *t*-BuLi. The use of this reagent permits *tert*-butyl groups to be added. (3-1-Alkenyl-9-BBN compounds β-RCH=CR′-9-BBN (prepared by treatment of alkynes with 9-BBN or of RCH=CR'Li with β-methoxy-9-BBN[728]) add to methyl vinyl ketones to give, after hydrolysis, y,5-unsaturated ketones,[729] though β-R-9-BBN, where R = a saturated group, are not useful here, because the R group of these reagents does not preferentially add to the substrate.[726] The corresponding (3-1-alkynyl-9-BBN compounds also give the reaction.[730] Like the three substrates mentioned above, 3-butyn-2-one fails to react in the absence of air but undergoes the reaction when exposed to a slow stream of air:[731]



71 72

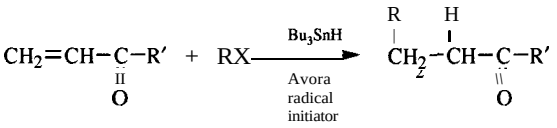
Since the product, 71, is an α,β-unsaturated ketone, it can be made to react with another BR_3, the same or different, to produce a wide variety of ketones (72).

Vinyl boranes add to conjugated ketones in the presence of a rhodium catalyst (with high asymmetric induction in the presence of BINAP).[732] Alkynyl-boranes also add to conjugated ketones, in the presence of BF_3.[733]

The fact that these reactions are catalyzed by free-radical initiators and inhibited by galvinoxyl (a free-radical inhibitor)[734] indicates that free-radical mechanisms are involved.

15-26 *The Addition of Tin and Mercury Hydrides to Activated Double Bonds*

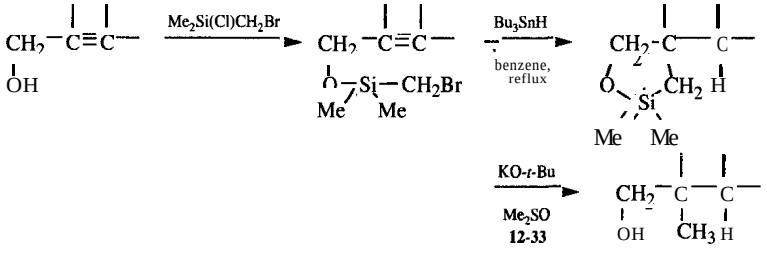
HYDRO-ALKYL-ADDITION



In a reaction similar to **15-25,** alkyl groups can be added to alkenes activated by such groups as COR', COOR', CN, and even Ph.[735] In the method illustrated above, the R group comes from an alkyl halide (R = primary, secondary, or tertiary alkyl; X = Br or I) and the hydrogen from the tin hydride. Organomercury hydrides (RHgH), generated *in situ* from RHgX and $NaBH_4$, can also be used.[736] When the tin method is used, Bu_3SnH can also be generated in a similar way, from R_3SnX and $NaBH_4$. The tin method has a broader scope (e.g., it can be used on $CH_2{=}CCl_2$), but the mercury method uses milder reaction conditions. Like **15-25,** these additions have free-radical mechanisms. The reaction has been used for free-radical cyclizations of the type discussed on page 978.[737] Such cyclizations normally give predominant formation of 15-membered rings, but large rings (11–20 members) have also been synthesized by this reaction.[738]

Free-radical addition of an aryl group and a hydrogen has been achieved by treatment of activated alkenes with a diazonium salt and $TiCl_3$.[739]

In a related reaction, a methylgroup and a hydrogen can be added indirectly to the double bond of an otherwise unactivated allylic alcohol in this manner:[740]

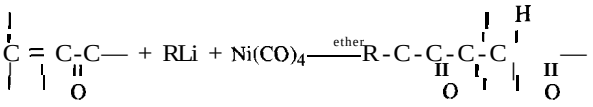


This procedure has been used to introduce angular methyl groups (methyl groups at the bridgeheads of fused rings).[741]

OS **VII,** 105.

15-27 *Acylation of Activated Double Bonds and of Triple Bonds*

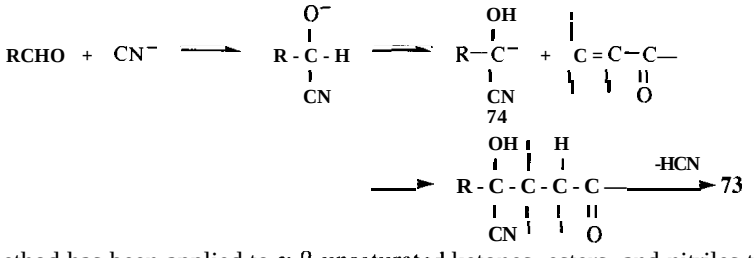
HYDRO-ACYL-ADDITION



73

An acyl group can be introduced into the 4 position of an α,β-unsaturated ketone by treatment with an organolithium compound and nickel carbonyl.[742] The product is a 1,4-diketone (73). The R group may be aryl or primary alkyl. The reaction can also be applied to alkynes, which need not be activated, in which case 2 mol add and the product is also a 1,4-diketone, (e.g., $R'C{\equiv}CH \rightarrow RCOCHR'CH_2COR$.[743] In a different procedure, α,β-unsaturated ketones and aldehydes are acylated by treatment at −110°C with $R_2(CN)CuLi_2$ and CO. This method is successful for R = primary, secondary, and tertiary alkyl.[744] For secondary and tertiary groups, R(CN)CuLi (which does not waste an R group) can be used instead.[745]

Another method involves treatment with an aldehyde and cyanide ion (see **16-51**) in a polar aprotic solvent such as DMF or Me_2SO.[746]



This method has been applied to α,β-unsaturated ketones, esters, and nitriles to give the corresponding 1,4-diketones, γ-keto esters, and γ-keto nitriles, respectively (see also **16-54**). The ion **74** is a synthon for the unavailable $R^{\theta}C{=}O$ anion (see also p. 553); it is a masked $R^{\theta}C{=}O$ anion. Other masked carbanions that have been used in this reaction are the $RC^{\theta}(CN)NR$ ion,[747] the $EtSC^{\theta}RSOEt$ ion[748] (see p. 553), the $CH_2{=}C^{\theta}OEt$ ion,[749] $CH_2{=}C(OEt)Cu_2Li$,[750] $CH_2{=}CMe(SiMe_3)$,[750] and the $RC^{\theta}(OCHMeOEt)CN$ ion[751] (see p. 557). In the last case, best results are obtained when R is a vinylic group. Anions of 1,3-dithianes (**10-107**) do not give 1,4 addition to these substrates (except in the presence of HMPA, see **15-24**) but add 1,2 to the C=O group instead (**16-41**).

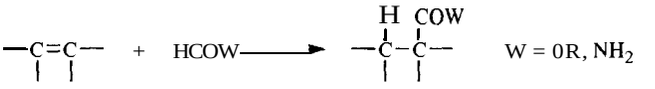
In another procedure, acyl radicals derived from phenyl selenoesters ArCOSePh (by treatment of them with Bu_3SnH) add to α,β-unsaturated esters and nitriles to give γ-keto esters and γ-keto nitriles, respectively.[752]

OS **VI,** 866; **VIII,** 620.

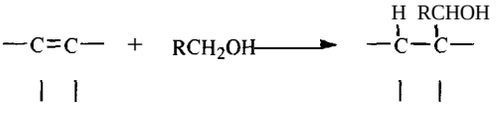
15-28 *Addition of Alcohols, Amines, Carboxylic Esters, Aldehydes, and so on*

HYDRO-ACYL-ADDITION, AND SO ON

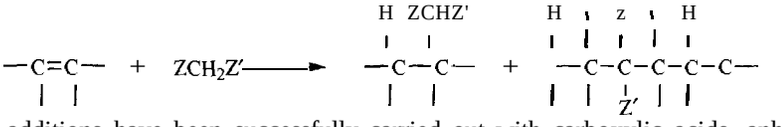
Aldehydes, formates, primary, and secondary alcohols, amines, ethers, alkyl halides, compounds of the type Z—CH2—Z′, and a few other compounds add to double bonds in the presence of free-radical initiators.[753] This is formally the addition of RH to a double bond, but the "R" is not just any carbon but one connected to an oxygen or a nitrogen, a halogen, or to two Z groups (defined as on p. 548). The addition of aldehydes is illustrated above. Formates and formamides[754] add similarly:



Alcohols, ethers, amines, and alkyl halides add as follows (shown for alcohols):

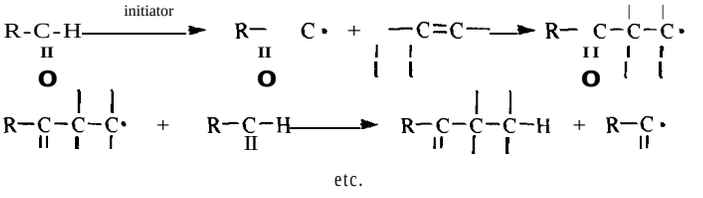


The ZCH2Z′ compounds react at the carbon bearing the active hydrogen:[755]



Similar additions have been successfully carried out with carboxylic acids, anhydrides,[756] acyl halides, carboxylic esters, nitriles, and other types of compounds.[757]

These reactions are not successful when the alkene contains electron-withdrawing groups such as halo or carbonyl groups. A free-radical initiator is required,[758] usually peroxides or UV light. The mechanism is illustrated for aldehydes but is similar for the other compounds:



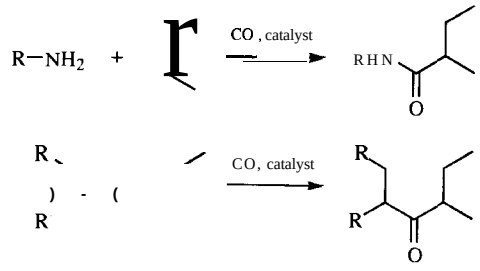
Polymers are often side products. Photochemical addition of aldehyde to conjugated C=C units can be efficient when a triplet sensitizer (p. 316) such as benzophenone is used.[759]

Similar reactions have been carried out on acetylene.[760] Aldehydes add to alkynes in the presence of a rhodium catalyst to give conjugated ketones.[761] In a cyclic version of the addition of aldehydes, 4-pentenal was converted to cyclopentanone with a rhodium-complex catalyst.[762] In the presence of a palladium catalyst, a tosylamide group added to an alkene unit to generate *N*-tosylpyrrolidine derivatives.[763]

OS IV, 430; V, 93; VI, 587, 615.

15-29 *Carbonylation of double and Triple Bonds*

ALKYL OR AMINO-CARBONYL-ADDITION



In the presence of certain metal catalysts, alkenes and alkynes can be carbonylated or carboxylated. An intramolecular carbonylation converted an alkene-alkyne to a bicyclic conjugated ketone.[764] Reaction of a molecule containing an amine and an alkene unit was carboxylated with CO in the presence of a palladium catalyst to give a lactam.[765] A similar reaction with a molecule containing an amine and an alkyne also generated a lactam, in the presence of CO and a rhodium catalyst.[766]

15-30 *Hydrocarboxylation*

HYDRO-CARBOXY-ADDITION

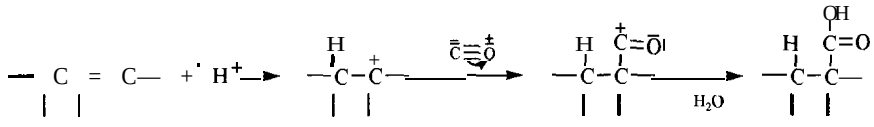
The acid-catalyzed hydrocarboxylation of alkenes (the *Koch reaction)* can be performed in a number of ways.[767] In one method, the alkene is treated with carbon monoxide and water at 100-350°C and 500-1000 atm pressure with a mineral-acid catalyst. However, the reaction can also be performed under milder conditions. If the alkene is first treated with CO and catalyst, and then water is added, the reaction can be accomplished at 0-50°C and 1-100 atm. If formic acid is used as the source of both the CO and the water, the reaction can be carried out at room temperature and atmospheric pressure.[768] The formic acid procedure is called the *Koch-Haaf reaction* (the Koch-Haaf reaction can also be applied to alcohols, see **10-113).** Nearly all alkenes can be hydrocarboxylated by one or more of these procedures. However, conjugated dienes are polymerized instead. Hydrocarboxylation can also be accomplished under mild conditions (160°C and 50 atm) by the use of nickel carbonyl as catalyst. This is more often applied to triple bonds to give α,β-unsaturated acids, in which cases the conditions are milder still. Acid catalysts are used along with the nickel carbonyl, but basic catalysts can also be employed.[769] Other metallic salts and complexes, for example, bis(triphenylphosphine)palladium dichloride, $(Ph_3P)_2PdCl_2$,[770] have also been used. This has been done enantioselectively, with moderate-to-high optical yields, by the use of an optically active palladium-complex catalyst.[771] Dienes react with Cp_2TiCl_2/RMgCl and then with Me_2NCOCl to give amides.[772] In the presence of formic acid, CO, and palladium

acids can similarly be formed.[773] Alkenes also react with $Fe(CO)_5$ and CO to give carboxylic acids.[774]

Triple bonds give unsaturated acids and saturated dicarboxylic acids when treated with carbon dioxide and an electrically reduced nickel complex catalyst.[775] Alkynes also react with $NaHFe(CO)_4$, followed by $CuCl_2{\cdot}2\ H_2O$, to give alkenyl-acid derivatives.[776] A related reaction with CO and palladium catalysts in the presence of $SnCl_2$ also leads to conjugated acid derivatives.[777]

With any method, if the alkene contains a functional group such as OH, NH_2, or $CONH_2$, the corresponding lactone (10-23), lactam (10-57), or cyclic imide may be the product.[778] Amines add to allenes, in the presence of CO and a palladium catalyst, to form conjugated amides.[779] Hept-6-en-2-one reacts with $Cp_2Ti(PMe_3)_2$, in the presence of C, to give a bicyclic lactone, for example.[780] When 2-allylphenol reacts with CO/H_2, in the presence of a palladium catalyst, the product is also a bicyclic lactone.[781] Allylic alcohols generate lactones in the presence of CO and a ruthenium catalyst.[782] Benzylic alcohols add to alkynes in the presence of rhodium catalysts and CO to give lactones.[783]

When acid catalysts are employed, in the absence of nickel carbonyl, the mechanism[784] involves initial attack by a proton, followed by attack of the resulting carbocation on carbon monoxide to give an acyl cation, which, with water, gives the product:



Therefore, Markovnikov's rule is followed, and carbon skeleton rearrangements and double-bond isomerizations (prior to attack by CO) are frequent.

For the nickel carbonyl reaction, the addition is syn for both alkenes and alkynes.[785] The following is the accepted mechanism:[785]

Step 1 $Ni(CO)_4 \longrightarrow Ni(CO)_3 + CO$

Step 2 $-C{=}C- + Ni(CO)_3 \longrightarrow -C(-Ni(CO)_3)-C-$

Step 3 $-C(-Ni(CO)_3)-C- + H^+ \longrightarrow -C(H)-C(-Ni(CO)_3)-$

Step 4 $-C(H)-C(-Ni(CO)_3)- \longrightarrow -C(H)-C(-C(=O)-Ni(CO)_2)-$

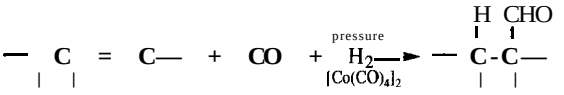
Step 5 $-C(H)-C(-C(=O)-Ni(CO)_2)- \xrightarrow{H_2O} -C(H)-C(-C(=O)-OH)-$

Step 3 is an electrophilic substitution. The principal step of the mechanism, step 4, is a rearrangement.

In either the acid catalysis or the nickel carbonyl (or other metallic catalyst) method, if alcohols, thiols, amines, etc. are used instead of water, the product is the corresponding ester, thiol ester, or amide, instead of the carboxylic acid.

15-31 *Hydroformylation*

HYDRO-FORMYL-ADDITION



Alkenes can be hydroformylated[786] by treatment with carbon monoxide and hydrogen over a catalyst. The most common catalysts are cobalt carbonyls and rhodium complexes [e.g., hydridocarbonyltris(triphenylphosphine)rhodium],[787] but other transition metal compounds have also been used. Cobalt catalysts are less active than the rhodium type, and catalysts of other metals are less active still.[788] Commercially, this is called the *oxo process*, but it can be carried out in the laboratory in an ordinary hydrogenation apparatus. The order of reactivity is straigh t-chain terminal alkenes > straight-chain internal alkenes > branched-chain alkenes. With terminal alkenes, for example, the aldehyde unit is formed on both the primary and secondary carbon, but proper choice of catalyst and additive leads to selectivity for the secondary product[789] or primary product.[790] Conjugated dienes give dialdehydes when rhodium catalysts are used[791] but saturated monoaldehydes (the second double bond is reduced) with cobalt carbonyls. The 1,4- and 1,5-dienes may give cyclic ketones.[792] Many functional groups (e.g., OH, CHO, COOR, CN) can be present in the molecule, though halogens usually interfere. Cyclization to prolinal derivatives has been reported with allylic amines.[793] Hydroformylation of triple bonds proceeds very slowly, and few examples have been reported.[794] Good yields for hydroformylation have been reported using rhodium catalysts in the presence of certain other additives.[795] Among the side reactions are the aldol reaction (16-38), acetal formation, the Tishchenko reaction (19-61), and polymerization. Stereoselective syn addition has been reported.[796] Asymmetric hydroformylation has been accomplished with a chiral catalyst,[797] and in the presence of chiral additives.[798]

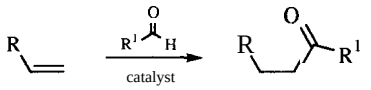
When dicobalt octacarbonyl, $[Co(CO)_4]_2$, is the catalyst, the species that actually adds to the double bond is tricarbonylhydrocobalt, $HCo(CO)_3$.[799] Carbonylation, $RCo(CO)_3 + CO \rightarrow RCo(CO)_4$, takes place, followed by a rearrangement and a reduction of the C—Co bond, similar to steps 4 and 5 of the nickel carbonyl mechanism shown in 15-30. The reducing agent in the reduction step is tetracarbonylhydrocobalt $HCo(CO)_4$,[800] or, under some conditions, H_2.[801] When $HCo(CO)_4$ was the agent used to hydroformylate styrene, the observation of CIDNP indicated that the mechanism is different, and involves free radicals.[802] Alcohols can be obtained by allowing the reduction to continue after all the carbon monoxide is

used up. It has been shown[803] that the formation of alcohols is a second step, occurring after the formation of aldehydes, and that $HCo(CO)_3$ is the reducing agent.

OS VI, 338.

15-32 *Addition of Aldehydes*

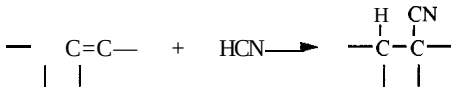
ALKYL-CARBONYL-ADDITION



In the presence of metal catalysts such as rhodium compounds,[804] aldehydes can add directly to alkenes to form ketones. The reaction of ω-alkenyl aldehydes with rhodium catalyst leads to cyclic ketones,[805] with high enantioselectivity if chiral ligands are employed. Aldehydes also add to vinyl esters in the presence of hyponitrites and thioglycolates.[806]

15-33 *Addition of HCN*

HYDRO-CYANO-ADDITION



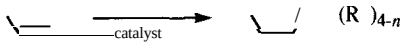
Ordinary alkenes do not react with HCN, but polyhalo alkenes and alkenes of the form C=C–Z add HCN to give nitriles.[807] The reaction is therefore a nucleophilic addition and is base catalyzed. When Z is COR or, more especially, CHO, 1,2 addition **(16-52)** is an important competing reaction and may be the only reaction. Triple bonds react very well when catalyzed by an aqueous solution of CuCl, NH4C1, and HC1 or by Ni or Pd compounds.[808] The HCN can be generated *in situ* from acetone cyanohydrin (see **16-51),** avoiding the use of the poisonous HCN.[809] We can add 1 or 2 mol of HCN to a triple bond, since the initial product is a Michael-type substrate. Acrylonitrile is commercially prepared this way, by the addition of HCN to acetylene. Alkylaluminum cyanides (e.g., Et_2AlCN) or mixtures of HCN and trialkylalanes R_3Al are especially good reagents for conjugate addition of HCN[810] to α,β-unsaturated ketones and α,β-unsaturated acyl halides. Hydrogen cyanide can be added to ordinary alkenes in the presence of dicobalt octacarbonyl[811] or certain other transition metal compounds.[812] An indirect method for the addition of HCN to ordinary alkenes uses an isocyanide RNC and Schwartz's reagent (see **15-17**); this method gives anti-Markovnikov addition.[813] *tert*-Butyl isocyanide and $TiCl_4$ have been used to add HCN to C=C–Z alkenes.[814] Pretreatment with NaI/Me_3SiCl followed by CuCN converts alkynes to vinyl nitriles.[815]

OS I, 451; II, 498; **III,** 615; IV, 392, 393, 804; V, 239, 572; VI, 14.

For addition of ArH, see **11-12** (Friedel-Crafts alkylation).

15-34 *Addition of Silanes*

SILYL-HYDRO-ADDITION

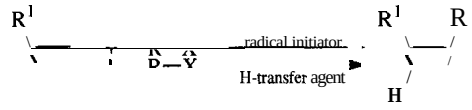


Dienes react with zirconium compounds and silanes to produce cyclic compounds in which the silyl group has also added to one C=C unit.[816] Other catalysts such as $Cp_2Y[CH(TMS)_2]$ also allow silanes to add to alkenes, with high anti-Markovnikov selectivity.[817] Silanes add to alkynes in the presence of BEt_3 to give the corresponding vinyl silane.[818] Rhodium compounds allow silanes to add to enamides to give the α-silylamide.[819] Allylsilanes add to certain allylic alcohols in the presence of Me_3SiOTf, via a S_N2' like reaction, to give dienes.[820] Silanes also add to alkenes under radical conditions (using AIBN) with high anti-Markovnikov selectivity.[821]

Vinyl silanes add to conjugated carbonyl compounds in the presence of a ruthenium catalyst.[822]

15-35 *Radical Addition*[*23]

ALKYL-HYDRO-ADDITION



Radical addition to alkenes is usually difficult, except when addition occurs to conjugated carbonyl compounds (15-21). An important exception involves radicals bearing a heteroatom α to the carbon bearing the radical center. These radical are much more stable and can add to alkenes, usually with anti-Markovnikov orientation, as in the radical induced addition of HBr to alkenes (**15-2**).[824] Examples of this type of reaction include the use of alcohol-, ester-,[825] amino-, and aldehyde-stabilized radicals.[324] The radical generated from $(EtO)_2POCH_2Br$ adds to alkenes to generate a new phosphonate ester.[826] Other radicals can add to alkenes. The rate constant for the addition of methyl radicals to alkenes has been studied,[827] and the rate of radical additions to alkenes in general has also been studied.[828] Alkynes are generally less reactive than alkenes in radical coupling reactions.[829] Nonradical nucleophiles usually react faster with alkynes than with alkenes, however.[830]

15-36 *Radical Cyclization*[831]

ALKYL-HYDRO-ADDITION

ω-Haloalkenes generate radicals upon treatment with reagents such as AIBN, or under photolysis conditions,[832] and the radical carbon adds to the alkene to form cyclic compounds.[833] A mixture of a Grignard reagent and $CoCl_2$ has also been used to initiate aryl radical cyclizations.[834] A hydrogen-transfer agent[835] is usually required to quench the radical reaction, and reduction of the halogen may be faster than the cyclization process. Radical rearrangements can also diminish the yield of the desired product.[836] Given a choice between a larger and a smaller ring, radical cyclization generally gives the smaller ring,[837] but not always.[838] Electrochemically generated radicals also cyclize.[839]

Both phenylthio and phenylseleno groups can be used as "leaving groups" for radical cyclization, where sulfur or selenium atom transfer leads to formation of the radical. Radical cyclization reaction often proceeds with high diastereoselectivity and high asymmetric induction when chiral precursors are used. Internal alkynes are good substrates for radical cyclization,[840] but terminal alkynes tend to give mixtures of *exo:endo-dig* products (p. 282).[841] N-alkenyl pyridinium salts, with ortho-halogen substituents generate the aryl radical with Bu_3SnH/AIBN, which cyclizes on the pedant alkene unit.[842] Cyclization of vinyl radicals[843] and allenyl radicals[844] are also well known. Ring expansion during radical cyclization is possible when the terminal intermediate is a cyclobutylcarbinyl radical.[845] In radical cyclization to form large rings, 1,5- and 1,9-hydrogen atom abstractions can pose a problem[846]

Radical cyclization is compatible with the presence of other functional groups. Treatment of $XCH_2CON(R)-C(R^1)=CH_2$ derivatives (X = Cl, Br, I) with Ph3SnH and AIBN led to formation of a lactam via radical cyclization.[847] Cyclization of *N*-iodoethyl-5-vinyl-2-pyrrolidinone led to the corresponding bicyclic lactam,[848] and there are other examples of radical cyclization with molecules containing a lactam unit[849] or an amide unit.[850] Radical cyclization occurs with enamines as well.[851] Photochemical irradiation of *N,N*-diallyl acrylamide leads to formation of a lactam ring, and in this case thiophenol was added to generate the phenylthio derivative.[852] Phenylseleno N-allylamines lead to cyclic amines.[853] ω-Iodo acrylate esters cyclize to form lactones.[854]

Acyl radicals can be generated and they cyclize in the usual manner. A polyene-cyclization reaction generated four rings, initiating the sequence by treatment of a phenylseleno ester with Bu_3SnH/AIBN to form the acyl radical, which added to the first alkene unit.[855] The newly formed carbon radical added to the next alkene, and so on. Acyl radicals generated from Ts(R)NCOSePh derivatives cyclize to form lactams.[856]

The attacking radical need not always be at carbon. Amidyl radical are known and give cyclization reactions.[857] Aminyl radical cyclizations have been reported.[858] Oxygen radical can be generated under photochemical conditions, and they add to alkenes in a normal manner.[859]

In cases where hydrogen atom transfer gives primarily reduced products, Bu_3Sn-$SnBu_3$ under photochemical generates the radical that can cyclize, but a halogen atom transfer agent such as iodoethane is usually present (see 15-44).

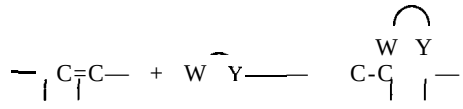
The compound ArX can be added across double bonds, in a free-radical process, by treatment of alkenes with diazonium salts, although Meerwein arylation (substi-

tution) (14-18) competes.[860] This addition can be either 1,2 or 1,4 with conjugated dienes.[861] Addition of ArX can also be accomplished by treatment with an arylmercury halide ArHgX in the presence of CuX_2, LiX, and a palladium compound catalyst, usually Li_2PdCl_4.[862] In this case also, substitution (14-19) is a side reaction. Yields of addition product are increased by increasing the concentration of CuX_2. Palladium compounds also catalyze the addition of allylic halides to alkynes.[863]

Radicals are known to open cyclopropane derivatives, although high dilution techniques are often required. The three-membered ring is opened as the new ring forms, generating a new methyl group.[864]

Reactions in Which Hydrogen Adds to Neither Side

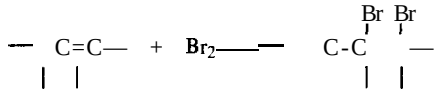
Some of these reactions are *cycloadditions* (Reactions **15-48**, **15-49**, 15-53, and 15-56-15-64). In such cases addition to the multiple bond closes a ring:



A. *Halogen on One or Both Sides*

15-37 *Halogenation of Double and Triple Bonds (Addition of Halogen, Halogen)*

DIHALO-ADDITION



Most double bonds are easily halogenated[865] with bromine, chlorine, or interhalogen compounds.[866] Substitution can compete with addition in some cases.[867] Iodination has also been accomplished, but the reaction is slower.[868] Under free-radical conditions, iodination proceeds more easily.[869] However, *vic*-diiodides are generally unstable and tend to revert to iodine and the alkene. The order of activity for some of the reagents is $BrCl > ICl$[870] $> Br_2 > IBr > I_2$.[871] Mixed halogenations have also been achieved by other methods. Mixtures of Br_2 and Cl_2 have been used to give bromochlorination,[872] as has tetrabutylammonium dichlorobromate (Bu_4NBrCl_2);[873] iodochlorination has been achieved with $KICl_2$,[874] $CuCl_2$, and either I_2, HI, or CdI_2; iodofluorination[875] with mixtures of AgF and I_2;[876] and mixtures of N-bromo amides in anhydrous HF give bromofluorination.[877] Bromo-, iodo-, and chlorofluorination have also been achieved by treatment of the substrate with a solution of Br_2, I_2, or an N-halo amide in polyhydrogen fluoride-pyridine;[878] while

addition of I along with Br, Cl, or F has been accomplished with the reagent bis(pyridine)iodo(I) tetrafluoroborate, $I(Py)_2BF_4$, and Br^-, Cl^-, or F^-, respectively.[879] This reaction (which is also successful for triple bonds[880]) can be extended to addition of I and other nucleophiles (e.g., NCO, OH, OAc, and NO_2).[879]

Under ordinary conditions fluorine itself is too reactive to give simple addition; it attacks other bonds and mixtures are obtained.[881] However, F_2 has been successfully added to certain double bonds in an inert solvent at low temperatures (−78°C), usually by diluting the F_2 gas with Ar or N_2.[882] Addition of fluorine has also been accomplished with other reagents (e.g., *p*-Tol— IF_2/Et_3N·5 HF)[883] and a mixture of PbO_2 and SF_4.[884]

The reaction with bromine is very rapid and is easily carried out at room temperature, although the reaction is reversible under some conditions. In the case of bromine, an alkene·Br_2 complex has been detected in at least one case.[887] Bromine is often used as a test, qualitative or quantitative, for unsaturation.[888] The vast majority of double bonds can be successfully brominated. Even when aldehyde, ketone, amine, so on functions are present in the molecule, they do not interfere, since the reaction with double bonds is faster.

Several other reagents add Cl_2 to double bonds, among them Me_3SiCl–MnO_2,[889] $NaClO_2$/Mn(acac)$_2$/moist Al_2O_3,[890] $BnNEt_3MnO_4$/Me_3SiCl,[891] and $KMnO_4$–oxalyl chloride.[892] A convenient reagent for the addition of Br_2 to a double bond on a small scale is the commercially available pyridinium bromide perbromide $C_5H_5NH^+Br_3^-$.[893] A mixture of decylNMe_3MnO_4 and Me_3SiBr is also an effective reagent.[894] Either Br_2 or Cl_2 can also be added with $CuBr_2$ or $CuCl_2$ in the presence of a compound such as acetonitrile, methanol, or triphenylphosphine.[895]

The mechanism is usually electrophilic (see p. 972), but when free-radical initiators (or UV light) are present, addition can occur by a free-radical mechanism.[896] Once Br· or Cl· radicals are formed, however, substitution may compete (**14-1** and 14-2). This is especially important when the alkene has allylic hydrogens. Under free-radical conditions (UV light) bromine or chlorine adds to the benzene ring to give, respectively, hexabromo- and hexachlorocyclohexane. These are mixtures of stereoisomers (see p. 161).[897]

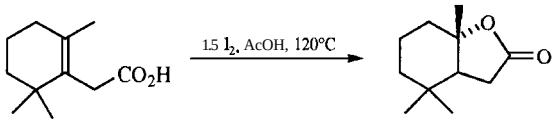
Conjugated systems give both 1,2 and 1,4 addition.[897] Triple bonds add bromine, though generally more slowly than double bonds (see p. 981). Molecules that contain both double and triple bonds are preferentially attacked at the double bond. Bromine (2 mol) can be added to triple bonds to give tetrabromo products. There is evidence that the addition of the first mole of bromine to a triple bond may take place by a nucleophilic mechanism.[898] Iodine on Al_2O_3 adds to triple bonds to give good yields of 1,2-diiodoalkenes.[899] A mixture of $NaBO_3$ and NaBr adds two bromine atoms across a triple bond.[900] With allenes it is easy to stop the reaction after only 1 mol has added, to give X—C—CX=C.[901] Addition of halogen to ketenes gives α-halo acyl halides, but the yields are not good.

OS I, 205, 521; **II,** 171, 177, 270, 408; **III,** 105, 123, 127, 209, 350, 526, 531, 731, 785; IV, 130, 195, 748, 851, 969; V, 136, 370, 403, 467; VI, 210, 422, 675, 862, 954; IX, 117; 76, 159.

15-38 *Halolactonization and Halolactamization*

HALO-ALKOXYLATION

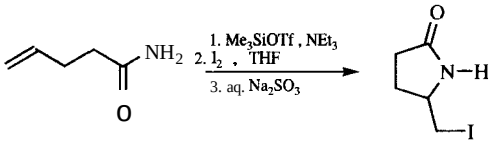
An internal example of the addition of X and OCOR is called *halolactonization.*[902] A typical example is[903]



The most common version of this reaction is known as *iodolactonization*,[904] but bromo lactones and, to a lesser extent, chloro lactones, have also been prepared. In general, addition of the halogen to an alkenyl acid, as shown, leads to the halolactone. Other reagents include $I^+(collidine)_2PF_6^-$,[905] KI/sodium persulfate.[906] Thallium reagents, along with the halogen, have also been used.[907] When done in the presence of a chiral titanium reagent, I_2, and CuO, lactones are formed with good enantioselectivity.[908]

In the case of γ,δ-unsaturated acids, five-membered rings (γ-lactones) are predominantly formed (as shown above; note that Markovnikov's rule is followed), but six-membered and even four-membered lactones have also been made by this procedure. There is a *gem*- dimethyl effect that favors formation of 7–11 membered ring lactones by this procedure.[909]

Formation of halo-lactams by a similar procedure is difficult, but the problems have been overcome. Formation of a triflate followed by treatment with iodine leads to the iodo-lactam, for example[910]

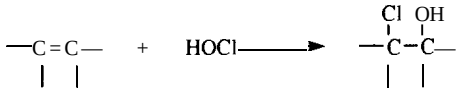


A related cyclization of N-sulfonyl-amino-alkenes and NBS gave the bromo-lactam,[911] and a dichloro-*N,N*-bisallylamide was converted to a dichloro-lactam with $FeCl_2$.[912]

OS IX, 516

15-39 *Addition of Hypohalous Acids and Hypohalites (Addition of Halogen, Oxygen)*

HYDROXY-CHLORO-ADDITION, AND SO ON[913]



The compounds HOCl, HOBr, and HOI can be added to alkenes[914] to produce halohydrins.[915] Both HOBr and HOCl are often generated *in situ* by the reaction between H_2O and Br_2 or Cl_2, respectively. The HOI compound, generated from I_2 and H_2O, also adds to double bonds, if the reaction is carried out in tetramethylene sulfone–$CHCl_3$[916] or if an oxidizing agent such as HIO_3 is present.[917] Iodine and cerium sulfate in aqueous acetonitrile also generates iodohydrins,[918] as does $NaIO_4$ with sodium bisulfite.[919] The HOF compound has also been added, but this reagent is difficult to prepare in a pure state and *detonations occur.*[920] The HOBr compound can also be conveniently added by the use of a reagent consisting of an N-bromo amide (e.g., NBS or *N*-bromoacetamide) and a small amount of water in a solvent such as Me_2SO or dioxane.[921] An especially powerful reagent for HOCl addition is fen-butyl hydroperoxide (or di-*tert*-butyl peroxide) along with $TiCl_4$. This reaction is generally complete within 15 min at -78°C.[922] Chlorohydrins can be conveniently prepared by treatment of the alkene with Chloramine T ($TsNCl^-Na^+$)[923] in acetone-water.[924] The HOI compound can be added by treatment of alkenes with periodic acid and $NaHSO_3$.[925]

The mechanism of HOX addition is electrophilic, with initial attack by the positive halogen end of the HOX dipole. Following Markovnikov's rule, the positive halogen goes to the side of the double bond that has more hydrogens. The resulting carbocation (or bromonium or iodonium ion) reacts with OH^- or H_2O to give the product. If the substrate is treated with Br_2 or Cl_2 (or another source of positive halogen such as NBS) in an alcohol or a carboxylic acid solvent, it is possible to obtain, directly $X-\overset{|}{C}-\overset{|}{C}-OR$ or $X-\overset{|}{C}-\overset{|}{C}-OCOR$, respectively (see also **15-46**).[926] Even the weak nucleophile $CF_3SO_2O^-$ can participate in the second step: The addition of Cl_2 or Br_2 to alkenes in the presence of this ion resulted in the formation of some β-haloalkyl triflates.[927] There is evidence that the mechanism with Cl_2 and H_2O is different from that with HOCl.[928] Both HOCl and HOBr can be added to triple bonds to give dihalo carbonyl compounds $-CX_2-CO-$.

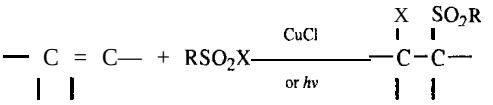
tert-Butyl hypochlorite (Me_3COCl), hypobromite, and hypoiodite[929] add to double bonds to give halogenated *tert*-butyl ethers, $X-C-C-OCMe_3$. This is a convenient method for the preparation of tertiary ethers. Iodine and ethanol convert some alkenes to iodo-ethers.[930] When Me_3COCl or Me_3COBr is added to alkenes in the presence of excess ROH, the ether produced is $X-\overset{|}{C}-\overset{|}{C}-OR$.[931] Vinylic ethers give β-halo acetals.[932] A mixture of Cl_2 and SO_3 at -78°C converts alkenes to 2-chloro chlorosulfates ($ClCHRCHROSO_2Cl$), which are stable compounds.[933] Chlorine acetate [solutions of which are prepared by treating Cl_2 with $Hg(OAc)_2$ in an appropriate solvent] adds to alkenes to give acetoxy chlorides.[934] Acetoxy fluorides have been obtained by treatment of alkenes with CH3COOF.[935]

For a method of iodoacetyl addition, see **15-46.**

OS I, 158; **IV,** 130, 157; **VI,** 184, 361, 560; **VII,** 164; **VIII, 5, 9.**

15-40 *Addition of Sulfur Compounds (Addition of Halogen, Sulfur)*

ALKYLSULFONYL-CHLORO-ADDITION, AND SO ON[936]

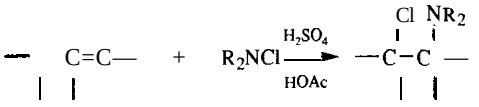


Sulfonyl halides add to double bonds, to give P-halo sulfones, in the presence of free-radical initiators or UV light. A particularly good catalyst is cuprous chloride.[937] Triple bonds behave similarly, to give β-halo-α,β-unsaturated sulfones.[938] In a similar reaction, sulfenyl chlorides, RSC1, give P-halo thioethers.[939] The latter may be free-radical or electrophilic additions, depending on conditions. The addition of MeS and Cl has also been accomplished by treating the alkene with Me_3SiCl and Me_2SO.[940] The use of Me_3SiBr and Me_2SO does not give this result; dibromides **(15-37)** are formed instead. β-Iodo thiocyanates can be prepared from alkenes by treatment with I_2 and isothiocyanatotributylstannane (Bu_3SnNCS).[941] Bromothiocyanation can be accomplished with Br_2 and thallium(I) thiocyanate.[942] β-Halo disulfides, formed by addition of arenethiosulfenyl chlorides to double-bond compounds, are easily converted to thiiranes by treatment with sodium amide or sodium sulfide.[943]

OS **VIII,** 212. See also OS **VII,** 251.

15-41 *Addition of Halogen and an Amino Group (Addition of Halogen, Nitrogen)*

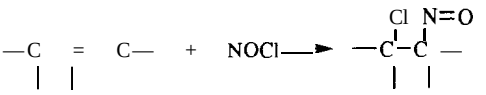
DIALKYLAMINO-CHLORO-ADDITION



The groups R_2N and Cl can be added directly to alkenes, allenes, conjugated dienes, and alkynes, by treatment with dialkyl-*N*-chloroamines and acids.[944] These are free-radical additions, with initial attack by the $R_2NH^{\cdot+}$ radical ion.[945] N-Halo amides (RCONHX) add RCONH and X to double bonds under the influence of UV light or chromous chloride.[946] Amines add to allenes in the presence of a palladium catalyst.[947]

15-42 *Addition of NOX and NO_2X (Addition of Halogen, Nitrogen)*

NITROSO-CHLORO-ADDITION



There are three possible products when NOCl is added to alkenes.[948] The initial product is always the p-halo nitroso compound, but these are stable only if the carbon bearing the nitrogen has no hydrogen. If it has, the nitroso compound tautomerizes to the *oxime*:

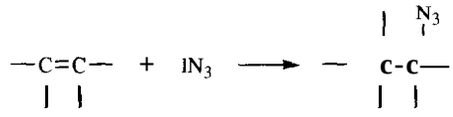
With some alkenes, the initial P-halo nitroso compound is oxidized by the NOCl to a P-halo nitro compound.[949] Many functional groups can be present without interference (e.g., COOH, COOR, CN, OR). The mechanism in most cases is probably simple electrophilic addition, and the addition is usually anti, though syn addition has been reported in some cases.[950] Markovnikov's rule is followed, the positive NO going to the carbon that has more hydrogens.

Nitryl chloride (NO_2Cl) also adds to alkenes, to give P-halo nitro compounds, but this is a free-radical process. The NO_2 goes to the less-substituted carbon.[951] Nitryl chloride also adds to triple bonds to give the expected 1-nitro-2-chloro alkenes.[952] The compound FNO_2 can be added to alkenes[953] by treatment with HF in HNO_3[954] or by addition of the alkene to a solution of nitronium tetrafluoroborate ($NO_2^+BF_4^-$, see **11-2)** in 70% polyhydrogen fluoride-pyridine solution[955] (see also **15-37).**

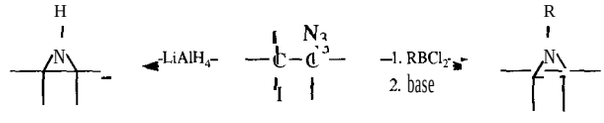
OS **IV,** 711; **V,** 266, 863.

15-43 *Addition of XN_3 (Addition of Halogen, Nitrogen)*

AZIDO-IODO-ADDITION



The addition of iodine azide to double bonds gives p-iodo azides.[956] The addition is stereospecific and anti, suggesting that the mechanism involves a cyclic iodonium ion intermediate.[957] The reaction has been performed on many double-bond compounds, including allenes[958] and α,β-unsaturated ketones. Similar reactions can be performed with BrN_3[959] and ClN_3. 1,4 Addition has been found with acyclic conjugated dienes.[960] In the case of BrN_3, both electrophilic and free-radical mechanisms are important,[961] while with ClN_3 the additions are chiefly free radical.[962] The compound IN_3 also adds to triple bonds to give β-iodo-α,β-unsaturated azides.[963]



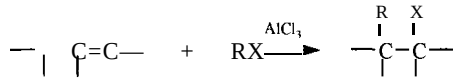
β-Iodo azides can be reduced to aziridines with $LiAlH_4$[964] or converted to N-alkyl- or N-arylaziridines by treatment with an alkyl- or aryldichloroborane fol-

lowed by a base.[965] In both cases the azide is first reduced to the corresponding amine (primary or secondary, respectively) and ring closure (10-44) follows.

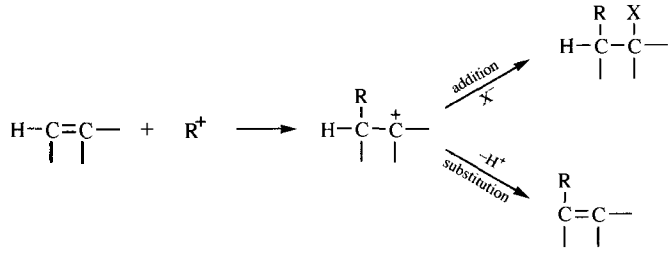
OS VI, 893.

15-44 *Addition of Alkyl Halides (Addition of Halogen, Carbon)*

ALKYL-HALO-ADDITION[654]

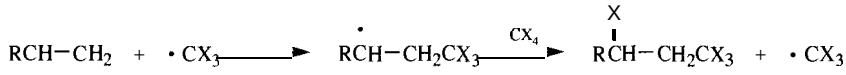


Alkyl halides can be added to alkenes in the presence of a Friedel–Crafts catalyst, most often $AlCl_3$.[966] The yields are best for tertiary R. Secondary R can also be used, but primary R give rearrangement products (as with 11-12). Methyl and ethyl halides, which cannot rearrange, give no reaction at all. The attacking species is the carbocation formed from the alkyl halide and the catalyst (see **11-12**).[967] The addition therefore follows Markovnikov's rule, with the cation going to the carbon with more hydrogens. Substitution is a side reaction, arising from loss of hydrogen from the carbocation formed when the original carbocation attacks the double bond:



Conjugated dienes can add 1,4.[968] Triple bonds also undergo the reaction, to give vinylic halides.[969]

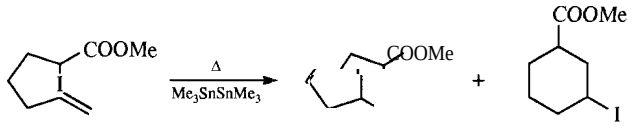
The compounds CCl_4, $BrCCl_3$, ICF_3, and similar simple polyhalo alkanes add to alkenes in good yield.[970] These are free-radical additions and require initiation, for example,[971] by peroxides, metal halides (e.g., $FeCl_2$, CuCl),[972] or UV light. The initial attack is by the carbon, and it goes to the carbon with more hydrogens, as in most free-radical attack:



This type of polyhalo alkane adds to halogenated alkenes in the presence of $AlCl_3$ by an electrophilic mechanism. This is called the *Prins reaction* (not to be confused with the other Prins reaction, 16-53).[973]

α-Iodolactone add to alkenes in the presence of BEt_3/O_2 to give the addition product.[974] Other α-iodoesters add under similar conditions to give the lactone.[975] Iodoesters also add to alkenes in the presence of BEt_3 to give iodo-esters that have not cyclized.[976]

A variant of the free-radical addition method has been used for ring closure. For example, treatment of 75 with the free-radical initiator hexamethylditin gave a mixture of *cis*- and *trans*-*76*, with a small amount of *cis*- and *trans*-**77** (total yield 83%).[977] The reaction has been performed with α-iodo esters, ketones, and malonates.



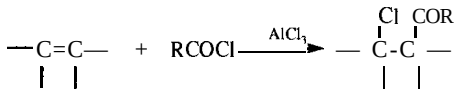
75 cis and trans 76 cis and trans **77**

For another method of adding R and I to a triple bond, see 15-23.

OS II, 312; IV, 727; V, 1076; VI, 21; VII, 290.

15-45 *Addition of Acyl Halides (Addition of Halogen, Carbon)*

ACYL-HALO-ADDITION



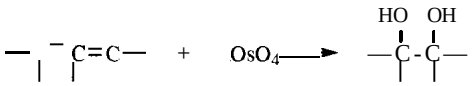
Acyl halides have been added to many alkenes, in the presence of Friedel–Crafts catalysts. The reaction has been applied to straight-chain, branched, and cyclic alkenes, but to very few containing functional groups, other than halogen.[978] The mechanism is similar to that of 15-44, and, as in that case, substitution competes (12-14). Increasing temperature favors substitution,[979] and good yields of addition products can be achieved if the temperature is kept under 0°C. The reaction usually fails with conjugated dienes, since polymerization predominates.[980] Iodo acetates have been formed from alkenes using iodine, $Pb(OAc)_2$ in acetic acid.[981] The reaction can be performed on triple-bond compounds, producing compounds of the form RCO—C=C—Cl.[982] *A fanny l* group and a halogen can be added to triple bonds by treatment with N,N-disubstituted formamides and $POCl_3$ (Vilsmeier conditions, see 11-15).[983]

OS IV, 186; VI, 883; VIII, 254.

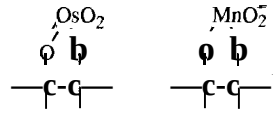
B. *Oxygen, Nitrogen, or Sulfur on One or Both Sides*

15-46 *Hydroxylation (Addition of Oxygen, Oxygen)*

DIHYDROXY-ADDITION



There are many reagents that add two OH groups to a double bond.[984] Osmium tetroxide (OsO_4)[985] and alkaline $KMnO_4$[986] give syn addition from the less-hindered side of the double bond. Less substituted double bonds are oxidized more rapidly than more substituted alkenes.[987] Osmium tetroxide adds rather slowly but almost quantitatively. The cyclic ester (78) is an intermediate and can be isolated,[988] but usually decomposed

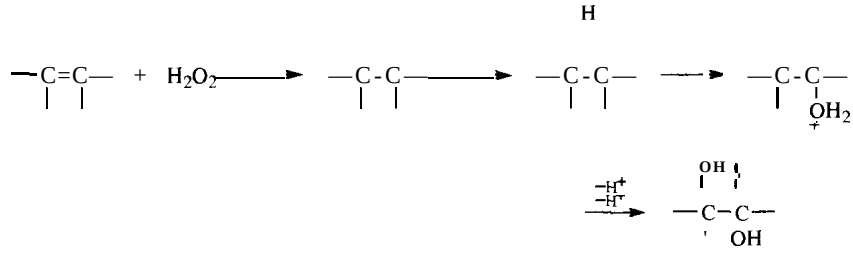


78 79

in solution, with sodium sufite in ethanol or other reagents. Bases catalyze the reaction by coordinating with the ester. The chief drawback to this reaction is that OsO_4 is expensive and highly toxic, so that its use has been limited to small-scale preparations of scarce materials. However, the same result (syn addition) can be accomplished more economically by the use of H_2O_2, with O_sO_4 present in catalytic amounts.[989] tert-Butyl hydroperoxide in alkaline solution,[990] *N*-methylmorpholine-*N*-oxide (NMO),[991] and $K_3Fe(CN)_6$ [992] have been substituted for H_2O_2 in this procedure. Another method uses polymer-bound OsO_4 [993] and OsO_4 has been microencapsulated and shown to give the diol in the presence of NMO.[994]

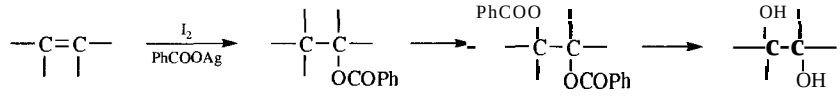
Potassium permanganate is a strong oxidizing agent and can oxidize the glycols[995] that are the products of this reaction (see 19-7 and 19-10). In acid and neutral solution it always does so; hence it is not feasible to prepare glycols in this manner. Glycols can be prepared with alkaline[996] permanganate, but the conditions must be mild. Even so, yields are seldom ~ 50%, though they can be improved with phase-transfer catalysis[997] or increased stirring.[998] The use of ultrasound with permanganate dihydroxylation has resulted in good yields of the diol.[999] There has been much speculation that, as with OsO_4, cyclic esters (79) are intermediates, and there is evidence for them.[1000] This reaction is the basis of the *Baeyer test* for the presence of double bonds.

Anti hydroxylation can be achieved by treatment with H_2O_2 and formic acid. In this case, epoxidation (15-48) occurs first, followed by an S_N2 reaction, which results in overall anti addition:



The same result can be achieved in one step with *m*-chloroperoxybenzoic acid and water.[1001] Overall anti addition can also be achieved by the method of Prévost. In

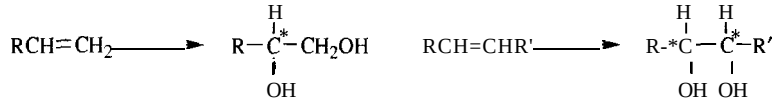
this method, the alkene is treated with iodine and silver benzoate in a 1:2 molar ratio. The initial addition is anti and results in a β-halo benzoate (80). These can be isolated, and this represents a method of addition of IOCOPh. However, under the normal reaction conditions, the iodine is replaced by a second PhCOO group. This is a nucleophilic substitution reaction, and it operates by the neighboring-group mechanism (p. 403), so the groups are still anti:



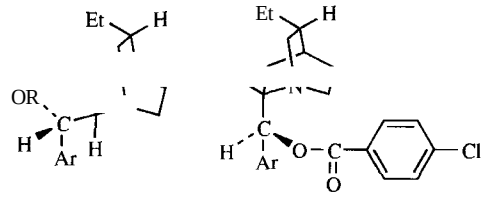
80

Hydrolysis of the ester does not change the configuration. Woodward's method is similar, but results in overall syn hydroxylation.[1002] The alkene is treated with iodine and silver acetate in a 1:1 molar ratio in acetic acid containing water. Here again, the initial product is a (3-halo ester; the addition is anti and a nucleophilic replacement of the iodine occurs. However, in the presence of water, neighboring-group participation is prevented or greatly decreased by solvation of the ester function, and the mechanism is the normal S_N2 process,[1003] so the monoacetate is syn and hydrolysis gives the glycol that is the product of overall syn addition. Although the Woodward method results in overall syn addition, the product may be different from that with OsO_4 or $KMnO_4$, since the overall syn process is from the more hindered side of the alkene.[1004] Both the Prevost and the Woodward methods[1005] have also been carried out in high yields with thallium(I) acetate and thallium(I) benzoate instead of the silver carboxylates.[1006]

With suitable substrates, addition of two OH groups creates either one or two new chiral centers:

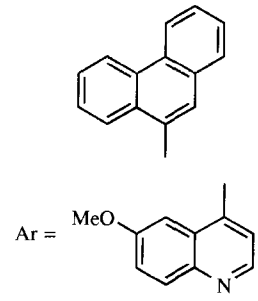


Addition to alkenes of the form RCH=CH2 has been made enantioselective, and addition to RCH=CHR'both diastereoselective[1007] enantioselective,[1008] by using optically active amines, such as 81, 82 (derivatives of the naturally occurring quinine



81
9′-Phenanthryl ether of dihydroquinidine

82
Dihydroquinine *p*-chlorobenzoate



and quinuclidine),[1009] along with OsO_4, in what is called *Sharpless asymmetric dihydroxylation*.[1010] Other chiral ligands[1011] have also been used, as well as polymer-[1012] and silica-bound[1013] *Cinchona* alkaloids. These amines bind to the OsO_4 *in situ* as chiral ligands, causing it to add asymmetrically.[1014] This has been done both with the stoichiometric and with the catalytic method.[1015] The catalytic method has been extended to conjugated dienes, which give tetrahydroxy products diastereoselectively,[1016] and to conjugated ketones.[1017] Asymmetric dihydroxylation has also been reported with chiral alkenes.[1018]

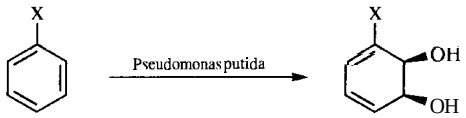
Ligands 81 and 82 not only cause enantioselective addition, but also accelerate the reaction, so that they may be useful even where enantioselective addition is not required.[1019] Although 81 and 82 are not enantiomers, they give enantioselective addition to a given alkene in the opposite sense; for example, styrene predominantly gave the *(R)* diol with 81, and the (S) diol with 82.[1020] Enantioselective and diastereoselective addition have also been achieved by using preformed derivatives of OsO_4, already containing chiral ligands,[1021] and by the use of OsO_4 on alkenes that have a chiral group elsewhere in the molecule.[1022]

Alkenes can also be oxidized with metallic acetates such as lead tetraacetate[1023] or thallium(III) acetate[1024] to give bis-acetates of glycols.[1025] Oxidizing agents such as benzoquinone, MnO_2, or $O2$, along with palladium acetate, have been used to convert conjugated dienes to l,4-diacetoxy-2-alkenes (1,4 addition).[1026]

OS II, 307; III, 217; IV, 317; V, 647; VI, 196, 342, 348;IX, 251, 383.

15-47 *Dihydroxylation of Aromatic Rings*

DIHYDROXY-ADDITION

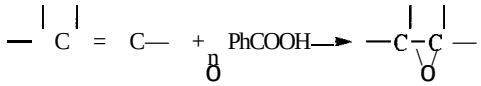


One π-bond of an aromatic ring can be converted to a cyclohexadiene 1,2-diol by reaction with enzymes associated with *P. putida*.[1027] A variety of substituted aromatic compounds can be oxidized, including bromobenzene, chlorobenzene,[1028] and toluene.[1029] In these latter cases, introduction of the hydroxyl groups generates a chiral molecule that can be used as a template for asymmetric syntheses.[1030]

OS 76, 77

15-48 *Epoxidation (Addition of Oxygen, Oxygen)*

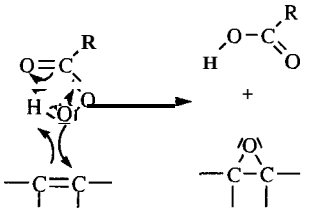
EPI-OXY-ADDITION



Alkenes can be epoxidized with any of a number of peroxyacids,[1031] of which *m*-chloroperoxybenzoic has been the most often used. The reaction, called the

Prilezhaev reaction, has wide utility.[1032] Alkyl, aryl, hydroxyl, ester, and other groups may be present, though not amino groups, since these are affected by the reagent. Electron-donating groups increase the rate, and the reaction is particularly rapid with tetraalkyl alkenes. Conditions are mild and yields are high. Other peroxyacids, especially peroxyacetic and peroxybenzoic, are also used; trifluoroperoxyacetic acid[1033] and 3,15-dinitroperoxybenzoic acid[1034] are particularly reactive ones.

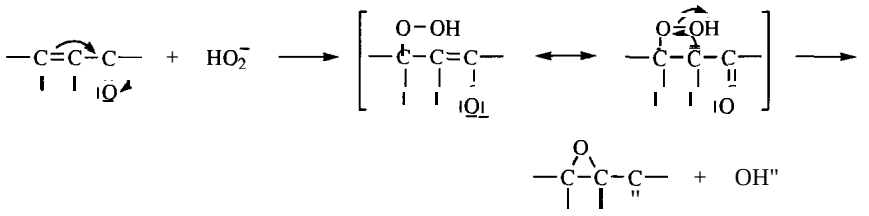
The following one-step mechanism[1035] was proposed by Bartlett:[1036]



Evidence for this mechanism is as follows:[1037] (1) The reaction is second order. If ionization were the rate-determining step, it would be first order in peroxyacid. (2) The reaction readily takes place in nonpolar solvents, where formation of ions is inhibited. (3) Measurements of the effect on the reaction rate of changes in the substrate structure show that there is no carbocation character in the transition state.[1038] (4) The addition is stereospecific (i.e., a trans alkene gives a trans epoxide and a cis alkene a cis epoxide) even in cases where electron-donating substituents would stabilize a hypothetical carbocation intermediate. However, where there is an OH group in the allylic or homoallylic position, the stereospecificity diminishes or disappears, with both cis and trans isomers giving predominantly or exclusively the product where the incoming oxygen is syn to the OH group. This probably indicates a transition state in which there is hydrogen bonding between the OH group and the peroxy acid.[1039]

Conjugated dienes can be epoxidized (1,2 addition), though the reaction is slower than for corresponding alkenes, but α,β-unsaturated ketones do not generally give epoxides when treated with peroxyacids.[1040] Conjugated ketones are oxidized to epoxy-ketones with DBU (p. 488) and *tert*-butyl hydroperoxide,[1041] with $NaBO_3$ and tetrahexylammonium hydrogen sulfate, [1042] $KF–Al_2O_3$/*tert*- butyl hydroperoxide,[1043] and treatment with diethylzinc, O_2, in the presence of a chiral amino-alcohol, gives the epoxy-ketone with high enantioselectivity.[1044] A Yb–BINOL complex, with r-BuOOH led to epoxidation of conjugated ketones with high asymmetric induction,[1045] as did a mixture of NaOCl and a *Cinchona* alkaloid.[1046] However, α,β-unsaturated esters react normally, to give glycidic esters.[1047] When a carbonyl group is in the molecule but not conjugated with the double bond, the Baeyer-Villiger reaction (18-19) may compete. Allenes[1048] are converted by peroxyacids to allene oxides[1049] or spiro dioxides, both of which species can in certain cases be isolated[1050] but more often are unstable under the reaction conditions and react further to give other products.[1051]

α,β-Unsaturated ketones (including quinones), aldehydes, and sulfones can be epoxidized with alkaline H_2O_2.[1052] This is a nucleophilic addition by a Michael-type mechanism, involving attack by HO_2^- :[1053]



α,β-Unsaturated carboxylic acids can be epoxidized with H_2O_2 and heteropoly acids,[1054] and α,β-unsaturated esters, amides, and sulfones with *t*- BuOOH and an alkyllithium in THF.[1055] Epoxides can also be prepared by treating alkenes with oxygen or with an alkyl peroxide,[1056] catalyzed by a complex of a transition metal such as V, Mo, Ti, or Co.[1057] The reaction with oxygen, which can also be carried out without a catalyst, is probably a free-radical process.[1058]

Allylic alcohols can be converted to epoxy-alcohols with tert-butylhydroperoxide on molecular sieves,[1059] or with peroxy acids.[1060] Epoxidation of allylic alcohols can also be done with high enantioselectivity. In the *Sharpless asymmetric epoxidation,*[1061] allylic alcohols are converted to optically active epoxides in better than 90% ee, by treatment with *t*-BuOOH, titanium tetraisopropoxide and optically active diethyl tartrate.[1062] The $Ti(OCHMe_2)_4$ and diethyl tartrate can be present in catalytic amounts (15-10mol %) if molecular sieves are present.[1063] Polymer-supported catalysts have also been reported.[1064] Since both (+) and (-) diethyl tartrate are readily available, and the reaction is stereospecific, either enantiomer of the product can be prepared. The method has been successful for a wide range of primary allylic alcohols, where the double bond is mono-, di-, tri-, and tetrasubstituted.[1065] This procedure, in which an optically active catalyst is used to induce asymmetry, has proved to be one of the most important methods of asymmetric synthesis, and has been used to prepare a large number of optically active natural products and other compounds. The mechanism of the Sharpless epoxidation is believed to involve attack on the substrate by a compound[1066] formed from the titanium alkoxide and the diethyl tartrate to produce a complex that also contains the substrate and the *t*-BuOOH.[1067]

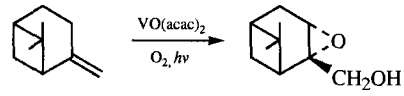
Ordinary alkenes (without an allylic OH group) have been enantioselectively epoxidized with sodium hypochlorite (commercial bleach) and an optically active manganese-complex catalyst.[1068] Variations of this oxidation use a manganese–salen complex with various oxidizing agents, in what is called the *Jacobsen-Katsuki reaction}*[069] Manganese porphyrin complexes have also been used.[1070] Cobalt complexes give similar results.[1071] A related epoxidation reaction used an iron complex with molecular oxygen and isopropanal.[1072] Nonracemic epoxides can be prepared from racemic epoxides with salen cobalt(II) catalysts following a modified procedure for kinetic resolution.[1073]

Many other reagents for converting alkenes to epoxides,[1074] including H_2O_2 and DCC,[1075] Oxone®,[1076] VO(*O*-isopropyl)$_3$ in liquid CO_2,[1077] polymer-supported cobalt (II) acetate and O2,[1078] and dimethyl dioxirane.[1079] This reagent is rather versatile, and converts methylene oxiranes to spiro-epoxides.[1080] One problem with dimethyloxirane is C—H insertion reactions rather than epoxidation.[1081] Magnesium monoperoxyphthalate[1082] is commercially available, and has been shown to be a good substitute for *m*-chloroperoxybenzoic acid in a number of reactions.[1083]

Oxirene

It would be useful if triple bonds could be similarly epoxidized to give oxirenes. However, oxirenes are not stable compounds.[1084] Two of them have been trapped in solid argon matrices at very low temperatures, but they decayed on warming to 35 K.[1085] Oxirenes probably form in the reaction,[1086] but react further before they can be isolated. Note that oxirenes bear the same relationship to cyclobutadiene that furan does to benzene and may therefore be expected to be antiaromatic (see p. 58).

In a different type of reaction, alkenes are photooxygenated (with singlet O_2, see 14-8) in the presence of a Ti, V, or Mo complex to give epoxy alcohols formally derived from allylic hydroxylation followed by epoxidation, for example,[1087]



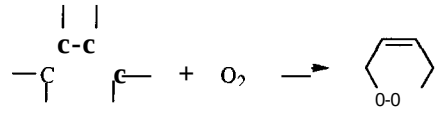
67%

Thiiranes can be prepared directly from alkenes using specialized reagents.[1088]

OS I, 494;IV, 552, 860; V, 191, 414, 467, 1007; VI, 39, 320, 679, 862; VII, 121. 126, 461; VIII, 546; IX, 288;75, 153;76, 46.

15-49 *Photooxidation of Dienes (Addition of Oxygen, Oxygen)*

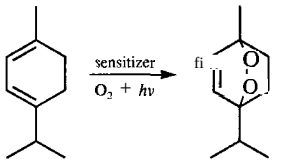
(2 + 4)*OC,OC-CYCLO*-PEROXY-1/4/ADDITION



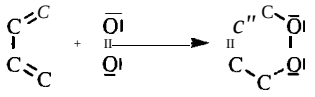
83

Conjugated dienes react with oxygen under the influence of light to give cyclic peroxides (83).[1089] The reaction has mostly[1090] been applied to cyclic dienes.[109] The scope extends to certain aromatic compounds such as phenanthrene.[1092] Besides those dienes and aromatic rings that can be photooxidized directly, there is a larger group that give the reaction in the presence of a photosensitizer such as eosin (see

p. 316). Among these is α-terpinene, which is converted to ascaridole:

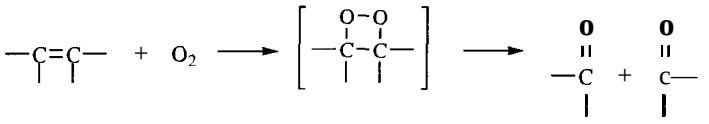


As in **14-8,** it is not the ground-state oxygen (the triplet), that reacts, but the excited singlet state,[1093] so the reaction is actually a Diels–Alder reaction (see **15-58)** with singlet oxygen as dienophile:[1094]



Like **15-58,** this reaction is reversible.

We have previously discussed the reaction of singlet oxygen with double-bond compounds to give

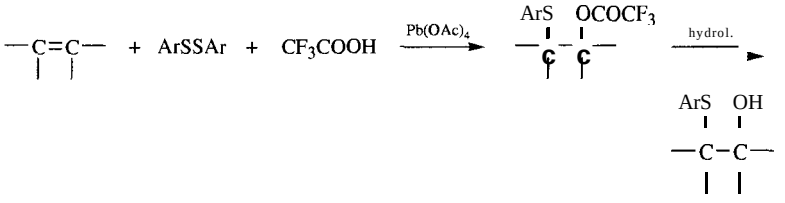


84

hydroperoxides (14-8), but singlet oxygen can also react with double bonds in another way to give a dioxetane intermediate (**84**)[1095], which usually cleaves to aldehydes or ketones[1096] but has been isolated.[1097] Both the six-membered cyclic peroxides 76[1098] and the four-membered **84**[1099] have been formed from oxygenation reactions that do not involve singlet oxygen. If 84 are desired, better reagents[1100] are triphenyl phosphite ozonide, $(PhO)_3PO_3$, and triethylsilyl hydrotrioxide, Et_3-SiOOOH, though yields are not high.[1101]

15-50 *Hydroxysulfenylation (Addition of Oxygen, Sulfur)*

HYDROXY-ARYLTHIO-ADDITION (OVERALL TRANSFORMATION)



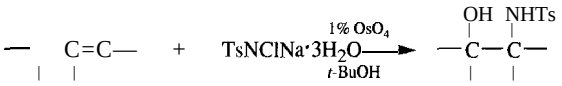
A hydroxy and an arylthio group can be added to a double bond by treatment with an aryl disulfide and lead tetraacetate in the presence of trifluoroacetic acid.[1102] Manganese and copper acetates have been used instead of $Pb(OAc)_4$.[1103] Addition of the groups OH and RSO has been achieved by treatment of alkenes with O_2 and a thiol (RSH).[1104] Two RS groups were added, to give *vic*- dithiols, by treatment of the alkene with a disulfide RSSR and BF_3–etherate.[1105] This reaction has been carried

out internally.[1106] In a similar manner, reaction of alkenes with ceric ammonium nitrate, diphenyl diselenide in methanol leads to vicinally substituted phenylselenyl methyl ethers.[1107] Dimethyl diselenide adds to alkenes to form vicinal bis(methylselenyl) compounds, in the presence of tin tetrachloride.[1108]

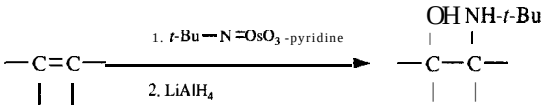
Halo-ethers can be formed by the reaction of alkenyl alcohols with various reagents. Hept-6-en-1-ol reacts with $(collidine)_2I^+PF_6^-$, for example, to form 2-iodomethyl-1-oxacycloheptane.[1109]

15-51 *Oxyamination (Addition of Oxygen, Nitrogen)*

TOSYLAMINO-HYDROXY-ADDITION



N-Tosylated β-hydroxy alkylamines (which can be easily hydrolyzed to (3-hydroxyamines[1110]) can be prepared[1111] by treatment of alkenes with the trihydrate of Chloramine-T[923] and a catalytic amount of OsO_4. In some cases yields can be improved by the use of phase-transfer catalysis.[1112] The reaction has been carried out enantioselectively.[1113] In another procedure, certain β-hydroxy secondary alkylamines can be prepared by treatment of alkenes with the osmium compounds



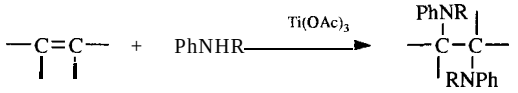
t-Bu–N=OsO_3, followed by reductive cleavage with $LiAlH_4$ of the initially formed osmic esters.[1114] It is presumed that Ts–N=OsO_3 is an intermediate in the Chloramine-T reaction. Another oxyamination reaction involves treatment of a palladium complex of the alkene with a secondary or primary amine, followed by lead tetraacetate or another oxidant.[1115]

P-Amino alcohols can be prepared by treatment of an alkene with a reagent prepared from HgO and HBF_4 along with aniline to give an aminomercurial compound PhHN–C–C–$HgBF_4$ (aminomercuration; see 15-7), which is hydrolyzed to PhHN–C–C–OH.[1116] The use of an alcohol instead of water gives the corresponding amino ether.

OS **VII,** 223, 375.

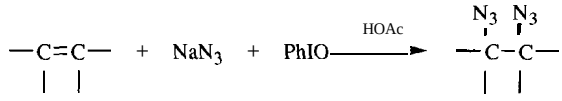
15-52 *Diamination (Addition of Nitrogen, Nitrogen)*

DI(ALKYLARYLAMINO)-ADDITION



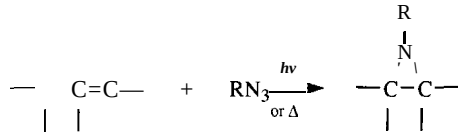
Primary (R = H) and secondary aromatic amines react with alkenes in the presence of thallium(III) acetate to give *vic*- diamines in good yields.[1117] The reaction is not successful for primary aliphatic amines. In another procedure, alkenes can be diaminated by treatment with the osmium compounds R_2NOsO_2 and R_3NOsO (R = *t*-Bu),[1118] analogous to the osmium compound mentioned at **15-51.** The palladium-promoted method of **15-51** has also been extended to diamination.[1119] Alkenes can also be diaminated[1120] indirectly by treatment of the aminomercurial compound mentioned in **15-51** with a primary or secondary aromatic amine.[1121]

Two azido groups can be added to double bonds by treatment with sodium azide and iodosobenzene in acetic acid.[1122]

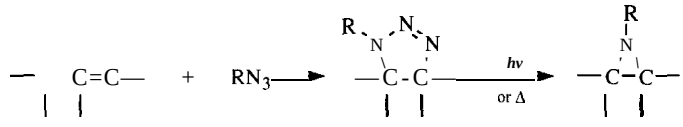


15-53 *Formation of Aziridines (Addition of Nitrogen, Nitrogen)*

EPI-ARYLIMINO-ADDITION, AND SO ON



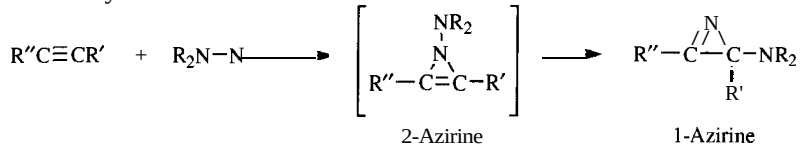
Aziridines can be prepared directly from double-bond compounds by photolysis or thermolysis of a mixture of the substrate and an azide.[1123] The reaction has been carried out with R = aryl, cyano, EtOOC, and RSO_2, as well as other groups. The reaction can take place by at least two pathways. In one, the azide is converted to a nitrene, which adds to the double bond in a manner analogous to that of carbene addition **(15-62).** Reaction of $NsONHCO_2Et$/ CuO [Ns = *N*(*p*-toluenesulfonyl-inimo)] and a conjugated ketone, for example, leads to the *N*-carboethoxy aziridine derivative.[1124] Calcium oxide has also been used to generate the nitrene.[1125] Other specialized reagents have also been used.[1126]



Triazoline

In the other pathway a 1,3 dipolar addition **(15-57)** takes place to give a triazoline (which can be isolated), followed by extrusion of nitrogen **(17-57).** Evidence for the nitrene pathway is most compelling for R = acyl groups. As discussed on pages 253, singlet nitrenes add stereospecifically while triplet nitrenes do not. Diphenyl sulfimide (Ph_2SNH) converts Michael-type substrates to the corresponding aziridines.[1127] Aminonitrenes (R_2NN) have been shown to add to triple bonds to give 1-azirines, which arise from rearrangement of the initially formed 2-

azirines.[1128] Like oxirenes (see **15-48),** 2-azirines are unstable, probably because of antiaromaticity.



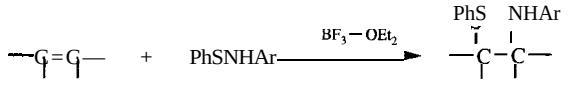
An alternative preparation of aziridines reacts an alkene with iodine and chloramine-T (see p. 1056) generating the corresponding *N*-tosyl aziridine.[1129] Bromamine-T ($TsNBr^-Na^+$) has been used in a similar manner.[1130] Diazoalkanes react with imines to give aziridines.[1131] Another useful reagent is NsN=IPh, which reacts with alkenes in the presence of rhodium compounds[1132] or $Cu(OTf)_2$[1133] to give N–Ns aziridines. Manganese salen catalysts have also been used with this reagent.[1134]

Nitrenes can also add to aromatic rings to give ring-expansion products analogous to those mentioned in **15-62**.[1135]

OS VI, 56.

15-54 *Aminosulfenylation (Addition of Nitrogen, Sulfur)*

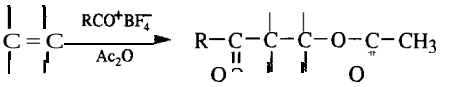
ARYLAMINO-ARYLTHIO-ADDITION



An amino group and an arylthio group can be added to a double bond by treatment with a sulfenanilide (PhSNHAr) in the presence of BF_3–etherate.[1136] The addition is anti, and the mechanism probably involves a thiiranium ion.[1137] In another aminosulfenylation procedure, the substrate is treated with dimethyl(methylthio)sulfonium fluoroborate ($MeSSMe_2BF_4^-$) and ammonia or an amine,[1138] the latter acting as a nucleophile. This reaction was extended to other nucleophiles:[1139] N_3^-,[1140] NO_2^-, CN^-, OH^-, and OAc^- to give MeS–C–C–A, where A = N_3, NO_2, CN, OH, and OAc, respectively. An RS (R = alkyl or aryl) and an NHCOMe group have been added in an electrochemical procedure.[1141]

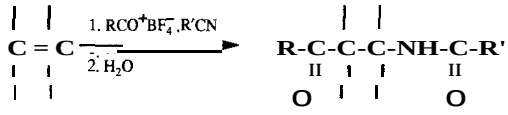
15-55 *Acylacyloxylation and Acylamidation (Addition of Oxygen, Carbon, or Nitrogen, Carbon)*

ACYL-ACYLOXY-ADDITION



An acyl and an acyloxy group can be added to a double bond by treatment with an acyl fluoroborate and acetic anhydride.[1142] As expected, the addition follows

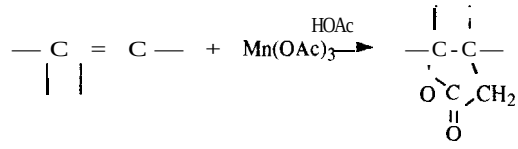
Markovnikov's rule, with the electrophile Ac^+ going to the carbon with more hydrogens. In an analogous reaction, an acyl and an amido group can be added, if a nitrile is used in place of the anhydride:



85

Similarly, halo-acetoxylation is known.[1143] This reaction has also been carried out on triple bonds, to give the unsaturated analogs of 85 (syn addition).[1144]

15-56 *The Conversion of Alkenes to γ-Lactones (Addition of Oxygen, Carbon)*



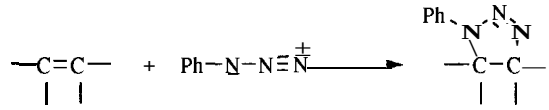
This reaction is clearly related to forming esters and lactones by reaction of carboxylic acids with alkenes (15-6), but the manganese reagent leads to differences. Alkenes react with manganese(III) acetate to give γ-lactones.[1145] The mechanism is probably free radical, involving addition of $\cdot CH_2COOH$ to the double bond. Ultrasound improves the efficiency of the reaction.[1146] In a related reaction, cyclohexene reacted with $MeO_2CCH_2CO_2K$ and $Mn(OAc)_3$ to give an α-carbomethoxy bicyclic lactone.[1147] The use of dimethyl malonate and ultrasound in this reaction gave the same type of product.[1148] Lactone formation has also been accomplished by treatment of alkenes with α-bromo carboxylic acids in the presence of benzoyl peroxide as catalyst,[1149] and with alkylidene chromium pentacarbonyl complexes.[1150] Alkenes can also be converted to γ-lactones by indirect routes.[1151]

An intramolecular variation of this reaction is known, involving amides, which generates a lactam.[1152]

OS **VII,** 400.

For addition of aldehydes and ketones, see the Prins reaction **(16-53),** and Reactions **16-63** and **16-64.**

15-57 *1,3-Dipolar Addition (Addition of Oxygen, Nitrogen, Carbon)*



Azides add to double bonds to give triazolines. This is one example of a large group of reactions ([3 + 2]-cycloadditions) in which five-membered heterocyclic compounds are prepared by addition of 1,3-dipolar compounds to double bonds (see Table 15.3).[1153] These are compounds that have a sequence of three atoms A—B—C,

TABLE 15.3 Some Common **1,3-Dipolar** Compounds

Type 1		
	Azide	$R-\bar{N}-N=\overset{+}{N} \longleftrightarrow R-\bar{N}-\overset{+}{N}\equiv N$
	Diazoalkane[a]	$R_2\bar{C}-N=\overset{+}{N} \longleftrightarrow R_2\bar{C}-\overset{+}{N}\equiv N$
	Nitrous oxide	$\bar{O}-N=\overset{+}{N} \longleftrightarrow \bar{O}-\overset{+}{N}\equiv N$
	Nitrile imine	$R-\bar{N}-N=\overset{+}{C}R' \longleftrightarrow R-\bar{N}=\overset{+}{N}\equiv CR'$
	Nitrilelylid	$R_2\bar{C}-N=\overset{+}{C}R' \longleftrightarrow R_2\bar{C}-\overset{+}{N}\equiv CR'$
	Nitrile oxide*	$\bar{O}-N=\overset{+}{C}R \longleftrightarrow \bar{O}-\overset{+}{N}\equiv CR$
Type 2		
	Azomethine imine	$R_2\bar{C}-\bar{N}-\overset{+}{N}R' \longleftrightarrow R_2\bar{C}-\overset{+}{N}=NR'$ (R'' on both)
	Azoxy compound	$\bar{O}-\bar{N}-\overset{+}{N}R' \longleftrightarrow \bar{O}-\overset{+}{N}=NR'$ (R on both)
	Azomethine ylid[c]	$R_2\bar{C}-\bar{N}-\overset{+}{C}R_2' \longleftrightarrow R_2\bar{C}-\overset{+}{N}=CR_2'$ (R'' on both)
	Nitrone	$\bar{O}-\bar{N}-\overset{+}{C}R_2 \longleftrightarrow \bar{O}-\overset{+}{N}=CR_2$ (R' on both)
	Carbonyl oxide[d]	$\bar{O}-\bar{O}-\overset{+}{C}R_2 \longleftrightarrow \bar{O}-\overset{+}{O}=CR_2$
	Ozone	$\bar{O}-\bar{O}-\overset{+}{O} \longleftrightarrow \bar{O}-\overset{+}{O}=O$

[a]See Ref. 1154.
[b]See Ref. 1155.
[c]See Ref. 1156.
[d]See Ref. 1157.

of which a has a sextet of electrons in the outer shell and c has an octet with at least one unshared pair. The reaction can then be formulated as

Since compounds with six electrons in the outer shell of an atom are usually not stable, the A—B—C system is actually one canonical form of a resonance hybrid, for which at least one other form can be drawn (see Table 15.3). 1,3-Dipolar compounds can be divided into two main types:

1. Those in which the dipolar canonical form has a double bond on the sextet atom and the other canonical form has a triple bond on that atom:

$$\bar{A}-B=\overset{+}{C}- \longleftrightarrow \bar{A}-B\equiv\overset{+}{C}-$$

If we limit ourselves to the first row of the periodic table, B can only be nitrogen, C can be carbon or nitrogen, and A can be carbon, oxygen, or

nitrogen; hence there are six types. Among these are azides (A=B=C=N), illustrated above, and diazoalkanes.

2. Those in which the dipolar canonical form has a single bond on the sextet atom and the other form has a double bond:

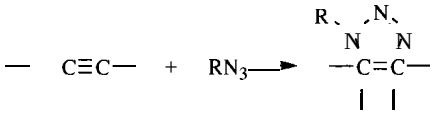
$$\bar{\underline{A}}\text{-}\underline{B}\text{-}\overset{+}{C}— \longleftrightarrow \bar{\underline{A}}\text{-}B=\overset{+}{C}—$$

Here B can be nitrogen or oxygen, and A and C can be nitrogen, oxygen, or carbon, but there are only 12 types, since, for example, N—N—C is only another form of C—N—N. Examples are shown in Table 15.3.

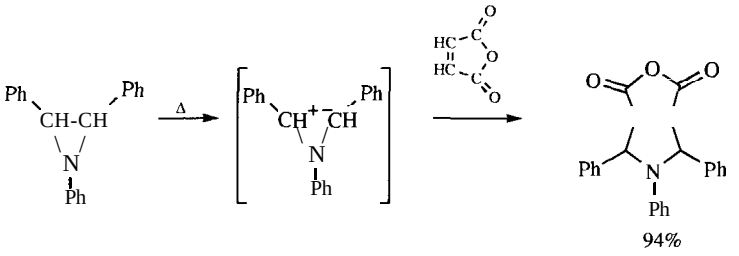
Of the 18 systems, some of which are unstable and must be generated *in situ*,[1158] the reaction has been accomplished for at least 15, though not in all cases with a carbon-carbon double bond (the reaction also can be carried out with other double bonds[1159]). Not all alkenes undergo 1,3-dipolar addition equally well. The reaction is most successful for those that are good dienophiles in the Diels–Alder reaction (**15-58**). The addition is stereospecific and syn, and the mechanism is probably a one-step concerted process, as illustrated above.[1160] In-plane aromaticity has been invoked for these dipolar cycloadditions.[1161] As expected for this type of mechanism, the rates do not vary much with changes in solvent.[1162] There are no simple rules covering orientation in 1,3-dipolar additions. Regioselectivities are complicated but have been explained by MO treatments.[1163] When the 1,3-dipolar compound is a thiocarbonyl ylid ($R_2C{=}S^+{-}{}^-CH_2$) the addition has been shown to be nonstereospecific with certain substrates (though stereospecific with others), indicating a nonsynchronous mechanism in these cases, and in fact, a di-ionic intermediate (see mechanism *c* on p. 1078) has been trapped in one such case.[1164]

There are many cases where the [3 + 2]-cycloaddition leads to cycloadducts with high enantioselectivity.[1165] Conjugated dienes generally give exclusive 1,2 addition, though 1,4 addition (a 3 + 4 cycloaddition) has been reported.[1166]

Carbon-carbon triple bonds can also undergo 1,3-dipolar addition.[1167] For example, azides give triazoles:



The 1,3-dipolar reagent can in some cases be generated by the *in situ* opening of a suitable three-membered ring system. For example, aziridines can add to activated double bonds to give pyrrolidines, for example,[1168]



94%

Aziridines also add to C≡C triple bonds as well as to other unsaturated linkages, including C=O, C=N, and C≡N.[1169] In some of these reactions it is a C–N bond of the aziridine that opens rather than the C–C bond.

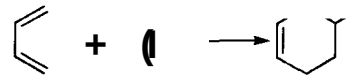
For other [3 + 2] cycloadditions, see **15-60.**

OS V, 957, 1124; **VI,** 592, 670; **VIII,** 231. Also see OS IV, 380.

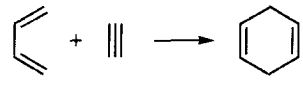
C. *Carbon on Both Sides.* *Reactions 15-58–15-64 are cycloaddition reactions.*[1170]

15-58 *The Diels–Alder Reaction*

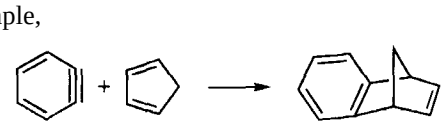
(2 + 4)*CYCLO*-ETHYLENE-1/4/ADDITION OR (4 + 2)*CYCLO*-[BUT-2-ENE-1,4-DIYL]-1/2/ADDITION, AND SO ON



In the *Diels–Alder reaction* a double bond adds 1,4 to a conjugated diene (a 2 + 4 cycloaddition),[1171] so the product is always a six-membered ring. The double-bond compound is called a *dienophile.* The reaction is easy and rapid and of very broad scope[1172] and reactivity of dienes and dienophiles can be predicted based on analysis of the HOMOs and LUMOs of these species.[1173] Ethylene and simple alkenes make poor dienophiles, although the reaction has been carried out with these compounds. Most dienophiles are of the form $-\overset{|}{C}=\overset{|}{C}-Z$ or, $Z-\overset{|}{C}=\overset{|}{C}-Z'$, where Z and Z' are CHO, COR,[1174] COOH, COOR, COCl, COAr, CN,[1175] NO_2,[1176] Ar, CH_2OH, CH_2Cl, CH_2NH_2, CH_2CN, CH_2COOH, halogen, $PO(OEt)_2$,[1177] or C=C. In the last case, the dienophile is itself a diene. When two dienes react, mixtures are quite possible. Thus, butadiene and isoprene ($CH_2=CH-CMe=CH_2$) gave all nine possible Diels–Alder adducts, as well as eight-membered rings and trimers.[1178] Particularly common dienophiles are maleic anhydride[1179] and quinones.[1180] Triple bond compounds (–C≡C–Z or Z–C≡C–Z′)



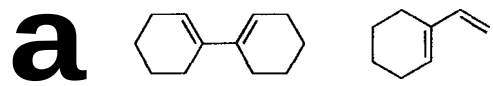
may be dienophiles,[1181] as may allenes, though allenes without activating groups are very poor dienophiles.[1182] Ketenes, however, do not undergo Diels–Alder reactions.[1183] Benzynes, although not isolable, act as dienophiles and can be trapped with dienes,[1184] for example,



86

The low reactivity of ethylene can be overcome by using phenyl vinyl sulfone $PhSO_2CH=CH_2$ instead.[1185] The $PhSO_2$ group can be easily removed with Na–Hg

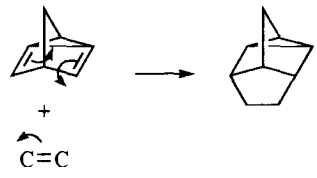
after the ring-closure reaction. Similarly, phenyl vinyl sulfoxide ($PhSOCH{=}CH_2$) can be used as a synthon for acetylene.[1186] In this case, PhSOH is lost from the sulfoxide product (17-11).



87 88 89

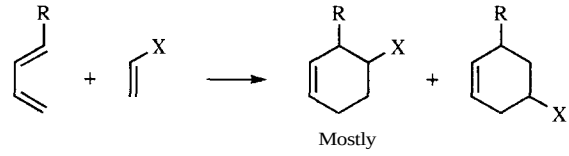
Dienes can be open-chain, inner-ring (e.g., 86), outer-ring[1187] (e.g., 87), across rings (e.g., 88), or inner-outer (e.g., 89), except that they may not be frozen into a transoid conformation (see p. 1064). They need no special activating groups, and nearly all conjugated dienes undergo the reaction with suitable dienophiles.[1188]

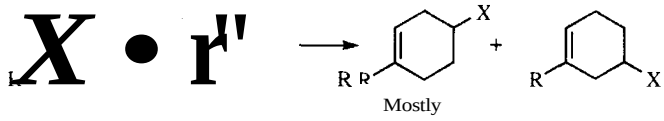
Aromatic compounds can also behave as dienes.[1189] Benzene is very unreactive toward dienophiles; very few dienophiles (one of them is benzyne) have been reported to give Diels–Alder adducts with it.[1190] Naphthalene and phenanthrene are also quite resistant, though naphthalene has given Diels-Alder addition at high pressures.[1191] However, anthracene and other compounds with at least three linear benzene rings give Diels-Alder reactions readily. The interesting compound triptycene can be prepared by a Diels-Alder reaction between benzyne and anthracene:[1192] For both all-carbon and hetero systems, the "diene" can be a conjugated enyne. If the geometry of the molecule is suitable, the diene can even be nonconjugated, for example,[1193]



This last reaction is known as the *homo-Diels–Alderreaction.*

When an unsymmetrical diene adds to an unsymmetrical dienophile, there are two regioisomeric products (not counting stereoisomers):



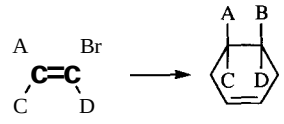


Although mixtures are often obtained, usually one predominates, the one indicated above. This regioselectivity, in which the "ortho" or "para" product is favored over

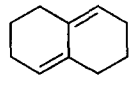
the "meta", has been explained by MO considerations.[1194] When X = NO_2, regioselectivity to give the "ortho" or "para" product was very high at room temperature. and this method, combined with subsequent removal of the NO_2 (see 10-87) has been used to perform regioselective Diels–Alder reactions.[1195]

The stereochemistry of the Diels–Alder reaction can be considered from several aspects:[1196]

1. With respect to the dienophile, the addition is stereospecifically syn, with very few exceptions.[1197] This means that groups that are cis in the alkene will be cis in the cyclohexene ring:



2. With respect to 1,4-disubstituted dienes, fewer cases have been investigated. but here too the reaction is stereospecific and syn. Thus, *trans,trans*-1,4-diphenylbutadiene gives *cis*- 1,4-diphenylcyclohexene derivatives.
3. The diene must be in the cisoid conformation. If it is frozen into the transoid conformation, as in 84, the reaction does not take place. The diene either must be frozen into the cisoid conformation or must be able to achieve it during the reaction.



90

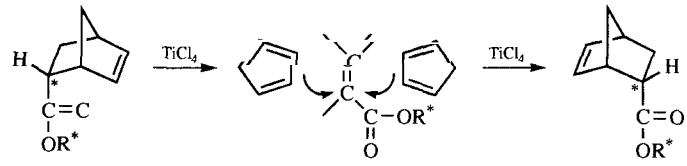
4. When the diene is cyclic, there are two possible ways in which addition can occur if the dienophile is not symmetrical. The larger side of the dienophile may be under the ring *(endo addition*), or it may be the smaller side *(exo addition):*

Endo addition Exo addition

Most of the time, the addition is predominantly endo; that is, the more bulk) side of the alkene is under the ring, and this is probably true for open-chain dienes also.[1198] However, exceptions are known, and in many cases mixtures of exo and endo addition products are found.[1199] It has been argued that facial selectivity is not due to torsional angle decompression.[1200]

5. As we have seen, the Diels-Alder reaction can be both stereoselective and regioselective.[1201] In some cases, the Diels-Alder reaction can be made enan-

tioselective.[1202] Solvent effects are important in such reactions.[1203] The role of reactant polarity on the course of the reaction has been examined.[1204] Most such work has used a chiral dienophile (e.g., 91) and an achiral diene,[1205] along with a Lewis acid catalyst (see below). In such cases addition of the diene to the two faces[1206] of 91 takes place at different rates, and 92 and 93 are formed in different amounts.[1207] In the case illustrated, hydrolysis of the product removes the chiral R group, making it a chiral auxiliary in this reaction. Asymmetric Diels–Alder reactions have also been carried out with achiral dienes and dienophiles, but with an optically active catalyst.[1208] Many chiral catalysts have been recently developed.[1209] In many cases, asymmetric Lewis acids form a chiral complex with the dienophile.[1210]



92 91 93

R = (+) or (-) phenylmethyl

Electron-donating substituents in the diene accelerate the reaction; electron-withdrawing groups retard it. For the dienophile it is just the reverse: donating groups decrease the rate, and withdrawing groups increase it. Cyclic dienes, in which the cisoid conformation is built in, usually react faster than the corresponding open-chain compounds, which have to achieve the cisoid conformation by rotation.[1211]

As should be apparent from the foregoing, many interesting compounds can be prepared by the Diels-Alder reaction, some of which would be hard to make in any other way. It has thus been exceedingly useful. Competing reactions are polymerization of the diene or dienophile, or both, and 1,2 cycloaddition (15-61). However, yields are usually quite high. No catalyst is needed, though it has been found that Lewis acids catalyze some Diels-Alder reactions,[1212] usually those in which Z in the dienophile is a C=O or C=N group. Br0nsted acids have also been used to accelerate the rate of the Diels-Alder reaction.[1213] A Lewis acid catalyst usually increases both the regioselectivity of the reaction (in the sense given above) and the extent of endo addition,[1214] and, in the case of enantioselective reactions, the extent of enantioselectivity. Lanthanum triflate, $La(OTf)_3$, has been reported as a reusable catalyst.[1215] Some Diels-Alder reactions can also be catalyzed by the addition of a stable cation radical, for example, tris(4-bromophenyl)aminium hexachloroantimonate ($Ar_3N\bullet^+SbCl_6^-$).[1216] Zirconocene-catalyzed cationic Diels-Alder reactions are known.[1217] Certain antibodies have been developed that catalyze Diels-Alder reactions.[1218] Photochemically induced Diels-Alder reactions are also known.[1219]

A number of other methods have been reported for the acceleration of Diels-Alder reactions,[1220] including the use of a microwave oven,[1221] ultrasound,[1222] 5 *M*

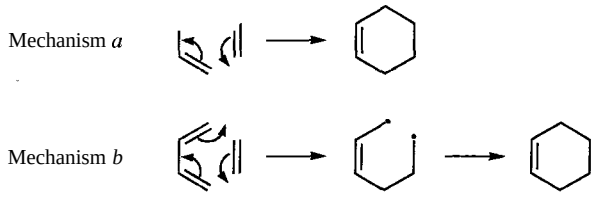
$LiClO_4$ in Et_2O as solvent,[1223] absorption of the reactants on chromatographic absorbents,[1224] via encapsulation techniques,[1225] and the use of an ultracentrifuge[1226] (one of several ways to achieve reaction at high pressures).[1227] One of the most common methods is to use water as a solvent or a cosolvent (a hydrophobic effect).[1228] The influence of hydrophobicity of reactants on the reaction has been examined[1229] as has micellular effects.[1230] The addition of HPO_4^- to an aqueous ethanol solution has also been shown to give an small rate enhancement.[1231] This appears to be the only case where an anion is responsible for a rate enhancement. The retro-Diels–Alder reaction has also been done in water.[1232] It has been shown that $InCl_3$ is an effective catalyst for aqueous Diels–Alder reactions,[1233] and there are other Lewis acid catalysts that are effective in water.[1234]

It is noted that the Diels–Alder reaction has been done with supercritical CO_2 as a solvent.[1235] Diels-Alder reactions on solid supports have also been reported,[1236] and zeolites have been used in conjunction with catalytic agents.[1237] Alumina has been used to promote Diels-Alder reactions.[1238]

Intramolecular versions of the Diels-Alder reaction are well known, and this is a powerful method for the synthesis of mono- and polycyclic compounds.[1239] There are many examples and variations. One interesting internal Diels-Alder reaction links the diene and dienophile by a C–O–SiR_2–C[1240] or a C–O–SiR_2–O–C[1241] linkage. Internal cyclization to give a bicyclic product is followed by cleavage of the O–Si unit to give a monocyclic alcohol.

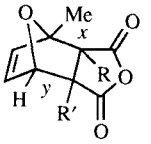
3-Sulfolene

The Diels-Alder reaction is usually reversible and has been used to protect double bonds.[1242] A convenient substitute for butadiene in the Diels-Alder reaction is the compound 3-sulfolene since the latter is a solid that is easy to handle while the former is gas.[1243] Butadiene is generated in situ by a reverse Diels-Alder reaction (see 17-20).



There are, broadly speaking, three possible mechanisms that have been considered for the uncatalyzed Diels-Alder reaction.[1244] In mechanism *a* there is a cyclic six-centered transition state and no intermediate. The reaction is concerted and occurs in one step. In mechanism *b*, one end of the diene fastens to one end of the dienophile first to give a diradical, and then, in a second step, the other ends become fastened. A diradical formed in this manner must be a singlet; that is, the

two unpaired electrons must have opposite spins, by an argument similar to that outlined on page 244. The third mechanism (c, not shown) is similar to mechanism *b*, but the initial bond and the subsequent bond are formed by movements of electron pairs and the intermediate is a di-ion. There have been many mechanistic investigations of the Diels–Alder reaction. The bulk of the evidence suggests that most Diels-Alder reactions take place by the one-step cyclic mechanism *a*,[1245] although it is possible that a diradical[1246] or even a di-ion[1247] mechanism may be taking place in some cases. The main evidence in support of mechanism *a* is as follows: (1) The reaction is stereospecific in both the diene and dienophile. A completely free diradical or di-ion probably would not be able to retain its configuration. (2) In general, the rates of Diels-Alder reactions depend very little on the nature of the solvent. This would rule out a di-ion intermediate because polar solvents increase the rates of reactions that develop charges in the transition state. (3) It was shown that, in the decomposition of 94, the isotope effect k_I/k_{II} was equal to 1.00 within experimental error.[1248] If bond *x* broke before bond *y*, there should



94

I: R = H, R' = D
II: R = D, R' = H

surely be a secondary isotope effect. This result strongly indicates that the bond breaking of *x* and *y* is simultaneous. This is the reverse of a Diels-Alder reaction, and by the principle of microscopic reversibility, the mechanism of the forward reaction should involve simultaneous formation of bonds *x* and *y*. Subsequently, a similar experiment was carried out on the forward reaction[1249] and the result was the same. There is also other evidence for mechanism a.[1250] However, the fact that the mechanism is concerted does not necessarily mean that it is synchronous. In the transition state of a synchronous reaction both new CT bonds would be formed to the same extent, but a Diels-Alder reaction with nonsymmetrical components might very well be nonsynchronous;[1251] that is, it could have a transition state in which one bond has been formed to a greater degree than the other.[1251,1252] A biradical mechanism has been proposed for some Diels-Alder reactions.[1253]

In another aspect of the mechanism, the effects of electron-donating and electron-withdrawing substituents (p. 1065) indicate that the diene is behaving as a nucleophile and the dienophile as an electrophile. However, this can be reversed. Perchlorocyclopentadiene reacts better with cyclopentene than with maleic anhydride and not at all with tetracyanoethylene, though the latter is normally the most reactive dienophile known. It is apparent, then, that this diene is the electrophile in its Diels-Alder reactions.[1254] Reactions of this type are said to proceed with *inverse electron demand}*[255]

We have emphasized that the Diels-Alder reaction generally takes place rapidly and conveniently. In sharp contrast, the apparently similar dimerization of alkenes to cyclobutanes **(15-61)** gives very poor results in most cases, except when

photochemically induced. Fukui, Woodward, and Hoffmann have shown that these contrasting results can be explained by the *principle of conservation of orbital symmetry,*[1256] which predicts that certain reactions are allowed and others forbidden. The orbital-symmetry rules (also called the Woodward-Hoffmann rules) apply *only to concerted reactions,* (e.g., mechanism *a)* and are based on the principle that reactions take place in such a way as to maintain maximum bonding throughout the course of the reaction. There are several ways of applying the orbital-symmetry principle to cycloaddition reactions, three of which are used more frequently than others.[1257] Of these three, we will discuss two: the frontier–orbital method and the Möbius-Hückel method. The third, called the correlation diagram method,[1258] is less convenient to apply than the other two.

The Frontier-Orbital Method[1259]

As applied to cycloaddition reactions the rule is that *reactions are allowed only when all overlaps between the HOMO of one reactant and the LUMO of the other are such that a positive lobe overlaps only with another positive lobe and a negative lobe only with another negative lobe.* We may recall that monoalkenes have two π molecular orbitals (p. 9) and that conjugated dienes have four (p. 36), as shown in Figure 15.1. A concerted cyclization of two monoalkenes (a 2 + 2 reaction) is not allowed because it would require that a positive lobe overlap with a negative lobe (Fig. 15.2). On the other hand, the Diels–Alder reaction (a 2 + 4 reaction) is allowed, whether considered from either direction (Fig. 15.3).

These considerations are reversed when the ring closures are photochemically induced since in such cases an electron is promoted to a vacant

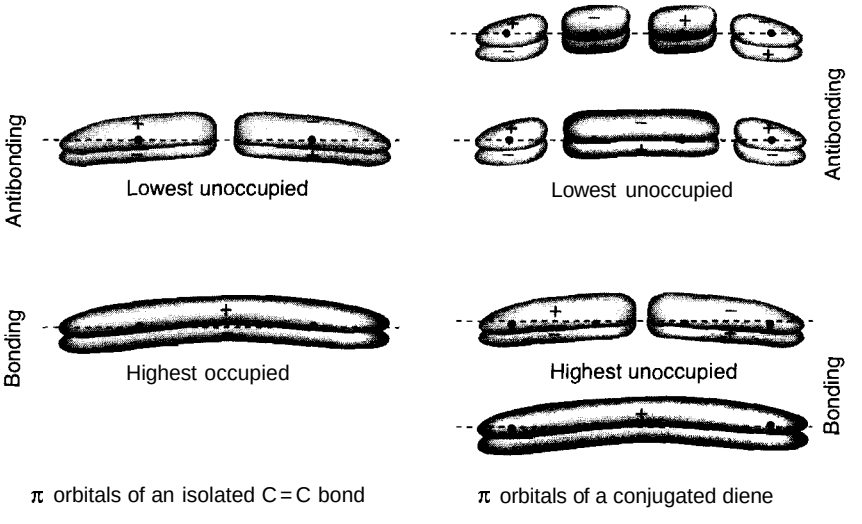


FIGURE 15.1 Schematic drawings of the *n* orbitals of an isolated C=C bond and a conjugated diene.

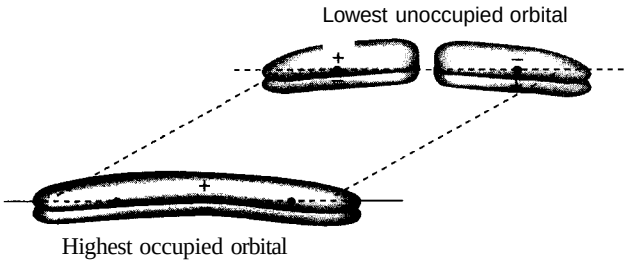


FIGURE 15.2 Overlap of orbitals in a thermal 2 + 2 cycloaddition.

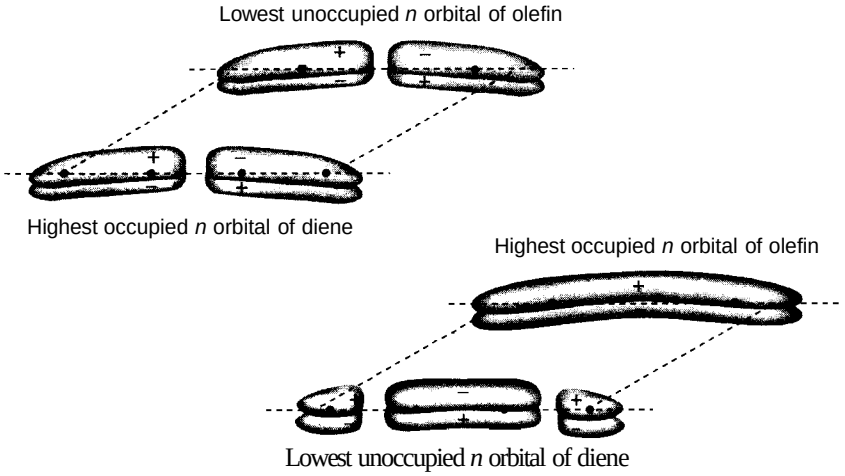


FIGURE 15.3 Two ways for orbitals to overlap in a thermal 2 + 4 cycloaddition.

orbital before the reaction occurs. Obviously, the 2 + 2 reaction is now allowed (Fig. 15.4) and the 2 + 4 reaction disallowed. The reverse reactions follow the same rules, by the principle of microscopic reversibility. In fact, Diels–Alder adducts are usually cleaved quite readily, while cyclobutanes, despite the additional strain, require more strenuous conditions.

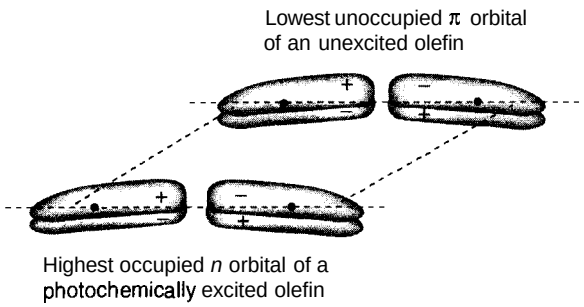


FIGURE 15.4 Overlap of orbitals in a photochemical 2 + 2 cycloaddition.

FIGURE 15.5 Some basis sets.

The Möbius–Hückel Method[1260]

In this method, the orbital symmetry rules are related to the Hückel aromaticity rule discussed in Chapter 2. Hückel's rule, which states that a cyclic system of electrons is aromatic (hence, stable) when it consists of $An + 2$ electrons, applies of course to molecules in their ground states. In applying the orbital symmetry principle, we are not concerned with ground states, but with transition states. In the present method, we do not examine the molecular orbitals themselves but rather the *p* orbitals before they overlap to form the MO. Such a set of *p* orbitals is called a *basis set* (Fig. 15.5). In investigating the possibility of a concerted reaction, we put the basis sets into the position they would occupy in the transition state. Figure 15.6 shows this for both the

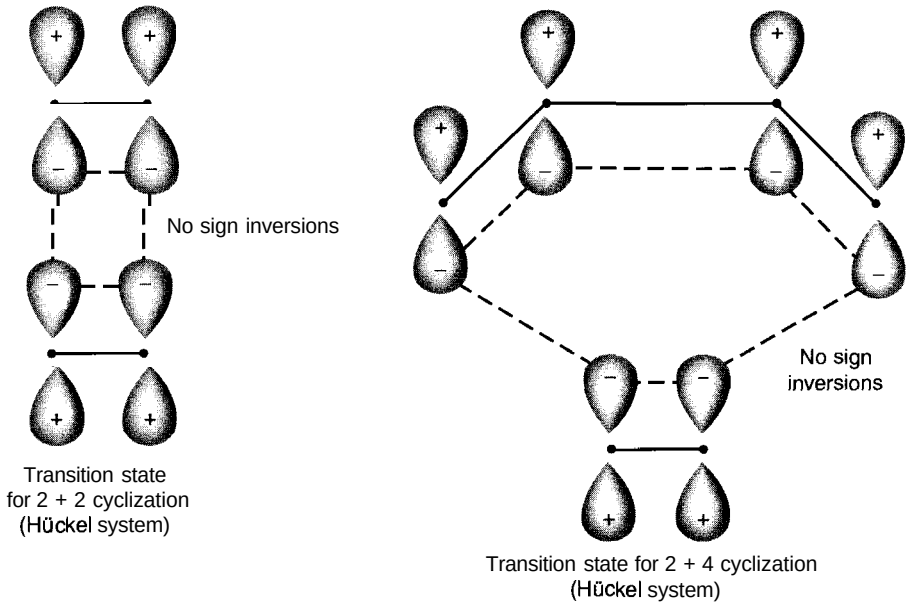


FIGURE 15.6 Transition states illustrating Hückel–Möbius rules for cycloaddition reactions.

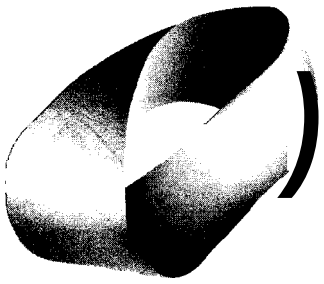


FIGURE 15.7 A Möbius strip. Such a strip is easily constructed by twisting a thin strip of paper 180° and fastening the ends together.

2 + 2 and the 2 + 4 ring closures. What we look for are *sign inversions.* In Figure 15.6, we can see that there are no sign inversions in either case. That is, the dashed line connects only lobes with a minus sign. Systems with *zero or an even number* of sign inversions are called *Hilckel systems.* Because they have no sign inversions, both of these systems are Hückel systems. Systems with *an odd number* of sign inversions are called *Mobius systems* (because of the similarity to the Mobius strip, which is a mathematical surface, shown in Fig. 15.7). Mobius systems do not enter into either of these reactions, but an example of such a system is shown on page 1430.

The rule may then be stated: *A thermal pericyclic reaction involving a Hiickel system is allowed only if the total number of electrons is 4n + 2. A thermal pericyclic reaction involving a Möbius system is allowed only if the total number of electrons is 4n.* For photochemical reactions these rules are reversed. Since both the 2 + 4 and 2 + 2 cycloadditions are Hiickel systems, the Möbius–Hückel method predicts that the 2 + 4 reaction, with 6 electrons, is thermally allowed, but the 2 + 2 reaction is not. One the other hand, the 2 + 2 reaction is allowed photochemically, while the 2 + 4 reaction is forbidden.

Note that both the 2 + 2 and 2 + 4 transition states are Hiickel systems no matter what basis sets we chose. For example, Figure 15.8 shows other basis sets we might have chosen. In every case there will be zero or an even number of sign inversions.

Thus, the frontier–orbital and Hückel-Möbius methods (and the correlation-diagram method as well) lead to the same conclusions: thermal 2 + 4 cycloadditions and photochemical 2 + 2 cycloadditions (and the reverse ring openings) are allowed, while photochemical 2 + 4 and thermal 2 + 2 ring closings (and openings) are forbidden.

Application of the same procedures to other ring closures shows that 4 + 4 and 2 + 6 ring closures and openings require photochemical induction while the 4 + 6 and 2 + 8 reactions can take place only thermally (see **15-52).** In general, cycloaddition reactions allowed thermally are those with *An* + 2 electrons, while those allowed photochemically have *An* electrons.

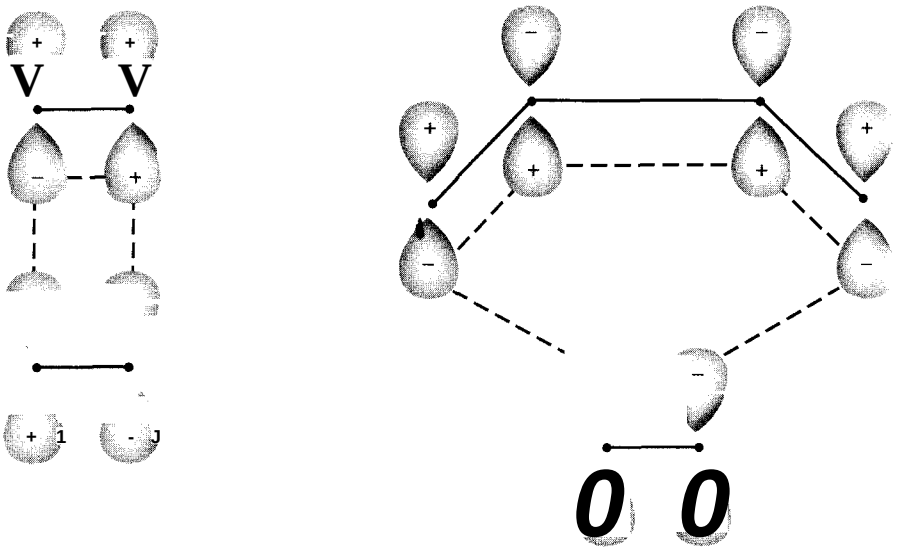


FIGURE 15.8 Transition states for 2 + 2 and 2 + 4 cyclizations involving other basis sets.

It must be emphasized once again that the rules apply only to cycloaddition reactions that take place by cyclic mechanisms, that is, where two s bonds are formed (or broken) at about the same time.[1261] The rule does not apply to cases where one bond is clearly formed (or broken) before the other. It must further be emphasized that the fact that the thermal Diels-Alder reaction (mechanism *a)* is allowed by the principle of conservation of orbital symmetry does not constitute proof that any given Diels-Alder reaction proceeds by this mechanism. The principle merely says the mechanism is allowed, not that it must go by this pathway. However, the principle does say that thermal 2 + 2 cycloadditions in which the molecules assume a face-to-face geometry cannot[1262] take place by a cyclic mechanism because their activation energies would be too high (however, see below). As we shall see (15-49), such reactions largely occur by two-step mechanisms. Similarly. 2 + 4 photochemical cycloadditions are also known, but the fact that they are not stereospecific indicates that they also take place by the two-step diradical mechanism (mechanism *b*).[1263]

In all of the above discussion, we have assumed that a given molecule forms both the new s bonds from the same face of the *n* system. This manner of bond formation, called *suprafacial,* is certainly most reasonable and almost always takes place. The subscript s is used to designate this geometry, and a normal Diels-Alder reaction would be called a $[_{\pi}2_{s}+_{\pi}4_{s}]$ cycloaddition (the subscript *n* indicates that *n* electrons are involved in the cycloaddition). However, we can conceive of another approach in which the newly forming bonds of the diene lie on *opposite* faces of the *n* system, that is, they point in opposite directions.

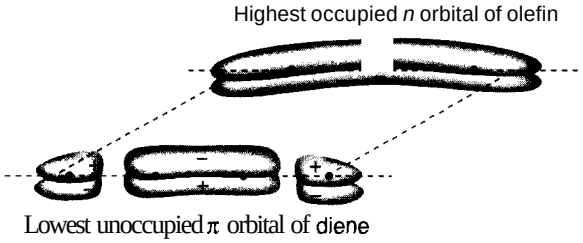
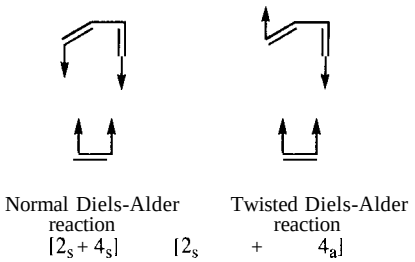


FIGURE 15.9 Overlap of orbitals in an antarafacial thermal 2+4 cycloaddition.

This type of orientation of the newly formed bonds is called *antarafacial*, and the reaction would be a $[_{\pi}2_s + {}_{\pi}4_a]$ cycloaddition (a stands for antarafacial). We can easily show by the frontier–orbital method that this reaction (and consequently the reverse ring-opening reactions) are thermally forbidden and photochemically allowed. Thus in order for a $[_{\pi}2_s + {}_{\pi}4_a]$ reaction to proceed, overlap between the highest occupied π orbital of the alkene and the lowest unoccupied *n* orbital of the diene would have to occur as shown in Figure 15.9, with a (+) lobe overlapping a (—) lobe. Since like signs are no longer overlapping, the thermal reaction is now forbidden.

Similarly, thermal $[_{\pi}2_a + \pi 4_s]$ and $[_{\pi}2_a + {}_{\pi}2_a]$ cyclizations are forbidden, while thermal $[_{\pi}2_a + {}_{\pi}4_a]$ and $[_{\pi}2_s + \pi 2_a]$ cyclizations are allowed, and these consi-



derations are reversed for the corresponding photochemical processes. Of course, an antarafacial approach is highly unlikely in a 2 + 4 cyclization,[1264] but larger ring closures could take place by such a pathway, and 2 + 2 thermal cyclizations, where the $[_{\pi}2_s + {}_{\pi}2_s]$ pathway is forbidden, can also do so in certain cases (see **15-61).** We therefore see that whether a given cycloaddition is allowed or forbidden depends on the geometry of approach of the two molecules involved.

Symmetry considerations have also been advanced to explain predominant endo addition.[1265] In the case of 2 + 4 addition of butadiene to itself, the approach can be exo or endo. It can be seen (Fig. 15.10) that whether the HOMO of the diene overlaps with the LUMO of the alkene or vice versa, the

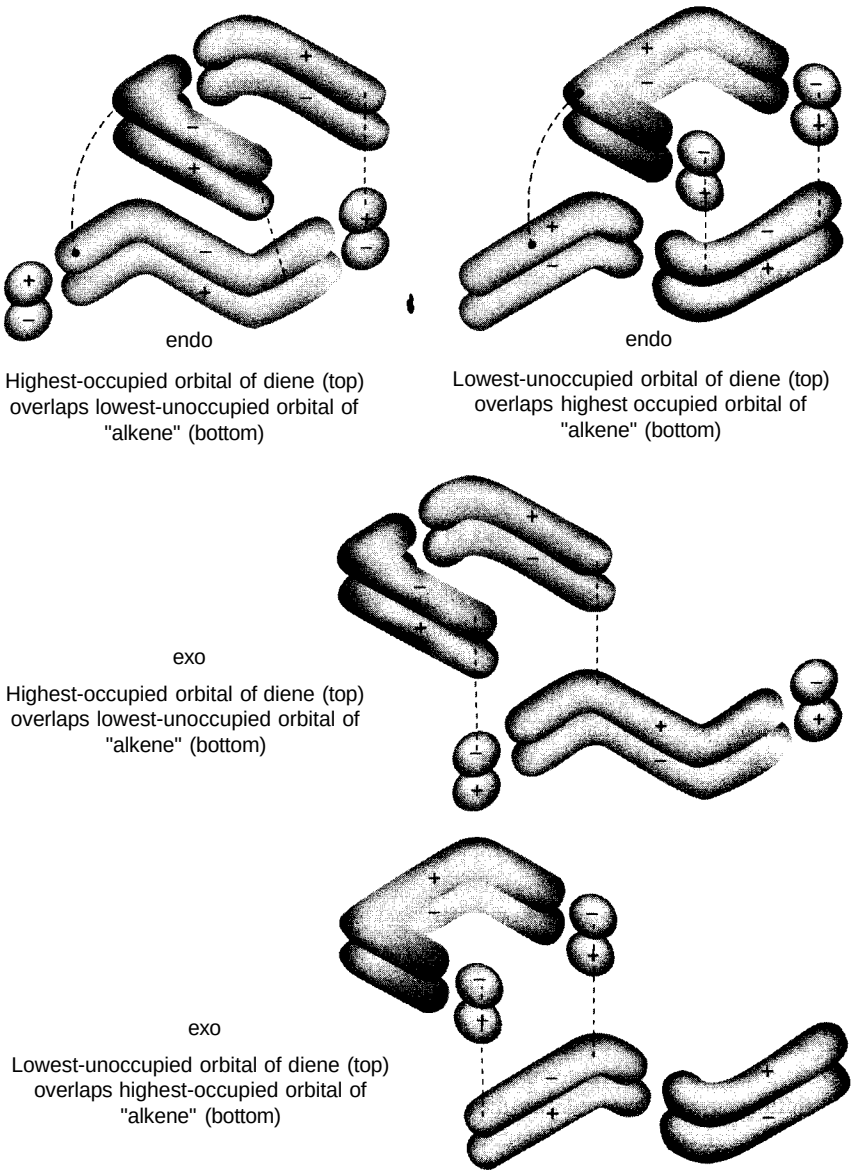


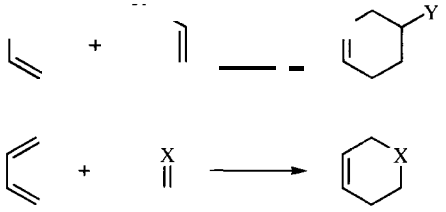
FIGURE 15.10 Overlap of orbitals in 2 + 4 cycloaddition of dienes.

endo orientation is stabilized by additional secondary overlap of orbitals[1266] of like sign (dashed lines between heavy dots). Addition from the exo direction has no such stabilization. Evidence for secondary orbital overlap as the cause of predominant endo orientation, at least in some cases, is that 4 + 6 cycloaddition is predicted by similar considerations to proceed with predominant exo orientation, and that is what is found.[1267] However, this

explanation does not account for endo orientation in cases where the dienophile does not possess additional *n* orbitals, and a number of alternative explanations have been offered.[1268]

OS II, 102; III, 310, 807; IV, 238, 738, 890, 964; V, 414, 424, 604, 985, 1037; VI, 82, 196, 422, 427, 445, 454; VII, 4, 312, 485; VIII, 31, 38, 298, 353, 444, 597; IX, 186, 722; 75, 201. For a reverse Diels–Alder reaction, see OS VII, 339.

15-59 *Heteroatom Diels-Alder Reactions*



Carbon-carbon multiple bonds are not the only units that can participate in Diels-Alder reactions. Other double- and triple-bond compounds can be dienophiles and they give rise to heterocyclic compounds.[1269] Among these are N≡C–, –N=C–,[1270] -N=N-, O=N-,[1271] and -C=O compounds[1272] and, as we have seen (15-49), even molecular oxygen.

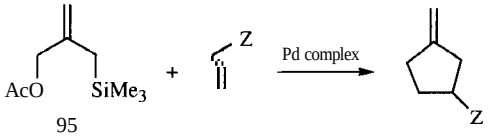
Azadienes undergo Diels-Alder reactions to form pyridine, dihydro- and tetrahydropyridine derivatives.[1273] N-Vinyl lactim ethers undergo Diels-Alder reactions with a limited set of dienophiles.[1274] Thioketones react with dienes to give Diels-Alder cycloadducts.[1275] The carbonyl group of lactams have also been shown to be a dienophile.[1276] Certain heterocyclic aromatic rings (among them furans)[1277] can also behave as dienes in the Diels-Alder reaction. Some hetero dienes that give the reaction are –C=C–C=O, O=C–C=O, and N=C–C=N.[1186]

Catalysts such as $Fe(BuEtCHCO_2)_3$ have been developed that are effective for the heteroatom Diels-Alder reaction.[1278] Indium trichloride ($InCl_3$) is a good catalyst for imino-Diels–Alder reactions.[1279] Hetero-Diels–Alder reactions involving carbonyls have been done in water.[1280] Ultrasound has been used to promote the Diels-Alder reactions of 1-azadienes.[1281]

Heteroatom Diels-Alder reactions that proceed with good to excellent asymmetric induction are well known.[1282] Chiral 1-aza-dienes have been developed as substrates, for example.[1283]

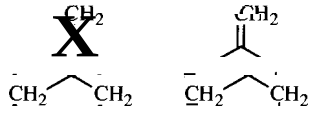
OS IV, 311; V, 60, 96. See also OS VII, 326.

15-60 *All-Carbon 3 + 2 Cycloadditions*[1284]



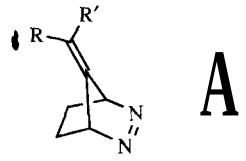
95

Several methods have been reported for the formation of cyclopentanes by 3 + 2 cycloadditions.[1285] One type involves reagents that produce intermediates 96 or 97.[1286] A synthetically useful example[1287] uses 2-[(trimethylsilyl)methyl]-2-propen-1-yl acetate (95), which is commercially available, and a palladium or other transition metal catalyst to generate 96 or 97, which adds to double bonds, to give, in



96 97

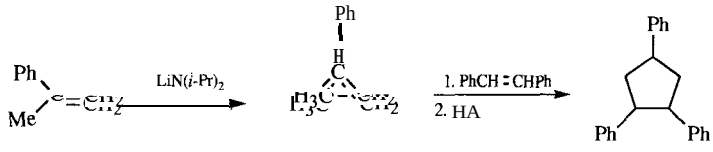
good yields, cyclopentanes with an exocyclic double bond. Similar or identical intermediates generated from bicyclo azo compounds 98 (see 17-36)[1288] or



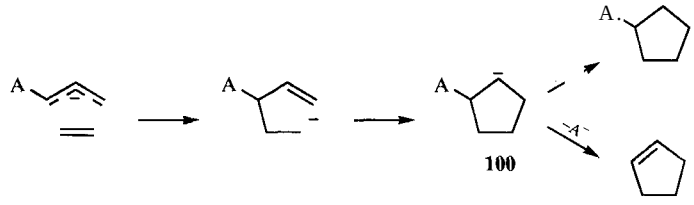
98 99

methylenecyclopropane 99[1289] also add to activated double bonds. With suitable substrates the addition can be enantioselective.[1290]

In a different type of procedure, 3 + 2 cycloadditions are performed with allylic anions. Such reactions are called 1,3-anionic cycloadditions.[1291] For example, α-methylstyrene adds to stilbene on treatment with the strong base lithium diisopropylamide.[1292]



The mechanism can be outlined as

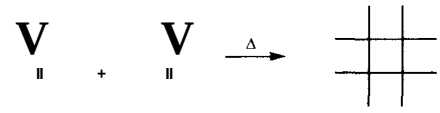


In the case above, 100 is protonated in the last step by the acid HA, but if the acid is omitted and a suitable nucleofuge is present, it may leave, resulting in a cyclopentene.[1293] In these cases the reagent is an allylic anion, but similar 3 + 2 cycloadditions involving allylic cations have also been reported.[1294]

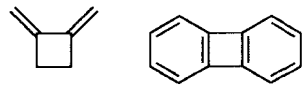
OS VIII, 173, 347.

15-61 *Dimerization of Alkenes*

(2 + 2)*CYCLO*-ETHYLENE-1/2/ADDITION



The thermal reaction between two molecules of alkene to give cyclobutane derivatives (a 2 + 2 cycloaddition) can be carried out where the alkenes are the same or different, but the reaction is not a general one for alkenes.[1295] Dimerization of like alkenes occurs with the following compounds: $F_2C{=}CX_2$ (X=F or Cl) and



101 Biphenylene

certain other fluorinated alkenes (though not $F_2C{=}CH_2$), allenes (to give derivatives of **101**),[1296] benzynes (to give biphenylene derivatives), activated alkenes (e.g., styrene, acrylonitrile, butadiene), and certain methylenecyclopropanes.[1297] Substituted ketenes can dimerize to give cyclobutenone derivatives, although ketene itself dimerizes in a different manner, to give an unsaturated β-lactone (**16-63**).[1298]

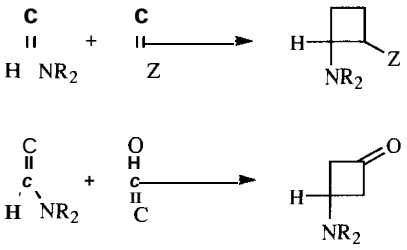
Ketenes react with many alkenes to give cyclobutanone derivatives[1299] and intermolecular cycloadditions are well known.[1300] A typical reaction is that of dimethylketene and ethene to give 2,2-dimethylcyclobutanone.[1301]

Me Me Me

Different alkenes combine as follows:

1. The compounds $F_2C{=}CX_2$ (X = F or Cl), especially $F_2C{=}CF_2$, form cyclobutanes with many alkenes. Compounds of this type even react with conjugated dienes to give four-membered rings rather than undergoing normal Diels–Alder reactions.[1302]
2. Allenes[1303] and ketenes[1304] react with activated alkenes and alkynes. Ketenes give 1,2 addition, even with conjugated dienes.[1305] Ketenes also add to unactivated alkenes if sufficiently long reaction times are used.[1306] Allenes and ketenes also add to each other.[1307]
3. Enamines[1308] form four-membered rings with Michael-type alkenes[1309] and ketenes.[1310] In both cases, only enamines from aldehydes give stable four-

membered rings:

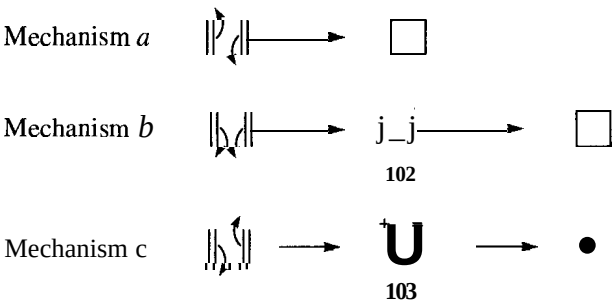


The reaction of enamines with ketenes can be conveniently carried out by generating the ketene *in situ* from an acyl halide and a tertiary amine.

4. Alkenes with electron-withdrawing groups may form cyclobutanes with alkenes containing electron-donating groups. The enamine reactions, mentioned above, are examples of this, but it has also been accomplished with tetracyanoethylene and similar molecules, which give substituted cyclobutanes when treated with alkenes of the form C=C–A, where A may be OR,[1311] SR (enol and thioenol ethers),[1312] cyclopropyl,[1313] or certain aryl groups.[1314]

Solvents are not necessary for 2 + 2 cycloadditions. They are usually carried out at 100–225°C under pressure, although the reactions in Group 4 (IV B) occur under milder conditions.

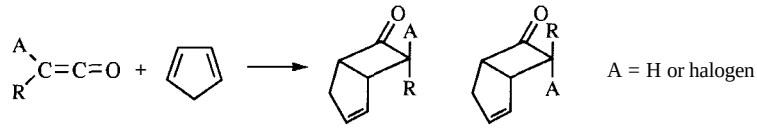
The reaction is similar to the Diels–Alder (in action, not in scope), and if dienes are involved, the latter reaction may compete, though most alkenes react with a diene either entirely by 1,2 or entirely by 1,4 addition. Three mechanisms can be proposed[1315] analogous to those proposed for the Diels–Alder reaction. Mechanism



a is a concerted pericyclic process, and mechanisms *b* and *c* are two-step reactions involving, respectively, a diradical (102) and a di-ion **(103)** intermediate. As in 15-58, a diradical intermediate must be a singlet. In searching for ways to tell which mechanism is operating in a given case, we would expect mechanism *c* to be sensitive to changes in solvent polarity, while mechanisms *a* and *b* should be insensitive. We would also expect mechanism *a* to be stereospecific, while mechanisms *b* and *c* probably would not be stereospecific, though if the second step of these processes takes place very rapidly, before **102** or **103** has a chance to rotate about the newly formed single bond, stereospecificity might be observed. Because of entropy

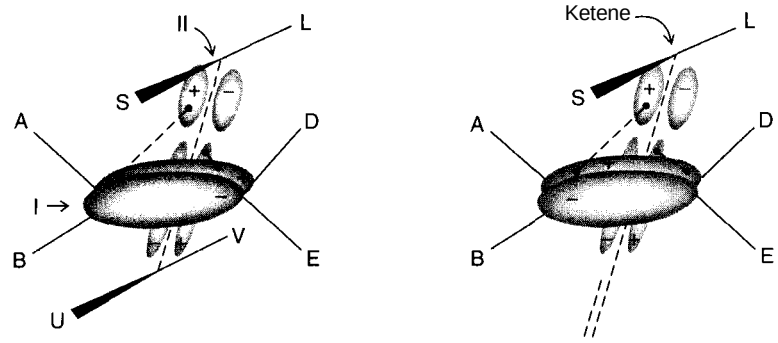
considerations such rapid ring closure might be more likely here than in a 2 + 4 cycloaddition.

There is evidence that the reactions can take place by all three mechanisms, depending on the structure of the reactants. A thermal $[_\pi 2_s + _\pi 2_s]$ mechanism is ruled out for most of these substrates by the orbital symmetry rules, but a $[_\pi 2_s + _\pi 2_a]$ mechanism is allowed (p. 1072), and there is much evidence that ketenes and certain other linear molecules[1316] in which the steric hindrance to such an approach is



endo 104 endo 105

minimal can and often do react by this mechanism. In a $[_\pi 2_s + _\pi 2_a]$ cycloaddition, the molecules must approach each other in such a way (Fig. 15.11*a*) that the (+) lobe of the HOMO of one molecule (I) overlaps with both (+) lobes of the LUMO of the other (II), even though these lobes are on opposite sides of the nodal plane of II. The geometry of this approach requires that the groups S and U of molecule II project *into* the plane of molecule I. This has not been found to happen for ordinary alkenes,[1317] but if molecule II is a ketene (Fig. 15.1 *b),* the group marked U is not present and the $[_\pi 2_s + _\pi 2_a]$ reaction can take place. Among the evidence[1318] for this mechanism[1319] is the following: (1) The reactions are stereospecific.[1320] (2) The isomer that forms is the *more-hindered one.* Thus methylketene plus cyclopentadiene gave only the endo product **(104,** A = H, R = CH_3).[1321] Even more remarkably, when haloalkyl ketenes RXC=C=O were treated with cyclopentadiene, the endo-exo ratio of the product (**104**, **105**, A = halogen) actually *increased* substantially when R was changed from Me to *i*-Pr to *t*-Bu![1322] One would expect preferential formation of the exo products **(105)** from $[_\pi 2_s + _\pi 2_s]$ cycloadditions where the molecules approach each other face-to-face, but a $[_\pi 2_s + _\pi 2_a]$ process leads to endo products because the ketene molecule (which for steric reasons would



(a) *(b)*

FIGURE 15.11 Orbital overlap in $_\pi 2_s + _\pi 2_a$, cycloaddition between *(a)* two alkene molecules and *(b)* a ketene and an alkene. S and L stand for small and large.

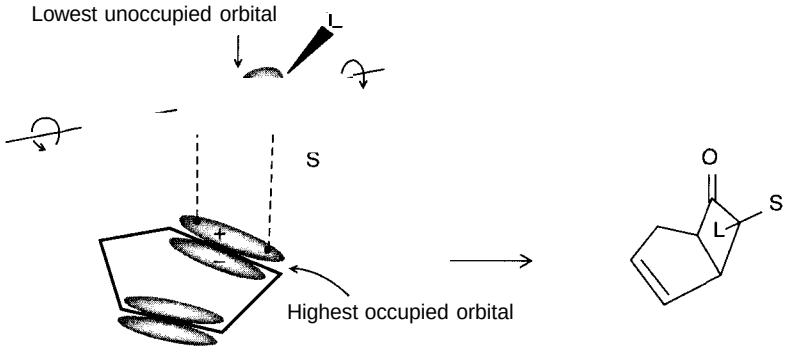
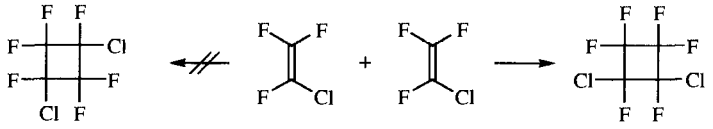


FIGURE 15.12 Orbital overlap in the reaction of a ketene with cyclopentadiene. The S and L stand for small and large.

approach with its smaller group directed toward the alkene) must twist as shown in Fig. 15.12 (L = larger; S = smaller group) in order for the (+) lobes to interact and this swings the larger group into the endo position.[1323] The experimental results in which the amount of endo isomer increases with the increasing size of the R group would seem to be contrary to what would be expected from considerations of steric hindrance (we may call them *masochistic steric effects),* but they are just what is predicted for a $[\pi 2_s + \pi 2_a]$ reaction. (3) There is only moderate polar solvent acceleration.[1324] (4) The rate of the reaction is not very sensitive to the presence of electron-withdrawing or electron-donating substituents.[1325] Because cycloadditions involving allenes are often stereospecific, it has been suggested that these also take place by the $[\pi 2_s + \pi 2_a]$ mechanism,[1326] but the evidence in these cases is more consistent with the diradical mechanism ft.[1327]

The diradical mechanism *b* is most prominent in the reactions involving fluorinated alkenes.[1328] These reactions are generally not stereospecific[1329] and are insensitive to solvent effects. Further evidence that a diion is not involved is that head-to-head coupling is found when an unsymmetrical molecule is dimerized. Thus dimerization of $F_2C{=}CFCl$ gives **106,** not **107.** If one pair of electrons moved before the other, the positive end of one molecule would be expected to attack the negative end of the other.[1330]



The diion mechanism[1331] c has been reported for at least some of the reactions[1332] in categories 3 and 4,[1333] as well as some ketene dimerizations.[1334] For example, the rate of the reaction between l,2-bis(trifluoromethyl)-l,2-dicyanoethene and ethyl vinyl ether was strongly influenced by changes in solvent polarity.[1335] Some of these reactions are nonstereospecific, but others are stereospecific.[1336] As previously indicated, it is likely that in the latter cases the di-ionic

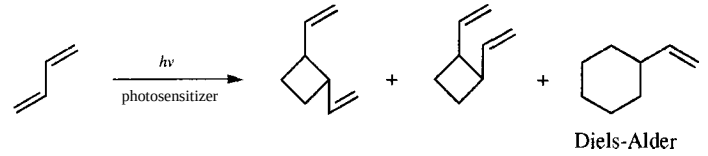
intermediate closes before rotation can take place. Such rapid ring closure is more likely for a diion than for a diradical because of the attraction between the opposite charges. Other evidence for the di-ion mechanism in these cases is that reaction rates are greatly dependent on the presence of electron-donating and electron-withdrawing groups and that it is possible to trap the di-ionic intermediates.

Whether a given alkene reacts by the diradical or di-ion mechanism depends, among other things, on the groups attached to it. For example, phenyl and vinyl groups at the a positions of **102** or **103** help to stabilize a diradical, while donors such as oxygen and nitrogen favor a di-ion (they stabilize the positively charged end).[1337] A table on page 451 of Ref. 960 shows which mechanism is more likely for 2 + 2 cycloadditions of various pairs of alkenes.

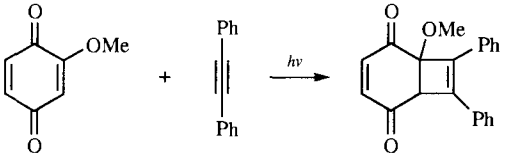
Thermal cleavage of cyclobutanes[1338] to give two alkene molecules *(cyclorever-sion*,[1339] the reverse of 2 + 2 cycloaddition) operates by the diradical mechanism, and the $[_{\sigma}2_{s} + _{CT}2_{a}]$ pathway has not been found[1340] (the subscripts σ indicate that σ bonds are involved in this reaction).

In some cases, double bonds add to triple bonds to give cyclobutenes, apparently at about the same rate that they add to double bonds. The addition of triple bonds to triple bonds would give cyclobutadienes, and this has not been observed, except where these rearrange before they can be isolated (see 15-63)[1341] or in the presence of a suitable coordination compound, so that the cyclobutadiene is produced in the form of a complex (p. 60).[1342]

Although thermal 2 + 2 cycloaddition reactions are essentially limited to the cases described above, many (though by no means all) double-bond compounds undergo such reactions *when photochemically excited* (either directly or by a photosensitizer, see p. 316), even if they are not in the above categories.[1343] Simple alkenes absorb in the far-UV (p. 310), which is difficult to reach experimentally, though this problem can sometimes be overcome by the use of suitable photosensitizers. The reaction has been applied to simple alkenes[1344] (especially to strained compounds such as cyclopropenes and cyclobutenes), but more often the double-bond compounds involved are conjugated dienes,[1345] α,β-unsaturated ketones,[1346] acids, or acid derivatives, or quinones, since these compounds, because they are conjugated, absorb at longer wavelengths (p. 310). Both dimerizations and mixed additions are common, some examples being (see also the example on p. 320):

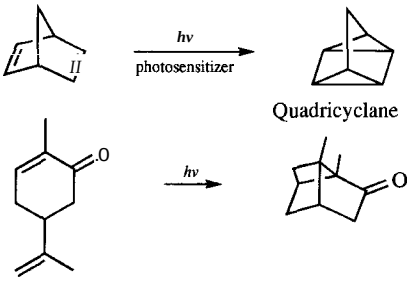


Ref. 1347



Ref. 1348

Photochemical 2 + 2 cycloadditions can also take place intramolecularly if a molecule has two double bonds that are properly oriented.[1349] The cyclization of the quinone dimer shown above is one example. Other examples are



Quadricyclane

Ref. 1350

Carvone

Carvonecamphor

Ref. 1351

It is obvious that many molecules can be constructed in this way that would be difficult to make by other procedures. However, attempted cyclizations of this kind are not always successful. In many cases, polymeric or other side products are obtained instead of the desired product.

It is possible that some of these photochemical cycloadditions take place by a $[_{\pi}2_s + _{\pi}2_s]$ mechanism, which is of course allowed by orbital symmetry; when and if they do, one of the molecules must be in the excited singlet state (S_1) and the other in the ground state.[1352] The nonphotosensitized dimerizations of *cis*- and *trans*-2-butene are stereospecific,[1353] making it likely that the $[_{\pi}2_s + _{\pi}2_s]$ mechanism is operating in these reactions. However, in most cases it is a triplet excited state that reacts with the ground-state molecule; in these cases the diradical (or in certain cases, the di-ionic) mechanism is taking place.[1354] In one intramolecular case, the intermediate diradical has been trapped.[1355] Photosensitized $2\pi + 2\pi$ cycloadditions almost always involve the triplet state, and hence a diradical (or di-ionic) mechanism.

The photochemical diradical mechanism is not quite the same as the thermal diradical mechanism. In the thermal mechanism, the initially formed diradical must be a singlet, but in the photochemical process a triplet excited state is adding to a ground state (which is of course a singlet). Thus, in order to conserve spin,[1356] the initially formed diradical must be a triplet; that is, the two electrons must have the same spin. Consequently, the second, or ring-closing, step of the mechanism cannot take place at once, because a new bond cannot form from a combination of two electrons with the same spin, and the diradical has a reasonably long lifetime before collisions with molecules in the environment allow a spin inversion to take place and the diradical to cyclize. We would therefore predict nonstereospecificity, and that is what is found.[1357] It has been believed that at least some 2 + 2 photocycloadditions take place by way of exciplex intermediates[1358] [an *exciplex*[1359] is an excited EDA complex (p. 102), which is dissociated in the ground state; in this case one double bond is the donor and the other is the acceptor], but there is evidence against this.[1360]

It has been found that certain 2 + 2 cycloadditions that do not occur thermally can be made to take place without photochemical initiation by the use of certain catalysts, usually transition metal compounds.[1361] Among the catalysts used are Lewis acids'[362] and phosphine-nickel complexes.[1363] Certain of the reverse cyclobutane ring openings can also be catalytically induced **(18-38).** The role of the catalyst is not certain and may be different in each case. One possibility is that the presence of the catalyst causes a forbidden reaction to become allowed, through coordination of the catalyst to the *n* or s bonds of the substrate.[1364] In such a case, the reaction would of course be a concerted $2_s + 2_s$ process. However, the available evidence is more consistent with nonconcerted mechanisms involving metal-carbon s-bonded intermediates, at least in most cases.[1365] For example, such an intermediate was isolated in the dimerization of norbornadiene, catalyzed by iridium complexes.[1366]

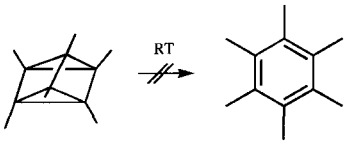
Thermal cycloadditions leading to four-membered rings can also take place between a cyclopropane ring and an alkene or alkyne[1367] bearing electron-withdrawing groups.[1368] These reactions are $_\pi 2 + {}_s 2$ cycloadditions. Ordinary cyclopropanes do not undergo the reaction, but it has been accomplished with strained systems such as bicyclo[1.1.0]butanes[1369] and bicyclo[2.1.0]pentanes. For example, bicyclo[2.1.0]pentane reacts with maleonitrile (or fumaronitrile) to give all three isomers of 2,3-dicyanonorbornane, as well as four other products.[1370] The lack of stereospecificity and the negligible effect of solvent on the rate indicate a diradical mechanism. Photochemical[1371] and metal-catalyzed[1372] $_\pi 2 + {}_s 2$ cycloadditions have also been reported.

In **15-58,** we used the principle of conservation of orbital symmetry to explain why certain reactions take place readily and others do not. The orbital symmetry principle can also explain why certain molecules are stable though highly strained. For example, quadricyclane and hexamethylprismane[1373] are thermodynamically much less stable (because much more strained) than their corresponding isomeric dienes, norbornadiene and hexamethylbicyclo[2.2.0]hexadiene (**108**).[1374] Yet the

Quadricyclane Norbornadiene Hexamethylprismane **108** (A Dewar benzene)

former two compounds can be kept indefinitely at room temperature (RT), although in the absence of orbital-symmetry considerations it is not easy to understand why the electrons simply do not move over to give the more stable diene isomers. The reason is that both these reactions involve the conversion of a cyclobutane ring to a pair of double bonds (a $_s 2 + {}_s 2$ process) and, as we have seen, a thermal process of this sort is forbidden by the Woodward-Hoffmann rules. The process is allowed photochemically, and we are not surprised to find that both quadricyclane and hexamethylprismane are photochemically converted to the respective dienes at RT or below.[1375] It is also possible to conceive of simple bond rearrangements whereby

hexamethylprismane is converted to hexamethylbenzene, which of course is far more



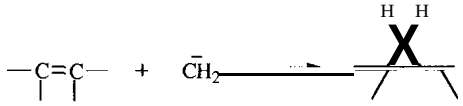
stable than either hexamethylprismane or **108.** It has been calculated that hexamethylbenzene is at least 90 kcal mol^{-1} (380 kJ mol^{-1}) more stable than hexamethylprismane. The fact that hexamethylprismane does not spontaneously undergo this reaction has prompted the observation[1376] that the prismane has "the aspect of an angry tiger unable to break out of a paper cage". However, a correlation diagram for this reaction1376 discloses that it too is a symmetry-forbidden process. All three of these "forbidden" reactions do take place when the compounds are heated, but the diradical mechanism is likely under these conditions.[1377]

Bicyclo[2.2.0]hexadienes and prismanes are *valence isomers* of benzenes.[1378] These compounds actually have the structures that were proposed for benzenes in the nineteenth century. Prismanes have the Ladenburg formula, and bicyclo[2.2.0]-hexadienes have the Dewar formula. Because of this bicyclo[2.2.0]hexadiene is often called Dewar benzene. On page 32 it was mentioned that Dewar formulas are canonical forms (though not very important) of benzenes. Yet, they also exist as separate compounds in which the positions of the nuclei are different from those of benzenes.

OS V, 54, 235, 277, 297, 370, 393, 424, 459, 528; **VI,** 378, 571, 962, 1002, 1024, 1037; **VII,** 177, 256, 315; **VIII,** 82, 116, 306, 377; **IX,** 28, 275. For the reverse reaction, see OS V, 734.

15-62 *The Addition of Carbenes and Carbenoids to Double and Triple Bonds*

fiPJ-METHYLENE-ADDITION



Carbenes and substituted carbenes add to double bonds to give cyclopropane derivatives ([1 + 2]-cycloaddition).[1379] Many derivatives of carbene (e.g., PhCH, ROCH)[1380] and $Me_2C{=}C$, and $C(CN)_2$, have been added to double bonds, but the reaction is most often performed with CH_2 itself, with halo and dihalocarbenes,[1381] and with carbalkoxycarbenes[1382] (generated from diazoacetic esters). Alkylcarbenes (HCR) have been added to alkenes,[1383] but more often these rearrange to give alkenes (p. 252). The carbene can be generated in any of the ways normally used (p. 249). However, most reactions in which a cyclopropane is formed by treatment of an alkene with a carbene "precursor" do not actually involve free carbene

intermediates. In some cases, it is certain that free carbenes are not involved, and in other cases there is doubt. Because of this, the term *carbene transfer* is often used to cover all reactions in which a double bond is converted to a cyclopropane, whether a carbene or a carbenoid (p. 250) is actually involved.

Carbene itself is extremely reactive and gives many side reactions, especially insertion reactions **(12-19),** which greatly reduce yields. When it is desired to add CH_2 for preparative purposes, free carbene is not used, but the Simmons-Smith procedure (p. 1088) or some other method that does not involve free carbenes is employed instead. Halocarbenes are less active than carbenes, and this reaction proceeds quite well, since insertion reactions do not interfere.[1384] The absolute rate constant for addition of selected alkoxychlorocarbene to butenes has been measured to range from 330 $M^{-1}s^{-1}$ to 1 x 10^4 $M^{-1}s^{-1}$.[1385] A few of the many ways[1386] in which halocarbenes or carbenoids are generated for this reaction are the following,[1387] most of which involve formal elimination (the first two steps of the S_N1cB mechanism, p. 448):

$$CH_2Cl_2 + RLi \longrightarrow CHCl$$

$$N_2CHBr \xrightarrow{h\nu} CHBr$$

$$CHCl_3 + OH^- \longrightarrow CCl_2$$

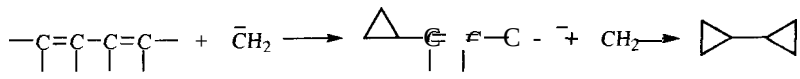
$$PhHgCCl_2Br \xrightarrow{\Delta} CCl_2 \qquad \text{Ref. 1388}$$

$$Me_3SnCF_3 + NaI \longrightarrow CF_2 \qquad \text{Ref. 1389}$$

$$Me_2CBr_2 \xrightarrow{\text{electrolysis}} Me_2C: \qquad \text{Ref. 1390}$$

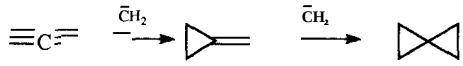
The reaction between $CHCl_3$ and OH^- is often carried out under phase-transfer conditions.[1391] It has been shown that the reaction between $PhCHCl_2$ and *t*-BuOK produces a carbenoid, but when the reaction is run in the presence of a crown ether, the free PhCCl is formed instead.[1392] Dihalocyclopropanes are very useful compounds[1393] that can be reduced to cyclopropanes, treated with magnesium or sodium to give allenes (18-3), or converted to a number of other products.

Alkenes of all types can be converted to cyclopropane derivatives by this reaction (though difficulty may be encountered with sterically hindered ones).[1394] Even tetracyanoethylene, which responds very poorly to electrophilic attack, gives cyclopropane derivatives with carbenes.[1395] Conjugated dienes give 1,2 addition:[1396]



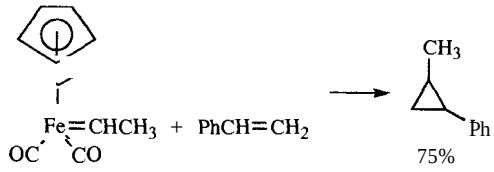
Addition of a second mole gives bicyclopropyl derivatives.[1397] 1,4 Addition is rare but has been reported in certain cases.[1398] Carbene adds to ketene to give cyclo-

propanone.[1399] Allenes react with carbenes to give cyclopropanes with exocyclic unsaturation:[1400]



A second mole gives spiropentanes. In fact, any size ring with an exocyclic double bond can be converted by a carbene to a spiro compound.[1401]

Free carbenes can also be avoided by using transition metal–carbene complexes $L_n M{=}CRR'$ (L = a ligand, M = a metal),[1402] which add the group CRR'to double bonds.[1403] An example is[1404]



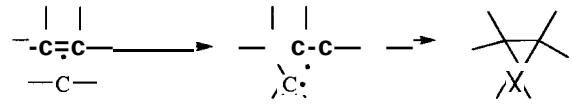
These complexes can be isolated in some cases; in others they are generated *in situ* from appropriate precursors, of which diazo compounds are among the most important. These compounds, including CH_2N_2 and other diazoalkanes, react with metals or metal salts (copper, palladium, and rhodium are most commonly used) to give the carbene complexes that add CRR' to double bonds.[1405] Ethyl α-diazoacetate reacts with styrene in the presence of bis(ferrocenyl) bis(imine), for example, to give ethyl 2-phenylcyclopropane-1-carboxylate.[1406] Optically active complexes have been used for enantioselective cyclopropane synthesis.[1407] Decomposition of diazoalkanes in the presence of chiral rhodium complexes leads to optically active cyclopropanes.[1408] An asymmetric, intramolecular cyclopropanation reaction has been reported that generates bicyclo[4.1.0]heptan-4-ones.[1409] In the presence of copper triflate[1410] or rhodium complexes,[1411] ethyl diazoacetate adds to imines to give aziridines.

Triple-bond compounds[1412] react with carbenes to give cyclopropenes, except that in the case of acetylene itself, the cyclopropenes first formed cannot be isolated because they rearrange to allenes.[1413] Cyclopropenones (p. 58) are obtained by hydrolysis of dihalocyclopropenes.[1414]

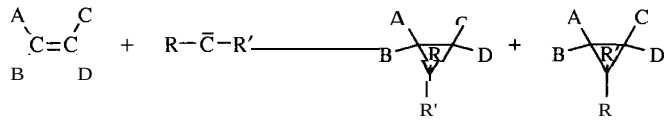
Most carbenes are electrophilic, and, in accord with this, electron-donating substituents on the alkene increase the rate of the reaction, and electron-withdrawing groups decrease it,[1415] though the range of relative rates is not very great.[1416] As discussed on page 252, carbenes in the singlet state (which is the most common state) react stereospecifically and syn,[1417] probably by a one-step mechanism,[1418] similar to mechanism *a* of 15-58 and 15-61:

Infrared spectra of a carbene and the cyclopropane product have been observed in an argon matrix at 12-45 K.[1419] Carbenes in the triplet state react nonstereospecifi-

cally,[1420] probably by a diradical mechanism, similar to mechanism *b* of 15-47 and 15-61:

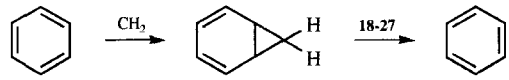


For carbenes or carbenoids of the type R—C—R′ there is another aspect of stereochemistry.[1421] When these species are added to all but symmetrical alkenes, two isomers are possible, even if the four groups originally on the double-bond carbons maintain their configurations:



Which isomer is predominantly formed depends on R, R', and on the method by which the carbene or carbenoid is generated. Most studies have been carried out on monosubstituted species (R' = H), and in these studies it is found that aryl groups generally prefer the more substituted side (syn addition) while carbethoxy groups usually show anti stereoselectivity. When R = halogen, free halocarbenes show little or no stereochemical preference, while halocarbenoids exhibit a preference for syn addition. Beyond this, it is difficult to make simple generalizations.

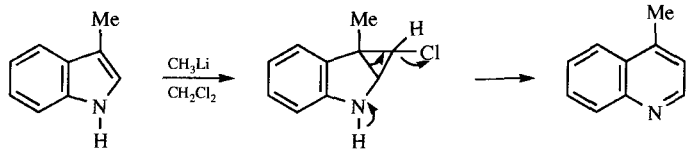
Carbenes are so reactive that they add to the "double bonds"of aromatic rings. The products are usually not stable and rearrange to give ring expansion. Carbene reacts with benzene to give cycloheptatriene:[1422]



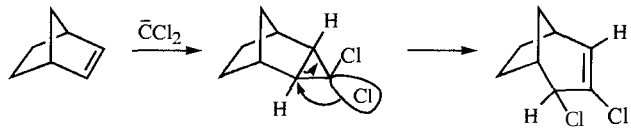
Norcaradiene

but not all carbenes are reactive enough to add to benzene. The norcaradiene intermediate cannot be isolated in this case (it undergoes an electrocyclic rearrangement, **18-27**),[1423] though certain substituted norcaradienes, for example, the product of addition of $C(CN)_2$ to benzene,[1424] have been isolated.[1425] With CH_2, insertion is a major side reaction, and, for example, benzene gives toluene as well as cycloheptatriene. A method of adding CH_2 to benzene rings without the use of free carbene is the catalytic decomposition of CH_2N_2 in the aromatic compound as solvent with CuCl or CuBr.[1426] By this method, better yields of cycloheptatrienes are obtained without insertion side products. Picosecond optical grating calorimetry has been used to investigate the photochemical decomposition of diazomethane in benzene, and it appears that a transient is formed that is consistent with a weak complex between singlet methylene and benzene.[1427] The compound CHC1 is active enough to add to benzene, but dihalocarbenes do not add to benzene or toluene, only to rings with greater electron density. Pyrroles and indoles can be expanded,

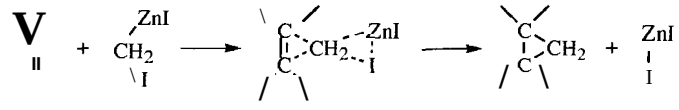
respectively, to pyridines and quinolines by treatment with halocarbenes,[1428] for example



In such cases, a side reaction that sometimes occurs is expansion of the *six-membered* ring. Ring expansion can occur even with nonaromatic compounds, when the driving force is supplied by relief of strain,[1429] for example



As previously mentioned, free carbene is not very useful for additions to double bonds since it gives too many side products. The *Simmons–Smithreaction* accomplishes the same result without a free carbene intermediate and without insertion side products.[1430] This procedure involves treatment of the double-bond compound with CH_2I_2 and a Zn—Cu couple and leads to cyclopropane derivatives in good yields.[1431] The Zn—Cu couple can be prepared in several ways,[1432] of which heating Zn dust with CuCl in ether under nitrogen[1433] is particularly convenient. The reaction has also been done with unactivated zinc and ultrasound.[1434] When $TiCl_4$ is used along with Zn and CuCl, CH_2I_2 can be replaced by the cheaper CH_2Br_2.[1435] The actual attacking species is an organozinc intermediate, probably $(ICH_2)_2Zn{\cdot}ZnI_2$. This intermediate is stable enough for solutions of it to be isolable.[1436] An X-ray crystallographic investigation of the intermediate, complexed with a diether, has been reported.[1437] The addition is stereospecifically syn, and a concerted mechanism[1438] is likely, perhaps[1439] Asymmetric induction is possible when chiral additives



are used.[1440] With the Simmons-Smith procedure, as with free carbenes, conjugated dienes give 1,2 addition,[1441] and allenes give methylenecyclopropanes or spiropentanes.

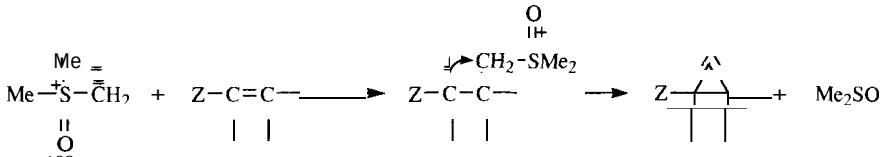
An alternative way of carrying out the Simmons-Smith reaction is by treatment of the substrate with CH_2I_2 or another dihalomethane and Et_2Zn in ether. This method can be adapted to the introduction of RCH and ArCH by the use of $RCHI_2$ or $ArCHI_2$ instead of the dihalomethane.[1442] In another method, CH_2I_2 or $MeCHI_2$ is used along with an alane R_3Al to transfer CH_2 or MeCH.[1443] For the conversion of enolates to cyclopropanols, CH_2I_2 has been used along with SmI_2.[1444]

Other cyclopropanation techniques have been developed. Treatment of an alkene with $ArCH(SnBu_3)OCO_2Me$ and $BF_3{\cdot}OEt_2$ leads to the cyclopropane with high cis

selectivity.[1445] Diodomethane in the presence of isopropylmagnesium chloride has been used to cyclopropanate allyl alcohols.[1446]

The Simmons–Smith reaction has been used as the basis of a method for the indirect a methylation of a ketone.[1447] The ketone (illustrated for cyclohexanone) is first converted to an enol ether, an enamine **(16-12)** or silyl enol ether (**12-22**)[1448] and cyclopropanation via the Simmons-Smith reaction is followed by hydrolysis to give a methylated ketone. A related procedure using diethylzinc and diiodomethane allows ketones to be chain extended by one carbon.[1449] In another variation, phenols can be ortho methylated in one laboratory step, by treatment with Et_2Zn and CH_2I_2.[1450]

Double-bond compounds that undergo the Michael reaction **(15-21)** can be converted to cyclopropane derivatives with sulfur ylids.[1451] Among the most common of these is dimethyloxosulfonium methylid (**109**),[1452] which is widely used to



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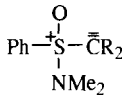
transfer CH_2 to activated double bonds, but other sulfur ylids have also been used. Both CHR and CR_2 can be added in a similar manner with certain nitrogen-containing compounds. For example, ylids[1453] such as **110** add various groups to

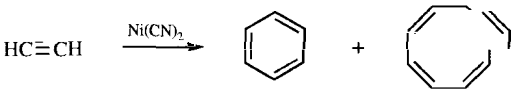


110

activated double bonds.[1454] Similar reactions have been performed with phosphorus ylids,[1455] with pyridinium ylids,[1456] and with the compounds $(PhS)_3CLi$ and $Me_3Si(PhS)_2CLi$.[1457] The reactions with ylids are of course nucleophilic addition.

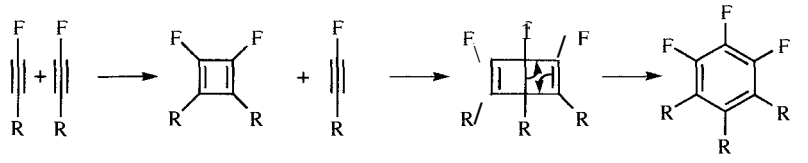
OS **V,** 306, 855, 859, 874; **VI,** 87, 142, 187, 327, 731, 913, 974; **VII,** 12, 200, 203; **VIII,** 124, 196, 321, 467; **IX,** 422; **76,** 86.

15-63 *Trimerization and Tetramerization of Alkynes*



When acetylene is heated with nickel cyanide, other Ni(II) or Ni(0) compounds, or similar catalysts, it gives benzene and cyclooctatetraene.[1458] It is possible to get more of either product by a proper choice of catalyst. Substituted acetylenes give substituted benzenes.[1459] This reaction has been used to prepare very crowded molecules. Diisopropylacetylene was trimerized over $CO_2(CO)_8$ and over $Hg[Co(CO)_4]_2$ to hexaisopropylbenzene.[1460] The six isopropyl groups are not free to rotate but are lined up perpendicular to the plane of the benzene ring. Highly substituted benzene derivatives have also been prepared using a rhodium complex.[1461] A triyne

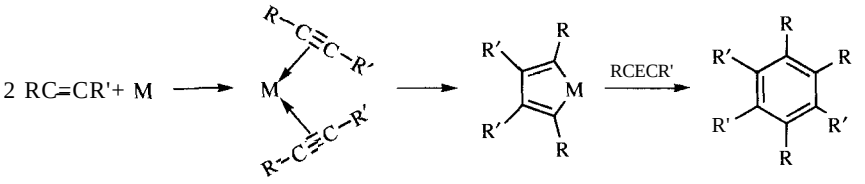
containing an N-tosyl unit was trimerized in the presence of $Mo(CO)_6$ to a tricyclic compound containing a benzene ring.[1462] Even more interesting was the *spontaneous* (no catalyst) trimerization of *t*-BuC≡CF to give 1,2,3-tri-*tert*-butyl-4,5,6-trifluorobenzene **(112),** the first time three adjacent tert-butyl groups had been put onto a benzene ring.[1463] The fact that this is a head-to-head joining makes the following sequence likely:



R = *tert*-butyl **111** **112**

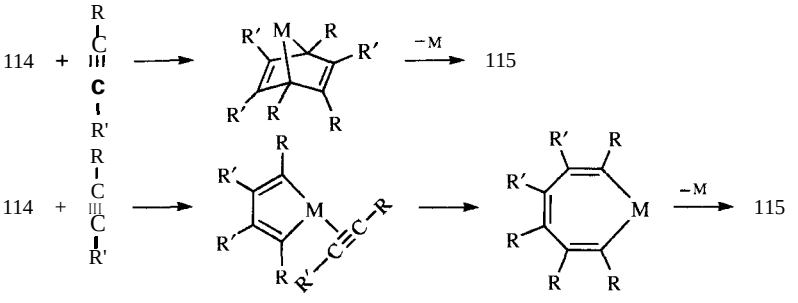
The fact that **111** (a Dewar benzene) was also isolated lends support to this scheme.[1464] Three equivalents of 3-hexyne trimerized to hexaethylbenzene at 200°C in the presence of SI_2Cl_6.[1465]

In contrast to the spontaneous reaction, the catalyzed process seldom gives the 1,2,3-trisubstituted benzene isomer from an acetylene RC=CH. The chief product is usually the 1,2,4-isomer, with lesser amounts of the 1,3,15-isomer also generally obtained, but little if any of the 1,2,3-isomer. The mechanism of the catalyzed



113 114 **115**

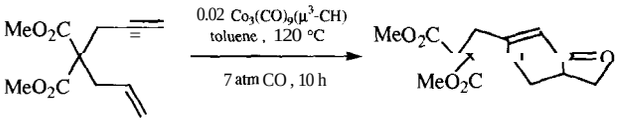
reaction to form benzenes[1466] is believed to go through a species **113** in which two molecules of alkyne coordinate with the metal, and another species **114,** a five-membered heterocyclic intermediate.[1467] Such intermediates (where M = Rh, Ir, or Ni) have been isolated and shown to give benzenes **(115)** when treated with alkynes.[1468] Note that this pathway accounts for the predominant formation of the 1,2,4-isomer. Two possibilities for the last step are a Diels–Alder reaction, and a ring expansion, each followed by extrusion of the metal:[1469]



In at least one case the mechanism is different, going through a cyclobutadiene-nickel complex (p. 60), which has been isolated.[1470]

When benzene, in the gas phase, was adsorbed onto a surface of 10% rhodium-on-alumina, the reverse reaction took place, and acetylene was formed.[1471]

The reaction of alkenes with alkenes or alkynes does not always produce an aromatic ring. An important variation of this reaction reacts dienes, diynes, or enynes with transition metals to form organometallic coordination complexes. In the presence of carbon monoxide, cyclopentenone derivatives are formed in what is known as the *Pauson-Khand reaction.*[1472] The reaction involves (1) formation of a hexacarbonyldicobalt-alkyne complex and (2) decomposition of the complex in the presence of an alkene.[1472] A typical example is[1473] Rhodium[1474] and tungsten[1475]



complexes have also been used for this reaction. The reaction can be promoted photochemically[1476] and the rate is enhanced by the presence of primary amines.[1477] Coordinating ligands also accelerate the reaction.[1478] Asymmetric Pauson-Khand reactions are known.[1479]

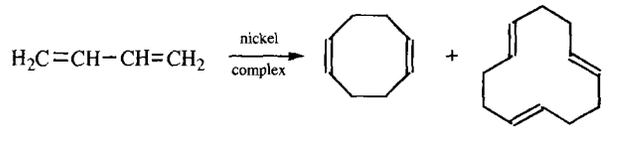
For addition of triple bonds to triple bonds, but not with ring formation, see **15-19.**

In a related reaction, heating ketones in the presence of $TlCl_3OTf$ leads to 1,3,5-trisubstituted arenes.[1480] Nitriles react with 2 mol of acetylene, in the presence of a cobalt catalyst, to give 2-substituted pyridines.[1481] Triketones fix nitrogen gas in the presence of $TiCl_4$ and lithium metal to form bicyclic pyrrole derivatives.[1482]

OS **VII,** 256; IX, 1.

15-64 *Other Cycloaddition Reactions*

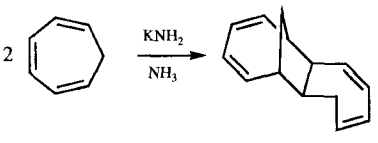
CYCLO-[BUT-2-EN-1,4-DIYL]-1/4/ADDITION, AND SO ON



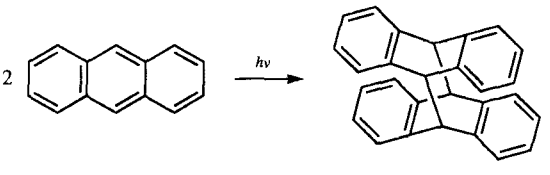
Conjugated dienes can be dimerized or trimerized at their 1,4 positions (formally, [4 + 4] and [4 + 4 + 4] cycloadditions) by treatment with certain complexes or other transition metal compounds.[1483] Thus butadiene gives 1,5-cyclooctadiene and 1,5,9-cyclododecatriene.[1484] The relative amount of each product can be controlled by use of the proper catalyst. For example, $Ni:P(OC_6H_4\text{–}o\text{-}Ph)_3$ gives predominant dimerization, while Ni(cyclooctadiene)$_2$ gives mostly trimerization. The products arise, not by direct 1,4 to 1,4 attack, but by stepwise mechanisms involving metal-alkene complexes.[1485]

As we saw in **15-58,** the Woodward-Hoffmann rules allow suprafacial concerted cycloadditions to take place thermally if the total number of electrons is $An + 2$ and

photochemically if the number is *An.* Furthermore, forbidden reactions become allowed if one molecule reacts antarafacially. It would thus seem that syntheses of many large rings could easily be achieved. However, when the newly formed ring is eight-membered or greater, concerted mechanisms, though allowed by orbital symmetry for the cases stated, become difficult to achieve because of the entropy factor (the two ends of one system must simultaneously encounter the two ends of the other), unless one or both components are cyclic, in which case the molecule has many fewer possible conformations. There have been a number of reports of cycloaddition reactions leading to eight-membered and larger rings, some thermally and some photochemically induced, but (apart from the dimerization and trimerization of butadienes mentioned above, which are known not to involve direct [4 + 4] or [4 + 4 + 4] cycloaddition) in most cases evidence is lacking to indicate whether they are concerted or stepwise processes. Some examples are

2 + 6 

Ref. 1486

4 + 4 

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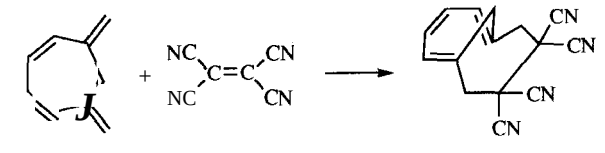
2 + 8 

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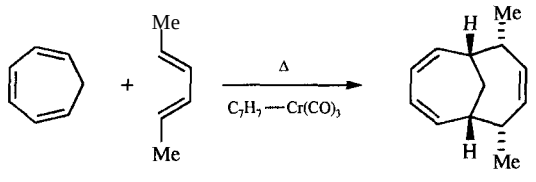
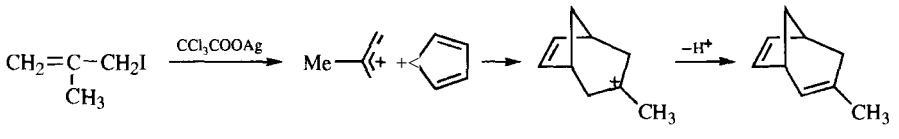
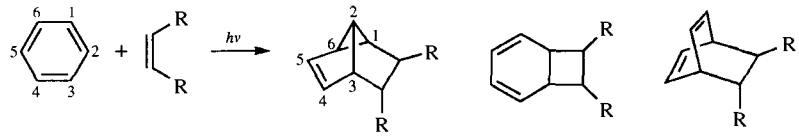
4 + 6 

The suprafacial thermal addition of an allylic cation to a diene (a [3 + 4] cycloaddition) is allowed by the Woodward-Hoffmann rules (this reaction would be expected to follow the same rules as the Diels–Alder reaction[1490]). Such cycloadditions can be carried out[1491] by treatment of a diene with an allylic halide in the presence of a suitable silver salt, for example,[1492]



This reaction has even been carried out with benzene assuming the role of the diene.[1493]

Benzene rings can undergo photochemical cycloaddition with alkenes.[1494] The major product is usually the 1,3 addition product, **116** (in which a three-membered ring has also been formed), though some of the 1,2 product **(117)**



116 **117** **118**

(15-61) is sometimes formed as well. (Compound **117** is usually the main product where the alkene bears electron-withdrawing groups and the aromatic compound electron-donating groups, or vice versa.) The 1,4 product **(118)** is rarely formed. The reaction has also been run with benzenes substituted with alkyl, halo, OR, CN, and other groups, and with acyclic and cyclic alkenes bearing various groups.[1495]

A [2 + 2 + 2]-cycloaddition reaction is also known, facilitated by Ni(cod)2.[1496]

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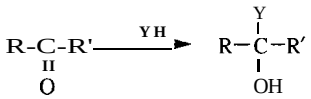
CHAPTER 16

Addition to Carbon-Hetero Multiple Bonds

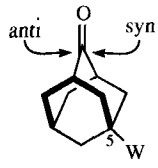
MECHANISM AND REACTIVITY

The reactions considered in this chapter involve addition to the carbon-oxygen, carbon–nitrogen, and carbon-sulfur double bonds and the carbon–nitrogen triple bond. The mechanistic study of these reactions is much simpler than that of the additions to carbon-carbon multiple bonds considered in Chapter 15.[1] Most of the questions that concerned us there either do not arise here or can be answered very simply. Since C=O, C=N, and C≡N bonds are strongly polar, with the carbon always the positive end (except for isocyanides, see p. 1251), there is never any doubt about the *orientation* of unsymmetrical addition to these bonds. Nucleophilic attacking species always go to the carbon and electrophilic ones to the oxygen or nitrogen. Additions to C=S bonds are much less common,[2] but in these cases the addition can be in the other direction.[3] For example, thiobenzophenone ($Ph_2C{=}S$), when treated with phenyllithium gives, after hydrolysis, benzhydryl phenyl sulfide (Ph_2CHSPh).[4] The *stereochemistry* of addition is not generally a factor because it is not normally possible to determine whether the addition is syn or anti. In addition of YH to a ketone, for example,



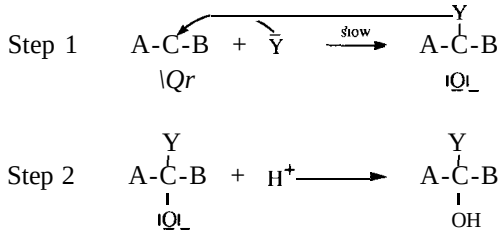
the product has a chiral carbon, but unless there is chirality in R or R' or YH is optically active, the product must be a racemic mixture and there is no way to tell from its steric nature whether the addition of Y and H was syn or anti. The same holds true for C=N and C=S bonds, since in none of these cases can chirality be present at the hetero atom. The stereochemistry of addition of a single YH to the carbon–nitrogen triple bond could be investigated, since the product can exist in (*E*) and (Z) forms (p. 139), but these reactions are not very important. Of course, if R or R' *is* chiral, a racemic mixture will not always arise and the stereochemistry of addition can be studied in such cases. Cram's rule (p. 147) allows us to predict the direction of attack of Y in many cases.[5] However, even in this type of study, the relative directions of attack of Y and H are not determined, but only the direction of attack of Y with respect to the rest of the substrate molecule.

On page 987, it was mentioned that electronic effects can play a part in determining which face of a carbon-carbon double bond is attacked. The same applies to additions to carbonyl groups. For example, in 5-substituted adamantanones:



electron-withdrawing ($-I$) groups W cause the attack to come from the syn face, while electron-donating groups cause it to come from the anti face.[6] In 5,6-disubstituted norborn-2-en-7-one systems, the carbonyl appears to tilt away from the π bond, with reduction occurring from the more hindered face.[7] An *ab initio* study of nucleophilic addition to 4-*tert*-butylcyclohexanones attempted to predict π-facial selectivity in that system.[8]

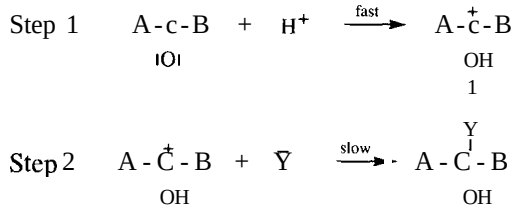
The mechanistic picture is further simplified by the fact that free-radical additions to carbon-hetero double bonds are rare.[9] The principal question remaining is which attacks first, the nucleophile or electrophile. In most cases it is the nucleophile that forms the first new bond to carbon, and these reactions are regarded as *nucleophilic additions*, which can be represented thus (for the C=O bond, analogously for the others):



The electrophile shown in step 2 is the proton. In almost all the reactions considered in this chapter, the electrophilic attacking atom is either hydrogen or carbon. It may be noted that step 1 is exactly the same as step 1 of the tetrahedral mechanism of nucleophilic substitution at a carbonyl carbon (p. 424), and it might be expected that substitution would compete with addition. However, this is seldom the case. When A and B are H, R, or Ar, the substrate is an aldehyde or ketone and these almost never undergo substitution, owing to the extremely poor nature of H, R, and Ar as leaving groups. For carboxylic acids and their derivatives (B = OH, OR, NH_2, etc.), addition is seldom found because these are much better leaving groups. It is thus the nature of A and B that determines whether a nucleophilic attack at a carbon-hetero multiple bond will lead to substitution or addition.

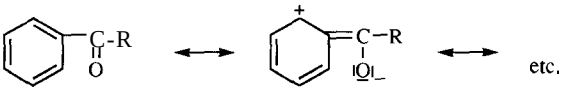
As is the case in the tetrahedral mechanism, it is also possible for the electrophilic species to attack first, in which case it goes to the heteroatom. This species is most

often a proton and the mechanism is



No matter which species attacks first, the rate-determining step is usually the one involving nucleophilic attack. It may be observed that many of these reactions can be catalyzed by both acids and bases.[10] Bases catalyze the reaction by converting a reagent of the form YH to the more powerful nucleophile Y^- (see p. 438). Acids catalyze it by converting the substrate to an ion (e.g., 1) in which the positive charge on the carbon is greatly increased, thus making it more attractive to nucleophilic attack. Similar catalysis can also be found with metallic ions, such as Ag^+, which act here as Lewis acids.[11] We have mentioned before (p. 223) that ions of type 1 are comparatively stable carbocations because the positive charge is spread by resonance.

Reactivity factors in additions to carbon-hetero multiple bonds are similar to those for the tetrahedral mechanism of nucleophilic substitution.[12] If A and/or B are electron-donating groups, rates are decreased. Electron-attracting substituents increase rates. This means that aldehydes are more reactive than ketones. Aryl groups are somewhat deactivating compared to alkyl, because of resonance that stabilizes the substrate molecule but is lost on going to the intermediate:

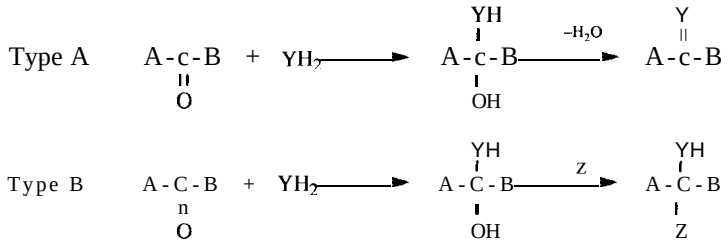


Double bonds in conjugation with the carbon-hetero multiple bond also lower addition rates, for similar reasons but, more important, may provide competition from 1,4 addition (p. 977). Steric factors are also quite important and contribute to the decreased reactivity of ketones compared with aldehydes. Highly hindered ketones like hexamethylacetone and dineopentyl ketone either do not undergo many of these reactions or require extreme conditions.

REACTIONS

Many of the reactions in this chapter are simple additions to carbon-hetero multiple bonds, with the reaction ending when the two groups have been added. But in many

other cases subsequent reactions take place. We shall meet a number of such reactions, but most are of two types:



In type *A*, the adduct loses water (or, in the case of addition to C=NH, ammonia, etc.), and the net result of the reaction is the substitution of C=Y for C=O (or C=NH, etc.). In type *B*, there is a rapid substitution, and the OH (or NH_2, etc.) is replaced by another group Z, which is often another YH moiety. This substitution is in most cases nucleophilic, since Y usually has an unshared pair and S_N1 reactions occur very well on this type of compound (see p. 434), even when the leaving group is as poor as OH or NH_2. In this chapter, we shall classify reactions according to what is initially adding to the carbon-hetero multiple bond, even if subsequent reactions take place so rapidly that it is not possible to isolate the initial adduct.

Most of the reactions considered in this chapter can be reversed. In many cases, we shall consider the reverse reactions with the forward ones, in the same section. The reverse of some of the other reactions are considered in other chapters. In still other cases, one of the reactions in this chapter is the reverse of another (e.g., 16-2 and 16-12). For reactions that are reversible, the principle of microscopic reversibility (p. 285) applies.

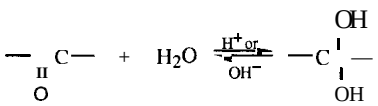
We shall discuss first reactions in which hydrogen or a metallic ion (or in one case phosphorus or sulfur) adds to the hetero atom, and then reactions in which carbon adds to the hetero atom. Within each group, the reactions are classified by the nature of the nucleophile. Additions to isocyanides, which are different in character, are treated at the end.

Reactions in Which Hydrogen or a Metallic Ion Adds to the Hetero Atom

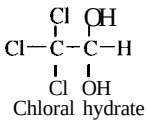
A. *Attack by OH (Addition of H_2O)*

16-1 *The Addition of Water to Aldehydes and Ketones: Formation of Hydrates*

O-HYDRO-*C*-HYDROXY-ADDITION



The adduct formed upon addition of water to an aldehyde or ketone is called a hydrate or *gem*-diol.[13] These compounds are usually stable only in water solution and decompose on distillation; that is the equilibrium shifts back toward the carbonyl compound. The position of the equilibrium is greatly dependent on the structure of the hydrate. Thus, formaldehyde in water at 20°C exists 99.99% in the hydrated form, while for acetaldehyde this figure is 58%, and for acetone the hydrate concentration is negligible.[14] It has been found, by exchange with ^{18}O, that the reaction with acetone is quite rapid when catalyzed by acid or base, but the equilibrium lies on the side of acetone and water.[15] Since methyl, a +/ group, inhibits hydrate formation, it may be expected that electron-attracting groups would have the opposite effect, and this is indeed the case. The hydrate of chloral[16] is a stable crystalline substance. In order for it to revert to chloral, OH^- or H_2O must leave; this is made difficult by the electron-withdrawing character of the Cl_3C group. Some other[17] polychlorinated and polyfluorinated aldehydes and ketones[18] and α-keto

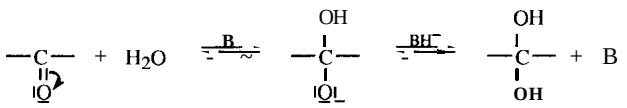

Chloral hydrate

Hydrate of cyclopropanone

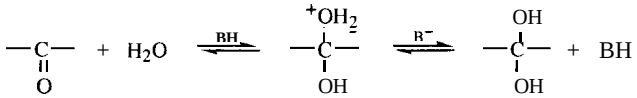
aldehydes also form stable hydrates, as do cyclopropanones.[19] In the last case,[20] formation of the hydrate relieves some of the / strain (p. 366) of the parent ketone.

The reaction is subject to both general-acid and general-base catalysis; the following mechanisms can be written for basic (B) and acidic (BH) catalysis, respectively:[21]

Mechanism a



Mechanism b



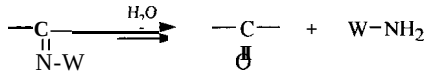
In mechanism *a*, as the H_2O attacks, the base pulls off a proton, and the net result is addition of OH^-. This can happen because the base is already hydrogen bonded to the H_2O molecule before the attack. In mechanism *b*, because HB is already hydrogen bonded to the oxygen of the carbonyl group, it gives up a proton to the oxygen as the water attacks. In this way, B and HB accelerate the reaction even beyond the extent that they form OH^- or H_3O^+ by reaction with water. Reactions in which the catalyst donates a proton to the electrophilic reagent (in this case the aldehyde or ketone) in one direction and removes it in the other are called class *e* reactions. Reactions in which the catalyst does the same to the nucleophilic reagent are called class *n* reactions.[22] Thus the acid-catalyzed process here is a class *e* reaction, while the base catalyzed process is a class *n* reaction.

For the reaction between ketones and H_2O_2, see **17-39.**

There are no OS references, but see OS **VIII,** 597, for the reverse reaction.

16-2 *Hydrolysis of the Carbon-Nitrogen Double Bond*

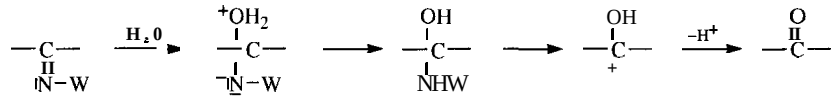
OXO-DE-ALKYLIMINO-BISUBSTITUTION, AND SO ON



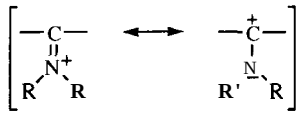
Compounds containing carbon–nitrogen double bonds can be hydrolyzed to the corresponding aldehydes or ketones. For imines (W = R or H) the hydrolysis is easy and can be carried out with water. When W = H, the imine is seldom stable enough for isolation, and hydrolysis usually occurs *in situ*, without isolation. The hydrolysis of Schiff bases (W = Ar) is more difficult and requires acid or basic catalysis. Oximes (W = OH), arylhydrazones (W = NHAr), and, most easily, semicarbazones ($W = NHCONH_2$) can also be hydrolyzed. Often a reactive aldehyde (e.g., formaldehyde) is added to combine with the liberated amine.

A number of other reagents[23] have been used to cleave C=N bonds, especially those not easily hydrolyzable with acidic or basic catalysts or which contain other functional groups that are attacked under these conditions. In particular, oximes have been converted to the corresponding aldehyde or ketone by treatment with, among other reagents, microwave irradiation on clay (Clayan),[24] on wet sodium periodate impregnated silica gel,[25] or in the presence of $BiCl_3$,[26] $CuCl_2$ in acetonitrile,[27] ozonolysis,[28] aqueous $NaHSO_3$,[29] $KMnO_4$–aqueous acetonitrile,[30] Amberlyst 15 and acetone,[31] alkaline H_2O_2,[32] and with $Me_3NH^+ CrO_3Cl^-$.[33] Tosylhydrazones can be hydrolyzed to the corresponding ketones with aqueous acetone and BF_3–etherate,[34] as well as with other reagents.[35] Dimethylhydrazones have been converted to ketones by heating with potassium carbonate in dimethyl sulfate,[36] or by microwave irradiation with $BiCl_3$ in aqueous THF.[37] Among other reagents that have been used to cleave C=N bonds are nitrous acid (as well as nitrosonium salts such as $NO^+BF_4^-$)[38] and ozone (see 19-9).[39]

The hydrolysis of carbon–nitrogen double bonds involves initial addition of water and elimination of a nitrogen moiety:



It is thus an example of reaction type A (p. 1175). The sequence shown is generalized.[40] In specific cases there are variations in the sequence of the steps, depending on acid or basic catalysis or other conditions.[41] Which step is rate determining also depends on acidity and on the nature of W and of the groups connected to the carbonyl.[42]



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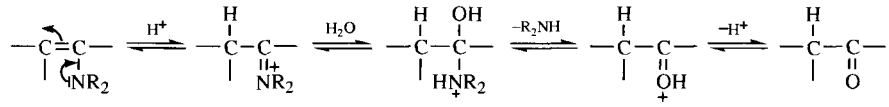
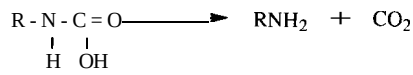
Iminium ions (2)[43] would be expected to undergo hydrolysis quite readily, since there is a contributing form with a positive charge on the carbon. Indeed, they react with water at room temperature.[44] Acid-catalyzed hydrolysis of enamines (the last step of the Stork reaction, **12-18)** involves conversion to iminium ions:[45]



The mechanism of enamine hydrolysis is thus similar to that of vinyl ether hydrolysis (10-6).

OS I, 217, 298, 318, 381; **II,** 49, 223, 234, 284, 310, 333, 395, 519, 522; **III,** 20, 172, 626, 818; IV, 120; V, 139, 277, 736, 758; VI, 1, 358, 640, 751, 901, 932; **VII,** 8; 65, 108, 183; 67, 33; 76, 23.

Related to this process is the hydrolysis of isocyanates or isothiocyanates[46] where addition of water to the carbon–nitrogen double bond would give an N-substituted carbamic acid (3). Such compounds are unstable and break down to carbon dioxide (or COS in the case of isothiocyanates) and the amine:



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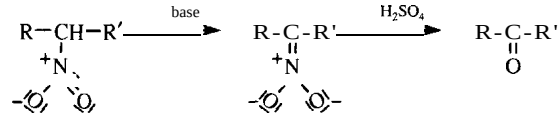
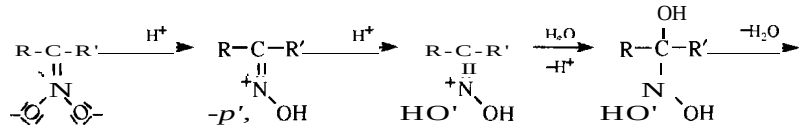
OS **II,** 24; IV, 819; V, 273; VI, 910.

16-3 *Hydrolysis of Aliphatic Nitro Compounds*

OXO-DE-HYDRO,NITRO-BISUBSTITUTION

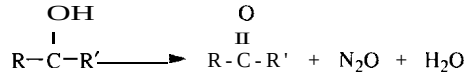


Primary or secondary aliphatic nitro compounds can be hydrolyzed, respectively, to aldehydes or ketones, by treatment of their conjugate bases with sulfuric acid. This is called the *Nef reaction.*[47] Tertiary aliphatic nitro compounds do not give the reaction because they cannot be converted to their conjugate bases. Like **16-2,** this reaction involves hydrolysis of a C=N double bond. A possible mechanism is[48]



Aci form of the nitro compound

4



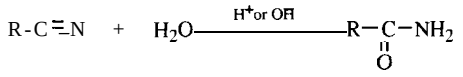
Intermediates of type 4 have been isolated in some cases.[49]

The conversion of nitro compounds to aldehydes or ketones has been carried out with better yields and fewer side reactions by several alternative methods. Among these are treatment of the nitro compound with tin complexes and $NaHSO_3$,[50] activated dry silica gel,[51] or 30% H_2O_2—K_2CO_3,[52] *t*-BuOOH and a catalyst,[53] or CAN.[54]

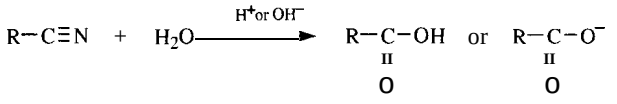
When *primary* nitro compounds are treated with sulfuric acid without previous conversion to the conjugate bases, they give carboxylic acids. Hydroxamic acids are intermediates and can be isolated, so that this is also a method for preparing them.[55] Both the Nef reaction and the hydroxamic acid process involve the aci form; the difference in products arises from higher acidity, for example, a difference in sulfuric acid concentration from 2 to 15.5 *M* changes the product from the aldehyde to the hydroxamic acid.[56] The mechanism of the hydroxamic acid reaction is not known with certainty, but if higher acidity is required, it may be that the protonated aci form of the nitro compound is further protonated.

OS VI, 648; VII, 414. See also OS IV, 573.

16-4 *Hydrolysis of Nitrites*



N,N-Dihydro-*C*-*oxo*-biaddition



Hydroxy,oxo-de-nitrilo-tersubstitution

Nitriles can be hydrolyzed to give either amides or carboxylic acids.[57] The amide is formed initially, but since amides are also hydrolyzed with acid or basic treatment, the carboxylic acid is the more common product. When the acid is desired.[58] the reagent of choice is aqueous NaOH containing $\sim$6–12% H_2O_2, though acid-catalyzed hydrolysis is also frequently carried out. A "dry" hydrolysis of nitriles has been reported.[59] However, there are a number of procedures for stopping at the amide stage,[60] among them the use of concentrated H_2SO_4; acetic acid and BF_3; H_2O_2 and OH^-;[61] two equivalents of chlorotrimethylsilane followed by H_2O,[62] heating on neutral alumina,[63] Oxone®,[64] and dry HC1 followed by H_2O. The same result can also be obtained by use of water and certain metal ions or complexes;[65] $Hg(OAc)_2$ in HOAc;[66] or 2-mercaptoethanol in a phosphate buffer.[67] Nitriles can be hydrolyzed to the carboxylic acids without disturbing carboxylic ester functions also present, by the use of tetrachloro- or tetrafluorophthalic acid.[68]

The hydrolysis of nitriles to carboxylic acids is one of the best methods for the preparation of these compounds. Nearly all nitriles give the reaction, with either acidic or basic catalysts. Hydrolysis of cyanohydrins, RCH(OH)CN, is usually carried out under acidic conditions, because basic solutions cause competing reversion of the cyanohydrin to the aldehyde and CN^-. However, cyanohydrins have been hydrolyzed under basic conditions with borax or alkaline borates.[69]

Thiocyanates can be converted to thiocarbamates, in a similar reaction:[70] $R{-}S{-}C{\equiv}N + H_2O \rightarrow R{-}S{-}CO{-}NH_2$. Hydrolysis of cyanamides gives amines,

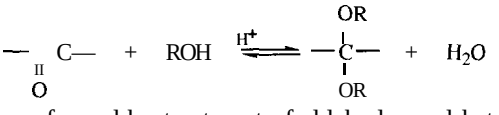
produced by the breakdown of the unstable carbamic acid intermediates: $R_2NCN \rightarrow [R_2NCOOH] \rightarrow R_2NH$.

OS I, 21, 131, 201, 289, 298, 321, 336, 406, 436, 451; II, 29, 44, 292, 376, 512, 586 (see, however, V, 1054), 588; III; 34, 66, 84, 88, 114, 221, 557, 560, 615, 851; IV, 58, 93, 496, 506, 664, 760, 790; V, 239; VI, 932; 76, 169. Also see OS III, 609; IV, 359, 502; 66, 142.

B. *Attack by OR (Addition of ROH)*

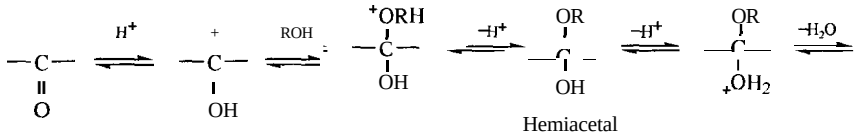
16-5 *The Addition of Alcohols and Thiols to Aldehydes and Ketones*

DIALKOXY-DE-OXO-BISUBSTITUTION
DITHIOALKYL-DE-OXO-BISUBSTITUTION

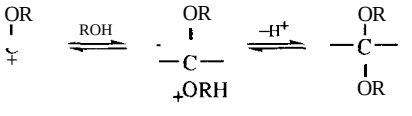


Acetals and ketals are formed by treatment of aldehydes and ketones, respectively, with alcohols in the presence of acid catalysts.[71] Lewis acids such as $TiCl_4$[72] can be used in conjunction with alcohols. Dioxolanes have been prepared in ethylene glycol using microwave irradiation and *p*-toluenesulfonic acid as a catalyst.[73] This reaction is reversible, and acetals and ketals can be hydrolyzed by treatment with acid (10-6). With small unbranched aldehydes the equilibrium lies to the right. If it is desired to prepare ketals, or acetals of larger molecules, the equilibrium must be shifted, usually by removal of water. This can be done by azeotropic distillation, ordinary distillation, or the use of a drying agent such as Al_2O_3 or a molecular sieve.[74] The reaction is not catalyzed in either direction by bases, so most acetals and ketals are quite stable to bases, though they are easily hydrolyzed by acids. This reaction is therefore a useful method of protection of aldehyde or ketone functions from attack by bases. The reaction is of wide scope. Most aldehydes are easily converted to acetals.[75] With ketones the process is more difficult, presumably for steric reasons, and the reaction often fails, though many ketals, especially from cyclic ketones, have been made in this manner.[76] Many functional groups may be present without being affected. Both 1,2- and 1,3-glycols form cyclic acetals and ketals (1,3-dioxolanes and 1,3-dioxanes, respectively), and these are often used to protect aldehydes and ketones.

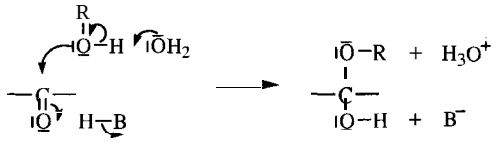
The mechanism, which involves initial formation of a *hemiacetal*,[71] is the reverse of that given for acetal hydrolysis (10-6):



Hemiacetal



In a study of the acid-catalyzed formation of the hemiacetal, Grunwald[78] has shown that the data best fit a mechanism in which the three steps shown here are actually all concerted; that is, the reaction is simultaneously catalyzed by acid and base, with water acting as the base:[79]



If the original aldehyde or ketone has an α hydrogen, it is possible for water to split out in that way and enol ethers can be prepared in this manner:

Similarly, treatment with an anhydride and a catalyst can give an enol ester.[80]

Hemiacetals themselves are no more stable than the corresponding hydrates (16-1). As with hydrates, hemiacetals of cyclopropanones[81] and of polychloro and polyfluoro aldehydes and ketones may be quite stable.

When acetals or ketals are treated with an alcohol of higher molecular weight than the one already there, it is possible to get a transacetalation (see 10-17). In another type of transacetalation, aldehydes or ketones can be converted to acetals or ketals by treatment with another acetal or ketal or with an ortho ester,[82] in the presence of an acid catalyst (shown for an ortho ester):

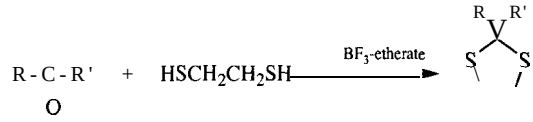
This method is especially useful for the conversion of ketones to ketals, since the direct reaction of a ketone with an alcohol often gives poor results. In another method, the substrate is treated with an alkoxysilane $ROSiMe_3$ in the presence of trimethylsilyl trifluoromethanesulfonate.[83]

1,4-Diketones give furans when treated with acids. This is actually an example of an intramolecular addition of an alcohol to a ketone, since it is the enol form that adds:

Similarly, 1,5-diketones give pyrans. Formic acid reacts with alcohols to give orthoformates.

Thiols add to aldehydes and ketones to give hemimercaptals and dithioacetals. Hemimercaptals are ordinarily unstable,[84] though they are more stable than the corresponding hemiacetals and can be isolated in certain cases.[85] Dithioacetals, like

acetals, are stable in the presence of bases, except that a strong base can remove the aldehyde proton, if there is one (see **10-107)**[86]**.** A common method for the protection of ketones involves treatment with ethanedithiol to give a cyclic dithioketal.[87] After subsequent reactions involving the R or R' group, the protecting group can then

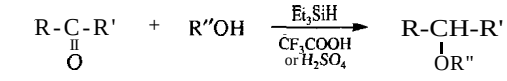


be removed by **10-6.** Alternatively, the dithioketal can be desulfurized with Raney nickel **(14-34),** giving the overall conversion $C{=}O \rightarrow CH_2$. Dithioacetals can also be prepared from aldehydes or ketones by treatment with thiols in the presence of $TiCl_4$,[88] $SiCl_4$,[89] with a disulfide (RSSR; R = alkyl or aryl),[90] or with methylthiotrimethylsilane ($MeSSiMe_3$).[91]

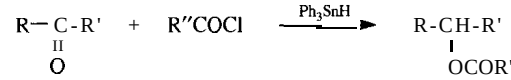
OS **I,** 1, 298, 364, 381; **II,** 137; **III,** 123, 387, 502, 536, 644, 731, 800; **IV,** 21, 479, 679; **V,** 5, 292, 303, 450, 539; **VI,** 567, 666, 954; **VII,** 59, 149, 168, 177, 241, 271, 297; **VIII,** 357. Also see OS **IV,** 558, 588; **V,** 25; **VIII,** 415.

16-6 *Reductive Alkylation of Alcohols*

C-HYDRO-*O*-ALKYL-ADDITION



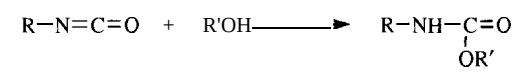
Aldehydes and ketones can be converted to ethers by treatment with an alcohol and triethylsilane in the presence of a strong acid[92] or by hydrogenation in alcoholic acid in the presence of platinum oxide.[93] The process can formally be regarded as addition of ROH to give a hemiacetal RR'C(OH)OR", followed by reduction of the OH. In this respect, it is similar to **16-14.** In a similar reaction, ketones can be converted to carboxylic esters (reductive acylation of ketones) by treatment with an acyl chloride and triphenyltin hydride.[94]



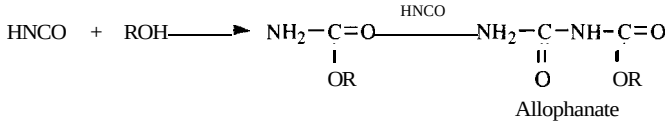
Ethers have also been prepared by the reductive dimerization of two molecules of an aldehyde or ketone (e.g., cyclohexanone → dicyclohexyl ether). This was accomplished by treatment of the substrate with a trialkylsilane and a catalyst.[95]

16-7 *The Addition of Alcohols to Isocyanates*

N-HYDRO-*C*-ALKOXY-ADDITION



Carbamates (substituted urethanes) are prepared when isocyanates are treated with alcohols. This is an excellent reaction, of wide scope, and gives good yields. Isocyanic acid HNCO gives unsubstituted carbamates. Addition of a second mole of HNCO gives *allophanates.*



Allophanate

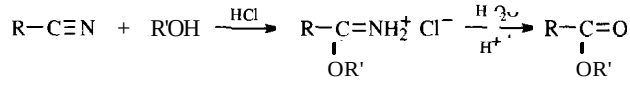
Polyurethanes are made by combining compounds with two NCO groups with compounds containing two OH groups. Isothiocyanates similarly give thiocarbamates (RNHCSOR'),[96] though they react slower than the corresponding isocyanates.

The details of the mechanism are poorly understood,[97] though the oxygen of the alcohol is certainly attacking the carbon of the isocyanate. Hydrogen bonding complicates the kinetic picture.[98] The addition of ROH to isocyanates can also be catalyzed by metallic compounds,[99] by light,[100] or, for tertiary ROH, by lithium alkoxides[101] or *n*-butyllithium.[102]

OS I, 140; V, 162; **VI,** 95, 226, 788, 795.

16-8 *Alcoholysis of Nitrites*

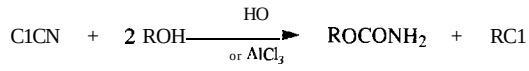
ALKOXY,OXO-DE-NITRILO-TERSUBSTITUTION



The addition of dry HC1 to a mixture of a nitrile and an alcohol in the absence of water leads to the hydrochloride salt of an imino ester (imino esters are also called imidates and imino ethers). This reaction is called the *Pinner synthesis.*[103] The salt can be converted to the free imino ester by treatment with a weak base such as sodium bicarbonate, or it can be hydrolyzed with water and an acid catalyst to the corresponding carboxylic ester. If the latter is desired, water may be present from the beginning, in which case aqueous HC1 can be used and the need for gaseous HC1 is eliminated. Imino esters can also be prepared from nitriles with basic catalysts.[104]

This reaction is of broad scope and is good for aliphatic, aromatic, and heterocyclic R and for nitriles with oxygen-containing functional groups. The application of the reaction to nitriles containing a carboxyl group constitutes a good method for the synthesis of mono esters of dicarboxylic acids with the desired group esterified and with no diester or diacid present.

Cyanogen chloride reacts with alcohols in the presence of an acid catalyst such as dry HC1 or $AlCl_3$ to give carbamates:[105]



The alcohol ROH can also be added to nitriles in another manner **(16-56).**

OS I, 5, 270; **II,** 284, 310; **IV,** 645; **VI,** 507; **VIII,** 415.

16-9 *The Formation of Xanthates*

S-METALLO-*C*-ALKOXY-ADDITION

$$S = C{=}S + ROH \xrightarrow{NaOH} RO{-}\underset{\underset{S}{\|}}{C}{-}S^{-}\,Na^{+}$$

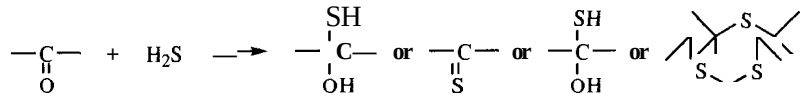
The addition of alcohols to carbon disulfide in the presence of a base produces xanthates.[106] The base is often OH^-, but in some cases better results can be obtained by using methylsulfinyl carbanion ($MeSOCH_2^-$).[107] If an alkyl halide RX is present, the xanthate ester ROCSSR' can be produced directly. In a similar manner, alkoxide ions add to CO_2 to give carbonate ester salts $ROCOO^-$.

OS V, 439; VI, 207, 418; VII, 139.

C. *Sulfur Nucleophiles*

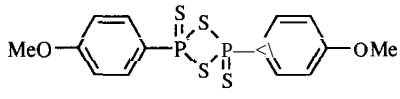
16-10 *The Addition of H_2S and Thiols to Carbonyl Compounds*

O-HYDRO-*C*-MERCAPTO-ADDITION[108]



5 **6** **7** **8**

The addition of H_2S to an aldehyde or ketone can result in a variety of products. The most usual product is the trithiane (8).[109] α-Hydroxy thiols (5) can be prepared from polychloro and polyfluoro aldehydes and ketones.[110] Apparently, compounds 5 are stable only when prepared from these compounds, and not even for all of them. Thioketones (6)[2] can be prepared from certain ketones, such as diaryl ketones, by treatment with H_2S and an acid catalyst, usually HC1. They are often unstable and tend to trimerize (to 8) or to react with air. Thioaldehydes[111] are even less stable and simple ones[112] apparently have never been isolated, though *t*-BuCHS has been prepared in solution, where it exists for several hours at 20°C.[113] A high-yield



9

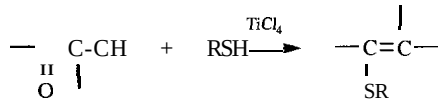
synthesis of thioketones involves treatment of acyclic[114] ketones with 2,4-bis(4-methoxyphenyl)-1,3,2,4-dithiadiphosphetane-2,4-disulfide (9) (known as *Lawesson's reagent*[115]).[116] Compound 9 also converts the C=O groups of amides and carboxylic esters[117] to C=S groups.[118] Similarly, $POCl_3$ followed by $S(TMS)_2$ converts lactams to thiolactams[119] and treatment with triflic anhydride and then H_2S converts amides to thioamides.[120] The compound H_2S–Me_3SiCl–$(i\text{-}Pr)_2NLi$ converts carboxylic esters to thiono esters.[121] Carboxylic acids (RCOOH) can be converted directly to dithiocarboxylic esters (RCSSR′),[122] in moderate yield, with P_4S_{10} and a primary alcohol R′OH.[123] Thioketones can also be prepared by

treatment of ketones with P_4S_{10}[124] or $CF_3SO_3SiMe_3/S(SiMe_3)_2$,[125] and from oximes or various types of hydrazone (overall conversion C=N⟶ C=S).[126]

Reagents are also available to convert thiocarbonyl compounds back to carbonyls.[127] Simple hydrolysis is the most common method for converting thiocarbonyls to carbonyls. Stirring thioketones with 4-nitrobenzaldehyde and a catalytic amount of TMSOTf gives the ketone.[128]

gem-Dithiols (7) are much more stable than the corresponding hydrates or α-hydroxy thiols.[129] They have been prepared by the treatment of ketones with H_2S under pressure[130] and under mild conditions with HC1 as a catalyst.[131] Thiols add to aldehydes and ketones to give hemimercaptals [C(OH)SR]and dithioacetals [$C(SR)_2$] (16-5).

If an aldehyde or ketone possesses an α hydrogen, it can be converted to the corresponding enol thioether by treatment with a thiol in the presence of $TiCl_4$:[132]

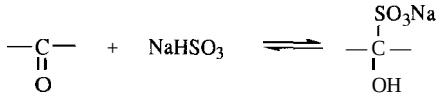


Aldehydes and ketones have been converted to sulfides by treatment with thiols and pyridine-borane, RCOR′+ R"SH → RR′CHSR′′,[133] in a reductive alkylation reaction, analogous to 16-6.

OS II, 610; IV, 927; VI, 109; VII, 124, 372. Also see OS III, 332; IV, 967; V, 780; VI, 556; VIII, 302.

16-11 *Formation of Bisulfite Addition Products*

O-HYDRO-*C*-SULFONATO-ADDITION



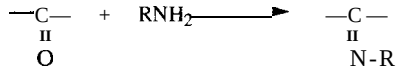
Bisulfite addition products are formed from aldehydes, methyl ketones, cyclic ketones (generally seven-membered and smaller rings), α-keto esters, and isocyanates, upon treatment with sodium bisulfite. Most other ketones do not undergo the reaction, probably for steric reasons. The reaction is reversible (by treatment of the addition product with either acid or base[134])[135] and is useful for the purification of the starting compounds, since the addition products are soluble in water and many of the impurities are not.[136]

OS I, 241, 336; III, 438; IV, 903; V, 437.

D. *Attack by NH_2, NHR, or NR_2 (Addition of NH_3, RNH_2, R_2NH)*

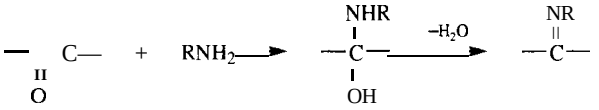
16-12 *The Addition of Amines to Aldehydes and Ketones*

ALKYLIMINO-DE-OXO-BISUBSTITUTION



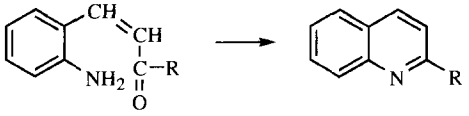
The addition of ammonia[137] to aldehydes or ketones does not generally give useful products. According to the pattern followed by analogous nucleophiles, the initial products would be expected to be *hemiaminals*,[138] but these compounds are generally unstable. Most imines with a hydrogen on the nitrogen spontaneously polymerize.[139]

In contrast to ammonia, primary, secondary, and tertiary amines can add to aldehydes[140] and ketones to give different kinds of products. Primary amines give imines.[141] Reduction of ω-azido ketones leads to the amino-ketones, which cyclizes to form a 2-substituted pyrroline.[142] Reduction of nitro-ketones in the presence of ruthenium compounds and CO also leads to 1-substituted pyrrolines.[143] In contrast to imines in which the nitrogen is attached to a hydrogen, these imines are stable enough for isolation. However, in some cases, especially with simple R groups, they rapidly decompose or polymerize unless there is at least one aryl group on the nitrogen or the carbon. When there is an aryl group, the compounds are quite stable. They are usually called *Schiff bases*, and this reaction is the best way to prepare them. The reaction is straightforward and proceeds in high yields. Even sterically hindered imines can be prepared.[144] Both imines and enamines (see below) have been prepared on clay with microwave irradiation.[145] The initial N-substituted hemiaminals[146] lose water to give the stable Schiff bases:



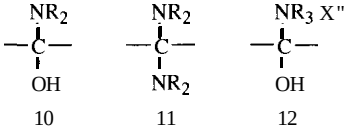
In general, ketones react more slowly than aldehydes, and higher temperatures and longer reaction times are often required.[147] In addition, the equilibrium must often be shifted, usually by removal of the water, either azeotropically by distillation, or with a drying agent such as $TiCl_4$,[148] or with a molecular sieve.[149]

The reaction is often used to effect ring closure.[150] The *Friedldnder quinoline synthesis*[151] is an example:



Pyrylium ions react with ammonia or primary amines to give pyridinium ions (see p. 447).[152]

When secondary amines are added to aldehydes or ketones, the initially formed N,N-disubstituted hemiaminals (14) cannot lose water in the same way, and it is possible to isolate them.[153] However, they are generally unstable, and under the reaction conditions usually react further. If no α hydrogen is present, 10 is converted



10 11 12

Aminal

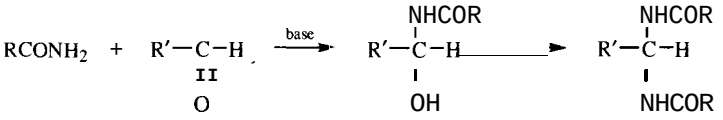
to the more stable *aminal* (**11**).[154] However, if an α hydrogen is present, water (from 10) or RNH_2 (from 11) can be lost in that direction to give an enamine:[155]

This is the most common method[156] for the preparation of enamines and usually takes place when an aldehyde or ketone containing an oc hydrogen is treated with a secondary amine. The water is usually removed azeotropically or with a drying agent,[157] but molecular sieves can also be used.[158] Stable primary enamines have also been prepared.[159] Enamino-ketones have been prepared from diketones and secondary amines using microwave irradiation on silica gel.[160] Secondary amine perchlorates react with aldehydes and ketones to give iminium salts (2, p. 1178).[161] Tertiary amines can only give salts (12).

OS I, 80, 355, 381; II, 31, 49, 65, 202, 231, 422; III, 95, 328, 329, 332, 358, 374, 513, 753, 827; IV, 210, 605, 638, 824; V, 191, 277, 533, 567, 627, 703, 716, 736, 758, 808, 941, 1070; VI, 5, 448, 474, 496, 520, 526, 592, 601, 818, 901, 1014; VII, 8, 135, 144, 473; VIII, 31, 132, 403, 451, 456, 493, 586, 597. Also see OS IV, 283, 464; VII, 197; VIII, 104, 112, 241.

16-13 *Addition of Amides to Aldehydes*

ALKYLAMIDO-DE-OXO-BISUBSTITUTION

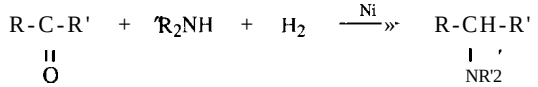


Amides can add to aldehydes in the presence of bases (so the nucleophile is actually $RCONH^-$) or acids to give acylated amino alcohols, which often react further to give alkylidene or arylidene bisamides.[162] If the R' group contains an oc hydrogen, water may split out.

Alternative procedures can be quite useful. Benzaldehyde reacts with $TsNH_2$, for example, at 160°C in the presence of $Si(OEt)_4$ to give the *N*-tosylimine, Ts–N=CHPh.[163] Reaction of aldehydes with $LiAl(NHBn)_4$ also give the corresponding *N*-benzylimine.[164]

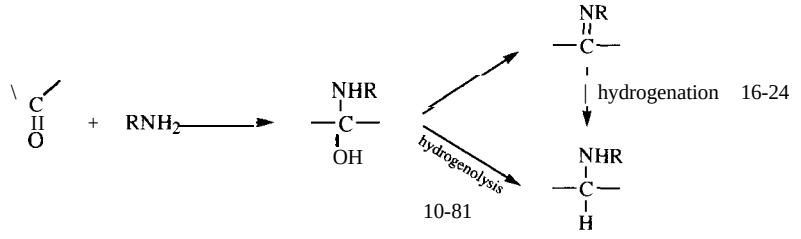
16-14 *Reductive Alkylation of Ammonia or Amines*

HYDRO,DIALKYLAMINO-DE-OXO-BISUBSTITUTION



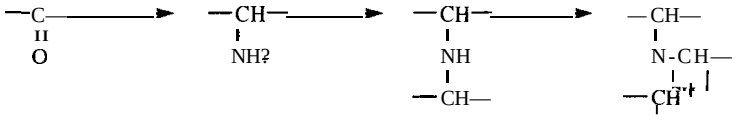
When an aldehyde or a ketone is treated with ammonia or a primary or secondary amine in the presence of hydrogen and a hydrogenation catalyst (heterogeneous or

homogeneous), *reductive alkylation* of ammonia or the amine (or *reductive amination* of the carbonyl compound) takes place.[165] The reaction can formally be regarded as occurring in the following manner (shown for a primary amine), which probably does correspond to the actual sequence of steps:[166]



For ammonia and primary amines there are two possible pathways, but when secondary amines are involved, only the hydrogenolysis pathway is possible. Other reducing agents[167] can be used instead of hydrogen and a catalyst, among them zinc and HC1, sodium cyanoborohydride ($NaBH_3CN$),[168] sodium triacetoxyborohydride,[169] sodium borohydride,[170] sodium borohydride in conjunction with $Ti(O\text{-}i\text{-}Pr)_4$,[171] borohydride-exchange resin,[172] and formic acid. When the last is used, the process is called the *Wallach reaction.* Conjugated aldehydes are converted to alkenyl-amines with the amine/silica gel followed by reduction with zinc borohydride.[173] In the particular case where primary or secondary amines are reductively methylated with formaldehyde and formic acid, the method is called the *Eschweiler–Clarke procedure.* It is possible to use ammonium (or amine) salts of formic acid,[174] or formamides, as a substitute for the Wallach conditions. This method is called the *Leuckart reaction*,[175] and in this case the products obtained are often the N-formyl derivatives of the amines instead of the free amines. Primary and secondary amines can be *N*-ethylated (e.g., ArNHR → ArNREt) by treatment with $NaBH_4$ in acetic acid.[176] Aldehydes react with aniline in the presence of Montmorillonite K10 clay and microwaves to give the amine.[177] Formaldehyde with formic acid converts secondary amines to the N-methyl derivative with microwave irradiation.[178]

When the reagent is ammonia, it is possible for the initial product to react again and for this product to react again, so that secondary and tertiary amines are usually obtained as side products:



Similarly, primary amines give tertiary as well as secondary amines. In order to minimize this, the aldehyde or ketone is treated with an excess of ammonia or primary amine (unless of course the higher amine is desired).

Primary amines have been prepared from many aldehydes with at least five carbons and from many ketones by treatment with ammonia and a reducing agent.

Smaller aldehydes are usually too reactive to permit isolation of the primary amine. Secondary amines have been prepared by both possible procedures: 2 mol of ammonia and 1 mol of aldehyde or ketone, and 1 mol of primary amine and 1 mol of carbonyl compound, the latter method being better for all but aromatic aldehydes. Tertiary amines can be prepared in three ways, but the method is seldom carried out with 3 mol of ammonia and 1 mol of carbonyl compound. Much more often they are prepared from primary or secondary amines.[179] The most common method for this purpose is the Eschweiler-Clarke procedure, that is, treatment of the primary or secondary amine with formaldehyde and formic acid. Amines of the form $RNMe_2$ and R_2NMe are prepared in this manner.[180] Another method for accomplishing the conversions $RNH_2 \rightarrow RNMe_2$ and $R_2NH \rightarrow R_2NMe$ is to treat the amine with aqueous formaldehyde and $NaBH_4$[181] or $NaBH_3CN$.[182]

Reductive alkylation has also been carried out on nitro, nitroso, azo, and other compounds that are reduced *in situ* to primary or secondary amines.

OS I, 347, 528, 531; II, 503; III, 328, 501, 717, 723; IV, 603; V, 552; VI, 499; VII, 27.

16-15 *The Mannich Reaction*

ACYL,AMINO-DE-OXO-BISUBSTITUTION, AND SO ON

$$\mathrm{H\text{-}\underset{\underset{\mathrm{O}}{\|}}{C}\text{-}H} + NH_4Cl + \mathrm{CH_3\text{-}\underset{\underset{\mathrm{O}}{\|}}{C}\text{-}R} \xrightarrow[OH^-]{H^+ \text{ or}} \mathrm{H_2N\text{-}CH_2\text{-}CH_2\text{-}\underset{\underset{\mathrm{O}}{\|}}{C}\text{-}R}$$

In the *Mannich reaction,* formaldehyde (or sometimes another aldehyde) is condensed with ammonia, in the form of its salt, and a compound containing an active hydrogen.[183] This can formally be considered as an addition of ammonia to give H_2NCH_2OH, followed by a nucleophilic substitution. Instead of ammonia, the reaction can be carried out with salts of primary or secondary amines,[184] or with amides,[185] in which cases the product is substituted on the nitrogen with R, R_2, and RCO, respectively. Arylamines do not normally give the reaction. The product is referred to as a *Mannich base.* The nucleophilic atoms of many active hydrogen compounds give the reaction, including ketones and aldehydes, esters, nitroalkanes, and nitriles as well as ortho carbons of phenols, the carbon of terminal alkynes, the oxygen of alcohols and the sulfur of thiols. The Mannich base can react further in three ways. If it is a primary or secondary amine, it may condense with one or two additional molecules of aldehyde and active compound, for example,

$$H_2NCH_2CH_2COR \xrightarrow[CH_3COR]{HCHO} HN(CH_2CH_2COR)_2 \xrightarrow[CH_3COR]{HCHO} N(CH_2CH_2COR)_3$$

If the active hydrogen compound has two or three active hydrogens, the Mannich base may condense with one or two additional molecules of aldehyde and ammonia or amine, for example,

$$H_2NCH_2CH_2COR \xrightarrow[NH_3]{HCHO} (H_2NCH_2)_2CHCOR \xrightarrow[NH_3]{HCHO} (H_2NCH_2)_3CHCOR$$

Another further reaction consists of condensation of the Mannich base with excess formaldehyde:

$$H_2NCH_2CH_2COR + HCHO \longrightarrow H_2C{=}NCH_2CH_2COR$$

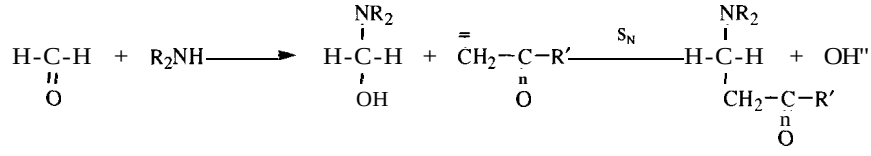
Sometimes it is possible to obtain these products of further condensation as the main products of the reaction. At other times they are side products.

When the Mannich base contains an amino group β to a carbonyl (and it usually does), ammonia is easily eliminated. This is a route to α,β-unsaturated aldehydes, ketones, esters, and so on:

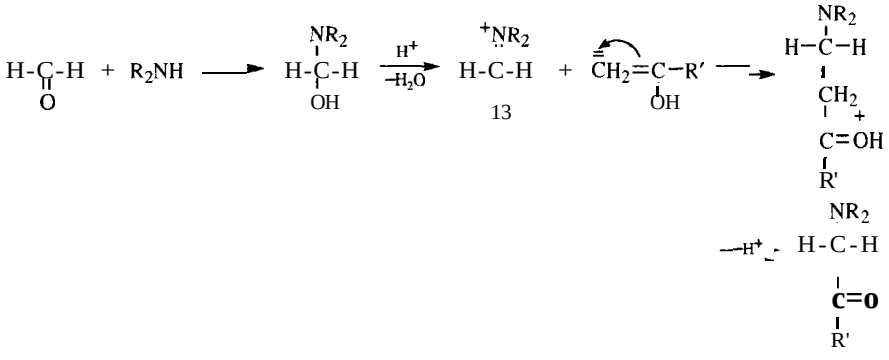
$$H_2NCH_2CH_2COR \xrightarrow{\Delta} H_2C{=}CHCOR$$

Studies of the reaction kinetics have led to the following proposals for the mechanism of the Mannich reaction.[186]

The base-catalyzed reaction



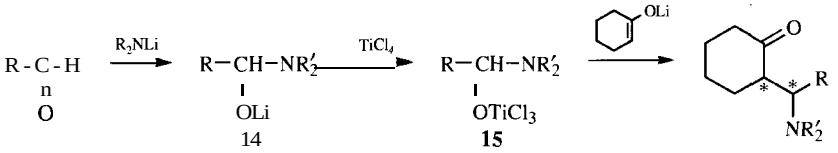
The acid-catalyzed reaction



According to this mechanism, it is the free amine, not the salt that reacts, even in acid solution; and the active-hydrogen compound (in the acid-catalyzed process) reacts as the enol when that is possible. This latter step is similar to what happens in 12-4. There is kinetic evidence for the intermediacy of the iminium ion (**13**).[187]

When an unsymmetrical ketone is used as the active-hydrogen component, two products are possible. Regioselectivity has been obtained by treatment of the ketone with preformed iminium ions:[188] the use of $Me_2N^+{=}CH_2\ CF_3COO^\ominus$ in CF_3COOH gives substitution at the more highly substituted position, while with $(i\text{-}Pr)_2N{=}CH_2^+ClO_4^-$ the reaction takes place at the less highly substituted position.[189] The

preformed iminium compound dimethyl(methylene)ammonium iodide ($CH_2{=}N^+Me_2$ I~), called *Eschenmoser's salt,*[190] has also been used in Mannich reactions.[191]



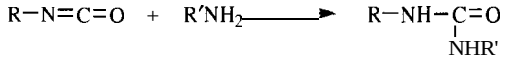
Another type of preformed reagent (15) has been used to carry out diastereoselective Mannich reactions. The lithium salts (14) are treated with $TiCl_4$ to give 15, which is then treated with the enolate of a ketone.[192] Silylenol ethers react with aldehydes and aniline in the presence of $InCl_3$ to give the P-amino ketone.[193] A similar reaction with imines on Montmorillonite K10 clay and microwave irradiation gives p-amino esters.[194] Enol ethers react similarly in the presence of $Yb(OTf)_3$.[195]

Also see 11-25.

OS III, 305; IV, 281, 515, 816; VI, 474, 981, 987; VII, 34. See also OS VIII, 358.

16-16 *The Addition of Amines to Isocyanates*

N-H YDRO- *C*-ALKYLAMINO-ADDITION

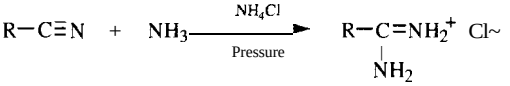


Ammonia and primary and secondary amines can be added to isocyanates[196] to give substituted ureas.[197] Isothiocyanates give thioureas. This is an excellent method for the preparation of ureas and thioureas, and these compounds are often used as derivatives for primary and secondary amines. Isocyanic acid (HNCO) also gives the reaction; usually its salts (e.g., NaNCO) are used. Wöhler's famous synthesis of urea involved the addition of ammonia to a salt of this acid.[198]

OS II, 79; III, 76, 617, 735; IV, 49, 180, 213, 515, 700; V, 555, 801, 802, 967; VI, 936, 951; VIII, 26.

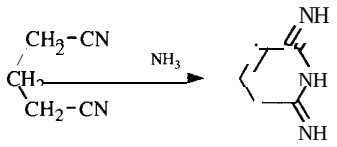
16-17 *The Addition of Ammonia or Amines to Nitrites*

N-H YDRO- *C*-AMINO-ADDITION



Unsubstituted amidines (in the form of their salts) can be prepared by addition of ammonia to nitriles.[199] Many amidines have been made in this way. Dinitriles of

suitable chain length can give imidines:[200]



Primary and secondary amines can be used instead of ammonia, to give substituted amidines, but only if the nitrile contains electron-withdrawing groups; for example, Cl_3CCN gives the reaction. Ordinary nitriles do not react, and, in fact, acetonitrile is often used as a solvent in this reaction.[201] However, ordinary nitriles can be converted to amidines by treatment with an alkylchloroaluminum amide, $MeAl(Cl)NR_2$ (R = H or Me).[202] The addition of ammonia to cyanamide NH_2CN gives guanidine $(NH_2)_2C{=}NH$.

If water is present, and a ruthenium complex catalyst is used, the addition of a primary or secondary amine to a nitrile gives an amide: RCN + R'NHR" + $H_2O \rightarrow$ $RCONR'R'' + NH_3$ (R" may be H).[203]

OS I, 302 (but also see OS V, 589); IV, 245, 247, 515, 566, 769. See also OS V, 39.

16-18 *The Addition of Amines to Carbon Disulfide and Carbon Dioxide*

S-METALLO-*C*-ALKYLAMINO-ADDITION

$$S = C{=}S + RNH_2 \xrightarrow{\text{base}} RNH\text{-}\underset{\underset{O}{\|}}{C}\text{-}S''$$

Salts of dithiocarbamic acid can be prepared by the addition of primary or secondary amines to carbon disulfide.[204] This reaction is similar to **16-9.** Hydrogen sulfide can be eliminated from the product, directly or indirectly, to give isothiocyanates (RNCS). Isothiocyanates can be obtained directly by the reaction of primary amines and CS_2 in pyridine in the presence of DCC.[205] In the presence of diphenyl phosphite and pyridine, primary amines add to CO_2 and to CS_2 to give, respectively, symmetrically substituted ureas and thioureas:[206]

$$RNH_2 + CO_2 \xrightarrow[HPO(OPh)_2]{\text{pyridine}} RNH\text{-}\underset{\underset{O}{\|}}{C}\text{-}NHR$$

OS I, 447; **III,** 360, 394, 599, 763; V, 223.

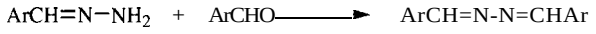
E. *Other Nitrogen Nucleophiles*

16-19 *The Addition of Hydrazine Derivatives to Carbonyl Compounds*

HYDRAZONO-DE-OXO-BISUBSTITUTION

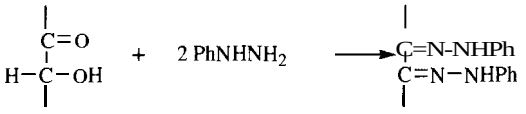
$$\underset{\underset{O}{\|}}{-C-} \xrightarrow{RNHNH_2} \underset{\underset{N\text{-}NHR}{\|}}{-C-}$$

The product of condensation of a hydrazine and an aldehyde or ketone is called a *hydrazone.* Hydrazine itself gives hydrazones only with aryl ketones. With other aldehydes and ketones, either no useful product can be isolated, or the remaining NH_2 group condenses with a second mole of carbonyl compound to give an *azine.* This type of product is especially important for aromatic aldehydes:



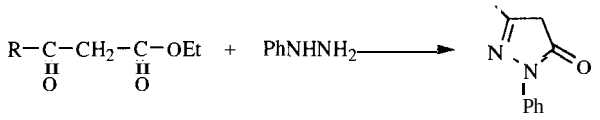
An azine

However, in some cases azines can be converted to hydrazones by treatment with excess hydrazine and NaOH.[207] Arylhydrazines, especially phenyl, *p*-nitrophenyl, and 2,4-dinitrophenyl,[208] are used much more often and give the corresponding hydrazones with most aldehydes and ketones.[209] Since these are usually solids, they make excellent derivatives and are commonly employed for this purpose. Cyclic hydrazones are also known,[210] as are conjugated hydrazones.[211] α-Hydroxy aldehydes and ketones and α-dicarbonyl compounds give *osazones,* in which two adjacent carbons have carbon–nitrogen double bonds:

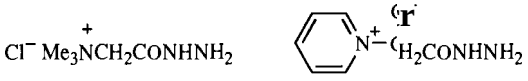


An osazone

Osazones are particularly important in carbohydrate chemistry. In contrast to this behavior, P-diketones and P-keto esters give *pyrazoles* and *pyrazolones*, respectively (illustrated for P-keto esters):



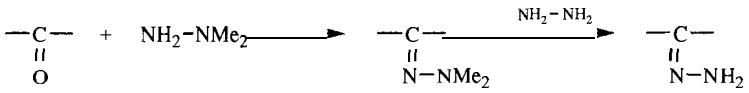
Other hydrazine derivatives frequently used to prepare the corresponding hydrazone are semicarbazide ($NH_2NHCONH_2$), in which case the hydrazone is called a semicarbazone, and *Girard's reagents T and P,* in which case the hydrazone



Girard's reagent T Girard's reagent P

is water soluble because of the ionic group. Girard's reagents are often used for purification of carbonyl compounds.[212]

Simple N-unsubstituted hydrazones can be obtained by an exchange reaction. The *N,N*-dimethylhydrazone is prepared first and then treated with hydrazine:[213]

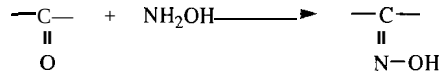


No azines are formed under these conditions.

OS II, 395; **III,** 96, 351; IV, 351, 377, 536, 884; V, 27, 258, 747, 929; VI, 10, 12, 62, 242, 293, 679, 791; **VII,** 77, 438. Also see OS **III,** 708; **VI,** 161; **VIII,** 597.

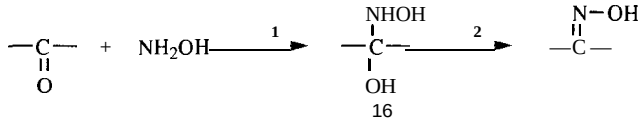
16-20 *The Formation of Oximes*

HYDROXYIMINO-DE-OXO-BISUBSTITUTION



In a reaction very much like **16-19,** oximes can be prepared by the addition of hydroxylamine to aldehydes or ketones. Derivatives of hydroxylamine, for example, H_2NOSO_3H and $HON(SO_3Na)_2$, have also been used. For hindered ketones, such as hexamethylacetone, high pressures (e.g., 10,000 atm) may be necessary.[214]

It has been shown[215] that the rate of formation of oximes is at a maximum at a pH that depends on the substrate but is usually ~4, and that the rate decreases as the pH is either raised or lowered from this point. We have previously seen (p. 425) that bell-shaped curves like this are often caused by changes in the rate-determining step. In this case, at low pH values step 2 is rapid (because it is acid catalyzed), and step 1



is slow (and rate determining), because under these acidic conditions most of the NH_2OH molecules have been converted to the conjugate NH_3OH^+ ions, which cannot attack the substrate. As the pH is slowly increased, the fraction of free NH_2OH molecules increases and consequently so does the reaction rate, until the maximum rate is reached at about pH = 4. As the rising pH has been causing an increase in the rate of step 1, it has also been causing a *decrease* in the rate of the acid-catalyzed step 2, although this latter process has not affected the overall rate since step 2 was still faster than step 1. However, when the pH goes above ~4, step 2 becomes rate determining, and although the rate of step 1 is still increasing (as it will until essentially all the NH_2OH is unprotonated), it is now step 2 that determines the rate, and this step is slowed by the decrease in acid concentration. Thus the overall rate decreases as the pH rises beyond ~4. It is likely that similar considerations apply to the reaction of aldehydes and ketones with amines, hydrazines, and other nitrogen nucleophiles.[216] There is evidence that when the nucleophile is 2-methylthiosemicarbazide, there is a second change in the rate-determining step: above pH about 10 *basic* catalysis of step 2 has increased the rate of this step to the point where step 1 is again rate determining.[217] Still a third change in the rate-determining step has been found at about pH = 1, showing that at least in some cases step 1 actually consists of two steps: formation of a zwitterion (e.g., $HOH_2\overset{+}{N}-\underset{|}{\overset{|}{C}}-O^-$) in the case shown above, and conversion of this to **16**.[218] The

intermediate **16** has been detected by NMR in the reaction between NH_2OH and acetaldehyde.[219]

In another type of process, oximes can be obtained by passing a mixture of ketone vapor, NH_3, and O_2 over a silica-gel catalyst.[220] Ketones can also be converted to oximes by treatment with other oximes, in a transoximation reaction.[221]

OS I, 318, 327; **II,** 70, 204, 313, 622; HI, 690, IV, 229; V, 139, 1031; **VII,** 149. See also OS VI, 670.

16-21 *The Conversion of Aldehydes to Nitrites*

NITRILO-DE-HYDRO,OXO-TERSUBSTITUTION

$$R\text{-}\underset{\underset{O}{\|}}{C}\text{-}H + NH_2OH\cdot HCl \xrightarrow{HCOOH} R{-}C{\equiv}N$$

Aldehydes can be converted to nitriles in one step by treatment with hydroxylamine hydrochloride and either formic acid,[222] SeO_2,[223] or pyridine-toluene.[224] The reaction is a combination of **16-20** and **17-30.** Direct nitrile formation has also been accomplished with certain derivatives of NH_2OH, notably, NH_2OSO_2OH.[225] Another method involves treatment with hydrazoic acid, though the Schmidt reaction **(18-16)** may compete.[226] Aromatic aldehydes have been converted to nitriles in good yield with NH_2OH/HCOOH on silica gel[227] or NH_2OH on Mexican bentonite[228] with microwave irradiation, dimethylhydrazine followed by dimethyl sulfoxide,[229] with trimethylsilyl azide,[230] and with hydroxylamine hydrochloride, $MgSO_4$, and TsOH.[231]

On treatment with two equivalents of dimethylaluminum amide (Me_2AlNH_2), carboxylic esters can be converted to nitriles: RCOOR' → RCN.[232] This is very likely a combination of **10-58** and **17-32.** See also **19-5.**

OS V, 656.

F. *Halogen Nucleophiles*

16-22 *The Formation of gem-Dihalides from Aldehydes and Ketones*

DIHALO-DE-OXO-BISUBSTITUTION

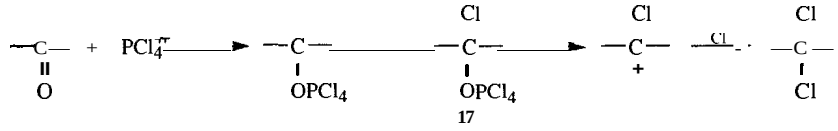
$$\underset{\underset{O}{\|}}{-C-} + PCl_5 \longrightarrow \underset{Cl}{\overset{Cl}{|}}{-C-}$$

Aliphatic aldehydes and ketones can be converted to *gem*-dichlorides[233] by treatment with PCl_5. The reaction fails for perhalo ketones.[234] If the aldehyde or ketone has an α hydrogen, elimination of HCl may follow and a vinylic chloride is a frequent side product:[235]

$$-\underset{Cl}{\overset{?}{C}}-\underset{H}{C}- \longrightarrow -C{=}\underset{Cl}{C}-$$

or even the main product.[236] Phosphorus pentabromide does not give good yields of *gem*-dibromides,[237] but these can be obtained from aldehydes, by the use of Br_2 and triphenyl phosphite.[238]

The mechanism of *gem*-dichloride formation involves initial attack of PCl_4^+, which is present in solid PCl_5, at the oxygen, followed by addition of Cl^- to the carbon:[239]

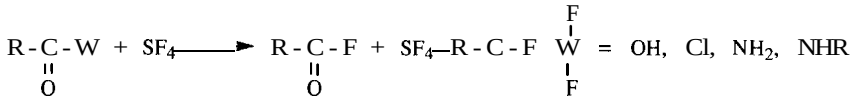


17

This chloride ion may come from PCl_6^-, (which is also present in solid PCl_5). There follows a two-step S_N1 process. Alternatively, 17 can be converted to the product without going through the chlorocarbocation, by an S_Ni process.

This reaction has sometimes been performed on carboxylic esters, though these compounds very seldom undergo any addition to the C=O bond. An example is the conversion of $F_3CCOOPh$ to F_3CCCl_2OPh.[240] However, formates commonly give the reaction.

Many aldehydes and ketones have been converted to *gem*-difluoro compounds with sulfur tetrafluoride (SF_4),[241] including quinones, which give 1,1,4,4-tetrafluorocyclohexadiene derivatives. With ketones, yields can be raised and the reaction temperature lowered, by the addition of anhydrous HF.[242] Carboxylic acids, acyl chlorides, and amides react with SF_4 to give 1,1,1-trifluorides. In these cases the first product is the acyl fluoride, which then undergoes the *gem*-difluorination reaction:



The acyl fluoride can be isolated. Carboxylic esters also give trifluorides, though more vigorous conditions are required, but in this case the carbonyl group of the ester is attacked first, and RCF_2OR' can be isolated from RCOOR',[243] and then converted to the trifluoride. Anhydrides can react in either manner, and both types of intermediate are isolable under the right conditions. Sulfer tetrafluoride even converts CO_2 to CF4. A disadvantage of reactions with SF4 is that they require a pressure vessel lined with stainless steel. Selenium tetrafluoride (SeF_4) gives similar reactions, but atmospheric pressure and ordinary glassware can be used.[244] Another reagent that is often used to convert aldehydes and ketones to *gem*-difluorides is the commercially available DAST (Et_2NSF_3) and CF_2Br_2 in the presence of zinc.[245]

The mechanism with SF_4 is probably similar in general nature, if not in specific detail, to that with PCl_5.

Treatment with hydrazine to give the hydrazone and then $CuBr_2$/*t*-BuOLi generated the *gem*-dibromide.[246] Oximes gives *gem*-dichlorides upon treatment with chlorine and $BF_3{\cdot}OEt_2$, and then HO.[247] Some dithianes can be converted to *gem*-

difluorides with a mixture of fluorine and iodine in acetonitrile.[248] Oximes give *gem*-difluorides with $NO^+BF_4^-$ and pyridinium polyhydrogen fluoride.[249]

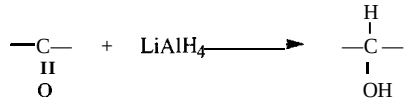
In a related process, a-halo ethers can be prepared by treatment of aldehydes and ketones with an alcohol and HX. The reaction is applicable to aliphatic aldehydes and ketones and to primary and secondary alcohols. The addition of HX to an aldehyde or ketone gives a-halo alcohols, which are usually unstable, though exceptions are known, especially with perfluoro and perchloro species.[250]

OS II, 549; V, 365, 396, 1082; VI, 505, 845; VIII, 247. Also see OS I, 506. For a-halo-ethers, see OS I, 377; IV, 101 (see, however, OS V, 218), 748; VI, 101.

G. *Attack by Hydrogen*

16-23 *Reduction of Aldehydes and Ketones to Alcohols*[251]

C,O-DIHYDRO- ADDITION



Aldehydes can be reduced to primary alcohols, and ketones to secondary alcohols, by a number of reducing agents,[252] of which $LiAlH_4$ and other metallic hydrides are the most commonly used.[253] These reagents have two main advantages over many other reducing agents: They do not reduce carbon-carbon double (or triple) bonds, and they generally contain a lot of hydrogen in a small amount of reagent—with $LiAlH_4$, all four hydrogens are usable for reduction. The reaction is broad and general. Lithium aluminum hydride easily reduces aliphatic, aromatic, alicyclic, and heterocyclic aldehydes, containing double or triple bonds and/or nonreducible groups such as NR_3, OH, OR, F, and so on. If the molecule contains a group reducible by $LiAlH_4$ (e.g., NO_2, CN, COOR), then it is also reduced. Lithium aluminum hydride reacts readily with water and alcohols, so these compounds must be excluded. Common solvents are ether and THF. Sodium borohydride has a similar scope but is more selective and so may be used with NO_2, Cl, COOR, CN, and so on in the molecule. Another advantage of $NaBH_4$ is that it can be used in water or alcoholic solvents and so reduces compounds such as sugars that are not soluble in ethers.[254] Sodium borohydride on alumina, under microwave irradiation, is also an effective reagent.[255] The scope of these reagents with ketones is similar to that with aldehydes. Lithium aluminum hydride reduces even sterically hindered ketones.

The double bonds that are generally not affected by metallic hydrides may be isolated or conjugated, but double bonds that are conjugated with the C=O group may or may not be reduced, depending on the substrate, reagent, and reaction conditions.[256] Some reagents that reduce only the C=O bonds of α,β-unsaturated aldehydes and ketones are AlH_3,[257] $NaBH_4$, or $LiAlH_4$ in the presence of lanthanide salts (e.g., $LaCl_3$, $CeBr_3$),[258] $NaBH_3(OAc)$,[259] $Zn(BH_4)_2$[260] on Y-zeolite,[261] and Et_3SiH.,[262] Also, both $LiAlH_4$[263] and $NaBH_4$[264] predominantly reduce only the

C=O bonds of C=C–C=O systems in most cases, though substantial amounts of fully saturated alcohols have been found in some cases[263] (p. 1007). For some reagents that reduce only the C=C bonds of conjugated aldehydes and ketones, see 15-11.

When a functional group is selectively attacked in the presence of a different functional group, the reaction is said to be *chemoselective*. A number of reagents have been found to reduce aldehydes much faster than ketones. Among these[265] are sodium triacetoxyborohydride,[266] $NaBH_4$–PhCOOH,[267] zinc borohydride in THF,[268,269] bis(isopropoxytitanium) borohydride,[270] a complex of $LiAlH_4$ and *N*-methyl-2-pyrrolidinone (of particular interest since it is stable in air and to heating),[271] and tributyltin hydride.[272] On the other hand, ketones can be chemoselectively reduced in the presence of aldehydes with $NaBH_4$ in aqueous EtOH at -15°C in the presence of cerium trichloride ($CeCl_3$).[273] The reagent lithium *n*-dihydropyridylaluminum hydride reduces diaryl ketones much better than dialkyl or alkyl aryl ketones.[274] Most other hydrides reduce diaryl ketones more slowly than other types of ketones. Saturated ketones can be reduced in the presence of α,β-unsaturated ketones with $NaBH_4$ 50% MeOH–CH_2Cl_2 at -78°C[275] and with zinc borohydride.[276] In general, $NaBH_4$ reduces carbonyl compounds in this order: aldehydes > α,β-unsaturated aldehydes > ketones > α,β-unsaturated ketones, and a carbonyl group of one type can be selectively reduced in the presence of a carbonyl group of a less reactive type.[277] A number of reagents will preferentially reduce the less sterically hindered of two carbonyl compounds, but by the use of DIBAL-H in the presence of the Lewis acid methylaluminum bis(2,16-di-*tert*-butyl-4-methylphenoxide), it was possible selectively to reduce the *more hindered* of a mixture of two ketones.[278] It is obvious that reagents can often be found to reduce one kind of carbonyl function in the presence of another.[279] For a discussion of selectivity in reduction reactions, see page 1544.

Quinones are reduced to hydroquinones by $LiAlH_4$, $SnCl_2$–HCl, or sodium hydrosulfite ($Na_2S_2O_4$), as well as by other reducing agents.

The reagent lithium tri-*sec*-butylborohydride $LiBH(s\text{-}Bu)_3$ reduces cyclic and bicyclic ketones in a highly stereoselective manner, giving the less stable isomer.[280] For example, 2-methylcyclohexanone gave *cis*-2-methylcyclohexanol with an isomeric purity >99%. The more usual reagents, (e.g., $LiAlH_4$, $NaBH_4$) reduce relatively unhindered cyclic ketones either with little or no stereoselectivity[281] or give predominant formation of the more stable isomer (axial attack).[282] Mixed reagents such as $LiBH_3[N(C_3H_7)_2]$ gives high selectivity for axial attack.[283] Reduction of cyclohexanone derivatives with the very hindered $LiAlH(CEt_2CMe_3)_3$ gave primarily the cis alcohol.[284] Cyclohexanones that have a large degree of steric hindrance near the carbonyl group usually give predominant formation of the less stable alcohol, even with $LiAlH_4$ and $NaBH_4$.

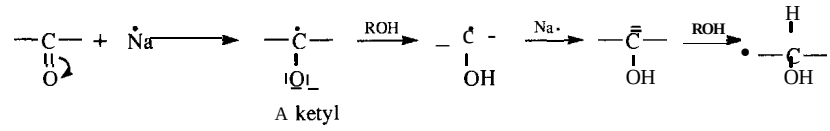
Among other reagents that reduce aldehydes and ketones to alcohols[285] are the following:

1. *Hydrogen and a Catalyst.*[286] The most common catalysts are platinum and ruthenium, but homogeneous catalysts have also been used.[287] Before the

discovery of the metal hydrides this was one of the most common ways of effecting this reduction, but it suffers from the fact that C=C, C≡C, C=N and C≡N bonds are more susceptible to attack than C=O bonds.[288] For aromatic aldehydes and ketones, reduction to the hydrocarbon (19-33) is a side reaction, stemming from hydrogenolysis of the alcohol initially produced (10-81).

2. *Sodium in Ethanol.*[289] This is called the *Bouveault–Blanc procedure* and was more popular for the reduction of carboxylic esters (19-38) than of aldehydes or ketones before the discovery of $LiAlH_4$.

For the reaction with sodium in ethanol the following mechanism[290] has been suggested:[291]

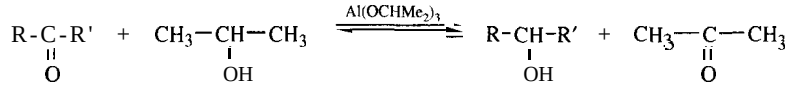


A ketyl

The ketyl intermediate can be isolated.[292]

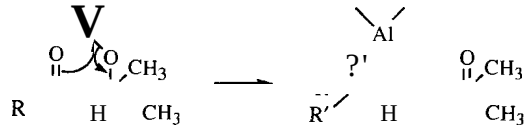
Other metals can be used, including $FeCl_3/Zn$ in aqueous DMF.[293]

3. *Isopropyl Alcohol and Aluminum Isopropoxide*. This is called the *Meerwein–Ponndorf–Verley reduction.*[294] It is reversible, and the reverse reaction is known as the *Oppenauer oxidation* (see 19-3):



The equilibrium is shifted by removal of the acetone by distillation. The reaction takes place under very mild conditions and is highly specific for aldehydes and ketones, so that C=C bonds (including those conjugated with the C=O bonds) and many other functional groups can be present without themselves being reduced.[295] This includes acetals, so that one of two carbonyl groups in a molecule can be specifically reduced if the other is first converted to an acetal. P-Keto esters, P-diketones, and other ketones and aldehydes with a relatively high enol content do not give this reaction. A SmI_3 assisted version of this reduction has been reported.[296]

The Meerwein-Ponndorf-Verley reaction usually[297] involves a cyclic transition state:



but in some cases 2 mol of aluminum alkoxide are involved one attacking the carbon and the other the oxygen, a conclusion that stems from the finding that in these cases the reaction was 1.5 order in alkoxide.[299] Although, for simpli-

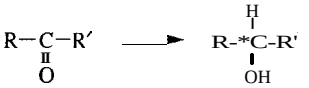
city, we have shown the alkoxide as a monomer, it actually exists as trimers and tetramers, and it is these that react.[300]

4. *Boranes.* Borane (BH_3) and substituted boranes reduce aldehydes and ketones in a manner similar to their addition to C=C bonds (**15-16**).[301] That is, the boron adds to the oxygen and the hydrogen to the carbon:[302]

The borate is then hydrolyzed to the alcohol. Both 9-BBN[303] (p. 1013) and BH_3–Me_2S[304] reduce only the C=O group of conjugated aldehydes and ketones.

5. *Metals in Water or Alcohol.* A single carbonyl group of an α-diketone can be reduced (to give an α-hydroxy ketone) by heating with zinc powder in aqueous DMF.[305] This has also been accomplished with aqueous VCl_2[306] and with Zn–$ZnCl_2$–EtOH.[307]
6. *Cannizzaro Reaction.* In the Cannizzaro reaction **(19-60)** aldehydes without an α hydrogen are reduced to alcohols.
7. *Silanes And Base.* In the presence of bases, certain silanes can selectively reduce carbonyls. Epoxy-ketones are reduced to epoxy-alcohols, for example with $(MeO)_3SiH$ and LiOMe.[308] Controlling temperature and solvent leads to different ratios of syn- and anti- products.[331] Silanes reduce ketones in the presence of $BF_3{\cdot}OEt_2$[309] and transition metal compounds catalyze this reduction.[310]

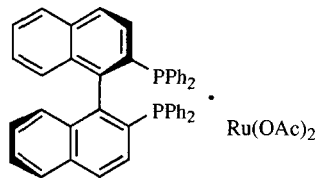
Unsymmetrical ketones are prochiral (p. 164); that is, reduction creates a new chiral center:



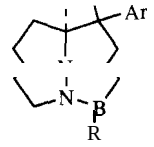
Much effort has been put into finding optically active reducing agents that will produce one enantiomer of the alcohol enantioselectively, and considerable success has been achieved,[311] both with biologically derived reducing agents[312] such as baker's yeast[313] or enzymes from other organisms,[314] and with synthetic reagents. Each reagent is more effective for certain types of ketones than for others.[315] Brown et al.[316] reduced various types of ketone with a number of reducing agents. These workers also determined the relative effectiveness of various reagents for reduction of eight other types of ketone, including heterocyclic, aralkyl, P-keto esters, P-keto acids,[317] and so on.[316] In most cases, ee values of >90% can be obtained with the proper reagent.[318] Substituents that are remote to the carbonyl group can play a role in facial selectivity of the reduction.[319]

Asymmetric reduction with very high ee values has also been achieved with achiral reducing agents and optically active catalysts.[320] The two most important

examples are (1) homogeneous catalytic hydrogenation with the catalyst 2,2'-bis(diphenylphosphino)-l,l'-binaphthyl-ruthenium acetate [BINAP–$Ru(OAc)_2$],[321]



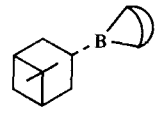
R (+)-BINAP



18

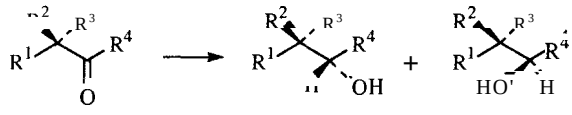
which reduces P-keto esters in >98% ee,[322] and (2) reduction with BH_3–THF or catecholborane, using an oxazaborolidine (18; R = H, Me, or n-Bu; Ar = Ph or β-naphthyl)[323] or related compounds[324] as a catalyst. Reduction with silanes and transition metal catalysts such as ruthenium compounds is also very effective.[325] This method gives high ee values with various types of ketone, especially α,β-unsaturated ketones. Other ruthenium catalysts[326] have also been used in catalytic hydrogenation.

Enantioselective reduction is not possible for aldehydes, since the products are primary alcohols in which the reduced carbon is not chiral, but deuterated aldehydes RCDO give a chiral product, and these have been reduced enantioselectively with B-(3-pinanyl)-9-borabicyclo[3.3.1]nonane (Alpine-Borane) with almost complete optical purity.[327]



Alpine-Borane

In the above cases, an optically active reducing agent or catalyst interacts with a prochiral substrate. Asymmetric reduction of ketones has also been achieved with an achiral reducing agent, if the ketone is complexed to an optically active transition metal Lewis acid.[328]

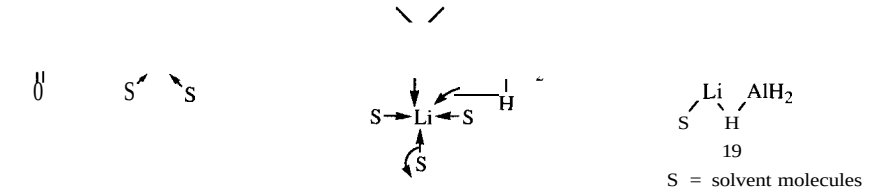


Diastereomers

There are other stereochemical aspects to the reduction of aldehydes and ketones. If there is a chiral center to the carbonyl group,[329] even an achiral reducing agent can give more of one diastereomer than of the other. Such diastereoselective reductions have been carried out with considerable success.[330] In most such cases Cram's rule (p. 147) is followed, but exceptions are known.[331]

With most reagents there is an initial attack on the carbon of the carbonyl group by H^- or some carrier of it, though with BH_3[332] the initial attack is on the oxygen.

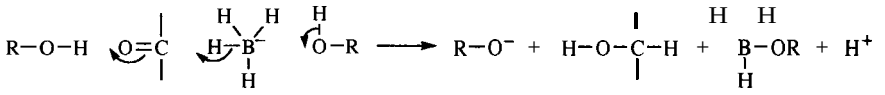
Detailed mechanisms are not known in most cases.[281] With AlH_4^- (or BH_4^-) compounds, the attacking species is the AlH_4^- (or BH_4^-) ion, which, in effect, transfers H^- to the carbon. The following mechanism has been proposed for $LiAlH_4$:[333]



19

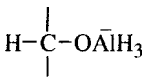
S = solvent molecules

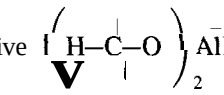
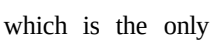
Evidence that the cation plays an essential role, at least in some cases, is that when the Li^+ was effectively removed from $LiAlH_4$ (by the addition of a crown ether), the reaction did not take place.[334] The complex 19 must now be hydrolyzed to the alcohol. For $NaBH_4$ the Na^+ does not seem to participate in the transition state, but kinetic evidence shows that an OR group from the solvent does participate and remains attached to the boron:[335]



Free H~ cannot be the attacking entity in most reductions with boron or aluminum hydrides because the reactions are frequently sensitive to the size of the MH_4^- [or $MR_mH_n^-$ or $M(OR)_mH_n^-$, etc.].

There has been much controversy about whether the initial complex in the $LiAlH_4$ reduction (19), which can be written as



can reduce another carbonyl to give  , and so on. It has been shown[336] that this is probably not the case but that, more likely, 20 disproportionates to  and AlH_4^-, which is the only attacking species. Disproportionation has also been reported in the $NaBH_4$ reaction.[337]

Compound 20 is essentially $LiAlH_4$ with one of the hydrogens replaced by an alkoxy group (i.e., $LiAlH_3OR$). The fact that 20 and other alkoxy derivatives of $LiAlH_4$ are less reactive than $LiAlH_4$ itself has led to the use of such compounds as reducing agents that are less reactive and more selective than $LiAlH_4$.[338] We have already met some of these, for example, $LiAlH(O\text{-}t\text{-}Bu)_3$ (Reactions 10-89-10-91; see also Table 19.5). As an example of chemoselectivity in this reaction it may be

mentioned that $LiAlH(O\text{-}t\text{-}Bu)_3$ has been used to reduce only the keto group in a molecule containing both keto and carboxylic ester groups.[339] However, the use of such reagents is sometimes complicated by the disproportionation mentioned above, which may cause $LiAlH_4$ to be the active species, even if the reagent is an alkoxy derivative. Another highly selective reagent (reducing aldehydes and ketones, but not other functional groups), which does not disproportionate, is potassium triisopropoxyborohydride.[340]

The mechanism of catalytic hydrogenation of aldehydes and ketones is probably similar to that of Reaction **15-11,** though not much is known about it.[341]

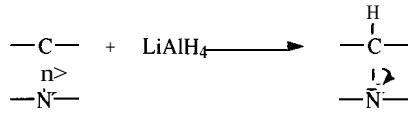
For other reduction reactions of aldehydes and ketones, see **19-33,19-55,** and **19-60.**

OS I, 90, 304, 554; **II,** 317, 545, 598; **III,** 286; **IV,** 15, **25,** 216, 660; **V, 175,** 294, 595, 692; **VI,** 215, 769, 887; **VII, 129,** 215, 241, 402, 417; **VIII,** 302, 312, 326, 527; **IX,** 58, 362, 676.

16-24 *Reduction of the Carbon–Nitrogen Double Bond*

C,N-DIHYDRO-ADDITION

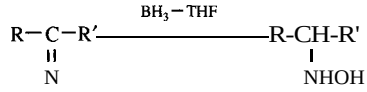
Imines and Schiff bases,[342] hydrazones,[343] and other C=N compounds can be reduced with $LiAlH_4$, $NaBH_4$, Na–EtOH, hydrogen and a catalyst, as well as with other reducing agents.[344] Reduction with Bu_2SnClH in HMPA has been shown to be chemoselective for imines.[345] Iminium salts are also reduced by $LiAlH_4$, though here there is no "addition" to the nitrogen:[346]



Reduction of imines has been carried out enantioselectively.[347]

Isocyanates have been catalytically hydrogenated to N-substituted formamides: RNCO → R–NH–CHO.[348] Isothiocyanates were reduced to thioformamides with SmI_2 in HMPA/*t*-BuOH.[349]

Oximes are generally reduced to amines (**19-44**),[350] but simple reduction to give hydroxylamines can be accomplished with borane[351] or sodium cyanoborohydride.[168]



OS III, 328, 827; **VI,** 905; **VIII,** 110, 568. Also see OS IV, 283.

16-25 *The Reduction of Nitrites to Amines*

CC,NN-TETRAHYDRO-BIADDITION

$$R\text{-}C{\equiv}N \;+\; LiAlH_4 \longrightarrow R{-}CH_2{-}NH_2$$

Nitriles can be reduced to primary amines with many reducing agents,[352] including $LiAlH_4$, and $BH_3{-}Me_2S$.[353] Sodium borohydride does not generally reduce nitriles but does so in alcoholic solvents when a $CoCl_2$ catalyst is added[354] or in the presence of Raney nickel.[355] The reaction is of wide scope and has been applied to many nitriles. When catalytic hydrogenation is used, secondary amines, $(RCH_2)_2NH$, are often side products.[356] These can be avoided by adding a compound such as acetic anhydride, which removes the primary amine as soon as it is formed,[357] or by the use of excess ammonia to drive the equilibria backward.[358]

It is not possible to stop with the addition of only 1 mol of hydrogen, that is., to convert the nitrile to an imine, except where the imine is subsequently hydrolyzed **(16-26).**

N-Alkylnitrilium ions are reduced to secondary amines by $NaBH_4$.[359]

$$RCN \xrightarrow{R'_3O^+\,BF_4^-} R{-}C{\equiv}\overset{+}{N}{-}R' \xrightarrow{NaBH_4} RCH_2{-}NH{-}R'$$

Since nitrilium salts can be prepared by treatment of nitriles with trialkyloxonium salts (see **16-8),** this is a method for the conversion of nitriles to secondary amines.

It is noted that the related compounds, the isonitriles ($R{-}{}^+N{\equiv}C^-$, also called isocyanides) have been reduced to N-methylamines with $LiAlH_4$ as well as with other reducing agents.

OS **III,** 229, 358, 720; VI, 223.

16-26 *The Reduction of Nitriles to Aldehydes*

HYDRO, OXY-DE-NITRILO-TERSUBSTITUTION

$$R{-}C{\equiv}N \xrightarrow[2.\ \text{hydrolysis}]{1.\ HCl,\ SnCl_2} RCH{=}O$$

There are two principal methods for the reduction of nitriles to aldehydes.[360] In one of these, known as the *Stephen reduction,* the nitrile is treated with HC1 to form

$$RCCl{=}\overset{+}{N}H_2\ \bar{C}l$$

21

This is reduced with anhydrous $SnCl_2$ to RCH=NH, which precipitates as a complex with $SnCl_4$ and is then hydrolyzed **(16-2)** to the aldehyde. The Stephen reduction is most successful when R is aromatic, but it can be done for aliphatic R up to about six carbons.[361] It is also possible to prepare **21** in a different way, by treating ArCONHPh with PCl_5, which can then be converted to the aldehyde. This is known as the *Sonn–Müller method.*

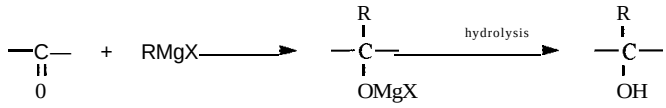
The other way of reducing nitriles to aldehydes involves using a metal hydride reducing agent to add 1 mol of hydrogen and hydrolysis, *in situ*, of the resulting imine (which is undoubtedly coordinated to the metal). This has been carried out with $LiAlH_4$, $LiAlH(OEt)_3$,[362] $LiAlH(NR_2)_3$,[363] and DIBAL-H.[364] The metal hydride method is useful for aliphatic and aromatic nitriles.

OS III, 626, 818; VI, 631.

H. *Carbon Attack by Organometallic Compounds*[365]

16-27 *The Addition of Grignard Reagents and Organolithium Reagents to Aldehydes and Ketones*

O-HYDRO-*C*-ALKYL-ADDITION



The addition of Grignard reagents to aldehydes and ketones is known as the *Grignard reaction*[366] Formaldehyde gives primary alcohols; other aldehydes give secondary alcohols; and ketones give tertiary alcohols. The reaction is of very broad scope, and R may be alkyl or aryl. Under certain conditions, the reaction can be done in water[367] although ether solvents are the usual choice. In many cases, the hydrolysis step is carried out with dilute HC1 or H_2SO_4, but this cannot be done for tertiary alcohols in which at least one R group is alkyl because such alcohols are easily dehydrated under acidic conditions (17-1). In such cases (and often for other alcohols as well) an aqueous solution of ammonium chloride is used instead of a strong acid.

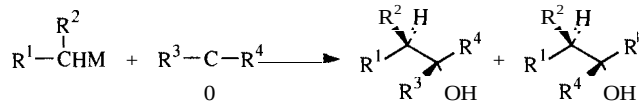
The reaction with alkyl- and aryllithium reagents has also been carried out without preliminary formation of RLi: A mixture of RX and the carbonyl compound was added to a suspension of lithium pieces in THF.[368] Yields were generally satisfactory. The magnesium analog of this process is called the *Barbier reaction*.[369] Lithium dimethylcuprate (Me_2CuLi) reacts with aldehydes[370] and with certain ketones[371] to give the expected alcohols. The similar reagents RCu(CN)ZnI also react with aldehydes, in the presence of BF_3–etherate, to give secondary alcohols. Carboxylic ester, nitrile, and imide groups in the R are not affected by the reaction conditions.[372]

α,β-Unsaturated aldehydes or ketones can give 1,4 addition as well as normal 1,2 addition (see **15-24**).[373] In general, alkyllithium reagents give less 1,4 addition than the corresponding Grignard reagents.[374] Quinones add Grignard reagents on one or both sides or give 1,4 addition. In a compound containing both an aldehyde and a ketone function it is possible to add RMgX chemoselectively to the aldehyde function without significantly disturbing the ketonic group (see also p. 1208).[375] In conjunction with $BeCl_2$, organolithium reagents add to conjugated ketones. In THF, 1,4 addition is observed, but in diethyl ether the 1,2-addition product is formed.[376] Organocerium reagents, generated from cerium chloride ($CeCl_3$ and a Grignard

reagent or an organolithium reagent) gives an organometallic reagent that can be chemoselective.[377]

As with the reduction of aldehydes and ketones **(16-23),** the addition of organometallic compounds to these substrates can be carried out enantioselectively and diastereoselectively.[378] Chiral secondary alcohols have been obtained with high ee values by addition to aromatic aldehydes of Grignard and organolithium compounds in the presence of optically active amino alcohols as ligands.[379]

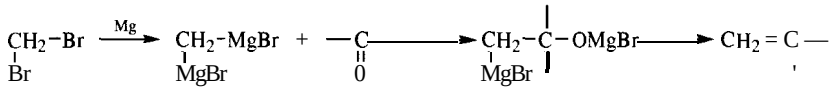
Diastereoselective addition[380] has been carried out with achiral reagents and chiral substrates,[381] similar to the reduction shown on page. 1201,[382] but because the attacking atom in this case is carbon, not hydrogen, it is also possible to get diastereoselective addition with an achiral substrate and an optically active reagent.[383] Use of suitable reactants creates, in the most general case, two new chiral centers, so the product can exist as two pairs of enantiomers:



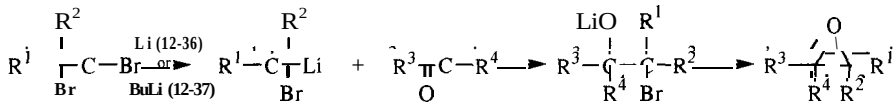
Diastereomers

Even if the organometallic compound is racemic, it still may be possible to get a diastereoselective reaction; that is, one pair of enantiomers is formed in greater amount than the other.[384]

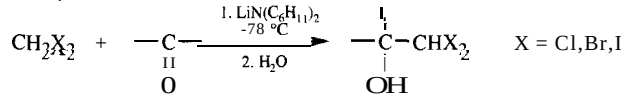
In some cases, the Grignard reaction can be performed intramolecularly.[385] For example, treatment of 5-bromo-2-pentanone with magnesium and a small amount of mercuric chloride in THF produced 1-methyl-1-cyclobutanol in 60% yield.[386] Other four- and five-membered ring compounds were also prepared by this procedure. Similar closing of five- and six-membered rings was achieved by treatment of a 5- or ε-halocarbonyl compound, not with a metal, but with a dianion derived from nickel tetraphenyporphine.[387]



The *gem*-disubstituted magnesium compounds formed from CH_2Br_2 or CH_2I_2 **(12-36)** react with aldehydes or ketones to give alkenes in moderate-to-good yields.[388] The reaction could not be extended to other *gem*-dihalides. Similar reactions with *gem*-dimetallic compounds prepared with metals other than magnesium have also produced alkenes.[389] The α,α-dimetallic derivatives of phenyl sulfones ($PhSO_2CM_2R$; M= Li or Mg) react with aldehydes or ketones R'COR" to give good yields of the α,β-unsaturated sulfones $PhSO_2CR{=}CR'R''$,[390] which can be reduced with aluminum amalgam (see **10-104)** or with $LiAlH_4$–$CuCl_2$ to give the alkenes $CHR{=}CR'R''$.[391] On the other hand, *gem*-dihalides treated with a carbonyl compound and Li or BuLi give epoxides (see also **16-61**).[392]

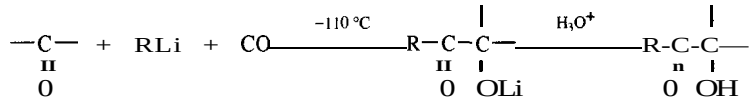


In other uses of *gem*-dihalo compounds, aldehydes and ketones add the CH_2I group, $R_2CO \rightarrow R_2C(OH)CH_2I$, when treated with CH_2I_2 in the presence of SmI_2[393] and the CHX_2 group when treated with methylene halides and lithium dicyclohexylamide at low temperatures.[394]



A hydroxymethyl group can be added to an aldehyde or ketone with the masked reagent $Me_2[(i\text{-}Pr)O]SiCH_2MgCl$, which with R_2CO gives $R_2C(OH)CH_2Si[O{-}(i\text{-}Pr)]Me_2$, which, with H_2O_2, give 1,2-diols, $R_2C(OH)CH_2OH$.[395]

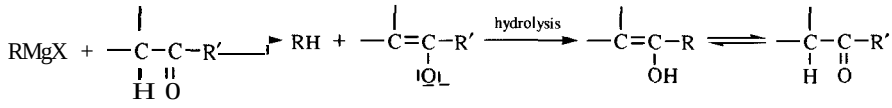
It is possible to add an acyl group to a ketone to give (after hydrolysis) an α-hydroxy ketone.[396] This can be done by adding RLi and CO to the ketone at −110°C:[397]



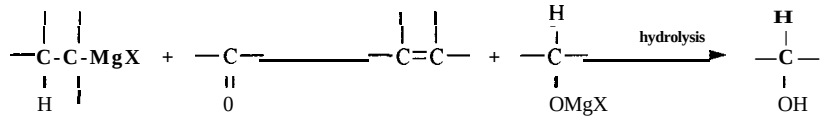
When the same reaction is carried out with carboxylic esters R′COOR″, α-diketones RCOCOR′ are obtained.[397]

Although most aldehydes and ketones react very nicely with most Grignard reagents, there are several potential side reactions[398] that occur mostly with hindered ketones and with bulky Grignard reagents. The two most important of these are *enolization* and *reduction.* The former requires that the aldehyde or ketone have an a hydrogen, and the latter requires that the Grignard reagent have a β hydrogen:

Enolization



Reduction



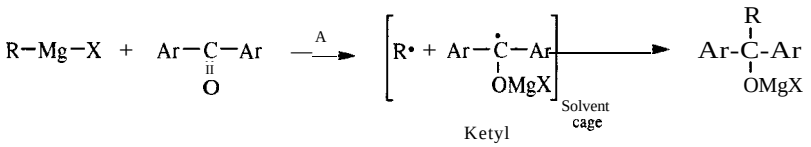
Enolization is an acid-base reaction **(12-23)** in which a proton is transferred from the a carbon to the Grignard reagent. The carbonyl compound is converted to its enolate ion form, which, on hydrolysis, gives the original ketone or aldehyde. Enolization is important not only for hindered ketones but also for those that have a relatively high percentage of enol form (e.g., β-keto esters). In reduction, the carbonyl compound is reduced to an alcohol **(16-23)** by the Grignard reagent, which itself undergoes elimination to give an alkene. Two other side reactions are condensation (between enolate ion and excess ketone) and Wurtz-type coupling **(10-101).** Such highly hindered tertiary alcohols as triisopropylcarbinol, tri-*Tert*-butylcarbinol, and diisopropylneopentylcarbinol cannot be prepared (or can be prepared only in extremely low yields) by the addition of Grignard reagents to ketones, because

reduction and/or enolization become prominent.[399] However, these carbinols can be prepared by the use of alkyllithium reagents at $-80°C$,[400] under which conditions enolization and reduction are much less important.[401] Other methods of increasing the degree of addition at the expense of reduction consist of complexing the Grignard reagent with $LiClO_4$ or $Bu_4N^+Br^-$,[402] or using benzene or toluene instead of ether as solvent.[403] Both reduction and enolization can be avoided by adding $CeCl_3$ to the Grignard reagent.[404]

Another way to avoid complications is to add $(RO)_3TiCl$, $TiCl_4$,[405] $(RO)_3ZrCl$, or $(R_2N)_3TiX$ to the Grignard or lithium reagent. This produces organotitanium or organozirconium compounds that are much more selective than Grignard or organolithium reagents.[406] An important advantage of these reagents is that they do not react with NO_2 or CN functions that may be present in the substrate, as Grignard and organolithium reagents do. Furthermore, organotitanium reagents can be made to add chemoselectively to aldehydes in the presence of ketones.[407] Organomanganese compounds are also chemoselective in this way.[408]

There has been much controversy regarding the mechanism of addition of Grignard reagents to aldehydes and ketones.[409] The reaction is difficult to study because of the variable nature of the species present in the Grignard solution (p. 234) and because the presence of small amounts of impurities in the magnesium seems to have a great effect on the kinetics of the reaction, making reproducible experiments difficult.[410] There seem to be two basic mechanisms, depending on the reactants and the reaction conditions. In one of these, the R group is transferred to the carbonyl carbon with its electron pair. A detailed mechanism of this type has been proposed by Ashby et al.,[411] based on the discovery that this reaction proceeds by two paths—one first order in MeMgBr and the other first order in Me_2Mg.[412] According to this proposal, both MeMgBr and Me_2Mg add to the carbonyl carbon, though the exact nature of the step by which MeMgBr or Me_2Mg reacts with the substrate is not certain. One possibility is a four-centered cyclic transition state:[413]

The other type of mechanism is a SET process[414] with a ketyl intermediate:[415]

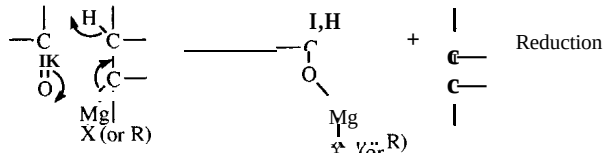


This mechanism, which has been mostly studied with diaryl ketones, is more likely for aromatic and other conjugated aldehydes and ketones than it is for strictly aliphatic ones. Among the evidence[416] for the SET mechanism are ESR spectra[417] and the fact that $Ar_2C(HO)-C(OH)Ar_2$ side products are obtained (from dimerization of the ketyl).[418] In the case of addition of RMgX to benzil (PhCOCOPh), ESR spectra of

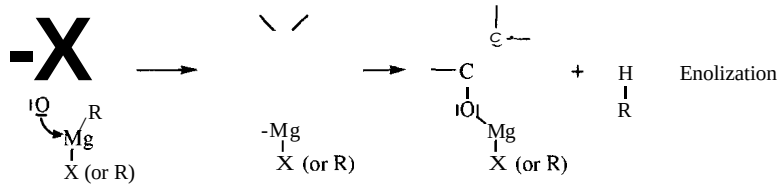
two different ketyl radicals were observed, both reported to be quite stable at room temperature.[419] Carbon isotope effect studies with $Ph^{14}COPh$ showed that the rate-determining step with most Grignard reagents is the carbon-carbon bond-forming step (marked A), though with allylmagnesium bromide it is the initial electron transfer step.[420]

Mechanisms for the addition of organolithium reagents have been investigated much less.[421] Addition of a cryptand that binds Li^+ inhibited the normal addition reaction, showing that the lithium is necessary for the reaction to take place.[422]

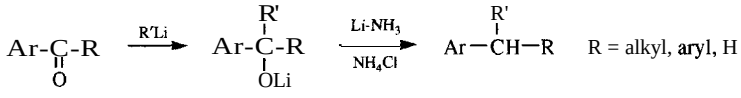
There is general agreement that the mechanism leading to reduction[423] is usually as follows:



There is evidence that the mechanism leading to enolization is also cyclic, but involves prior coordination with magnesium:[424]



Aromatic aldehydes and ketones can be alkylated and reduced in one reaction vessel by treatment with an alkyl- or aryllithium, followed by lithium and ammonia and then by ammonium chloride.[425]

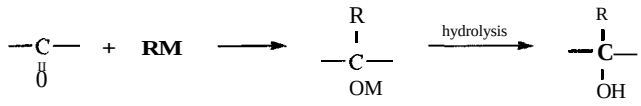


A similar reaction has been carried out with N,N-disubstituted amides: $RCONR'_2 \rightarrow RR''CHNR'_2$.[426] When the reagent is $MeNbCl_4$, ketones R_2CO are converted to $R_2C(Cl)Me$.[427]

OS I, 188; II, 406, 606; III, 200, 696, 729, 757; IV, 771, 792; V, 46, 452, 608, 1058; VI, 478, 537, 542, 606, 737, 991, 1033; VII, 177, 271, 447; VIII, 179, 226, 315, 343, 386, 495, 507, 556; IX, 9, 103, 139, 234, 306, 391, 472; 75, 12; 76, 214, 228.

16-28 *Addition of Other Organometallics to Aldehydes and Ketones*

O-Hydro-*C*-alkyl-addition



Many organometallic compounds can be used[428] besides Grignard reagents and aryllithium reagents,[429] but in general only of active metals such as alkylzinc reagents[430] are useful (e.g., alkylmercurys do not react). For the addition of acetylenic groups, sodium may be the metal used: $RC{\equiv}CNa$ (16-41); while vinylic alanes (prepared as in 15-17) are the reagents of choice for the addition of vinylic groups.[431] The reagent $Me_3Al^-C{\equiv}CH\ Na^+$ also adds to aldehydes to give the ethynyl alcohol.[432]

Many methods have been reported for the addition of allylic groups,[433] including allyltrialkyltin compounds[434] (in the presence of BF_3–etherate),[435] as well as other allylic metal compounds.[436] Allylic alcohols and homo allylic alcohols add to aldehydes in the presence of $Sn(OTf)_2$.[437] For allylic halides, both activated manganese,[438] and $BiCl_3/NaBH_4$[439] can be used. In general, allyltin compounds readily add to aldehydes and ketones,[440] and asymmetric induction has been reported.[441] A variety of alkyl and allylic halides add to aldehydes or ketones in the presence of metals or metal compounds such as antimony,[442] barium,[443] lead,[444] $MgBiCl_3$,[445] zinc,[446] SmI_2,[447] and GeI_2[448] has been used. Allyl indium compounds[449] add to aldehydes or ketones in various solvents,[450] including water.[451] Many of these type of reactions are closely related to the *Barbier reaction* (see p. 1205), where the metal (originally magnesium), the ketone or aldehyde and an alkyl halide are mixed together to form the alkylated alcohol.

Although organoboranes do not generally add to aldehydes and ketones,[452] allylic boranes are exceptions.[453] When they add, an allylic rearrangement always takes place. Allylic rearrangements sometimes take place with the other reagents as well. In the presence of transition metal compounds, $RB(OH)_2$ and $ArB(OH)_2$ add to aldehydes to give the corresponding alcohol.[454]

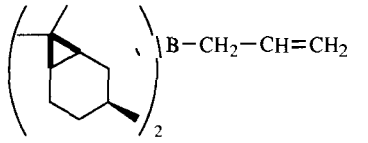
Certain functional groups (COOEt, $CONMe_2$, CN) can be present in the R group when organotin reagents $RSnEt_3$ are added to aldehydes.[455] Trimethylaluminum[456] and dimethyltitanium dichloride[457] exhaustively methylate ketones to give *gem*-dimethyl compounds (see also 10-99):[458]

The titanium reagent also dimethylates aromatic aldehydes.[459] Triethylaluminum reacts with aldehydes, however, to give the mono-ethyl alcohol, and in the presence of a chiral additive the reaction proceeds with good asymmetric induction.[460] A complex of $Me_3Ti{\cdot}MeLi$ has been shown to be selective for 1,2 addition with conjugated ketones, in the presence of nonconjugated ketones.[461]

High ee values have also been obtained with organometallics,[462] including organotitanium compounds (methyl, aryl, allylic) in which an optically active ligand is coordinated to the titanium,[463] allylic boron compounds, and organozinc compounds.

A number of optically active allylic boron compounds have been used, including[464] B-allylbis(2-isocaranyl)borane (22),[465] (*E*)-and (*Z*)-crotyl-(*R*,*R*)-2,5-di-

methylborolanes (23),[466] and the borneol derivative 24,[467] all of which add an



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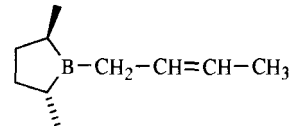

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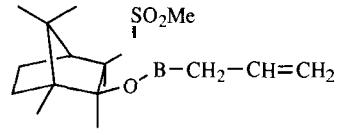


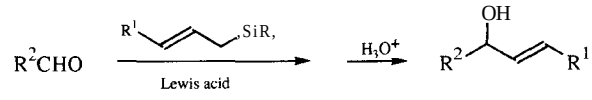
24

allyl group to aldehydes, with ee values of 90% or more. Where the substrate possesses an aryl group or a triple bond, enantioselectivity is enhanced by using a metal carbonyl complex of the substrate.[468]

As for the organozinc reagents, very high ee values (90-98%) were obtained from R_2Zn reagents (R = alkyl) and aromatic[469] aldehydes by the use of a small amount of various catalysts.[470] When benzaldehyde was treated with Et_2Zn in the presence of the optically active catalyst l-piperidino-3,3-dimethyl-2-butanol (31), a surprising result was obtained. Although the catalyst had only 10.7% excess of one enantiomer, the product PhCH(OH)Me had an ee of 82%.[471] When the catalyst ee was increased to 20.5%, the product ee rose to 88%. The question is, how could a catalyst produce a product with an ee much higher than itself? One possible explanation[472] is that (*R*) and *(S)* molecules of the catalyst form a complex with each other, and that only the uncomplexed molecules are actually involved in the reaction. Since initially the number of (*R*) and (*S*) molecules was not the same, the *(R:S)* ratio of the uncomplexed molecules must be considerably higher (or lower) than that of the initial mixture.

16-29 *Addition of Trialkylallylsilanes to Aldehydes and Ketones*

O-HYDRO-*C*-ALKYL-ADDITION

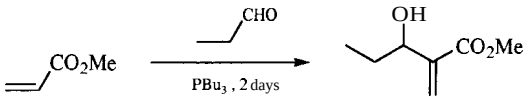


Allyltrialkylsilanes add to aldehydes in the presence of a Lewis acid.[473] The mechanism of this reaction has been examined.[474] When chiral titanium complexes are used in the reaction, allylic alcohols are produced with good asymmetric induction.[475] Other chiral additives have been used,[476] and chiral complexes of allyl silanes give good results.[477] Allyltrichlorosilanes have also been used in addition reactions with aldehydes.[478] Allylsilanes also add to aldehydes in the presence of Me_3SiOTf.[479]

16-30 *Addition of Conjugated Alkenes to Aldehydes: the Baylis–Hillman Reaction*

O-HYDRO-*C*-ALKENYL-ADDITION

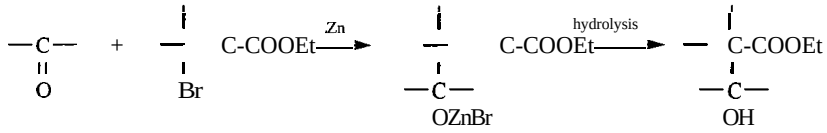
In the presence of a base such as 1,4-diazabicyclo[2.2.2]octane (DABCO) or trialkylphosphines, conjugated carbonyl compounds such as esters and amides add to aldehydes via the a-carbon to give α-alkenyl-β-hydroxy esters or amides. This sequence is called the *Baylis-Hillman reaction*,[480] and a simple example is [481]



Using a chiral auxiliary via the amide[482] or ester[483] leads to asymmetric induction.[484] Under certain conditions, rate enhancements have been observed.[485] Microwave irradiation has also been used to induce the reaction.[486]

16-31 *The Reformatsky Reaction*

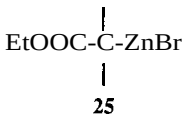
O-HYDRO-*C*-α-ETHOXYCARBONYLALKYL-ADDITION



The *Reformatsky reaction* is very similar to 16-27.[487] An aldehyde or ketone is treated with zinc and a halide; the halide is usually an a-halo ester or a vinylog of an a-halo ester (e.g., RCHBrCH=CHCOOEt), though a-halo nitriles,[488] a-halo ketones,[489] and a-halo N,N-disubstituted amides have also been used. Especially high reactivity can be achieved with activated zinc,[490] with zinc/silver-graphite,[491] and with zinc and ultrasound.[492] The reaction has also been carried out with other metals instead of zinc (e.g., In,[493] Mn,[494] low-valent Ti[495]) and with certain other compounds, including SmI_2[496] and $Sc(OTf)_3/PPh_3$.[497] The aldehyde or ketone can be aliphatic, aromatic, or heterocyclic or contain various functional groups. Solvents used are generally ethers, including Et_2O, THF, and 1,4-dioxane, although the reaction can be done in water[498] using dibenzoyl peroxide and $MgClO_4$.

The use of additives such as germanium can lead to highly diastereoselective reactions.[499] Using chiral auxiliaries[500] or chiral additives,[501] good enantioselectivity[502] can be achieved.

Formally, the reaction can be regarded as if it were analogous to the Grignard reaction (16-27), with as an intermediate analogous to RMgX.[503] There *is* an



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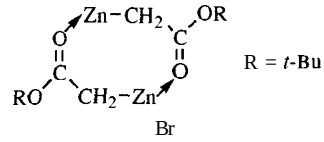
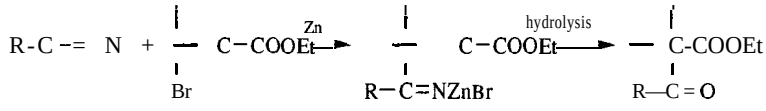
intermediate derived from zinc and the ester, the structure of which has been shown to be 26, by X-ray crystallography of the solid intermediate prepared from *t*-$BuOCOCH_2Br$ and Zn.[504] As can be seen, it has some of the characteristics of 25.

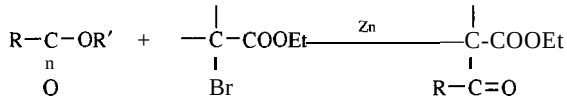


26

Usually, after hydrolysis, the alcohol is the product, but sometimes (especially with aryl aldehydes) elimination follows directly and the product is an alkene. By the use of Bu_3P along with Zn, the alkene can be made the main product,[505] making this an alternative to the Wittig reaction **(16-47).** Since Grignard reagents cannot be formed from α-halo esters, the method is quite useful, though there are competing reactions and yields are sometimes low. A similar reaction (called the *Blaise reaction)* has been carried out on nitriles:[506]



Carboxylic esters have also been used as substrates, but then, as might be expected (p. 1173), the result is substitution and not addition:



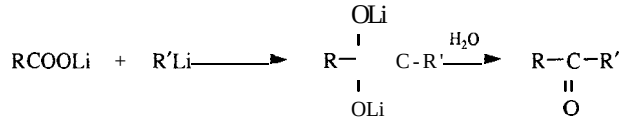
The product in this case is the same as with the corresponding nitrile, though the pathways are different.

For an alternative approach involving ester enolates, see **16-40.**

OS **III,** 408; **IV,** 120, 444; **IX,** 275.

16-32 *The Conversion of Carboxylic Acid Salts to Ketones With Organometallic Compounds*

ALKYL-DE-OXIDO-SUBSTITUTION



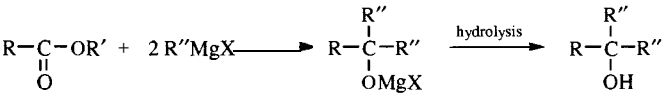
Good yields of ketones can often be obtained by treatment of the lithium salt of a carboxylic acid with an alkyllithium reagent, followed by hydrolysis.[507] The R' group may be aryl or primary, secondary, or tertiary alkyl. Both MeLi and PhLi have been employed most often. The R group may be alkyl or aryl, though lithium acetate generally gives low yields. Tertiary alcohols are side products.

A variation of this transformation reacts the acid with lithium naphthalenide in the presence of 1-chlorobutane. The product is the ketone.[508] A related reaction treats the lithium carboxylate with lithium metal and the alkyl halide, with sonication, to give the ketone.[509]

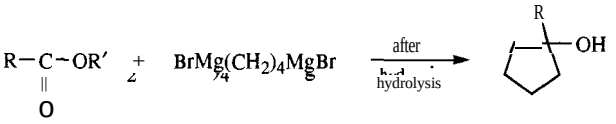
OS V, 775.

16-33 *The Addition of Grignard Reagents to Acid Derivatives*

DIALKYL,HYDROXY-DE-ALKOXY,OXO-TERSUBSTITUTION

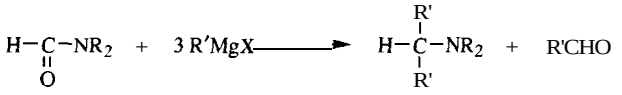


When carboxylic esters are treated with Grignard reagents, there is usually concomitant addition to the carbonyl **(16-27)** and substitution of R" for OR' (10-**114),** so that tertiary alcohols are formed in which two R groups are the same. In some cases, however, the ketone is the major product.[510] This generally occurs when there is steric hindrance to the carbonyl in the first-formed ketone. Formates give secondary alcohols and carbonates give tertiary alcohols in which all three R groups are the same: $(EtO)_2C{=}O + RMgX \rightarrow R_3COMgX$. Acyl halides and anhydrides behave similarly, though these substrates are employed less often.[511] There are many side reactions possible, especially when the acid derivative or the Grignard reagent is branched: enolizations, reductions (not for esters, but for halides), condensations, and cleavages, but the most important is simple substitution **(10-114),** which in some cases can be made to predominate. When 1,4-dimagnesium compounds are used, carboxylic esters are converted to cyclopentanols.[512] 1,5-Dimagnesium compounds give cyclohexanols, but in lower yields.[512]



Trimethylaluminum, which exhaustively methylates ketones **(16-27),** also exhaustively methylates carboxylic acids to give *tert*-butyl compounds (see also 10-99):[513]

Disubstituted formamides can give addition of 2 mol of Grignard reagent. The products of this reaction (called *Bouveault reaction)* are an aldehyde and a tertiary amine.[514] The use of an amide other than a formamide can give a ketone instead



of an aldehyde, but yields are generally low. The addition of two equivalents of phenyllithium to a carbamate gave good yields of the ketone, however.[515] Cerium reagents such as $MeCeCl_2$ also add two R groups to an amide.[516] More commonly, an organolithium reagent is treated with $CeCl_3$ to generate the organocerium reagent *in situ*.[517] It has proven possible to add two different R groups by sequential addition of two Grignard reagents.[518] Diketones have also been produced by using the bis-imidazole derivative of oxalic acid.[519] Alternatively, if R' contains an α hydrogen, the product may be an enamine, and enamines have been synthesized in goods yields by this method.[520]

OS **I,** 226; **II,** 179, 602; **III,** 237, 831, 839; **IV,** 601; **VI,** 240, 278; **VIII,** 474, 505.

16-34 *The Addition of Organometallic Compounds to CO_2 and CS_2*

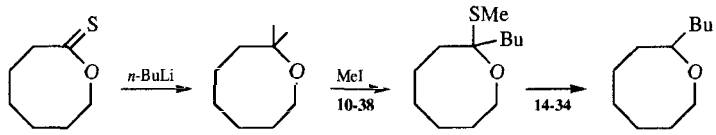
C-ALKYL-*O*-HALOMAGNESIO-ADDITION

$$O{=}C{=}O + RMgX \longrightarrow R{-}C{=}O \quad (OMgX)$$

Grignard reagents add to one C=O bond of CO_2 exactly as they do to an aldehyde or a ketone.[521] Here, of course, the product is the salt of a carboxylic acid. The reaction is usually performed by adding the Grignard reagent to dry ice. Many carboxylic acids have been prepared in this manner, and, along with the sequence **10-111-16-4** and Reaction **18-8,** this constitutes an important way of increasing a carbon chain by one unit. Since labeled CO_2 is commercially available, this is a good method for the preparation of carboxylic acids labeled in the carboxyl group. Other organometallic compounds have also been used (RLi,[522] RNa, RCaX, RBa,[523] etc.), but much less often. The formation of the salt of a carboxylic acid after the addition of CO_2 to a reaction mixture is regarded as a positive test for the presence of a carbanion or of a reactive organometallic intermediate in that reaction mixture (see also **16-43).**

When chiral additives such as (—)-sparteine has added to the initial reaction with the organolithium reagent, quenching with CO_2 produces carboxylic acids with good asymmetric induction.

In a closely related reaction, Grignard reagents add to CS_2 to give salts of dithiocarboxylic acids.[525] These salts can be trapped with amines to form thioamides.[526] Two other reactions are worthy of note. (1) Lithium dialkylcopper reagents react with dithiocarboxylic esters to give tertiary thiols (analogous to **16-33**).[527] (2) Thiono lactones can be converted to cyclic ethers,[528] for example:

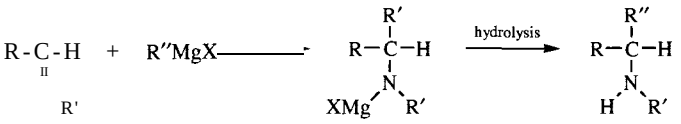


This is a valuable procedure because medium and large ring ethers are not easily made, while the corresponding thiono lactones can be prepared from the readily available lactones (see, e.g., **10-23)** by Reaction **16-10.**

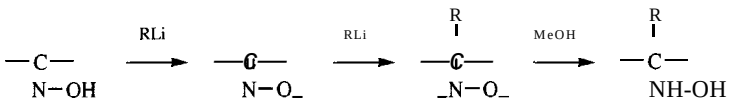
OS **I,** 361, 524; **II,** 425; **III,** 413, 553, 555; **V,** 890, 1043; VI, 845; IX, 317.

16-35 *The Addition of Organometallic Compounds to C=N Compounds*

N-HYDRO-*C*-ALKYL-ADDITION



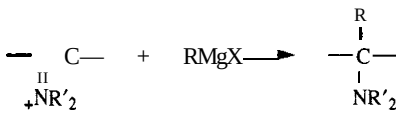
Aldimines can be converted to secondary amines by treatment with Grignard reagents.[529] Ketimines generally give reduction instead of addition. However, organolithium compounds give the normal addition product with both aldimines and ketimines.[530] When chiral additives are used in conjunction with the organolithium reagent, chiral amines are produced[531] with good asymmetric induction.[532,533] Chiral auxiliaries have been used in addition reactions to imines,[534] and to oxime derivatives.[535] Other organometallic compounds,[536] including allylic stannanes,[537] allylic samarium compounds,[538] and allylic indium compounds[539] add to aldimines in the same manner. Many other C=N systems (phenylhydrazones, oxime ethers, etc.) give normal addition when treated with Grignard reagents; others give reductions; others give miscellaneous reactions. Organocerium reagents add to hydrazones.[540] Oximes can be converted to hydroxylamines by treatment with 2 mol of an alkyllithium reagent, followed by methanol.[541]



The conjugate bases of nitro compounds (formed by treatment of the nitro compound with BuLi) react with Grignard reagents in the presence of C1CH=NMe_2^+ Cl^- to give oximes: RCH=N(O)OLi + R'MgX → RR′C=NOH.[542]

For the addition of an organometallic compound to an imine to give a primary amine, R' in RCH=NR' would have to be H, and such compounds are seldom stable. However, the conversion has been done, for R = aryl, by the use of the masked reagents $(ArCH{=}N)_2SO_2$ [prepared from an aldehyde RCHO and sulfamide $(NH_2)_2SO_2$]. Addition of R"MgX or R"Li to these compounds gives $ArCHR''NH_2$ after hydrolysis.[543]

Iminium salts[346] give tertiary amines directly, with just R adding:

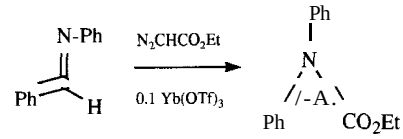


Chloroiminium salts $ClCH{=}NR_2'Cl^-$ (generated *in situ* from an amide $HCONR_2'$ and phosgene $COCl_2$) react with 2 mol of a Grignard reagent RMgX, one adding to the C=N and the other replacing the Cl, to give tertiary amines R_2CHNR_2'.[544]

OS IV, 605; VI, 64. Also see OS HI, 329.

16-36 *Addition of Carbenes and Diazoalkanes to C=N Compounds*

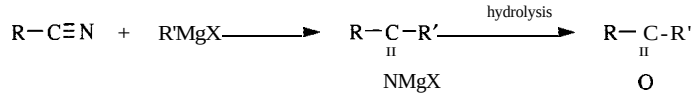
In the presence of metal catalysts such as $Yb(OTf)_3$, diazoalkanes add to imines to generate aziridines. An example is[545]



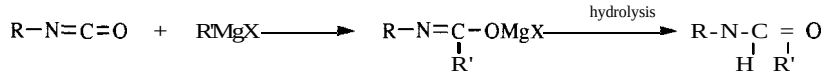
The reaction is somewhat selective for the cis diastereomer. The use of chiral additives in this reaction leads to aziridines enantioselectively.[546]

16-37 *The Addition of Grignard Reagents to Nitrites and Isocyanates*

ALKYL,OXO-DE-NITRILO-TERSUBSTITUTION (OVERALL TRANSFORMATION)



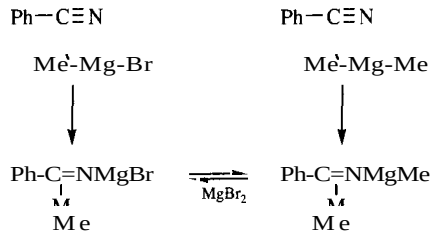
N-HYDRO-*C*-ALKYL-ADDITION



Ketones can be prepared by addition of Grignard reagents to nitriles and subsequent hydrolysis. Many ketones have been made in this manner, though when both R groups are alkyl, yields are not high.[547] Yields can be improved by the use of Cu(I) salts[548] or by using benzene containing one equivalent of ether as the solvent, rather than ether alone.[549] The ketimine salt does not in general react with Grignard reagents: Hence, tertiary alcohols or tertiary alkyl amines are not often side products.[550] By careful hydrolysis of the salt it is sometimes possible to isolate ketimines $R—\underset{\underset{NH}{\|}}{C}—R'$,[551] especially when R and R' = aryl. The addition of Grignard reagents to the C≡N group is normally slower than to the C=O group, and CN^- containing aldehydes add the Grignard reagent without disturbing the CN group.[552] Other metal compounds have been used, including Sm with allylic halides[553] and organocerium compounds such as $MeCeCl_2$.[554]

Addition of Grignard reagents[555] or organolithium reagents[556] to co-halo nitriles leads to 2-substituted cyclic imines.

The following mechanism has been proposed for the reaction of the methyl Grignard reagent with benzonitrile:[557]



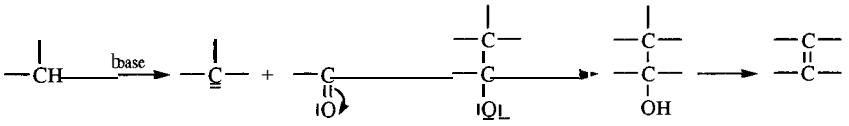
The addition of Grignard reagents to isocyanates gives, after hydrolysis, N-substituted amides.[558] This is a very good reaction and can be used to prepare derivatives of alkyl and aryl halides. The reaction has also been performed with alkyllithium compounds.[559] Isothiocyanates give N-substituted thioamides.

Other organometallic compounds add to isocyanates. Vinyltin reagents lead to conjugated amides.[560]

OS **III,** 26, 562; V, 520.

I. *Carbon Attack by Active Hydrogen Compounds*

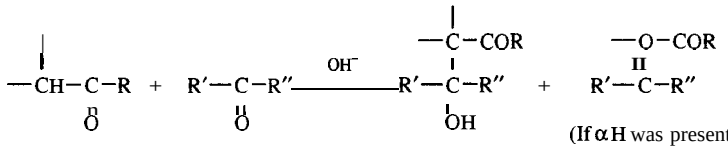
Reactions **16-38-16-49** are base-catalyzed condensations (though some of them are also catalyzed to acids).[561] **In 16-38-16-47,** a base removes a C—H proton to give a carbanion, which then adds to a C=O. The oxygen acquires a proton, and the resulting alcohol may or may not be dehydrated, depending on whether an α hydrogen is present and on whether the new double bond would be in conjugation with double bonds already present:



The reactions differ in the nature of the active hydrogen component and the carbonyl component. Table 16.1 illustrates the differences. Reaction **16-49** is an analogous reaction involving addition to C≡N.

16-38 *The Aldol Reaction*[562]

O-HYDRO-*C*-(α-ACYLALKYL)-ADDITION;
α-ACYLALKYLIDINE-DE-OXO-BISUBSTITUTION



In the *aldol reaction*[563] the a carbon of one aldehyde or ketone molecule adds to the carbonyl carbon of another.[564] Although acid catalyzed aldol reactions are known,[565] the most common form of the reaction uses a base. The base most often used is OH^-, though stronger bases such as alkoxides (RO~) are sometimes employed. Hydroxide ion is not a strong enough base to convert substantially all of an aldehyde or ketone molecule to the corresponding enolate ion, that is, the equilibrium lies

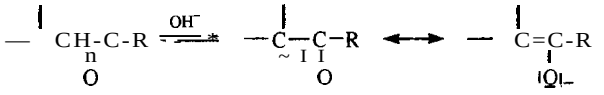
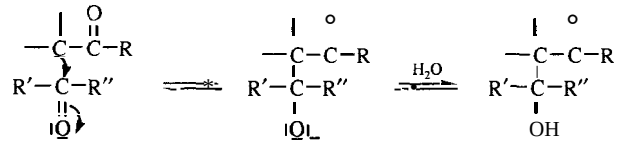


TABLE 16.1 Base Catalyzed Condensations Showing the Active-Hydrogen Components and the Carbonyl Compounds

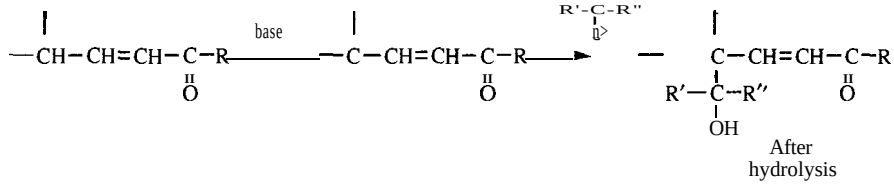
Reaction	Active-Hydrogen Component	Carbonyl Component	Subsequent Reaction
16-38 Aldol reaction	Aldehyde $-\overset{\vert}{C}H-CHO$ Ketone $-\overset{\vert}{C}H-COR$	Aldehyde, ketone	Dehydration may follow
16-40	Ester $-\overset{\vert}{C}H-CHOOR$	Aldehyde, ketone (usually without a-hydrogens)	Dehydration may follow
16-41 Knoevenagel reaction	$Z-CH_2-Z'$, Z-CHR-Z' and similar molecules	Aldehyde, ketone (usually without a-hydrogens)	Dehydration usually follows
16-42 Peterson reaction	$Me_3Si-\underline{\overset{\vert}{C}}H-$	Aldehyde, ketone may follow	Dehydration
16-43	$-\overset{\vert}{C}H-Z$ Z = COR, COOR, NO_2	CO_2, CS_2	
16-44 Perkin reaction	Anhydride -CH-COOCOR	Aromatic aldehyde usually follows	Dehydration
16-45 Darzen's reaction	α-Halo ester XCH-COOR	Aldehyde, ketone (S_N reaction) follows	Epoxidation
16-46 Tollens' reaction	Aldehyde $-\overset{\vert}{C}H-CHO$ Ketone -CH-COR	Formaldehyde reaction follows	Crossed Cannizzaro
16-47 Wittig reaction	Phosphorous ylid $Ph_3\overset{+}{P}-\underline{\overset{\vert}{C}}-$	Aldehyde, ketone always follows	"Dehydration"
16-49 Thorpe reaction	Nitrile $-\overset{\vert}{C}H-CN$	Nitrile	

well to the left, for both aldehydes and ketones. Nevertheless, enough enolate ion is present for the reaction to proceed:



The product is a (3-hydroxy aldehyde (called an *aldol*) or ketone, which in some cases is dehydrated during the course of the reaction. Even if the dehydration is not spontaneous, it can usually be done easily, since the new double bond is in conjugation with the C=O bond; so that this is a method of preparing α,β-unsaturated aldehydes and ketones as well as (3-hydroxy aldehydes and ketones. The entire reaction is an equilibrium (including the dehydration step), and α, (3-unsaturated and (3-hydroxy aldehydes and ketones can be cleaved by treatment with OH^- (the *retrograde aldol reaction).* There is evidence that an SET mechanism can intervene when the substrate is an aromatic ketone.[566]

Under the principle of vinylogy, the active hydrogen can be one in the *y* position of an α,β-unsaturated carbonyl compound:



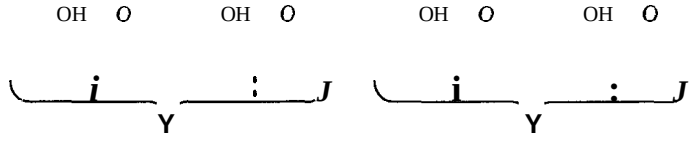
The scope of the aldol reaction may be discussed under five headings:

1. *Reaction between Two Molecules of the Same Aldehyde.* The equilibrium lies far to the right,[567] and the reaction is quite feasible. Many aldehydes have been converted to aldols and/or their dehydration products in this manner. The most effective catalysts are basic ion-exchange resins. Of course, the aldehyde must possess an α hydrogen.
2. *Reaction between Two Molecules of the Same Ketone.* In this case, the equilibrium lies well to the left[568] and the reaction is feasible only if the equilibrium can be shifted. This can often be done by allowing the reaction to proceed in a Soxhlet extractor (e.g., see OS I, 199). Two molecules of the same ketone can also be condensed without a Soxhlet extractor,[569] by treatment with basic Al_2O_3.[570] Unsymmetrical ketones condense on the side that has more hydrogens. (An exception is butanone, which reacts at the CH_2 group with acid catalysts, though with basic catalysts, it too reacts at the CH_3 group.)
3. *Reaction between Two Different Aldehydes.* In the most general case, this will produce a mixture of four products (eight, if the alkenes are counted). However, if one aldehyde does not have an a hydrogen, only two aldols are

possible, and in many cases the crossed product is the main one. The crossed aldol reaction is often called the *Claisen–Schmidtreaction.*[571]

4. *Reaction between Two Different Ketones.* This is seldom attempted (except with the use of preformed enolates, see below), but similar considerations apply.
5. *Reaction between an Aldehyde and a Ketone.* This is usually feasible, especially when the aldehyde has no a hydrogen, since there is no competition from ketone condensing with itself.[572] This is also called the *Claisen-Schmidt reaction.* Even when the aldehyde has an α hydrogen, it is the α carbon of the ketone that adds to the carbonyl of the aldehyde, not the other way around. The reaction can be made regioselective by preparing an enol derivative of the ketone separately[573] and then adding this to the aldehyde (or ketone), which assures that the coupling takes place on the desired side of an unsymmetrical ketone. Other types of preformed derivatives that react with aldehydes and ketones are enamines (with a Lewis acid catalyst),[574] and enol borinates ($R'CH{=}CR''{-}OBR_2$)[575], which can be synthesized by 15-25, or directly from an aldehyde or ketone.[576] Preformed metallic enolates are also used. For example lithium enolates (prepared by 12-21)[577] react with the substrate in the presence of $ZnCl_2$;[578] in this case, the aldol product is stabilized by chelation of its two oxygen atoms with the zinc ion.[579] Among other metallic enolates used for aldol reactions are those of Ti,[580] Zr,[581] Sn,[582] La,[583] Sm,[584] and Pd,[585] all of which give products regioselectively. α-Alkoxy ketones react with lithium enolates particularly rapidly.[586]

The reactions with preformed enol derivatives provide a way to control the stereoselectivity of the aldol reaction.[587] As with the Michael reaction (15-16), the aldol reaction creates two new chiral centers, and, in the most general case, there are four stereoisomers of the aldol product, which can be represented as



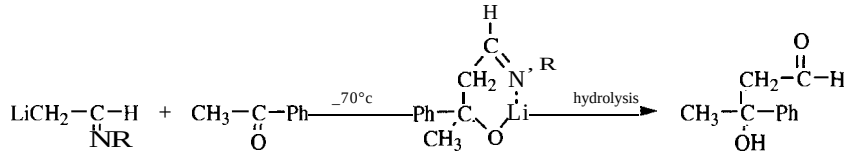
syn (or erythro) (±) Pair anti (or threo) (±) Pair

Among the preformed enol derivatives used in this way have been enolates of magnesium, lithium,[588] titanium,[589] zirconium,[522] and tin,[590] silyl enol ethers,[591] enol borinates,[592] and enol borates, $R'CH{=}CR''{-}OB(OR)_2$.[593] The nucleophilicity of silyl enol ethers has been examined.[594] In general, metallic Z enolates give the syn (or erythro) pair, and this reaction is highly useful for the diastereoselective synthesis of these products.[595] The *(E)* isomers generally react nonstereoselectively. However, anti (or threo) stereoselectivity has been achieved in a number of cases, with titanium enolates,[596] with magnesium enolates,[597] with certain enol borinates,[598] and with lithium enolates at -78°C.[599]

These reactions can also be made enantioselective[600] (in which case only one of the four isomers predominates)[601] by using[602] chiral enol derivatives,[603] chiral

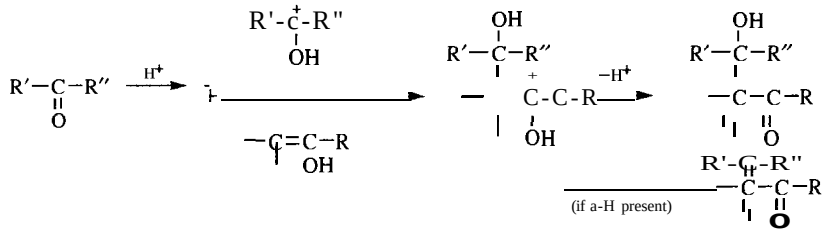
aldehydes or ketones,[604] or both.[605] Silyl enol ethers react with aldehydes in the presence of chiral boranes[606] or other additives[607] to give aldols with good asymmetric induction. Since both new chiral centers are formed enantioselectively, this kind of process is called *double asymmetric synthesis*.[608] A single one of the four stereoisomers has also been produced where both the enolate derivative and substrate were achiral, by carrying out the reaction in the presence of an optically active boron compound[609] or a diamine coordinated with a tin compound.[610]

It is possible to make the a carbon of the aldehyde add to the carbonyl carbon of the ketone, by using an imine instead of an aldehyde, and $LiN(i\text{-}Pr)_2$ as the base:[611]



This is known as the *directed aldol reaction.* Similar reactions have been performed with α-lithiated dimethylhydrazones of aldehydes or ketones[612] and with α-lithiated aldoximes.[613]

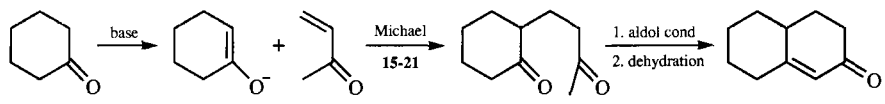
The aldol reaction can also be performed with acid catalysts, as mentioned above, in which case dehydration usually follows. Here there is initial protonation of the carbonyl group, which attacks the a carbon of the *enol* form of the other molecule:[614]



With respect to the enol, this mechanism is similar to that of halogenation (12-4).

A side reaction that is sometimes troublesome is further condensation, since the product of an aldol reaction is still an aldehyde or ketone.

Aldol reactions are often used to close five- and six-membered rings. Because of the favorable entropy (p. 280), such ring closures generally take place with ease,[615] even where a ketone condenses with a ketone. An important extension of this idea is the *Robinson annulation reaction*,[616] which has often been used in the synthesis of steroids and terpenes. In this reaction, a cyclic ketone is converted to another cyclic ketone, with one additional six-membered ring containing a double bond. The substrate is treated with methyl vinyl ketone (or a simple derivative of methyl vinyl ketone) and a base.[617] The enolate ion of the substrate adds to the methyl vinyl ketone in a Michael reaction (15-21) to give a diketone that undergoes or is made to undergo an internal aldol reaction and subsequent dehydration to give the product.[618]



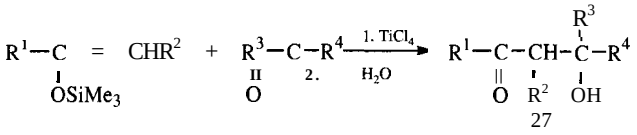
Because methyl vinyl ketone has a tendency to polymerize, precursors are often used instead, that is, compounds that will give methyl vinyl ketone when treated with a base. One common example, $MeCOCH_2CH_2NEt_2Me^+ I^-$ (see **17-8),** is easily prepared by quaternization of $MeCOCH_2CH_2NEt_2$, which itself is prepared by a Mannich reaction **(16-15)** involving acetone, formaldehyde, and diethylamine. α-Silylated vinyl ketones, $RCOC(SiMe_3)=CH_2$, have also been used successfully in annulation reactions.[619] The $SiMe_3$ group is easily removed. 1,5-Diketones prepared in other ways are also frequently cyclized by internal aldol reactions. When the ring closure of a 1,5-diketone is catalyzed by the amino acid (*S*)-proline, the product is optically active with high enantiomeric excess.[620]

OS **I,** 77, 78, 81, 199, 283, 341; **II,** 167, 214; **III,** 317, 353, 367, 747, 806, 829; **V,** 486, 869; **VI,** 496, 666, 692, 781, 901; **VII,** 185, 190, 332, 363, 368, 473; **VIII,** 87, 208, 241, 323, 339, 620; **IX,** 432, 610.

16-39 *Mukaiyama Aldol and Related Reactions*[621]

O-HYDRO-*C*-(α-ACYLALKYL)-ADDITION

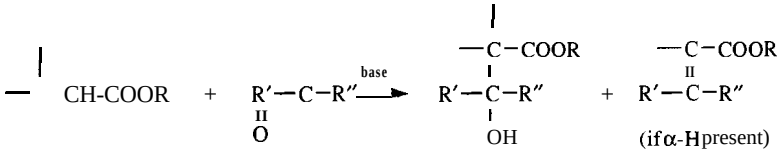
A reaction related to the aldol involves treatment of a ketone with a silyl ketene acetal $R_2C=C(OSiMe_3)OR'$[622] in the presence of $TiCl_4$ to give 27. The silyl ketene acetal can be considered a preformed enolate that give an aldol product, and when



combined with an aldehyde or ketone, with $TiCl_4$[623] (the *Mukaiyama reagent),* in aqueous solution, or with no catalyst at all.[624] The mechanism of this reaction has been explored.[625] Other catalysts have been used for this reaction as well, including $InCl_3$,[626] SmI_2,[627] $Sc(OTf)_3$,[628] HgI_2,[629] $Yb(OTf)_3$,[630] $Cu(OTf)_2$,[631] $[Cp_2Zr(Ot\text{-}Bu)$ THF] $^+[BPh4]^-$,[632] $LiClO_4$,[633] an iron catalyst,[634] and $Bi(OTf)_3$.[635] Asymmetric Mukaiyama aldol reactions have been reported, [636] usually using chiral additives[637] although chiral auxiliaries have also been used.[638] This reaction can also be run with the aldehyde or ketone in the form of its acetal $R^3R^4C(OR')_2$, in which case the product is the ether $R^1COCHR_2CR^3R^4OR'$ instead of 27.[639] Enol acetates and enol ethers also give this product when treated with acetals and $TiCl_4$ or a similar catalyst.[640] When the catalyst is dibutyltin bis(triflate), $Bu_2Sn(OTf)_2$, aldehydes react, but not their acetals, while acetals of ketones react, but not the ketones themselves.[641]

16-40 *Aldol-Type Reactions between Carboxylic Esters or Amides and Aldehydes or Ketones*

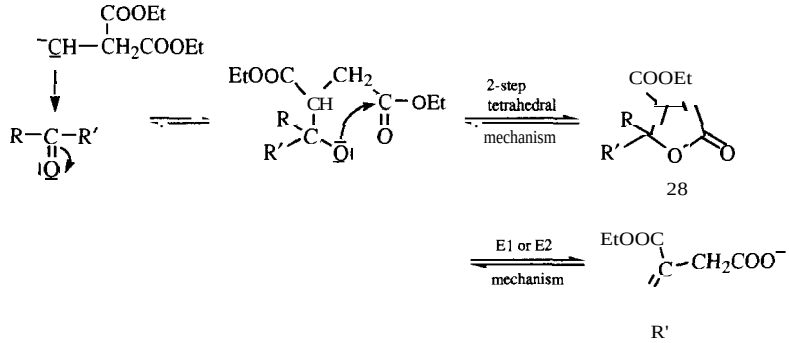
O-HYDRO-*C*-(α-ALKOXYCARBONYLALKYL)-ADDITION;
α-ALKOXYCARBONYLALKYLIDENE-DE-OXO-BISUBSTITUTION



In the presence of a strong base, the a carbon of a carboxylic ester can condense with the carbonyl carbon of an aldehyde or ketone to give a P-hydroxy ester,[642] which may or may not be dehydrated to the α,β-unsaturated ester. This reaction is sometimes called the *Claisen reaction*,[643] an unfortunate usage since that name is more firmly connected to **10-118.** In a modern example of how the reaction is used, addition of tert-butyl acetate to LDA in hexane at −78°C gives the lithium salt of *tert*-butyl acetate,[644] **(12-21)** an enolate anion. Subsequent reaction a ketone provides a simple rapid alternative to the Reformatsky reaction **(16-31)** as a means of preparing P-hydroxy tert-butyl esters. It is also possible for the α carbon of an aldehyde or ketone to add to the carbonyl carbon of a carboxylic ester, but this is a different reaction **(10-119)** involving nucleophilic substitution and not addition to a C=O bond. It can, however, be a side reaction if the aldehyde or ketone has an a hydrogen.

Besides ordinary esters (containing an α hydrogen), the reaction can also be carried out with lactones and, as in **16-38,** with the *y* position of α,β-unsaturated esters (vinylogy). There are also cases, where the enolate anion of an amide was condensed with an aldehyde.[645]

For most esters, a much stronger base is needed than for aldol reactions; *(i*-$Pr)_2NLi$ (see above), Ph_3CNa and $LiNH_2$ are among those employed. However, one type of ester reacts more easily, and such strong bases are not needed: diethyl succinate and its derivatives condense with aldehydes and ketones in the presence of bases such as NaOEt, NaH, or $KOCMe_3$. This reaction is called the *Stobbe condensation*.[646] One of the ester groups (sometimes both) is hydrolyzed in the course of the reaction. The following mechanism accounts for (1) the fact the succinic esters react so much better than others; (2) one ester group is always cleaved; and (3) the alcohol is not the product but the alkene. In addition, intermediate lactones (28) have been isolated from the mixture:[647]



The Stobbe condensation has been extended to di-*tert*-butyl esters of glutaric acid.[648]

The condensation of an ester enolate and a ketone[649] can be used as part of a Robinson annulation-like sequence (see **16-38).**

OS **I,** 252; **III,** 132; **V,** 80, 564; **70,** 256; **75,** 215. Also see OS IV, 278, 478; V, 251.

16-41 *The Knoevenagel Reaction*

BIS(ETHOXYCARBONYL)METHYLENE-DE-OXO-BISUBSTITUTION, AND SO ON

$$R-\underset{\underset{O}{\|}}{C}-R' + Z-CH_2-Z' \xrightarrow{\text{base}} R-\underset{\underset{Z-C-Z'}{|}}{\overset{}{C}}-R'$$

The condensation of aldehydes or ketones, usually not containing an a hydrogen, with compounds of the form $Z-CH_2-Z'$ or $Z-CHR-Z'$ is called the *Knoevenagel reaction.*[650] Both Z and Z' may be CHO, COR, COOH, COOR, CN, NO_2,[651] SOR, SO_2R, SO_2OR, or similar groups. When Z=COOH, decarboxylation of the product often takes place *in situ.*[652] If a strong enough base is used, the reaction can be performed on compounds possessing only a single Z, (e.g., CH_3Z or RCH_2Z). Other active hydrogen compounds can also be employed, among them $CHCl_3$, 2-methylpyridines, terminal acetylenes, cyclopentadienes, and so on.; in fact any compound that contains a C—H bond the hydrogen of which can be removed by a base. The following examples illustrate the wide scope of the reaction:

$$PhCHO + CH_3COCH_2COOEt \xrightarrow[0°C]{Et_2NH} Ph-CH=\underset{\underset{COCH_3}{|}}{C}-COOEt$$

$$PhCHO + CH_3NO_2 \xrightarrow{n\text{-}C_5H_{11}NH_2} Ph-CH=CH-NO_2$$

Ref. 651

$$PhCH_2CH_2CHO + [PhSO\bar{C}HCO\bar{C}H_2]^{2-}\,Li^+,Na^+ \xrightarrow[\text{hydrolysis}]{\text{(after}} PhCH_2CH_2\underset{\underset{OH}{|}}{C}HCH_2COCH_2SOPh$$

Ref. 653

$$PrCHO + HOOCCH_2COOH \xrightarrow[\text{piperidine}]{\text{pyridine}} PrCH=CHCOOH$$

We see from these examples that many of the carbon nucleophiles we encountered in Chapter 10 are also nucleophiles toward aldehydes and ketones (cf. Reactions 10-104-10-108 and 10-110). As we saw in Chapter 10, the initial products in many of these cases can be converted by relatively simple procedures (hydrolysis, reduction, decarboxylation, etc.) to various other products. In the reaction with terminal acetylenes,[654] sodium acetylides are the most common reagents (when they are used, the reaction is often called the *Nef reaction),* but lithium,[655] magnesium, and other metallic acetylides have also been used. A particularly convenient reagent is lithium acetylide–ethylenediamine complex,[656] a stable, free-flowing powder that is commercially available. Alternatively, the substrate may be treated with the alkyne itself in the presence of a base, so that the acetylide is generated *in situ.* This procedure is called the *Favorskii reaction,* not to be confused with the Favorskii rearrangement (18-7).[657]

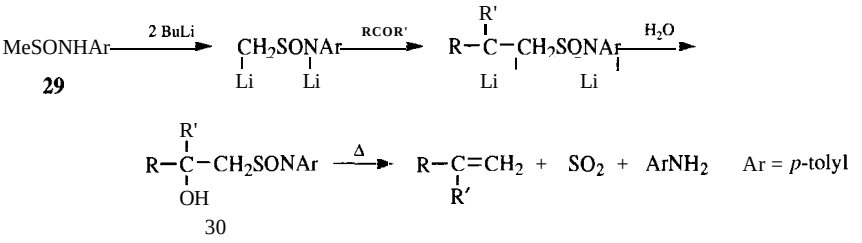
With most of these reagents the alcohol is not isolated (only the alkene) *if* the alcohol has a hydrogen in the proper position.[658] However, in some cases the alcohol is the major product. With suitable reactants, the Knoevenagel reaction, like the aldol (16-2), has been carried out diastereoselectively[659] and enantioselectively.[660]

When the reactant is of the form ZCH_2Z', aldehydes react much better than ketones and few successful reactions with ketones have been reported. However, it is possible to get good yields of alkene from the condensation of diethyl malonate, $CH_2(COOEt)_2$, with ketones, as well as with aldehydes, if the reaction is run with $TiCl_4$ and pyridine in THF.[661] In reactions with ZCH_2Z', the catalyst is most often a secondary amine (piperidine is the most common), though many other catalysts have been used. When the catalyst is pyridine (to which piperidine may or may not be added) the reaction is known as the *Doebner modification* of the Knoevenagel reaction. Alkoxides are also common catalysts.

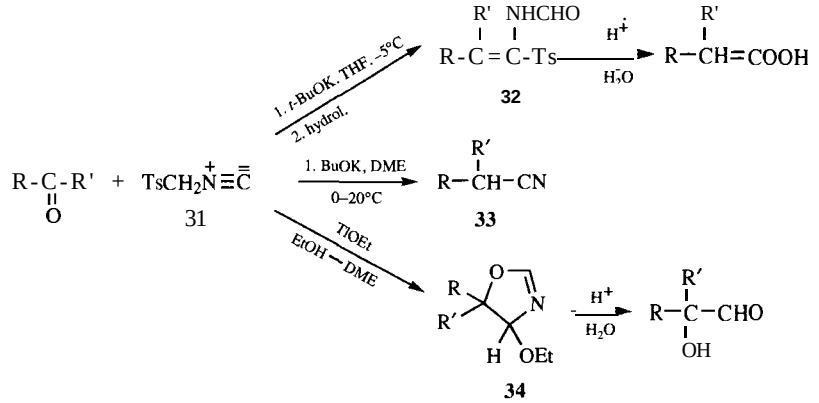
As with 16-38, these reactions have sometimes been performed with acid catalysts.[662] Ultrasound has been used to promote the reaction,[663] and it has also been done without solvent using microwave irradiation.[664] Another solid-state variation is done on moist LiBr.[665] Zeolites have been used to promote the reaction.[666] Transition metal compounds such as SmI_2 [667] or $BiCl_3$ [668] have been used to promote the Knoevenagel reaction.

A number of special applications of the Knoevenagel reaction follow:

1. The dilithio derivative of *N*-methanesulfinyl-*p*-toluidine[669] (29) adds to aldehydes and ketones to give, after hydrolysis, the hydroxysulfinamides (30), which, upon heating, undergo stereospecifically syn eliminations to give alkenes.[670] The reaction is thus a method for achieving the conversion $RR'CO \rightarrow RR'C{=}CH_2$ and represents an alternative to the Wittig reaction.[671]



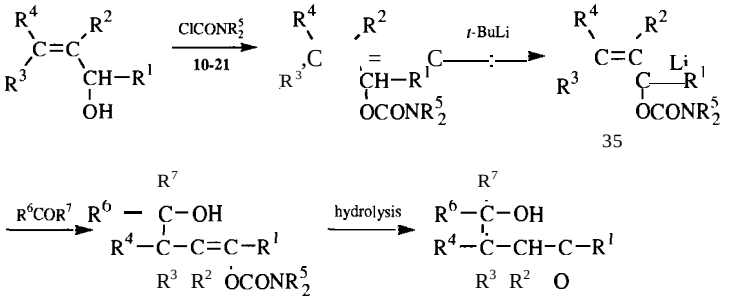
2. The reaction of ketones with tosylmethylisocyanide (31) gives different products,[672] depending on the reaction conditions.



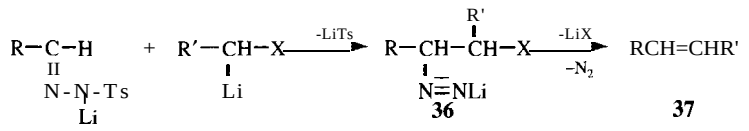
When the reaction is run with potassium tert-butoxide in THF at -5°C, one obtains (after hydrolysis) the normal Knoevenagel product (32), except that the isocyano group has been hydrated (**16-65**).[673] With the same base but with DME as solvent the product is the nitrile (**33**).[674] When the ketone is treated with 31 and thallium(I) ethoxide in a 4:1 mixture of absolute ethanol and DME at room temperature, the product is a 4-ethoxy-2-oxazoline (**34**).[675] Since 33 can be hydrolyzed[676] to a carboxylic acid[673] and 34 to an α-hydroxy aldehyde,[675] this versatile reaction provides a means for achieving the conversion of RCOR' to RCHR'COOH, RCHR'CN, or RCR'(OH)CHO. The conversions to RCHR'COOH and to RCHR'CN[677] have also been carried out with certain aldehydes (R' = H).

3. Aldehydes and ketones RCOR' react with α-methoxyvinyllithium CH_2=C(Li)OMe to give hydroxy enol ethers $RR'C(OH)C(OMe)=CH_2$, which are easily hydrolyzed to acyloins, RR'C(OH)COMe.[678] In this reaction, the CH_2=C(Li)OMe is a synthon for the unavailable $H_3C-\overline{C}=O$.[679] The reagent also reacts with esters RCOOR' to give $RC(OH)(COMe=CH_2)_2$. A synthon for the Ph–C=O ion is $PhC(CN)OSiMe_3$, which adds to aldehydes and ketones RCOR' to give, after hydrolysis, the a-hydroxy ketones, RR'C(OH)-COPh.[680]

4. Lithiated allylic carbamates (35) (prepared as shown) react with aldehydes or ketones (R^6COR^7), in a reaction accompanied by an allylic rearrangement, to give (after hydrolysis) γ-hydroxy aldehydes or ketones.[681] The reaction is called *the homoaldol reaction,* since the product is a homolog of the product of **16-38**. The reaction has been performed enantioselectively.[682]



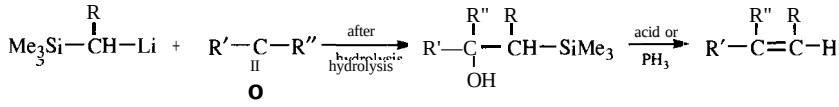
5. The lithium salt of an active hydrogen compound adds to the lithium salt of the tosylhydrazone of an aldehyde to give product 36. If X = CN, SPh, or SO_2R, 36 spontaneously loses N_2 and LiX to give the alkene 37. The entire process is done in one reaction vessel: The active hydrogen compound is mixed with the tosylhydrazone and the mixture is treated with $(i\text{-Pr})_2NLi$ to form both salts at once.[683] This process is another alternative to the Wittig reaction for forming double bonds.



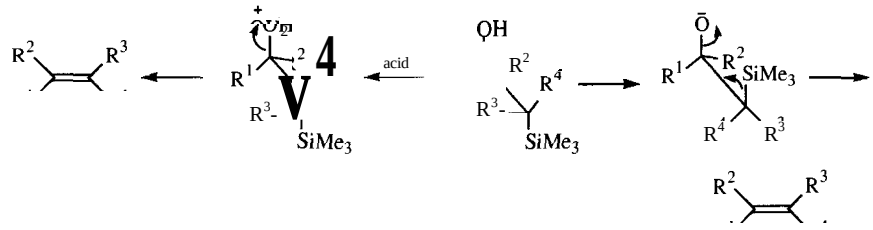
OS I, 181, 290, 413; **II,** 202; **III,** 39, 165, 317, 320, 377, 385, 399, 416, 425, 456, 479, 513, 586, 591, 597, 715, 783; IV, 93, 210, 221, 234, 293, 327, 387, 392, 408, 441, 463, 471, 549, 573, 730, 731, 777; V, 130, 381, 572, 585, 627, 833, 1088, 1128; **VI,** 41, 95, 442, 598, 683; **VII,** 50, 108, 142, 276, 381, 386, 456; **VIII,** 258, 265, 309, 353, 391, 420. Also see OS **III,** 395; V, 450.

16-42 *The Peterson Alkenylation Reaction*

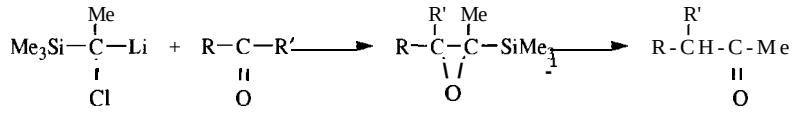
ALKYLIDENE-DE-OXO-BISUBSTITUTION



In the *Peterson Alkenylation reaction*,[684] the lithio (or sometimes magnesio) derivative of a trialkylsilane adds to an aldehyde or ketone to give a β-hydroxysilane, which spontaneously eliminates water, or can be made to do so by treatment with acid or base, to produce an alkene. This reaction is still another alternative to the Wittig reaction, and is sometimes called the *silyl–Wittig reaction*.[685] The R group can also be a COOR group, in which case the product is an α,β-unsaturated ester,[686] or an SO_2Ph group, in which case the product is a vinylic sulfone.[687] The stereochemistry of the product can often be controlled by whether an acid or a base is used to achieve elimination. The role of Si—O interactions has also been examined.[688] Use of a base generally gives syn elimination (E; mechanism, see p. 1323), while an acid usually results in anti elimination (E^2 mechanism, see p. 1300).[689]



When aldehydes or ketones are treated with reagents of the form 38, the product is an epoxy silane **(16-61),** which can be hydrolyzed to a methyl ketone.[690] For aldehydes, this is a method for converting RCHO to a methyl ketone (RCH_2COMe).



38

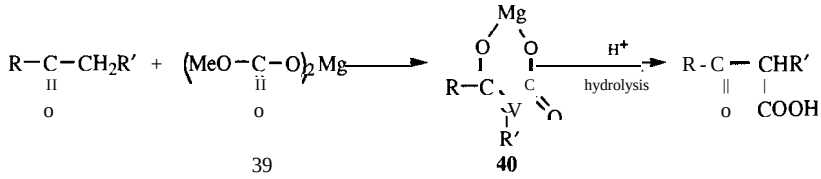
The reagents $Me_3SiCHRM$ (M = Li or Mg) are often prepared from Me_3SiCHR-Cl [691] (by **12-36** or **12-37),** but they have also been made by **12-20** and by other procedures.[692]

A new version of the reaction has been developed, reacting $Me_3SiCH_2CO_2Et$ with an aldehyde and a catalytic amount of CsF in DMSO.[693]

There are no references in *Organic Syntheses*, but see OS VIII, 602, for a related reaction.

16-43 *The Addition of Active Hydrogen Compounds to CO_2 and CS_2*

α-ACYLALKYL-DE-METHOXY-SUBSTITUTION (OVERALL REACTION)



39 **40**

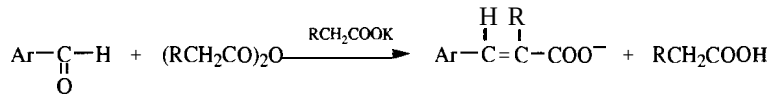
Ketones of the form $RCOCH_3$ and $RCOCH_2R'$ can be carboxylated indirectly by treatment with magnesium methyl carbonate (**39**).[694] Because formation of the chelate (40) provides the driving force of the reaction, carboxylation cannot be achieved at a disubstituted a position. The reaction has also been performed on CH_3NO_2 and compounds of the form RCH_2NO_2 [695] and on certain lactones.[696] Direct carboxylation has been reported in a number of instances. Ketones have been carboxylated in the α position to give P-keto acids.[697] The base here was lithium 4-methyl-2,16-di-*tert*-butylphenoxide.

Ketones ($RCOCH_2R'$), as well as other active hydrogen compounds, undergo base-catalyzed addition to CS_2 [698] to give a dianion intermediate $RCOCR'CSS^{2-}$, which can be dialkylated with a halide R"X to produce α-dithiomethylene ketones $RCOCR'{=}C(SR'')_2$.[699] Compounds of the form ZCH_2Z' also react with bases and CS_2 to give analogous dianions.[700]

OS VII, 476. See also OS VIII, 578.

16-44 *The Perkin Reaction*

α-CARBOXYALKYLIDNE-DE-OXO-BISUBSTITUTION

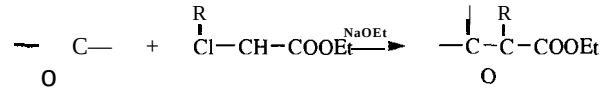


The condensation of aromatic aldehydes with anhydrides is called the *Perkin reaction*.[701] When the anhydride has two α hydrogens (as shown), dehydration always occurs; the P-hydroxy acid salt is never isolated. In some cases, anhydrides of the form $(R_2CHCO)_2O$ have been used, and then the hydroxy compound is the product since dehydration cannot take place. The base in the Perkin reaction is nearly always the salt of the acid corresponding to the anhydride. Although the Na and K salts have been most frequently used, higher yields and shorter reaction times have been reported for the Cs salt.[702] Besides aromatic aldehydes, their vinylogs ArCH=CHCHO also give the reaction. Otherwise, the reaction is not suitable for aliphatic aldehydes.[703]

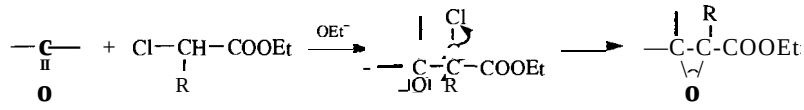
OS I, 398; II, 61, 229; III, 426.

16-45 *Darzens Glycidic Ester Condensation*

(2 + 1)*OC,CC-CYCLO*-α-ALKOXYCARBONYLMETHYLENE- ADDITION



Aldehydes and ketones condense with α-halo esters in the presence of bases to give α,β-epoxy esters, called *glycidic esters.* This is called *the Darzens condensation.*[704] The reaction consists of an initial Knoevenagel-type reaction (16-41), followed by an internal S_N2 reaction (10-13):[705]



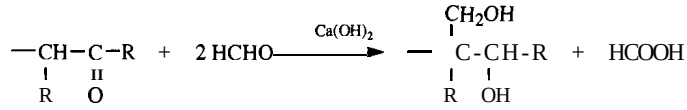
Although the intermediate halo alkoxide is generally not isolated,[706] it has been done, not only with α-fluoro esters (since fluorine is such a poor leaving group in nucleophilic substitutions) but also with α-chloro esters.[707] This is only one of several types of evidence that rule out a carbene intermediate.[708] Sodium ethoxide is often used as the base, though other bases, including sodium amide, are sometimes used. Aromatic aldehydes and ketones give good yields, but aliphatic aldehydes react poorly. However, the reaction can be made to give good yields (≈80%) with simple aliphatic aldehydes as well as with aromatic aldehydes and ketones by treatment of the a-halo ester with the base lithium bis(trimcthylsilyl)amide $LiN(SiMe_3)_2$ in THF at -78°C (to form the conjugate base of the ester) and addition of the aldehyde or ketone to this solution.[709] If a preformed dianion of an a-halo carboxylic acid $Cl-\bar{\bar{C}}R-COO^-$ is used instead, a,(3-epoxy acids are produced directly.[710] The Darzens reaction has also been carried out on a-halo ketones, a-halo nitriles,[711] a-halo sulfoxides[712] and sulfones,[713] a-halo N,N-disubstituted amides,[714] a-halo ketimines,[715] and even on allylic[716] and benzylic halides. Phase-transfer catalysis has been used.[717] The Darzens reaction has been performed enantioselectively, by coupling optically active a-bromo-P-hydroxy esters with aldehydes.[718,719]

Glycidic esters can easily be converted to aldehydes (12-38). The reaction has been extended to the formation of analogous aziridines by treatment of an imine with an a-halo ester or an a-halo N,N-disubstituted amide and *t*-BuOK in the solvent 1,2,-dimethoxyethane.[720] However, yields were not high. Acid-catalyzed Darzens reactions have also been reported.[721] See also 16-61.

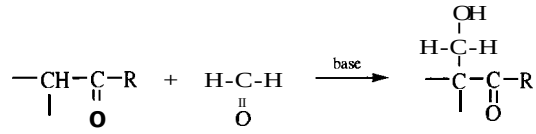
OS III, 727; IV, 459, 649.

16-46 *Tollens' Reaction*

O-HYDRO-*C*(β-HYDROXYALKYL)-ADDITION



In *Tollens' reaction,* an aldehyde or ketone containing an α hydrogen is treated with formaldehyde in the presence of $Ca(OH)_2$ or a similar base. The first step is a mixed aldol reaction **(16-38).**



The reaction can be stopped at this point, but more often a second mole of formaldehyde is permitted to reduce the newly formed aldol to a 1,3-diol, in a crossed Cannizzaro reaction **(19-60).** If the aldehyde or ketone has several α-hydrogens, they can all be replaced. An important use of the reaction is to prepare pentaerythritol from acetaldehyde:

$$CH_3CHO + 4\,HCHO \longrightarrow C(CH_2OH)_4 + HCOOH$$

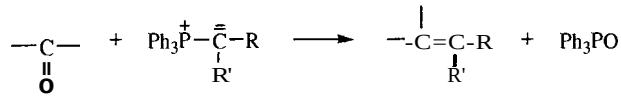
When aliphatic nitro compounds are used instead of aldehydes or ketones, no reduction occurs, and the reaction is essentially a Knoevenagel reaction, though it is usually also called a Tollens' reaction:

$$CH_3NO_2 + HCHO \xrightarrow{OH^-} HOCH_2CH_2NO_2$$

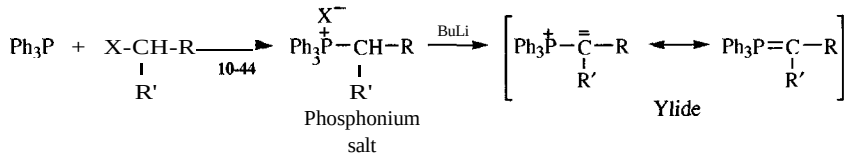
OS I, 425; IV, 907; V, 833.

16-47 *The Wittig Reaction*

ALKYLIDENE-DE-OXO-BISUBSTITUTION



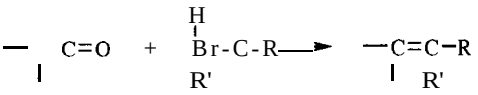
In the *Wittig reaction* an aldehyde or ketone is treated with a *phosphorus ylid* (also called a *phosphorane)* to give an alkene.[722] Phosphorus ylids are usually prepared by treatment of a phosphonium salt with a base,[723] and phosphonium salts are usually prepared from the phosphine and an alkyl halide **(10-44):**



The overall sequence of three steps may be called the Wittig reaction, or only the final step. Phosphonium salts are also prepared by addition of phosphines to Michael alkenes (like **15-8)** and in other ways. The phosphonium salts are most often converted to the ylids by treatment with a strong base such as butyllithium, sodium amide,[724] sodium hydride, or a sodium alkoxide, though weaker bases can be used if

the salt is acidic enough. For $(Ph_3P^+)_2CH_2$, sodium carbonate is a strong enough base.[725] When the base used does not contain lithium, the ylid is said to be prepared under "salt-free" conditions.[726]

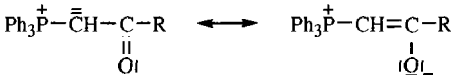
In the overall Wittig reaction, an alkene is formed from the aldehyde or ketone and an alkyl halide in which the halogen-bearing carbon contains at least one hydrogen:



This result is similar to that obtained in the Reformatsky reaction (16-31), but this is more general since no ester or other group is required to be a to the halogen. Another important advantage of the Wittig reaction is that the *position* of the new double bond is always certain, in contrast to the result in the Reformatsky reaction and in most of the base-catalyzed condensations (16-38-16-46). Examples of this are given below.

The reaction is very general. The aldehyde or ketone may be aliphatic, alicyclic, or aromatic (including diaryl ketones); it may contain double or triple bonds; it may contain various functional groups, such as OH, OR, NR_2, aromatic nitro or halo, acetal, amide,[727] or even ester groups.[728] Ylids have been shown to react with lactone, however, to form ω-alkenyl alcohols.[729] β-Lactams have also been converted to alkenyl-azetidine derivatives using phosphorus ylids.[730] Double or triple bonds *conjugated* with the carbonyl also do not interfere, the attack being at the C=O carbon. There is one variation where a benzylic alcohol is treated with a mixture of the ylid and $BaMnO_4$, producing the alkene in good yield.[731] In another variation, an allylic alcohol was treated with MnO_2 and the ylid.[732]

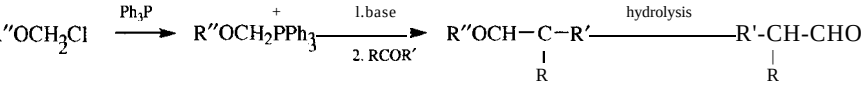
The phosphorus ylid may also contain double or triple bonds and certain functional groups. Simple ylids (R, R' = hydrogen or alkyl) are highly reactive, reacting with oxygen, water, hydrohalic acids, and alcohols, as well as carbonyl compounds and carboxylic esters, so the reaction must be run under conditions where these materials are absent. When an electron-withdrawing group (e.g., COR, CN, COOR, CHO) is present in the a position, the ylids are much more stable, because the charge on the carbon is spread by resonance:



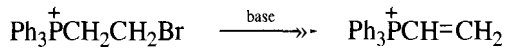
These ylids react readily with aldehydes, but slowly or not at all with ketones.[733] In extreme cases (e.g., 41), the ylid does not react with ketones *or* aldehydes. Besides

41

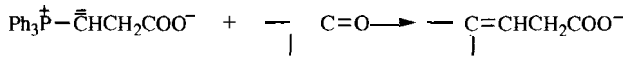
these groups, the ylid may contain one or two α halogens[734] or an α OR or OAr group. In the latter case the product is an enol ether, which can be hydrolyzed



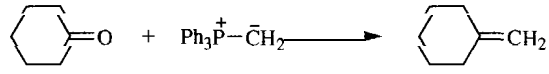
(10-6) to an aldehyde,[735] so that this reaction is a means of achieving the conversion RCOR' → RR'CHCHO.[736] However, the ylid may not contain an α nitro group. If the phosphonium salt contains a potential leaving group, such as Br or OMe, in the β position, treatment with a base gives elimination, instead of the ylid:



However, a β COO^- group may be present, and the product is a β,γ-unsaturated acid:[737]



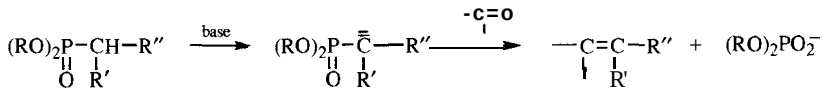
This is the only convenient way to make these compounds, since elimination by any other route gives the thermodynamically more stable α,β-unsaturated isomers. This is an illustration of the utility of the Wittig method for the specific location of a double bond. Another illustration is the conversion of cyclohexanones to alkenes containing exocyclic double bonds, for example,[738]



Still another example is the easy formation of anti-Bredt bicycloalkenones (see p. 188).[739] As indicated above, α,α'-dihalophosphoranes can be used to prepare 1,1-dihaloalkenes. Another way to prepare such compounds[740] is to treat the carbonyl compound with a mixture of CX_4 (X = Cl, Br, or I) and triphenylphosphine, either with or without the addition of zinc dust (which allows less Ph_3P to be used).[741]

The Wittig reaction has been carried out with polymer-supported ylids (see p. 509).[742] It has also been done on silica gel.[743]

Ylids are usually prepared from triphenylphosphine, but other triarylphosphines,[744] trialkylphosphines,[745] and triphenylarsine[746] have also been used. The Wittig reaction has also been carried out with other types of ylids, the most important being prepared from phosphonates:[747]



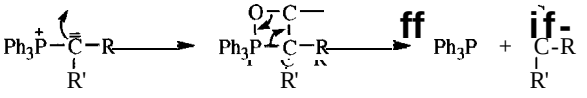
This method, sometimes called the *Horner–Emmons*, *Wadsworth–Emmons*, or *Wittig–Hornerreaction*,[748] has several advantages over the use of phosphoranes.[749] These ylids are more reactive than the corresponding phosphoranes, and when R' is

an electron-withdrawing group, these compounds often react with ketones that are inert to phosphoranes. In addition, the phosphorus product is a phosphate ester, and hence soluble in water, unlike Ph_3PO, which makes it easy to separate it from the alkene product. Phosphonates are also cheaper than phosphonium salts and can easily be prepared by the *Arbuzov reaction*:[750]

$$(EtO)_3P + RCH_2X \longrightarrow (EtO)_2\overset{\overset{O}{\|}}{P}-CH_2R$$

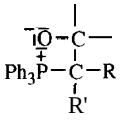
Stereoselective alkenylation reactions have been achieved using chiral additives[751] or auxiliaries.[752] Ylids formed from phosphinoxides $Ar_2\overset{\overset{O}{\|}}{P}-CHRR'$, phosphonic acid bisamides, $(R''_2N)_2POCHRR'$,[753] and alkyl phosphonothionates, $(MeO)_2PSCHRR'$,[754] share some of these advantages. Phosphonates $(Ph_2POCH_2NR'_2)$ react with aldehydes or ketones R_2COR^3 to give good yields of enamines $(R^2R^3C{=}CHNR)$.[755] (Z)-Selective reagents are also known.[756] An interesting variation in the reaction leads to alkynes. Intramolecular versions of the Horner-Emmons reaction are also known.[757] The reaction of a functionalized aldehyde (R–CHO) with $(MeO)_2POCHN_2$, leads to the alkyne (R–C≡CH).[758]

The mechanism[759] of the key step of the Wittig reaction is as follows:[760]



Oxaphosphetane

The energetics of ylid formation and their reaction is solution has been studied.[761] For many years it was assumed that a diionic compound, called a *betaine,* is an intermediate on the pathway from the starting compounds to the oxaphosphetane, and in fact it may be so, but there is little evidence for it.[762]

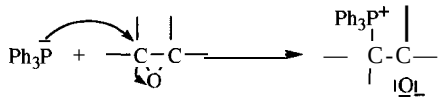


Betaine

"Betaine" precipitates have been isolated in certain Wittig reactions,[763] but these are betaine–lithium halide adducts, and might just as well have been formed from the oxaphosphetane as from a true betaine.[764] However, there is one report of an observed betaine lithium salt during the course of a Wittig reaction.[765] In contrast, there is much evidence for the presence of the oxaphosphetane intermediates, at least with unstable ylids. For example, ^{31}P NMR spectra taken of the reaction mixtures at low temperatures[766] are compatible with an oxaphosphetane structure that persists for some time but not with a tetra-coordinated phosphorus species. Since a betaine, an ylid, and a phosphine oxide all have tetra-coordinated phosphorus, these species

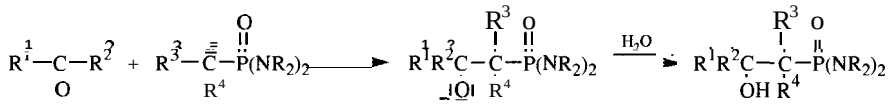
could not be causing the spectra, leading to the conclusion that an oxaphosphetane intermediate is present in the solution. In certain cases, oxaphosphetanes have been isolated.[767] It has even been possible to detect cis and trans isomers of the intermediate oxaphosphetanes by NMR spectroscopy.[768] According to this mechanism, an optically active phosphonium salt $RR'R''P^+CHR^2$ should retain its configuration all the way through the reaction, and it should be preserved in the phosphine oxide $RR'R''PO$. This has been shown to be the case.[769]

The proposed betaine intermediates can be formed, in a completely different manner, by nucleophilic substitution by a phosphine on an epoxide (10-50):



Betaines formed in this way can then be converted to the alkene, and this is one reason why betaine intermediates were long accepted in the Wittig reaction.

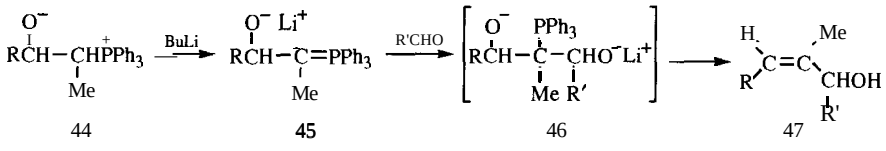
Some Wittig reactions give the (Z) alkene; some the (*E*), and others give mixtures, and the question of which factors determine the stereoselectivity has been much studied.[770] It is generally found that ylids containing stabilizing groups or formed from trialkylphosphines give (*E*) alkenes. However, ylids formed from triarylphosphines and not containing stabilizing groups often give (Z) or a mixture of (Z) and (*E*) alkenes.[771] One explanation for this[669] is that the reaction of the ylid with the carbonyl compound is a 2 + 2 cycloaddition, which in order to be concerted must adopt the $[\pi 2_s + \pi 2_a]$ pathway. As we have seen earlier (p. 1079), this pathway leads to the formation of the more sterically crowded product, in this case the (Z) alkene. If this explanation is correct, it is not easy to explain the predominant formation of (*E*) products from stable ylids, but (*E*) compounds are of course generally thermodynamically more stable than the (Z) isomers, and the stereochemistry seems to depend on many factors.



42 43

The (*E*/*Z*) ratio of the product can often be changed by a change in solvent or by the addition of salts.[772] Another way of controlling the stereochemistry of the product is by use of the aforementioned phosphonic acid bisamides. In this case the betaine (42) does form and when treated with water gives the (3-hydroxyphosphonic acid bisamides (43), which can be crystallized and then cleaved to $R^1R^2C{=}CR^3R^4$ by refluxing in benzene or toluene in the presence of silica gel.[753] Compounds 43 are generally formed as mixtures of diastereomers, and these mixtures can be separated by recrystallization. Cleavage of the two diastereomers gives the two isomeric alkenes. Optically active phosphonic acid bisamides have been used to give optically active alkenes.[773] Another method of controlling the stereochemistry of the alkene [to obtain either the (Z) or (*E*) isomer] starting with a phosphine oxide

(Ph_2POCH_2R), has been reported.[774]

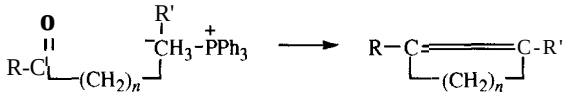


44 45 46 47

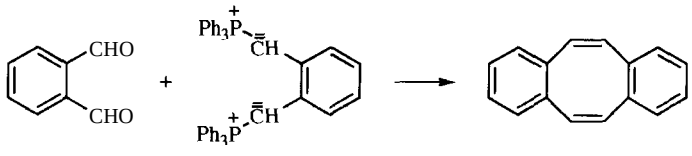
R = *n*-C_6H_{13}

In reactions where the betaine–lithium halide intermediate is present, it is possible to extend the chain further if a hydrogen is present α to the phosphorus. For example, reaction of ethylidnetriphenylphosphorane with heptanal at -78°C gave 44, which with butyllithium gave the ylid 45. Treatment of this with an aldehyde (R'CHO) gave the intermediate 46, which after workup gave 47.[775] This reaction gives the unsaturated alcohols 47 stereoselectively. Compound 45 also reacts with other electrophiles. For example, treatment of 45 with NCS or $PhICl_2$ gives the vinylic chloride RCH=CMeCl stereoselectively: NCS giving the cis and $PhICl_2$ the trans isomer.[776] The use of Br_2 and $FClO_3$ (see 12-4 for the explosive nature of this reagent) gives the corresponding bromides and fluorides, respectively.[777] Reactions of 45 with electrophiles have been called *scoopy* reactions (a substitution plus *c*arbonyl *alkeneylation* via β-*o*xido phosphorus *ylids*).[778]

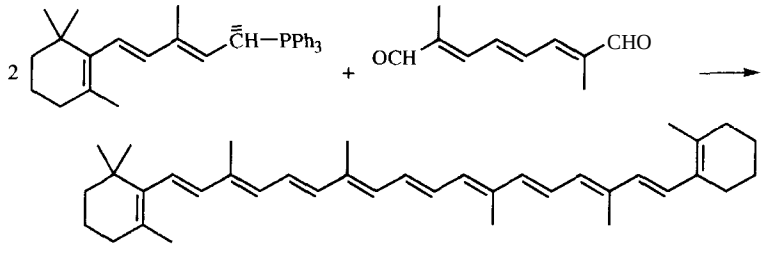
The Wittig reaction has been carried out intramolecularly, to prepare rings containing from 5 to 16 carbons,[779] both by single ring closure



and double ring closure.[780]

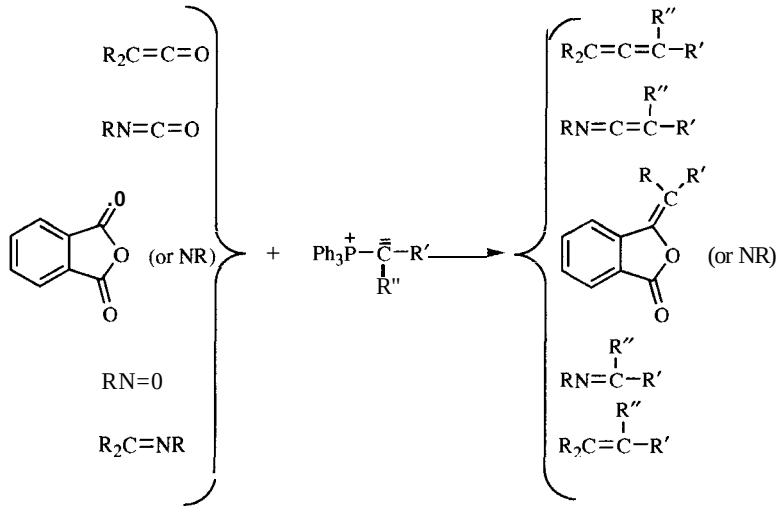


The Wittig reaction has proved very useful in the synthesis of natural products, some of which are quite difficult to prepare in other ways.[781] One example out of many is the synthesis of (i-carotene:[782]

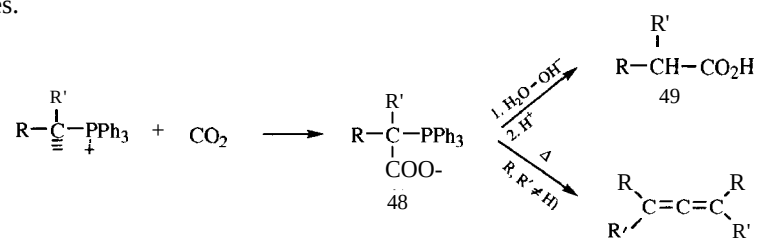


P-Carotene

Phosphorus ylids also react in a similar manner with the C=O bonds of ketenes,[783] isocyanates,[784] and certain anhydrides[785] and imides,[786] the N=O of nitroso groups, and the C=N of imines,[787] for example,



Phosphorus ylids react with carbon dioxide to give the isolable salts (**48**),[788] which can be hydrolyzed to the carboxylic acids (49) (thus achieving the conversion RR'CHX → RR'CHCOOH) or (if neither R nor R' is hydrogen) dimerized to allenes.



Although phosphorus ylids are most commonly used to alkenylation reactions, nitrogen ylids can occasionally be used. As an example, the reaction of *N*-benzyl-*N*-phenylpiperidinium bromide with base generated a *N*-ylid, which reacted with benzaldehyde to form styrene.[789]

OS V, 361, 390, 499, 509, 547, 751, 949, 985; VI, 358; VII, 164, 232; VIII, 265, 451; 75, 139, OS IX, 39, 230.

16-48 *Tebbe, Petasis and Alternative Alkenylations*

METHYLENE-DE-OXO-BISUBSTITUTION

A useful alternative to phosphorus ylids are the titanium reagents such as **50** prepared from dicyclopentadienyltitanium dichloride and trimethylaluminum.[790] Treatment of a carbonyl compound with the titanium cyclopentadienide complex **50** *(Tebbe's reagent)* in toluene–THF containing a small amount of pyridine[791] leads to the alkene. Dimethyltitanocene (Me_2TiCp_2), called the *Petasis reagent,* has been used instead of 50.[792] Tebbe's reagent and the Petasis reagent give good results with ketones.[793] As we have seen, there are several methods for the conversion C=O to $C{=}CH_2$ when the substrate is an aldehyde or ketone (see **16-27, 16-31, 16-38-16-44, 16-47**), but very few ways to make the same conversion for a carboxylic ester. An important feature of these new reagents is that carboxylic esters and lactones can be converted in good yields to the corresponding enol ethers The enol ether can be hydrolyzed to a ketone (10-6), so this is also an indirect method for making the conversion RCOOR' → $RCOCH_3$ (see also **10-115).** Conjugated esters are converted to alkoxy-dienes with this reagent.[794] Besides stability and ease of preparation, another advantage of the Petasis reagent is that structural analogs can be prepared, including $Cp_2Ti(C_3H_5)_2$[795] (C_3H_5 = cyclopropyl), $CpTi(CH_2SiMe_3)_3$,[796] and Cp_2Ti-$Me(CH{=}CH_2)$.[797] In another variation, two equivalents of $Cp_2Ti[P(OEt)_3]_2$ reacted with a ketone in the presence of 1,1-diphenylthiocyclobutane to give the alkenylcyclobutane derivative.[798]

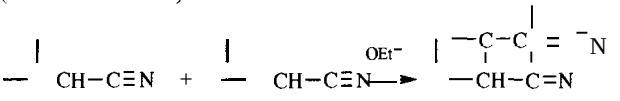
Carboxylic esters undergo the conversion C=O→ C=CHR (R = primary or secondary alkyl) when treated with $RCHBr_2$, Zn,[799] and $TiCl_4$ in the presence of *N,N,N′,N′*-tetramethylethylenediamine.[800] Metal carbene complexes[801] $R_2C{=}ML_n$ (L = ligand), where M is a transition metal such as Zr, W, or Ta, have also been used to convert the C=O of carboxylic esters and lactones to CR_2.[802] It is likely that the complex $Cp_2Ti{=}CH_2$ is an intermediate in the reaction with Tebbe's reagent.

There are a few other methods for converting ketones or aldehydes to alkenes. When a ketone is treated with $CH_3CHBr_2/Sm/SmI_2$, with a catalytic amount of $CrCl_3$, for example, the alkene is formed.[803] In another reaction, an aldehydes reacted with EtCHBr(OAc) in the presence of $Zn/CrCl_3$ to give the alkene.[804]

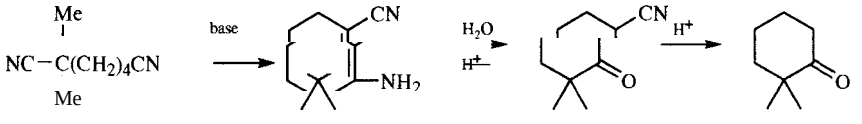
OS **VIII,** 512, OS **IX,** 404

16-49 *The Thorpe Reaction*

N-HYDRO-*C*-(α-CYANOALKYL)-ADDITION



In the *Thorpe reaction,* the α carbon of one nitrile molecule is added to the CN carbon of another, so this reaction is analogous to the aldol reaction **(16-38).** The C=NH bond is, of course, hydrolyzable (16-2), so β-keto nitriles can be prepared in this manner. The Thorpe reaction can be done intramolecularly, in which case it is



51

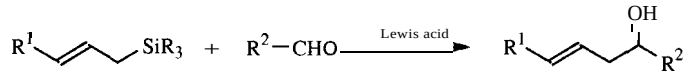
called the *Thorpe–Ziegler reaction.*[805] This is a useful method for closing large rings. Yields are high for 5- to 8-membered rings, fall off to about 0 for rings of 9–13 members, but are high again for 14-membered and larger rings, if high dilution techniques are employed. The product in the Thorpe–Ziegler reaction is not the imine, but the tautomeric enamine (e.g., 51); if desired this can be hydrolyzed to an α-cyano ketone (16-2), which can in turn be hydrolyzed and decarboxylated **(16-4, 12-38).** Other active-hydrogen compounds can also be added to nitriles.[806]

OS VI, 932.

J. *Other Carbon Nucleophiles*

16-50 *Addition of Silanes*

O-HYDRO-*C*-ALKYL-ADDITION



Allylic silanes react with aldehydes, in the presence of Lewis acids, to give an allyl-substituted alcohol.[807] In the case of benzylic silanes, this addition reaction has been induced with $Mg(ClO_4)_2$ under photochemical conditions.[808] The addition of chiral additives leads to the alcohol with good asymmetric induction.[809] In a related reaction, allylic silanes react with acyl halides to produce the corresponding carbonyl derivative. The reaction of phenyl chloroformate, trimethylallylsilane, and $AlCl_3$, for example, gave phenyl but-3-enoate.[810]

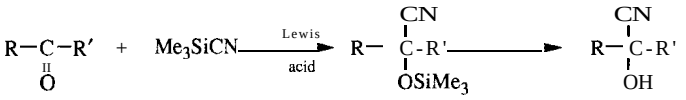
Allylic silanes also add to imines, in the presence of $TiCl_4$, to give amines.[811]

16-51 *The Formation of Cyanohydrins*

O-HYDRO-*C*-CYANO-ADDITION

The addition of HCN to aldehydes or ketones produces cyanohydrins.[812] This is an equilibrium reaction. For aldehydes and aliphatic ketones the equilibrium lies to the right; therefore the reaction is quite feasible, except with sterically hindered ketones such as diisopropyl ketone. However, ketones ArCOR give poor yields, and the reaction cannot be carried out with ArCOAr since the equilibrium lies too far to the left. With aromatic aldehydes the benzoin condensation **(16-54)** competes. With α,β-unsaturated aldehydes and ketones, 1,4 addition competes **(15-33).** Ketones of low reactivity, such as ArCOR, can be converted to cyanohydrins by treatment with diethylaluminum cyanide (Et_2AlCN; see OS VI, 307) or, indirectly, with cyanotrimethylsilane (Me_3SiCN)[813] in the presence of a Lewis acid or base,[813a] followed by hydrolysis of the resulting *O*-trimethylsilyl cyanohydrin (52). The use of chiral additives in this latter reaction leads to cyanohydrins with good asymmetric

induction.[814] When $TiCl_4$ is used, the reaction between Me_3SiCN and aromatic aldehydes or ketones gives α-chloro nitriles C—CRR′—CN.[815] Sulfoximine–titanium reagents have been used in enantioselective trimethylsilyl cyanations of aldehydes.[816]



52

Frequently, it is the bisulfite addition product that is treated with CN^-. This method is especially useful for aromatic aldehydes, since it avoids competition from the benzoin condensation. If desired, it is possible to hydrolyze the cyanohydrin *in situ* to the corresponding α-hydroxy acid. This reaction is important in the *Kiliani-Fischer* method of extending the carbon chain of a sugar.

The addition is nucleophilic and the actual nucleophile is CN^-, so the reaction rate is increased by the addition of base.[817] This was demonstrated by Lapworth in 1903, and consequently this was one of the first organic mechanisms to be known.[818]

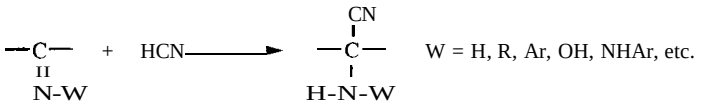
The reaction has been carried out enantioselectively: optically active cyanohydrins were prepared with the aid of optically active catalysts.[819]

A particularly useful variation of this reaction uses cyanide rather than HCN. α-Amino nitriles[820] can be prepared in one step by the treatment of an aldehyde or ketone with NaCN and NH_4Cl. This is called the *Strecker synthesis*;[821] and it is a special case of the Mannich reaction **(16-15).** Since the CN is easily hydrolyzed to the acid, this is a convenient method for the preparation of a-amino acids. The reaction has also been carried out with NH_3 + HCN and with NH_4CN. Salts of primary and secondary amines can be used instead of NH_4^+ to obtain N-substituted and N,N-disubstituted a-amino nitriles. Unlike **16-51,** the Strecker synthesis is useful for aromatic as well as aliphatic ketones. As in **16-51,** the Me_3SiCN method has been used; **64** is converted to the product with ammonia or an amine.[822]

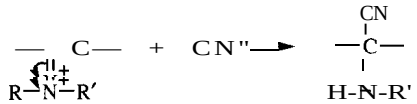
OS I, 336; **II,** 7, 29, 387; **III,** 436; IV, 58, 506; VI, 307; **VII,** 20, 381, 517, 521. For the reverse reaction, see OS **III,** 101. For the Strecker synthesis, see OS I, 21, 355; **III,** 66, 84, 88, 275; IV, 274; V, 437; VI, 334.

16-52 *The Addition of HCN to C=N and C≡N Bonds*

N-HYDRO-*C*-CYANO-ADDITION

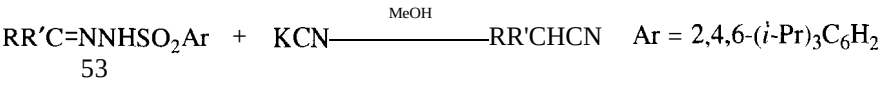


HCN adds to imines, Schiff bases, hydrazones, oximes, and similar compounds. The CN^- ion can be added to iminium ions:

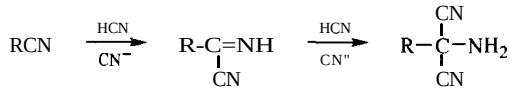


As in **16-49,** the addition to imines has been carried out enantioselectively.[823]

The addition of KCN to triisopropylbenzenesulfonyl hydrazones (53) provides an indirect method for achieving the conversion RR'CO → RR'CHCN.[824] The reaction is successful for hydrazones of aliphatic aldehydes and ketones.

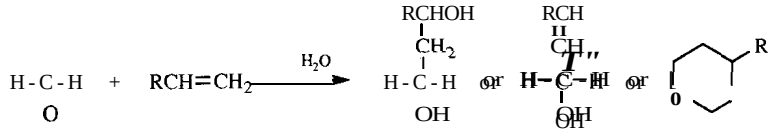


Hydrogen cyanide can also be added to the C≡N bond to give iminonitriles or α-aminomalononitriles.[825]

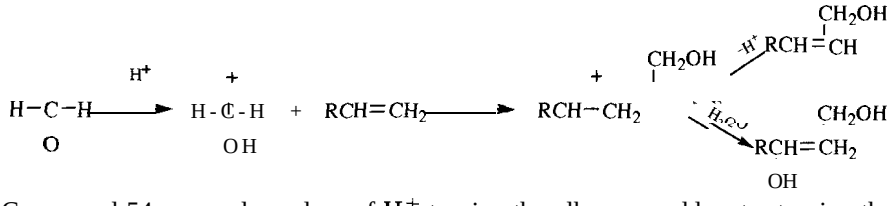


OS V, 344. See also OS V, 269.

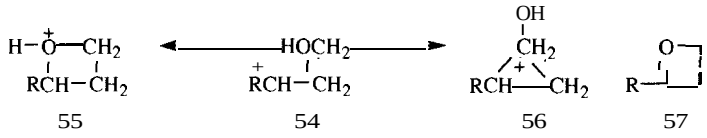
16-53 *The Prins Reaction*



The addition of an alkene to formaldehyde in the presence of an acid[826] catalyst is called the *Prins reaction*.[827] Three main products are possible; which one predominates depends on the alkene and the conditions. When the product is the 1,3-diol or the dioxane,[828] the reaction involves addition to the C=C as well as to the C=O. The mechanism is one of electrophilic attack on both double bonds. The acid first protonates the C=O, and the resulting carbocation attacks the C=C:



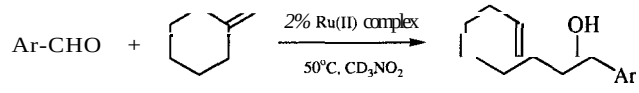
Compound 54 can undergo loss of H^+ to give the alkene or add water to give the diol.[829] It has been proposed that 54 is stabilized by neighboring-group attraction, with either the oxygen[830] or a carbon[831] stabilizing the charge (55 and 56,



respectively). This stabilization is postulated to explain the fact that with 2-butenes[832] and with cyclohexenes the addition is anti. A backside attack of H_2O on the three- or four-membered ring would account for it. Other products are obtained too, which can be explained on the basis of 55 or **56**.[830,831] Additional evidence for the intermediacy of 55 is the finding that oxetanes (57) subjected to the

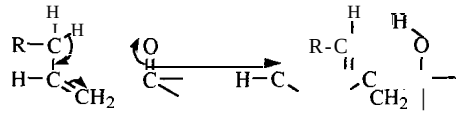
reaction conditions (which would protonate 57 to give **55)** give essentially the same product ratios as the corresponding alkenes.[833] An argument against the intermediacy of **55** and 56 is that not all alkenes show the anti stereoselectivity mentioned above. Indeed, the stereochemical results are often quite complex, with syn, anti, and nonstereoselective addition reported, depending on the nature of the reactants and the reaction conditions.[834] Since addition to the C=C bond is electrophilic, the reactivity of the alkene increases with alkyl substitution and Markovnikov's rule is followed. The dioxane product may arise from a reaction between the 1,3-diol and formaldehyde[835] **(16-5)** or between 54 and formaldehyde.

Lewis acids such as $SnCl_4$ also catalyze the reaction, in which case the species that adds to the alkenes is $H_2C^+—O—^-SnCl_4$.[836] Montmorillonite K10 clay containing zinc(IV) has been used to promote the reaction.[837] The reaction can also be catalyzed by peroxides, in which case the mechanism is probably a free-radical one. Other transition metal complexes can be used to form allylic alcohols. A typical example is.[838]

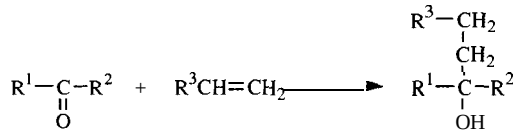


Samarium iodide promotes this addition reaction.[839] In a related reaction, simple alkene units add to esters in the presence of sodium and liquid ammonia to give an alcohol.[840]

A closely related reaction has been performed with other aldehydes and even with ketones; without a catalyst, but with heat.[841] The aldehydes and ketones here are active ones, such as chloral and acetoacetic ester. The product in these cases is a β-hydroxy alkene, and the mechanism is pericyclic:[842]



This reaction is reversible and suitable P-hydroxy alkenes can be cleaved by heat **(17-34).** There is evidence that the cleavage reaction occurs by a cyclic mechanism (p. 1351), and, by the principle of microscopic reversibility, the addition mechanism should be cyclic too.[843] Note that this reaction is an oxygen analog of the ene synthesis **(15-20).** This reaction can also be done with unactivated aldehydes[844] and ketones[845] if Lewis acid catalysts such as dimethylaluminum chloride (Me_2AlCl) or ethylaluminum dichloride ($EtAlCl_2$) are used.[846] Lewis acid catalysts also increase rates with activated aldehydes.[847] The use of optically active catalysts has given optically active products with high enantiomeric excesses.[848]



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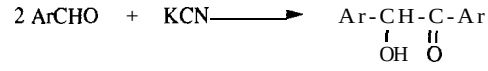
In a related reaction, alkenes can be added to aldehydes and ketones to give reduced alcohols 58. This has been accomplished by several methods,[849] including treatment with SmI_2[850] or Zn and Me_3SiCl,[851] and by electrochemical[852] and photochemical[853] methods. Most of these methods have been used for intramolecular addition and most or all involve free-radical intermediates.

OS IV, 786. See also OS VII, 102.

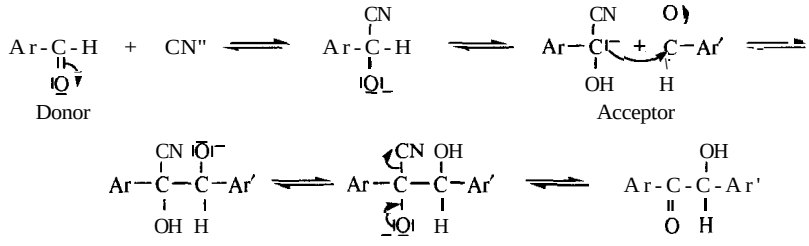
16-54 *The Benzoin Condensation*

BENZOIN ALDEHYDE CONDENSATION



When certain aldehydes are treated with cyanide ion, *benzoins* are produced in a reaction called the *benzoin condensation.* The condensation can be regarded as involving the addition of one molecule of aldehyde to the C=O group of another. The reaction can be accomplished only for aromatic aldehydes, though not for all of them,[854] and for glyoxals RCOCHO. The two molecules of aldehyde obviously perform different functions. The one that no longer has a C—H bond in the product is called the *donor,* because it has "donated"its hydrogen to the oxygen of the other molecule, the *acceptor.* Some aldehydes can perform only one of these functions and hence cannot be self-condensed, though they can often be condensed with a different aldehyde. For example, *p*-dimethylaminobenzaldehyde is not an acceptor but only a donor. Thus it cannot condense with itself, but it can condense with benzaldehyde, which can perform both functions, but is a better acceptor than it is a donor.

The following is the accepted mechanism,[855] which was originally proposed by Lapworth in 1903:[856]



The reaction is reversible. The key step, the loss of the aldehydic proton, can take place because the acidity of this C—H bond is increased by the electron-withdrawing power of the CN group. Thus, CN^- is a highly specific catalyst for this reaction, because, almost uniquely, it can perform three functions: (1) It acts as a nucleophile; (2) its electron-withdrawing ability permits loss of the aldehydic proton; and (3) having done this, it then acts as a leaving group. Certain thiazolium salts can also catalyze the reaction.[857] In this case aliphatic aldehydes can also be used[858] (the products are called *acyloins),* and mixtures of aliphatic and aromatic aldehydes give mixed α-hydroxy ketones.[859] The reaction has also been carried out without CN",

by using the benzoylated cyanohydrin as one of the components in a phase-transfer catalyzed process. By this means products can be obtained from aldehydes that normally fail to self-condense.[860]

OS I, 94; VII, 95.

16-55 *Addition of Radicals to C=O, C=S, C=N Compounds*

Radical cyclization is not limited to a radical attacking a C=C unit (see 15-35 and 15-36), and reactions with both C=N and C=O moieties are known. Reaction of $MeON{=}CH(CH_2)_3CHO$ with Bu_3SnH and AIBN, for example led to *trans*-2-(methoxyamino)cyclopentanol in good yield.[861] Addition of radical to the C=N unit of R–C=N–SPh [862] or R–C=N–OBz [863] led to cyclic imines. Radical addition to simple imines leads to aminocycloalkenes.[864] Radical also add to the carbonyl unit of phenylthio esters to give cyclic ketones.[865]

Reactions in Which Carbon Adds to the Hetero Atom

A. *Oxygen Adding to the Carbon*

16-56 *The Flitter Reaction*

N-HYDRO,*N*-ALKYL-*C*-OXO-BIADDITION

$$R{-}C{\equiv}N + R'OH \xrightarrow{H^+} R\text{-}\underset{\underset{O}{\|}}{C}\text{-}\underset{\underset{H}{|}}{N}\text{-}R'$$

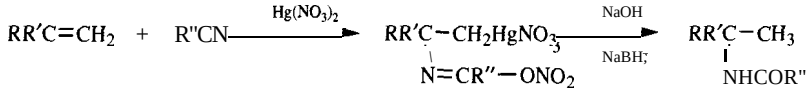
Alcohols can be added to nitriles in an entirely different manner from that of Reaction 16-8. In this reaction, the alcohol is converted by a strong acid to a carbocation, which adds to the negative nitrogen, water adding to the carbon:

$$R'OH \xrightarrow{H^+} R'^{+} + R{-}C{\equiv}N \longrightarrow R\text{-}\overset{+}{C}{=}N\text{-}R' \xrightarrow{H_2O} R\text{-}\underset{\underset{OH}{|}}{C}{=}N\text{-}R'$$

The immediate product tautomerizes to the N-alkyl amide. Only alcohols that give rise to fairly stable carbocations react (secondary, tertiary, benzylic, etc.); primary alcohols do not give the reaction. The carbocation need not be generated from an alcohol but may come from protonation of an alkene or from other sources. In any case, the reaction is called the *Ritter reaction*.[866] Hydrogen cyanide also gives the reaction, the product being a formamide. Trimethylsilyl cyanide has also been used.[867] Since the amides (especially the formamides) are easily hydrolyzable to amines, the Ritter reaction provides a method for achieving the conversions $R'OH \rightarrow R'NH_2$ (see 10-46) and alkene $\rightarrow R'NH_2$ (see 15-8) in those cases where R' can form a relatively stable carbocation. The reaction is especially useful for the preparation of tertiary alkyl amines because there are few alternate ways of preparing these compounds. The reaction can be extended to primary alcohols by

treatment with triflic anhydride[868] or Ph_2CCl^+ $SbCl_6^-$ or a similar salt[869] in the presence of the nitrile.

Alkenes of the form RCH=CHR' and $RR'C{=}CH_2$ add to nitriles in the presence of mercuric nitrate to give, after treatment with $NaBH_4$, the same amides that would be obtained by the Ritter reaction.[870] This method has the advantage of avoiding strong acids.

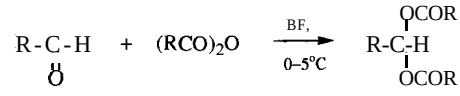


The Ritter reaction can be applied to cyanamides RNHCN to give ureas (RNHCONHR').[871]

OS V, 73, 471.

16-57 *Acylation of Aldehydes and Ketones*

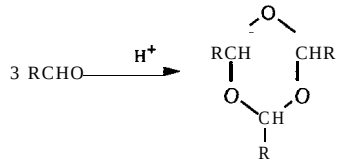
O-ACYL-*C*-ACYLOXY- ADDITION



Aldehydes can be converted to *acylals* by treatment with an anhydride in the presence of BF_3, other Lewis acids,[872] proton acids,[873] or PCl_3.[874] The reaction cannot normally be applied to ketones, though an exception has been reported when the reagent is trichloroacetic anhydride, which gives acylals with ketones without a catalyst.[875]

OS IV, 489.

16-58 *The Addition of Aldehydes to Aldehydes*



When catalyzed by acids, low molecular weight aldehydes add to each other to give cyclic acetals, the most common product being the trimer.[876] The cyclic trimer of formaldehyde is called *trioxane*,[877] and that of acetaldehyde is known as *paraldehyde*. Under certain conditions, it is possible to get tetramers[878] or dimers. Aldehydes can also polymerize to linear polymers, but here a small amount of water is required to form hemiacetal groups at the ends of the chains. The linear polymer formed from formaldehyde is called *paraformaldehyde*. Since trimers and polymers of aldehydes are acetals, they are stable to bases but can be hydrolyzed by acids. Because formaldehyde and acetaldehyde have low boiling points, it is often convenient to use them in the form of their trimers or polymers.

A slightly related reaction involves nitriles, which can be trimerized' with various acids, bases, or other catalysts to give triazines (see OS HI, 71).[879] HC1 is most often used. Most nitriles with an a hydrogen do not give the reaction.

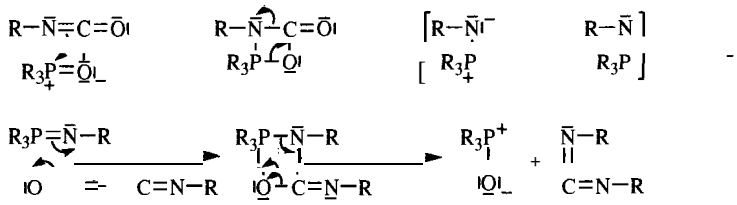
B. *Nitrogen Adding to the Carbon*

16-59 *The Addition of Isocyanates to Isocyanates (Formation of Carbodiimides)*

ALKYLIMINO-DE-OXO-BISUBSTITUTION

$$2R{-}N{=}C{=}O \xrightarrow{59} R\text{-}N{=}C{=}N\text{-}R$$

The treatment of isocyanates with 3-methyl-1-ethyl-3-phospholene-1-oxide (59) is a useful method for the synthesis of carbodiimides[880] in good yields.[881] The mechanism does not simply involve the addition of one molecule of isocyanate to another, since the kinetics are first order in isocyanate and first order in catalyst. The following mechanism has been proposed (the catalyst is here represented as $R_3P^+{-}O^\theta$):[882]



According to this mechanism, one molecule of isocyanate undergoes addition to C=O, and the other addition to C=N. Evidence is that ^{18}O labeling experiments have shown that each molecule of CO_2 produced contains one oxygen atom derived from the isocyanate and one from 71,[883] precisely what is predicted by this mechanism. Certain other catalysts are also effective.[884]

OS V, 501.

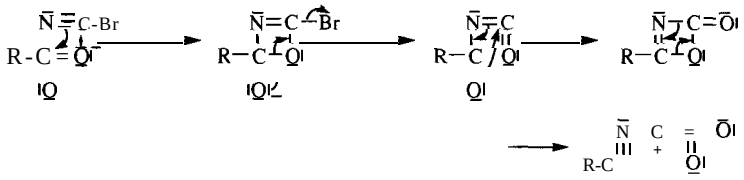
16-60 *The Conversion of Carboxylic Acid Salts to Nitriles*

NITRILO-DE-OXIDO, OXO-TERSUBSTITUTION

$$RCOO + BrCN \xrightarrow{250\text{–}300^\circ C} RCN + CO_2$$

Salts of aliphatic or aromatic carboxylic acids can be converted to the corresponding nitriles by heating with BrCN or C1CN. Despite appearances, this is not a substitution reaction. When $R^{14}COO^-$ was used, the label appeared in the nitrile, not in the CO_2,[885] and optical activity in R was retained.[886] The acyl isocyanate

RCON=C=O could be isolated from the reaction mixture; hence the following mechanism was proposed:[885]

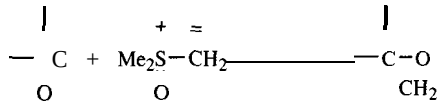


C. *Carbon Adding to the Carbon*

The reactions in this group (16-61-16-64) are cycloadditions.

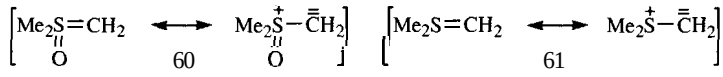
16-61 *The Formation of Epoxides from Aldehydes and Ketones*

(1 + 2)*OC,CC-cyclo*-METHYLENE-ADDITION

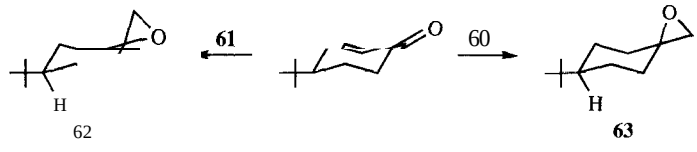


60

Aldehydes and ketones can be converted to epoxides[887] in good yields with the sulfur ylids dimethyloxosulfonium methylid (60) and dimethylsulfonium methylid (**61**).[888] For most purposes, 60 is the reagent of choice, because 61 is much less



stable and ordinarily must be used as soon as it is formed, while 60 can be stored several days at room temperature. When diastereomeric epoxides can be formed, 61 usually attacks from the more hindered and 60 from the less-hindered side. Thus, 4-tert-butylcyclohexanone, treated with 60 gave exclusively 63 while 61 gave mostly 62.[889] Another difference in behavior between the two reagents is that with α,β-

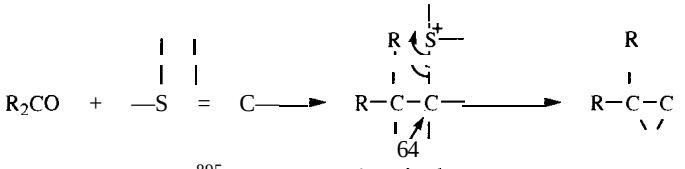


62 **63**

unsaturated ketones, 60 gives only cyclopropanes (Reaction 15-62), while 61 gives oxirane formation. Other sulfur ylids have been used in an analogous manner, to transfer CHR or CR_2.[890] High yields have been achieved by the use of sulfonium ylids anchored to insoluble polymers under phase-transfer conditions.[891] A solvent-free version of this reaction has been developed using powder K *tert*-butoxide and $Me_3S^+I^-$.[892] Chiral sulfur ylids have been prepared, giving the epoxide with good

asymmetric induction.[893] It is noted that treatment of epoxides with two equivalents of $Me_2S{=}CH_2$ leads to allylic alcohols.[894]

The generally accepted mechanism for the reaction between sulfur ylids and aldehydes or ketone is which is similar to that of the reaction of sulfur ylids with

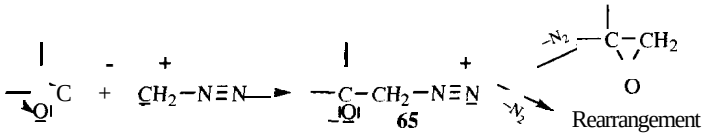


64

C=C double bonds (15-62).[895] The stereochemical difference in the behavior of 60 and 61 has been attributed to formation of the betaine 64 being reversible for 60 but not for the less stable 61, so that the more-hindered product is the result of kinetic control and the less hindered of thermodynamic control.[896]

Phosphorus ylids do not give this reaction, but give **16-47** instead.

Aldehydes and ketones can also be converted to epoxides by treatment with a diazoalkane,[897] most commonly diazomethane, but an important side reaction is the formation of an aldehyde or ketone with one more carbon than the starting compound (Reaction **18-9).** The reaction can be carried out with many aldehydes, ketones, and quinones. A mechanism that accounts for both products is



65 Rearrangement (18-9)

Compound **65** or nitrogen-containing derivatives of it have sometimes been isolated.

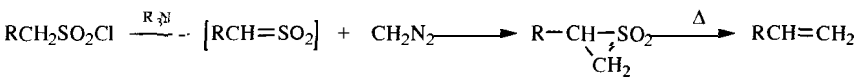
Dihalocarbenes and carbenoids, which readily add to C=C bonds **(15-62),** do not generally add to the C=O bonds of ordinary aldehydes and ketones.[898] See also 16-**56.**

OS V, 358, 755.

16-62 *The Formation of Episulfides and Episulfones*[899]

V

Epoxides can be converted directly to episulfides by treatment with NH4SCN and ceric ammonium nitrate.[900] Diazoalkanes, treated with sulfur, give episulfides.[901] It is likely that $R_2C{=}S$ is an intermediate, which is attacked by another molecule of diazoalkane, in a process similar to that shown in **16-61.** Thioketones *do* react with diazoalkanes to give episulfides.[902] Thioketones have also been converted to episulfides with sulfur ylids.[889]



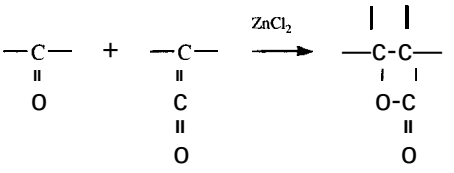
66 67

Alkanesulfonyl chlorides, when treated with diazomethane in the presence of a base (usually a tertiary amine), give episulfones (67).[903] The base removes HC1 from the sulfonyl halide to produce the highly reactive sulfene **(66) (17-13),** which then adds CH_2. The episulfone can then be heated to give off SO_2 **(17-20),** making the entire process a method for achieving the conversion $RCH_2SO_2Cl \rightarrow RCH{=}CH_2$.[904]

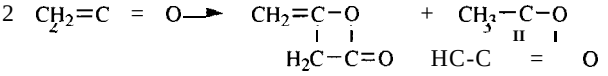
OS V, 231, 877.

16-63 *The Formation of β-Lactones and Oxetanes*

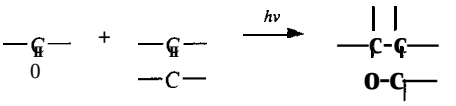
(2 + 2)*OC,CC-CYCLO*-[OXOETHYLENE]-1/2/ADDITION

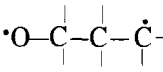


Aldehydes, ketones, and quinones react with ketenes to give β-lactones, diphenylketene being used most often.[905] The reaction is catalyzed by Lewis acids, and without them most ketenes do not give adducts because the adducts decompose at the high temperatures necessary when no catalyst is used. When ketene was added to chloral (Cl_3CCHO) in the presence of the chiral catalyst (+)-quinidine, one enantiomer of the β-lactone was produced in 98% ee.[906] Other di- and trihalo aldehydes and ketones also give the reaction enantioselectively, with somewhat lower ee values.[907] Ketene adds to another molecule of itself:

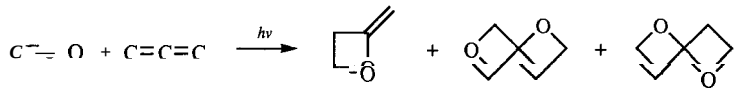


This dimerization is so rapid that ketene does not form [3-lactones with aldehydes or ketones, except at low temperatures. Other ketenes dimerize more slowly. In these cases the major dimerization product is not the [3-lactone, but a cyclobutanedione (see **15-61).** However, the proportion of ketene that dimerizes to [3-lactone can be increased by the addition of catalysts such as triethylamine or triethyl phosphite.[908] Ketene acetals $R_2C{=}C(OR')_2$ add to aldehydes and ketones in the presence of $ZnCl_2$ to give the corresponding oxetanes.[909]



Ordinary aldehydes and ketones can add to alkenes, under the influence of UV light, to give oxetanes. Quinones also react to give spirocyclic oxetanes.[910] This reaction, called the *Paterno–Büchi reaction*,[911] is similar to the photochemical dimerization of alkenes discussed at **15-61.** In general, the mechanism consists of the addition of an excited state of the carbonyl compound to the ground state of the alkene. Both singlet (S_1)[912] and *n,n** triplet[913] states have been shown to add to alkenes to give oxetanes. A diradical intermediate,[914]  , has been

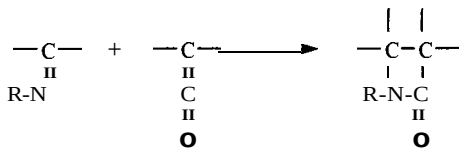
detected by spectroscopic methods.[915] Yields in the Patemo-Büchi reaction are variable, ranging from very low to fairly high (90%). The reaction can be highly diastereoselective.[916] There are several side reactions. When the reaction proceeds through a triplet state, it can in general be successful only when the alkene possesses a triplet energy comparable to, or higher than, the carbonyl compound; otherwise energy transfer from the excited carbonyl group to the ground-state alkene can take place (triplet-triplet photosensitization, see p. 316). In most cases quinones react normally with alkenes, giving oxetane products, but other α,β-unsaturated ketones usually give preferential cyclobutane formation **(15-61).** Aldehydes and ketones also add photochemically to allenes to give the corresponding alkylidneoxetanes and dioxaspiro compounds:[917]



OS **III**, 508; V, 456. For the reverse reaction, see OS V, 679.

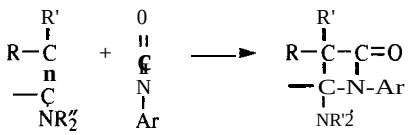
16-64 *The Formation of* (3-Lactams

(2 + 2)*NC,CC-CYCLO*-[OXOETHYLENE]-1/2/ADDITION



Ketenes add to imines to give β-lactams.[918] The reaction is generally carried out with ketenes of the form $R_2C{=}C{=}O$. It has not been successfully applied to $RCH{=}C{=}O$, except when these are generated *in situ* by decomposition of a diazo ketone (the Wolff rearrangement, **18-8)** in the presence of the imine. It has been done with ketene, but the more usual course with this reagent is an addition to the enamine tautomer of the substrate. Thioketenes[919] $R_2C{=}C{=}S$ give β-thiolactams.[920] Imines also form [3-lactams when treated with (1) zinc (or another metal) and an α-bromo ester (Reformatsky conditions—**16-31**),[921] or (2) the chromium carbene complexes $(CO)_5Cr{=}C(Me)OMe$.[922] The latter method has been used to prepare optically active (3-lactams.[923] Ketenes have also been added to certain hydrazones (e.g., $PhCH{=}NNMe_2$) to give N-amino (3-lactams.[924]

Like the similar cycloaddition of ketenes to alkenes **(15-61),** most of these reactions probably take place by the di-ionic mechanism *c* (p. 1078).[925] (3-Lactams have also been prepared in the opposite manner: by the addition of enamines to isocyanates:[926]



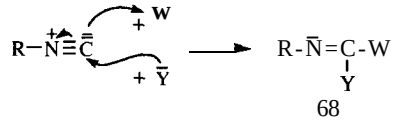
The reactive compound chlorosulfonyl isocyanate ($ClSO_2NCO$),[927] forms β-lactams even with unactivated alkenes,[928] as well as with imines,[929] allenes,[930] conjugated dienes,[931] and cyclopropenes.[932] With microwave irradiation, alkyl isocyanates also react.[933]

Allylic phosphonate esters react with imines, in the presence of a palladium catalyst, to give [3-lactams.[934] Alkynyl reagents such as $BuC{\equiv}CO^-Li^+$ react with imines to form [3-lactams.[935]

OS V, 673; VIII, 3, 216.

Addition to Isocyanides[936]

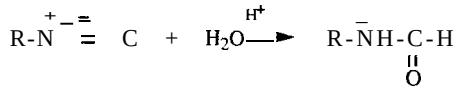
Addition to $R-{}^+N{\equiv}C^\theta$ is not a matter of a species with an electron pair adding to one atom and a species without a pair adding to the other, as is addition to the other types of double and triple bonds in this chapter and Chapter 15. In these additions, the electrophile and the nucleophile *both add to the carbon.* No species add to the nitrogen, which, however, loses its positive charge by obtaining as an unshared pair one of the triple-bond pairs of electrons:



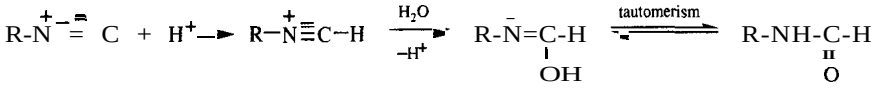
In most of the reactions considered below, 68 undergoes a further reaction, so the product is of the form R—NH—C—•

16-65 *The Addition of Water to Isocyanides*

1/*N*,2/*C*-Dihydro-2/*C*-oxo-biaddition



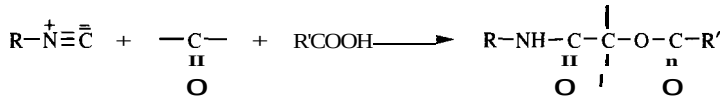
Formamides can be prepared by the acid-catalyzed addition of water to isocyanides. The mechanism is probably[937]



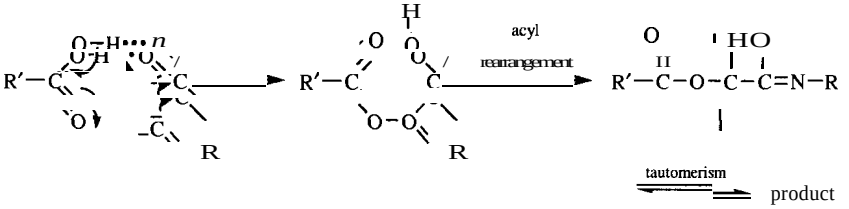
The reaction has also been carried out under alkaline conditions, with OH^- in aqueous dioxane.[938] The mechanism here involves nucleophilic attack by OH^- at the carbon atom.

16-66 *The Passerini and Ugi Reactions*[939]

1/*N*-Hydro-2/*C*-(α-acyloxyalkyl),2/*C*-oxo-biaddition



When an isocyanide is treated with a carboxylic acid and an aldehyde or ketone, an α-acyloxy amide is prepared. This is called the *Passerini reaction.* The following mechanism has been postulated:



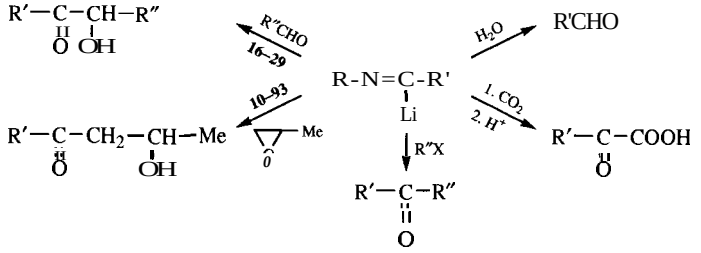
If ammonia or an amine is also added to the mixture (in which case the reaction is known as the *Ugi reaction,* or the *Ugi four-component condensation,* abbreviated 4 CC), the product is the corresponding bisamide $R'-\underset{\underset{O}{\|}}{C}-NH-\underset{\underset{O}{\|}}{\overset{|}{C}}-NH-R$ (from NH_3) or $R'-\underset{\underset{O}{\|}}{C}-NR''-\underset{\underset{O}{\|}}{\overset{|}{C}}-NH-R$ (from a primary amine $R''NH_2$). This product probably arises from a reaction between the carboxylic acid, the isocyanide, and the *imine* formed from the aldehyde or ketone and ammonia or the primary amine. The use of an N-protected amino acid or peptide as the carboxylic acid component and/or the use of an isocyanide containing a C-protected carboxyl group allows the reaction to be used for peptide synthesis.[940]

16-67 *The Formation of Metalated Aldimines*

1/1/LITHIO-ALKYL-ADDITION

$$R-\overset{+}{N}\equiv\overset{-}{C} + R'Li \longrightarrow R-N=\underset{\underset{Li}{|}}{C}-R'$$

Isocyanides that do not contain an α hydrogen react with alkyllithium compounds,[941] as well as with Grignard reagents, to give lithium (or magnesium) aldimines.[942] These metalated aldimines are versatile nucleophiles and react with various substrates as follows:



The reaction therefore constitutes a method for converting an organometallic compound R'M to aldehyde R'CHO (see also 12-30), an α-keto acid,[943] a ketone

R'COR (see also 12-30), an α-hydroxy ketone, or a β-hydroxy ketone. In each case, the C=N bond is hydrolyzed to a C=O bond (16-2).

In a related reaction, isocyanides can be converted to aromatic aldimines by treatment with an iron complex followed by irradiation in benzene solution: $RNC + C_6H_6 \rightarrow PhCH{=}NR$.[944]

OS VI, 751.

REFERENCES

[1] For a discussion, see Jencks, W.P. *Prog. Phys. Org. Chem.*, ***1964,*** *2,* 63.

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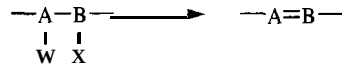
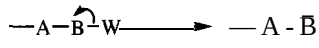
CHAPTER 17

Eliminations

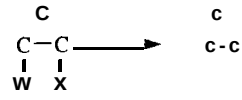
When two groups are lost from adjacent atoms so that a new double[1]



(or triple) bond is formed, the reaction is called β *elimination;* one atom is the a, the other is the β atom. In an a elimination, both groups are lost from the same atom to give a carbene (or a nitrene):



In a γ elimination, a three-membered ring is formed



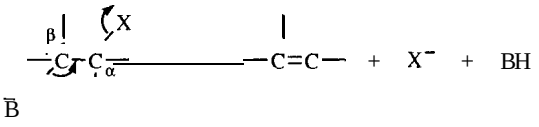
Some of these processes were discussed in Chapter 10. Another type of elimination involves the expulsion of a fragment from within a chain or ring (X—Y—Z → X—Z + Y). Such reactions are called *extrusion reactions.* This chapter discusses β elimination and (beginning on p. 1352) extrusion reactions; however, β elimination in which both X and W are hydrogens are oxidation reactions and are treated in Chapter 19.

MECHANISMS AND ORIENTATION

P Elimination reactions may be divided into two types: one type taking place largely in solution, the other (pyrolytic eliminations) mostly in the gas phase. In the reactions in solution, one group leaves with its electrons and the other without, the latter most often being hydrogen. In these cases, we refer to the former as the leaving group or nucleofuge. For pyrolytic eliminations there are two principal mechanisms, one pericyclic and the other a free-radical pathway. A few photochemical eliminations are also known (the most important is Norrish type II cleavage of ketones, p. 318), but these are not generally of synthetic importance[2] and will not be discussed further. In most β eliminations, the new bonds are C=C or C≡C; our discussion of mechanisms is largely confined to these cases.[3] Mechanisms in solution (E2, E1)[4] and E1cB are discussed first.

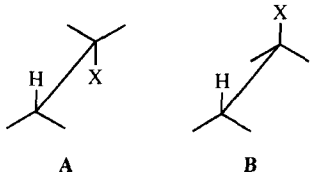
The E2 Mechanism

In the E2 mechanism (elimination, bimolecular), the two groups depart simultaneously, with the proton being pulled off by a base:



The mechanism thus takes place in one step and kinetically is second order: first order in substrate and first order in base. An *ab initio* study has produced a model for the E2 transition state geometry.[5] The IUPAC designation is $A_{xH}D_HD_N$, or more generally (to include cases where the electrofuge is not hydrogen), $A_nD_ED_N$. It is analogous to the S_N2 mechanism (p. 390) and often competes with it. With respect to the substrate, the difference between the two pathways is whether the species with the unshared pair attacks the carbon (and thus acts as a nucleophile) or the hydrogen (and thus acts as a base). As in the case of the S_N2 mechanism, the leaving group may be positive or neutral and the base may be negatively charged or neutral.

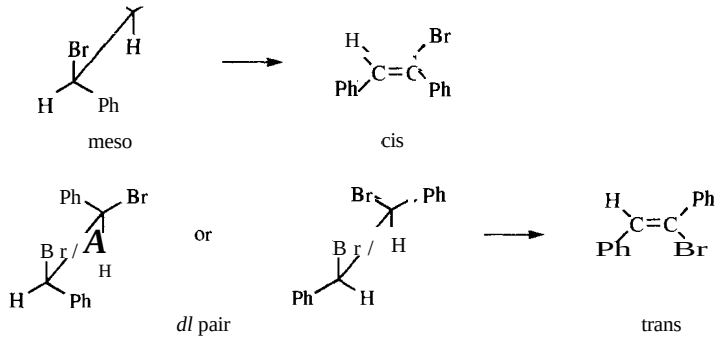
Among the evidence for the existence of the E2 mechanism are (1) the reaction displays the proper second-order kinetics; (2) when the hydrogen is replaced by deuterium in second-order eliminations, there is an isotope effect of from 3 to 8, consistent with breaking of this bond in the rate-determining step.[6] However, neither of these results alone could prove an E2 mechanism, since both are compatible with other mechanisms also (e.g., see E1cB p. 1308). The most compelling evidence for the E2 mechanism is found in stereochemical studies.[7] As will be illustrated in the examples below, the E2 mechanism is stereospecific: the five atoms involved (including the base) in the transition state must be in one plane. There are two ways for this to happen. The H and X may be trans to one another (A) with a dihedral angle



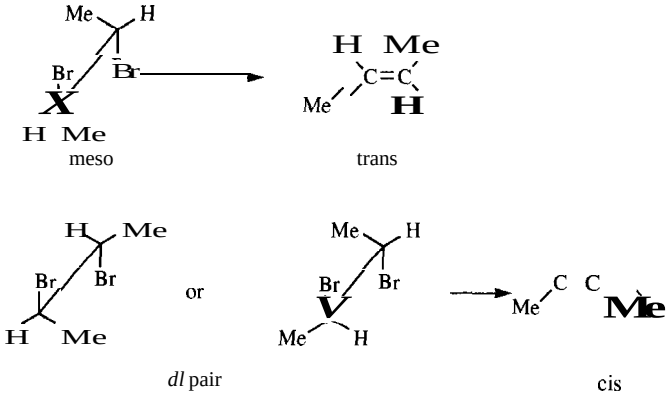
A **B**

of 180°, or they may be cis (B) with a dihedral angle of 0°.[8] Conformation A is called *anti-periplanar*, and this type of elimination, in which H and X depart in opposite directions, is called *anti elimination.* Conformation B is *syn-periplanar*, and this type of elimination, with H and X leaving in the same direction, is called *syn elimination.* Many examples of both kinds have been discovered. In the absence of special effects (discussed below) anti elimination is usually greatly favored over syn elimination, probably because A is a staggered conformation (p. 168) and the molecule requires less energy to reach this transition state than it does to reach the eclipsed transition state B. A few of the many known examples of predominant or exclusive anti elimination follow.

1. Elimination of HBr from *meso*-1,2-dibromo-1,2-diphenylethane gave *cis*-2-bromostilbene, while the (+) or (-) isomer gave the trans alkene. This stereospecific result, which was obtained in 1904,[9] demonstrates that in this

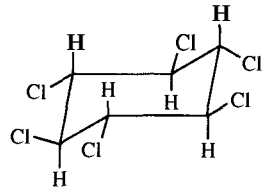


case elimination is anti. Many similar examples have been discovered since. Obviously, this type of experiment need not be restricted to compounds that have a meso form. Anti elimination requires that an erythro *dl* pair (or either isomer) give the cis alkene, and the threo *dl* pair (or either isomer) give the trans isomer, and this has been found many times. Anti elimination has also been demonstrated in cases where the electrofuge is not hydrogen. In the reaction of 2,3-dibromobutane with iodide ion, the two bromines are removed (17-22). In this case, the meso compound gave the trans alkene and the *dl* pair the cis:[10]



2. In open-chain compounds, the molecule can usually adopt that conformation in which H and X are anti periplanar. However, in cyclic systems this is not always the case. There are nine stereoisomers of 1,2,3,4,5,6-hexachlorocyclohexane: seven meso forms and a *dl* pair (see p. 161). Four of the meso compounds and the *dl* pair (all that were then known) were subjected to elimination of HC1. Only one of these (1) has no Cl trans to an H. Of the other isomers, the fastest elimination rate was about three times as fast as the

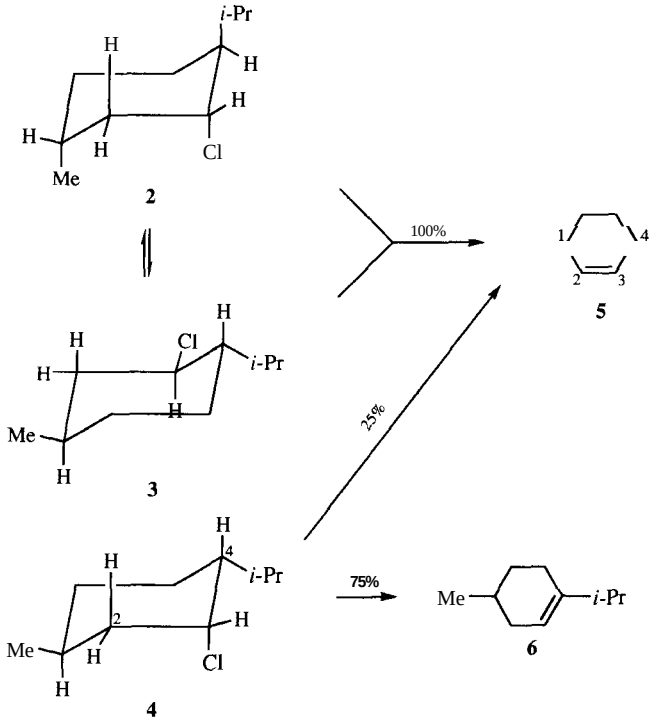
slowest, but the rate for 1 was 7000 times slower than that of the slowest of the other isomers.[11] This result demonstrates that with these compounds anti



1

elimination is greatly favored over syn elimination, though the latter must be taking place on 1, very slowly, to be sure.

3. The preceding result shows that elimination of HC1 in a six-membered ring proceeds best when the H and X are trans to each other. However, there is an additional restriction. Adjacent trans groups on a six-membered ring can be diaxial or diequatorial (p. 172) and the molecule is generally free to adopt either conformation, though one may have a higher energy than the other. Anti-periplanarity of the leaving groups requires that they be diaxial, even if this is the conformation of higher energy. The results with menthyl and neomenthyl chlorides are easily



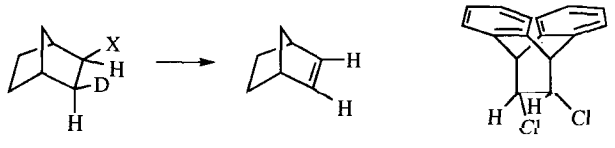
interpretable on this basis. Menthyl chloride has two chair conformations, 2 and 3. Compound 3, in which the three substituents are all equatorial, is the

more stable. The more stable chair conformation of neomenthyl chloride is 4, in which the chlorine is axial; there are axial hydrogens on both C-2 and C-4. The results are neomenthyl chloride gives rapid E2 elimination and the alkene produced is predominantly 6 (6/5 ratio is ~ 3:1) in accord with Zaitsev's rule (p. 1314). Since an axial hydrogen is available on both sides, this factor does not control the direction of elimination and Zaitsev's rule is free to operate. However, for menthyl chloride, elimination is much slower and the product is entirely the anti-Zaitsev 5. It is slow because the unfavorable conformation 2 has to be achieved before elimination can take place, and the product is 5 because only on this side is there an axial hydrogen.[12]

4. That anti elimination also occurs in the formation of triple bonds is shown by elimination from *cis*- and *trans*-HOOC–CH=CCl–COOH. In this case, the product in both cases is HOOCC≡CCOOH, but the trans isomer reacts about 50 times faster than the cis compound.[13]

Some examples of syn elimination have been found in molecules where H and X could not achieve an anti-periplanar conformation.

1. The deuterated norbornyl bromide (7, X = Br) gave 94% of the product containing no deuterium.[14] Similar results were obtained with other leaving groups and with bicyclo[2.2.2] compounds.[15] In these cases, the exo X group cannot achieve a dihedral angle of 180° with the endo β hydrogen because of the rigid structure of the molecule. The dihedral angle here is ~ 120°. These leaving groups prefer syn elimination with a dihedral angle of ~ 0° to anti elimination with an angle of ~ 120°.



7 8

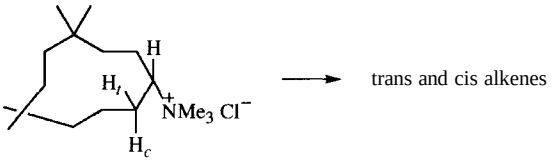
2. The molecule 8 is a particularly graphic example of the need for a planar transition state. In 8, each Cl has an adjacent hydrogen trans to it, and if planarity of leaving groups were not required, anti elimination could easily take place. However, the crowding of the rest of the molecule forces the dihedral angle to be ~ 120°, and elimination of HC1 from 8 is much slower than from corresponding nonbridged compounds.[16] (Note that syn elimination from 8 is even less likely than anti elimination.) Syn elimination can take place from the trans isomer of 8 (dihedral angle about 0°); this isomer reacted about eight times faster than **8**.[16]

The examples so far given illustrate two points. (1) Anti elimination *requires* a dihedral angle of 180°. When this angle cannot be achieved, anti elimination is greatly slowed or prevented entirely. (2) For the simple systems so far discussed syn

elimination is not found to any significant extent unless anti elimination is greatly diminished by failure to achieve the 180° angle.

As noted in Chapter 4 (p. 184), six-membered rings are the only ones among rings of 4-13 members in which strain-free anti-periplanar conformations can be achieved. It is not surprising, therefore, that syn elimination is least common in six-membered rings. Cooke and Coke subjected cycloalkyltrimethylammonium hydroxides to elimination (17-6) and found the following percentages of syn elimination with ring size: four-membered, 90%; five-membered, 46%; six-membered, 4% seven-membered, 31–37%.[17] It should be noted that the NMe_3^+ group has a greater tendency to syn elimination than do other common leaving groups such as OTs, Cl, and Br.

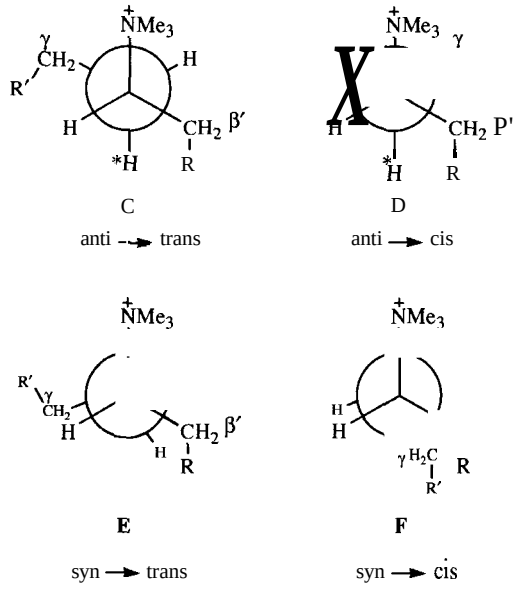
Other examples of syn elimination have been found in medium-ring compounds, where both cis and trans alkenes are possible (p. 158). As an illustration, we can look at experiments performed by Závada et al.[18] These workers subjected 1,1,4,4-tetramethyl-7-cyclodecyltrimethylammonium chloride (9) to elimination and



9

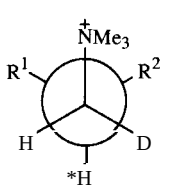
obtained mostly *trans*- but also some *cis*-tetramethylcyclodecenes as products. (Note that *trans*-cyclodecenes, though stable, are less stable than the cis isomers.) In order to determine the stereochemistry of the reaction, they repeated the elimination, this time using deuterated substrates. They found that when 9 was deuterated in the trans position (H_t = D), there was a substantial isotope effect in the formation of *both* cis and trans alkenes, but when 9 was deuterated in the cis position (H_c = D), there was *no* isotope effect in the formation of either alkene. Since an isotope effect is expected for an E2 mechanism,[19] these results indicated that *only* the trans hydrogen (H_t) was lost, whether the product was the cis or the trans isomer.[20] This in turn means that *the cis isomer must have been formed by anti elimination and the trans isomer by syn elimination.* (Anti elimination could take place from approximately the conformation shown, but for syn elimination the molecule must twist into a conformation in which the C–H_t and C–NMe_3^+ bonds are syn-periplanar.) This remarkable result, called the *syn-anti dichotomy*, has also been demonstrated by other types of evidence.[21] The fact that syn elimination in this case predominates over anti (as indicated by the formation of trans isomer in greater amounts than cis) has been explained by conformational factors.[22] The syn-anti dichotomy has also been found in other medium-ring systems (8- to 12-membered),[23] though the effect is greatest for 10-membered rings. With leaving groups,[24] the extent of this behavior decreases in the order NMe_3^+ > OTs > Br > Cl, which parallels steric requirements. When the leaving group is uncharged, syn elimination is favored by strong bases and by weakly ionizing solvents.[25]

Syn elimination and the syn-anti dichotomy have also been found in open-chain systems, though to a lesser extent than in medium-ring compounds. For example, in the conversion of 3-hexyl-4-*d*-trimethylammonium ion to 3-hexene with potassium *sec*-butoxide, ~67% of the reaction followed the syn-anti dichotomy.[26] In general syn elimination in open-chain systems is only important in cases where certain types of steric effect are present. One such type is compounds in which substituents are found on both the β' and the *y* carbons (the unprimed letter refers to the branch in which the elimination takes place). The factors that cause these results are not completely understood, but the following conformational effects have been proposed as a partial explanation.[27] The two anti- and two syn-periplanar conformations are, for a quaternary ammonium salt:

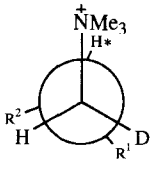


In order for an E2 mechanism to take place, a base must approach the proton marked *. In C, this proton is shielded on both sides by R and R'. In D, the shielding is on only one side. Therefore, when anti elimination does take place in such systems, it should give more cis product than trans. Also, when the normal anti elimination pathway is hindered sufficiently to allow the syn pathway to compete, the anti → trans route should be diminished more than the anti → cis route. When syn elimination begins to appear, it seems clear that E, which is less eclipsed than F, should be the favored pathway and syn elimination should generally give the trans isomer. In general, deviations from the syn-anti dichotomy are greater on the trans side than on the cis. Thus, trans alkenes are formed partly or mainly by syn elimination, but cis alkenes are formed entirely by anti elimination. Predominant syn elimination has also been found in compounds of the form $R^1R^2CHCHDNMe_3^+$, where R^1 and R^2 are both bulky.[28] In this case also, the conformation leading to syn elimination (H) is less strained than G, which gives anti elimination. Compound G

has three bulky groups (including NMe_3^+) in the *gauche* position to each other.

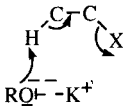


G



H

It was mentioned above that weakly ionizing solvents promote syn elimination when the leaving group is uncharged. This is probably caused by ion pairing, which is greatest in nonpolar solvents.[29] Ion pairing can



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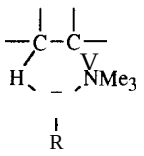
cause syn elimination with an uncharged leaving group by means of the transition state shown in 10. This effect was graphically illustrated by elimination from 1,1,4,4-tetramethyl-7-cyclodecyl bromide.[30] The ratio of syn to anti elimination when this compound was treated with *t*-BuOK in the nonpolar benzene was 55.0. But when the crown ether dicyclohexano-18-crown-6 was added (this compound selectively removes K^+ from the *t*-BuO^-K^+ ion pair and thus leaves *t*-BuO^- as a free ion), the syn/anti ratio decreased to 0.12. Large decreases in the syn/anti ratio on addition of the crown ether were also found with the corresponding tosylate and with other nonpolar solvents.[31] However, with positively charged leaving groups the effect is reversed. Here, ion pairing *increases* the amount of anti elimination.[32] In this case a relatively free base (e.g., PhO~) can be attracted to the leaving group, putting it in a favorable position for attack on the syn β hydrogen, while ion pairing would reduce this attraction.

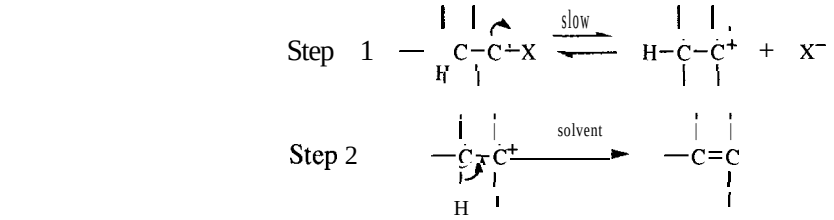


We can conclude that anti elimination is generally favored in the E2 mechanism, but that steric (inability to form the anti-periplanar transition state), conformational, ion pairing, and other factors cause syn elimination to intervene (and even predominate) in some cases.

The E1 Mechanism

The El mechanism is a two-step process in which the rate-determining step is ionization of the substrate to give a carbocation that rapidly loses a β proton to a base,

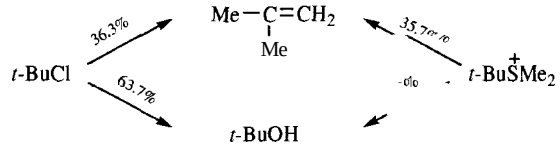
usually the solvent:



The IUPAC designation is D_N+D_E (or D_N+D_H). This mechanism normally operates without an *added* base. Just as the E2 mechanism is analogous to and competes with the S_N2, SO is the El mechanism related to the S_N1. In fact, the first step of the El is exactly the same as that of the S_N1 mechanism. The second step differs in that the solvent pulls a proton from the β carbon of the carbocation rather than attacking it at the positively charged carbon, as in the S_N1 process. In a pure El reaction (i.e., without ion pairs), the product should be completely nonstereospecific, since the carbocation is free to adopt its most stable conformation before giving up the proton.

Some of the evidence for the El mechanism is as follows:

1. The reaction exhibits first-order kinetics (in substrate) as expected. Of course the solvent is not expected to appear in the rate equation, even if it were involved in the rate-determining step (p. 291), but this point can be easily checked by adding a small amount of the conjugate base of the solvent. It is generally found that such an addition does not increase the rate of the reaction. If this more powerful base does not enter into the rate-determining step, it is unlikely that the solvent does. An example of an El mechanism with a rate-determining second step (proton transfer) has been reported.[33]
2. If the reaction is performed on two molecules that differ only in the leaving group (e.g., *t*-BuCl and *t*-BuSMe$_2^+$), the rates should obviously be different, since they depend on the ionizing ability of the molecule. However, once the carbocation is formed, if the solvent and the temperature are the same, it should suffer the same fate in both cases, since the nature of the leaving group does not affect the second step. This means that *the ratio of elimination to substitution should be the same.* The compounds mentioned in the example were solvolyzed at 65.3°C in 80% aqueous ethanol with the following results:[34]



Although the rates were greatly different (as expected with such different leaving groups), the product ratios were the same, within 1%. If this had taken place by a second-order mechanism, the nucleophile would not be expected to have the same ratio of preference for attack at the β hydrogen compared to

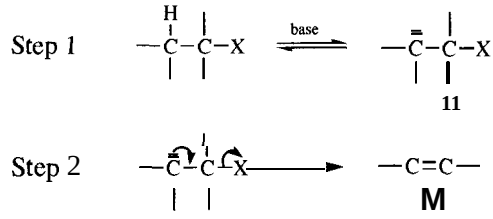
attack at a *neutral* chloride as for attack at the β hydrogen compared to attack at a *positive* SMe_2 group.

3. Many reactions carried out under first-order conditions on systems where E2 elimination is anti proceed quite readily to give alkenes where a cis hydrogen must be removed, often in preference to the removal of a trans hydrogen. For example, menthyl chloride (2, p. 1302), which by the E2 mechanism gave only 5, under El conditions gave 68% 6 and 32% 5, since the steric nature of the hydrogen is no longer a factor here, and the more stable alkene (Zaitsev's rule, p. 1314) is predominantly formed.
4. If carbocations are intermediates, we should expect rearrangements with suitable substrates. These have often been found in elimination reactions performed under El conditions.

The El reactions can involve ion pairs, just as is true for S_N1 reactions (p. 398).[35] This effect is naturally greatest for nondissociating solvents: it is least in water, greater in ethanol, and greater still in acetic acid. It has been proposed that the ion-pair mechanism (p. 400) extends to elimination reactions too, and that the S_N1, S_N2, El, and E2 mechanisms possess in common an ion-pair intermediate, at least occasionally.[36]

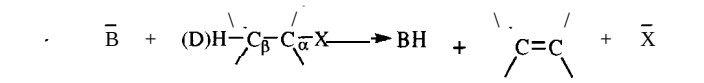
The E1cB Mechanism[37]

In the El mechanism, X leaves first, and then H. In the E2 mechanism, the two groups leave at the same time. There is a third possibility: the H leaves first, and then the X. This is a two-step process, called the *ElcB mechanism*, or the *carbanion mechanism*, since the intermediate is a carbanion:



The name ElcB comes from the fact that it is the conjugate base of the substrate that is giving up the leaving group (see the S_N1cB mechanism, p. 449). The IUPAC designation is $A_nD_E + D_N$ or $A_{xh}D_H + D_N$ (see p. 384). We can distinguish three limiting cases: (1) The carbanion returns to starting material faster than it forms product: step 1 is reversible; step 2 is slow. (2) Step 1 is the slow step, and formation of product is faster than return of the carbanion to starting material. In this case, step 1 is essentially irreversible. (3) Step 1 is rapid, and the carbanion goes slowly to product. This case occurs only with the most stable carbanions. Here, too, step 1 is essentially irreversible. These cases have been given the designations: (1) $(E1cB)_R$, (2) $(E1cB)_I$ (or $E1cB_{irr}$), and (3) $(E1)_{anion}$. Their characteristics are listed in Table 17.1.[38] Investigations of the reaction order are generally not very useful (except for

TABLE 17.1 Kinetic Predictions for Base-Induced β-Eliminations[38]



Mechanism	Kinetic[a] Order	β-Hydrogen Exchange Faster Than Elimination	General or Specific Base Catalysis	k_H/k_D	Electron Withdrawal at C_β[b]	Electron Release at C_α[b]	Leaving-Group Isotope Effect or Element Effect
$(E1)_{anion}$	1	Yes	General[c]	1.0	Rate decrease	Rate increase	Substantial
$(E1cB)_R$	2	Yes	Specific	1.0	Small rate increase	Small rate increase	Substantial
$(E1cB)_{ip}$	2	No	General[d]	1.0 → 1.2	Small rate increase	Small rate increase	Substantial
$(E1cB)_I$	2	No	General	2 → 8	Rate increase	Little effect	Small to negligible
E2[e]	2	No	General	2 → 8	Rate increase	Small rate increase	Small

[a] All mechanism exhibit first-order kinetics in substrate.
[b] Effect on rate assuming no change in mechanism is caused; steric factors upon substitution at C_α and rise to C_β have not been considered. The rate reductions are geared to substituent effects such as those giving rise to Hammett reaction constants on β- and α-aryl substitution.
[c] Specific base catalysis is predicted if the extent of substrate ionization is reduced from almost complete.
[d] Depends on whether an ion pair assists in removal of leaving group.
[e] Only transition states with considerable carbanion character are considered in this table.

case 3 which is first order), because cases 1 and 2 are second order and thus difficult or impossible to distinguish from the E2 mechanism by this procedure.[39] We would expect the greatest likelihood of finding the E1cB mechanism in substrates that have (a) a poor nucleofuge and (b) an acidic hydrogen, and most investigations have concerned such substrates. The following is some of the evidence in support of the E1cB mechanism:

1. The first step of the $(E1cB)_R$ mechanism involves a reversible exchange of protons between the substrate and the base. In that case, if deuterium is present in the base, recovered starting material should contain deuterium. This was found to be the case in the treatment of $Cl_2C{=}CHCl$ with NaOD to give $ClC{\equiv}CCl$. When the reaction was stopped before completion, there *was* deuterium in the recovered alkene.[40] A similar result was found for pentahaloethanes.[41] These substrates are relatively acidic. In both cases, the electron-withdrawing halogens increase the acidity of the hydrogen, and in the case of trichloroethylene there is the additional factor that a hydrogen on an sp^2 carbon is more acidic than one on an sp^3 carbon (p. 347). Thus, the E1cB mechanism is more likely to be found in eliminations yielding triple

bonds than in those giving double bonds. Another likely place for the E1cB mechanism should be in reaction of a substrate like $PhCH_2CH_2Br$, since the carbanion is stabilized by resonance with the phenyl group. Nevertheless, no deuterium exchange was found here.[42] If this type of evidence is a guide, then it may be inferred that the $(E1cB)_R$ mechanism is quite rare, at least for eliminations with common leaving groups such as Br, Cl, or OTs, which yield C=C double bonds.

2. When the reaction was carried out in water containing acetohydroxamate

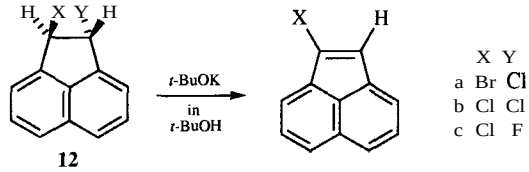
$$p\text{-}NO_2C_6H_4{-}CH_2{-}CH_2{-}\overset{+}{N}R_4 + B^- \longrightarrow p\text{-}NO_2C_6H_4{-}CH{=}CH_2 + BH + NR_3$$

buffers, a plot of the rate against the buffer concentration was curved and the rate leveled off at high buffer concentrations, indicating a change in rate-determining step.[43] This rules out an E2 mechanism, which has only one step. When D_2O was used instead of H_2O as solvent, there was an initial inverse solvent isotope effect of 7.7 (the highest inverse solvent isotope effect yet reported). That is, the reaction took place faster in D_2O than in H_2O. This is compatible only with an E1cB mechanism in which the proton-transfer step is not entirely rate determining. The isotope effect arises from a partitioning of the carbanion intermediate (11). This intermediate either can go to product or it can revert to starting compound, which requires taking a proton from the solvent. In D_2O, the latter process is slower (because the O—D bond of D_2O cleaves less easily than the O—H bond of H_2O), reducing the rate at which 11 returns to starting compound. With the return reaction competing less effectively, the rate of conversion of 11 to product is increased.

3. We have predicted that the E1cB mechanism would be most likely to be found with substrates containing acidic hydrogens and poor leaving groups. Compounds of the type ZCH_2CH_2OPh, where Z is an electron-withdrawing group (e.g., NO_2, SMe_2^+, $ArSO_2$, CN, and COOR), belong to this category, because OPh is a very poor leaving group (p. 446). There is much evidence to show that the mechanism here is indeed E1cB.[44] Isotope effects, measured for $MeSOCD_2CH_2OPh$ and $Me_2S^+CD_2CH_2OPh$ with NaOD in D_2O, are ~ 0.7. This is compatible with an (E1cB)R mechanism, but not with an E2 mechanism for which an isotope effect of perhaps 5 might be expected (of course, an E1 mechanism is precluded by the extremely poor nucleofugal ability of OPh). The fact that k_H/k_D is less than the expected value of 1 is attributable to solvent and secondary isotope effects. Among other evidence for an E1cB mechanism in these systems is that changes in the identity of Z had a dramatic effect on the relative rates: a span of 10^{11} between NO_2 and COO". Note that elimination from substrates of the type $RCOCH_2CH_2Y$ is the reverse of Michael-type addition to C=C bonds. We have seen (p. 975) that such addition involves initial attack by a nucleophile Y and subsequent attack by a proton. Thus the initial loss of a proton from substrates of this type (i.e., an E1cB mechanism) is in accord with the principle of microscopic reversibility.[45] It may also be recalled that benzyne formation (p. 855) can

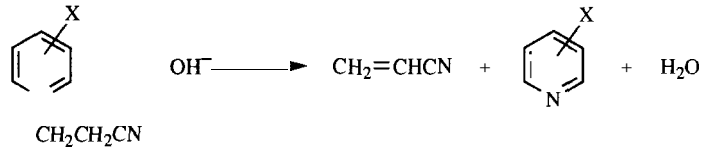
occur by such a process. It has been suggested that all base-initiated eliminations wherein the proton is activated by a strong electron-withdrawing group are E1cB reactions,[46] but there is evidence that this is not the case that when there is a good nucleofuge, the mechanism is E2 even when strong electron-withdrawing groups are present.[47] On the other hand, Cl^- has been found to be a leaving group in an E1cB reaction.[48]

Of the three cases of the E1cB mechanism, the one most difficult to distinguish from E2 is $(E1cB)_I$. One way to make this distinction is to study the effect of a change in leaving group. This was done in the case of the three acenaphthylenes (12), where it was found that (1) the three rates were fairly similar, the largest being only about four times that of the smallest, and (2) in



12

compound **12c** (X = Cl, Y = F), the only product contained Cl and no F, that is, only the poorer nucleofuge F departed while Cl remained.[49] Result (1) rules out all the E1cB mechanisms except $(E1cB)_I$, because the others should all have considerable leaving group effects (Table 17.1). An ordinary E2 mechanism should also have a large leaving group effect, but an E2 mechanism with substantial carbanionic character (see the next section) might not. However, no E2 mechanism can explain result (2), which can be explained by the fact that an a Cl is more effective than an a F in stabilizing the planar carbanion that remains when the proton is lost. Thus (as in the somewhat similar case of aromatic nucleophilic substitution, see p. 860), when X^- leaves in the second step, the one that leaves is not determined by which is the better nucleofuge, but by which has had its β hydrogen removed.[50] Additional evidence for the existence of the $(E1cB)_I$ mechanism was the observation of a change in the rate-determining step in the elimination reaction of *N-(2*-cyanoethyl)pyridinium ions (13), treated with base, when X was changed.[51]



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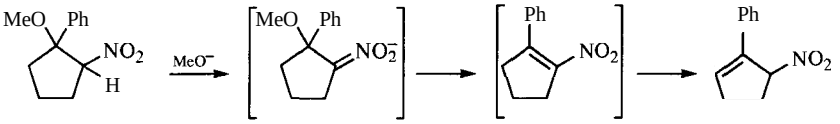
Once again, the demonstration that two steps are involved precludes the one-step E2 mechanism.

4. An example of an $(E1)_{anion}$ mechanism has been found with the substrate 14, which when treated with methoxide ion undergoes elimination to 16, which is

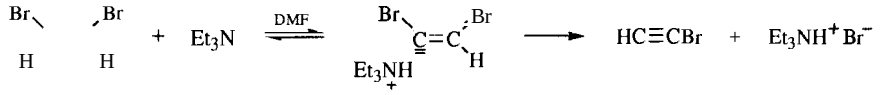
unstable under the reaction conditions and rearranges as shown.[52] Among the evidence for the proposed mechanism in this case were kinetic and isotope-effect results, as well as the spectral detection of 15.[53]



14 15 16

5. In many eliminations to form C=O and C≡N bonds the initial step is loss of a positive group (normally a proton) from the oxygen or nitrogen. These may also be regarded as E1cB processes.

There is evidence that some E1cB mechanisms can involve carbanion ion pairs, for example,[54]



This case is designated $(E1cB)_{ip}$; its characteristics are shown in Table 17.1.

The E1-E2-E1cB Spectrum

In the three mechanisms so far considered the similarities are greater than the differences. In each case, there is a leaving group that comes off with its pair of electrons and another group (usually hydrogen) that comes off without them. The only difference is in the order of the steps. It is now generally accepted that there is a spectrum of mechanisms ranging from one extreme, in which the leaving group departs well before the proton (pure E1), to the other extreme, in which the proton comes off first and then, after some time, the leaving group follows (pure E1cB). The *pure* E2 case would be somewhere in the middle, with both groups leaving simultaneously. However, most E2 reactions are not exactly in the middle, but somewhere to one side or the other. For example, the nucleofuge might depart just before the proton. This case may be described as an E2 reaction with a small amount of E1 character. The concept can be expressed by the question: In the transition state, which bond (C—H or C—X) has undergone more cleavage?[55]

One way to determine just where a given reaction stands on the E1–E2–E1cB spectrum is to study isotope effects, which ought to tell something about the behavior of bonds in the transition state.[56] For example, $CH_3CH_2NMe_3^+$ showed a nitrogen isotope effect (k^{14}/k^{15}) of 1.017, while $PhCH_2CH_2NMe_3^+$ gave a corresponding value of 1.009.[57] It would be expected that the phenyl group would move the reaction toward the E1cB side of the line, which means that for this compound the C-N bond is not as greatly broken in the transition state as it is for the unsubstituted one. The isotope effect bears this out, for it shows that in the phenyl compound, the mass of the nitrogen has less effect on the reaction rate than it does in

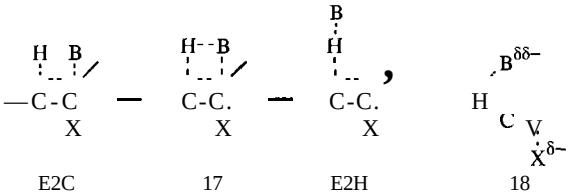
the unsubstituted compound. Similar results have been obtained with SR_2^+ leaving groups by the use of $^{32}S/^{34}S$ isotope effects[58] and with Cl ($^{35}Cl/^{37}Cl$).[59] The position of reactions along the spectrum has also been studied from the other side of the newly forming double bond by the use of H/D and H/T isotope effects,[60] though interpretation of these results is clouded by the fact that |3 hydrogen isotope effects are expected to change smoothly from small to large to small again as the degree of transfer of the |3 hydrogen from the β carbon to the base increases[61] [recall (p. 298) that isotope effects are greatest when the proton is half-transferred in the transition state], by the possibility of secondary isotope effects (e.g., the presence of a β deuterium or tritium may cause the leaving group to depart more slowly), and by the possibility of tunneling (see footnote 61 in Chapter 6).[62] Other isotope-effect studies have involved labeled a or |3 carbon, labeled a hydrogen, or labeled base.[56]

Another way to study the position of a given reaction on the spectrum involves the use of β aryl substitution. Since a positive Hammet p value is an indication of a negatively charged transition state, the p value for substituted |3 aryl groups should increase as a reaction moves from El-like to E1cB-like along the spectrum. This has been shown to be the case in a number of studies;[63] for example., p values of $ArCH_2CH_2X$ increase as the leaving-group ability of X decreases. A typical set of p values was X = I, 2.07; Br, 2.14; Cl, 2.61; SMe_2^+, 2.75; F, 3.12.[64] As we have seen, decreasing leaving-group ability correlates with increasing E1cB character.

Still another method measures volumes of activation.[65] These are negative for E2 and positive for E1cB mechanisms. Measurement of the activation volume therefore provides a continuous scale for deciding just where a reaction lies on the spectrum.

The E2C Mechanism[66]

Certain alkyl halides and tosylates undergo E2 eliminations faster when treated with such weak bases as Cl^- in polar aprotic solvents or PhS^- than with the usual E2 strong bases such as RO^- in ROH.[67] In order to explain these results Parker et al.[68] proposed that there is a spectrum[69] of E2 transition states in which the base can interact in the transition state with the α carbon as well as with the β hydrogen. At one end of this spectrum is a mechanism (called E2C) in which, in the transition



E2C 17 E2H 18

state, the base interacts mainly with the carbon. The E2C mechanism is characterized by strong nucleophiles that are weak bases. At the other extreme is the normal E2 mechanism, here called E2H to distinguish it from E2C, characterized by strong bases. Compound 17 represents a transition state between these extremes. Additional evidence[70] for the E2C mechanism is derived from Br0nsted equation

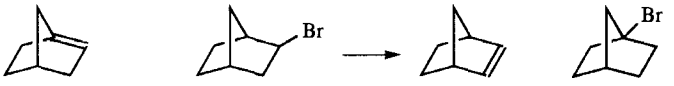
considerations (p. 337), from substrate effects, from isotope effects, and from the effects of solvents on rates.

However, the E2C mechanism has been criticized, and it has been contended that all the experimental results can be explained by the normal E2 mechanism.[71] McLennan suggested that the transition state is that shown as 18.[72] An ion-pair mechanism has also been proposed.[73] Although the actual mechanisms involved may be a matter of controversy, there is no doubt that a class of elimination reactions exists that is characterized by second-order attack by weak bases.[74] These reactions also have the following general characteristics:[75] (1) they are favored by good leaving groups; (2) they are favored by polar aprotic solvents; (3) the reactivity order is tertiary > secondary > primary, the opposite of the normal E2 order (p. 1319); (4) the elimination is always anti (syn elimination is not found), but in cyclohexyl systems, a diequatorial anti elimination is about as favorable as a diaxial anti elimination (unlike the normal E2 reaction, p. 1302); (5) they follow Zaitsev's rule (see below), where this does not conflict with the requirement for anti elimination.

Orientation of the Double Bond

With some substrates, a |3 hydrogen is present on only one carbon and (barring rearrangements) there is no doubt as to the identity of the product .For example, $PhCH_2CH_2Br$ can give only $PhCH{=}CH_2$. However, in many other cases two or three alkenyl products are possible. In the simplest such case, a sec-butyl compound can give either 1-butene or 2-butene. There are a number of rules that enable us to predict, in many instances, which product will predominantly form.[76]

1. No matter what the mechanism, a double bond does not go to a bridgehead carbon unless the ring sizes are large enough (Bredt's rule, see p. 188). This means, for example, not only that 19 gives only 20 and not 21 (indeed 21 is not a known compound), but also that 22 does not undergo elimination.



21 **19** **20** **22**

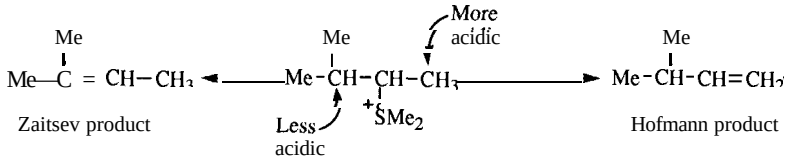
2. No matter what the mechanism, if there is a double bond *(C═C* or C=O) or an aromatic ring already in the molecule that can be in conjugation with the new double bond, the conjugated product usually predominates, sometimes even when the stereochemistry is unfavorable (for an exception, see p. 1317).
3. In the El mechanism, the leaving group is gone before the choice is made as to which direction the new double bond takes. Therefore the direction is determined almost entirely by the relative stabilities of the two (or three) possible alkenes. In such cases *Zaitsev's rule*[77] operates. This rule states that *the double bond goes mainly toward the most highly substituted carbon.* That

is, a *sec-butyl* compound gives more 2-butene than 1-butene, and 3-bromo-2,3-dimethylpentane gives more 2,3-dimethyl-2-pentene than either 3,4-dimethyl-2-pentene or 2-ethyl-3-methyl-l-butene. Thus Zaitsev's rule predicts that the alkene predominantly formed will be the one with the largest possible number of alkyl groups on the *C=C* carbons, and in most cases this is what is found. From heat of combustion data (see p. 24) it is known that alkene stability increases with alkyl substitution, though just why this should be is a matter of conjecture. The most common explanation is hyperconjugation. For El eliminations, Zaitsev's rule governs the orientation whether the leaving group is neutral or positive, since, as already mentioned, the leaving group is not present when the choice of direction is made. This statement does not hold for E2 eliminations, and it may be mentioned here, for contrast with later results, that El elimination of $Me_2CHCHMeSMe_2^+$ gave 91% of the Zaitsev product and 9% of the other.[78] However, there *are* cases in which the leaving group affects the direction of the double bond in El eliminations.[79] This may be attributed to ion pairs; that is, the leaving group is not completely gone when the hydrogen departs. Zaitsev's rule breaks down in cases where the non-Zaitsev product is more stable for steric reasons. For example, El or El like eliminations of l,2-diphenyl-2-X-propanes ($PhMeCXCH_2Ph$) were reported to give ~50% $CH_2{=}CPhCH_2Ph$, despite the fact that the double bond of the Zaitsev product ($PhMeC{=}CHPh$) is conjugated with two benzene rings.[80]

4. For the anti E2 mechanism a trans (3 proton is necessary; if this is available in only one direction, that is the way the double bond will form. Because of the free rotation in acyclic systems (except where steric hindrance is great), this is a factor only in cyclic systems. Where trans (3 hydrogens are available on two or three carbons, two types of behavior are found, depending on substrate structure and the nature of the leaving group. Some compounds follow Zaitsev's rule and give predominant formation of the most highly substituted alkene, but others follow *Hofmann's rule: The double bond goes mainly toward the least highly substituted carbon.* Though many exceptions are known, the following general statements can be made: In most cases, compounds containing uncharged nucleofuges (those that come off as negative ions) follow Zaitsev's rule, just as they do in El elimination, no matter what the structure of the substrate. However, elimination from compounds with charged nucleofuges (e.g., NR_3^+, SR_2^+) (those that come off as neutral molecules), follow Hofmann's rule if the substrate is acyclic,[81] but Zaitsev's rule if the leaving group is attached to a six-membered ring.[82]

Much work has been devoted to searching for the reasons for the differences in orientation. Since Zaitsev orientation almost always gives the thermodynamically more stable isomer, what needs to be explained is why in some cases the less stable Hofmann product predominates. Three explanations have been offered for the change in orientation in acyclic systems with a change from uncharged to charged nucleofuges. The first of these, by Hughes

and Ingold,[83] is that Hofmann orientation is caused by the fact that the acidity of the (3 hydrogen is decreased by the presence of the electron-donating alkyl groups. For example, under E2 conditions $Me_2CHCHMeSMe_2^+$ gives more of the Hofmann product; it is the more acidic hydrogen that is removed by the base.



Of course, the CH_3 hydrogens would still be more acidic than the Me_2CH hydrogen even if a neutral leaving group were present, but the explanation of Hughes and Ingold is that acidity matters with charged and not with neutral leaving groups, because the charged groups exert a strong electron-withdrawing effect, making differences in acidity greater than they are with the less electron-withdrawing neutral groups.83 The explanation of Bunnett[84] is similar. According to this, the change to a positive leaving group causes the mechanism to shift toward the E1 cB end of the spectrum, where there is more C—H bond breaking in the rate-determining step and where, consequently, acidity is more important. In this view, when there is a neutral leaving group, the mechanism is more El like, C—X bond breaking is more important, and alkene stability determines the direction of the new double bond. The third explanation, by Brown,[85,86] is completely different. In this picture, field effects are unimportant, and the difference in orientation is largely a steric effect caused by the fact that charged groups are usually larger than neutral ones. A CH_3 group is more open to attack than a CH_2R group and a CHR_2 group is still less easily attacked. Of course, these considerations also apply when the leaving group is neutral, but, according to Brown, they are much less important here because the neutral groups are smaller and do not block access to the hydrogens as much. Brown showed that Hofmann elimination increases with the size of the leaving group. Thus the percentage of 1-ene obtained from $CH_3CH_2CH_2CHXCH_3$ was as follows (X listed in order of increasing size): Br, 31%; I, 30%; OTs, 48%; SMe_2^+, 87%; SO_2Me, 89%; NMe_3^+, 98%.[85] Hofmann elimination was also shown to increase with increase in bulk of the substrate.[86] With large enough compounds, Hofmann orientation can be obtained even with halides (e.g., *tert*-amyl bromide gave 89% of the Hofmann product). Even those who believe in the acidity explanations concede that these steric factors operate in extreme cases.[87]

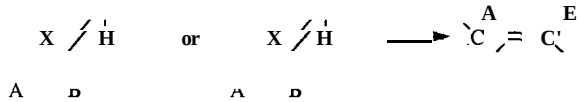
There is one series of results incompatible with the steric explanation—E2 elimination from the four 2-halopentanes gave the following percentages of 1-pentene: F, 83%; Cl, 37%; Br, 25%; I, 20%.[88] The same order was found for the four-2-halohexanes.[89] Although there is some doubt about the relative steric requirements of Br, Cl, and I, there is no doubt that F is the smallest of the halogens, and if the steric explanation were the only valid one, the

fluoroalkanes could not give predominant Hofmann orientation. Another result that argues against the steric explanation is the effect of changing the nature of the base. An experiment in which the effective size of the base was kept constant while its basicity was increased (by using as bases a series of $XC_6H_4O^-$ ions) showed that the percentage of Hofmann elimination increased with increasing base strength, though the size of the base did not change.[90] These results are in accord with the explanation of Bunnett, since an increase in base strength moves an E2 reaction closer to the E1cB end of the spectrum. In further experiments, a large series of bases of different kinds was shown to obey linear free energy relationships between basicity and percentage of Hofmann elimination,[91] though certain very large bases (e.g., 2,6-di-*tert*-butyl-phenoxide) did not obey the relationships, steric effects becoming important in these cases. How large the base must be before steric effects are observed depends on the pattern of alkyl substitution in the substrate, but not on the nucleofuge.[92] One further result may be noted. In the gas phase, elimination of H and BrH^+ or H and ClH^+ using Me_3N as the base predominantly followed Hofmann's rule,[93] although BrH^+ and ClH^+ are not very large.

5. Only a few investigations on the orientation of syn E2 eliminations have been carried out, but these show that Hofmann orientation is greatly favored over Zaitsev.[94]
6. In the E1cB mechanism the question of orientation seldom arises because the mechanism is generally found only where there is an electron-withdrawing group in the (3 position, and that is where the double bond goes.
7. As already mentioned, E2C reactions show a strong preference for Zaitsev orientation.[95] In some cases, this can be put to preparative use. For example, the compound $PhCH_2CHOTsCHMe_2$ gave ~98% $PhCH{=}CHCHMe_2$ under the usual E2 reaction conditions (f-BuOK in f-BuOH). In this case the double bond goes to the side with more hydrogens because on that side it will be able to conjugate with the benzene ring. However, with the weak base $Bu_4N^+ Br^-$ in acetone the Zaitsev product PhCH2CH=CMe2 was formed in 90% yield.[96]

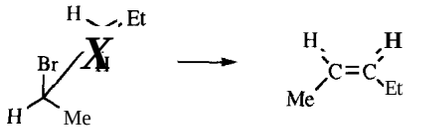
Steric Orientation of the Double Bond

When elimination takes place on a compound of the form $CH_3{-}CABX$ or CHAB–CGGX, the new alkene does not have cis-trans isomerism, but for compounds of the form CHEG-CABX (E and G *not* H) (23) and $CH_2E{-}CABX$ (24), cis and trans isomers arc possible. When the anti E2 mechanism is in operation,



23 24

23 gives the isomer arising from trans orientation of X and H and, as we have seen before (p. 1300), an erythro compound gives the cis alkene and a threo compound the trans. For 24, two conformations are possible for the transition state; these lead to different isomers and often both are obtained. However, the one that predominates is often determined by an eclipsing effect.[97] For example, Zaitsev elimination from 2-bromopentane can occur as follows:

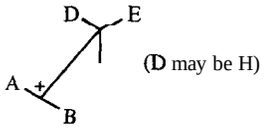


I 18%

J 51%

In conformation I the ethyl group is between Br and Me, while in J it is between Br and H. This means that J is more stable, and most of the elimination should occur from this conformation. This is indeed what happens, and 51% of the trans isomer is formed (with KOEt) compared to 18% of the cis (the rest is the Hofmann product).[98] These effects become larger with increasing size of A, B, and E.

However, eclipsing effects are not the only factors that affect the cis/trans ratio in anti E2 eliminations. Other factors are the nature of the leaving group, the base, the solvent, and the substrate. Not all these effects are completely understood.[99]



(D may be H)

25

For E1 eliminations, if there is a free carbocation (25), it is free to rotate, and no matter what the geometry of the original compound, the more stable situation is the one where the larger of the D-E pair is opposite the smaller of the A-B pair and the corresponding alkene should form. If the carbocation is not completely free, then to that extent, E2 type products are formed. Similar considerations apply in E1cB eliminations.[100]

REACTIVITY

In this section, we examine the effects of changes in the substrate, base, leaving group, and medium on (1) overall reactivity, (2) E1 versus E2 versus E1cB,[101] and (3) elimination versus substitution.

Effect of Substrate Structure

1. *Effect on Reactivity.* We refer to the carbon containing the nucleofuge (X) as the a carbon and to the carbon that loses the positive species as the (3 carbon. Groups attached to the α or (3 carbons can exert at least four kinds of influence:
   a. They can stabilize or destabilize the incipient double bond (both α and (3 groups).
   b. They can stabilize or destabilize an incipient negative charge, affecting the acidity of the proton ((3 groups only).
   c. They can stabilize or destabilize an incipient positive charge (a groups only).
   d. They can exert steric effects (e.g., eclipsing effects) (both oc and (3 groups).

   Effects (a) and (d) can apply in all three mechanisms, though steric effects are greatest for the E2 mechanism. Effect (b) does not apply in the El mechanism, and effect (c) does not apply in the E1cB mechanism. Groups such as Ar and C=C increase the rate by any mechanism, except perhaps when formation of the C=C bond is not the rate-determining step, whether they are α or (3 (effect a). Electron-withdrawing groups increase the acidity when in the β position, but have little effect in the a position unless they also conjugate with the double bond. Thus Br, Cl, CN, Ts, NO_2, CN, and SR in the (3 position all increase the rate of E2 eliminations.
2. *Effect on El versus E2 versus E1cB.* The oc alkyl and oc aryl groups stabilize the carbocation character of the transition state, shifting the spectrum toward the El end. The (3 alkyl groups also shift the mechanism toward E1, since they *decrease* the acidity of the hydrogen. However, (3 aryl groups shift the mechanism the other way (toward E1cB) by stabilizing the carbanion. Indeed, as we have seen (p. 1310), all electron-withdrawing groups in the (3 position shift the mechanism toward E1cB.[102] α alkyl groups also increase the extent of elimination with weak bases (E2C reactions).
3. *Effect on Elimination versus Substitution.* Under second-order conditions a branching increases elimination, to the point where tertiary substrates undergo few S_N2 reactions, as we saw in Chapter 10. For example, Table 17.2 shows results on some simple alkyl bromides. Similar results were obtained with SMe_2^+ as the leaving group.[103] Two reasons can be presented for this trend. One is statistical: as oc branching increases, there are usually more hydrogens for the base to attack. The other is that oc branching presents steric hindrance to attack of the base at the carbon. Under first-order conditions, increased a branching also increases the amount of elimination (El vs. S_N1), though not so much, and usually the substitution product predominates. For example, solvolysis of *tert*-butylbromide gave only 19% elimination (cf. with Table 17.2).[104] The β branching also increases the amount of E2 elimination with respect to S_N2 substitution (Table 17.2), not because elimination is faster but because the S_N2 mechanism is so greatly slowed (p. 431). Under first-

TABLE 17.2 The Effect of a **and β Branching** on the **Rate of E2 Elimination and the** Amount **of Alkene Formed**[a]

Substrate	Temperature (°C)	Alkene (%)	Rate x 10^5 of E2 Reaction	Reference
CH_3CH_2Br	55	0.9	1.6	106
$(CH_3)_2CHBr$	24	80.3	0.237	107
$(CH_3)_3CBr$	25	97	4.17	105
$CH_3CH_2CH_2Br$	55	8.9	5.3	103
$(CH_3)_2CHCH_2Br$	55	59.5	8.5	103

[a]The reactions were between the alkyl bromide and OEt^-. The rate for isopropyl bromide was actually greater than that for ethyl bromide, if the temperature difference is considered. Neopentyl bromide, the next compound in the P-branching series, cannot be compared because it has no (3-hydrogen and cannot give an elimination product without rearrangement.

order conditions too, |3 branching favors elimination over substitution, probably for steric reasons.[105] However, E2 eliminations from compounds with charged leaving groups are slowed by |3 branching. This is related to Hofmann's rule (p. 1315). Electron-withdrawing groups in the |3 position not only increase the rate of E2 eliminations and shift the mechanisms toward the E1cB end of the spectrum but also increase the extent of elimination as opposed to substitution.

Effect of the Attacking Base

1. *Effect on El versus E2 versus ElcB.* In the El mechanism, an external base is generally not required: The solvent acts as the base. Hence, when external bases are added, the mechanism is shifted toward E2. Stronger bases and higher base concentrations cause the mechanism to move toward the ElcB end of the El-E2-ElcB spectrum.[108] However, weak bases in polar aprotic solvents can also be effective in elimination reactions with certain substrates (the E2C reaction). Normal E2 elimination has been accomplished with the following bases:[109] H_2O, NR_3, OH", OAc", OR", OAr^-, NH_2^-, CO_3^{2-}, $LiAlH_4$, I", CN^-, and organic bases. However, the only bases of preparative importance in the normal E2 reaction are OH", OR", and NH_2^-, usually in the conjugate acid as solvent, and certain amines. Weak bases effective in the E2C reaction are Cl~, Br^-, F^-, OAc", and RS^-. These bases are often used in the form of their R_4N^+ salts.
2. *Effect on Elimination versus Substitution.* Strong bases not only benefit E2 as against E1, but also benefit elimination as against substitution. With a high concentration of strong base in a nonionizing solvent, bimolecular mechanisms are favored and E2 predominates over S_N2. At low base concentrations, or in the absence of base altogether, in ionizing solvents, unimolecular mechanisms are favored, and the S_N1 mechanism predominates over the

E1. In Chapter 10, it was pointed out that some species are strong nucleophiles though weak bases (p. 439). The use of these obviously favors substitution, except that, as we have seen, elimination can predominate if polar aprotic solvents are used. It has been shown for the base CN^- that in polar aprotic solvents, the less the base is encumbered by its counterion in an ion pair (i.e., the freer the base), the more substitution is favored at the expense of elimination.[110]

Effect of the Leaving Group

1. *Effect on Reactivity.* The leaving groups in elimination reactions are similar to those in nucleophilic substitution. The E2 eliminations have been performed with the following groups: NR_3^+, PR_3^+, SR_2^+, OHR^+, SO_2R, OSO_2R, OCOR, OOH OOR, NO_2,[111] F, Cl, Br, I, and CN *(not* OH_2^+. The El eliminations have been carried out with: NR_3^+, SR_2^+, OH_2^+, OHR^+, OSO_2R, OCOR, Cl, Br, I, and N_2^+.[112] However, the major leaving groups for preparative purposes are OH_2^+ (always by E1) and Cl, Br, I, and NR_3^+ (usually by E2).
2. *Effect on El versus E2 versus E1cB.* Better leaving groups shift the mechanism toward the El end of the spectrum, since they make ionization easier. This effect has been studied in various ways. One way already mentioned was a study of p values (p. 1313). Poor leaving groups and positively charged leaving groups shift the mechanism toward the E1cB end of the spectrum because the strong electron-withdrawing field effects increase the acidity of the (3 hydrogen.[113] The E2C reaction is favored by good leaving groups.
3. *Effect on Elimination versus Substitution.* As we have already seen (p. 1307), for first-order reactions the leaving group has nothing to do with the competition between elimination and substitution, since it is gone before the decision is made as to which path to take. However, where ion pairs arc involved, this is not true, and results have been found where the nature of the leaving group does affect the product.[114] In second-order reactions, the elimination/substitution ratio is not greatly dependent on a halide leaving group, though there is a slight increase in elimination in the order I > Br > Cl. When OTs is the leaving group, there is usually much more substitution. For example, *n*-$C_{18}H_{37}Br$ treated with r-BuOK gave 85% elimination, while *n*-$C_{18}H_{37}OTs$ gave, under the same conditions, 99% substitution.[115] On the other hand, positively charged leaving groups increase the amount of elimination.

Effect of the Medium

1. *Effect of Solvent on El versus E2 versus ElcB.* With any reaction a more polar environment enhances the rate of mechanisms that involve ionic intermediates. For neutral leaving groups, it is expected that El and ElcB

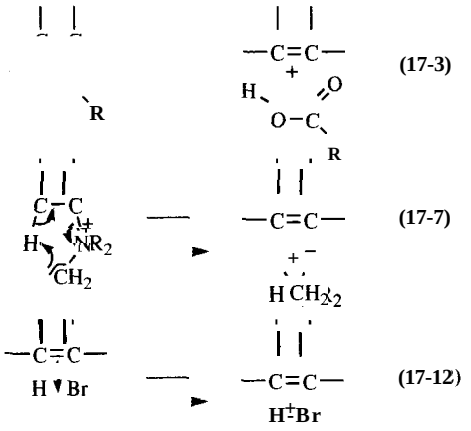
mechanisms will be aided by increasing polarity of solvent and by increasing ionic strength. With certain substrates, polar aprotic solvents promote elimination with weak bases (the E2C reaction).

2. *Effect of Solvent on Elimination versus Substitution.* Increasing polarity of solvent favors S_N2 reactions at the expense of E2. In the classical example, alcoholic KOH is used to effect elimination, while the more polar aqueous KOH is used for substitution. Charge-dispersal discussions, similar to those on page 450,[116] only partially explain this. In most solvents, S_N1 reactions are favored over E1. The El reactions compete best in polar solvents that are poor nucleophiles, especially dipolar aprotic solvents[117] A study made in the gas phase, where there is no solvent, has shown that when 1-bromopropane reacts with MeO^- only elimination takes place no substitution even with this primary substrate.[118]
3. *Effect of Temperature.* Elimination is favored over substitution by increasing temperature, whether the mechanism is first or second order.[119] The reason is that the activation energies of eliminations are higher than those of substitutions (because eliminations have greater changes in bonding).

MECHANISMS AND ORIENTATION IN PYROLYTIC ELIMINATIONS

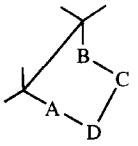
Mechanisms[120]

Several types of compound undergo elimination on heating, with no other reagent present. Reactions of this type are often run in the gas phase. The mechanisms are obviously different from those already discussed, since all those require a base (which may be the solvent) in one of the steps, and there is no base or solvent present in pyrolytic elimination. Two mechanisms have been found to operate. One involves a cyclic transition state, which may be four, five, or six membered. Examples of each size are



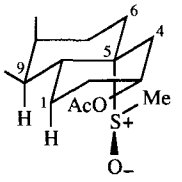
In this mechanism, the two groups leave at about the same time and bond to each other as they are doing so. The designation is Ei in the Ingold terminology and *cyclo-*

$D_ED_NA_n$ in the IUPAC system. The elimination must be syn and, for the four- and five-membered transition states, the four or five atoms making up the ring must be coplanar. Coplanarity is not required for the six-membered transition state, since there is room for the outside atoms when the leaving atoms are staggered.



As in the E2 mechanism, it is not necessary that the C—H and C—X bond be equally broken in the transition state. In fact, there is also a spectrum of mechanisms here, ranging from a mechanism in which C—X bond breaking is a good deal more advanced than C—H bond breaking to one in which the extent of bond breaking is virtually identical for the two bonds. Evidence for the existence of the Ei mechanism is

1. The kinetics are first order, so only one molecule of the substrate is involved in the reaction (that is, if one molecule attacked another, the kinetics would be second order in substrate).[121]
2. Free-radical inhibitors do not slow the reactions, so no free-radical mechanism is involved.[122]
3. The mechanism predicts exclusive syn elimination, and this behavior has been found in many cases.[123] The evidence is inverse to that for the anti E2 mechanism and generally involves the following facts: (1) an erythro isomer gives a trans alkene and a threo isomer gives a cis alkene; (2) the reaction takes place only when a cis β hydrogen is available; (3) if, in a cyclic compound, a cis hydrogen is available on only one side, the elimination goes in that direction. Another piece of evidence involves a pair of steroid molecules. In 3β-acetoxy-(*R*)-5α-methylsulfinylcholestane (26 shows rings A and B of this compound) and in 3β -acetoxy-(*S*)-5α-methylsulfinylcholestane (27: rings A and B), the *only* difference is the configuration of oxygen and methyl



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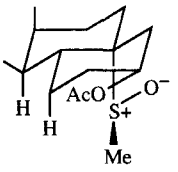


27

about the sulfur. Yet pyrolysis of 26 gave only elimination to the 4-side (86% 4-ene), while 27 gave predominant elimination to the 6-side (65% 5-ene and 20% 4-ene).[124] Models show that interference from the 1- and 9-hydrogens causes the two groups on the sulfur to lie *in front of it* with respect to the rings, rather than behind it. Since the sulfur is chiral, this means that in 26 the oxygen is near the 4 hydrogen, while in 27 it is near the 6 hydrogen. This experiment is compatible only with syn elimination.[125]

4. The ^{14}C isotope effects for the Cope elimination **(17-8)** show that both the C—H and C—N bonds have been extensively broken in the transition state.[126]
5. Some of these reactions have been shown to exhibit negative entropies of activation, indicating that the molecules are more restricted in geometry in the transition state than they are in the starting compound.

Where a pyrolytic elimination lies on the mechanistic spectrum seems to depend mostly on the leaving group. When this is halogen, all available evidence suggests that in the transition state the C—X bond is cleaved to a much greater extent than the C—H bond, that is, there is a considerable amount of carbocation character in the transition state. This is in accord with the fact that a completely nonpolar four-membered cyclic transition state violates the Woodward-Hoffmann rules (see the similar case of **15-61).** Evidence for the carbocation-like character of the transition state when halide is the leaving group is that relative rates are in the order I > Br > Cl[127] (see p. 445), and that the effects of substituents on reaction rates are in accord with such a transition state.[128] Rate ratios for pyrolysis of some alkyl bromides at 320°C were: ethyl bromide, 1; isopropyl bromide, 280; *tert*-butyl bromide, 78,000. Also, α-phenylethyl bromide had about the same rate as terf-butyl bromide. On the other hand, β-phenylethyl bromide was only slightly faster than ethyl bromide.[129] This indicates that C—Br cleavage was much more important in the transition state than C—H cleavage, since the incipient carbocation was stabilized by a alkyl- and α-aryl substitution, while there was no incipient carbanion to be stabilized by β-aryl substitution. These substituent effects, as well as those for other groups, are very similar to the effects found for the S_N1 mechanism and thus in very good accord with a carbocation-like transition state.

For carboxylic esters, the rate ratios were much smaller,[130] though still in the same order, so that this reaction is closer to a pure Ei mechanism, though the transition state still has some carbocationic character. Other evidence for a greater initial C—O cleavage with carboxylic esters is that a series of 1-arylethyl acetates followed σ^+ rather than a, showing carbocationic character at the 1 position.[131] The extent of El character in the transition state increases in the following order of ester types: acetate < phenylacetate < benzoate < carbamate < carbonate.[132] Cleavage of xanthates (17-4), cleavage of sulfoxides **(17-11),** the Cope reaction (17-8), and Reaction **17-7** are probably very close to straight Ei mechanisms.[133]

The second type of pyrolysis mechanism is completely different and involves free radicals. Initiation occurs by pyrolytic homolytic cleavage. The remaining steps may vary, and a few are shown

Initiation

$$R_2CHCH_2X \longrightarrow R_2CHCH_2\cdot + X\cdot$$

Propagation

$$R_2CHCH_2X + X\cdot \longrightarrow R_2\dot{C}CH_2X + HX$$

$$R_2\dot{C}CH_2X \longrightarrow CH_2{=}CH_2 + X\cdot$$

Termination (disproportionation)

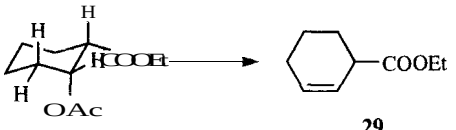
$$2\,R_2\dot{C}CH_2X \longrightarrow R_2C{=}CH_2 + R_2CXCH_2X$$

Free-radical mechanisms are mostly found in pyrolyses of polyhalides and of primary monohalides,[134] though they also have been postulated in pyrolysis of certain carboxylic esters.[135] Much less is known about these mechanisms and we shall not consider them further. Free-radical eliminations in solution are also known but are rare.[136]

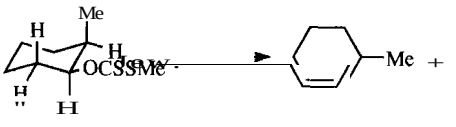
Orientation in Pyrolytic Eliminations

As in the El-E2-E1cB mechanistic spectrum, Bredt's rule applies; and if a double bond is present, a conjugated system will be preferred, if sterically possible. Apart from these considerations, the following statements can be made for Ei eliminations:

1. In the absence of considerations mentioned below, orientation is statistical and is determined by the number of β hydrogens available (therefore *Hofmann's rule* is followed). For example, sec-butyl acetate gives 55-62% 1-butene and 38-45% 2-butene,[137] which is close to the 3:2 distribution predicted by the number of hydrogens available.[138]
2. A cis β hydrogen is required. Therefore in cyclic systems, if there is a cis hydrogen on only one side, the double bond will go that way. However, when there is a six-membered transition state, this does not necessarily mean that the leaving groups must be cis to each other, since such transition states need not be completely coplanar. If the leaving group is axial, then the hydrogen obviously must be equatorial (and consequently cis to the leaving group), since the transition state cannot be realized when the groups are both axial. But if the leaving group is equatorial, it can form a transition state with a β hydrogen that is either axial (hence, cis) or equatorial (hence, trans). Thus 28, in which the leaving group is most likely axial, does not form a double bond



28 **29** (17-3)



30 (17-4)

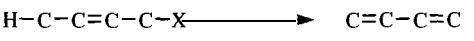
in the direction of the carbethoxyl group, even though that would be conjugated, because there is no equatorial hydrogen on that side. Instead it gives 100% **29**.[139] On the other hand, 30, with an equatorial leaving group, gives ~50% of each alkene, even though, for elimination to the 1-ene, the leaving group must go off with a trans hydrogen.[140]
3. In some cases, especially with cyclic compounds, the more stable alkene forms and Zaitsev's rule applies. For example, menthyl acetate gives 35% of

the Hofmann product and 65% of the Zaitsev, even though a cis β hydrogen is present on both sides and the statistical distribution is the other way. A similar result was found for the pyrolysis of menthyl chloride.[141]

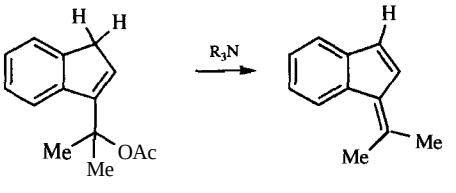
4. There are also steric effects. In some cases the direction of elimination is determined by the need to minimize steric interactions in the transition state or to relieve steric interactions in the ground state.

1,4 Conjugate Eliminations[142]

1,4 Eliminations of the type



are much rarer than conjugate additions (Chapter 15), but some examples are known.[143] One such is[144]



REACTIONS

First, we consider reactions in which a C=C or a C≡C bond is formed. From a synthetic point of view, the most important reactions for the formation of double bonds are 17-1 (usually by an El mechanism), **17-6**, **17-12**, and 17-22 (usually by an E2 mechanism), and 17-3, 17-4, and 17-8 (usually by an Ei mechanism). The only synthetically important method for the formation of triple bonds is **17-12**.[145] In the second section, we treat reactions in which C≡N bonds and C=N bonds are formed, and then eliminations that give C=O bonds and diazoalkanes. Finally, we discuss extrusion reactions.

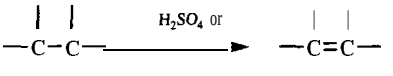
Reactions in Which C=C and C≡C Bonds Are Formed

A. *Reactions in Which Hydrogen Is Removed from One Side*

In 17-1-17-5, the other leaving atom is oxygen. In 17-6-17-10, it is nitrogen. For reactions in which hydrogen is removed from both sides, see 19-1-19-6.

17-1 *Dehydration of Alcohols*

HYDRO-HYDROXY-ELIMINATION



Dehydration of alcohols can be accomplished in several ways. Both H_2SO_4 and H_3PO_4 are common reagents, but in many cases these lead to rearrangement products and to ether formation **(10-16).** If the alcohol can be evaporated, vapor-phase elimination over Al_2O_3 is an excellent method since side reactions are greatly reduced. This method has even been applied to such high molecular weight alcohols as 1-dodecanol.[146] Other metallic oxides (e.g., Cr_2O_3, TiO_2, WO_3) have also been used, as have been sulfides, other metallic salts, and zeolites. The presence of an electron withdrawing group usually facilitates elimination of water, as in the aldol condensation **(16-39).** 2-Nitroalcohols, for example, give conjugated nitro compounds when heated with zeolite Y–Y.[147] Treating a 4-hydroxy lactam with DMAP (*N*,*N*-dimethylaminopyridine) and *t*-Boc anhydride leads to the conjugated lactam.[148] Elimination of serine derivatives to α-alkylidene amino acid derivatives was accomplished with $(EtO)_2POCl$.[149] Another method of avoiding side reactions is the conversion of alcohols to esters, and the pyrolysis of these **(17-3-17-5).** The ease of dehydration increases with α branching, and tertiary alcohols are dehydrated so easily with only a trace of acid that it sometimes happens even when the investigator desires otherwise. It may also be recalled that the initial alcohol products of many base-catalyzed condensations dehydrate spontaneously (Chapter 16) because the new double bond can be in conjugation with one already there. Many other dehydrating agents[150] have been used on occasion: P_2O_5, I_2, $ZnCl_2$, Ph_3BiBr_2/I_2,[151] BF_3–etherate, DMSO, $KHSO_4$, anhydrous $CuSO_4$, and phthalic anhydride, among others. Secondary and tertiary alcohols can also be dehydrated, without rearrangements, simply on refluxing in HMPA.[152] With nearly all reagents, dehydration follows Zaitsev's rule. An exception involves the passage of hot alcohol vapors over thorium oxide at 350-450°C, under which conditions Hofmann's rule is followed,[153] and the mechanism is probably different.

Carboxylic acids can be dehydrated by pyrolysis, the product being a ketene:

$$\mathrm{R{-}\underset{\displaystyle H}{\underset{|}{CH}}{-}\underset{\displaystyle OH}{\underset{|}{C}}{=}O} \xrightarrow{\Delta} \mathrm{R\text{-}CH{=}C{=}O}$$

Ketene itself is commercially prepared in this manner. Carboxylic acids have also been converted to ketenes by treatment with certain reagents, among them TsCl,[154] DCC,[155] and 1-methyl-2-chloropyridinium iodide *{Mukaiyama's reagent)}*[56] Analogously, amides can be dehydrated with P_2O_5, pyridine, and Al_2O_3 to give ketenimines:[157]

$$\mathrm{R_2CH{-}\underset{\displaystyle O}{\underset{\|}{C}}{-}NHR' \xrightarrow[\text{pyridine}]{P_2O_5,\ Al_2O_3} R_2C{=}C{=}NR'}$$

There is no way in which dehydration of alcohols can be used to prepare triple bonds: *gem*-diols and vinylic alcohols are not normally stable compounds and *vic*-diols[158] give either conjugated dienes or lose only 1 mol of water to give an aldehyde or ketone. Dienes can be prepared, however, by heating alkynyl alcohols with triphenyl phosphine.[159]

When proton acids catalyze alcohol dehydration, the mechanism is E1.[160] The principal process involves conversion of ROH to ROH_2^+ and cleavage of the latter to R^+ and H_2O, though with some acids a secondary process probably involves conversion of the alcohol to an inorganic ester and ionization of *this* (illustrated for H_2SO_4):

$$ROH \xrightarrow{H_2SO_4} ROSO_2OH \longrightarrow R^+ + HSO_4^-$$

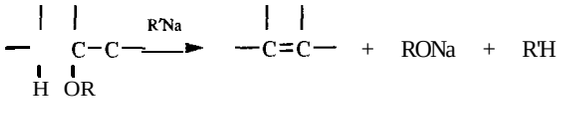
Note that these mechanisms are the reverse of those involved in the acid-catalyzed hydration of double bonds (15-3), in accord with the principle of microscopic reversibility. With anhydrides (e.g., P_2O_5, phthalic anhydride) as well as with some other reagents such as HMPA,[161] it is likely that an ester is formed, and the leaving group is the conjugate base of the corresponding acid. In these cases, the mechanism can be E1 or E2. The mechanism with Al_2O_3 and other solid catalysts has been studied extensively but is poorly understood.[162]

Magnesium alkoxides (formed by $ROH + Me_2Mg \rightarrow ROMgMe$) have been decomposed thermally, by heating at 195–340°C to give the alkene, CH_4, and MgO.[163] Syn elimination is found and an Ei mechanism is likely. Similar decomposition of aluminum and zinc alkoxides has also been accomplished.[164]

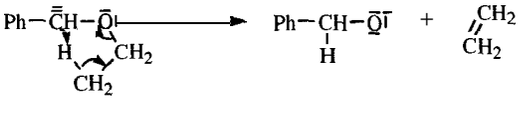
OS **I,** 15, 183, 226, 280, 345, 430, 473, 475; **II,** 12, 368, 408, 606; **III,** 22, 204, 237, 312, 313, 353, 560, 729, 786; **IV,** 130, 444, 771; **V,** 294; **VI,** 307, 901; **VII,** 210, 241, 363, 368, 396; **VIII,** 210, 444. See also OS **VII,** 63; **VIII,** 306, 474. No attempt has been made to list alkene-forming dehydrations accompanying condensations or rearrangements.

17-2 *Cleavage of Ethers to Alkenes*

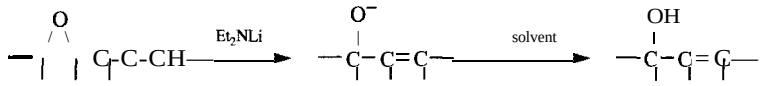
HYDRO-ALKOXY-ELIMINATION



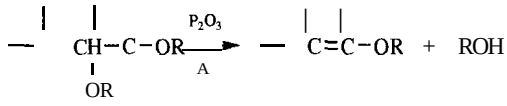
Alkenes can be formed by the treatment of ethers with very strong bases, such as alkylsodium or alkyllithium compounds or sodium amide,[165] though there are usually side reactions too. The reaction is aided by electron-withdrawing groups in the β position, and, for example, $EtOCH_2CH(COOEt)_2$ can be converted to $CH_2=C(COOEt)_2$ without any base at all, but simply on heating.[166] ter?-Butyl ethers are cleaved more easily than others. Several mechanisms are possible. In many cases the mechanism is probably E1cB or on the E1cB side of the mechanistic spectrum,[167] since the base required is so strong, but it has been shown (by the use of $PhCD_2OEt$) that $PhCH_2OEt$ reacts by the five-membered Ei mechanism:[168]



Epoxides can be converted to allylic alcohols[169] by treatment with several reagents, including *sec*-butyllithium,[170] *tert*-butyldimethylsilyl iodide,[171] and *i*-Pr_2NLi-*t*-BuOK (the *LIDAKOR reagent)*.[172] When an optically active reagent is used, optically active allylic alcohols can be produced from achiral epoxides.[173]

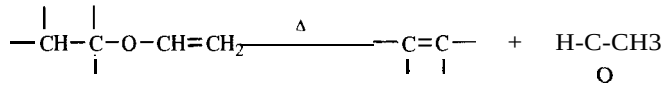


Ethers have also been converted to alkenes and alcohols by passing vapors over hot P_2O_5 or Al_2O_3 (this method is similar to **17-1),** but this is not a general reaction. Cyclic ethers such as THF react slowly with organolithium reagents with cleavage that produces a C=C unit.[174] Fragmentation of 2,5-dihydrofuran with ethylmagnesium chloride and a chiral zirconium catalyst leads to a chiral, homoallylic alcohol.[175] However, acetals can be converted to enol ethers in this manner:



This can also be done at room temperature by treatment with trimethylsilyl triflate and a tertiary amine[176] or with Me_3SiI in the presence of hexamethyldisilazane.[177]

Enol ethers can be pyrolyzed to alkenes and aldehydes in a manner similar to that of 17-3:

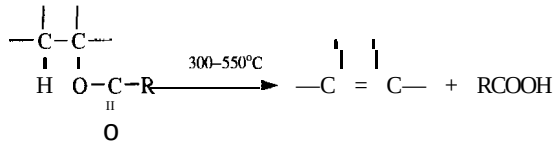


The rate of this reaction for $R-O-CH=CH_2$ increased in the order Et < *i*-Pr < *t*-Bu.[178] The mechanism is similar to that of 17-3.

OS **IV,** 298, 404; V, 25, 642, 859, 1145; **VI,** 491, 564, 584, 606, 683, 948; **VIII,** 444.

17-3 *Pyrolysis of Carboxyllc Acids and Esters of Carboxylic Acids*

HYDRO-ACYLOXY-ELIMINATION



Direct elimination of a carboxylic acid to an alkene has been accomplished by heating in the presence of palladium catalysts.[179] Carboxylic esters in which the alkyl group has a β hydrogen can be pyrolyzed, most often in the gas phase, to give the corresponding acid and an alkene.[180] No solvent is required. Since rearrangement and other side reactions are few, the reaction is synthetically very useful and is often carried out as an indirect method of accomplishing **17-1.** The yields are excellent and the work up is easy. Many alkenes have been prepared in this manner.

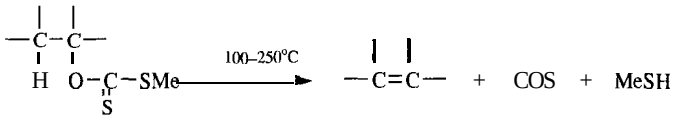
For higher alkenes (above ~C_{10}) a better method is to pyrolyze the alcohol in the presence of acetic anhydride.[181]

The mechanism is Ei (see p. 1322). Lactones can be pyrolyzed to give unsaturated acids, provided that the six-membered transition state required for Ei reactions is available (it is not available for five- and six-membered lactones, but it is for larger rings[182]). Amides give a similar reaction but require higher temperatures.

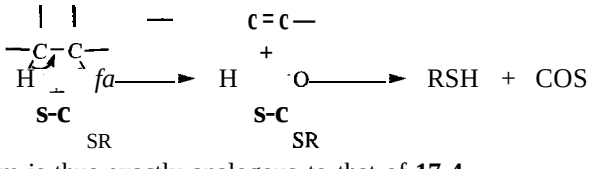
Allylic acetates give dienes when heated with certain palladium[183] or molybdenum[184] compounds.

OS **III,** 30; IV, 746; V, 235; IX, 293.

17-4 *The Chugaev Reaction*



Methyl xanthates are prepared by treatment of alcohols with NaOH and CS_2 to give RO—CS—SNa, followed by treatment of this with methyl iodide.[185] Pyrolysis of the xanthate to give the alkene, COS, and the thiol is called the *Chugaev reaction.*[186] The reaction is thus, like 17-3, an indirect method of accomplishing 17-2. The temperatures required with xanthates are lower than with ordinary esters, which is advantageous because possible isomerization of the resulting alkene is minimized. The mechanism is Ei, similar to that of 17-3. For a time there was doubt as to which sulfur atom closed the ring, but now there is much evidence, including the study of ^{34}S and ^{13}C isotope effects, to show that it is the C=S sulfur:[187]

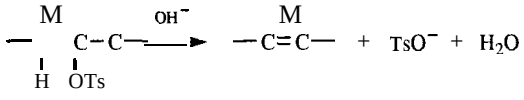


The mechanism is thus exactly analogous to that of **17-4.**

OS **VII,** 139.

17-5 *Decomposition of Other Esters*

HYDRO-TOSYLOXY-ELIMINATION



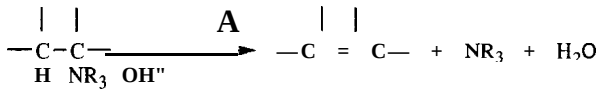
Several types of inorganic ester can be cleaved to alkenes by treatment with bases. Esters of sulfuric, sulfurous, and other acids undergo elimination in solution by E1 or E2 mechanisms, as do tosylates and other esters of sulfonic acids.[188] It has been shown that bis(tetra-*n*-butylammonium) oxalate, $(Bu_4N^+)_2$ $(COO^-)_2$, is an

excellent reagent for inducing tosylates to undergo elimination rather than substitution.[189] Aryl sulfonates have also been cleaved without a base. Esters of 2-pyridinesulfonic acid and 8-quinolinesulfonic acid gave alkenes in high yields simply on heating, without a solvent.[190] Phosphonate esters have been cleaved to alkenes by treatment with Lawesson's reagent.[191] Esters of $PhSO_2OH$ and TsOH behaved similarly when heated in a dipolar aprotic solvent such as Me_2SO or HMPA.[192]

OS, VI, 837; **VII,** 117.

17-6 *Cleavage of Quaternary Ammonium Hydroxides*

HYDRO-TRIALKYLAMMONIO-ELIMINATION

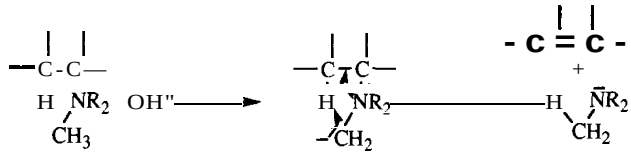


Cleavage of quaternary ammonium hydroxides is the final step of the process known as *Hofmann exhaustive methylation or Hofmann degradation*.[193] In the first step, a primary, secondary, or tertiary amine is treated with enough methyl iodide to convert it to the quaternary ammonium iodide **(10-44).** In the second step, the iodide is converted to the hydroxide by treatment with silver oxide. In the cleavage step, an aqueous or alcoholic solution of the hydroxide is distilled, often under reduced pressure. The decomposition generally takes place at a temperature between 100 and 200°C. Alternatively, the solution can be concentrated to a syrup by distillation or freeze-drying.[194] When the syrup is heated at low pressures, the cleavage reaction takes place at lower temperatures than are required for the reaction in the ordinary solution, probably because the base (OH^- or RO^-) is less solvated.[195] The reaction has never been an important synthetic tool, but in the nineteenth century and the first part of the twentieth century it saw much use in the determination of the structure of unknown amines, especially alkaloids. In many of these compounds the nitrogen is in a ring, or even at a ring junction, and in such cases the alkene still contains nitrogen. Repetitions of the process are required to remove the nitrogen completely, as in the conversion of 2-methylpiperidine to 1,5-hexadiene by two rounds of exhaustive methylation followed by pyrolysis.

A side reaction involving nucleophilic substitution to give an alcohol ($R_4N^+ \ OH^- \rightarrow ROH + R3N$) generally accompanies the normal elimination reaction[196] but seldom causes trouble. However, when none of the four groups on the nitrogen has a β hydrogen, substitution is the only reaction possible. On heating $Me_4N^+OH^-$ in water, methanol is obtained, though without a solvent the product is not methanol but dimethyl ether.[197]

The mechanism is usually E2. Hofmann's rule is generally obeyed by acyclic and Zaitsev's rule by cyclohexyl substrates (p. 1315). In certain cases, where the molecule is highly hindered, a five-membered Ei mechanism, similar to that in **17-7,** has been shown to operate. That is, the OH^- in these cases does not attract the β

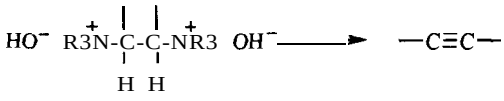
hydrogen, but instead removes one of the methyl hydrogens:



The obvious way to distinguish between this mechanism and the ordinary E2 mechanism is by the use of deuterium labeling. For example, if the reaction is carried out on a quaternary hydroxide deuterated on the (3 carbon ($R_2CDCH_2NMe_3^+$ OH^-), the fate of the deuterium indicates the mechanism. If the E2 mechanism is in operation, the trimethylamine produced would contain no deuterium (which would be found only in the water). But if the mechanism is Ei, the amine would contain deuterium. In the case of the highly hindered compound $(Me_3C)_2CDCH_2NMe_3^+$ OH^-, the deuterium did appear in the amine, demonstrating an Ei mechanism for this case.[198] With simpler compounds, the mechanism is E2, since here the amine was deuterium-free.[199]

When the nitrogen bears more than one group possessing a (3 hydrogen, which group cleaves? The Hofmann's rule says that *within* a group the hydrogen is on the least alkylated carbon cleaves. This tendency is also carried over to the choice of which group cleaves: thus ethyl with three β hydrogens cleaves more readily than any longer *n*-alkyl group, all of which have two β hydrogens. "The β hydrogen is removed most readily if it is located on a methyl group, next from RCH_2, and least readily from R_2CH."[200] In fact, the Hofmann's rule as first stated[201] in 1851 applied only to which group cleaved, not to the orientation within a group; the latter could not have been specified in 1851, since the structural theory of organic compounds was not formulated until 1857–1860. Of course, the Hofmann rule (applied to which group cleaves *or* to orientation within a group) is superseded by conjugation possibilities. Thus $PhCH_2CH_2NMe_2Et^+OH^-$ gives mostly styrene instead of ethylene.

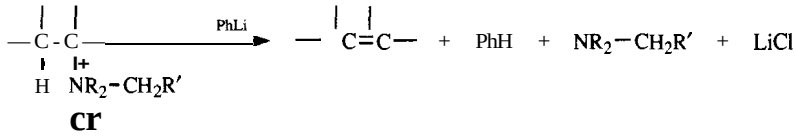
Triple bonds have been prepared by pyrolysis of 1,2-bis salts.[202]



OS IV, 980; V, 315, 608; VI, 552. Also see OS V, 621, 883; VI, 75.

17-7 *Cleavage of Quaternary Ammonium Salts With Strong Bases*

HYDRO-TRIALKYLAMMONIO-ELIMINATION



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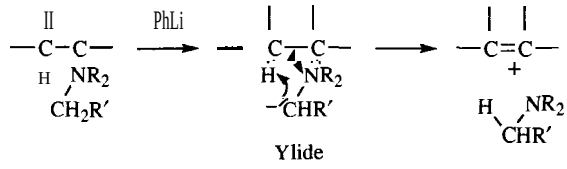
When quaternary ammonium halides are treated with strong bases (e.g., PhLi, KNH_2 in liquid NH3[203]), an elimination can occur that is similar in products, though not in mechanism, to **17-6.** This is an alternative to **17-6** and is done on the quaternary ammonium halide, so that it is not necessary to convert this to the hydroxide. The mechanism is Ei:

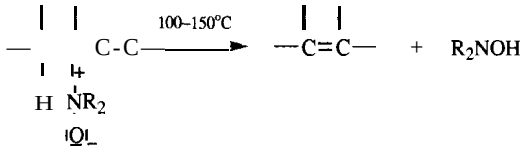


An α' hydrogen is obviously necessary in order for the ylide to be formed. This type of mechanism is called a',(3 elimination, since a (3 hydrogen is removed by the α' carbon. The mechanism has been confirmed by labeling experiments similar to those described at 17-6,[204] and by isolation of the intermediate ylids.[205] An important synthetic difference between this and most instances of **17-6** is that syn elimination is observed here and anti elimination in **17-6,** so products of opposite configuration are formed when the alkene exhibits cis-trans isomerism.

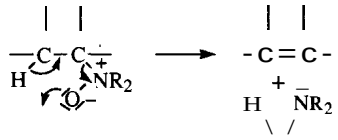
An alternative procedure that avoids the use of a very strong base is heating the salt with KOH in polyethylene glycol monomethyl ether.[206]

17-8 *Cleavage of Amine Oxides*

HYDRO-(DIALKYLOXIDOAMMONIO)-ELIMINATION



Cleavage of amine oxides to produce an alkene and a hydroxylamine is called the *Cope reaction* or *Cope elimination* (not to be confused with the Cope *rearrangement,* **18-32).** It is an alternative to **17-6** and **17-7**.[207] The reaction is usually performed with a mixture of amine and oxidizing agent (see **19-27)** without isolation of the amine oxide. Because of the mild conditions side reactions are few, and the alkenes do not usually rearrange. The reaction is thus very useful for the preparation of many alkenes. A limitation is that it does not open 6-membered rings containing nitrogen, though it does open rings of 5 and 7-10 members.[208] Rates of the reaction increase with increasing size of a and (3 substituents.[209] The reaction can be carried out at room temperature in dry Me_2SO or THE[210] The elimination is a stereoselective syn process,[211] and the five-membered Ei mechanism operates:

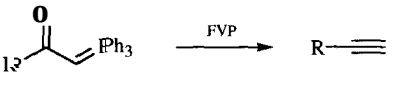


Almost all evidence indicates that the transition state must be planar. Deviations from planarity as in 17-3 (see p. 1322) are not found here, and indeed this is why six-membered heterocyclic nitrogen compounds do not react. Because of the stereoselectivity of this reaction and the lack of rearrangement of the products, it is useful for the formation of trans cycloalkenes (eight-membered and higher).

OS IV, 612.

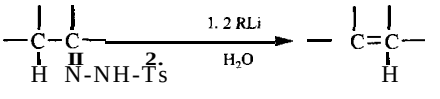
17-9 *Pyrolysis of Keto-ylids*

HYDRO-(OXOPHOSPHORYL)-ELIMINATION

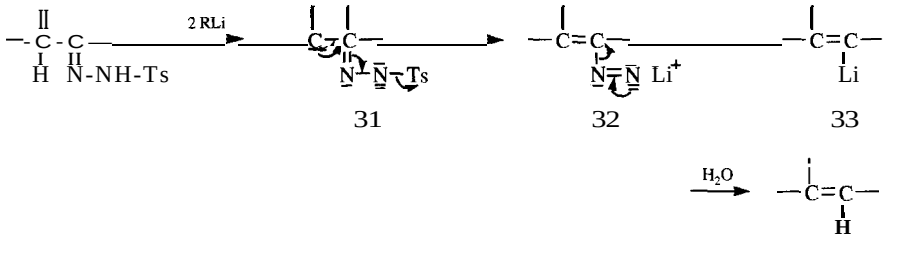


Phosphorus ylids are quite common (see **16-47)** and keto-phosphorus ylids (RCOCH=PPh3) are also known. When these compounds are heating (flash vacuum pyrolysis, FVP) to great than >500°C, alkynes are formed. Simple alkynes[212] can be formed as well as keto-alkynes[213] and en-ynes.[214]

17-10 *Decomposition of Toluene-p-sulfonylhydrazones*



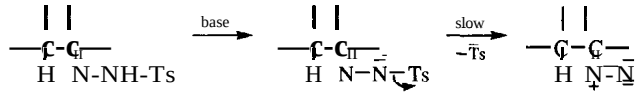
Treatment of the tosylhydrazone of an aldehyde or a ketone with a strong base leads to the formation of an alkene, the reaction being formally an elimination accompanied by a hydrogen shift.[215] The reaction (called the *Shapiro reaction)* has been applied to tosylhydrazones of many aldehydes and ketones. The most useful method synthetically involves treatment of the substrate with at least two equivalents of an organolithium compound[216] (usually MeLi) in ether, hexane, or tetramethylenediamine.[217] This procedure gives good yields of alkenes without side reactions and, where a choice is possible, predominantly gives the less highly substituted alkene. Tosylhydrazones of α,β-unsaturated ketones give conjugated dienes.[218] The mechanism[219] has been formulated as:



Evidence for this mechanism is (1) two equivalents of RLi are required; (2) the hydrogen in the product comes from the water and not from the adjacent carbon, as

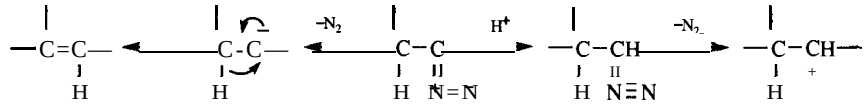
shown by deuterium labeling;[220] and (3) the intermediates 31-33 have been trapped.[221] This reaction, when performed in tetramethylenediamine, can be a synthetically useful method[222] of generating vinylic lithium compounds (33), which can be trapped by various electrophiles[223] such as D_2O (to give deuterated alkenes), CO2 (to give α,β-unsaturated carboxylic acids—**16-34**), or DMF (to give α,β-unsaturated aldehydes—**10-115**). Treatment of N-aziridino hydrazones with LDA leads to alkenes with high cis selectivity.[224]

The reaction also takes place with other bases (e.g., LiH,[225] Na in ethylene glycol, NaH, $NaNH_2$) or with smaller amounts of RLi, but in these cases side reactions are common and the orientation of the double bond is in the other direction (to give the more highly substituted alkene). The reaction with Na in ethylene glycol is called the *Bamford–Stevens reaction.*[226] For these reactions two mechanisms are possible—a carbenoid and a carbocation mechanism.[227] The side reactions found are those expected of carbenes and carbocations. In general, the carbocation mechanism is chiefly found in protic solvents and the carbenoid mechanism in aprotic solvents. Both routes involve formation of a diazo compound (34) which in some cases can be isolated.



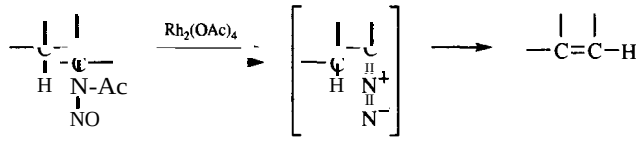
34

In fact, this reaction has been used as a synthetic method for the preparation of diazo compounds.[228] In the absence of protic solvents 34 loses N_2, and hydrogen migrates, to give the alkene product. The migration of hydrogen may immediately follow, or



34 35

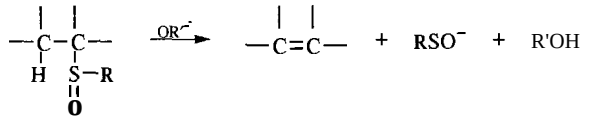
be simultaneous with, the loss of N_2. In a protic solvent, 34 becomes protonated to give the diazonium ion 35, which loses N_2 to give the corresponding carbocation that may then undergo elimination or give other reactions characteristic of carbocations. A diazo compound is an intermediate in the formation of alkenes by treatment of N-nitrosoamides with a rhodium(II) catalyst.[229]



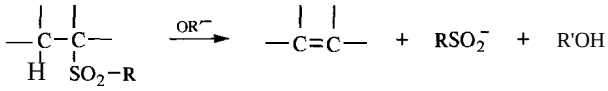
OS VI, 172; VII, 77; IX, 147. For the preparation of a diazo compound, see OS VII, 438.

17-11 *Cleavage of Sulfoxides, Selenoxides, and Sulfones*

Hydro-alkylsulfinyl-elimination



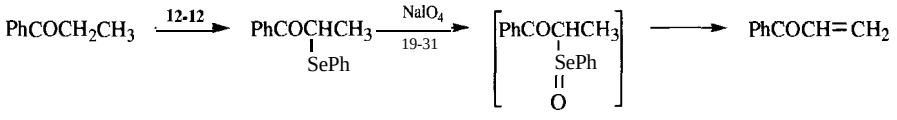
Hydro-alkylsulfinyl-elimination



Sulfonium compounds ($-C-{}^{+}SR_2$) undergo elimination similar to that of their ammonium counterparts **(17-6** and **17-7)** in scope and mechanism but this reaction is not of great synthetic importance. These **syn-elimination** reactions are related to the Cope elimination **(17-8)** and the Hofmann elimination (**17-6**).[230]

Sulfones and sulfoxides with a β hydrogen, on the other hand, undergo elimination on treatment with an alkoxide or, for **sulfones,**[231] even with OH^-.[232] Sulfones also eliminate in the presence of an organolithium reagent and a palladium catalyst.[233] In mechanism, these reactions belong on the El-E2-ElcB spectrum.[234] Although the leaving groups are uncharged, the orientation follows Hofmann's rule, not Zaitsev's. Sulfoxides (but not sulfones) also undergo elimination on pyrolysis at ~80°C in a manner analogous to **17-8.** The mechanism is also analogous, being the five-membered-Ei mechanism with syn elimination.[235] Selenoxides[236] and **sulfinate** esters $R_2CH-CHR-SO-OMe$[237] also undergo elimination by the Ei mechanism, the selenoxide reaction taking place at room temperature. The reaction with selenoxides has been extended to the formation of triple bonds.[238]

Both the selenoxide[239] and sulfoxide[240] reactions have been used in a method for the conversion of ketones, aldehydes, and carboxylic esters to their α,β-unsaturated derivatives (illustrated for the selenoxide).



Because of the mildness of the procedure, this is probably the best means of accomplishing this conversion. See page 555 for another application of the selenoxide reaction. Allylic sulfoxides undergo 1,4 elimination to give **dienes.**[241]

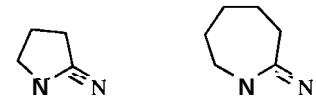
OS **VI,** 23, 737; **VIII,** 543; **IX,** 63.

17-12 *Dehydrohalogenation of Alkyl Halides*

HYDRO-HALO-ELIMINATION

The elimination of HX from an alkyl halide is a very general reaction and can be accomplished with chlorides, fluorides, bromides, and iodides.[242] Hot alcoholic

KOH is the most frequently used base, though stronger bases (OR^-, NH_2^-, etc.)[243] or weaker ones (e.g., amines) are used where warranted.[244] The bicyclic amidines 1,5-diazabicyclo[3.4.0]non-5-ene (DBN)[245] and DBU[246] are good reagents

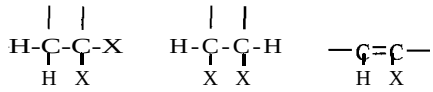


DBN DBU

for difficult cases.[247] Dehydrohalogenation with the non-ionic base $(Me_2N)_3P{=}N{-}P(NMe_2)_2{=}NMe$ is even faster.[248] Phase-transfer catalysis has been used with OH^- as base.[249] As previously mentioned (p. 1313), certain weak bases in dipolar aprotic solvents are effective reagents for dehydrohalogenation. Among those most often used for synthetic purposes are LiCl or $LiBr{-}LiCO_3$ in DMF.[250] Dehydrohalogenation has also been effected by heating of the alkyl halide in HMPA with no other reagent present.[251] As in nucleophilic substitution (p. 445), the order of leaving group reactivity is I > Br > Cl > F.[252]

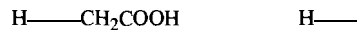
Tertiary halides undergo elimination most easily. Eliminations of chlorides, bromides, and iodides follow Zaitsev's rule, except for a few cases where steric effects are important (for an example, see p. 1316). Eliminations of fluorides follow Hofmann's rule (p. 1316).

This reaction is by far the most important way of introducing a triple bond into a molecule.[253] This can be accomplished with substrates of the types:[254]



When the base is $NaNH_2$ 1-alkynes predominate (where possible), because this base is strong enough to form the salt of the alkyne, shifting any equilibrium between 1- and 2-alkynes. When the base is OH^- or OR", the equilibrium tends to be shifted to the internal alkyne, which is thermodynamically more stable. If another hydrogen is suitably located (e.g., $-CRH{-}CX_2{-}CH_2-$), allene formation can compete, though alkynes are usually more stable.

Dehydrohalogenation is generally carried out in solution, with a base, and the mechanism is usually E2, though the El mechanism has been demonstrated in some cases. However, elimination of HX can be accomplished by pyrolysis of the halide, in which case the mechanism is Ei (p. 1322) or, in some instances, the free-radical mechanism (p. 1324). Pyrolysis is normally performed without a catalyst at ~400°C. The pyrolysis reaction is not generally useful synthetically, because of its reversibility. Less work has been done on pyrolysis with a catalyst[255] (usually a metallic oxide or salt), but the mechanisms here are probably El or E2.

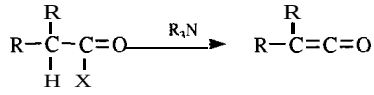


In the special case of the prochiral carboxylic acids (36), dehydrohalogenation with an optically active lithium amide gave an optically active product with enantiomeric excesses as high as 82%.[256]

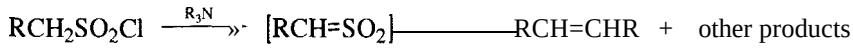
OS I, 191, 205, 209, 438; II, 10, 17, 515; **III,** 125, 209, 270, 350, 506, 623, 731, 785; IV, 128, 162, 398, 404, 555, 608, 616, 683, 711, 727, 748, 755, 763, 851, 969; V, 285, 467, 514; VI, 87, 210, 327, 361, 368, 427, 462, 505, 564, 862, 883, 893, 954, 991, 1037; **VII,** 126, 319, 453, 491; **VIII,** 161, 173, 212, 254; **IX,** 191, 656, 662. Also see OS VI, 968.

17-13 *Dehydrohalogenation of Acyl Halides and Sulfonyl Halides*

HYDRO-HALO-ELIMINATION



Ketenes can be prepared by treatment of acyl halides with tertiary amines.[257] The scope is broad, and most acyl halides possessing an a hydrogen give the reaction, but if at least one R is hydrogen, only the ketene dimer, not the ketene, is isolated. However, if it is desired to use a reactive ketene in a reaction with a given compound, the ketene can be generated *in situ* in the presence of the given compound.[258]



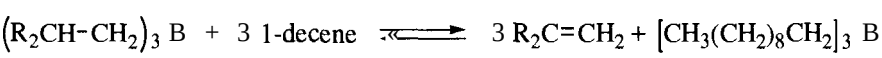
Sulfene

Closely related is the reaction of tertiary amines with sulfonyl halides that contain an a hydrogen. In this case, the initial product is the highly reactive sulfene, which cannot be isolated but reacts further to give products, one of which may be the alkene that is the dimer of RCH.[259] Reactions of sulfenes *in situ* are also common (e.g., see **16-62**).

OS **IV,** 560; **V,** 294, 877; **VI,** 549, 1037; **VII,** 232; **VIII,** 82.

17-14 *Elimination of Boranes*

HYDRO-BORANETRIYL-ELIMINATION



Trialkylboranes are formed from an alkene and BH_3 **(15-16).** When the resulting borane is treated with another alkene, an exchange reaction occurs.[260] This is an equilibrium process that can be shifted by using a large excess of alkene, by using an unusually reactive alkene, or by using an alkene with a higher boiling point than the displaced alkene and removing the latter by distillation. The reaction is useful for shifting a double bond in the direction opposite to that resulting from normal isomerization methods (12-2). This cannot be accomplished simply by treatment of

a borane such as 38 with an alkene, because elimination in this reaction follows Zaitsev's rule: It is in the direction of the most stable alkene, and the product would be 37, not 40. However, if it is desired to convert 37-40, this can be accomplished by converting 37-38, isomerizing 38-39 (18-11) and then subjecting

$$\underset{37}{Et_2C{=}CHCH_3} \longrightarrow \underset{38}{Et_2CHCHCH_3} \longrightarrow \underset{39}{Et_2CHCH_2CH_2} \longrightarrow \underset{40}{Et_2CHCH_2{=}CH_2}$$

39 to the exchange reaction with a higher boiling alkene (e.g., 1-decene), whereupon 40 is produced. In the usual isomerizations (12-2), 40 could be isomerized to 37, but not the other way around. Reactions **38 → 39** and **39 → 40** proceed essentially without rearrangement. The mechanism is probably the reverse of borane addition (15-16).

A similar reaction, but irreversible, has been demonstrated for alkynes.[261]

$$(R_2CH{-}CH_2)_3B + R'C{\equiv}CR' \longrightarrow 3\,R_2C{=}CH_2 + (R'CH{=}CR')_3B$$

17-15 *Conversion of Alkenes to Alkynes*

HYDRO-METHYL-ELIMINATION

$$CH_3{-}\underset{\displaystyle CH_3}{\overset{\displaystyle CH_3}{\overset{|}{\underset{|}{C}}}}{=}\underset{\displaystyle H}{\overset{\displaystyle CH_3}{\overset{|}{\underset{|}{C}}}}{-}CH_2R \xrightarrow[\text{aq.AcOH}]{\text{NaNO}_2} CH_3{-}C{\equiv}C{-}CH_2R$$

Alkenes of the form shown lose the elements of methane when treated with sodium nitrite in acetic acid and water, to form alkynes in moderate-to-high yields.[262] The R may contain additional unsaturation as well as OH, OR, OAc, C=O, and other groups, but the $Me_2C{=}CHCH_2{-}$ portion of the substrate is necessary for the reaction to take place. The mechanism is complex, beginning with a nitration that takes place with allylic rearrangement ($Me_2C{=}CHCH_2R \rightarrow H_2C{=}CMe\ CH(NO_2){-}CH_2R$), and involving several additional intermediates.[263] The CH_3 lost from the substrate appears as CO_2, as demonstrated by the trapping of this gas.[263]

17-16 *Decarbonylation of Acyl Halides*

HYDRO-CHLOROFORMYL-ELIMINATION

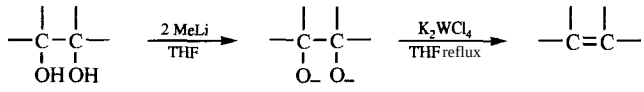
$$RCH_2CH_2COCl + RhCl(Ph_3P)_3 \xrightarrow{\Delta} RCH{=}CH_2 + HCl + RhCl(CO)(Ph_3P)_2$$

Acyl chlorides containing an a hydrogen are smoothly converted to alkenes, with loss of HC1 and CO, on heating with chlorotris(triphenylphosphine)rhodium, with metallic platinum, or with certain other catalysts.[264] The mechanism probably involves conversion of RCH_2CH_2COCl to $RCH_2CH_2{-}RhCO(Ph_3P)_2Cl_2$ followed by a concerted syn elimination of Rh and H.[265] See also 14-39 and **19-12**.

B. *Reactions in Which Neither Leaving Atom Is Hydrogen*

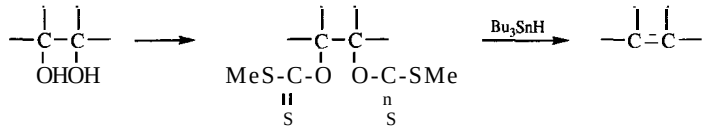
17-17 *Deoxygenation of Vicinal Diols*

DIHYDROXY-ELIMINATION



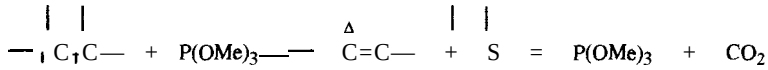
vic-Diols can be deoxygenated by treatment of the dilithium dialkoxide with the tungsten halide K_2WCl_6, or with certain other tungsten reagents, in refluxing THF.[266] Tetrasubstituted diols react most rapidly. The elimination is largely, but not entirely, syn. Several other methods have been reported,[267] in which the diol is deoxygenated directly, without conversion to the dialkoxide. These include treatment with titanium metal,[268] with TsOH–NaI,[269] and by heating with $CpReO_3$.[270]

vic-Diols can also be deoxygenated indirectly, through sulfonate ester derivatives. For example, *vic*-dimesylates and *vic*-ditosylates have been converted to alkenes by treatment, respectively, with naphthalene–sodium[271] and with NaI in DMF.[272] In another procedure, the diols are converted to bis(dithiocarbonates), bis (xanthates), which undergo elimination (probably by a free-radical mechanism) when treated



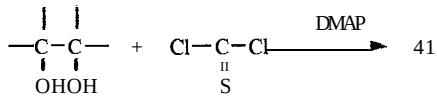
with tri-*n*-butylstannane in toluene or benzene.[273] v/c-Diols can also be deoxygenated through cyclic derivatives (17-18).

17-18 *Cleavage of Cyclic Thionocarbonates*



41

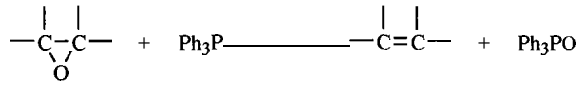
Cyclic thionocarbonates (41) can be cleaved to alkenes (the *Corey-Winter reaction*)[274] by heating with trimethyl phosphite[275] or other trivalent phosphorus compounds[276] or by treatment with bis(l,5-cyclooctadiene)nickel.[277] The thionocarbonates can be prepared by treatment of 1,2-diols with thiophosgene and 4-dimethylaminopyridine (DMAP):[278]



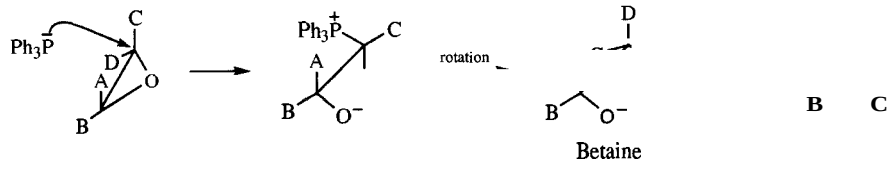
The elimination is of course syn, so the product is sterically controlled. Alkenes that are not sterically favored can be made this way in high yield (e.g., *cis*-$PhCH_2CH{=}CHCH_2Ph$).[279] Certain other five-membered cyclic derivatives of 1,2-diols can also be converted to alkenes.[280]

17-19 *The Conversion of Epoxides and Episulfides to Alkenes*

EPI-OXY-ELIMINATION



Epoxides can be converted to alkenes[281] by treatment with triphenylphosphine[282] or triethyl phosphite $P(OEt)_3$.[283] The first step of the mechanism is nucleophilic substitution (10-50), followed by a four-center elimination. Since inversion accompanies the substitution, the overall elimination is anti, that is, if two groups A and C are cis in the epoxide, they will be trans in the alkene:

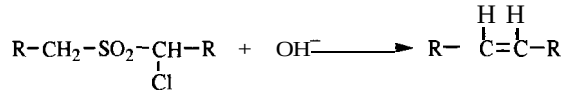


Alternatively, the epoxide can be treated with lithium diphenylphosphide (Ph_2PLi), and the product quaternized with methyl iodide.[284] Alkenes have also been obtained from epoxides by reaction with a large number of reagents,[285] among them Li in THF,[286] TsOH and NaI,[287] trimethylsilyl iodide,[288] PI_3,[289] F_3COOH–NaI,[290] SmI_2,[291] and the tungsten reagents mentioned in **17-17**.[266] Some of these methods give syn elimination. Treatment of cyclooctene oxide with Ph_3P–$OPPh_3$ and NEt_3 gave cyclooctadiene.[292]

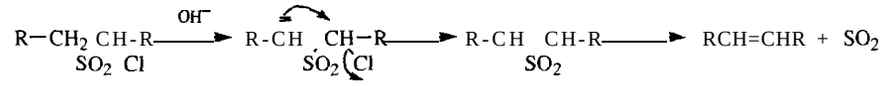
Episulfides[293] can be converted to alkenes.[294] However, in this case the elimination is syn, so the mechanism cannot be the same as that for conversion of epoxides. The phosphite attacks sulfur rather than carbon. Among other reagents that convert episulfides to alkenes are Bu_3SnH,[295] certain rhodium complexes,[296] $LiAlH_4$[297] (this compound behaves quite differently with epoxides, see 10-85), and methyl iodide.[298] Episulfoxides can be converted to alkenes and sulfur monoxide simply by heating.[299]

17-20 *The Ramberg-Bäcklund Reaction*

RAMBERG-BÄCKLUND HALOSULFONE TRANSFORMATION

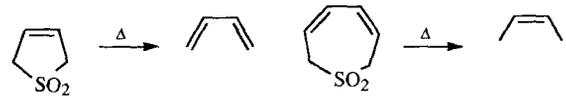


The reaction of an α-halo sulfone with a base to give an alkene is called the *Ramberg–Bäcklund reaction.*[300] The reaction is quite general for a-halo sulfones with an α′ hydrogen, despite the unreactive nature of a-halo sulfones in normal S_N2 reactions (p. 437). Halogen reactivity is in the order $I > Br \gg Cl$. Phase-transfer catalysis has been used.[301] In general, mixtures of cis and trans isomers are obtained, but usually the less stable cis isomer predominates. The mechanism involves formation of an episulfone, and then elimination of SO_2. There is much evidence for



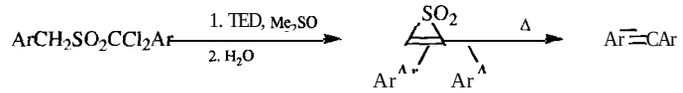
this mechanism,[302] including the isolation of the episulfone intermediate,[303] and the preparation of episulfones in other ways and the demonstration that they give alkenes under the reaction conditions faster than the corresponding a-halo sulfones.[304] Episulfones synthesized in other ways (e.g., **16-62)** are reasonably stable compounds but eliminate SO_2 to give alkenes when heated or treated with base.

If the reaction is run on the unsaturated bromo sulfones ($RCH_2CH{=}CHSO_2CH_2$-Br) (prepared by reaction of $BrCH_2SO_2Br$ with $RCH_2CH{=}CH_2$ followed by treatment with Et_3N), the dienes ($RCH{=}CHCH{=}CH_2$) are produced in moderate-to-good yields.[305] The compound mesyltriflone ($CF_3SO_2CH_2SO_2CH_3$) can be used as a synthon for the tetraion $^{2-}C{=}C^{2-}$. Successive alkylation **(10-104)** converts it to $CF_3SO_2CR^1R^2SO_2CHR^3R^4$ (anywhere from one to four alkyl groups can be put in), which, when treated with base, gives $R^1R^2C{=}CR^3R^4$.[306] The nucleofuge here is the $CF_3SO_2^-$ ion.



42 43

2,5-Dihydrothiophene-l,l-dioxides (42) and 2,17-dihydrothiepin-1,1-dioxides (43) undergo analogous 1,4 and 1,6 eliminations, respectively (see also **17-38).** These are concerted reactions and, as predicted by the orbital-symmetry rules (p. 1067), the former[307] is a suprafacial process and the latter[308] an antarafacial process. The rules also predict that elimination of SO_2 from episulfones cannot take place by a concerted mechanism (except antarafacially, which is unlikely for such a small ring), and the evidence shows that this reaction occurs by a non-concerted pathway.[309] The eliminations of SO_2 from **42** and **43** are examples of *cheletropic reactions,*[310] which are defined as reactions in which two σ bonds that terminate at a single atom (in this case the sulfur atom) are made or broken in concert.[311]



44 45 46

a,a-Dichlorobenzyl sulfones (44) react with an excess of the base triethylene-diamine in DMSO sulfoxide at room temperature to give 2,3-diarylthiiren-l,l-

dioxides (45), which can be isolated.[312] Thermal decomposition of **45** gives the alkynes 46.[313]

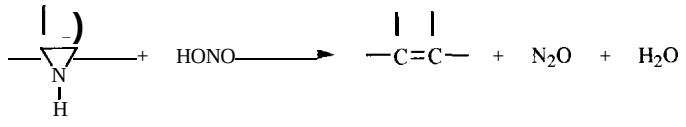
A Ramberg-Bäcklund type reaction has been carried out on the α-halo *sulfides*, $ArCHClSCH_2Ar$, which react with *t*-BuOK and PPh_3 in refluxing THF to give the alkenes ArCH=CHAr.[314]

The Ramberg-Bäcklund reaction can be regarded as a type of extrusion reaction (see p. 1352).

OS **V,** 877; **VI,** 454, 555; **VIII,** 212.

17-21 *The Conversion of Aziridines to Alkenes*

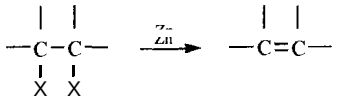
EPI-IMINO-ELIMINATION



Aziridines not substituted on the nitrogen atom react with nitrous acid to produce alkenes.[315] An N-nitroso compound is an intermediate **(12-49);** other reagents that produce such intermediates also give alkenes. The reaction is stereospecific: cis aziridines give cis alkenes and trans aziridines give trans alkenes.[316] Aziridines carrying N-alkyl substituents can be converted to alkenes by treatment with ferrous iodide[317] or with *m*-chloroperoxybenzoic acid.[318] An N-oxide intermediate **(19-27)** is presumably involved in the latter case.

17-22 *Dehalogenation of Vicinal Dihalides*

DIHALO-ELIMINATION



Dehalogenation has been accomplished with many reagents, the most common being zinc, magnesium, and iodide ion.[319] Among reagents used less frequently have been phenyllithium, phenylhydrazine, $CrCl_2$, Na_2S in DMF,[320] and $LiAlH_4$.[321] Electrochemical reduction has also been used.[322] Treatment with In[323] or Sm[324] metal in methanol, a Grignard reagent and $Ni(dppe)Cl_2$,[325] nickel compounds with Bu_3SnH,[326] or SmI_2[327] leads to the alkene. Though the reaction usually gives good yields, it is not very useful because the best way to prepare *vic*-dihalides is by the addition of halogen to a double bond **(15-37).** One useful feature of this reaction is that there is no doubt about the *position* of the new double bond, so that it can be used to give double bonds exactly where they are wanted. For example, allenes, which are not easily prepared by other methods, can be prepared from X–C–CX_2–C–X or X–C–CX=C– systems.[328] Cumulenes have been obtained

from 1,4 elimination:

$$BrCH_2-C\equiv C-CH_2Br + Zn \longrightarrow CH_2=C=C=CH_2$$

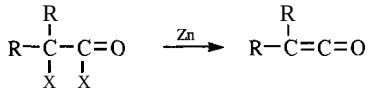
Cumulenes have also been prepared by treating alkynyl epoxides with boron trifluoride.[329] 1,4 Elimination of BrC—C=C—CBr has been used to prepare conjugated dienes (C=C-C=C).[330]

The reaction can be carried out for any combination of halogens, except where one is fluorine. Mechanisms are often complex and depend on the reagent and reaction conditions.[331] For different reagents, mechanisms involving carbocations, carbanions, and free-radical intermediates, as well as concerted mechanisms, have been proposed. When the reagent is zinc, anti stereospecificity has been observed in some cases,[332] but not in others.[333]

OS **III,** 526, 531; IV, 195, 268; V, 22, 255, 393, 901; VI, 310, **VII,** 241. Also see OS IV, 877, 914, 964.

17-23 *Dehalogenation of α-Halo Acyl Halides*

DIHALO-ELIMINATION

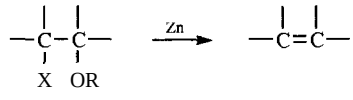


Ketenes can be prepared by dehalogenation of α-halo acyl halides with zinc or with triphenylphosphine.[334] The reaction generally gives good results when the two R groups are aryl or alkyl, but not when either one is hydrogen.[335]

OS **IV,** 348; **VIII,** 377.

17-24 *Elimination of a Halogen and a Hetero Group*

ALKOXY-HALO- ELIMINATION



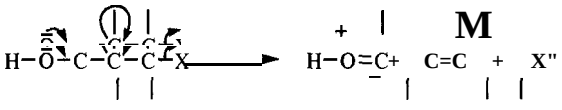
The elimination of OR and halogen from β-halo ethers is called the *Boord reaction.* It can be carried out with zinc, magnesium, sodium, or certain other reagents.[336] The yields are high and the reaction is of broad scope. β-Halo acetals readily yield vinylic ethers $X-\overset{|}{\underset{|}{C}}-\overset{!}{\underset{!}{C}}(OR)_2 \rightarrow -\overset{|}{\underset{|}{C}}=\overset{!}{\underset{!}{C}}-OR$. Besides P-halo ethers, the reaction can also be carried out on compounds of the formula $Z-\overset{|}{\underset{|}{C}}-\overset{|}{\underset{|}{C}}-Z$, where X is halogen and Z is OCOR, OTs,[337] NR_2,[338] or SR.[339] The Z group may also be OH, but then X is limited to Br and I. Like **17-22,** this method ensures that the new double bond will be in a specific position. The fact that magnesium causes elimination in these cases limits the preparation of Grignard reagents from these compounds. It has

been shown that treatment of β-halo ethers and esters with zinc gives nonstereospecific elimination,[340] so the mechanism was not E2. An E1cB mechanism was postulated because of the poor leaving-group ability of OR and OCOR. Bromohydrins can be converted to alkenes (elimination of Br, OH) in high yields by treatment with $LiAlH_4$–$TiCl_3$.[341]

OS **III,** 698, IV, 748; VI, 675.

Fragmentations

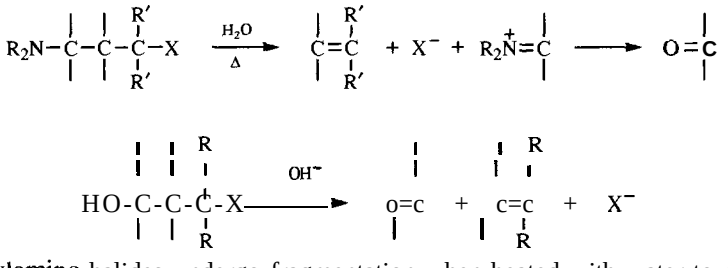
When carbon is the positive leaving group (the electrofuge) in an elimination, the reaction is *called fragmentation.*[342] These processes occur on substrates of the form W–C–C–X, where X is a normal nucleofuge (e.g., halogen, OH_2^+, OTs, NR_3^+, etc.) and W is a positive-carbon electrofuge. In most of the cases W is HO–C– or R_2N–C–, so that the positive charge on the carbon atom is stabilized by the unshared pair of the oxygen or nitrogen, for example,



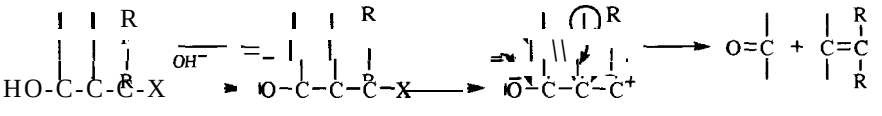
The mechanisms are mostly El or E2. We shall discuss only a few fragmentations, since many are possible and not much work has been done on most of them. Reactions **17-25**–**17-29** and **17-31** may be considered fragmentations. See also **19-12** and **19-13.**

17-25 *Fragmentation of γ-Amino and γ-Hydroxy Halides*

DIALKYLAMINOALKYL-HALO-ELIMINATION, AND SO ON



γ-Dialkylamino halides undergo fragmentation when heated with water to give an alkene and an iminium salt, which under the reaction conditions is hydrolyzed to an aldehyde or ketone (**16-2**).[343] γ-Hydroxy halides and tosylates are fragmented with base. In this instance, the base does not play its usual role in elimination reactions but instead serves to remove a proton from the OH group, which enables the carbon leaving group to come off more easily:

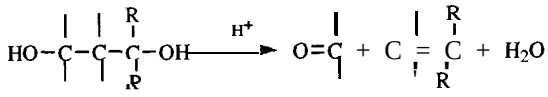


The mechanism of these reactions is often E1. However, in at least some cases, an E2 mechanism operates.[344] It has been shown that stereoisomers of cyclic γ-amino halides and tosylates in which the two leaving groups can assume an anti-periplanar conformation react by the E2 mechanism, while those isomers in which the groups cannot assume such a conformation either fragment by the El mechanism or do not undergo fragmentation at all, but in either case give rise to side products characteristic of carbocations.[345]

γ-Dialkylamino alcohols do not give fragmentation, since for ionization the OH group must be converted to OH_2^+ and this would convert NR_2 to NR_2H^+, which does not have the unshared pair necessary to form the double bond with the carbon.[346]

17-26 Fragmentation of 1,3-Diols

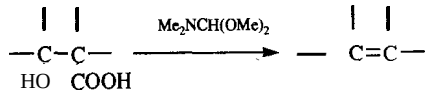
HYDROXYALKYL-HYDROXY-ELIMINATION



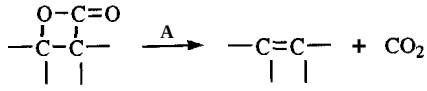
1,3-Diols in which at least one OH group is tertiary or is located on a carbon with aryl substituents can be cleaved by acid treatment.[347] The reaction is most useful synthetically when at least one of the OH groups is on a ring.[348]

17-27 *Decarboxylation of β-Hydroxy Carboxylic Acids and of β-Lactones*

CARBOXY-HYDROXY-ELIMINATION



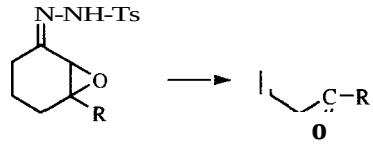
An OH and a COOH group can be eliminated from |3-hydroxy carboxylic acids by refluxing with excess DMF dimethyl acetal.[349] Mono-, di-, tri-, and tetrasubstituted alkenes have been prepared by this method in good yields.[350] There is evidence that the mechanism involves El or E2 elimination from the zwitterionic intermediate $^-O_2C-\overset{|}{C}-\overset{|}{C}-OC=\overset{+}{N}Me_2$.[351] The reaction has also been accomplished[352] under extremely mild conditions (a few seconds at 0°C) with PPh_3 and diethyl azodicarboxylate EtOOC–N=N–COOEt.[353] In a related procedure, |3-lactones undergo thermal decarboxylation to give alkenes in high yields. The reaction has been shown to be a stereospecific syn elimination.[354] There is evidence that this reaction also involves a zwitterionic intermediate.[355]



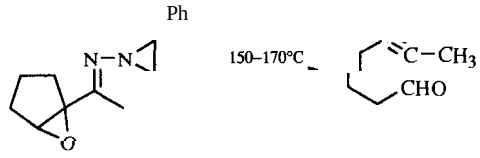
There are no OS references, but see OS VII, 172, for a related reaction.

17-28 *Fragmentation of* α,β-*Epoxy Hydrazones*

ESCHENMOSER-TANABE RING CLEAVAGE



Cyclic α,β-unsaturated ketones[356] can be cleaved by treatment with base of their epoxy tosylhydrazone derivatives to give acetylenic ketones.[357] The reaction can be applied to the formation of acetylenic aldehydes (R=H) by using the corresponding, 2,4-dinitrotosylhydrazone derivatives.[358] Hydrazones (e.g., 47) prepared from



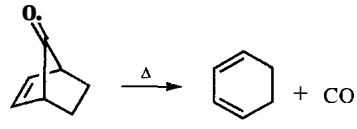
47

epoxy ketones and ring-substituted N-aminoaziridines undergo similar fragmentation when heated.[359]

OS VI, 679.

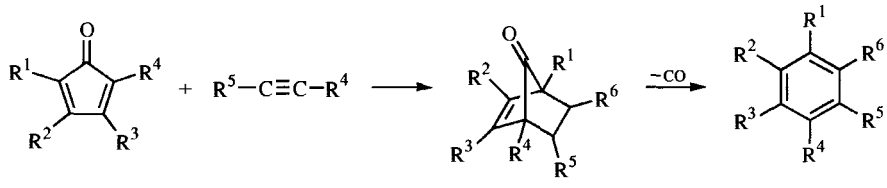
17-29 *Elimination of CO and* CO_2 *from Bridged Bicyclic Compounds*

SECO-CARBONYL-1/4/ELIMINATION



48

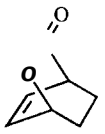
On heating, bicyclo[2.2.1]hept-2,3-en-7-ones (48) usually lose CO to give cyclohexadienes,[360] in a type of reverse Diels–Alder reaction. Bicyclo[2.2.1]heptadienones (49) undergo the reaction so readily (because of the stability of the benzene



49

ring produced) that they cannot generally be isolated. The parent (49) has been obtained at 10–15 K in an Ar matrix, where its spectrum could be studied.[361] Compounds 48 and 49 can be prepared by Diels-Alder reactions between a

cyclopentadienone and an alkyne or alkene, so that this reaction is a useful method for the preparation of specifically substituted benzene rings and cyclohexadienes.[362] Unsaturated bicyclic lactones of the type 50 can also undergo the reaction, losing CO_2. See also **17-37.**



50

OS **III,** 807; V, 604, 1037.

Reversal of the Diels–Alder reaction may be considered a fragmentation. See **15-58.**

Reactions in Which C≡N or C=N Bonds Are Formed

17-30 *Dehydration of Aldoximes and Similar Compounds*

C-HYDRO-*N*-HYDROXY-ELIMINATION

$$\mathrm{R{-}C{-}H} \overset{\mathrm{Ac_2O}}{\longrightarrow} \mathrm{R{-}C{\equiv}N}$$
$$\mathrm{HO{-}N}$$

Aldoximes can be dehydrated to nitriles[363] by many dehydrating agents, of which acetic anhydride is the most common. Among reagents that are effective under mild conditions[364] (room temperature) are Ph_3P-CCl_4,[365] SeO_2,[366] Me_2t-BuSiCl/imidazole,[367] Montmorillonite KSF clay,[368] and chloromethylene dimethylammonium chloride ($Me_2N{=}CHCl^+\ Cl^-$).[369] Microwave irradiation on sulfuric acid impregnated silica gel gives the nitrile.[370] Aldehydes can be converted to oximes *in situ* and microwave irradiation on alumina gives the nitrile.[371] Electrochemical synthesis has also been used.[369] The reaction is most successful when the H and OH are anti. Various alkyl and acyl derivatives of aldoximes, for example, RCH=NOR, RCH=NOCOR, $RCH{=}NOSO_2Ar$, and so on, also give nitriles, as do chlorimines RCH=NCl (the latter with base treatment).[372] N,N-dichloro derivatives of primary amines give nitriles on pyrolysis: $RCH_2NCl_2 \rightarrow$ RCN.[373]

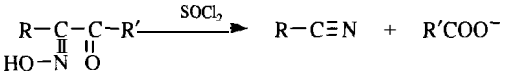
$$\mathrm{R\text{-}C\text{-}H} \overset{\mathrm{OEr}}{\underset{\mathrm{orDBU}}{\longrightarrow}} \mathrm{R\text{-}CEN} + \mathrm{NR_3} + \mathrm{HOEt}$$
$$\mathrm{\| \ N{-}\overset{+}{N}R_3}$$

Quaternary hydrazonium salts (derived from aldehydes) give nitriles when treated with OEt" [374] or DBU (p. 488, 1337):[375] as do dimethylhydrazones $RCH{=}NNMe_2$ when treated with Et_2NLi and HMPA.[376] All these are methods of converting aldehyde derivatives to nitriles. For the conversion of aldehydes directly to nitriles, without isolation of intermediates, see **16-21.**

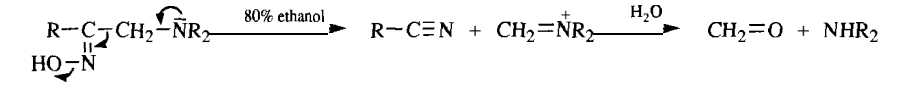
OS **II,** 622; **III,** 690.

17-31 *The Conversion of Ketoximes to Nitriles*

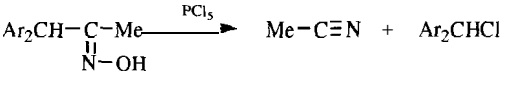
C-ACYL-*N*-HYDROXY-ELIMINATION



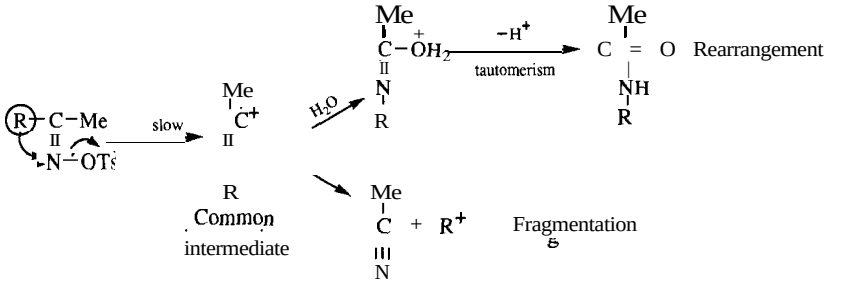
Certain ketoximes can be converted to nitriles by the action of proton or Lewis acids.[377] Among these are oximes of α-diketones (illustrated above), α-keto acids, α-dialkylamino ketones, α-hydroxy ketones, (3-keto ethers, and similar compounds.[378] These are fragmentation reactions, analogous to 17-25 and 17-26. For example, oc-dialkylamino ketoximes also give amines and aldehydes or ketones besides nitriles:[379]



The reaction that normally occurs on treatment of a ketoxime with a Lewis or proton acid is the Beckmann rearrangement (18-17); fragmentations are considered side reactions, often called "abnormal" or "second-order" Beckmann rearrangements.[380] Obviously, the substrates mentioned are much more susceptible to fragmentation than are ordinary ketoximes, since in each case an unshared pair is available to assist in removal of the group cleaving from the carbon. However, fragmentation is a side reaction even with ordinary ketoximes[381] and, in cases where a particularly stable carbocation can be cleaved, may be the main reaction:[382]



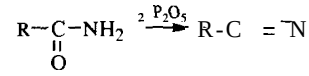
There are indications that the mechanism at least in some cases first involves a rearrangement and then cleavage. The ratio of fragmentation to Beckmann rearrangement of a series of oxime tosylates RC(=NOTs)Me was not related to the solvolysis rate but *was* related to the stability of R^+ (as determined by the solvolysis rate of the corresponding RC1), which showed that fragmentation did not take place in the rate-determining step.[383] It may be postulated then that the first step in the fragmentation and in the rearrangement is the same and that this is the rate-determining step. The product is determined in the second step:



However, in other cases the simple El or E2 mechanisms operate.[384]
OS V, 266; IX, 281.

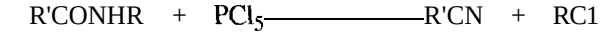
17-32 *Dehydration of Unsubstituted Amides*

NN-DIHYDRO-*C*-OXO-BIELIMINATION



Unsubstituted amides can be dehydrated to nitriles.[385] Phosphorous pentoxide is the most common dehydrating agent for this reaction, but many others, including $POCl_3$, PCl_5, CCl_4—Ph_3P,[386] HMPA,[387] $MeOOCNSO_2NEt_3$ (the Burgess reagent),[388] $Me_2N{=}CHCl^+\ Cl^-$,[389] oxalyl chloride/DMSO/$-78°C$[390] (Swern conditions—see **19-3),** and $SOCl_2$ have also been used.[391] Heating an amide with paraformaldehyde and formic acid gives the nitrile.[392] It is possible to convert an acid to the nitrile, without isolation of the amide, by heating its ammonium salt with the dehydrating agent,[393] or by other methods.[394] Acyl halides can also be directly converted to nitriles by heating with sulfamide, $(NH_2)_2SO_2$.[395] The reaction may be formally looked on as a β-elimination from the enol form of the amide RC(OH)=NH, in which case it is like **17-30,** except that H and OH have changed places. In some cases, for example, with $SOCl_2$, the mechanism probably *is* through the enol form, with the dehydrating agent forming an ester with the OH group, for example, RC(OSOCl)=NH, which undergoes elimination by the El or E2 mechanism.[396] N,N-Disubstituted ureas give cyanamides (R_2N—CO—$NH_2 \rightarrow R_2N$—CN) when dehydrated with $CHCl_3$—NaOH under phase-transfer conditions.[397]

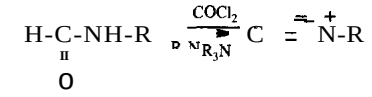
N-Alkyl-substituted amides can be converted to nitriles and alkyl chlorides by treatment with PCl_5. This is called the *von Braun reaction* (not to be confused with the other von Braun reaction, **10-76).**



OS I, 428; **II,** 379; **III,** 493, 535, 584, 646, 768; IV, 62, 144, 166, 172, 436, 486, 706; VI, 304, 465.

17-33 *Conversion of N-Alkylformamides to Isocyanides*

CN-DIHYDRO-*C*-OXO-BIELIMINATION



Isocyanides can be prepared by elimination of water from N-alkylformamides[398] with phosgene and a tertiary amine.[399] Other reagents, among them TsCl in quino-

line, $POCl_3$ and a tertiary amine,[400] $Me_2N{=}CHCl^+\ Cl^-$,[401] triflic anhydride-(i-$Pr)_2NEt$,[402] and Ph_3P-CCl_4-Et_3N[403] have also been employed.

A variation of this process uses carbodiimides,[404] which can be prepared by the dehydration of N,N′-disubstituted ureas with various dehydrating agents,[405] among which are TsCl in pyridine, $POCl_3$, PCl_5, P_2O_5—pyridine, TsCl (with phase-transfer catalysis),[406] and Ph_3PBr_2—Et_3N.[407] Hydrogen sulfide can be removed from the corresponding thioureas by treatment with HgO, NaOCl, or diethyl azodicarboxylate–triphenylphosphine.[408]

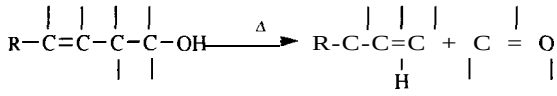
OS V, 300, 772; VI, 620, 751, 987. See also OS **VII,** 27. For the carbodiimide/thiourea dehydration, see OS V, 555; VI, 951.

Reactions in Which C=O Bonds Are Formed

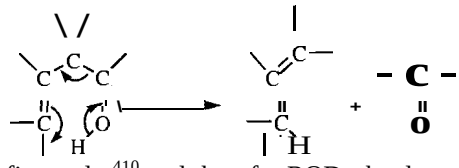
Many elimination reactions in which C=O bonds are formed were considered in Chapter 16, along with their more important reverse reactions. Also see **12-38** and **12-39.**

17-34 *Pyrolysis of β-Hydroxy Alkenes*

O-HYDRO-C-ALLYL-ELIMINATION

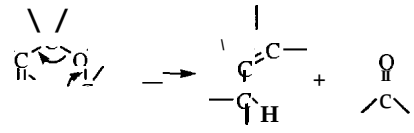


When pyrolyzed, P-hydroxy alkenes cleave to give alkenes and aldehydes or ketones.[409] Alkenes produced this way are quite pure, since there are no side reactions. The mechanism has been shown to be pericyclic, primarily by observations



that the kinetics are first order[410] and that, for ROD, the deuterium appeared in the allylic position of the new alkene.[411] This mechanism is the reverse of that for the oxygen analog of the ene synthesis **(16-53).** β-Hydroxyacetylenes react similarly to give the corresponding allenes and carbonyl compounds.[412] The mechanism is the same despite the linear geometry of the triple bonds.

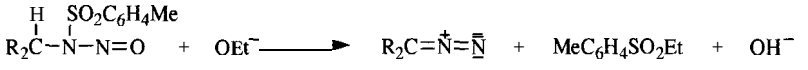
In a related reaction, pyrolysis of allylic ethers that contain at least one a hydrogen gives alkenes and aldehydes or ketones. The mechanism is also pericyclic[413]



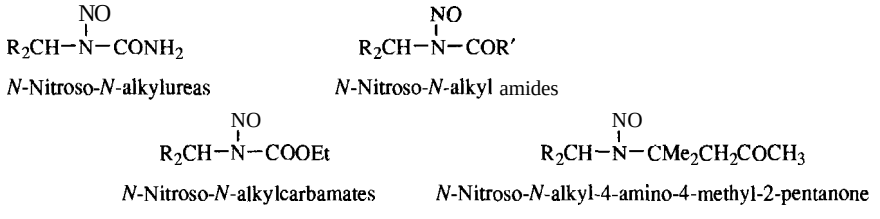
Reactions in Which N=N Bonds Are Formed

17-35 *Eliminations to Give Diazoalkanes*

N-NITROSOAMINE-DIAZOALKANE TRANSFORMATION



Various *N*-nitroso-*N*-alkyl compounds undergo elimination to give diazoalkanes.[414] One of the most convenient methods for the preparation of diazomethane involves base treatment of *N*-nitroso-*N*-methyl-*p*-toluenesulfonamide (illustrated above, with R=H).[415] However, other compounds commonly used are (base treatment is required in all cases):



N-Nitroso-*N*-alkylureas

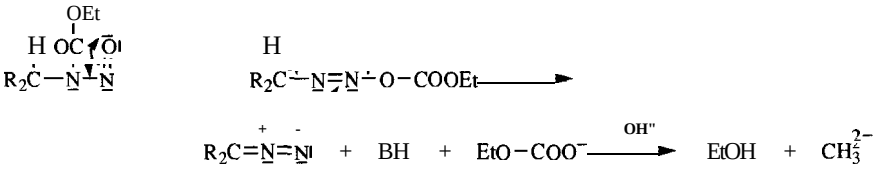
N-Nitroso-*N*-alkyl amides

N-Nitroso-*N*-alkylcarbamates

N-Nitroso-*N*-alkyl-4-amino-4-methyl-2-pentanone

All these compounds can be used to prepare diazomethane, though the sulfonamide, which is commercially available, is most satisfactory. (*N*-Nitroso-*N*-methylcarbamate and *N*-nitroso-*N*-methylurea give good yields, but are highly irritating and carcinogenic.[416]) For higher diazoalkanes the preferred substrates are nitrosoalkylcarbamates.

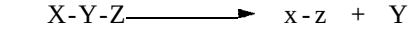
Most of these reactions probably begin with a 1,3 nitrogen-to-oxygen rearrangement, followed by the actual elimination (illustrated for the carbamate):



OS II, 165; **III,** 119, 244; IV, 225, 250; V, 351; VI, 981.

Extrusion Reactions

We consider an *extrusion reaction*[417] to be one in which an atom or group Y connected to two other atoms X and Z is lost from a molecule, leading to a product in which X is bonded directly to Z.

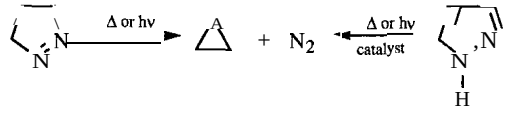


Reactions **14-39 and 17-20** also fit this definition. Reaction **17-29** does not fit the definition, but is often also classified as an extrusion reaction. An extrusibility scale

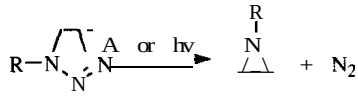
has been developed, showing that the ease of extrusion of the common Y groups is in the order: -N=N- > —COO— > - SO_2— > —CO—.[418]

17-36 *Extrusion of N_2 from Pyrazolines, Pyrazoles, and Triazolines*

AZO-EXTRUSION



51 52



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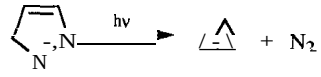
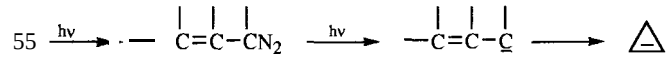


54

1-Pyrazolines (51) can be converted to cyclopropane and N_2 on photolysis[419] or pyrolysis.[420] The tautomeric 2-pyrazolines (52), which are more stable than 51 also give the reaction, but in this case an acidic or basic catalyst is required, the function of which is to convert 52 to 51.[421] In the absence of such catalysts, 52 do not react.[422] In a similar manner, triazolines (53) are converted to aziridines.[423] Side reactions are frequent with both 51 and 53, and some substrates do not give the reaction at all. However, the reaction has proved synthetically useful in many cases. In general, photolysis gives better yields and fewer side reactions than pyrolysis with both 51 and 53. 3*H*-Pyrazoles[424] (54) are stable to heat, but in some cases can be converted to cyclopropenes on photolysis,[425] though in other cases other types of products are obtained.

There is much evidence that the mechanism[426] of the 1-pyrazoline reactions generally involves diradicals, though the mode of formation and detailed structure (e.g., singlet vs. triplet) of these radicals may vary with the substrate and reaction conditions. The reactions of the 3*H*-pyrazoles have been postulated to proceed through a diazo compound that loses N_2 to give a vinylic carbene.[427]



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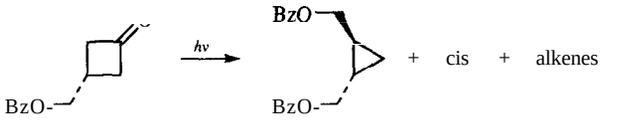
OS V, 96, 929. See also OS VIII, 597.

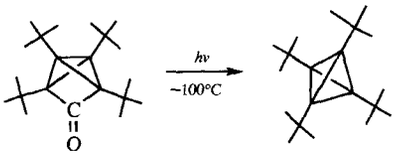
17-37 *Extrusion of CO or CO_2*

CARBONYL-EXTRUSION



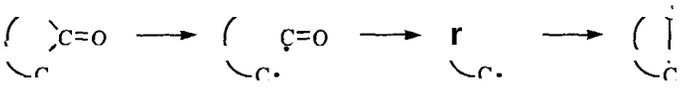
55 56

Though the reaction is not general, certain cyclic ketones can be photolyzed to give ring-contracted products.[428] In the example above, the cyclobutanone (55) was photolyzed to give (56),[429] where BZ is benzoyl. This reaction was used to synthesize tetra-*tert*-butyltetrahedrane **(57).**[430]

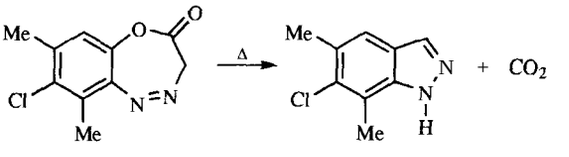


57

The mechanism probably involves a Norrish type I cleavage (p. 318), loss of CO from the resulting radical, and recombination of the radical fragments.



Certain lactones extrude CO_2 on heating or on irradiation, such as the pyrolysis of **58**.[431]

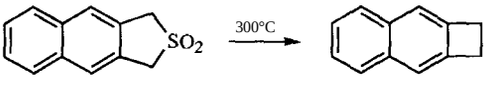


Decarboxylation of β-lactones (see **17-27)** may be regarded as a degenerate example of this reaction. Unsymmetrical diacyl peroxides RCO– OO–COR′ lose two molecules of CO_2 when photolyzed in the solid state to give the product RR'.[432] Electrolysis was also used, but yields were lower. This is an alternative to the Kolbe reaction **(11-37).** See also **17-29** and **17-40.**

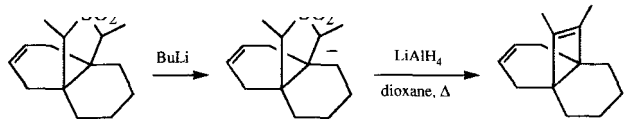
There are no OS references, but see OS VI, 418, for a related reaction.

17-38 *Extrusion of SO_2*

SULFONYL-EXTRUSION



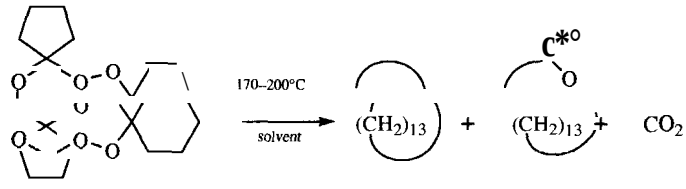
In a reaction similar to **17-37**, certain sulfones, both cyclic and acyclic,[433] extrude SO_2 on heating or photolysis to give ring-contracted products.[434] An example is the preparation of naphtho(*b*)cyclobutene shown above.[435] In a different kind of reaction, five-membered cyclic sulfones can be converted to cyclobutenes by treatment with butyllithium followed by $LiAlH_4$,[436] for example,



This method is most successful when both the α and a' position of the sulfone bear alkyl substituents. See also **17-20.** Treating four-membered ring sultams with $SnCl_2$ led to aziridine products via loss of SO_2.[437]

OS VI, 482.

17-39 *The Story Synthesis*



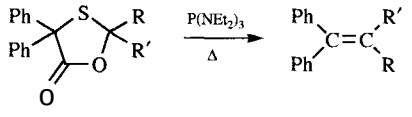
59

When cycloalkylidine peroxides (e.g., 59) are heated in an inert solvent (e.g., decane), extrusion of CO_2 takes place; the products are the cycloalkane containing three carbon atoms less than the starting peroxide and the lactone containing two carbon atoms less[438] (the *Story synthesis).*[439] The two products are formed in comparable yields, usually ~ 15-25% each. Although the yields are low, the reaction is useful because there are not many other ways to prepare large rings. The reaction is versatile, having been used to prepare rings of every size from 8 to 33 members.

Both dimeric and trimeric cycloalkylidine peroxides can be synthesized[440] by treatment of the corresponding cyclic ketones with H_2O_2 in acid solution.[441] The trimeric peroxide is formed first and is subsequently converted to the dimeric compound.[442]

17-40 *Alkene synthesis by Twofold Extrusion*

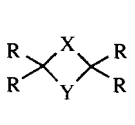
CARBON DIOXIDE, THIO-EXTRUSION



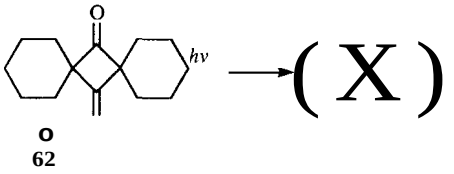
60

4,4-Diphenyloxathiolan-5-ones (60) give good yields of the corresponding alkenes when heated with tris(diethylamino)phosphine.[443] This reaction is an example of a

general type: alkene synthesis by twofold extrusion of X and Y from a molecule of the type 61.[444] Other examples are photolysis of 1,4-diones[445] (e.g., 62) and treatment of acetoxy sulfones, $RCH(OAc)CH_2SO_2Ph$, with Mg/EtOH and a catalytic amount of $HgCl_2$.[446] Compound 60 can be prepared by the condensation of thiobenzilic acid $Ph_2C(SH)COOH$ with aldehydes or ketones.



61



62

OS V, 297.

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[15] For example, see Bird, C.W.; Cookson, R.C.; Hudec, J.; Williams, R.O. *J. Chem. Soc,* ***1963,*** 410; Stille, J.K.; Sonnenberg, F.M.; Kinstle, T.H. *J. Am. Chem. Soc,* ***1966,*** *88,* 4922; Coke, J.L.; Cooke Jr., M.P. *J. Am. Chem. Soc,* ***1967,*** *89,* 6701; DePuy, C.H.; Naylor, C.G.; Beckman, J.A. *J. Org. Chem.,* ***1970,*** *35,* 2750; Brown, H.C.; Liu, K. *J. Am. Chem. Soc,* ***1970,*** *92,* 200; Sicher, J.; Pánkova, M; Zavada, J.; Kniežo, L.; Orahovats, A. *Collect. Czech. Chem. Commun.,* ***1971,*** *36,* 3128; Bartsch, R.A.; Lee, J.G. *J. Org. Chem.,* ***1991,*** *56,* 212, 2579.

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[19] Other possible mechanisms, such as E1cB (p. 1308) or α',β elimination (p. 1333), were ruled out in all these cases by other evidence.

[20] This conclusion has been challenged by Coke, J.L. Ref. 7.

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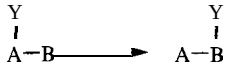
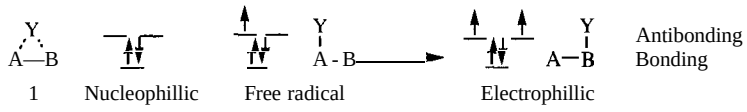
CHAPTER 18

Rearrangements

In a rearrangement reaction, a group moves from one atom to another in the same molecule.[1] Most are migrations from an atom to an adjacent one (called 1,2 shifts), but some are over longer distances. The migrating group (Y) may move with its



electron pair (these can be called *nucleophilic* or *anionotropic* rearrangements; the migrating group can be regarded as a nucleophile), without its electron pair (*electrophilic* or *cationotropic* rearrangements; in the case of migrating hydrogen, *prototropic* rearrangements), or with just one electron (free-radical rearrangements). The atom A is called the *migration origin* and B is the *migration terminus.* However, there are some rearrangements that do not lend themselves to neat categorization in this manner. Among these are those with cyclic transition states **(18-27-18-36).**



1 Nucleophillic Free radical Electrophillic

As we shall see, nucleophilic 1,2 shifts are much more common than electrophilic or free-radical 1,2 shifts. The reason for this can be seen by a consideration of the transition states (or in some cases intermediates) involved. We represent the transition state or intermediate for all three cases by 1, in which the two-electron A–Y bond overlaps with the orbital on atom B, which contains zero, one, and two electrons, in the case of nucleophilic, free-radical, and electrophilic migration, respectively. The overlap of these orbitals gives rise to three new orbitals, which have an energy relationship similar to those on page 58 (one bonding and two degenerate antibonding orbitals). In a nucleophilic migration, where only two electrons are involved, both can go into the bonding orbital and 1 is a low-energy transition state; but in a free-radical or electrophilic migration, there are, respectively, three or four electrons that must be accommodated, and antibonding orbitals must be occupied. It is not surprising therefore that, when 1,2-electrophilic or free-radical shifts are found, the migrating group Y is usually aryl or some other group that can accommodate the extra one or two electrons and thus effectively remove them from the three-membered transition state or intermediate (see 37 on p. 1389).

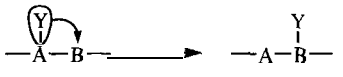
In any rearrangement we can in principle distinguish between two possible modes of reaction: In one of these, the group Y becomes completely detached from A and

may end up on the B atom of a different molecule (*intermolecular* rearrangement); in the other Y goes from A to B in the *same* molecule *(intramolecular* rearrangement), in which case there must be some continuing tie holding W to the A B system, preventing it from coming completely free. Strictly speaking, only the intramolecular type fits our definition of a rearrangement, but the general practice, which is followed here, is to include under the title "rearrangement" all net rearrangements whether they are inter- or intramolecular. It is usually not difficult to tell whether a given rearrangement is inter- or intramolecular. The most common method involves the use of *crossover* experiments. In this type of experiment, rearrangement is carried out on a mixture of Y–A– B and Y′–A–C, where Y' is closely related to Y (say, methyl vs. ethyl) and B to C. In an intramolecular process only A–B–Y and A–C–Y′ are recovered, but if the reaction is intermolecular, then not only will these two be found, but also A–B–Y′ and A–C– Y

MECHANISMS

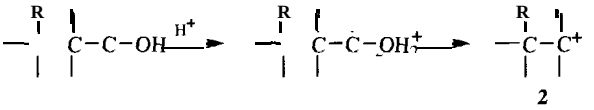
Nucleophilic Rearrangements[2]

Broadly speaking, such rearrangements consist of three steps, of which the actual migration is the second:



This process is sometimes called the *Whitmore 1,2 shift.*[3] Since the migrating group carries the electron pair with it, the migration terminus B must be an atom with only six electrons in its outer shell (an open sextet). The first step therefore is creation of a system with an open sextet. Such a system can arise in various ways, but two of these are the most important:

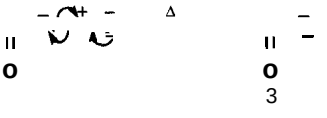
1. *Formation of a Carbocation.* These can be formed in a number of ways (see p. 225), but one of the most common methods when a rearrangement is desired is the acid treatment of an alcohol:



2

These two steps are of course the same as the first two steps of the S_N1 or the El reactions of alcohols.

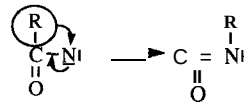
2. *Formation of a Nitrene.* The decomposition of acyl azides is one of several ways in which nitrenes are formed (see p. 253):



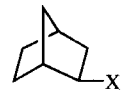
3

After the migration has taken place, the atom at the migration origin (A) must necessarily have an open sextet. In the third step, this atom acquires an octet. In the case of carbocations, the most common third steps are combinations with a nucleophile (rearrangement with substitution) and loss of H^+ (rearrangement with elimination).

Though we have presented this mechanism as taking place in three steps, and some reactions do take place in this way, in many cases two or all three steps are simultaneous. For instance, in the nitrene example above, as the R migrates, an electron pair from the nitrogen moves into the C—N bond to give a stable isocyanate:



In this example, the second and third steps are simultaneous. It is also possible for the second and third steps to be simultaneous even when the "third" step involves more than just a simple motion of a pair of electrons. Similarly, there are many reactions in which the first two steps are simultaneous; that is, there is no actual formation of a species such as 2 or 3. In these instances, it may be said that R assists in the removal of the leaving group, with migration of R and the removal of the leaving group taking place simultaneously. Many investigations have been carried out in attempts to determine, in various reactions, whether such intermediates as 2 or 3 actually form, or whether the steps are simultaneous (see, e.g., the discussions on pp. 1381, 1411), but the difference between the two possibilities is often subtle, and the question is not always easily answered.[4]

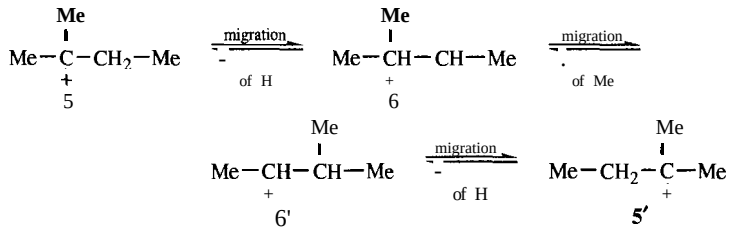


4

Evidence for this mechanism is that rearrangements of this sort occur under conditions where we have previously encountered carbocations: S_N1 conditions, Friedel–Crafts alkylation, and so on. Solvolysis of neopentyl bromide leads to rearrangement products, and the rate increases with increasing ionizing power of the solvent but is unaffected by concentration of base,[5] so that the first step is carbocation formation. The same compound under S_N2 conditions gave no rearrangement, but only ordinary substitution, though slowly. Thus with neopentyl bromide, formation of a carbocation leads only to rearrangement. Carbocations usually rearrange to more stable carbocations. Thus the direction of rearrangement is usually primary —+ secondary → tertiary. Neopentyl (Me_3CCH_2), neophyl ($PhCMe_2$ CH2), and norbornyl (e.g., 4) type systems are especially prone to carbocation rearrangement reactions. It has been shown that the rate of migration increases with the degree of electron deficiency at the migration terminus.[6]

We have previously mentioned (p. 219) that stable tertiary carbocations can be obtained, in solution, at very low temperatures. The NMR studies have shown that when these solutions are warmed, rapid migrations of hydride and of alkyl groups

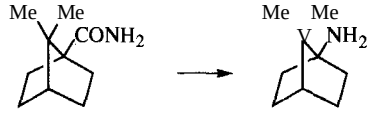
take place, resulting in an equilibrium mixture of structures.[7] For example, the *tert*-pentyl cation (5)[8] equilibrates as follows:



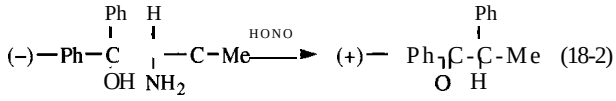
Carbocations that rearrange to give products of identical structure (e.g., **5**⇆**5′**, **6**⇆**6′**) are called *degenerate carbocations* and such rearrangements are *degenerate rearrangements.* Many examples are known.[9]

The Actual Nature of the Migration

Most nucleophilic 1,2 shifts are intramolecular. The W group does not become free but always remains connected in some way to the substrate. Apart from the evidence from crossover experiments, the strongest evidence is that when the group W is chiral, the configuration is *retained* in the product. For example, (+)-PhCHMeCOOH was converted to (−)-$PhCHMeNH_2$ by the Curtius **(18-14),** Hofmann (18-13), Lossen **(18-15),** and Schmidt **(18-16)** reactions.[10] In these reactions, the extent of retention varied from 95.8 to 99.6%. Retention of configuration in the migrating group has been shown many times since.[11] Another experiment demonstrating retention was the easy conversion of **7**–**8**.[11] Neither inversion nor racemization



could take place at a bridgehead. There is much other evidence that retention of configuration usually occurs in W, and inversion never.[12] However, this is not the state of affairs at A and B. In many reactions, of course, the structure of W—A— B is such that the product has only one steric possibility at A or B or both, and in most of these cases nothing can be learned. But in cases where the steric nature of A or B can be investigated, the results are mixed. It has been shown that either inversion or racemization can occur at A or B. Thus the following conversion proceeded with inversion at B:[13]



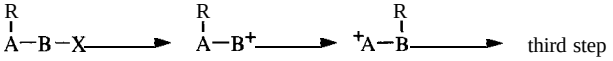
(18-2)

and inversion at A has been shown in other cases.[14] However, in many other cases, racemization occurs at A or B or both.[15] It is not always necessary for the product to have two steric possibilities in order to investigate the stereochemistry at A or B.

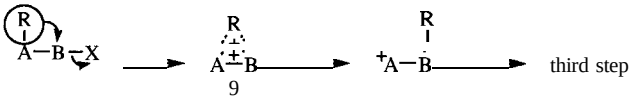
Thus, in most Beckmann rearrangements (18-17), only the group trans (usually called anti) to the hydroxyl group migrates:

showing inversion at B.

This information tells us about the degree of concertedness of the three steps of the rearrangement. First consider the migration terminus B. If racemization is found at B, it is probable that the first step takes place before the second and that a positively charged carbon (or other sextet atom) is present at B:



With respect to B, this is an S_N1 type process. If inversion occurs at B, it is likely that the first two steps are concerted, that a carbocation is *not* an intermediate, and that the process is S_N2 like:

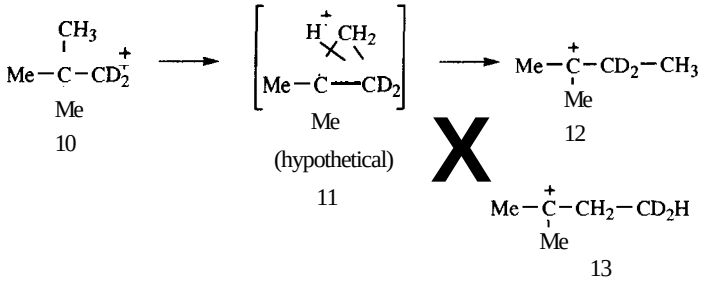


In this case, participation by R assists in removal of X in the same way that neighboring groups do (p. 404). Indeed, R *is* a neighboring group here. The only difference is that, in the case of the neighboring-group mechanism of nucleophilic substitution, R never becomes detached from A, while in a rearrangement the bond between R and A is broken. In either case, the anchimeric assistance results in an increased rate of reaction. Of course, for such a process to take place, R must be in a favorable geometrical position (R and X anti-periplanar). Compound 9 may be a true intermediate or only a transition state, depending on what migrates. In certain cases of the S_N1 type process, it is possible for migration to take place with net retention of configuration at the migrating terminus because of conformational effects in the carbocation.[16]

We may summarize a few conclusions:

1. The S_N1 type process occurs mostly when B is a tertiary atom or has one aryl group and at least one other alkyl or aryl group. In other cases, the S_N2 type process is more likely. Inversion of configuration (indicating an S_N2 type process) has been shown for a neopentyl substrate by the use of the chiral neopentyl-1-*d* alcohol.[17] On the other hand, there is other evidence that neopentyl systems undergo rearrangement by a carbocation (S_N1 type) mechanism.[18]
2. The question as to whether 9 is an intermediate or a transition state has been much debated. When R is aryl or vinyl, then 9 is probably an intermediate and the migrating group lends anchimeric assistance[19] (see p. 414 for resonance stabilization of this intermediate when R is aryl). When R is alkyl, 9 is a

protonated cyclopropane (edge- or corner-protonated; see p. 990). There is much evidence that in simple migrations of a methyl group, the bulk of the products formed do not arise from protonated cyclopropane *intermediates.* Evidence for this statement has already been given (p. 419). Further evidence was obtained from experiments involving labeling.



Rearrangement of the neopentyl cation labeled with deuterium in the 1 position (10) gave only terf-pentyl products with the label in the 3 position (derived from 12), though if 11 were an intermediate, the cyclopropane ring could just as well cleave the other way to give fert-pentyl derivatives labeled in the 4 position (derived from **13**).[20] Another experiment that led to the same conclusion was the generation, in several ways, of $Me_3C^{13}CH_2^+$. In this case, the only fert-pentyl products isolated were labeled in C-3, that is, $Me_2C^+-{}^{13}CH_2CH_3$ derivatives; no derivatives of $Me_2C^+-CH_2^{13}CH_3$ were found.[21]

Though the bulk of the products are not formed from protonated cyclopropane intermediates, there is considerable evidence that at least in 1-propyl systems, a small part of the product can in fact arise from such intermediates.[22] Among this evidence is the isolation of 10-15% cyclopropanes (mentioned on p. 419). Additional evidence comes from propyl cations generated by diazotization of labeled amines ($CH_3CH_2CD_2^+$, $CH_3CD_2CH_2^+$, $CH_3CH_2^{14}CH_2^+$), where isotopic distribution in the products indicated that a small amount (~5%) of the product had to be formed from protonated cyclopropane intermediates, for example,[23]

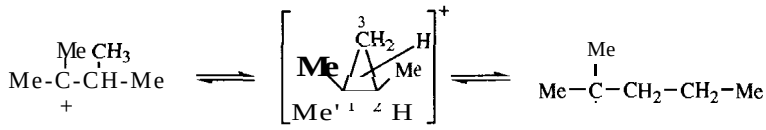
$$CH_3CH_2CD_2NH_2 \xrightarrow{HONO} C_2H_4D-CHD-OH \quad (\approx 1\%)$$

$$CH_3CD_2CH_2NH_2 \xrightarrow{HONO} C_2H_4D-CHD-OH \quad (\approx 1\%)$$

$$CH_3CH_2^{14}CH_2NH_2 \xrightarrow{HONO} {}^{14}CH_3CH_2CH_2OH\ (\approx 2\%) + CH_3{}^{14}CH_2CH_2OH\ (\approx 2\%)$$

Even more scrambling was found in trifluoroacetolysis of 1-propyl-1-^{14}C-mercuric perchlorate.[24] However, protonated cyclopropane intermedi-

ates accounted for $<1\%$ of the products from diazotization of labeled isobutylamine[25] and from formolysis of labeled 1-propyl tosylate.[26]

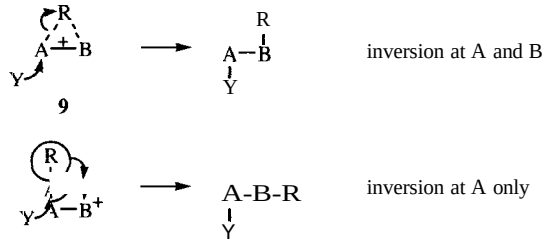


14 15 16

It is likely that protonated cyclopropane transition states or intermediates are also responsible for certain non-1,2 rearrangements. For example, in superacid solution, the ions 14 and 16 are in equilibrium. It is not possible for these to interconvert solely by 1,2 alkyl or hydride shifts unless primary carbocations (which are highly unlikely) are intermediates. However, the reaction can be explained[27] by postulating that (in the forward reaction) it is the 1,2 bond of the intermediate or transition state 15 that opens up rather than the 2,3 bond, which is the one that would open if the reaction were a normal 1,2 shift of a methyl group. In this case, opening of the 1,2 bond produces a tertiary cation, while opening of the 2,3 bond would give a secondary cation. (In the reaction 16 → 14, it is of course the 1,3 bond that opens).

3. There has been much discussion of H as a migrating group. There is no conclusive evidence for the viewpoint that 9 in this case is or is not a true intermediate, though both positions have been argued (see p. 419).

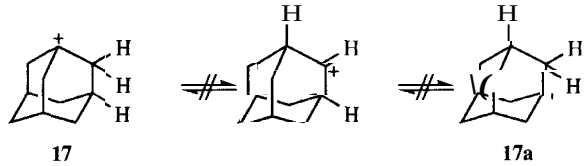
The stereochemistry at the migration origin A is less often involved, since in most cases it does not end up as a tetrahedral atom; but when there is inversion here, there is an S_N2 type process at the beginning of the migration. This may or may not be accompanied by an S_N2 process at the migration terminus B:



9

In some cases, it has been found that, when H is the migrating species, the configuration at A may be *retained*.[28]

There is evidence that the configuration of the molecule may be important even where the leaving group is gone long before migration takes place. For example, the 1-adamantyl cation (17) does not equilibrate intramolecularly, even at temperatures up to 130°C,[29] though open-chain (e.g., $5 \leftrightarrows 5'$) and cyclic tertiary carbocations



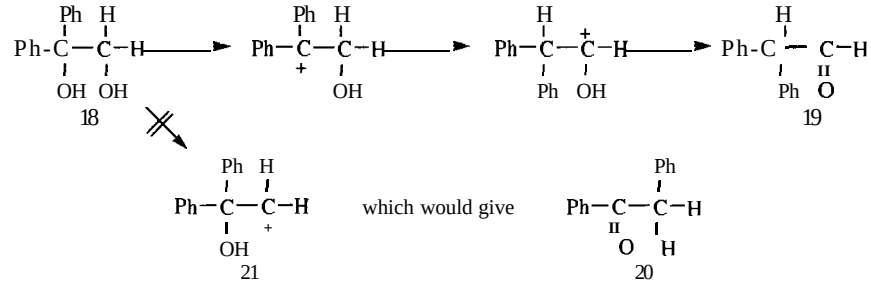
17 17a

undergo such equilibration at 0°C or below. On the basis of this and other evidence, it has been concluded that for a 1,2 shift of hydrogen or methyl to proceed as smoothly as possible, the vacant *p* orbital of the carbon bearing the positive charge and the sp^3 orbital carrying the migrating group must be coplanar,[29] which is not possible for 17.

Migratory Aptitudes[30]

In many reactions, there is no question about which group migrates. For example, in the Hofmann, Curtius, and similar reactions there is only one possible migrating group in each molecule, and one can measure migratory aptitudes only by comparing the relative rearrangement rates of different compounds. In other instances, there are two or more potential migrating groups, but which migrates is settled by the geometry of the molecule. The Beckmann rearrangement **(18-17)** provides an example. As we have seen, only the group trans to the OH migrates. In compounds whose geometry is not restricted in this manner, there still may be eclipsing effects (see p. 1318), so that the choice of migrating group is largely determined by which group is in the right place in the most stable conformation of the molecule.[31] However, in some reactions, especially the Wagner-Meerwein **(18-1)** and the pinacol (18-2) rearrangements, the molecule may contain several groups that, geometrically at least, have approximately equal chances of migrating, and these reactions have often been used for the direct study of relative migratory aptitudes. In the pinacol rearrangement, there is the additional question of which OH group leaves and which does not, since a group can migrate only if the OH group on *the other* carbon is lost.

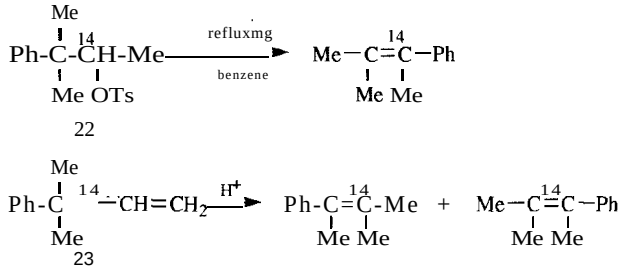
We deal with the second question first. To study this question, the best type of substrate to use is one of the form $R_2C(OH)-CR'_2(OH)$, since the only thing that determines migratory aptitude is which OH group comes off. Once the OH group is gone, the migrating group is determined. As might be expected, the OH that leaves is the one whose loss gives rise to the more stable carbocation. Thus 1,1-diphenylethanediol (18) gives diphenylacetaldehyde (19), not phenylacetophenone (20). Obviously, it does not matter in this case whether phenyl has a greater inherent migratory aptitude



than hydrogen or not. Only the hydrogen can migrate because **21** is not formed. As we know, carbocation stability is enhanced by groups in the order aryl>alkyl>

hydrogen, and this normally determines which side loses the OH group. However, exceptions are known, and which group is lost may depend on the reaction conditions (for an example, see the reaction of 49, p. 1397).

In order to answer the question about inherent migratory aptitudes, the obvious type of substrate to use (in the pinacol rearrangement) is $R'RC(OH)-CRR'(OH)$, since the same carbocation is formed no matter which OH leaves, and it would seem that a direct comparison of the migratory tendencies of R and R' is possible. On closer inspection, however, we can see that several factors are operating. Apart from the question of possible conformational effects, already mentioned, there is also the fact that whether the group R or R' migrates is determined not only by the relative inherent migrating abilities of R and R' but also by whether the group that does *not* migrate is better at stabilizing the positive charge that will now be found at the migration origin.[32] Thus, migration of R gives rise to the cation $R'C^+(OH)CR_2R'_2$, while migration of R' gives the cation $R^+C(OH)CRR'_2$ and these cations have different stabilities. It is possible that in a given case R might be found to migrate less than R', not because it actually has a lower inherent migrating tendency, but because it is much better at stabilizing the positive charge. In addition to this factor,



migrating ability of a group is also related to its capacity to render anchimeric assistance to the departure of the nucleofuge. An example of this effect is the finding that in the decomposition of tosylate 22 only the phenyl group migrates, while in acid treatment of the corresponding alkene (23), there is competitive migration of both methyl and phenyl (in these reactions ^{14}C labeling is necessary to determine which group has migrated).[33] Compounds 22 and 23 give the same carbocation; the differing results must be caused by the fact that in 22 the phenyl group can assist the leaving group, while no such process is possible for 23. This example clearly illustrates the difference between migration to a relatively free terminus and one that proceeds with the migrating group lending anchimeric assistance.[34]

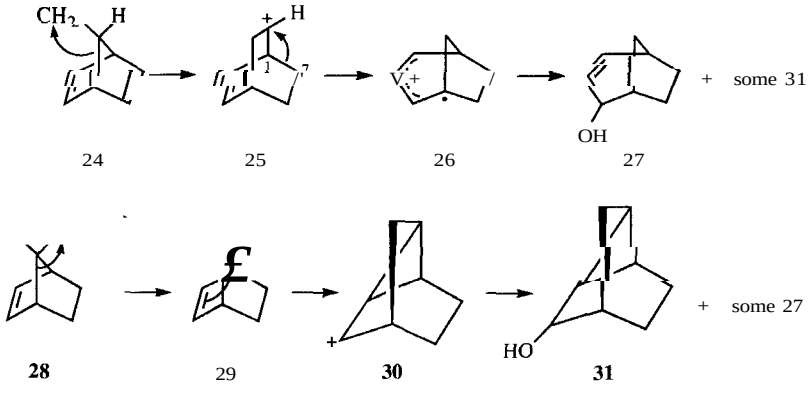
It is not surprising therefore that clear-cut answers as to relative migrating tendencies are not available. More often than not migratory aptitudes are in the order aryl > alkyl, but exceptions are known, and the position of hydrogen in this series is often unpredictable. In some cases, migration of hydrogen is preferred to aryl migration; in other cases migration of alkyl is preferred to that of hydrogen. Mixtures are often found, and the isomer that predominates often depends on conditions. For example, the comparison between methyl and ethyl has been made

many times in various systems, and in some cases methyl migration and in others ethyl migration has been found to predominate.[35] However, it can be said that among aryl migrating groups, electron-donating substituents in the para and meta positions increase the migratory aptitudes, while the same substituents in the ortho positions decrease them. Electron-withdrawing groups decrease migrating ability in all positions. The following are a few of the relative migratory aptitudes determined for aryl groups by Bachmann and Ferguson:[36] *p*-anisyl, 500; *p*-tolyl, 15.7; *m*-tolyl, 1.95; phenyl, 1.00; *p*-chlorophenyl, 0.7; *o*-anisyl, 0.3. For the *o*-anisyl group, the poor migrating ability probably has a steric cause, while for the others there is a fair correlation with activation or deactivation of electrophilic aromatic substitution, which is what the process is with respect to the benzene ring. It has been reported that at least in certain systems acyl groups have a greater migratory aptitude than alkyl groups.[37]

Memory Effects[38]

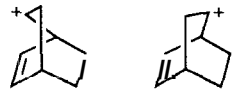
Solvolysis of the endo bicyclic compound (24) (X=ONs, p. 446, or Br) gave mostly the bicyclic allylic alcohol (27), along with a smaller amount of the tricyclic alcohol (31), while solvolysis of the exo isomers (28) gave mostly (31), with smaller amounts of 27.[39] Thus the two isomers gave entirely different ratios of products,

the case of 25, a second rearrangement (a shift of the 1,7 bond) follows, while with 29 what follows is an intramolecular addition of the positive carbon to the double



bond. It seems as if 25 and 29 "remember" how they were formed before they go on to give the second step. Such effects are called *memory effects* and other such cases are known.[40] The causes of these effects are not well understood, though there has been much discussion. One possible cause is differential solvation of the apparently identical ions 25 and 29. Other possibilities are (1) that the ions have geometrical

structures that are twisted in opposite senses (e.g., a twisted 29 might have its positive carbon closer to the double bond than a twisted 25); (2) that ion pairing



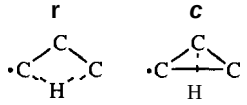
Twisted 29 Twisted 25

is responsible;[41] and (3) that nonclassical carbocations are involved.[42] One possibility that has been ruled out is that the steps 24 → 25 → 26 and 28 → 29 → 30 are concerted, so that 25 and 29 never exist at all. This possibility has been excluded by several kinds of evidence, including the fact that 24 gives not only 27, but also some 31; and 28 gives some 27 along with 31. This means that some of the 25 and 29 ions interconvert, a phenomenon known as *leakage.*

Longer Nucleophilic Rearrangements

The question as to whether a group can migrate with its electron pair from A to C in Y–A–B–C or over longer distances has been much debated. Although claims have been made that alkyl groups can migrate in this way, the evidence is that such migration is extremely rare, if it occurs at all. One experiment that demonstrated this was the generation of the 3,3-dimethyl-1-butyl cation ($Me_3CCH_2CH_2^+$). If 1,3 methyl migrations are possible, this cation would appear to be a favorable substrate, since such a migration would convert a primary cation into the tertiary 2-methyl-2-pentyl cation ($Me_2CCH_2CH_2CH_3$), while the only possible 1,2 migration (of hydride) would give only a secondary cation. However, no products arising from the 2-methyl-2-pentyl cation were found, the only rearranged products being those formed by the 1,2 hydride migration.[43] 1,3 Migration of bromine has been reported.[44]

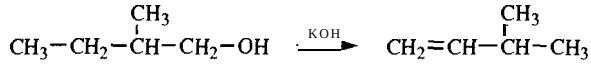
However, most of the debate over the possibility of 1,3 migrations has concerned not methyl or bromine but 1,3 hydride shifts.[45] There is no doubt that *apparent* 1,3 hydride shifts take place (many instances have been found), but the question is whether they are truly direct hydride shifts or whether they occur by another



A B

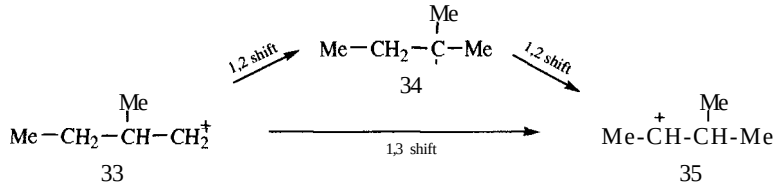
mechanism. There are at least two ways in which indirect 1,3 hydride shifts can take place: (1) by successive 1,2 shifts or (2) through the intervention of protonated cyclopropanes (see p. 1383). A direct 1,3 shift would have the transition state A, while the transition state for a 1,3 shift involving a protonated cyclopropane intermediate would resemble B. The evidence is that most reported 1,3 hydride shifts are actually the result of successive 1,2 migrations,[46] but that in some cases small amounts of products cannot be accounted for in this way. For example, the reaction

of 2-methyl-1-butanol with KOH and bromoform gave a mixture of alkenes, nearly all of which could have arisen from simple elimination or 1,2 shifts of hydride or alkyl. However, 1.2% of the product was 32:[47]



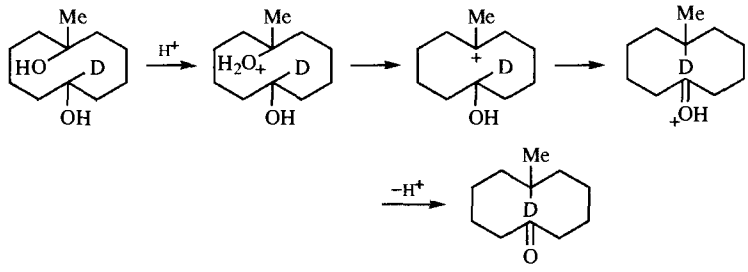
32
(1.2%)

Hypothetically, 32 could have arisen from a 1,3 shift (direct or through a protonated cyclopropane) or from two successive 1,2 shifts:



However, the same reaction applied to 2-methyl-2-butanol gave no 32, which demonstrated that 35 was not formed from 34. The conclusion was thus made that 35 was formed directly from **33.** This experiment does not answer the question as to whether 35 was formed by a direct shift or through a protonated cyclopropane, but from other evidence[48] it appears that 1,3 hydride shifts that do not result from successive 1,2 migrations usually take place through protonated cyclopropane intermediates (which, as we saw on p. 1382, account for only a small percentage of the product in any case). However, there is evidence that direct 1,3 hydride shifts by way of A may take place in superacid solutions.[49]

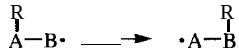
Although direct nucleophilic rearrangements over distances greater than two adjacent atoms 1,2 are rare (or perhaps nonexistent) when the migrating atom or group must move along a chain, this is not so for a shift across a ring of 8–11 members. Many such transannular rearrangements are known.[50] Several examples are given on page 184. This is the mechanism of one of these:[51]



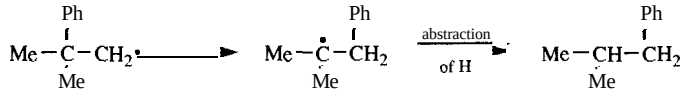
It is noteworthy that the *methyl* group does not migrate in this system. It is generally true that alkyl groups do not undergo transannular migration.[52] In most cases it is hydride that undergoes this type of migration, though a small amount of phenyl migration has also been shown.[53]

Free-Radical Rearrangements[54]

1,2 Free-radical rearrangements are much less common than the nucleophilic type previously considered, for the reasons mentioned on page 1377. Where they do occur, the general pattern is similar. There must first be generation of a free radical, and then the actual migration in which the migrating group moves with one electron:

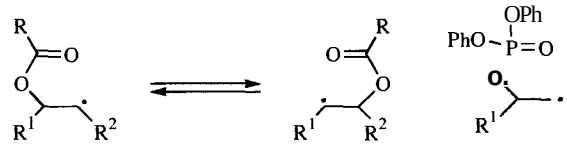


Finally, the new free radical must stabilize itself by a further reaction. The order of radical stability leads us to predict that here too, as with carbocation rearrangements, any migrations should be in the order primary → secondary → tertiary, and that the logical place to look for them should be in neopentyl and neophyl systems. The most common way of generating free radicals for the purpose of detection of rearrangements is by decarbonylation of aldehydes (14-39). In this manner it was found that neophyl radicals *do* undergo rearrangement. Thus, $PhCMe_2CH_2CHO$ treated with di-*tert*-butyl peroxide gave about equal amounts of the normal product $PhCMe_2CH_3$ and the product arising from migration of phenyl:[55]



Many other cases of free-radical migration of aryl groups have been found.[56]

A 1,2-shift has been observed in radicals bearing an OCOR group at the p-carbon where the oxygen group migrates as shown in the interconversion of 36 and 37. This has been proven by ^{18}O isotopic labeling experiments[57] and other mechanistic explorations.[58] A similar rearrangement was observed with phosphatoxy alkyl radicals such as 38.[59]



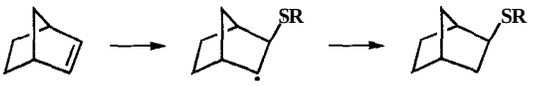
36 37 38

A C → N 1,2-aryl rearrangement was observed when alkyl azides were treated with *n*-Bu_3SnH, proceeding via an C–N·– $SnBu_3$ species to give an imine.[60]

It is noteworthy that the extent of migration is much less than with corresponding carbocations: thus in the example given, there was only ~50% migration, whereas the carbocation would have given much more. Also noteworthy is that there was no migration of the methyl group. In general, it may be said that free-radical migration of alkyl groups does not occur at ordinary temperatures. Many attempts have been made to detect such migration on the traditional neopentyl and bornyl types of substrates. However, alkyl migration is not observed, even in substrates where the corresponding carbocations undergo facile rearrangement.[61] Another type of

migration that is very common for carbocations, but not observed for free radicals, is 1,2 migration of hydrogen. We confine ourselves to a few examples of the lack of migration of alkyl groups and hydrogen:

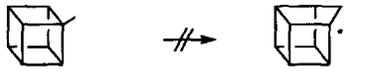
1. 3,3-Dimethylpentanal ($EtCMe_2CH_2CHO$) gave no rearranged products on decarbonylation.[62]
2. Addition of RSH to norbornene gave only *exo*-norbornyl



39

sulfides, though 39 is an intermediate, and the corresponding carbocation cannot be formed without rearrangement.[63]

3. The cubylcarbinyl radical did not rearrange to the 1-homocubyl radical, though



Cubylcarbinyl radical — 1-Homocubyl radical

doing so would result in a considerable decrease in strain.[64]

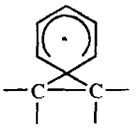
4. It was shown[65] that no rearrangement of isobutyl radical to *tert*-butyl radical (which would involve the formation of a more stable radical by a hydrogen shift) took place during the chlorination of isobutane.

However, 1,2 migration of alkyl groups has been shown to occur in certain *diradicals*.[66] For example, the following rearrangement has been established by tritium labeling.[67]

$$CHT-CH-CH-CH_3 \longrightarrow CH_3-CHT-CH=CH-CH_3$$

In this case, the fact that migration of the methyl group leads directly to a compound in which all electrons are paired undoubtedly contributes to the driving force of the reaction.

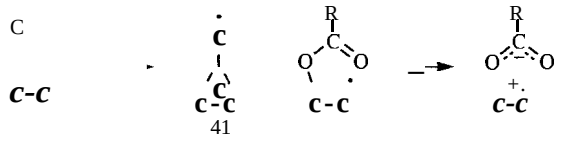
The fact that aryl groups migrate, but alkyl groups and hydrogen generally do not, leads to the proposition that 40, in which the odd electron is not found in the three-membered ring, may be an intermediate. There has been much controversy on this



40

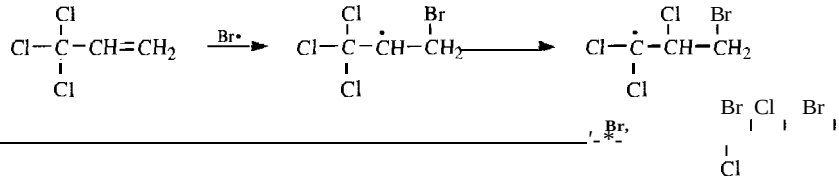
point, but the bulk of the evidence indicates that 40 is a transition state, not an intermediate.[68] Among the evidence is the failure to observe 40 either by ESR[69] or CIDNP.[70] Both of these techniques can detect free radicals with extremely short lifetimes (pp. 238-239).[71]

Besides aryl, vinylic[72] and acetoxy groups[73] also migrate. Vinylic groups migrate by way of a cyclopropylcarbinyl radical intermediate (**41**),[74] while the migration of acetoxy groups may involve the charge-separated structure shown.[75] In addition, migration has been observed for chloro (and to a much lesser extent bromo) groups.



41

For example, in the reaction of $Cl_3CCH{=}CH_2$ with bromine under the influence of peroxides, the products were 47% $Cl_3CCHBrCH_2Br$ (the normal addition product) and 53% $BrCCl_2CHClCH_2Br$, which arose by rearrangement:



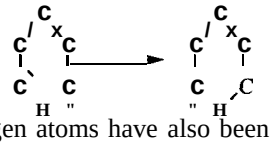
In this particular case, the driving force for the rearrangement is the particular stability of dichloroalkyl free radicals. Freidlina and co-workers[76] have extensively studied reactions of this sort. It has been shown that the 1,2 migration of Cl readily occurs if the migration origin is tertiary and the migration terminus primary.[77] Migration of Cl and Br could take place by a transition state in which the odd electron is accommodated in a vacant *d* orbital of the halogen.

Migratory aptitudes have been measured for the phenyl and vinyl groups, and for three other groups, using the system $RCMe_2CH_2\cdot \rightarrow Me_2\dot{C}CH_2R$. These were found to be in the order $R{=}H_2C{=}CH_2 > Me_3CC{=}O > Ph > Me_3C{\equiv}C > CN$.[78]

In summary then, 1,2 free-radical migrations are much less prevalent than the analogous carbocation processes, and are important only for aryl, vinylic, acetoxy, and halogen migrating groups. The direction of migration is normally toward the more stable radical, but "wrong-way" rearrangements are also known.[79]

Despite the fact that hydrogen atoms do not migrate 1,2, longer free-radical migrations of hydrogen are known.[80] The most common are 1,5 shifts, but 1,6 and longer shifts have also been found. The possibility of 1,3 hydrogen shifts has been much investigated, but it is not certain if any actually occur. If they do they are rare, presumably because the most favorable geometry for C—H—C in the transition state is linear and this geometry cannot be achieved in a 1,3 shift. The 1,4 shifts are definitely known, but are still not very common. These long shifts are best regarded

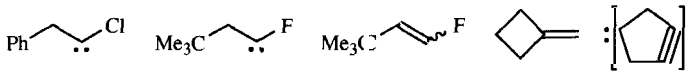
as internal abstractions of hydrogen (for reactions involving them, see **14-7** and **18-40):**



Transannular shifts of hydrogen atoms have also been observed.[81]

Carbene Rearrangements

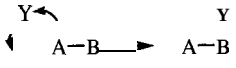
Carbenes can rearrange to alkenes in many cases. A 1,2-hydrogen shift leads to an alkene, and this is often competitive with insertion reactions.[82] Benzylchlorocarbene (42) rearranges via a 1,2-hydrogen shift to give the alkene.[83] Similarly, carbene (43) rearranges to alkene (44), and replacement of H on the α-carbon with D showed a deuterium isotope effect of ~ 5.[84] Rearrangement of alkylidne carbene (45) has been calculated to give the highly unstable cyclopentyne (46), which cannot be isolated, but can give a [2 + 2] cycloaddition product when generated in the presence of a simple alkene.[85]



42 43 44 45 46

Electrophilic Rearrangements[86]

Rearrangements in which a group migrates without its electrons are much rarer than the two kinds previously considered, but the general principles are the same. A carbanion (or other negative ion) is created first, and the actual rearrangement step involves migration of a group without its electrons:



The product of the rearrangement may be stable or may react further, depending on its nature (see also pp. 1396). An *ab initio* study predicts that a [l,2]-alkyl shift in alkyne anions should be facile.[87]

REACTIONS

The reactions in this chapter are classified into three main groups. The 1,2 shifts are considered first. Within this group, reactions are classified according to (1) the identity of the substrate atoms A and B and (2) the nature of the migrating group Y. In the second group are the cyclic rearrangements. The third group consists of rearrangements that cannot be fitted into either of the first two categories.

Reactions in which the migration terminus is on an aromatic ring have been treated under aromatic substitution. These are **11-30-11-35, 11-39, 13-21-13-24,**

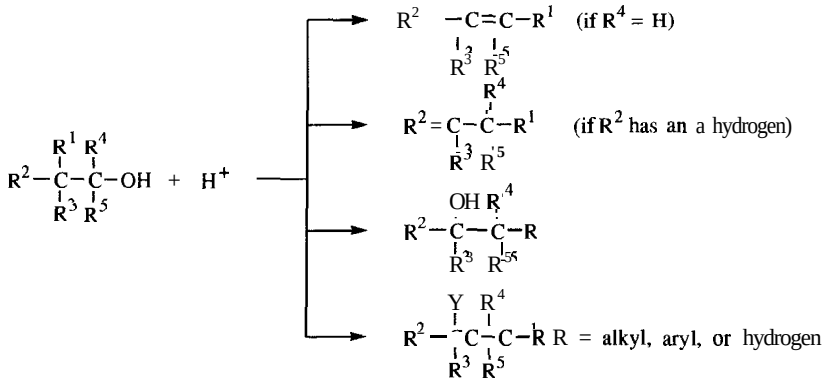
and, partially, **11-36**, **11-41**, and **11-42.** Double-bond shifts have also been treated in other chapters, though they may be considered rearrangements (pp. 327, 776, and **12-2).** Other reactions that may be regarded as rearrangements are the Pummerer **(19-62)** and Willgerodt **(19-63)** reactions.

1,2 Rearrangements

A. *Carbon-to-Carbon Migrations of R, H, and Ar*

18-1 *Wagner-Meerwein and Related Reactions*

1/HYDRO,1/HYDROXY-(2/ → 1/ALKYL)-*MIGRO*-ELIMINATION, AND SO ON



When alcohols are treated with acids, simple substitution (e.g., **10-70)** or elimination **(17-1)** usually accounts for most or all of the products. But in many cases, especially where two or three alkyl or aryl groups are on the β carbon, some or all of the product is rearranged. These rearrangements are called *Wagner-Meerwein rearrangements.* As pointed out previously, the carbocation that is a direct product of the rearrangement must stabilize itself, and most often it does this by the loss of a hydrogen (3 to it, so the rearrangement product is usually an alkene.[88] The proton lost may be R^4 (if this is a hydrogen) or an a proton from R^2 (if it has one). If there is a choice of protons, Zaitsev's rule (p. 1314) governs the direction, as we might expect. Sometimes a different positive group is lost instead of a proton. Less often, the new carbocation stabilizes itself by combining with a nucleophile instead of losing a proton. The nucleophile may be the water that is the original leaving group, so that the product is a rearranged alcohol, or it may be some other species present, which we have called Y. Rearrangement is usually predominant in neopentyl and neophyl types of substrates, and with these types normal nucleophilic substitution is difficult (normal elimination is of course impossible). Under S_N2 conditions, substitution is extremely slow;[89] under S_N1 conditions, carbocations are formed that rapidly rearrange. However, free-radical substitution, unaccompanied by rearrangement, can be carried out on neopentyl systems, though, as we have seen (p. 1389), neophyl systems undergo rearrangement as well as substitution.

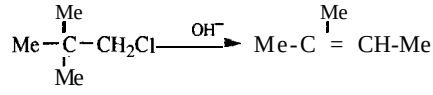
Wagner-Meerwein rearrangements were first discovered in the bicyclic terpenes, and most of the early development of this reaction was with these compounds.[90] An example is

Example *a*

Isobomeol Camphene

Examples in simpler systems are

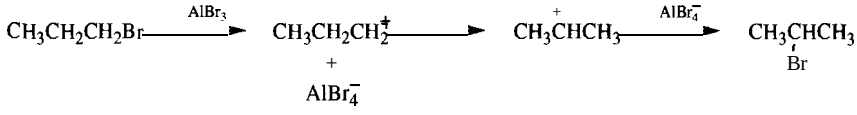
Example *b*



Example *c*

These examples illustrate the following points:

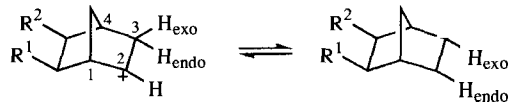
1. Hydride ion can migrate. In example *c,* it was hydride that shifted, not bromine:



2. The leaving group does not have to be H_2O, but can be any departing species whose loss creates a carbocation, including N_2 from aliphatic diazonium ions[91] (see the section on leaving groups in nucleophilic substitution, p. 446). Also, rearrangement may follow when the carbocation is created by addition of a proton or other positive species to a double bond. Even alkanes give rearrangements when heated with Lewis acids, provided some species is initially present to form a carbocation from the alkane.
3. Example *c* illustrates that the last step can be substitution instead of elimination.
4. Example *b* illustrates that the new double bond is formed in accord with Zaitsev's rule.

2-Norbornyl cations, besides displaying the 1,2 shifts of a CH_2 group previously illustrated for the isoborneol → camphene conversion, are also prone to rapid hydride shifts from the 3 to the 2 position (known as 3,2 shifts). These 3,2 shifts usually take place from the exo side;[92] that is, the 3-exo hydrogen migrates to the 2-exo position.[93] This stereoselectivity is analogous to the behavior we have previously

seen for norbornyl systems, namely, that nucleophiles attack norbornyl cations from

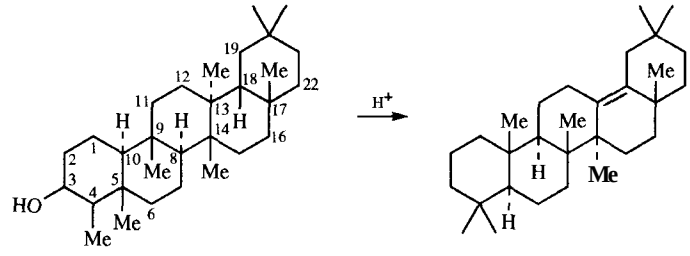


the exo side (p. 415) and that addition to norbornenes is also usually from the exo direction (p. 987).

The direction of rearrangement is usually toward the most stable carbocation (or radical), which is tertiary > secondary > primary, but rearrangements in the other direction have also been found,[94] and often the product is a mixture corresponding to an equilibrium mixture of the possible carbocations.

The term "Wagner-Meerwein rearrangement" is not precise. Some use it to refer to all the rearrangements in this section and in 18-2. Others use it only when an alcohol is converted to a rearranged alkene. Terpene chemists call the migration of a methyl group the *Nametkin rearrangement.* The term *retropinacol rearrangement* is often applied to some or all of these. Fortunately, this disparity in nomenclature does not seem to cause much confusion.

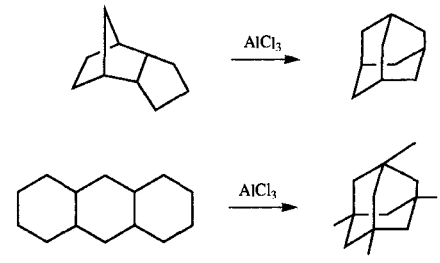
Sometimes several of these rearrangements occur in one molecule, either simultaneously or in rapid succession. A spectacular example is found in the triterpene series. Friedelin is a triterpenoid ketone found in cork. Reduction gives 3β-friedelanol (47). When this compound is treated with acid, 13(18)-oleanene (48) is formed.[95] In this case *seven* 1,2 shifts take place. On removal of H_2O from position 3 to leave a positive charge, the following shifts occur: hydride from 4 to 3; methyl



47 48

from 5 to 4; hydride from 10 to 5; methyl from 9 to 10; hydride from 8 to 9; methyl from 14 to 8; and methyl from 13 to 14. This leaves a positive charge at position 13, which is stabilized by loss of the proton at the 18 position to give 48. All these shifts are stereospecific, the group always migrating on the side of the ring system on which it is located; that is, a group above the "plane" of the ring system (indicated by a solid line in 47) moves above the plane, and a group below the plane (dashed line) moves below it. It is probable that the seven shifts are not all concerted, though some of them may be, for intermediate products can be isolated.[96] As an illustration of point 2 (p. 1394), it may be mentioned that friedelene, derived from dehydration of 47, also gives 48 on treatment with acid.[97]

It was mentioned above that even alkanes undergo Wagner-Meerwein rearrangements if treated with Lewis acids and a small amount of initiator. An interesting application of this reaction is the conversion of tricyclic molecules to adamantane and its derivatives.[98] It has been found that *all* tricyclic alkanes containing 10 carbons are converted to adamantane by treatment with a Lewis acid such as $AlCl_3$. If the substrate contains more than 10 carbons, alkyl-substituted adamantanes are produced. The IUPAC name for these reactions is *Schleyer adamantization.* Two examples are



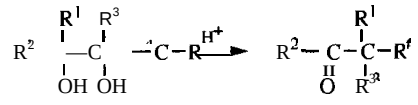
If 14 or more carbons are present, the product may be diamantane or a substituted diamantane.[99] These reactions are successful because of the high thermodynamic stability of adamantane, diamantane, and similar diamond-like molecules. The most stable of a set of C_nH_m isomers (called the *stabilomer*) will be the end product if the reaction reaches equilibrium.[100] Best yields are obtained by the use of "sludge" catalysts[101] (i.e., a mixture of AlX_3 and *tert*-butyl bromide or sec-butyl bromide).[102] Though it is certain that these adamantane-forming reactions take place by nucleophilic 1,2 shifts, the exact pathways are not easy to unravel because of their complexity.[103] Treatment of adamantane-2-^{14}C with $AlCl_3$ results in total carbon scrambling on a statistical basis.[104]

As already indicated, the mechanism of the Wagner-Meerwein rearrangement is usually nucleophilic. Free-radical rearrangements are also known (see the mechanism section of this chapter), though virtually only with aryl migration. However, carbanion mechanisms (electrophilic) have also been found.[86] Thus Ph_3CCH_2Cl treated with sodium gave Ph_2CHCH_2Ph along with unrearranged products.[105] This is called the *Grovenstein-Zimmerman rearrangement.* The intermediate is $Ph_3CCH_2^-$, and the phenyl moves without its electron pair. Only aryl and vinylic,[106] and not alkyl, groups migrate by the electrophilic mechanism (p. 1377) and transition states or intermediates analogous to 40 and 41 are likely.[107]

OS V, 16, 194; VI, 378, 845.

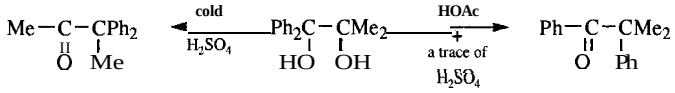
18-2 *The Pinacol Rearrangement*

1/*O*-HYDRO,3/HYDROXY-(2/→ 3/ALKYL)-*MIGRO*-ELIMINATION



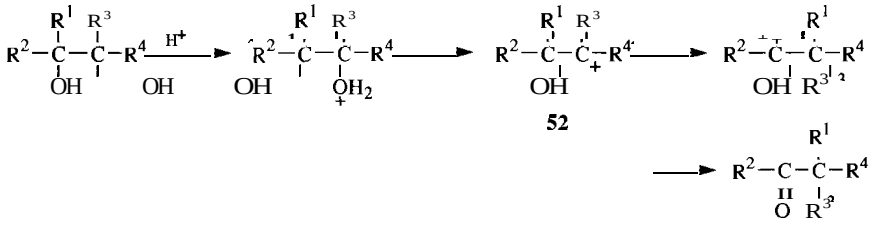
R = alkyl, aryl, or hydrogen

When *vic*-diols (glycols) are treated with acids,[108] they can be rearranged to give aldehydes or ketones, though elimination without rearrangement can also be accomplished. This reaction is called the *pinacol rearrangement;* the reaction gets its name from the typical compound pinacol ($Me_2COHCOHMe_2$), which is rearranged to pinacolone Me_3CCOCH_3).[109] The reaction has been accomplished many times, with alkyl, aryl, hydrogen, and even ethoxycarbonyl (COOEt)[110] as migrating groups. In most cases, each carbon has at least one alkyl or aryl group, and the reaction is most often carried out with tri- and tetrasubstituted glycols. As mentioned earlier, glycols in which the four R groups are not identical can give rise to more than one product, depending on which group migrates (see p. 1384 for a discussion of migratory aptitudes). Stereodifferentiation is possible in this reaction.[111] When TMSOTf was used to initiate the reaction, it was shown to be highly regioselective.[112] Mixtures are often produced, and which group preferentially migrates may depend on the reaction conditions as well as on the nature of the substrate. Thus the action of cold,



50 49 51

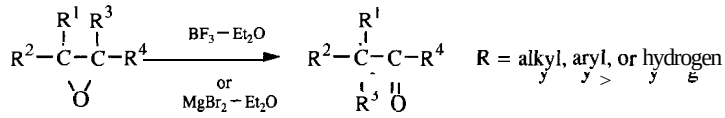
concentrated sulfuric acid on 49 produces mainly the ketone (50) (methyl migration), while treatment of 49 with acetic acid containing a trace of sulfuric acid gives mostly 51 (phenyl migration).[113] If at least one R is hydrogen, aldehydes can be produced as well as ketones. Generally, aldehyde formation is favored by the use of mild conditions (lower temperatures, weaker acids), because under more drastic conditions the aldehydes may be converted to ketones (18-4). The reaction has been carried out in the solid state, by treating solid substrates with HC1 gas or with an organic solid acid.[114]



The mechanism involves a simple 1,2 shift. The ion (52, where all four R groups are Me) has been trapped by the addition of tetrahydrothiophene.[115] It may seem odd that a migration takes place when the positive charge is already at a tertiary position, but carbocations stabilized by an oxygen atom are even more stable than tertiary alkyl cations (p. 323). There is also the driving force supplied by the fact that the new carbocation can immediately stabilize itself by losing a proton.

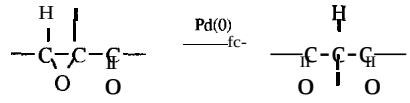
It is obvious that other compounds in which a positive charge can be placed on a carbon α to one bearing an OH group can also give this rearrangement. This is true for p-amino alcohols, which rearrange on treatment with nitrous acid (this is called the *semipinacol* rearrangement), iodohydrins, for which the reagent is mercuric

oxide or silver nitrate, β-hydroxyalkyl selenides, $R^1R^2C(OH)C(SeR^5)R^3R^4$,[116] and allylic alcohols, which can rearrange on treatment with a strong acid that protonates the double bond. A similar rearrangement is given by epoxides, when treated with

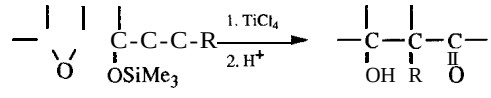


acidic[117] reagents such as BF_3—etherate or $MgBr_2$— etherate, 5 *M* $LiClO_4$ in ether,[118] $InCl_3$,[119] or sometimes by heat alone.[120] A related rearrangement called the *Meinwald rearrangement* was induced by the enzyme pig liver esterase.[121] It has been shown that epoxides are intermediates in the pinacol rearrangements of certain glycols.[122] Among the evidence for the mechanism given is that $Me_2COHCOHMe_2$, $Me_2COHCNH_2Me_2$, and $Me_2COHCClMe_2$ gave the reaction at different rates (as expected) but yielded the *same mixture* of two products (pinacol and pinacolone) indicating a common intermediate.[123]

Epoxides can also be rearranged to aldehydes or ketones on treatment with certain metallic catalysts.[124] A good way to prepare p-diketones consists of heating α,β-epoxy ketones at 80-140°C in toluene with small amounts of $(Ph_3P)_4Pd$ and 1,2-bis(diphenylphosphino)ethane.[125]



P-Hydroxy ketones can be prepared by treating the silyl ethers (53) of α,β-epoxy alcohols with $TiCl_4$.[126]

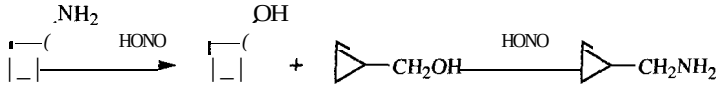


53

OS I, 462; II, 73, 408; III, 312; IV, 375, 957; V, 326, 647; VI, 39, 320; VII, 129. See also OS VII, 456.

18-3 *Expansion and Contraction of Rings*

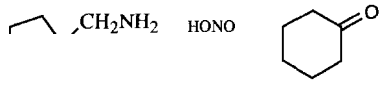
DEMYANOV RING CONTRACTION; DEMYANOV RING EXPANSION



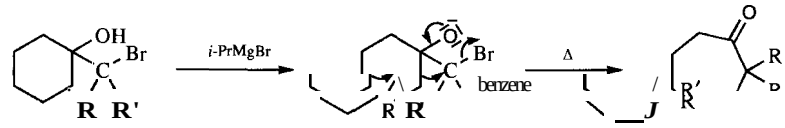
When a positive charge is formed on an alicyclic carbon, migration of an alkyl group can take place to give ring contraction, producing a ring that is one carbon smaller than the original

Note that this change involves conversion of a secondary to a primary carbocation. In a similar manner, when a positive charge is placed on a carbon a to an alicyclic ring, ring expansion can take place.[127] The new carbocation, and the old one, can then give products by combination with a nucleophile (e.g., the alcohols shown above), or by elimination, so that this reaction is a special case of 18-1. Often, both rearranged and unrearranged products are formed, so that, for example, cyclobutylamine and cyclopropylmethylamine give similar mixtures of the two alcohols shown above on treatment with nitrous acid (a small amount of 3-buten-1-ol is also produced). When the carbocation is formed by diazotization of an amine, the reaction is called the *Demyanov rearrangement*,[128] but of course similar products are formed when the carbocation is generated in other ways. The expansion reaction has been performed on rings of C_3 to C_8,[129] but yields are best with the smaller rings, where relief of small-angle strain provides a driving force for the reaction. The contraction reaction has been applied to four-membered rings and to rings of C_6 to C_8, but contraction of a cyclopentyl cation to a cyclobutylmethyl system is generally not feasible because of the additional strain involved. Strain is apparently much less of a factor in the cyclobutyl–cyclopropylmethyl interconversion (for a discussion of this interconversion, see p. 408). The influence of substituents on this rearrangement has been examined.[130]

Ring expansions of certain hydroxyamines, for example, are analogous to the

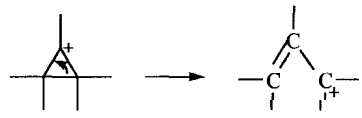


semipinacol rearrangement (18-2). This reaction is called the *Tiffeneau–Demyanov ring expansion.* These have been performed on rings of C_4 to C_8 and the yields are better than for the simple Demyanov ring expansion. A similar reaction has been used to expand rings of from five to eight members.[131] In this case, a cyclic bromohydrin of the form 54 is treated with a Grignard reagent which, acting as a base, removes the OH proton to give the alkoxide 55. Refluxing of 55 brings about the ring enlargement. The reaction has been accomplished for 54 in which at least one R group is phenyl or methyl,[132] but fails when both R groups are hydrogen.[133]



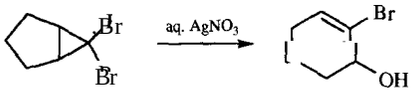
54 55

A positive charge generated on a three-membered ring gives "contraction" to an allylic cation.[134]



We have previously seen (p. 437) that this is the reason nucleophilic substitutions are not feasible at a cyclopropyl substrate. The reaction is often used to convert

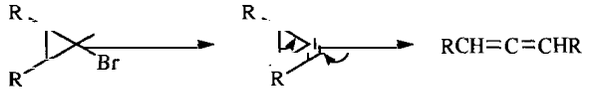
cyclopropyl halides and tosylates to allylic products, especially for the purpose of ring expansion, an example being[135]



The stereochemistry of these cyclopropyl cleavages is governed by the principle of orbital symmetry conservation (for a discussion, see p. 1434).

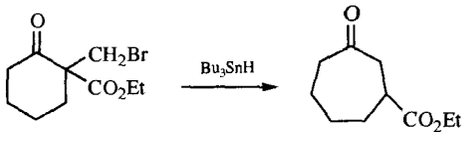
Three-membered rings can also be cleaved to unsaturated products in at least two other ways. (1) On pyrolysis, cyclopropanes can undergo "contraction" to propenes.[136] In the simplest case, cyclopropane gives propene when heated to 400–500°C. The mechanism is generally regarded[137] as involving a diradical

intermediate[138] (recall that free-radical 1,2 migration is possible for diradicals, p. 1389). (2) The generation of a carbene or carbenoid carbon in a three-membered ring can lead to allenes, and allenes are often prepared in this way.[139] Flash vacuum

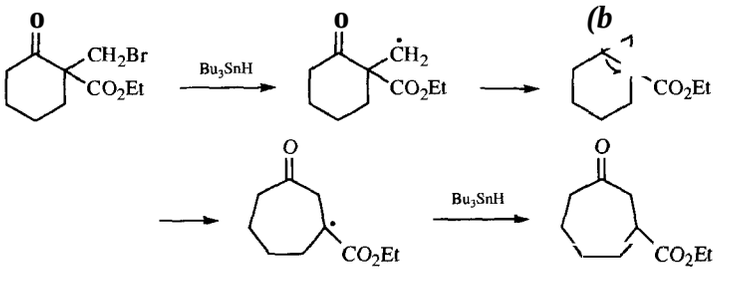


pyrolysis of 1-chlorocyclopropene thermally rearranges to chloroallene.[140] One way to generate such a species is treatment of a 1,1-dihalocyclopropane with an alkyllithium compound (**12-37**).[141] In contrast, the generation of a carbene or carbenoid at a cyclopropylmethyl carbon gives ring expansion.[142]

Some free-radical ring enlargements are also known, an example being:[143]



This reaction has been used to make rings of 6, 7, 8, and 13 members. A possible mechanism is

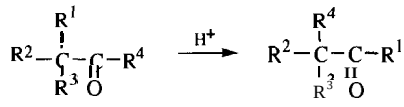


This reaction has been extended to the expansion of rings by three or four carbons, by the use of a substrate containing $(CH_2)_nX$ (n = 3 or 4) instead of CH_2Br.[144] By this means, 5-, 6-, and 7-membered rings were enlarged to 18- to 11-membered rings.

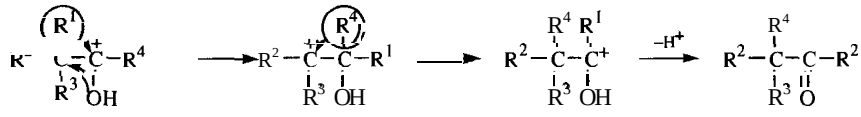
OS III, 276; IV, 221, 957; V, 306, 320; VI, 142, 187; VII, 12, 114, 117, 129, 135; VIII, 179, 467, 556, 578.

18-4 *Acid-Catalyzed Rearrangements of Aldehydes and Ketones*

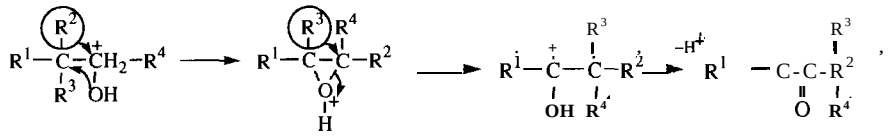
1/ALKYL,2/ALKYL-INTERCHANGE, AND SO ON



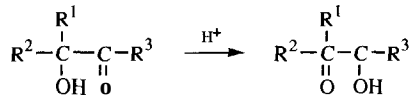
Rearrangements of this type, where a group a to a carbonyl "changes places" with a group attached to the carbonyl carbon, occur when migratory aptitudes are favorable.[145] The R^2, R^3, and R^4 groups may be alkyl or hydrogen. Certain aldehydes have been converted to ketones, and ketones to other ketones (though more drastic conditions are required for the latter), but no rearrangement of a ketone to an aldehyde ($R^1 = H$) has so far been reported. There are two mechanisms,[146] each beginning with protonation of the oxygen and each involving two migrations. In one pathway, the migrations are in opposite directions:[147]



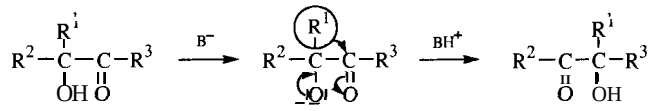
In the other pathway, the migrations are in the same direction. The actual mechanism of this pathway is not certain, but an epoxide (protonated) intermediate[148] is one possibility:[149]



If the reaction is carried out with ketone labeled in the C=O group with ^{14}C, the first pathway predicts that the product will contain all the ^{14}C in the C=O carbon, while in the second pathway the label will be in the α carbon (demonstrating migration of oxygen). The results of such experiments[150] have shown that in some cases only the C=O carbon was labeled, in other cases only the a carbon, while in still others both carbons bore the label, indicating that in these cases both pathways were in operation. With α-hydroxy aldehydes and ketones, the process may stop after only one migration (this is called the α-*ketol* rearrangement).

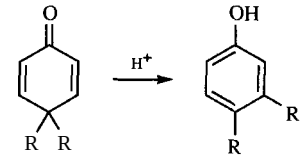


The α-ketol rearrangement can also be brought about by base catalysis, but only if the alcohol is tertiary, since if R^1 or R^2 = hydrogen, enolization of the substrate is more favored than rearrangement.

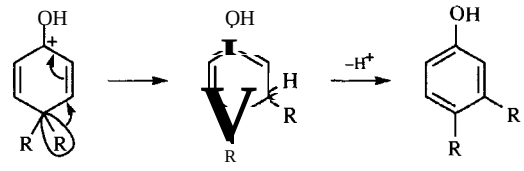


18-5 *The Dienone–Phenol Rearrangement*

2/*C* → 5/*O*-HYDRO, 1/*C* → 2/*C*-ALKYL-*BIS*-MIGRATION

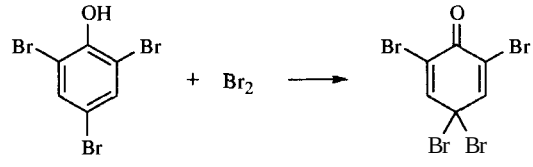


Compounds in which a cyclohexadienone has two alkyl groups in the 4 position undergo, on acid treatment,[151] 1,2 migration of one of these groups:



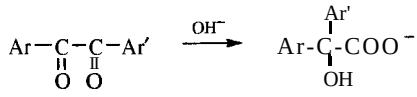
56 57

The driving force in the overall reaction (the *dienone–phenol rearrangement)* is of course creation of an aromatic system.[152] It may be noted that 56 and 57 are arenium ions (p. 676), the same as those generated by attack of an electrophile on a phenol.[153] Sometimes, in the reaction of a phenol with an electrophile, a kind of reverse rearrangement (called the *phenol–dienone rearrangement)* takes place, though without an actual migration.[154] An example is

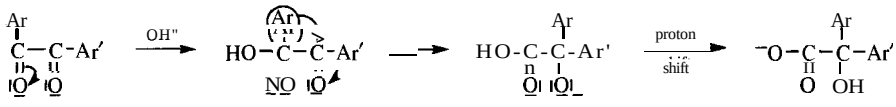


18-6 *The Benzil-Benzilic Acid Rearrangement*

1/*O*-HYDRO, 3/OXIDO-(1/ → 2/ARYL)-*MIGRO*- ADDITION



When treated with base, a-diketones rearrange to give the salts of a-hydroxy acids, a reaction known as the *benzil–benzilicacid rearrangement* (benzil is PhCOCOPh; benzilic acid is $Ph_2COHCOOH$).[155] A rhodium catalyzed version of this reaction has also been reported.[156] Though the reaction is usually illustrated with aryl groups, it can also be applied to aliphatic diketones[157] and to a-keto aldehydes. The use of alkoxide ion instead of OH^- gives the corresponding ester directly,[158] though alkoxide ions that are readily oxidized (such as OEt^- or $OCHMe_2^-$) are not useful here, since they reduce the benzil to a benzoin. The mechanism is similar to the rearrangements in 18-1-18-4, but there is a difference: The migrating group does not move to a carbon with an open sextet. The carbon makes room for the migrating group by releasing a pair of *n* electrons from the C=O bond to the oxygen. The first step is attack of the base at the carbonyl group, the same as the first step of the tetrahedral mechanism of nucleophilic substitution (p. 424) and of many additions to the C=O bond (Chapter 16):

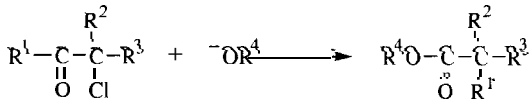


The mechanism has been intensely studied,[155] and there is much evidence for it.[159] The reaction is irreversible.

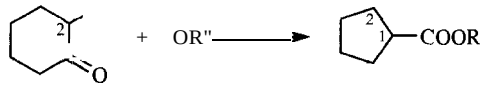
OS I, 89.

18-7 *The Favorskii Rearrangement*

2/ALKOXY-DE-CHLORO(2/→ 1/ALKYL)-*MIGRO*-SUBSTITUTION

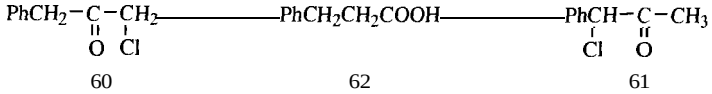


The reaction of a-halo ketones (chloro, bromo, or iodo) with alkoxide ions[160] to give rearranged esters is called the *Favorskii rearrangement*.[161] The use of hydroxide ions or amines as bases leads to the free carboxylic acid (salt) or amide, respectively, instead of the ester. Cyclic a-halo ketones give ring contraction, as in the conversion of 58 to 59.



58 59

The reaction has also been carried out on a-hydroxy ketones[162] and on a,P-epoxy ketones, which give P-hydroxy acids.[163] The fact that an epoxide gives a reaction analogous to a halide indicates that the oxygen and halogen are leaving groups in a nucleophilic substitution step.

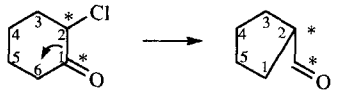


60 62 61

Through the years, the mechanism[164] of the Favorskii rearrangement has been the subject of much investigation; at least five different mechanisms have been proposed. However, the finding[165] that 60 and 61 *both* give 62 (this behavior is typical) shows that any mechanism where the halogen leaves and R^1 takes its place is invalid, since in such a case 60 would be expected to give 62 (with $PhCH_2$ migrating), but 61 should give PhCHMeCOOH (with CH_3 migrating). That is, in the case of 61, it was PhCH that migrated and not methyl. Another important result was determined by radioactive labeling. Compound 58, in which C-1 and C-2 were equally labeled with ^{14}C, was converted to 59. The product was found to contain 50% of the label on the carbonyl carbon, 25% on C-1, and 25% on C-2.[166] Now the carbonyl carbon, which originally carried one-half of the radioactivity, still had this much, so the rearrangement did not directly affect *it.* However, if the C-6 carbon had migrated to C-2, the other half of the radioactivity would be only on C-1 of the product:

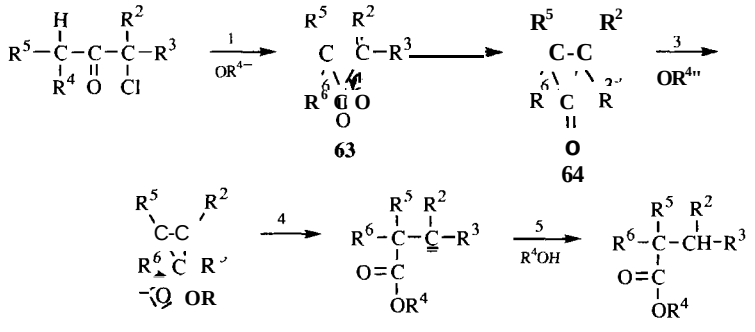
58

On the other hand, if the migration had gone the other way—if the C-2 carbon had migrated to C-6—then this half of the radioactivity would be found solely on C-2 of the product:



58

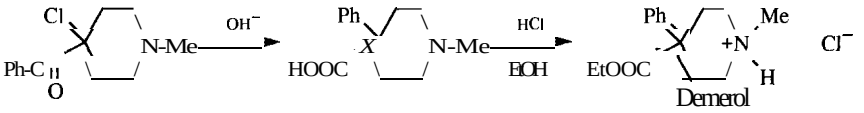
The fact that C-1 and C-2 were found to be equally labeled showed that *both migrations occurred,* with equal probability. Since C-2 and C-6 of 58 are not equivalent, this means that there must be a symmetrical intermediate.[167] The type of intermediate that best fits the circumstances is a cyclopropanone,[168] and the mechanism (for the general case) is formulated (replacing R^1 of our former symbolism with CHR^5R^6, since it is obvious that for this mechanism an α hydrogen is required on the *non-halogenated* side of the carbonyl):



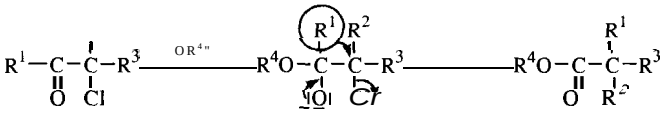
63 **64**

The intermediate corresponding to **64** in the case of 58 is a symmetrical compound, and the three-membered ring can be opened with equal probability on either side of the carbonyl, accounting for the results with ^{14}C. In the general case, **64** is not symmetrical and should open on the side that gives the more stable carbanion.[169] This accounts for the fact that **60** and **61** give the same product. The intermediate in both cases is **63,** which always opens to give the carbanion stabilized by resonance. The cyclopropanone intermediate (64) has been isolated in the case where $R^2=R^5=t$-Bu and $R^3=R^6=H$,[170] and it has also been trapped.[171] Also, cyclopropanones synthesized by other methods have been shown to give Favorskii products on treatment with NaOMe or other bases.[172]

The mechanism discussed is in accord with all the facts when the halo ketone contains an α hydrogen on the other side of the carbonyl group. However, ketones that do not have a hydrogen there also rearrange to give the same type of product. This is usually called the *quasi-Favorskii rearrangement.* An example is found in the preparation of Demerol:[173]



The quasi-Favorskii rearrangement obviously cannot take place by the cyclopropanone mechanism. The mechanism that is generally accepted (called the *semibenzilic mechanism*[174]) is a base-catalyzed pinacol rearrangement-type mechanism

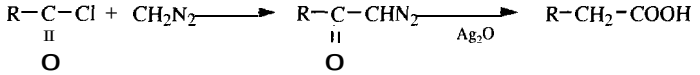


similar to that of **18-6.** This mechanism requires inversion at the migration terminus and this has been found.[175] It has been shown that even where there *is* an appropriately situated a hydrogen, the semibenzilic mechanism may still operate.[176]

An interesting analog of the Favorskii rearrangement treats a ketone such as 4-*tert*-butylcyclohexanone, without an α-halogen with $Tl(NO_3)_3$ to give *3-tert*-butylcyclopentane-1 -carboxylic acid.[177]

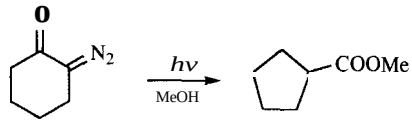
OS IV, 594; VI, 368, 711.

18-8 *The Arndt-Eistert Synthesis*

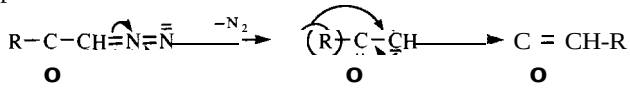


In the *Arndt-Eistert synthesis* an acyl halide is converted to a carboxylic acid with one additional carbon.[178] The first step of this process is Reaction **10-122.** The actual rearrangement occurs in the second step on treatment of the diazo ketone with water and silver oxide or with silver benzoate and triethylamine. This rearrangement is called the *Wolff rearrangement.*[179] It is the best method of increasing a carbon chain by one if a *carboxylic acid* is available (**10-111** and **16-34** begin with alkyl halides).

If an alcohol R'OH is used instead of water, the ester RCH_2COOR' is isolated directly.[180] Similarly, ammonia gives the amide. Other catalysts are sometimes used (e.g., colloidal platinum and copper), but occasionally the diazo ketone is simply heated or photolyzed in the presence of water, an alcohol, or ammonia, with no catalyst at all.[181] The photolysis method[182] often gives better results than the silver catalysis method. Of course, diazo ketones prepared in any other way also give the rearrangement.[183] The reaction is of wide scope. The R group may be alkyl or aryl and may contain many functional groups including unsaturation, but not including groups acidic enough to react with CH_2N_2 or diazo ketones (e.g., 10-5 and 10-28). Sometimes the reaction is performed with other diazoalkanes (that is, $R'CHN_2$) to give RCHR'COOH. The reaction has often been used for ring contraction of cyclic diazo ketones,[184] for example, [185]

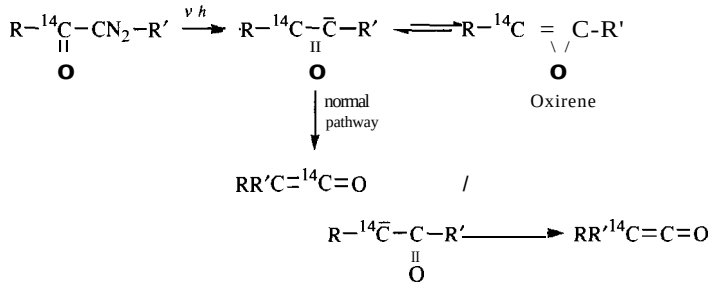


The mechanism is generally regarded as involving formation of a carbene. It is the divalent carbon that has the open sextet and to which the migrating group brings its electron pair:

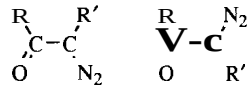


The actual product of the reaction is thus the ketene, which then reacts with water (15-3), an alcohol (15-5), or ammonia or an amine (15-8). Particularly stable ketenes (e.g., $Ph_2C{=}C{=}O$) have been isolated and others have been trapped in other ways (e.g., as β-lactams,[186] 16-64). The purpose of the catalyst is not well understood, though many suggestions have been made. This mechanism is strictly analogous to that of the Curtius rearrangement (18-14). Although the mechanism as shown above involves a free carbene and there is much evidence to support this,[187] it is also possible that at least in some cases the two steps are concerted and a free carbene is absent.

When the Wolff rearrangement is carried out photochemically, the mechanism is basically the same,[182] but another pathway can intervene. Some of the ketocarbene originally formed can undergo a carbene-carbene rearrangement, through an oxirene intermediate.[188] This was shown by ^{14}C labeling experiments, where diazo



ketones labeled in the carbonyl group gave rise to ketenes that bore the label at both C=C carbons.[189] In general, the smallest degree of scrambling (and thus of the oxirene pathway) was found when R' = H. An intermediate believed to be an oxirene has been detected by laser spectroscopy.[190] The oxirene pathway is not found in the thermal Wolff rearrangement. It is likely that an excited singlet state of the carbene is necessary for the oxirene pathway to intervene.[191] In the photochemical process, ketocarbene intermediates, in the triplet state, have been isolated in an Ar matrix at 10-15 K, where they have been identified by UV-visible, IR, and ESR spectra.[192] These intermediates went on to give the rearrangement via the normal pathway, with no evidence for oxirene intermediates.



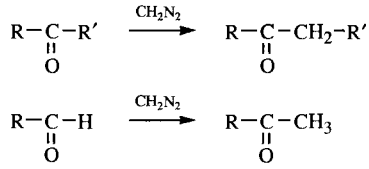
s-(Z) s-(*E*)

The diazo ketone can exist in two conformations, called *s-(E)* and *s-(Z).* Studies have shown that Wolff rearrangement takes place preferentially from the *s-(Z)* conformation.[193]

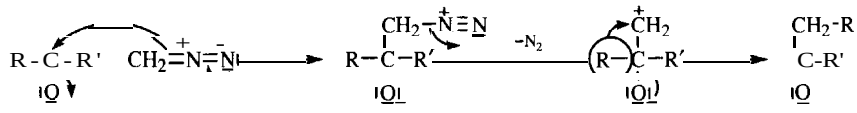
OS **III,** 356; VI, 613, 840.

18-9 *Homologation of Aldehydes and Ketones*

METHYLENE-INSERTION



Aldehydes and ketones[194] can be converted to their homologs with diazomethane.[195] Several other reagents[196] are also effective, including Me_3SiI, and then silica gel,[197] $LiCH(B{-}OCH_2CH_2O{-})_2$.[198] With the diazomethane reaction, formation of an epoxide **(16-61)** is a side reaction. Although this reaction appears superficially to be similar to the insertion of carbenes into C–H bonds, **12-19** (and IUPAC names it as an insertion), the mechanism is quite different. This is a true rearrangement and no free carbene is involved. The first step is an addition to the C=O bond:

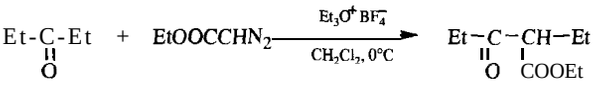


65

The betaine (65) can sometimes be isolated. As shown in **16-61, 65** can also go to the epoxide. The evidence for this mechanism is summarized in the review by

Gutsche.[195] It may be noted that this mechanism is essentially the same as in the apparent "insertions" of oxygen **(18-19)** and nitrogen **(18-16)** into ketones.

Aldehydes give fairly good yields of methyl ketones; that is, hydrogen migrates in preference to alkyl. The most abundant side product is not the homologous aldehyde, but the epoxide. However, the yield of aldehyde at the expense of methyl ketone can be increased by the addition of methanol. If the aldehyde contains electron-withdrawing groups, the yield of epoxides is increased and the ketone is formed in smaller amounts, if at all. Ketones give poorer yields of homologous ketones. Epoxides are usually the predominant product here, especially when one or both R groups contain an electron-withdrawing group. The yield of ketones also decreases with increasing length of the chain. The use of a Lewis acid increases the yield of ketone.[199] Cyclic ketones,[200] three membered[201] and larger, behave particularly well and give good yields of ketones with the ring expanded by one.[202] Aliphatic diazo compounds (RCHN2 and R_2CN_2) are sometimes used instead of diazomethane, with the expected results.[203] Ethyl diazoacetate can be used analogously, in the presence of a Lewis acid or of triethyloxonium fluoroborate,[204] for example,



When unsymmetrical ketones were used in this reaction (with BF_3 as catalyst), the less highly substituted carbon preferentially migrated.[205] The reaction can be made regioselective by applying this method to the α-halo ketone, in which case only the other carbon migrates.[206] The ethyl diazoacetate procedure has also been applied to the acetals or ketals of α,β-unsaturated aldehydes and ketones.[207]

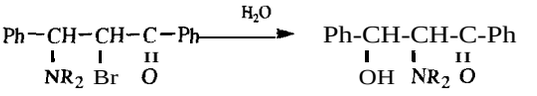
Bicyclic ketones can be expanded to form monocyclic ketones in the presence of certain reagents. Treatment of a bicyclo[4.1.0]hexan-4-one derivative with SmI_2 led to a cyclohexanone.[208] The SmI_2 compound also converts α-halomethyl cyclic ketones to the next larger ring ketone[209] and cyclic ketones to the next larger ring ketone in the presence of CH_2I_2.[210] α-Chloro-α-3-iodopropylcyclobutanones were converted to cycloheptanones using radical conditions (Bu_3SnH/AIBN).[211]

OS IV, 225, 780. For homologation of carboxyl acid derivatives, see OS IX, 426

B. *Carbon-to-Carbon Migrations of Other Groups*

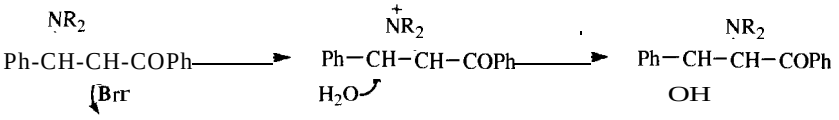
18-10 *Migrations of Halogen, Hydroxyl, Amino, and so on*

HYDROXY-DE-BROMO-*CINE*-SUBSTITUTION, AND SO ON



When a nucleophilic substitution is carried out on a substrate that has a neighboring group (p, 404) on the adjacent carbon, if the cyclic intermediate is opened on the

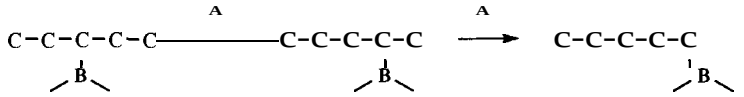
opposite side, the result is migration of the neighboring group. In the example shown above (NR_2 = morpholino),[212] the reaction took place as follows:



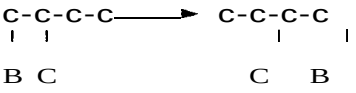
Sulfonate esters and halides can also migrate in this reaction.[213] α-Halo and α-acyloxy epoxides undergo ready rearrangement to α-halo and α-acyloxy ketones, respectively.[214] These substrates are very prone to rearrange, and often do so on standing without a catalyst, though in some cases an acid catalyst is necessary. The reaction is essentially the same as the rearrangement of epoxides shown in 18-2, except that in this case halogen or acyloxy is the migrating group (as shown above; however, it is also possible for one of the R groups—alkyl, aryl, or hydrogen—to migrate instead, and mixtures are sometimes obtained).

18-11 *Migration of Boron*

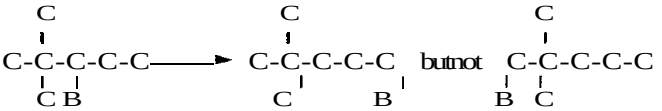
HYDRO, DIALKYLBORO-INTERCHANGE, AND SO ON



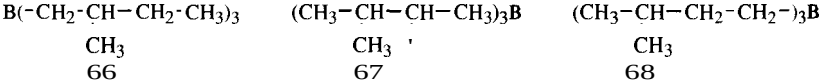
When a nonterminal borane is heated at temperatures ranging from 100 to 200°C, the boron moves toward the end of the chain.[215] The reaction is catalyzed by small amounts of borane or other species containing B—H bonds. The boron can move past a branch, for example,



but not past a double branch, for example,



The reaction is an equilibrium: 66, 67, and 68 each gave a mixture containing about 40% 66, 1% 67, and 59% 68. The migration can go quite a long distance. Thus $(C_{11}H_{23}CHC_{11}H_{23})_3B$ was completely converted to $(C_{23}H_{47})_3B$, involving a migration of 11 positions.[216] If the boron is on a cycloalkyl ring, it can move around

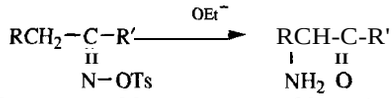


the ring; if any alkyl chain is also on the ring, the boron may move from the ring to the chain, ending up at the end of the chain.[217] The reaction is useful for the migra-

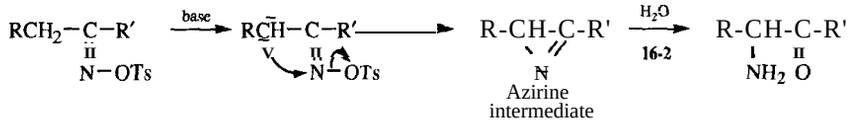
tion of double bonds in a controlled way (see 12-2). The mechanism may involve a π complex, at least partially.[218]

18-12 *The Neber Rearrangement*

NEBER OXIME TOSYLATE-AMINO KETONE REARRANGEMENT



α-Amino ketones can be prepared by treatment of ketoxime tosylates with a base such as ethoxide ion or pyridine.[219] This is called the *Neber rearrangement.* The R group is usually aryl, though the reaction has been carried out with R = alkyl or hydrogen. The R' group may be alkyl or aryl but not hydrogen. The Beckmann rearrangement **(18-17)** and the abnormal Beckmann reaction (elimination to the nitrile, **17-31)** may be side reactions, though these generally occur in acid media. A similar rearrangement is given by N,N-dichloroamines of the type $RCH_2CH(NCl_2)R'$, where the product is also $RCH(NH_2)COR'$.[220] The mechanism of the Neber rearrangement is as follows:[221]

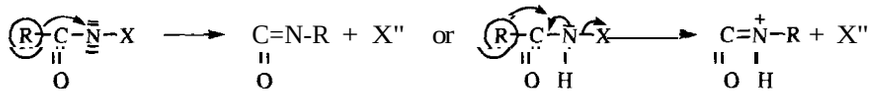


The best evidence for this mechanism is that the azirine intermediate has been isolated.[222] In contrast to the Beckmann rearrangement, this one is sterically indiscriminate:[223] Both a syn and an anti ketoxime give the same product. The mechanism as shown above consists of three steps. However, it is possible that the first two steps are concerted, and it is also possible that what is shown as the second step is actually two steps: loss of OTs to give a nitrene, and formation of the azirine. In the case of the dichloroamines, HC1 is first lost to give $RCH_2C(=NCl)R'$, which then behaves analogously.[224] N-Chloroimines prepared in other ways also give the reaction.[225]

OS V, 909; **VII,** 149.

C. *Carbon-to-Nitrogen Migrations of R and Ar*

The reactions in this group are nucleophilic migrations from a carbon to a nitrogen atom. In each case, the nitrogen atom either has six electrons in its outer shell (and thus invites the migration of a group carrying an electron pair) or else loses a nucleofuge concurrently with the migration (p. 1379). Reactions **18-13-18-16** are used to prepare amines from acid derivatives. Reactions **18-16** and **18-17** are used to prepare amines from ketones. The mechanisms of **18-13, 18-14, 18-15,** and **18-16** (with carboxylic acids) are very similar and follow one of two patterns:



Some of the evidence[226] is (1) configuration is retained in R (p. 1380); (2) the kinetics are first order; (3) intramolecular rearrangement is shown by labeling; and (4) no rearrangement occurs *within* the migrating group (e.g., a neopentyl group on the carbon of the starting material is still a neopentyl group on the nitrogen of the product).

In many cases it is not certain whether the nucleofuge X is lost first, creating an intermediate nitrene[227] or nitrenium ion, or whether migration and loss of the nucleofuge are simultaneous, as shown above.[228] It is likely that both possibilities can exist, depending on the substrate and reaction conditions.

18-13 *The Hofmann Rearrangement*

BISHYDROGEN-(2/→ 1/*N*-ALKYL)-*MIGRO*-DETACHMENT
(FORMATION OF ISOCYANATE)

$$RCONH_2 + NaOBr \longrightarrow R{-}N{=}C{=}O \xrightarrow[16\text{-}2]{\text{hydrolysis}} RNH_2$$

In the *Hofmann rearrangement*, an unsubstituted amide is treated with sodium hypobromite (or sodium hydroxide and bromine, which is essentially the same thing) to give a primary amine that has one carbon fewer than the starting amide.[229] The actual product is the isocyanate, but this compound is seldom isolated[230] since it is usually hydrolyzed under the reaction conditions. The R group may be alkyl or aryl, but if it is an alkyl group of more than about six or seven carbons, low yields are obtained unless Br_2 and NaOMe are used instead of Br_2 and NaOH.[231] Another modification uses NBS/NaOMe.[232] Under these conditions the product of addition to the isocyanate is the carbamate RNHCOOMe (16-7), which is easily isolated or can be hydrolyzed to the amine. Side reactions when NaOH is the base are formation of ureas (RNHCONHR) and acylureas (RCONHCONHR) by addition, respectively, of RNH_2 and $RCONH_2$ to RNCO (16-16). If acylureas are desired, they can be made the main products by using only one half the usual quantities of Br_2 and NaOH. Another side product, though only from primary R, is the nitrile derived from oxidation of RNH2 (19-5). Imides react to give amino acids (e.g., phthalimide gives *o*-aminobenzoic acid). α-Hydroxy and a-halo amides give aldehydes and ketones by way of the unstable a-hydroxy- or α-haloamines. However, a side product with an a-halo amide is a *gem*-dihalide. Ureas analogously give hydrazines.

The mechanism follows the pattern outlined on page 1410.

$$R{-}\underset{\underset{O}{\|}}{C}{-}NH_2 + Br_2 \longrightarrow R{-}\underset{\underset{O}{\|}}{C}{-}NH{-}Br \xrightarrow{OH^-} \underset{\underset{O}{\|}}{R{-}C{-}\bar{N}{-}Br} \longrightarrow C{=}\bar{N}{-}R$$

69

The first step is an example of 12-52 and intermediate N-halo amides (69) have been isolated. In the second step, 69 lose a proton to the base. Compound 69 are acidic because of the presence of two electron-withdrawing groups (acyl and halo) on the nitrogen. It is possible that the third step is actually two steps: loss of bromide to

form a nitrene, followed by the actual migration, but most of the available evidence favors the concerted reaction.[233] A similar reaction can be effected by the treatment of amides with lead tetraacetate.[234] Among other reagents that convert $RCONH_2$ to RNH_2 (R = alkyl, but not aryl) are phenyliodosyl bis(trifluoroacetate), $PhI(O\text{-}COCF_3)_2$[235] and hydroxy(tosyloxy)iodobenzene, PhI(OH)OTs.[236] A mixture of NBS, $Hg(OAc)_2$, and R'OH is one of several reagent mixtures that convert an amide ($RCONH_2$) to the carbamate (RNHCOOR') (R = primary, secondary, or tertiary alkyl or aryl) in high yield.[237] A mixture of NBS and DBU in methanol gives the carbamate,[238] as does electrolysis in methanol.[239]

OS **II,** 19, 44, 462; **IV,** 45; **VIII,** 26, 132.

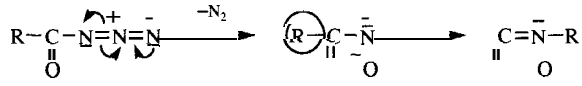
18-14 *The Curtius Rearrangement*

DINITROGEN-(2/→ 1/*N*-ALKYL)-*MIGRO*-DETACHMENT

$$RCON_3 \xrightarrow{\Delta} R{-}N{=}C{=}O$$

The *Curtius rearrangement* involves the pyrolysis of acyl azides to yield isocyanates.[240] The reaction gives good yields of isocyanates, since no water is present to hydrolyze them to the amine. Of course, they can be subsequently hydrolyzed, and indeed the reaction *can* be carried out in water or alcohol, in which case the products are amines, carbamates, or acylureas, as in **18-13**.[241] This is a very general reaction and can be applied to almost any carboxylic acid: aliphatic, aromatic, alicyclic, heterocyclic, unsaturated, and containing many functional groups. Acyl azides can be prepared as in **10-65** or by treatment of acylhydrazines (hydrazides) with nitrous acid (analogous to **12-48).** The Curtius rearrangement is catalyzed by Lewis or protic acids, but these are usually not necessary for good results.

The mechanism is similar to that in **18-13:**



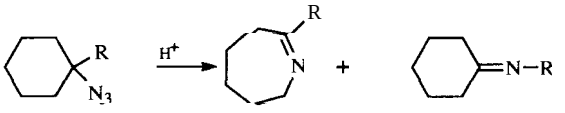
Also note the exact analogy between this reaction and **18-8.** However, in this case, there is no evidence for a free nitrene and it is probable that the steps are concerted.[242]

Alkyl azides can be similarly pyrolyzed to give imines, in an analogous reaction:

$$R_3CN_3 \xrightarrow{\Delta} R_2C{=}NR$$

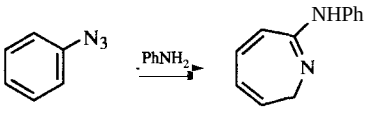
The R groups may be alkyl, aryl, or hydrogen, though if hydrogen migrates, the product is the unstable $R_2C{=}NH$. The mechanism is essentially the same as that of the Curtius rearrangement. However, in pyrolysis of tertiary alkyl azides, there is evidence that free alkyl nitrenes are intermediates.[244] The reaction can also be carried out with acid catalysis, in which case lower temperatures can be used, though

the acid may hydrolyze the imine (16-2). Cycloalkyl azides give ring expansion.[245]



~80% ~20%

Aryl azides also give ring expansion on heating, for example,[246]



A

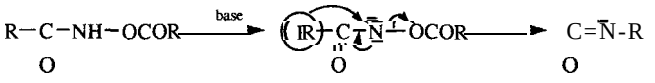
OS HI, 846; IV, 819; V, 273; VI, 95, 910. Also see OS VI, 210.

18-15 *The Lossen Rearrangement*

HYDRO,ACETOXY-(2/⟶1*N*-ALKYL)-*MIGRO*-DETACHMENT

$$R-\underset{\underset{O}{\|}}{C}-NHOCOR \xrightarrow{OH^-} R-N=C=O \xrightarrow{H_2O} RNH_2$$

The O-acyl derivatives of hydroxamic acids[247] give isocyanates when treated with bases or sometimes even just on heating, in a reaction known as the *Lossen rearrangement.*[248] The mechanism is similar to that of **18-13** and **18-14:**



In a similar reaction, aromatic acyl halides are converted to amines in one laboratory step by treatment with hydroxylamine-O-sulfonic acid.[249]

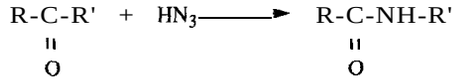
$$Ar-\underset{\underset{O}{\|}}{C}-Cl \xrightarrow{NH_2OSO_2OH} \left[Ar-\underset{\underset{O}{\|}}{C}-NH-OSO_2OH\right] \longrightarrow ArNH_2$$

18-16 *The Schmidt Reaction*

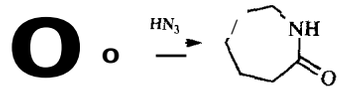
$$RCOOH + HN_3 \xrightarrow{H^+} R-N=C=O \xrightarrow{H_2O} RNH_2$$

There are actually three reactions called by the name *Schmidt reaction,* involving the addition of hydrazoic acid to carboxylic acids, aldehydes and ketones, and alcohols and alkenes.[250] The most common is the reaction with carboxylic acids, illustrated above.[251] Sulfuric acid is the most common catalyst, but Lewis acids have also been used. Good results are obtained for aliphatic R, especially for long chains. When R is aryl, the yields are variable, being best for sterically hindered compounds like mesitoic acid. This method has the advantage over **18-13** and **18-14** that it is just one laboratory step from the acid to the amine, but conditions are more drastic.[252] Under the acid conditions employed, the isocyanate is virtually never isolated.

The reaction between a ketone and hydrazoic acid is a method for "insertion" of NH between the carbonyl group and one R group, converting a ketone into an amide.[253]



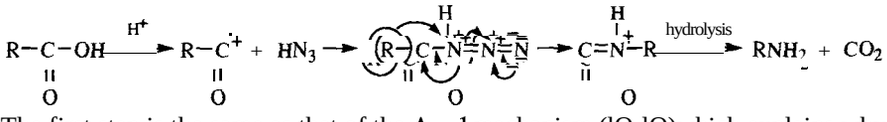
Either or both of the R groups may be aryl. In general, dialkyl ketones and cyclic ketones react more rapidly than alkyl aryl ketones, and these more rapidly than diaryl ketones. The latter require sulfuric acid and do not react in concentrated HC1, which is strong enough for dialkyl ketones. Dialkyl and cyclic ketones react sufficiently faster than diaryl or aryl alkyl ketones or carboxylic acids or alcohols that these functions may be present in the same molecule without interference. Cyclic ketones give lactams:[254]



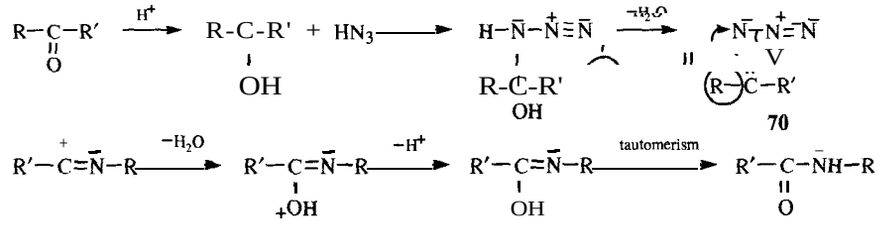
With alkyl aryl ketones, it is the aryl group that generally migrates to the nitrogen, except when the alkyl group is bulky.[255] The reaction has been applied to a few aldehydes, but rarely. With aldehydes the product is usually the nitrile (16-21). Even with ketones, conversion to the nitrile is often a side reaction, especially with the type of ketone that gives 17-31. A useful variation of the Schmidt reaction treats a cyclic ketone with an alkyl azide (RN_3) in the presence of $TiCl_4$, generating a lactam.[256] Another variation treats a silyl enol ether of a cyclic ketone with $TMSN_3$ and photolyzes the product with UV light to give a lactam.[257]

Alcohols and alkenes react with HN_3 to give alkyl azides,[258] which in the course of reaction rearrange in the same way as discussed in reaction **18-14**.[243] The Mitsunobu reaction (10-23) can be used to convert alcohols to alkyl azides, and an alternative reagent for azides, $(PhO)_2PON_3$, to the Mitsunobu is now available.[259]

There is evidence that the mechanism with carboxylic acids is similar to that of 18-14, except that it is the protonated azide that undergoes the rearrangement:[260]



The first step is the same as that of the $A_{AC}1$ mechanism (lO-lO)which explains why good results are obtained with hindered substrates. The mechanism with ketones is[261]

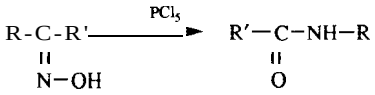


The intermediates (7) have been independently generated in aqueous solution.[262] Note the similarity of this mechanism to those of "insertion" of CH_2 **(18-9)** and of O **(18-19).** The three reactions are essentially analogous, both in products and in mechanism.[263] Also note the similarity of the latter part of this mechanism to that of the Beckmann rearrangement **(18-17).**

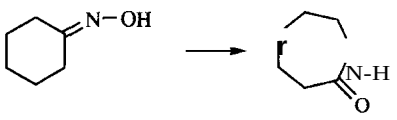
OS **V,** 408; **VI,** 368; **VII,** 254; **75,** 31. See also OS V, 623.

18-17 *The Beckmann Rearrangement*

BECKMANN OXIME-AMIDE REARRANGEMENT



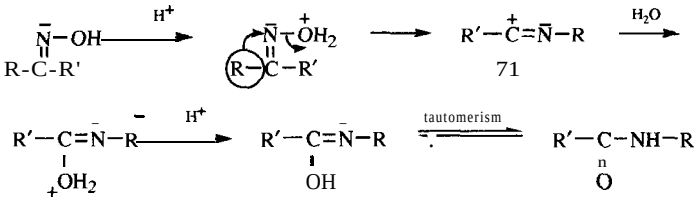
When oximes are treated with PCl_5 or a number of other reagents, they rearrange to substituted amides in a reaction called the *Beckmann rearrangement.*[264] Among other reagents used have been concentrated H_2SO_4, formic acid, liquid SO_2, $SOCl_2$,[265] silica gel,[266] HCl—HOAc—Ac_2O, $POCl_3$,[267] and polyphosphoric acid.[268] Heating an oxime of a cyclic ketone, *neat,* with $AlCl_3$ also leads to the lactam.[269] Treatment of a cyclic ketone with NH_2OSO_3H on silica gel followed by microwave irradiation also gives the lactam.[270] Microwave irradiation of an oxime on Montmorillonite K10 clay gives the amide.[271] The group that migrates is generally the one anti to the hydroxyl, and this is often used as a method of determining the configuration of the oxime. However, it is not unequivocal. It is known that with some oximes the syn group migrates and that with others, especially where R and R' are both alkyl, mixtures of the two possible amides are obtained. However, this behavior does not necessarily mean that the syn group actually undergoes migration. In most cases, the oxime undergoes isomerization under the reaction conditions *before* migration takes place.[272] The scope of the reaction is quite broad. Both R and R' may be alkyl, aryl, or hydrogen. However, hydrogen very seldom *migrates,* so the reaction is not generally a means of converting aldoximes to unsubstituted amides $RCONH_2$. This conversion can be accomplished, though, by treatment of the aldoxime with nickel acetate under neutral conditions[273] or by heating the aldoxime for 60 h at 100°C after it has been adsorbed onto silica gel.[274] As in the case of the Schmidt rearrangement, when the oxime is derived from an alkyl aryl ketone, it is generally the aryl group that preferentially migrates. The oximes of cyclic ketones give ring enlargement,[275] for example,



Not only do oximes undergo the Beckmann rearrangement, but so also do esters of oximes with many acids, organic and inorganic. A side reaction with many substrates is the formation of nitriles (the "abnormal" Beckmann rearrangement, **17-31).** Cyclic ketones can be converted directly to lactams in one laboratory step by

treatment with NH_2OSO_2OH and formic acid **(16-19** takes place first, then the Beckmann rearrangement).[276]

In the first step of the mechanism, the OH group is converted by the reagent to a better leaving group (e.g., proton acids convert it to OH_2^+). After that, the mechanism[277] follows a course analogous to that for the Schmidt reaction of ketones (18-**16)** from the formation of **71** on:[278]



The other reagents convert OH to an ester leaving group (e.g., $OPCl_4$ from PCl_5 and OSO_2OH from concentrated H_2SO_4[279]). Alternatively, the attack on **71** can be by the leaving group, if different from H_2O. Intermediates of the form **71** have been detected by NMR and UV spectroscopy.[280] The rearrangement has also been found to take place by a different mechanism, involving formation of a nitrile by fragmentation, and then addition by a Ritter reaction (16-56).[281] Beckmann rearrangements have also been carried out photochemically.[282]

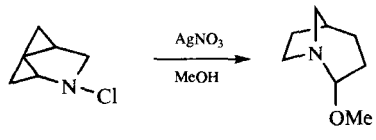
If the rearrangement of oxime sulfonates is induced by organoaluminum reagents,[283] the intermediate (71) is captured by the nucleophile originally attached to the Al. By this means an oxime can be converted to an imine, an imino thioether (R–N=C–SR), or an imino nitrile (R–N=C–CN).[284] In the last case, the nucleophile comes from added trimethylsilyl cyanide. The imine-producing reaction can also be accomplished with a Grignard reagent in benzene or toluene.[285]

In a related reaction, treatment of spirocyclic oxaziridines with MnCl(TPP), where TPP = *meso*-tetraphenylporphyrinate (2—),[286] or photolysis[287] leads to a lactam.

OS **II,** 76, 371; **VIII,** 568.

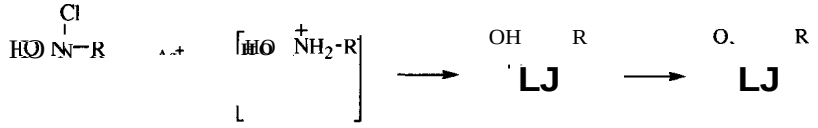
18-18 *Stieglitz and Related Rearrangements*

METHOXY-DE-*N*-CHLORO-(2/ → 1/*N*-ALKYL)-*MIGRO*-SUBSTITUTION, AND SO ON



Besides the reactions discussed at **18-13-18-17,** a number of other rearrangements are known in which an alkyl group migrates from C to N. Certain bicyclic N-haloamines, for example, *N*-chloro-2-azabicyclo[2.2.2]octane (above), undergo rearrangement when solvolyzed in the presence of silver nitrate.[288] This reaction is similar to the Wagner–Meerwein rearrangement **(18-1)** and is initiated by the silver-catalyzed departure of the chloride ion.[289] Similar reactions have been used for ring

expansions and contractions, analogous to those discussed for Reaction **18-3**.[290] An example is the conversion of 1-(*N*-chloroamino)cyclopropanols to β-lactams.[291]



The name *Stieglitz rearrangement* is generally applied to the rearrangements of trityl N-haloamines and

$$Ar_3CNHX \xrightarrow{\text{base}} Ar_2C{=}NAr$$

$$Ar_3CNHOH \xrightarrow{PCl_5} Ar_2C{=}NAr$$

hydroxylamines. These reactions are similar to the rearrangements of alkyl azides (18-14), and the name Stieglitz rearrangement is also given to the rearrangement of trityl azides. Another similar reaction is the rearrangement undergone by tritylamines when treated with lead tetraacetate:[292]

$$Ar_3CNH_2 \xrightarrow{Pb(OAc)_4} Ar_2C{=}NAr$$

D. *Carbon-to-Oxygen Migrations of R and Ar*

18-19 *The Baeyer–Villiger Rearrangement*

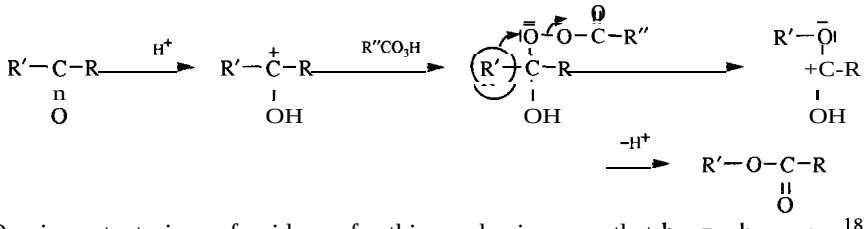
OXY-INSERTION

$$R\text{-}\underset{\underset{O}{\|}}{C}\text{-}R' + Ph\text{-}\underset{\underset{O}{\|}}{C}\text{-}OOH \longrightarrow R\text{-}\underset{\underset{O}{\|}}{C}\text{-}OR'$$

The treatment of ketones with peroxyacids such as peroxybenzoic or peroxyacetic acid, or with other peroxy compounds in the presence of acid catalysts, gives carboxylic esters by "insertion" of oxygen.[293] The reaction is called the *Baeyer-Villiger rearrangement.*[294] A particularly good reagent is peroxytrifluoroacetic acid. Reactions with this reagent are rapid and clean, giving high yields of product, though it is often necessary to add a buffer such as Na_2HPO_4 to prevent transesterification of the product with trifluoroacetic acid. The reaction is often applied to cyclic ketones to give lactones.[295] Enantioselective synthesis of chiral lactones from achiral ketones has been achieved by the use of enzymes as catalysts[296] and other asymmetric reactions are known.[297] For acyclic compounds, R' must usually be secondary, tertiary, or vinylic, although primary R' has been rearranged with peroxytrifluoroacetic acid,[298] with BF_3–H_2O_2,[299] and with $K_2S_2O_8$–H_2SO_4.[300] For unsymmetrical ketones the approximate order of migration is tertiary alkyl > secondary alkyl, aryl > primary alkyl > methyl. Since the methyl group has a low migrating ability, the reaction provides a means of cleaving a methyl ketone R'COMe to produce an alcohol or phenol R'OH (by hydrolysis of the ester R'OCOMe). The migrating ability of aryl groups is increased by electron-donating and decreased by electron-withdrawing substituents.[301] Enolizable P-diketones do

not react. α-Diketones can be converted to anhydrides.[302] With aldehydes, migration of hydrogen gives the carboxylic acid, and this is a way of accomplishing 14-6. Migration of the other group would give formates, but this seldom happens, though aryl aldehydes have been converted to formates with H_2O_2 and a selenium compound[303] (see also the Dakin reaction in 19-11).

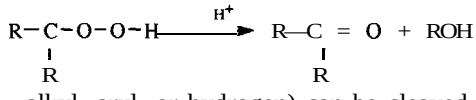
The mechanism[304] is similar to those of the analogous reactions with hydrazoic acid (18-16 with ketones) and diazomethane (18-8):



One important piece of evidence for this mechanism was that benzophenone-^{18}O gave ester entirely labeled in the carbonyl oxygen, with none in the alkoxyl oxygen.[305] Carbon-14 isotope-effect studies on acetophenones have shown that migration of aryl groups takes place in the rate-determining step,[306] demonstrating that migration of Ar is concerted with departure of OCOR".[307] (It is hardly likely that migration would be the slow step if the leaving group departed first to give an ion with a positive charge on an oxygen atom, which would be a highly unstable species.)

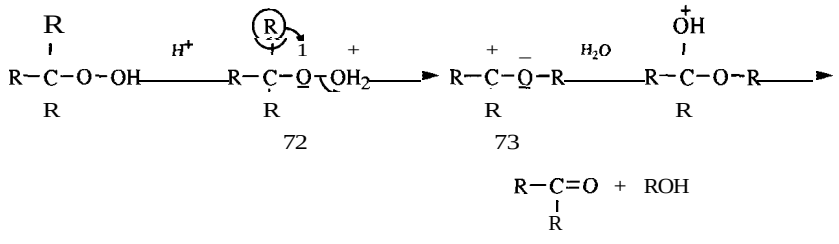
18-20 *Rearrangement of Hydroperoxides*

C-ALKYL-O-HYDROXY-ELIMINATION



Hydroperoxides (R=alkyl, aryl, or hydrogen) can be cleaved by proton or Lewis acids in a reaction whose principal step is a rearrangement.[308] The reaction has also been applied to peroxy esters (R3COOCOR'), but less often. When aryl and alkyl groups are both present, migration of aryl dominates. It is not necessary actually to prepare and isolate hydroperoxides. The reaction takes place when the lcohols are treated with H_2O_2 and acids. Migration of an alkyl group of a primary hydroperoxide provides a means for converting an alcohol to its next lower homolog (RCH_2-$OOH \rightarrow CH_2{=}O + ROH$).

The mechanism is as follows:[309]



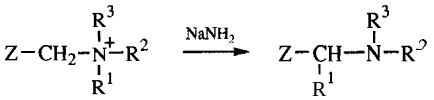
The last step is hydrolysis of the unstable hemiacetal. Alkoxycarbocation intermediates (73, R = alkyl) have been isolated in superacid solution[310] at low temperatures, and their structures proved by NMR.[311] The protonated hydroperoxides (72) could not be observed in these solutions, evidently reacting immediately on formation.

OS V, 818.

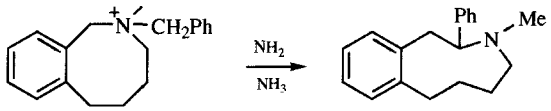
E. *Nitrogen-to-Carbon, Oxygen-to-Carbon, and Sulfur-to-Carbon Migration*

18-21 *The Stevens Rearrangement*

HYDRON-(2/*N*→ 1/ALKYL)-*MIGRO*-DETACHMENT



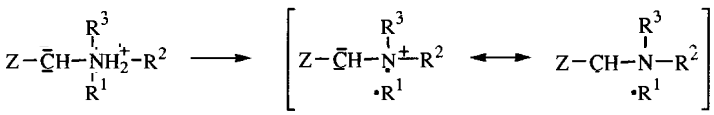
In the *Stevens rearrangement,* a quaternary ammonium salt containing an electron-withdrawing group Z on one of the carbons attached to the nitrogen is treated with a strong base (such as NaOR or $NaNH_2$) to give a rearranged tertiary amine. The Z group can be RCO, ROOC, phenyl, and so on.[312] The most common migrating groups are allylic, benzylic, benzhydryl, 3-phenylpropargyl, and phenacyl, though even methyl migrates to a sufficiently negative center.[313] When an allylic group migrates, it may or may not involve an allylic rearrangement within the migrating group (see **18-35),** depending on the substrate and reaction conditions. The reaction has been used for ring enlargement,[314] for example:



90%

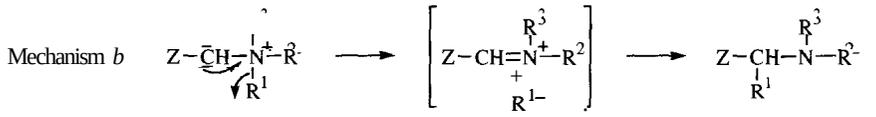
The mechanism has been the subject of much study.[315] That the rearrangement is intramolecular was shown by crossover experiments, by ^{14}C labeling,[316] and by the fact that retention of configuration is found at R^1.[317] The first step is loss of the acidic proton to give the ylid (74), which has been isolated.[318] The finding[319] that CIDNP spectra[320] could be obtained in many instances shows that in these cases the product is formed directly from a free-radical precursor. The following radical pair mechanism was proposed:[321]

Mechanism *a*



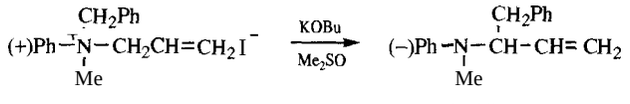
74 Solvent cage

The radicals do not drift apart because they are held together by the solvent cage. According to this mechanism, the radicals must recombine rapidly in order to account for the fact that R^1 does not racemize. Other evidence in favor of mechanism *a* is that in some cases small amounts of coupling products (R^1R^1) have been isolated,[322] which would be expected if some $\cdot R^1$ leaked from the solvent cage. However, not all the evidence is easily compatible with mechanism a.[323] It is possible that another mechanism *(b)* similar to mechanism *a,* but involving ion



74 Solvent cage

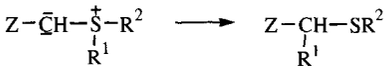
pairs in a solvent cage instead of radical pairs, operates in some cases. A third possible mechanism would be a concerted 1,2-shift,[324] but the orbital symmetry principle requires that this take place with inversion at R^1[325] (see p. 1440). Since the actual migration takes place with retention, it cannot, according to this argument, proceed by a concerted mechanism. However, in the case where the migrating group is allylic, a concerted mechanism can also operate **(18-35).** An interesting finding compatible with all three mechanisms is that optically active allylbenzylmethylphenylammonium iodide (asymmetric nitrogen, see p. 129) gave an optically active product:[326]



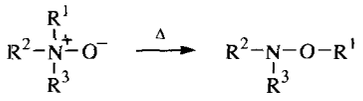
(15%)

The *Sommelet–Hauser rearrangement* competes when Z is an aryl group (see 13-22). *Hofmann elimination* competes when one of the R groups contains a (3 hydrogen atom **(17-6** and **17-7).**

Sulfur ylids containing a Z group give an analogous rearrangement, often also referred to as a Stevens rearrangement.[327] In this case too, there is much evidence



(including CIDNP) that a radical-pair cage mechanism is operating,[328] except that when the migrating group is allylic, the mechanism may be different (see **18-35).** Another reaction with a similar mechanism[329] is the *Meisenheimer rearrangement,*[330] in which certain tertiary amine oxides rearrange on heating to give



substituted hydroxylamines.[331] The migrating group R^1 is almost always allylic or benzilic.[332] The groups R^2 and R^3 may be alkyl or aryl, but if one of the R groups

contains a (3 hydrogen, Cope elimination **(17-8)** often competes. In a related reaction, when 2-methylpyridine N-oxides are treated with trifluoroacetic anhydride, the *Boekelheide reaction* occurs to give 2-hydroxymethylpyridines.[333]

Certain tertiary benzylic amines, when treated with BuLi, undergo a rearrangement analogous to the Wittig rearrangement **(18-22)** (e.g., $PhCH_2NPh_2 \rightarrow Ph_2CHNHPh$).[334] Only aryl groups migrate in this reaction.

Isocyanides, when heated in the gas phase or in nonpolar solvents, undergo a 1,2-intramolecular rearrangement to nitriles: RNC → RCN.[335] In polar solvents the mechanism is different.[336]

18-22 *The Wittig Rearrangement*

HYDRON-(2/*O*→ 1/ALKYL)-*MIGRO*-DETACHMENT

$$R{-}CH_2{-}O{-}R' \xrightarrow{R''Li} R{-}\underset{R'}{CH}{-}O^{-}\ Li^{+} + R''H$$

The rearrangement of ethers with alkyllithium reagents is called the *Wittig rearrangement* (not to be confused with the Wittig reaction, **16-47)** and is similar to **18-21**.[312] However, a stronger base is required (e.g., phenyllithium or sodium amide). The R and R' groups may be alkyl, aryl, or vinylic.[337] Also, one of the hydrogens may be replaced by an alkyl or aryl group, in which case the product is the salt of a tertiary alcohol. Migratory aptitudes here are allylic, benzylic > ethyl > methyl > phenyl.[338] The stereospecificity of the 1,2-Wittig rearrangement has been discussed.[339] The following radical-pair mechanism[340] (similar to mechanism *a* of **18-21)** is likely, after removal of the proton by the base. One of the radicals in the radical pair is a ketyl. Among the evidence for this mechanism is (1) the rearrangement is largely intramolecular; (2) migratory aptitudes are in the order of free-radical stabilities, not of carbanion stabilities[341] (which rules out an ion-pair mechanism similar to mechanism *b* of **18-21);** (3) aldehydes are obtained as side products;[342] (4) partial racemization of R' has been observed[343] (the remainder of the product retained its configuration); (5) crossover products have been detected;[344] and (6) when ketyl radicals and R • radicals from different precursors were brought together, similar products resulted.[345] However, there is evidence that at least in some cases the radical-pair mechanism accounts for only a portion of the product, and some kind of concerted mechanism can also take place.[346] Most of the above investigations were carried out with systems where R' is alkyl, but a radical-pair mechanism has also been suggested for the case where R' is aryl.[347] When R' is allylic a concerted mechanism can operate **(18-35).**

$$R{-}\underset{\cdot R'}{\overset{\cdot}{C}}H{-}\overset{\cdot}{O}{-}R' \longrightarrow \Big[\ R{-}\underset{\cdot R'}{\overset{\cdot}{C}}H{-}\overset{\cdot}{O}\ \longleftrightarrow\ R{-}\underset{\cdot R'}{\overset{\cdot}{C}}H{-}\overset{-}{O}\ \Big]_{J} \longrightarrow R{-}\underset{R'}{CH}{-}\overset{-}{O}$$

Solvent cage

When R is vinylic it is possible, by using a combination of an alkyllithium and *t*-BuOK, to get migration to the γ carbon (as well as to the a carbon), producing an

enolate that, on hydrolysis, gives an aldehyde:[348]

$$CH_2{=}CH{-}CH_2{-}OR' \longrightarrow R'CH_2{-}CH{=}CH{-}OLi \longrightarrow R'CH_2CH_2CHO$$

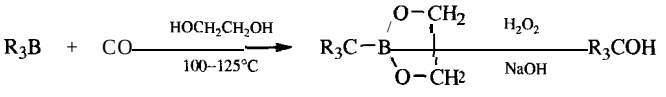
An aza-Wittig rearrangement is also known.[349]

There are no OS references, but see OS **VIII,** 501, for a related reaction.

F. *Boron-to-Carbon Migrations*[350]

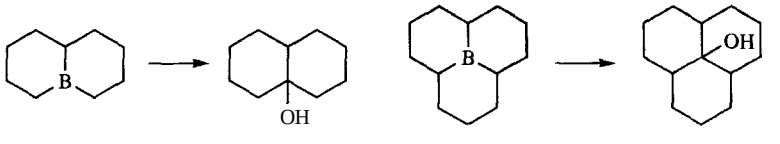
For another reaction involving boron-to-carbon migration, see **10-109.**

18-23 *Conversion of Boranes to Alcohols*



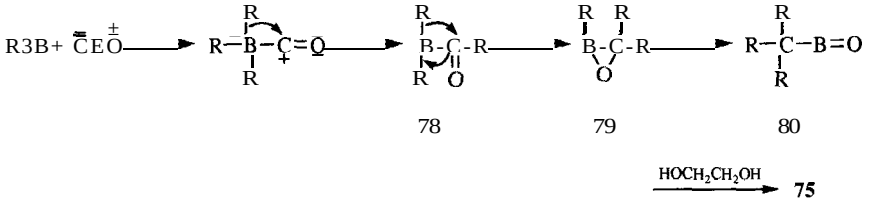
75

Trialkylboranes (which can be prepared from alkenes by **15-16)** react with carbon monoxide[351] at 100–125°C in the presence of ethylene glycol to give the 2-bora-l,3-dioxolanes (75), which are easily oxidized **(12-26)** to tertiary alcohols.[352] The R groups may be primary, secondary, or tertiary, and may be the same or different.[353] Yields are high and the reaction is quite useful, especially for the preparation of sterically hindered alcohols such as tricyclohexylcarbinol (76) and tri-2-norbornylcarbinol (77), which are difficult to prepare by **16-27.** Heterocycles in which boron is a ring atom react similarly (except that high CO pressures are required), and cyclic alcohols can be obtained from these substrates.[354] The preparation of such heterocyclic boranes was discussed at **15-16.** The overall conversion of a diene or triene to a cyclic alcohol has been described by Brown[355] as "stitching" with boron and "riveting" with carbon.



76 77

Though the mechanism has not been investigated thoroughly, it has been shown to be intramolecular by the failure to find crossover products when mixtures of boranes are used.[355] The following scheme, involving three boron-to-carbon migrations, has been suggested.



78 79 80

The purpose of the ethylene glycol is to intercept the boronic anhydride (80), which otherwise forms polymers that are difficult to oxidize. As we shall see in **18-23** and **18-24,** it is possible to stop the reaction after only one or two migrations have taken place.

Method 1 $R_3B + CHCl_2OMe \xrightarrow[2.\ H_2O_2 - NaOH]{1.\ LiOCEt_3 - THF} R_3COH$

Method 2 $R_3B + CN^- \xrightarrow{THF} \underset{81}{R_3B-CN^-} \xrightarrow[2.\ NaOH - H_2O_2]{1.\ excess\ (CF_3CO)_2O} R_3COH$

There are two other methods for achieving the conversion R3B $\rightarrow$ R_3COH, which often give better results: (1) treatment with α,α-dichloromethyl methyl ether and the base lithium triethylcarboxide[356] (2) treatment with a suspension of sodium cyanide in THF followed by reaction of the resulting trialkylcyanoborate (81) with an excess (>2 mol) of trifluoroacetic anhydride.[357] All the above migrations take place with retention of configuration at the migrating carbon.[358]

Several other methods for the conversion of boranes to tertiary alcohols are also known.[359]

If the reaction between trialkylboranes and carbon monoxide **(18-23)** is carried out in the presence of water followed by addition of NaOH, the product is a secondary alcohol. If H_2O_2 is added along with the NaOH, the corresponding ketone is obtained instead.[360] Various functional groups (e.g., OAc, COOR, CN) may be present in R without being affected,[361] though if they are in the a or (3 position relative to the boron atom, difficulties may be encountered. The use of an equimolar

$$\underset{81}{R_3\bar{B}-CN^-} \xrightarrow[2.\ H_2O_2 - OH^-]{1.\ (CF_3CO)_2O} RCOR$$

amount of trifluoroacetic anhydride leads to the ketone rather than the tertiary alcohol.[362] By this procedure thexylboranes RR'R"B (R" =thexyl) can be converted to unsymmetrical ketones RCOR'.[363] Variations of this methodology have been used to prepare optically active alcohols.[364]

For another conversion of trialkylboranes to ketones, see **18-26**.[365] Other conversions of boranes to secondary alcohols are also known.[366]

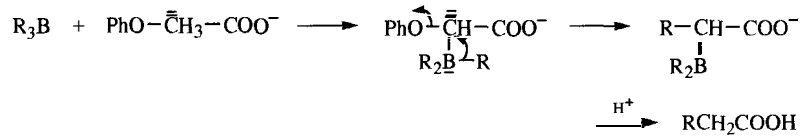
OS **VII,** 427. Also see OS VI, 137.

18-24 *Conversion of Boranes to Primary Alcohols, Aldehydes, or Carboxylic Acids*

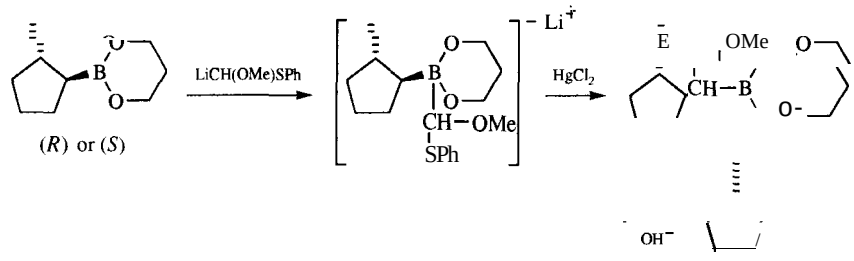
$$R_3B + CO \xrightarrow[2.\ H_2O_2 - OH^-]{1.\ LiBH_4} RCH_2OH$$

$$R_3B + CO \xrightarrow[2.\ H_2O_2 - NaH_2PO_4 - Na_2HPO_4]{1.\ LiAlH(OMe)_3} RCHO$$

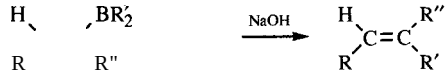
When the reaction between a trialkylborane and carbon monoxide **(18-23)** is carried out in the presence of a reducing agent such as lithium borohydride or potassium triisopropoxyborohydride, the reduction agent intercepts the intermediate 78, so that only one boron-to-carbon migration takes place, and the product is hydrolyzed to a primary alcohol or oxidized to an aldehyde.[367] This procedure wastes two of the three R groups, but this problem can be avoided by the use of B-alkyl-9-BBN derivatives (p. 1013). Since only the 9-alkyl group migrates, this method permits the conversion in high yield of an alkene to a primary alcohol or aldehyde containing one more carbon.[368] When B-alkyl-9-BBN derivatives are treated with CO and lithium tri-*tert*-butoxyaluminum hydride,[369] other functional groups (e.g., CN and ester) can be present in the alkyl group without being reduced.[370] Boranes can be directly converted to carboxylic acids by reaction with the dianion of phenoxyacetic acid.[371]



Boronic esters, $RB(OR')_2$, react with methoxy(phenylthio)methyllithium, LiCH(OMe)SPh, to give salts, which, after treatment with $HgCl_2$, and then H_2O_2, yield aldehydes.[372] This synthesis has been made enantioselective, with high ee values (>99%), by the use of an optically pure boronic ester,[373] for example:

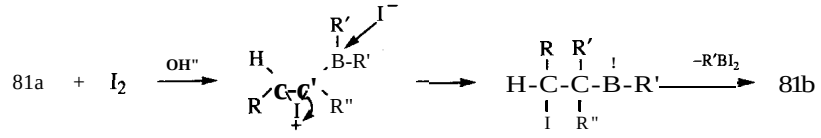


18-25 *Conversion of Vinylic Boranes to Alkenes*



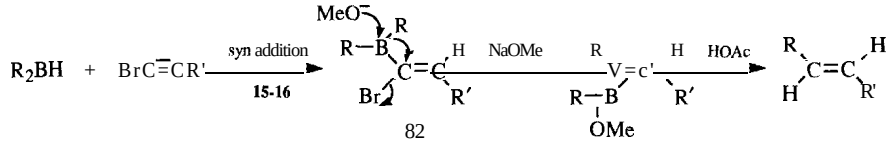
81a **81b**

The reaction between trialkylboranes and iodine to give alkyl iodides was mentioned at **12-28.** When the substrate contains a vinylic group, the reaction takes a different course,[374] with one of the R' groups migrating to the carbon, to give alkenes, **81b.**[375] The reaction is stereospecific in two senses: (1) if the groups R and R" are cis in the starting compound, they will be trans in the product **81a;** (2) there is retention of configuration within the migrating group R'.[376] Since vinylic boranes can be prepared from alkynes **(15-16),** this is a method for the addition of R' and H to a triple bond. If R" = H, the product is a (Z) alkene. The mechanism is believed to be



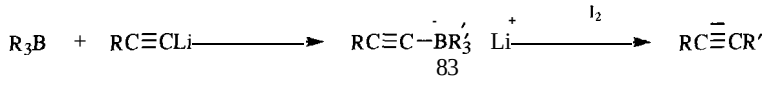
When R' is vinylic, the product is a conjugated diene.[377]

In another procedure, the addition of a dialkylborane to a 1-haloalkyne produces an α-halo vinylic borane (**82**).[378] Treatment of this with NaOMe gives the rearrangement shown, and protonolysis of the product

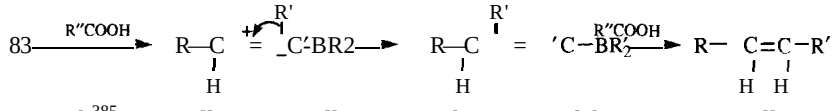


produces the (*E*)-alkene.[376] If R is a vinylic group the product is a 1,3-diene.[379] If one of the groups is thexyl, the other migrates.[380] This extends the scope of the synthesis, since dialkylboranes where one R group is thexyl are easily prepared. A combination of both of the procedures described above results in the preparation of trisubstituted alkenes.[381] The entire conversion of haloalkyne to alkene can be carried out in one reaction vessel, without isolation of intermediates. An aluminum counterpart of the a-halo vinylic borane procedure has been reported.[382]

18-26 *Formation of Alkynes, Alkenes, and Ketones from Boranes and Acetylides*



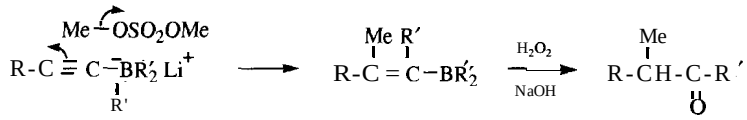
A hydrogen directly attached to a triple-bond carbon can be replaced in high yield by an alkyl or an aryl group, by treatment of the lithium acetylide with a trialkyl- or triarylborane, followed by reaction of the lithium alkynyltrialkylborate 83 with iodine.[383] The R' group may be primary or secondary alkyl as well as aryl, so the reaction has a broader scope than the older reaction 10-110.[384] The R group may be alkyl, aryl, or hydrogen, though in the last-mentioned case satisfactory yields are obtained only if lithium acetylide-ethylenediamine is used as the starting



compound.[385] Optically active alkynes can be prepared by using optically active thexylborinates, RR″BOR′ (R" = thexyl), where R is chiral, and $LiC{\equiv}CSiMe_3$.[386] The reaction can be adapted to the preparation of alkenes[341] by treatment of 83 with an electrophile such as propanoic acid[387] or tributyltin chloride.[388] The reaction with Bu_3SnCl produces the (Z) alkene stereoselectively.

Treatment of 83 with an electrophile such as methyl sulfate, allyl bromide, or triethyloxonium borofluoride, followed by oxidation of the resulting vinylic borane

gives a ketone (illustrated for methyl sulfate):[389]

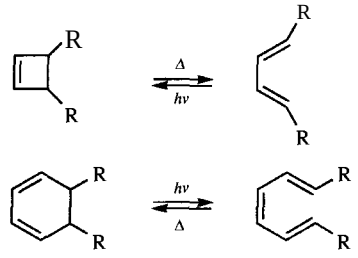


Non-1,2 Rearrangements

A. *Electrocyclic Rearrangements*

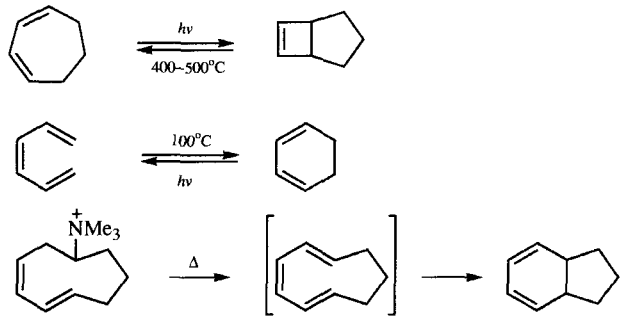
18-27 *Electrocyclic Rearrangements of Cyclobutenes and 1,3-Cyclohexadienes*

(4)*SECO*-1/4/DETACHMENT; (4)*CYCLO*-1/4/ATTACHMENT
(6)*SECO*-1,6/DETACHMENT; *(6)CYCLO*-1/6/ATTACHMENT



Cyclobutenes and 1,3-dienes can be interconverted by treatment with UV light or with heat.[390] The thermal reaction is generally not reversible (though exceptions[391] are known), and many cyclobutenes have been converted to 1,3-dienes by heating at temperatures between 100 and 200°C. The photochemical conversion can in principle be carried out in either direction, but most often 1,3-dienes are converted to cyclobutenes rather than the reverse, because the dienes are stronger absorbers of light at the wavelengths used.[392] In a similar reaction, 1,3-cyclohexadienes interconvert with 1,3,5-trienes, but in this case the ring-closing process is generally favored thermally and the ring-opening process photochemically, though exceptions are known in both directions.[393]

Some examples follow:



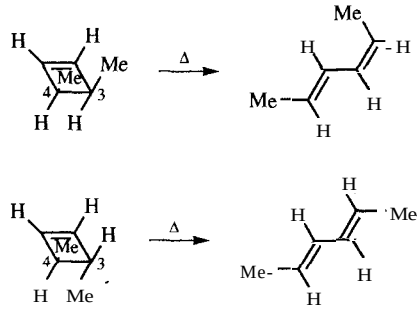
Not isolated

An interesting example of l,3-cyclohexadiene-l,3,5-triene interconversion is the reaction of norcaradienes to give cycloheptatrienes.[395] Norcaradienes give this reaction so readily (because they are *cis*-1,2-divinylcyclopropanes, see p. 1445)

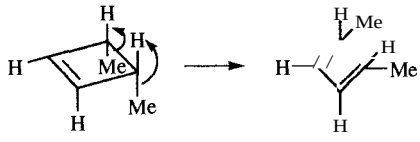
Norcaradiene

that they cannot generally be isolated, though some exceptions are known (see also p. 1087).[396]

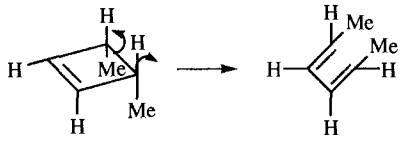
These reactions, called *electrocyclic rearrangements*,[397] take place by pericyclic mechanisms. The evidence comes from stereochemical studies, which show a remarkable stereospecificity whose direction depends on whether the reaction is induced by heat or light. For example, it was found for the thermal reaction that *cis*-3,4-dimethylcyclobutene gave only *cis,trans*-2,4-hexadiene, while the trans isomer gave only the trans-trans diene:[398]



This is evidence for a four-membered cyclic transition state and arises from conrotatory motion about the C-3—C-4 bond. It is called conrotatory because both movements are clockwise (or both counterclockwise). Because both rotate in the same direction, the cis isomer gives the cis-trans diene:[399]



The other possibility *(disrotatory* motion) would have one moving clockwise while the other moves counterclockwise; the cis isomer would have given the cis-cis diene (shown) or the trans-trans diene:



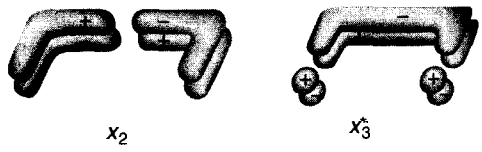


FIGURE 18.1 Symmetries of the χ_2 and χ_{33}^* orbitals of a conjugated diene.

If the motion had been disrotatory, this would still have been evidence for a cyclic mechanism. If the mechanism were a diradical or some other kind of noncyclic process, it is likely that no stereospecificity of either kind would have been observed. The reverse reaction is also conrotatory. In contrast, the photochemical cyclobutene 1,3-diene interconversion is *disrotatory* in either direction.[400] On the other hand, the cyclohexadiene 1,3,5-triene interconversion shows precisely the opposite behavior. The thermal process is *disrotatory*, while the photochemical process is *conrotatory* (in either direction). These startling results are a consequence of the symmetry rules mentioned in Chapter 15 (p. 1068).[401] As in the case of cycloaddition reactions, we will use the frontier-orbital and Möbius–Hückel approaches.[402]

The Frontier-Orbital Method[403]

As applied to these reactions, the frontier-orbital method may be expressed: *A bond will open in such a way that the resulting p orbitals will have the symmetry of the highest occupied n orbital of the product.* In the case of cyclobutenes, the HOMO of the product in the thermal reaction is the χ_2 orbital (Fig. 18.1). Therefore, in a thermal process, the cyclobutene must open so that on one side the positive lobe lies above the plane, and on the other side below it. Thus the substituents are forced into conrotatory motion (Fig. 18.2).

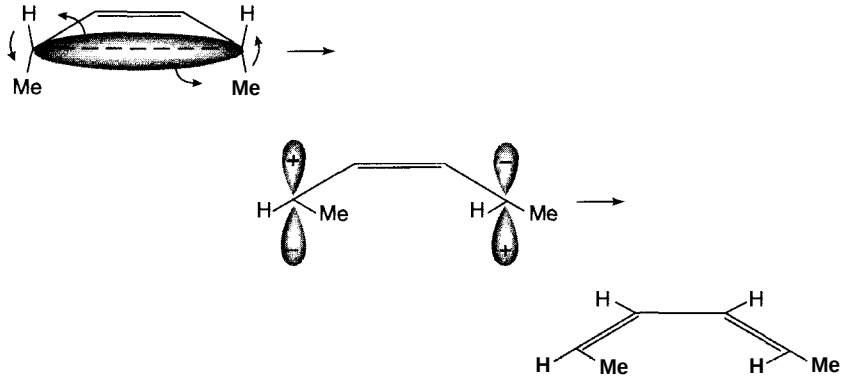


FIGURE 18.2 Thermal ring opening of 1,2-dimethylcyclobutene. The two hydrogens and two methyls are forced into conrotatory motion so that the resulting *p* orbitals have the symmetry of the HOMO of the diene.

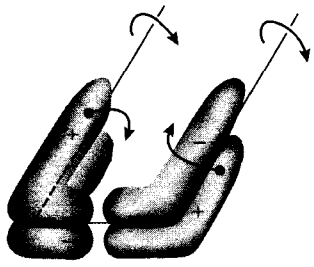


FIGURE 18.3 Thermal ring closing of a 1,3-diene. Conrotatory motion is required for two + lobes to overlap.

On the other hand, in the photochemical process, the HOMO of the product is now the χ_3 orbital (Fig. 18.1), and in order for the *p* orbitals to achieve this symmetry (the two plus lobes on the same side of the plane), the substituents are forced into disrotatory motion.

We may also look at this reaction from the opposite direction (ring closing). For this direction the rule is that *those lobes of orbitals that overlap (in the HOMO) must be of the same sign.* For thermal cyclization of butadienes, this requires conrotatory motion (Fig. 18.3). In the photochemical process the HOMO is the χ_3 orbital, so that disrotatory motion is required for lobes of the same sign to overlap.

The Möbius–Hückel Method[405]

As we saw on p. 1070, in this method we choose a basis set of *p* orbitals and look for sign inversions in the transition state. Figure 18.4 shows a basis set for a 1,3-diene. It is seen that disrotatory ring closing (Fig. 18.4*a*) results in overlap of plus lobes only, while in conrotatory closing (Fig. 18.4*b*) there is one overlap of a plus with a minus lobe. In the first case, we have zero sign inversions, while in the second there is one sign inversion. With zero (or an even number of) sign inversions, the disrotatory transition state is a Hiickel system, and so is allowed thermally only if the total number of electrons is $4n + 2$ (p. 1071). Since the total here is 4, the disrotatory process is not allowed. On the other hand, the conrotatory process, with one sign inversion, is a Mobius system, which is thermally allowed if the total number is An. The conrotatory process is therefore allowed thermally. For the photochemical reactions the rules are reversed: A reaction with An electrons requires a Hiickel system, so only the disrotatory process is allowed.

Both the frontier–orbital and the Möbius-Hiickel methods can also be applied to the cyclohexadiene 1,3,5-triene reaction; in either case the predicted result is that for the thermal process, only the disrotatory pathway is allowed, and for the

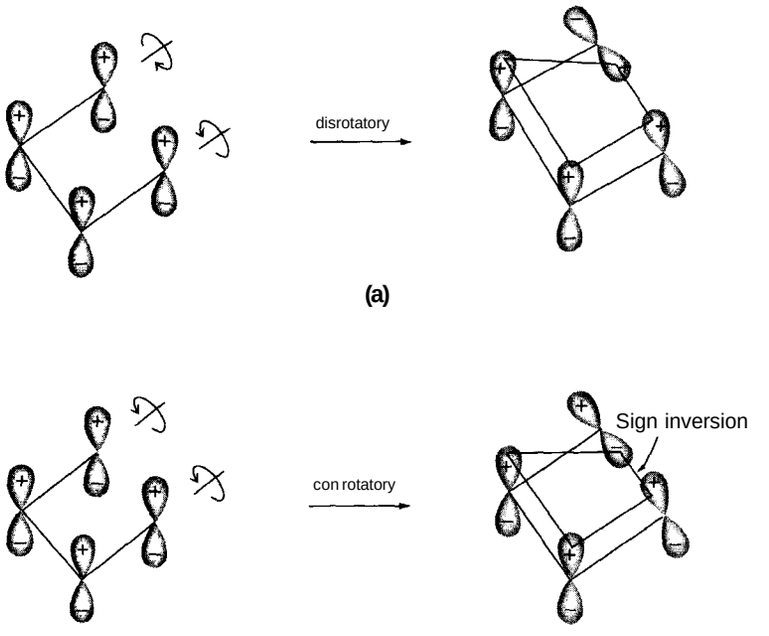
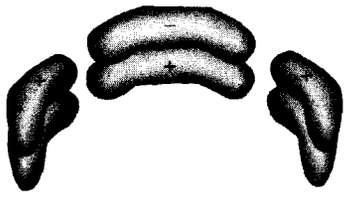
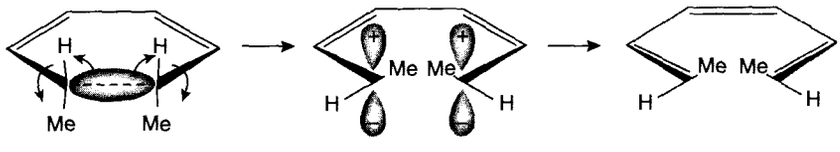


FIGURE 18.4 The 1,3-diene–cyclobutene interconversion. The orbitals shown are *not* MOs, but a basis set of *p* atomic orbitals. (a) Disrotatory ring closure gives zero sign inversions. *(b)* Conrotatory ring closure gives one sign inversion. We could have chosen to show any other basis set (e.g., another basis set would have two plus lobes above the plane and two below). This would change the number of sign inversions, but the disrotatory mode would still have an even number of sign inversions, and the conrottory mode an odd number, whichever basis set was chosen.

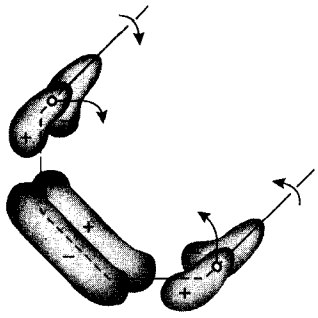
photochemical process, only the conrotatory. For example, for a 1,3,5-triene, the symmetry of the HOMO is



In the thermal cleavage of cyclohexadienes, then, the positive lobes must lie on the same side of the plane, requiring disrotatory motion:



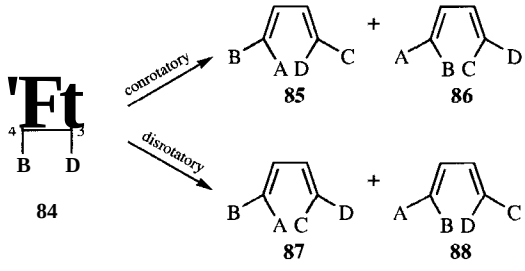
Disrotatory motion is also necessary for the reverse reaction, in order that the orbitals that overlap may be of the same sign:



All these directions are reversed for photochemical processes, because in each case a higher orbital, with inverted symmetry, is occupied.

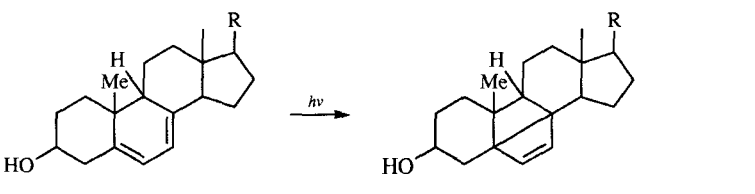
In the Möbius-Hiickel approach, diagrams similar to Figure 18.4 can be drawn for this case. Here too, the disrotatory pathway is a Hiickel system and the conrotatory pathway a Möbius system, but since six electrons are now involved, the thermal reaction follows the Hiickel pathway and the photochemical reaction the Möbius pathway.

In the most general case, there are four possible products that can arise from a given cyclobutene or cyclohexadiene: two from the conrotatory and two from the disrotatory pathway. For example, conrotatory ring opening of 84 gives either 85 or 86, while disrotatory opening gives either 87 or 88. The orbital-symmetry rules tell us when a given reaction will operate by the conrotatory and when by the disrotatory mode, but they do not say which of the two possible conrotatory or disrotatory pathways will be followed. It is often possible, however, to make such predictions on

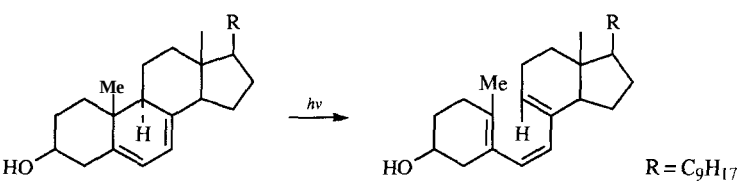


steric grounds. For example, in the opening of 84 by the disrotatory pathway, 87 arises when groups A and C swing in toward each other (clockwise motion around C-4, counterclockwise around C-3), while 88 is formed when groups B and D swing in and A and C swing out (clockwise motion around C-3, counterclockwise around C-4). We therefore predict that when A and C are larger than B and D, the predominant or exclusive product will be 88, rather than 87. Predictions of this kind have largely been borne out.[404] There is evidence, however, that steric effects[405] are not the only factor, and that electronic effects also play a role, which may be even

greater.[406] An electron-donating group stabilizes the transition state when it rotates *outward,* because it mixes with the LUMO; if it rotates *inward,* it mixes with the HOMO, destabilizing the transition state.[407] The compound 3-formylcyclobutene provided a test. Steric factors would cause the CHO (an electron-withdrawing group) to rotate outward; electronic effects would cause it to rotate inward. The experiment showed inward rotation.[408]



89

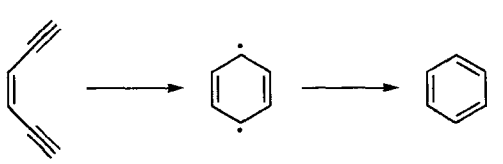


90 **91**

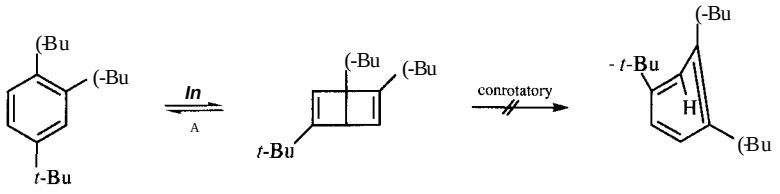
$R = C_9H_{17}$

Cyclohexadienes are of course 1,3-dienes, and in certain cases it is possible to convert them to cyclobutenes instead of to 1,3,5-trienes.[409] An interesting example is found in the pyrocalciferols. Photolysis of the syn isomer 89 (or of the other syn isomer, not shown) leads to the corresponding cyclobutene,[410] while photolysis of the anti isomers (one of them is 90) gives the ring-opened 1,3,5-triene (91). This difference in behavior is at first sight remarkable, but is easily explained by the orbital-symmetry rules. Photochemical ring opening to a 1,3,5-triene must be conrotatory. If 89 were to react by this pathway, the product would be the triene 91, but this compound would have to contain a *trans*-cyclohexene ring (either the methyl group or the hydrogen would have to be directed inside the ring). On the other hand, photochemical conversion to a cyclobutene must be disrotatory, but if 90 were to give this reaction, the product would have to have a trans-fused ring junction. Compounds with such ring junctions are known (p. 162) but are very strained. Stable trans-cyclohexenes are unknown (p. 186). Thus, 89 and 90 give the products they do owing to a combination of orbital-symmetry rules and steric influences.

A variation of this process is the *Bergnan cyclization*,[411] where an ene-diyne cyclizes to a biradical and then aromatizes, for example:

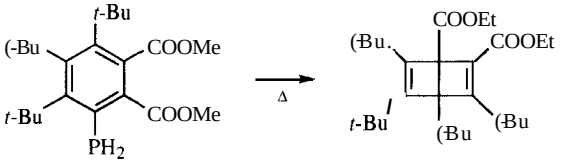


Simply heating the en-diyne will usually lead to aromatization via this pathway.[412]



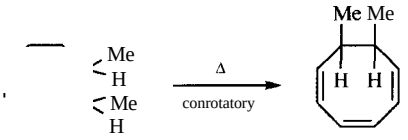
92 93 94

The 1,3-diene cyclobutene interconversion can even be applied to benzene rings. For example,[413] photolysis of 1,2,4-tri-*tert*-butylbenzene (92) gives 1,2,5-tri-*tert*-butyl[2.2.0]hexadiene (93, a Dewar benzene).[414] The reaction owes its success to the fact that once 93 is formed, it cannot, under the conditions used, revert to 92 by either a thermal or a photochemical route. The orbital-symmetry rules prohibit thermal conversion of 93 to 92 by a pericyclic mechanism, because thermal conversion of a cyclobutene to a 1,3-diene must be conrotatory, and conrotatory reaction of 93 would result in a 1,3,5-cyclohexatriene containing one trans double bond (94), which is of course too strained to exist. Compound 93 cannot revert to 92 by a photochemical pathway either, because light of the frequency used to excite 92 would not be absorbed by 93. This is thus another example of a molecule that owes its stability to the orbital-symmetry rules (see p. 1083). Pyrolysis of 93 does give 92, probably by a diradical mechanism.[415] In the case of 95 and 96, the Dewar benzene is actually more stable than the benzene. Compound 95 rearranges to 96 in 90% yield at 120°.[416] In this case, thermolysis of the benzene gives the Dewar benzene (rather than the reverse), because of the strain of four adjacent *tert*-butyl groups on the ring.



95 96

A number of electrocyclic reactions have been carried out with systems of other sizes, for example, conversion of the 1,3,5,7-octatetraene (97) to the cyclooctatriene (**98**).[417] The stereochemistry of these reactions can be predicted in a similar manner.



97 98

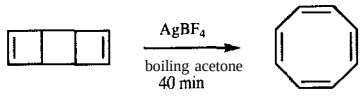
The results of such predictions can be summarized according to whether the number of electrons involved in the cyclic process is of the form *An* or *An + 2* (where *n* is any

integer including zero).

	Thermal Reaction	Photochemical Reaction
$4n$	Conrotatory	Disrotatory
$4n + 2$	Disrotatory	Conrotatory

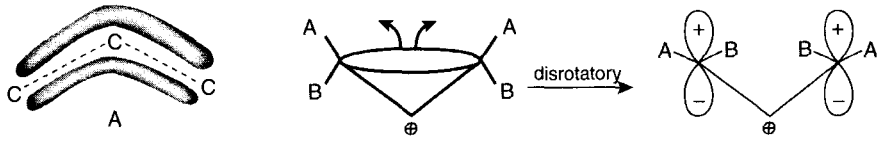
Although the orbital-symmetry rules predict the stereochemical results in almost all cases, it is necessary to recall (p. 1070) that they only say what is allowed and what is forbidden, but the fact that a reaction is allowed does not necessarily mean that the reaction takes place, and if an allowed reaction does take place, it does not *necessarily* follow that a concerted pathway is involved, since other pathways of lower energy may be available.[418] Furthermore, a "forbidden" reaction might still be made to go, if a method of achieving its high activation energy can be found. This was, in fact, done for the cyclobutene butadiene interconversion (cis-3,4-dichloro-cyclobutene gave the forbidden *cis,cis*- and *trans,trans*-1,4-dichloro-1,3-butadienes, as well as the allowed cis, trans isomer) by the use of IR laser light.[419] This is a thermal reaction. The laser light excites the molecule to a higher vibrational level (p. 307), but not to a higher electronic state.

As is the case for [2 + 2] cycloaddition reactions (15-61), certain forbidden electrocyclic reactions can be made to take place by the use of metallic catalysts.[420] An example is the silver ion-catalyzed conversion of tricyclo[4.2.0.0^{2,5}]octa-3,7-diene to cyclooctatetraene:[421]

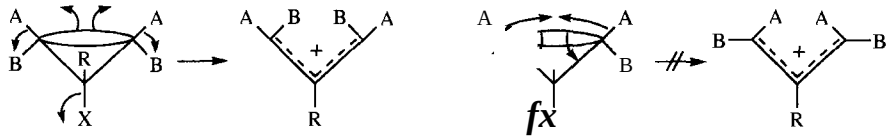


This conversion is very slow thermally (i.e., without the catalyst) because the reaction must take place by a disrotatory pathway, which is disallowed thermally.[422]

The ring opening of cyclopropyl cations (pp. 437, 1399) is an electrocyclic reaction and is governed by the orbital symmetry rules.[423] For this case we invoke the rule that the s bond opens in such a way that the resulting *p* orbitals have the symmetry of the highest occupied orbital of the product, in this case, an allylic cation. We may recall that an allylic system has three molecular orbitals (p. 38). For the cation, with only two electrons, the highest occupied orbital is the one of the lowest energy (A). Thus, the cyclopropyl cation must undergo a disrotatory ring

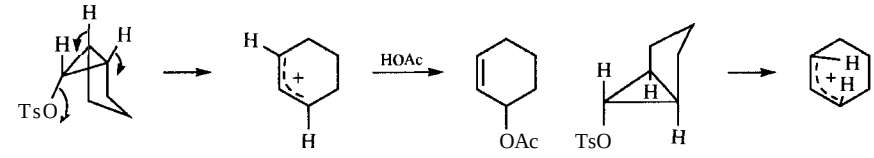


opening in order to maintain the symmetry. (Note that, in contrast, ring opening of the cyclopropyl *anion* must be conrotatory,[424] since in this case it is the next orbital of the allylic system which is the highest occupied, and this has the opposite symmetry.[425]) However, it is very difficult to generate a free cyclopropyl cation (p. 438), and it is likely that in most cases, cleavage of the s bond is concerted with departure of the leaving group in the original cyclopropyl substrate. Of course, this means that the *s* bond provides anchimeric assistance to the removal of the leaving group (an S_N2 type process), and we would expect that such assistance should come from the backside. This has an important effect on the direction of ring opening. The orbital-symmetry rules require that the ring opening be disrotatory, but as we have seen, there are two disrotatory pathways and the rules do not tell us which is preferred. But the fact that the *s* orbital provides assistance from the backside means that the two substituents that are trans to the leaving group must move *outward*, not inward.[426] Thus, the disrotatory pathway that is followed is the one shown in C, not the one shown in D, because the former puts the electrons of the σ bond on the side opposite that of the leaving group.[427] Strong confirmation of this picture[428] comes



C D

from acetolysis of *endo*- (99) and *exo*-bicyclo[3,1,0]hexyl-6-tosylate **(100).** The groups trans to the tosylate must move outward. For **99** this means that the two hydrogens can go outside the framework of the six-membered ring, but for **100** they are forced to go inside. Consequently, it is not surprising that the rate ratio for



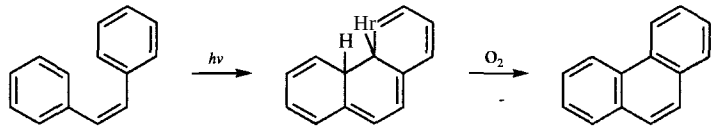
99 100

solvolysis of **99:100** was found to be >2.5 x 10^6 and that at 150°C, **100** did not solvolyze at all.[429] This evidence is kinetic. Unlike the cases of the cyclobutene 1,3-diene and cyclohexadiene 1,3,5-triene interconversions, the direct product here is a cation, which is not stable but reacts with a nucleophile and loses some of its steric integrity in the process, so that much of the evidence has been of the kinetic type rather than from studies of product stereochemistry. However, it has been shown by investigations in superacids, where it is possible to keep the cations intact and to study their structures by NMR, that in all cases studied the cation that is predicted by these rules is in fact formed.[430]

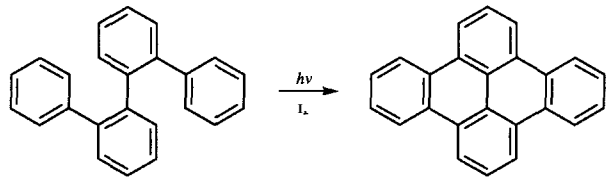
OS V, 235, 277, 467; VI, 39, 145, 196, 422, 427, 862; IX, 180.

18-28 *Conversion of Stilbenes to Phenanthrenes*

(6)*CYCLO*-DE-HYDROGEN-COUPLING (OVERALL TRANSFORMATION)



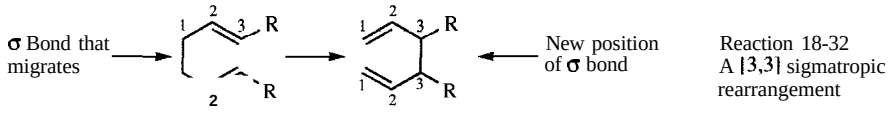
Stilbenes can be converted to phenanthrenes by irradiation with UV light[431] in the presence of an oxidizing agent such as dissolved molecular oxygen, $FeCl_3$, Pd—C,[432] or iodine.[433] The reaction is a photochemically allowed conrotatory[434] conversion of a 1,3,5-hexatriene to a cyclohexadiene, followed by removal of two hydrogen atoms by the oxidizing agent. The intermediate dihydrophenanthrene has been isolated.[435] The use of substrates containing heteroatoms (e.g., PhN=NPh) allows the formation of heterocyclic ring systems. The actual reacting species must be the *cis*-stilbene, but *trans*-stilbenes can often be used, because they are isomerized to the cis isomers under the reaction conditions. The reaction can be extended to the preparation of many fused aromatic systems, for example,[436]



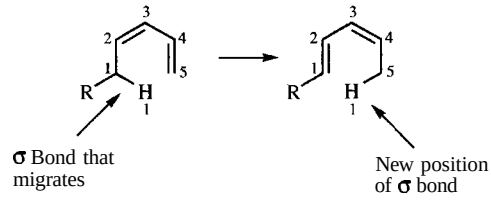
though not all such systems give reaction.[437]

B. *Sigmatropic Rearrangements*

A sigmatropic rearrangement is defined[438] as migration, in an uncatalyzed intramolecular process, of a σ bond, adjacent to one or more *n* systems, to a new position in a molecule, with the *n* systems becoming reorganized in the process. Examples are



Reaction 18-32
A [3,3] sigmatropic rearrangement

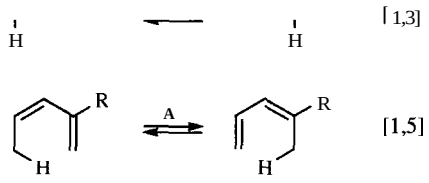


Reaction 18-39
A [1,5] sigmatropic rearrangement

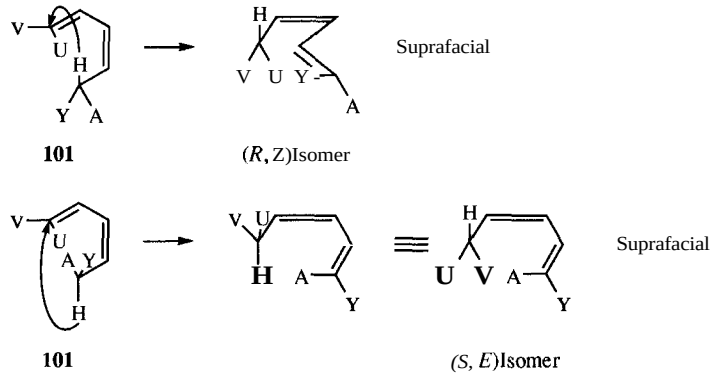
The *order* of a sigmatropic rearrangement is expressed by two numbers set in brackets: *[i,j]*. These numbers can be determined by counting the atoms over which each end of the s bond has moved. Each of the original termini is given the number 1. Thus in the first example above, each terminus of the s bond has migrated from C-1 to C-3, so the order is [3,3]. In the second example, the carbon terminus has moved from C-1 to C-5, but the hydrogen terminus has not moved at all, so the order is [1,5].

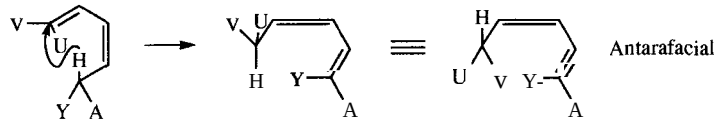
18-29 *[1,j] Sigmatropic Migrations of Hydrogen*

1/ → 3/HYDROGEN-MIGRATION; 1/ → 5/HYDROGEN-MIGRATION

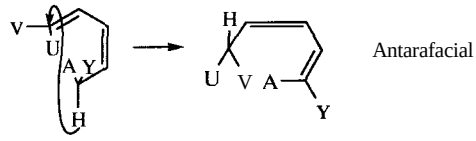


Many examples of thermal or photochemical rearrangements in which a hydrogen atom migrates from one end of a system of *n* bonds to the other have been reported,[439] though the reaction is subject to geometrical conditions. Pericyclic mechanisms are involved, and the hydrogen must, in the transition state, be in contact with both ends of the chain at the same time. This means that for [1,5] and longer rearrangements, the molecule must be able to adopt the cisoid conformation. Furthermore, there are two geometrical pathways by which any sigmatropic rearrangement can take place, which we illustrate for the case of a [1,5] sigmatropic rearrangement,[440] starting with a substrate of the form 101, where the migration origin is an asymmetric carbon atom and U ≠ V. In one of the two pathways, the hydrogen moves along the top or bottom face of the *n* system. This is called *suprafacial migration.* In the other pathway, the hydrogen moves *across* the *n* system, from top to bottom, or vice versa. This is *antarafacial* migration. Altogether, a single isomer like 101 can give four products. In a suprafacial migration, H can move across the top of the *n* system (as drawn above) to give the *(R, Z)* isomer, or it can





101 (*S*, Z)Isomer



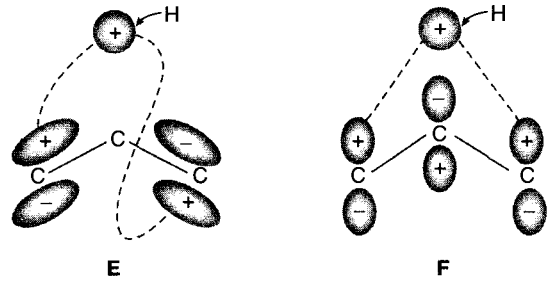
101 (*R*, *E*)Isomer

rotate 180° and move across the bottom of the *n* system to give the *(S, E)* isomer.[441] The antarafacial migration can similarly lead to two diastereomers, in this case the *(S,* Z) and *(R, E)* isomers.

In any given sigmatropic rearrangement, only one of the two pathways is allowed by the orbital-symmetry rules; the other is forbidden. To analyze this situation we first use a modified frontier–orbital approach.[442] We will imagine that in the transition state the migrating H atom breaks away from the rest of the system, which we may treat as if it were a free radical.

Imaginary transition state for a [1,3] sigmatropic rearrangement

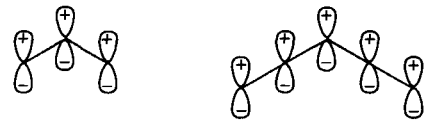
Note that this is not what actually takes place; we merely imagine it in order to be able to analyze the process. In a [1,3] sigmatropic rearrangement the imaginary transition state consists of a hydrogen atom and an allyl radical. The latter species (p. 38) has three *n* orbitals, but the only one that concerns us here is the HOMO which, in a thermal rearrangement is E. The electron of the hydrogen atom is of course in a 1*s* orbital, which has only one lobe. The rule governing sigmatropic migration of hydrogen is *the H must move from a plus to a plus or from a minus to a minus*



E **F**

lobe, of the HOMO; it cannot move to a lobe of opposite sign.[443] Obviously, the only way this can happen in a thermal [1,3] sigmatropic rearrangement is if the migration is antarafacial. Consequently, the rule predicts that antarafacial thermal [1,3] sigmatropic rearrangements are allowed, but the suprafacial pathway is forbidden. However, in a photochemical reaction, promotion of an electron means that F is now the HOMO; the suprafacial pathway is now allowed and the antarafacial pathway forbidden.

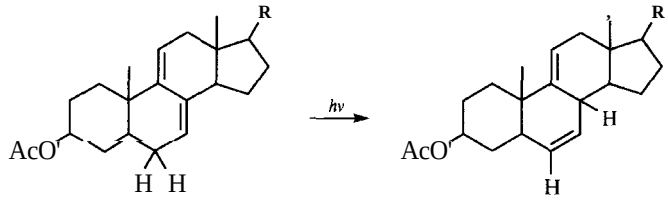
A similar analysis of [1,5] sigmatropic rearrangements shows that in this case the thermal reaction must be suprafacial and the photochemical process antarafacial. For the general case, with odd-numbered *j*, we can say that *[l,j]* suprafacial migrations are allowed thermally when *j* is of the form 4n + 1, and photochemically when *j* has the form *An*— 1; the opposite is true for antarafacial migrations.



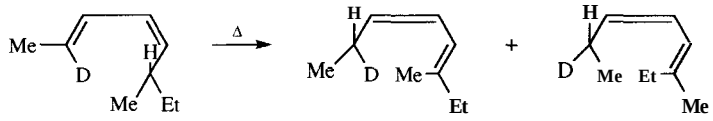
G H

As expected, the Möbius–Hückel method leads to the same predictions. Here we look at the basis set of orbitals shown in G and H for [1,3] and [1,5] rearrangements, respectively. A [1,3] shift involves four electrons, so an allowed thermal pericyclic reaction must be a Möbius system (p. 1070) with one or an odd number of sign inversions. As can be seen in G, only an antarafacial migration can achieve this. A [1,5] shift, with six electrons, is allowed thermally only when it is a Hiickel system with zero or an even number of sign inversions; hence it requires a suprafacial migration.

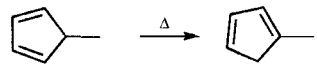
The actual reported results bear out this analysis. Thus a thermal [1,3] migration is allowed to take place only antarafacially, but such a transition state would be extremely strained, and thermal [1,3] sigmatropic migrations of hydrogen are unknown.[444] On the other hand, the photochemical pathway allows suprafacial [1,3] shifts, and a few such reactions are known, an example being[445]



The situation is reversed for [1,5] hydrogen shifts. In this case, the thermal rearrangements, being suprafacial, are quite common, while photochemical rearrangements are rare.[446] Two examples of the thermal reaction are



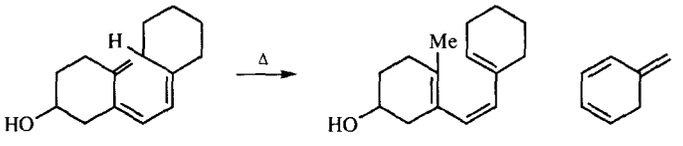
Ref. 447



Ref. 448

Note that the first example bears out the stereochemical prediction made earlier. Only the two isomers shown were formed. In the second example, migration can > continue around the ring. Migrations of this kind are called *circumambulatory rearrangements.*[449] Such migrations are known for cyclopentadiene, pyrrole, and phosphole derivatives.[450] [1,5] Hydrogen shifts are also known with vinyl aziridines.[451]

The rare [1,4] hydrogen transfer has been observed in radical cyclizations.[452] With respect to [1,7] hydrogen shifts, the rules predict the thermal reaction to be antarafacial. Unlike the case of [1,3] shifts, the transition state is not too greatly strained, and such rearrangements have been reported, for example,[453]

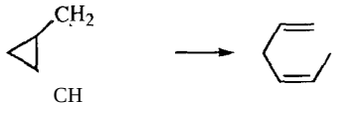


102

Photochemical [1,7] shifts are suprafacial and, not surprisingly, many of these have been observed.[454]

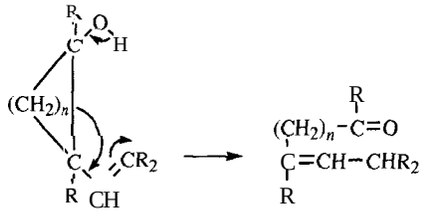
The orbital symmetry rules also help us to explain, as on pages 1083 and 1433, the unexpected stability of certain compounds. Thus, **102** could, by a thermal [1,3] sigmatropic rearrangement, easily convert to toluene, which of course is far more stable because it has an aromatic sextet. Yet **102** has been prepared and is stable at dry ice temperature and in dilute solutions.[455]

Analogs of sigmatropic rearrangements in which a cyclopropane ring replaces one of the double bonds are also known, for example,[456]

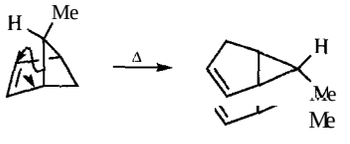


A homodienyl [1,5] shift

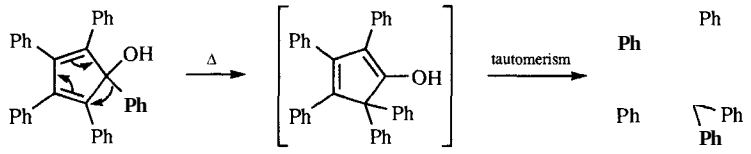
The reverse reaction has also been reported.[457] 2-Vinylcycloalkanols[458] undergo an analogous reaction, as do cyclopropyl ketones (see p. 1450 for this reaction).



18-30 *[1,j] Sigmatropic Migrations of Carbon*



[1,3] Migration of alkyl[459]



[1,5] Migration of phenyl[460]

Sigmatropic migrations of alkyl or aryl groups[461] are less common than the corresponding hydrogen migrations.[462] When they do take place, there is an important difference. Unlike a hydrogen atom, whose electron is in a 1*s* orbital with only one lobe, a carbon free radical has its odd electron in a *p* orbital that has *two lobes of opposite sign.* Therefore, if we draw the imaginary transition states for this case (see p. 1438), we see that in a thermal suprafacial [1,5] process (Fig. 18.5), symmetry can be conserved only if the migrating carbon moves in such a way that the lobe which was originally attached to the *n* system remains attached to the *n* system. This can happen only if configuration is *retained within the migrating group.* On the other hand, thermal suprafacial [1,3] migration (Fig. 18.6) *can* take place if the migrating carbon switches lobes. If the migrating carbon was originally bonded by its minus

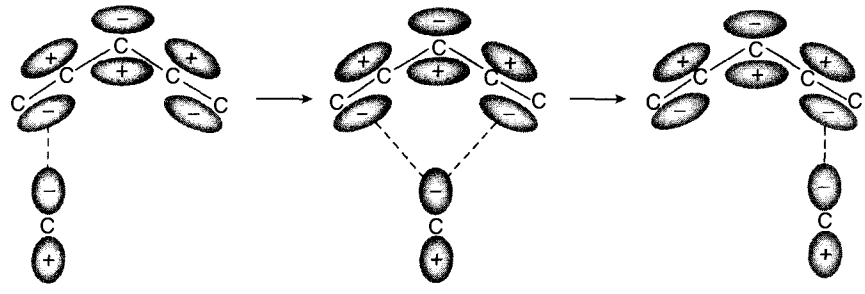


FIGURE 18.5 Hypothetical orbital movement for a thermal [1,5] sigmatropic migration of carbon. To move from one — lobe to the other — lobe, the migrating carbon use only its own — lobe, retaining its configuration.

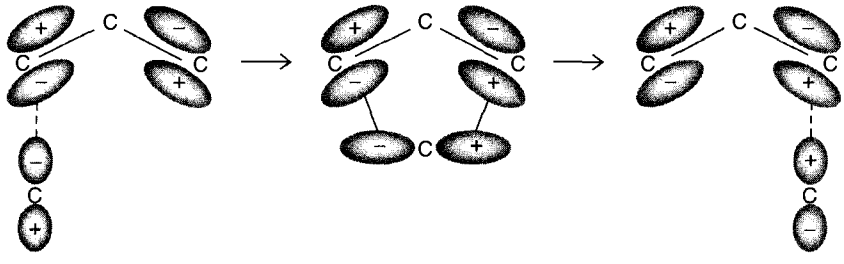
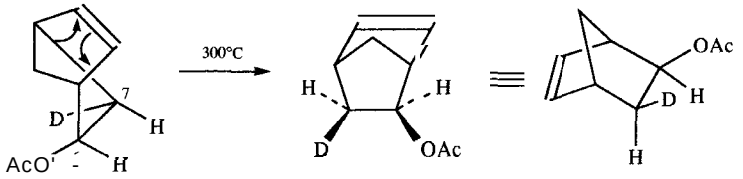


FIGURE 18.6 Hypothetical orbital movement for a thermal [1,3] sigmatropic migration of carbon. The migrating carbon moves from a — to a + lobe, requiring it to switch its own bonding lobe from — to +, inverting its configuration.

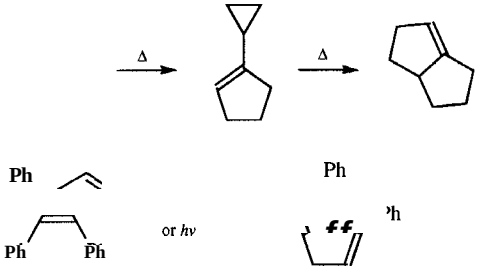
lobe, it must now use its plus lobe to form the new C–C bond. Thus, configuration in the migrating group will be *inverted.* From these considerations we predict that suprafacial [1, *j*] sigmatropic rearrangements in which carbon is the migrating group are always allowed, both thermally and photochemically, but that thermal [1,3] migrations will proceed with inversion and thermal [1,5] migrations with retention of configuration within the migrating group. More generally, we can say that suprafacial [1, *j*] migrations of carbon in systems where $j = An - 1$ proceed with inversion thermally and retention photochemically, while systems where $j = An + 1$ show the opposite behavior. Where antarafacial migrations take place, all these predictions are of course reversed.



103 **104**

The first laboratory test of these predictions was the pyrolysis of deuterated *endo*-bicyclo[3.2.0]hept-2-en-6-yl acetate **(103),** which gave the *exo*-deuterio-*exo*-norbornyl acetate (104).[463] Thus, as predicted by the orbital-symmetry rules, this thermal suprafacial [1,3] sigmatropic reaction took place with complete inversion at C-7. Similar results have been obtained in a number of other cases.[464] However, similar studies of the pyrolysis of the parent hydrocarbon of **103,** labeled with D at C-6 and C-7, showed that while most of the product was formed with inversion at C-7, a significant fraction (11–29%) was formed with retention.[465] Other cases of lack of complete inversion are also known.[466] A diradical mechanism has been invoked to explain such cases.[467] There is strong evidence for a radical mechanism for some [1,3] sigmatropic rearrangements.[468] Photochemical suprafacial [1,3] migrations of carbon have been shown to proceed with retention, as predicted.[469]

Although allylic vinylic ethers generally undergo [3,3] sigmatropic rearrangements **(18-33),** they can be made to give the [1,3] kind, to give aldehydes, for



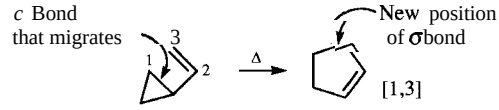
example, by treatment with $LiClO_4$ in diethyl ether.[470] In this case the C–O bond undergoes a 1,3 migration from the O to the end vinylic carbon. When the vinylic ether is of the type $ROCR'=CH_2$, ketones RCH_2COR' are formed. There is evidence

that this [1,3] sigmatropic rearrangement is not concerted, but involves dissociation of the substrate into ions.[470]

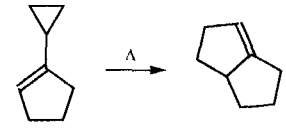
Thermal suprafacial [1,5] migrations of carbon have been found to take place with retention,[471] but also with inversion.[472,473] A diradical mechanism has been suggested for the latter case.[472]

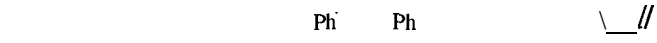
Simple nucleophilic, electrophilic, and free-radical 1,2 shifts can also be regarded as sigmatropic rearrangements (in this case, [1,2] rearrangements). We have already (p. 1377) applied similar principles to such rearrangements to show that nucleophilic 1,2 shifts are allowed, but the other two types are forbidden unless the migrating group has some means of delocalizing the extra electron or electron pair.

18-31 *Conversion of Vinylcyclopropanes to Cyclopentenes*

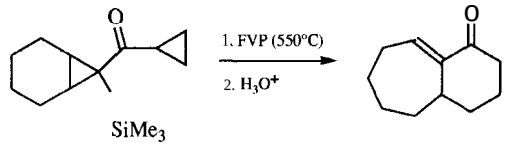


The thermal expansion of a vinylcyclopropane to a cyclopentene ring[474] is a special case of a [1,3] sigmatropic migration of carbon, though it can also be considered an internal [$_{\pi}2 + {}_{\sigma}2$] cycloaddition reaction (see 15-61). It is known as a *vinylcyclopropane rearrangement.* The reaction has been carried out on many vinylcyclopropanes bearing various substituents in the ring or on the vinyl group and has been extended to 1,1-dicyclopropylethene[475] and (both thermally[476] and photochemi-

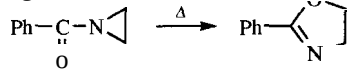




cally[477]) to vinylcyclopropenes. This rearrangement can be catalyzed by rhodium and silver compounds, and has been used to form rings.[478] Another variation converts α-trimethylsilylcyclopropyl ketones to ring-expanded conjugated ketones via flash vacuum pyrolysis at 550°C, for example.[479]

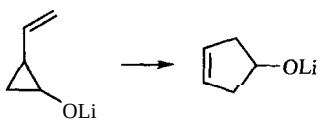


Various heterocyclic analogs[480] are also known, for example,[481]



Two competing reactions are the homodienyl [1,5] shift (if a suitable H is available, see **18-29),** and simple cleavage of the cyclopropane ring, leading in this case to a diene (see 18-3).

Vinylcyclobutanes can be similarly converted to cyclohexenes,[482] but larger ring compounds do not generally give the reaction.[483] Though high temperatures (as high as 500° C) are normally required for the thermal reaction, the lithium salts of *2*-vinylcyclopropanols rearrange at 25°C.[484]



Salts of 2-vinylcyclobutanols behave analogously.[485]

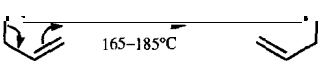
The reaction rate has also been greatly increased by the addition of a one-electron oxidant tris-(4-bromophenyl)aminium hexafluoroantimonate $Ar_3N^{\cdot+}$ SbF_6^- (Ar = *p*-bromophenyl).[486] This reagent converts the substrate to a cation radical, which undergoes ring expansion much faster.[487]

The mechanisms of these ring expansions are not certain. Both concerted[488] and diradical[489] pathways have been proposed,[490] and it is possible that both pathways operate, in different systems.

For the conversion of a vinylcyclopropane to a cyclopentene in a different way, see OS 68, 220.

18-32 *The Cope Rearrangement*

(3/4/) → (1/6/)-*SIGMA*-MIGRATION

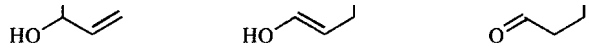


Z = Ph, RCO, etc.

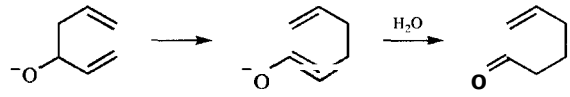
When 1,5-dienes are heated, they isomerize, in a [3,3] sigmatropic rearrangement known as the *Cope rearrangement* (not to be confused with the Cope elimination reaction, 17-8).[491] When the diene is symmetrical about the 3,4 bond, we have the unusual situation where a reaction gives a product identical with the starting material:[492]

Therefore, a Cope rearrangement can be detected only when the diene is not symmetrical about this bond. Any 1,5-diene gives the rearrangement; for example, 3-methyl-l,5-hexadiene heated to 300°C gives 1,5-heptadiene.[493] However, the reaction takes place more easily (lower temperature required) when there is a group

on the 3 or 4 carbon with which the new double bond can conjugate. The reaction is obviously reversible and produces an equilibrium mixture of the two 1,5-dienes, which is richer in the thermodynamically more stable isomer. However, the reaction is not generally reversible[494] for 3-hydroxy-1,5-dienes, because the product tautomerizes to the ketone or aldehyde:



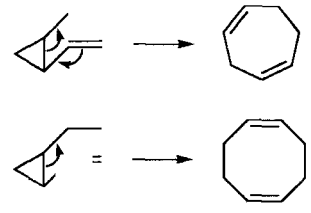
This reaction, called the *oxy-Cope rearrangement*,[495] has proved highly useful in synthesis.[496] The oxy-Cope rearrangement is greatly accelerated (by factors of 10^{10}–10^{17}) if the alkoxide is used rather than the alcohol.[497] In this case the direct product is the enolate ion, which is hydrolyzed to the ketone.



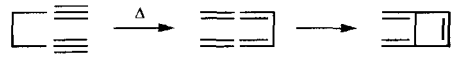
aza-Cope rearrangements are also known.[498]

The 1,5-diene system may be inside a ring or part of an allenic system (this example illustrates both of these situations):[499]

but the reaction does not take place when one of the double bonds is part of an aromatic system (e.g., 4-phenyl-1-butene).[500] When the two double bonds are in vinylic groups attached to adjacent ring positions, the product is a ring four carbons larger. This has been applied to divinylcyclopropanes and cyclobutanes:[501]



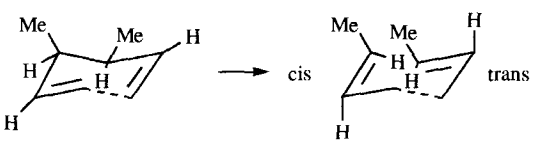
Indeed, *cis*-1,2-divinylcyclopropanes give this rearrangement so rapidly that they generally cannot be isolated at room temperature,[502] though exceptions are known.[503] When heated, 1,5-diynes are converted to 3,4-dimethylenecyclobutenes.[504] A rate-determining Cope rearrangement is followed by a very rapid electrocyclic (18-27) reaction. The interconversion of 1,3,5-trienes and cyclohexadienes



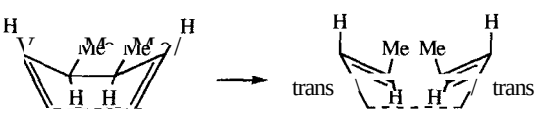
(in **18-27)** is very similar to the Cope rearrangement, though in **18-27,** the 3,4 bond goes from a double bond to a single bond rather than from a single bond to no bond.

Like [2 + 2] cycloadditions (p. 1082), Cope rearrangements of simple 1,5-dienes can be catalyzed by certain transition metal compounds. For example, the addition of $PdCl_2(PhCN)_2$ causes the reaction to take place at room temperature.[505] This can be quite useful synthetically, because of the high temperatures required in the uncatalyzed process.

As we have indicated with our arrows, the mechanism of the uncatalyzed Cope rearrangement is a simple six-centered pericyclic process.[506] Since the mechanism is so simple, it has been possible to study some rather subtle points, among them the question of whether the six-membered transition state is in the boat or the chair form.[507] For the case of 3,4-dimethyl-l,5-hexadiene it was demonstrated conclusively that the transition state is in the chair form. This was shown by the stereospecific nature of the reaction: The meso isomer gave the cis-trans product, while the (±) compound gave the trans-trans diene.[508] If the transition state is in the chair form (e.g., taking the meso isomer), one methyl must be "axial" and the other "equatorial" and the product must be the cis-trans alkene:



There are two possible boat forms for the transition state of the meso isomer. One leads to a trans-trans product;

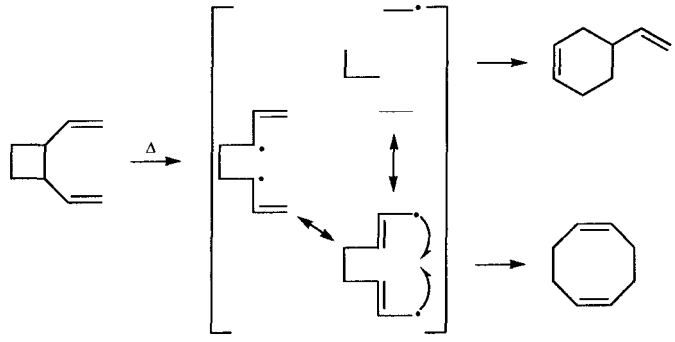


the other to a cis-cis alkene. For the (±) pair the predictions are just the opposite: There is just one boat form, and it leads to the cis-trans alkene, while one chair form ("diaxial" methyls) leads to the cis-cis product and the other ("diequatorial" methyls) predicts the trans-trans product. Thus the nature of the products obtained demonstrates that the transition state is a chair and not a boat.[509] However, 3,4-dimethyl-1,5-hexadiene is free to assume either the chair or boat (it prefers the chair), but other compounds are not so free. Thus 1,2-divinylcyclopropane (p. 1445) can react *only* in the boat form, demonstrating that such reactions are not impossible.[510]

Because of the nature of the transition state[511] in the pericyclic mechanism, optically active substrates with a chiral carbon at C-3 or C-4 transfer the chirality to the product, making this an enantioselective synthesis (see p. 1451 for an example in the mechanistically similar Claisen rearrangement).[512]

Not all Cope rearrangements proceed by the cyclic six-centered mechanism. Thus *cis*-1,2-divinylcyclobutane (p. 1445) rearranges smoothly to 1,5-cycloocta-

diene, since the geometry is favorable. The trans isomer also gives this product, but



the main product is 4-vinylcyclohexene (resulting from **18-31).** This reaction can be rationalized as proceeding by a diradical mechanism,[513] though it is possible that at least part of the cyclooctadiene produced comes from a prior epimerization of the *trans*- to the *cis*-divinylcyclobutane followed by Cope rearrangement of the latter.[514]

It has been suggested that another type of diradical two-step mechanism may be preferred by some substrates.[515] Indeed, a nonconcerted Cope rearrangement has been reported.[516] In this pathway,[517] the 1,6 bond is formed before the 3,4 bond breaks:

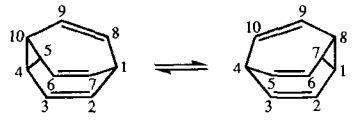
This is related to the *Bergman cyclization* that was introduced in **18-27.**

It was pointed out earlier that a Cope rearrangement of 1,5-hexadiene gives 1,5-hexadiene. This is a *degenerate Cope rearrangement* (p. 1380). Another molecule that undergoes it is bicyclo[5.1.0]octadiene (105).[518] At room temperature the NMR

105 **105**

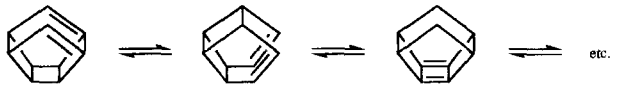
spectrum of this compound is in accord with the structure shown on the left. At 180°C it is converted by a Cope reaction to a compound equivalent to itself. The interesting thing is that at 180°C the NMR spectrum shows that what exists is an equilibrium mixture of the two structures. That is, at this temperature the molecule rapidly (faster than 10^3 times per second) changes back and forth between the two structures. This is called *valence tautomerism* and is quite distinct from resonance, even though only electrons shift.[519] The positions of the nuclei are not the same in the two structures. Molecules like **105** that exhibit valence tautomerism (in this case, at 180°C) are said to have *fluxional* structures. It may be recalled that *cis*-1,2-divinylcyclopropane does not exist at room temperature because it rapidly rearranges to 1,4-cycloheptadiene (p. 1445), but in **105** the *cis*-divinylcyclopropane structure is frozen into the molecule in both structures. Several other compounds

with this structural feature are also known. Of these, *bullvalene* **(106)** is especially interesting.



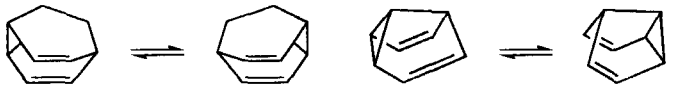
106

The Cope rearrangement shown changes the position of the cyclopropane ring from 4,5,10 to 1,7,8. But the molecule could also have undergone rearrangements to put this ring at 1,2,8 or 1,2,7. Any of these could then undergo several Cope rearrangements. In all, there are 10!/3, or > 1.2 million tautomeric forms, and the cyclopropane ring can be at any three carbons that are adjacent. Since each of these tautomers is equivalent to all the others, this has been called an infinitely degenerate Cope rearrangement. Bullvalene has been synthesized and its 'H NMR spectrum determined.[520] At -25°C there are two peaks with an area ratio of 6:4. This is in accord with a single non-tautomeric structure. The six are the vinylic protons and the four are the allylic ones. But at 100°C the compound shows only one NMR peak, indicating that we have here a truly unusual situation where the compound rapidly interchanges its structure among 1.2 million equivalent forms.[521] The ^{13}C NMR spectrum of bullvalene also shows only one peak at 100°C.[522]



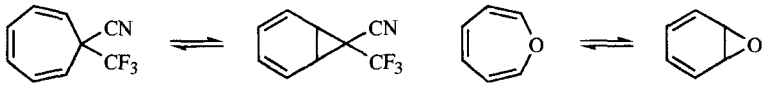
107

Another compound for which degenerate Cope rearrangements result in equivalence for all the carbons is *hypostrophene* (107).[523] In the case of the compound *barbaralane* (108) (bullvalene in which one CH=CH has been replaced by a CH_2):



108 **109**

there are only two equivalent tautomers.[524] However, NMR spectra indicate that even at room temperature a rapid interchange of both tautomers is present, though by about — 100°C this has slowed to the point where the spectrum is in accord with a single structure. In the case of *semibullvalene* (109) (barbaralane in which the CH_2 has been removed), not only is there a rapid interchange at room temperature, but even at — 110°C.[525] **109** has the lowest energy barrier of any known compound capable of undergoing the Cope rearrangement.[526]

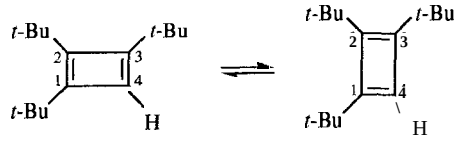


110 **111** **Oxepin** **Benzene oxide**

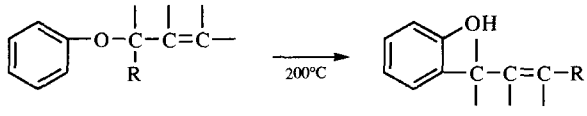
The molecules taking part in a valence tautomerization need not be equivalent. Thus, NMR spectra indicate that a true valence tautomerization exists at room temperature between the cycloheptatriene 110 and the norcaradiene (111).[527] In this case one isomer (111) has the *cis*-1,2-divinylcyclopropane structure, while the other does not. In an analogous interconversion, benzene oxide[528] and oxepin exist in a tautomeric equilibrium at room temperature.[529]

Bullvalene and hypostrophene are members of a group of compounds all of whose formulas can be expressed by the symbol $(CH)_{10}$.[530] Many other members of this group are known. Similar groups of $(CH)_n$ compounds exist for other even-numbered values of 'V.[530] For example, there are 20 possible $(CH)_8$[531] compounds,[532] and five possible $(CH)_6$ compounds,[533] all of which are known: benzene, prismane (p. 182), Dewar benzene (p. 1433), bicyclopropenyl,[534] and benzvalene.[535]

An interesting example of a valence tautomerism is the case of 1,2,3-tri-*tert*-butylcyclobutadiene (p. 59). There are two isomers, both rectangular, and ^{13}C NMR spectra show that they exist in a dynamic equilibrium, even at - 185°C.[536]

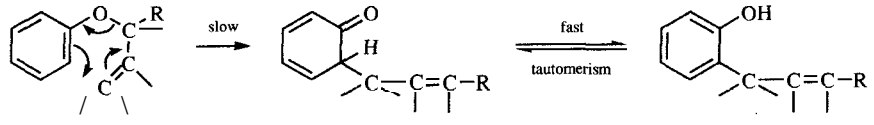


18-33 *The Claisen Rearrangement*

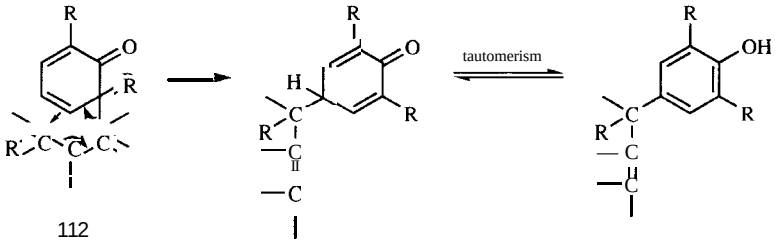


Allylic aryl ethers, when heated, rearrange to *o*-allylphenols in a reaction called the *Claisen rearrangement*.[537] If both ortho positions are filled, the allylic group migrates to the para position (this is often called the *para-Claisen rearrangement*). There is no reaction when the para and both ortho positions are filled. Migration to the meta position has not been observed. In the ortho migration the allylic group always undergoes an allylic shift. That is, as shown above, a substituent a to the oxygen is now γ to the ring (and vice versa). On the other hand, in the para migration there is never an allylic shift: the allylic group is found exactly as it was in the original ether. Compounds with propargylic groups (i.e., groups with a triple bond in the appropriate position) do not generally give the corresponding products.

The mechanism is a concerted pericyclic [3,3] sigmatropic rearrangement[538] and accounts for all these facts. For the ortho rearrangement:



Evidence is the lack of a catalyst, the fact that the reaction is first order in the ether, the absence of crossover products when mixtures are heated, and the presence of the allylic shift, which is required by this mechanism. A retro-Claisen rearrangement is known and its mechanism has been examined.[539] The allylic shift for the ortho rearrangement (and the absence of one for the para) has been demonstrated by ^{14}C labeling, even when no substituents are present. Studies of the transition state geometry have shown that, like the Cope rearrangement, the Claisen rearrangement usually prefers a chair-like transition state.[540] When the ortho positions have no hydrogen, a second [3,3] sigmatropic migration (a Cope reaction) follows:

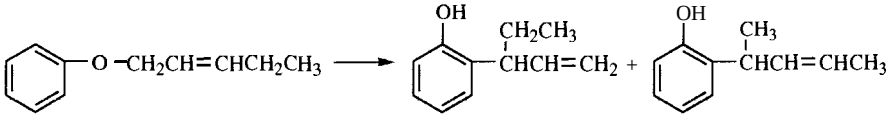


112

and the migrating group is restored to its original structure. Intermediates of structure 112 have been trapped by means of a Diels–Alder reaction.[541]

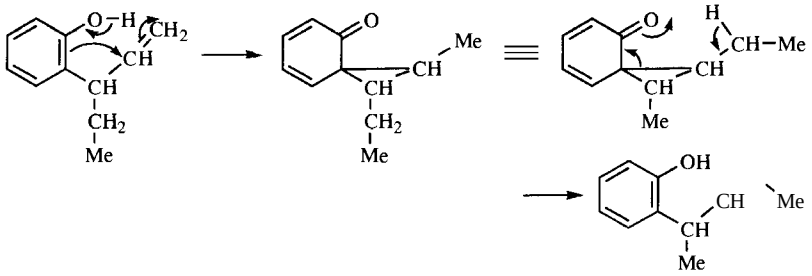
Asymmetric Claisen rearrangement reactions are well known.[542] Chiral Lewis acids have been designed for this purpose.[543] In general, asymmetric [3,3] sigmatropic rearrangements are well known.[544]

Ethers with an alkyl group in the *y* position (ArO—C—C=C—R systems) sometimes give abnormal products, with the (3 carbon becoming attached to the ring:[545]



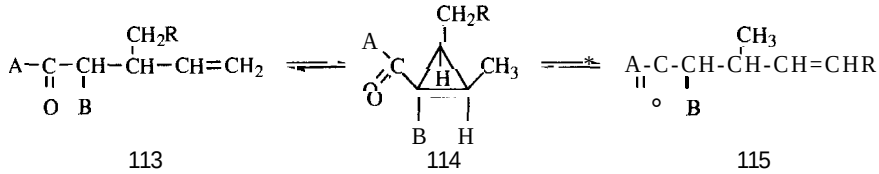
Normal product Abnormal product

It has been established that these abnormal products do not arise directly from the starting ether but are formed by a further rearrangement of the normal product:[546]



This rearrangement, which has been called an *enolene rearrangement,* a *homodienyl* [1,5] *sigmatropic hydrogen shift* (see 18-29), and a [1,5] *homo sigmatropic*

rearrangement, involves a shift of three electron pairs over *seven* atoms. It has been found that this "abnormal" Claisen rearrangement is general and can interconvert the enol forms of systems of the types **113** and **115** through the cyclopropane intermediate **114**.[547]



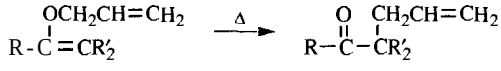
113 114 115

A = H, R, Ar, OR, etc.

B = H, R, Ar, COR, COAr, COOR, etc.

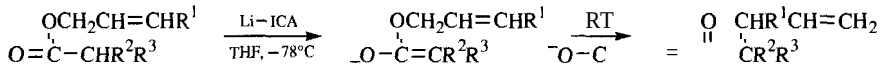
Since the Claisen rearrangement mechanism does not involve ions, it should not be greatly dependent on the presence or absence of substituent groups on the ring.[548] This is the case. Electron-donating groups increase the rate and electron-withdrawing groups decrease it, but the effect is small, with the *p*-amino compound reacting only ~ 10-20 times faster than the *p*-nitro compound.[549] However, solvent effects[550] are greater: rates varied over a 300-fold range when the reaction was run in 17 different solvents.[551] An especially good solvent is trifluoroacetic acid, in which the reaction can be carried out at room temperature.[552] Most Claisen rearrangements are performed without a catalyst, but $AlCl_3$ or BF3 are sometimes used.[553] In this case it may become a Friedel-Crafts reaction, with the mechanism no longer cyclic,[554] and ortho, meta, and para products may be obtained.

Allylic ethers of enols (allylic vinylic ethers) also undergo the Claisen rearrangement;[555] in fact, it was discovered with these compounds first:[556]



In these cases, of course, the final tautomerization does not take place even when R' = H, since there is no aromaticity to restore, and ketones are more stable than enols.[557] The use of water as solvent accelerates the reaction.[558] The mechanism is similar to that with allylic aryl ethers.[559]

It is possible to treat ketones with allyl alcohol and an acid catalyst to give γ,δ-unsaturated ketones directly, presumably by initial formation of the vinylic ethers, and then Claisen rearrangement.[560] In an analogous procedure, the enolates (126) of allylic esters [formed by treatment of the esters with lithium isopropylcyclohexylamide (ICA)] rearrange to γ,δ-unsaturated acids.[561]

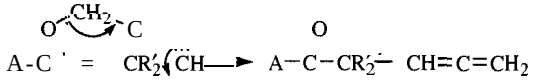


116

Alternatively, the silylketene acetal $R^3R^2C{=}C(OSiR_3)OCH_2CH{=}CHR^1$ is often used instead of 116.[562] This rearrangement also proceeds at room temperature. By

either procedure, the reaction is called the *Ireland–Claisenrearrangement*.[563] Note the presence of the negative charge in **116.** As with the oxy-Cope rearrangement (in **18-34),** negative charges generally accelerate the Claisen reaction,[564] though the extent of the acceleration can depend on the identity of the positive counterion.[565] The Ireland-Claisen rearrangement has been made enantioselective by converting **116** to an enol borinate in which the boron is attached to a chiral group.[566] The Ireland-Claisen rearrangement can be done with amide derivatives also.[567]

A number of expected analogs of the Claisen rearrangement are known, for example, rearrangement of $ArNHCH_2CH{=}CH_2$,[568] of N-allylic enamines, $R_2C{=}CRNRCR_2CR{=}CR_2$,[569] of allylic imino esters, $RC(OCH_2CH{=}CH_2){=}NR$[570] (these have often been rearranged with transition metal catalysts[571]), and of $RCH{=}NRCHRCH_2CH{=}CH_2$. These rearrangements of nitrogen-containing compounds are often called *aza-Cope rearrangements*[572] as described in **18-34.** However, a palladium catalyzed aza-Claisen has been reported.[573] A so-called amine-Claisen rearrangement was reported for N-allyl indoles, when heated in the presence of $BF_3{\cdot}OEt_2$.[574] An *azo-Cope* rearrangement: $CH_2{=}CHCR^1_2CR^2_2N{=}NAr \rightarrow R^1_2C{=}CHCH_2NArN{=}CR^2_2$ has been reported.[575] Propargylic vinylic compounds give allenic aldehydes, ketones, esters, or amides:[576]

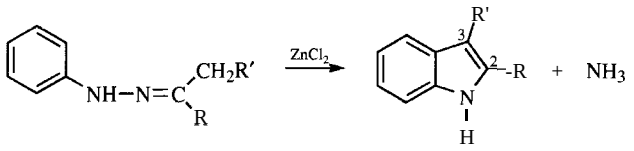


A = H, R, OR, NR_2

The conversion of allylic aryl thioethers $ArSCH_2CH{=}CH_2$ to *o*-allylic thiophenols (the *thio-Claisen rearrangement)* is not feasible, because the latter are not stable[577] but react to give bicyclic compounds.[578] However, many allylic vinylic sulfides do give the rearrangement.[579] Allylic vinylic sulfones (e.g., $H_2C{=}CRCH_2{-}SO_2{-}CH{=}CH_2$), rearrange, when heated in the presence of ethanol and pyridine, to unsaturated sulfonate salts ($CH_2{=}CRCH_2CH_2CH_2SO_3^-$), produced by reaction of the reagents with the unstable sulfene intermediates $CH_2{=}CRCH_2CH_2CH{=}SO_2$.[580] Allylic vinylic sulfoxides rapidly rearrange at room temperature or below.[581]

OS **III,** 418; V, 25; **VI,** 298, 491, 507, 584, 606; **VII,** 177; **VIII,** 251, 536.

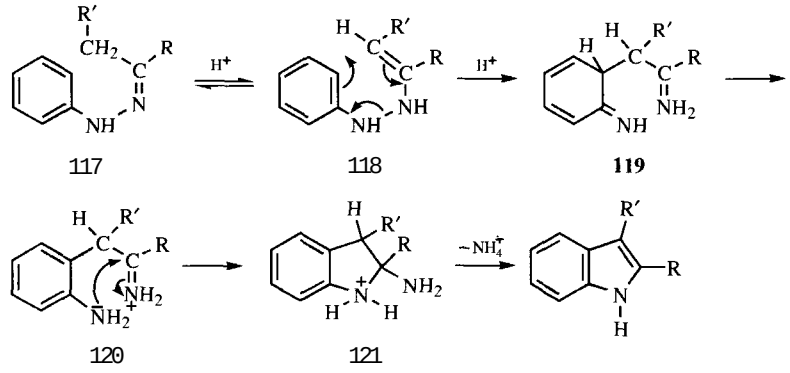
18-34 *The Fischer Indole Synthesis*



When arylhydrazones of aldehydes or ketones are treated with a catalyst, elimination of ammonia takes place and an indole is formed, in the *Fischer indole synthesis.*[582] Zinc chloride is the catalyst most frequently employed, but dozens of others, including other metal halides, proton and Lewis acids, and certain transition metals have also been used. Microwave irradiation has been used to facilitate this reaction.[583] Aniline derivatives react with α-diazoketones, in the presence of a

rhodium catalyst, to give indoles as well.[584] Arylhydrazones are easily prepared by the treatment of aldehydes or ketones with phenylhydrazine **(16-2)** or by aliphatic diazonium coupling (12-7). However, it is not necessary to isolate the arylhydrazone. The aldehyde or ketone can be treated with a mixture of phenylhydrazine and the catalyst; this is now common practice. In order to obtain an indole, the aldehyde or ketone must be of the form $RCOCH_2R'$ (R = alkyl, aryl, or hydrogen).

At first glance the reaction does not seem to be a rearrangement. However, the key step of the mechanism[585] is a [3,3] sigmatropic rearrangement:[586]



117 **118** **119**

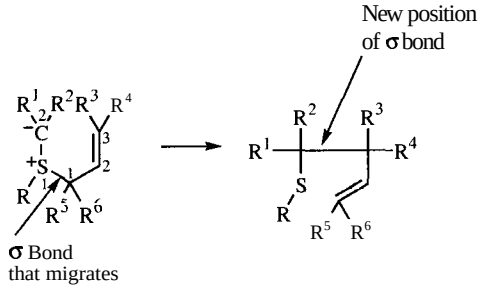
120 **121**

There is much evidence for this mechanism, for example, (1) the isolation of **121**,[587] (2) the detection of **120** by ^{13}C and ^{15}NNMR,[588] (3) the isolation of side products that could only have come from 119,[589] and (4) ^{15}N labeling experiments that showed that it was the nitrogen farther from the ring that is eliminated as ammonia.[590] The main function of the catalyst seems to be to speed the conversion of **117-118.** The reaction can be performed without a catalyst.

OS **III,** 725; IV, 884. Also see OS IV, 657.

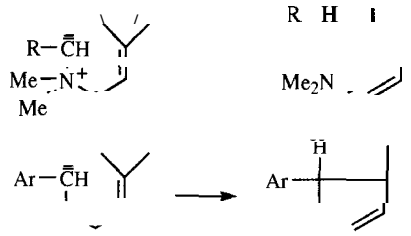
18-35 *[2,3] Sigmatropic Rearrangements*

(2/S-3/) -v (1/5/)-*SIGMA*-MIGRATION



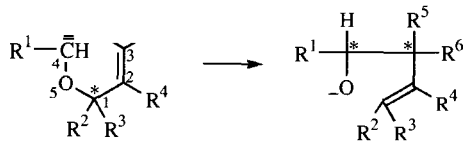
Sulfur ylids bearing an allylic group are converted on heating to unsaturated sulfides.[591] This is a concerted [2,3] sigmatropic rearrangement[592] and has also been demonstrated for the analogous cases of nitrogen ylids[593] and the conjugate bases of

allylic ethers (in the last case it is called the *[2,3] Wittig rearrangement).*[594] It has been argued that the [2,3] Wittig rearrangement demands severe deformation of the molecule in order to proceed.[595] The SmI_2 compound has been shown to induce a [2,3] Wittig rearrangement.[596] The reaction has been extended to certain other systems,[597] even to an all-carbon system.[598]



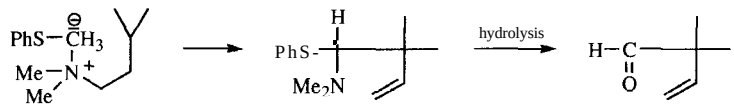
Since the reactions involve migration of an allylic group from a sulfur, nitrogen, or oxygen atom to an adjacent negatively charged carbon atom, they are special cases of the Stevens or Wittig rearrangements (**18-21**, **18-22**). However, in this case the migrating group *must* be allylic (in 18-21 and 18-22 other groups can also migrate). Thus, when the migrating group is allylic, there are two possible pathways: (1) the radical-ion or ion-pair mechanisms (18-21, 18-22) and (2) the concerted pericyclic [2,3] sigmatropic rearrangement. These can easily be told apart, since the latter always involves an allylic shift (as in the Claisen rearrangement), while the former pathway does not.

Of these reactions, the [2,3] Wittig rearrangement in particular has often been used as a means of transferring chirality. The product of this reaction has potential chiral centers at C-3 and C-4 (if $R^5 \neq R^6$), and if the starting

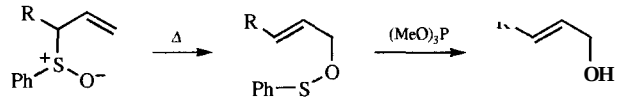


ether is optically active because of a chiral center at C-1, the product may be optically active as well. Many examples are known in which an optically active ether was converted to a product that was optically active because of chirality at C-3, C-4, or both.[599] If a suitable chiral center is present in R^1 (or if a functional group in R^1 can be so converted), then stereocontrol over three contiguous chiral centers can be achieved. Stereocontrol of the new double bond *(E* or *Z)* has also been accomplished.

If an OR or SR group is attached to the negative carbon, the reaction becomes a method for the preparation of β,γ-unsaturated aldehydes, because the product is easily hydrolyzed.[600]

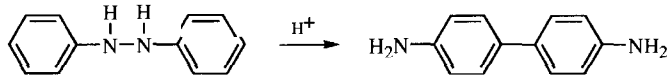


Another [2,3] sigmatropic rearrangement converts allylic sulfoxides to allylically rearranged alcohols by treatment with a thiophilic reagent such as trimethyl phosphite.[601,602] This is often called the *Mislow–Evans rearrangement.* In this case, the migration is from sulfur to oxygen. [2,3] Oxygen-to-sulfur migrations are also known.[603] The Sommelet–Hauser rearrangement **(13-22)** is also a [2,3] sigmatropic arrangement.



OS **VIII,** 427.

18-36 *The Benzidine Rearrangement*



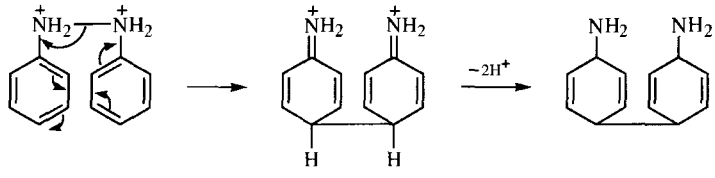
Hydrazobenzene **122**

When hydrazobenzene is treated with acids, it rearranges to give about 70% 4,4'-diaminobiphenyl **(122,** benzidine) and about 30% 2,4'-diaminobiphenyl. This reaction is called the *benzidine rearrangement* and is general for *N,N'*-diarylhydrazines.[604] Usually, the major product is the 4,4'-diaminobiaryl, but four other products may also be produced. These are the 2,4'-diaminobiaryl, already referred to, the 2,2'-diaminobiaryl, and the *o*- and *p*-arylaminoanilines (called *semidines).* The 2,2'- and *p*-arylaminoaniline compounds are formed less often and in smaller amounts than the other two side products. Usually, the 4,4'-diaminobiaryl predominates, except when one or both para positions of the diarylhydrazine are occupied. However, the 4,4'-diamine may still be produced even if the para positions are occupied. If SO_3H, COOH, or Cl (but not R, Ar, or NR_2) is present in the para position, it may be ejected. With dinaphthylhydrazines, the major products are not the 4,4'-diaminobinaphthyls, but the 2,2' isomers. Another side reaction is disproportionation to $ArNH_2$ and ArN=NAr. For example, *p,p'*-$PhC_6H_4NHNHC_6H_4Ph$ gives 88% disproportionation products at 25°C.[605]

The mechanism has been exhaustively studied and several mechanisms have been proposed.[606] At one time it was believed that NHAr broke away from ArNHNHAr and became attached to the para position to give the semidine, which then went on to product. The fact that semidines could be isolated lent this argument support, as did the fact that this would be analogous to the rearrangements considered in Chapter 11 **(11-31-11-35).** However, this theory was killed when it was discovered that semidines could not be converted to benzidines under the reaction conditions. Cleavage into two independent pieces (either ions or radicals) has been ruled out by many types of crossover experiments, which always showed that the two rings of the starting material are in the product; that is, ArNHNHAr' gives no molecules (of any of the five products) containing two Ar groups or two Ar' groups, and mixtures of

ArNHNHAr and Ar'NHNHAr' give no molecules containing both Ar and Ar'. An important discovery was the fact that, although the reaction is always first order in substrate, it can be either first[607] or second[608] order in $[H^+]$. With some substrates the reaction is entirely first order in $[H^+]$, while with others it is entirely second order in $[H^+]$, regardless of the acidity. With still other substrates, the reaction is first order in $[H^+]$ at low acidities and second order at higher acidities. With the latter substrates fractional orders can often be observed,[609] because at intermediate acidities, both processes take place simultaneously. These kinetic results seem to indicate that the actual reacting species can be either the monoprotonated substrate $ArNHNH_2Ar$ or the diprotonated $ArNH_2NH_2Ar$.

Most of the proposed mechanisms[610] attempted to show how all five products could be produced by variations of a single process. An important breakthrough was the discovery that the two main products are formed in entirely different ways, as shown by isotope-effect studies.[611] When the reaction was run with hydrazobenzene labeled with ^{15}N at both nitrogen atoms, the isotope effect was 1.022 for formation of **122,** but 1.063 for formation of 2,4'-diaminobiphenyl. This showed that the N—N bond is broken in the rate-determining step in both cases, but the steps themselves are obviously different. When the reaction was run with hydrazobenzene labeled with ^{14}C at a para position, there was an isotope effect of 1.028 for formation of **122,** but essentially no isotope effect (1.001) for formation of 2,4'-diaminobiphenyl. This can only mean that for **122** formation of the new C—C bond *and* breaking of the N—N bond both take place in the rate-determining step; in other words, the mechanism is concerted. The following [5.5] sigmatropic rearrangement accounts for this:[612]



123

The di-ion (123) was obtained as a stable species in superacid solution at −78°C by treatment of hydrazobenzene with FSO_3H—SO_2 (SO_2ClF).[613] Though the results just given were obtained with hydrazobenzene, which reacts by the diprotonated pathway, monoprotonated substrates have been found to react by the same [5,5] sigmatropic mechanism.[614] Some of the other rearrangements in this section are also sigmatropic. Thus, formation of the *p*-semidine takes place by a [1,5] sigmatropic rearrangement,[615] and the conversion of 2,2'-hydrazonaphthalene to 2,2'-diamino-1,1'-binaphthyl by a [3,3] sigmatropic rearrangement.[616]

2,4'-Diaminobiphenyl is formed by a completely different mechanism, though the details are not known. There is rate-determining breaking of the N—N bond, but the C—C bond is not formed during this step.[617] The formation of the *o*-semidine also takes place by a nonconcerted pathway.[618] Under certain conditions, benzidine rearrangements have been found to go through radical cations.[619]

C. *Other Cyclic Rearrangements*

18-37 *Metathesis of Alkenes*

ALKENE METATHESIS

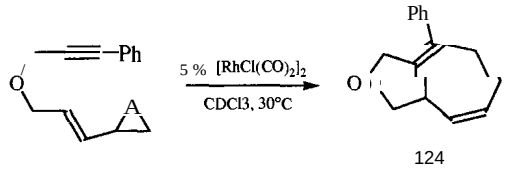
$$CH_3CH{=}CHCH_2CH_3 \xrightarrow[WCl_6-EtOH]{EtAlCl_2} CH_3CH{=}CHCH_3 + CH_3CH_2CH{=}CHCH_2CH_3$$

When alkenes are treated with certain catalysts (most often tungsten, molybdenum,[620] or rhenium complexes), they are converted to other alkenes in a reaction in which the alkylidene groups ($R^1R^2C{=}$) have become interchanged by a process schematically illustrated by the equation:

The reaction is called *metathesis* of alkenes.[621] In the example shown above, 2-pentene (either cis, trans, or a cis-trans mixture) is converted to a mixture of ~ 50% 2-pentene, 25% 2-butene, and 25% 3-hexene. The reaction is an equilibrium and the same mixture can be obtained by starting with equimolar quantities of 2-butene and 3-hexene.[622] In general, the reaction can be applied to a single unsymmetrical alkene, giving a mixture of itself and two other alkenes, or to a mixture of two alkenes, in which case the number of different molecules in the product depends on the symmetry of the reactants. As in the case above, a mixture of $R^1R^2C{=}CR^1R^2$ and $R^3R^4C{=}CR^3R^4$ gives rise to only one new alkene ($R^1R^2C{=}CR^3R^4$), while in the most general case, a mixture of $R^1R^2C{=}CR^3R^4$ and $R^5R^6C{=}CR^7R^8$ gives a mixture of ten alkenes: the original two plus eight new ones. With simple alkenes the proportions of products are generally statistical,[623] which limits the synthetic utility of the reaction since the yield of any one product is low. However, in some cases one alkene may be more or less thermodynamically stable than the rest, so that the proportions are not statistical. Furthermore, it may be possible to shift the equilibrium. For example, 2-methyl-1-butene gives rise to ethylene and 3,4-dimethyl-3-hexene. By allowing the gaseous ethylene to escape, the yield of 3,4-dimethyl-3-hexene can be raised to 95%.[624]

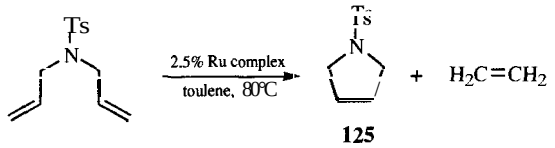
Many catalysts, both homogeneous[625] and heterogeneous,[626] have been used for this reaction. Although there are several examples of the former, the most common today are ruthenium complexes,[627] while among the latter are oxides of Mo, W, and Re deposited on alumina or silica gel.[628] In general, the former group are more useful for synthetic purposes. By choice of the proper catalyst, the reaction has been applied to terminal and internal alkenes, straight chain or branched. The effect of substitution on the ease of reaction is $CH_2{=}{>}RCH_2CH{=}{>}R_2CHCH{=}{>}R_2C{=}$.[629] Dienes can react intermolecularly or intramolecularly.[630] Intermolecular reactions generate rings, usually alkenes or dienes. Alkenes metathesis can be used to form very large rings, including 21-membered lactone rings.[631] Metathesis with vinyl-cyclo-

propyl-alkynes is also known, producing a ring expanded product (see **124**).[632]



124

Catalysts have been developed that are compatible with both water and methanol.[633] The reaction is compatible with the presence of other functional groups such as other alkene units,[634] carbonyl units,[635] and amides (see 125).[636]

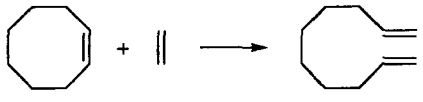


125

Ether groups, including vinyl ethers,[637] allylic ethers,[638] and thioethers[639] are also compatible.

Two cyclic alkenes react to give dimeric dienes,[640] for example,

However, the products can then react with additional monomers and with each other, so that polymers are generally produced, and the cyclic dienes are obtained only in low yield. The reaction between a cyclic and a linear alkene can give an ring-opened diene:[641]



Alkenes containing functional groups[642] do not give the reaction with most of the common catalysts, but some success has been reported with WCl_6– $SnMe_4$[643] and with certain other catalysts.

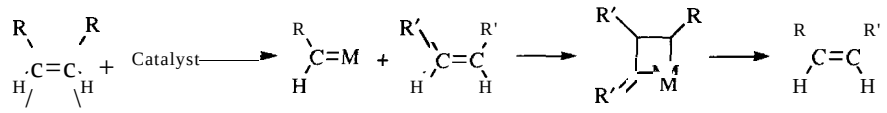
The reaction has also been applied to internal triple bonds:[644]

$$2\,RC{\equiv}CR' \rightleftharpoons RC{\equiv}CR + R'C{\equiv}CR'$$

but it has not been successful for terminal triple bonds.[645] Intramolecular reactions of a double bond with a triple bond are known[646] and a tetracyclic tetraene has been prepared from a poly-yne-diene.[647]

The generally accepted mechanism is a chain mechanism, involving the intervention of a metal–carbene complex (126)[648] and a four-membered ring containing

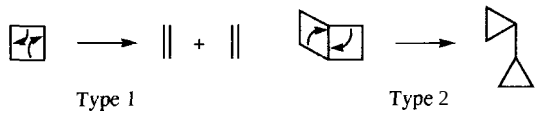
a metal[649] (127).[650]



18-38 *Metal–Ion-Catalyzed σ-Bond Rearrangements*

128 Cubane Cuneane

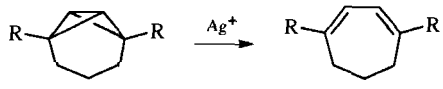
Many highly strained cage molecules undergo rearrangement when treated with metallic ions such as Ag^+, Rh(I), or Pd(II).[651] The bond rearrangements observed can be formally classified into two main types: (1) [2 + 2] ring



Type 1 Type 2

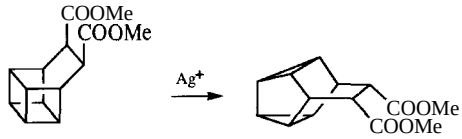
openings of cyclobutanes and (2) conversion of a bicyclo [2.2.0] system to a bicyclopropyl system. The molecule cubane supplies an example of each type (see above). Treatment with Rh(I) complexes converts cubane to tricyclo[4.2.0.$0^{2,5}$]octa-3,7-diene **(128),**[652] an example of type 1, while Ag^+ or Pd(II) causes the second type of reaction, producing cuneane.[653] Other examples

Type 1



129 **130** Ref. 654

Type 2[655]

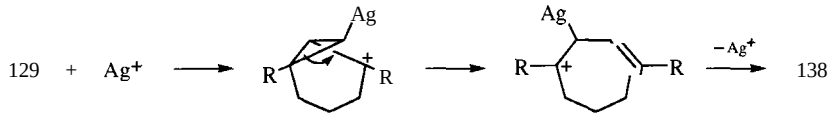


131 Ref. 656

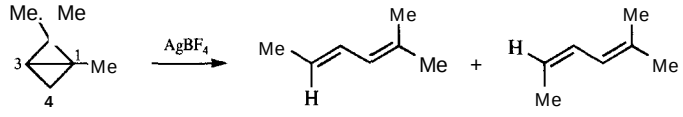
are Compound **131** is the 9,10-dicarbomethyoxy derivative of *snoutane*, pentacyclo[3.3.2.$0^{2,4}$.$0^{3,7}$.$0^{6,8}$]decane.

The mechanisms of these reactions are not completely understood, although relief of strain undoubtedly supplies the driving force. The reactions are thermally forbidden by the orbital-symmetry rules, and the role of the catalyst is to provide low-energy pathways so that the reactions can take place. The type 1 reactions are the reverse of the catalyzed [2 + 2] ring closures discussed at **15-61.** The following

mechanism, in which Ag^+ attacks one of the edge bonds, has been suggested for the conversion of 129 to 130.[657]



Simpler bicyclobutanes can also be converted to dienes, but in this case the products usually result from cleavage of the central bond and one of the edge bonds.[658] For example, treatment of 132 with $AgBF_4$,[659]

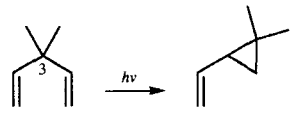


132

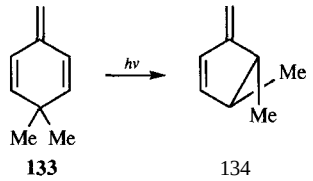
or $[(\pi\text{-allyl})PdCl]_2$[660] gives a mixture of the two dienes shown, resulting from a formal cleavage of the C_1-C_3 and C_1-C_2 bonds (note that a hydride shift has taken place).

18-39 *The Di-π-methane and Related Rearrangements*

DI-π-METHANE REARRANGEMENT

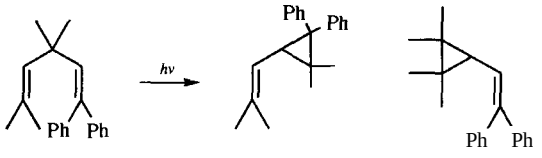


1,4-Dienes carrying alkyl or aryl substituents on C-3[661] can be photochemically rearranged to vinylcyclopropanes in a reaction called the *di-π-methane rearrangement*.[662] An example is conversion of 133 to 134.[663] For most 1,4-dienes, it is only



133 134

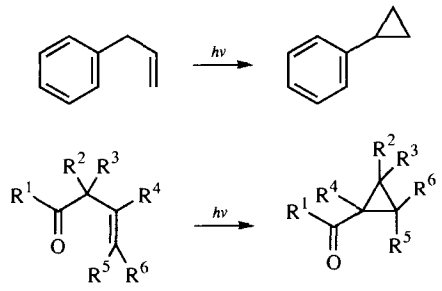
the singlet excited states that give the reaction; triplet states generally take other pathways.[664] For unsymmetrical dienes, the reaction is regioselective. For example, 135 gave 136, not **137**:[665]



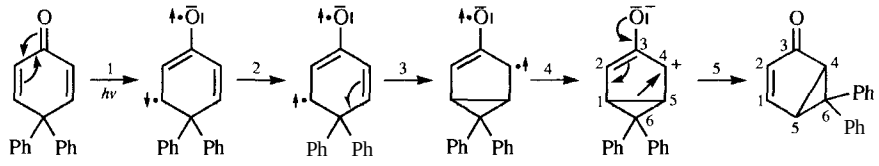
135 136 137
Not formed

The mechanism can be described by the diradical pathway given[666] (the C-3 substituents act to stabilize the radical), though the species shown are not necessarily intermediates, but may be transition states. It has been shown, for the case of certain substituted substrates, that configuration is retained at C-1 and C-5 and inverted at C-3.[667]

The reaction has been extended to allylic benzenes (in this case C-3 substituents are not required),[668] to β,γ-unsaturated ketones[669] (the latter reaction, which is called the *oxa-di-n-methane rearrangement,*[670] generally occurs only from the triplet state), to β,γ-unsaturated imines,[671] and to triple-bond systems.[672]



When photolyzed, 2,5-cyclohexadienones can undergo a number of different reactions, one of which is formally the same as the di-π-methane rearrangement.[673] In this reaction, photolysis of the substrate **138** gives the bicyclo[3.1.0]hexenone **(143).** Though the reaction is formally the same (note the conversion of **133** to **134**



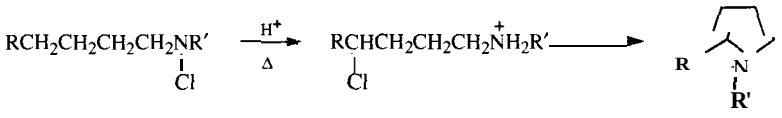
138 **139** Singlet 140 Triplet **141** Triplet 142 143

above), the mechanism is different from that of the di-n-methane rearrangement, because irradiation of a ketone can cause an $n \rightarrow n^*$ transition, which is of course not possible for a diene lacking a carbonyl group. The mechanism[674] in this case has been formulated as proceeding through the excited triplet states **140** and **141.** In step 1, the molecule undergoes an $n \rightarrow \pi^*$ excitation to the singlet species **139,** which cross to the triplet **140.** Step 3 is a rearrangement from one excited state to another. Step 4 is a $n^* \rightarrow n$ electron demotion (an intersystem crossing from $T_1 \rightarrow S_0$, see p. 315). The conversion of **142** to **143** consists of two 1,2 alkyl migrations (a one-

step process would be a 1,3 migration of alkyl to a carbocation center, see p. XXX): The old C_6–C_5 bond becomes the new C_6–C_4 bond and the old C_6–C_1 bond becomes the new C_6–C_5 bond.[675]

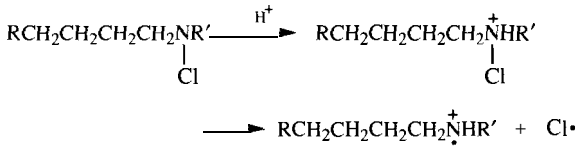
2,4-Cyclohexadienones also undergo photochemical rearrangements, but the products are different, generally involving ring opening.[676]

18-40 *The Hofmann–Löffler and Related Reactions*

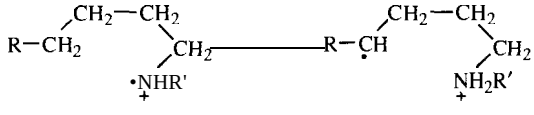


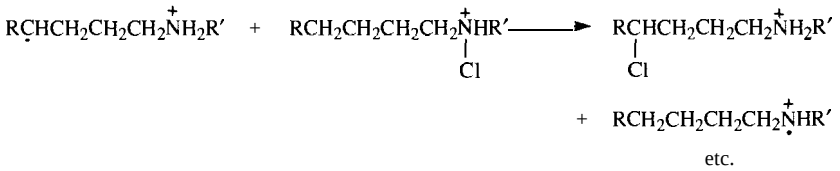
A common feature of the reactions in this section[677] is that they serve to introduce functionality at a position remote from functional groups already present. As such, they have proved very useful in synthesizing many compounds, especially in the steroid field (see also 19-2 and 19-14). When N-haloamines in which one alkyl group has a hydrogen in the 4 or 5 position are heated with sulfuric acid, pyrrolidines or piperidines are formed, in a reaction known as the *Hofmann-Loffler reaction* (also called the *Hofmann–Löffler–Freytag reaction*).[678] R' is normally alkyl, but the reaction has been extended to R' = H by the use of concentrated sulfuric acid solution and ferrous salts.[679] The first step of the reaction is a rearrangement, with the halogen migrating from the nitrogen to the 4 or 5 position of the alkyl group. It is possible to isolate the resulting haloamine salt, but usually this is not done, and the second step, the ring closure (10-44), takes place. Though the reaction is most often induced by heat, this is not necessary, and irradiation and chemical initiators (e.g., peroxides) have been used instead. The mechanism is of a free-radical type, with the main step involving an internal hydrogen abstraction.[680]

Initiation



Propagation



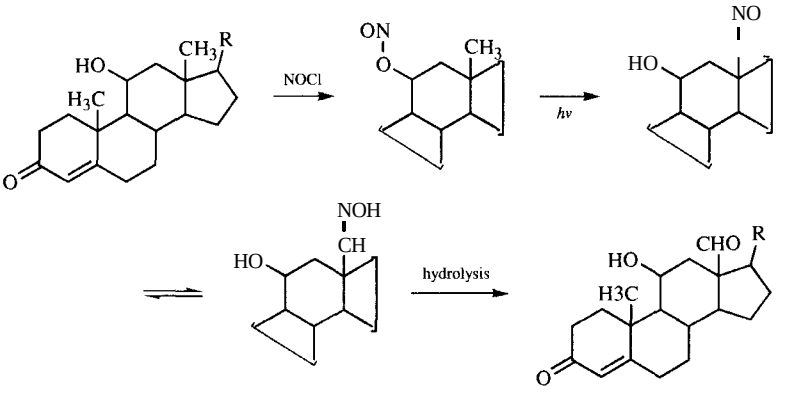


etc.

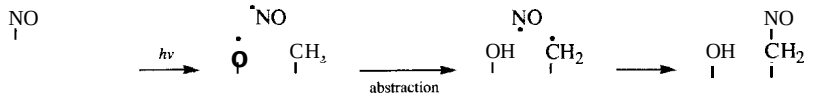
A similar reaction has been carried out on N-halo amides, which give γ-lactones:[681]

$$RCH_2CH_2CH_2CONHI \xrightarrow{h\nu} \underset{\underset{O-C=O}{|}}{RCHCH_2CH_2}$$

Another related reaction is the *Barton reaction*,[682] by which a methyl group in the 9 position to an OH group can be oxidized to a CHO group. The alcohol is first converted to the nitrite ester. Photolysis of the nitrite results in conversion of the nitrite group to the OH group and nitrosation of the methyl group. Hydrolysis of the oxime tautomer gives the aldehyde, for example,[683]



This reaction takes place only when the methyl group is in a favorable steric position.[684] The mechanism is similar to that of the Hofmann-Löffler reaction.[685]

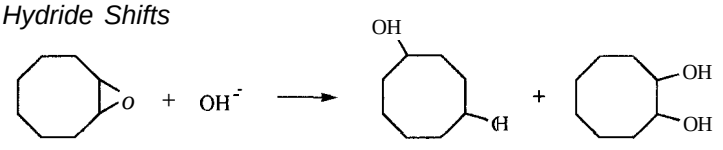


This is one of the few known methods for effecting substitution at an angular methyl group. Not only CH_3 groups but also alkyl groups of the form RCH_2 and R_2CH can give the Barton reaction if the geometry of the system is favorable. An RCH_2 group is converted to the oxime R(C=NOH) (which is hydrolyzable to a ketone) or to a nitroso dimer, while an R_2CH group gives a nitroso compound $R_2C(NO)$. With very few exceptions, the only carbons that become nitrosated are those in the position 5 to the original OH group, indicating that a six-membered transition state is necessary for the hydrogen abstraction.[686]

OS III, 159.

D. *Non-cyclic Rearrangements*

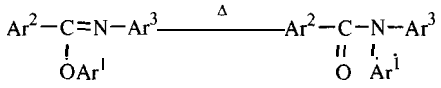
18-41 *Hydride Shifts*



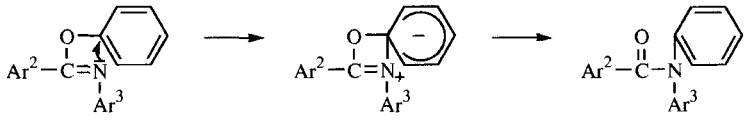
The above is a typical example of a transannular hydride shift. The 1,2-diol is formed by a normal epoxide hydrolysis reaction (10-7). For a discussion of 1,3 and longer hydride shifts, see page 1387.

18-42 *The Chapman Rearrangement*

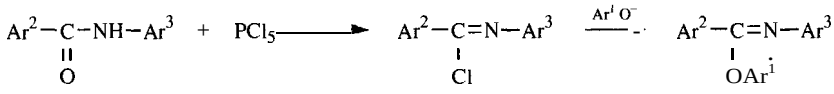
1/*O* → 3/*N*-ARYL-MIGRATION



In the *Chapman rearrangement,* N,N-diaryl amides are formed when aryl imino esters are heated.[687] Best yields are obtained in refluxing tetraethylene glycol dimethyl ether (tetraglyme),[688] though the reaction can also be carried out without any solvent at all. Many groups may be present in the rings (e.g., alkyl, halo, OR, CN, COOR). Aryl migrates best when it contains electron-withdrawing groups. On the other hand, electron-withdrawing groups in Ar^2 or Ar^3 decrease the reactivity. The products can be hydrolyzed to diarylamines, and this is a method for preparing

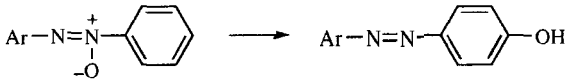


these compounds. The mechanism probably involves an intramolecular[689] aromatic nucleophilic substitution, resulting in a 1,3 oxygen-to-nitrogen shift. Aryl imino esters can be prepared from N-aryl amides by reaction with PC15, followed by treatment of the resulting imino chloride with an aroxide ion.[690]



Imino esters with any or all of the three groups being alkyl also rearrange, but they require catalysis by H_2SO_4 or a trace of methyl iodide or methyl sulfate.[691] The mechanism is different, involving an intermolecular process.[692] This is also true for derivatives for formamide (Ar^2 = H).

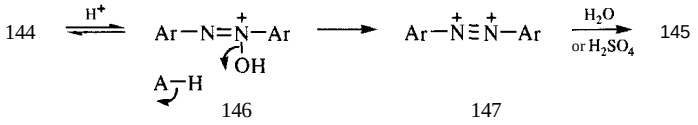
18-43 *The Wallach Rearrangement*



144 145

The conversion of azoxy compounds, (144) on acid treatment, to *p*-hydroxy azo compounds (145, or sometimes the o-hydroxy isomers[693]) is called the *Wallach rearrangement.*[694] When both para positions are occupied, the o-hydroxy product

may be obtained, but ipso substitution at one of the para positions is also possible.[695] Although the mechanism[696] is not completely settled, the following facts are known: (1) The para rearrangement is intermolecular.[697] (2) When the reaction was carried out with an azoxy compound in which the N—O nitrogen was labeled with ^{15}N, *both* nitrogens of the product carried the label equally,[698] demonstrating that the oxygen did not have a preference for migration to either the near or the far ring. This shows that there is a symmetrical intermediate. (3) Kinetic studies show that two protons are normally required for the reaction.[699] The following mechanism,[700] involving the symmetrical intermediate 147, has been proposed to explain the facts.[701]



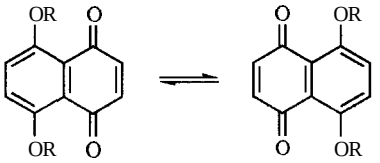
It has proved possible to obtain 146 and 147 as stable species in superacid solutions.[613] Another mechanism, involving an intermediate with only one positive charge, has been proposed for certain substrates at low acidities.[702]

A photochemical Wallach rearrangement[703] is also known: The product is the *o*-hydroxy azo compound, the OH group is found in the farther ring, and the rearrangement is intramolecular.[704]

18-44 *Dyotropic Rearrangements*

1/*C*-TRIALKYLSILYL,2/*O*-TRIALKYLSILYL-INTERCHANGE

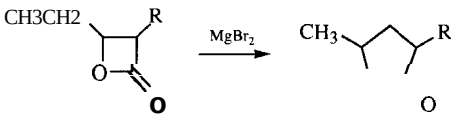
A *dyotropic rearrangement*[705] is an uncatalyzed process in which two <7 bonds simultaneously migrate intramolecularly.[706] There are two types. The above is an example of type 1, which consists of reactions in which the two σ bonds interchange positions. In type 2, the two σ bonds do not interchange positions. An example is

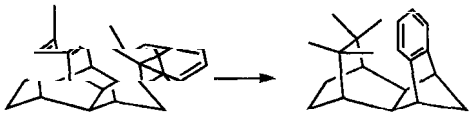


Some other examples are

Type 1 $R-C\equiv\overset{+}{N}-\bar{O} \rightleftharpoons O=C=N-R$ Ref. 707

Nitrile oxide — Isocyanate

Type 1  Ref. 708

Type 2  Ref709

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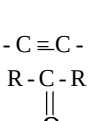
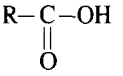
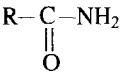
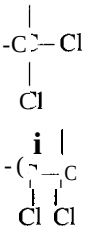
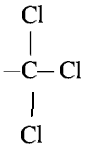
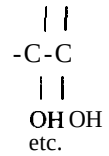
CHAPTER 19

Oxidations and Reductions

First, we must examine what we mean when we speak of oxidation and reduction. Inorganic chemists define oxidation in two ways: loss of electrons and increase in oxidation number. In organic chemistry, these definitions, while still technically correct, are not easy to apply. While electrons are directly transferred in some organic oxidations and reductions, the mechanisms of most of these reactions do not involve a direct electron transfer. As for oxidation number, while this is easy to apply in some cases, (e.g., the oxidation number of carbon in CH_4 is -4), in most cases attempts to apply the concept lead to fractional values or to apparent absurdities. Thus carbon in propane has an oxidation number of -2.67 and in butane of -2.5, though organic chemists seldom think of these two compounds as being in different oxidation states. An improvement could be made by assigning different oxidation states to different carbon atoms in a molecule, depending on what is bonded to them (e.g., the two carbons in acetic acid are obviously in different oxidation states), but for this a whole set of arbitrary assumptions would be required, since the oxidation number of an atom in a molecule is assigned on the basis of the oxidation numbers of the atoms attached to it. There would seem little to be gained by such a procedure. The practice in organic chemistry has been to set up a series of functional groups, in a qualitative way, arranged in order of increasing oxidation state, and then to define oxidation as *the conversion of a functional group in a molecule from one category to a higher one.* Reduction is the opposite. For the simple functional groups, this series is shown in Table 19.1.[1] It should be noted that this classification applies only to a single carbon atom or to two adjacent carbon atoms. Thus 1,3-dichloropropane is in the same oxidation state as chloromethane, but 1,2-dichloropropane is in a higher one. Obviously, such distinctions are somewhat arbitrary, and if we attempt to carry them too far, we shall find ourselves painted into a corner. Nevertheless, the basic idea has served organic chemistry well. It should be noted that conversion of any compound to another in the same category is not an oxidation or a reduction. Most oxidations in organic chemistry involve a gain of oxygen and/or a loss of hydrogen (Lavoisier's original definition of oxidation). The reverse is true for reductions.

Of course, there is no oxidation without a concurrent reduction. However, we classify reactions as oxidations or reductions depending on whether the *organic compound* is oxidized or reduced. In some cases both the oxidant and reductant are organic; those reactions are treated separately at the end of the chapter.

TABLE 19.1 Categories of Simple Functional Groups Arranged According to Oxidation State [a]

Approximate Oxidation Number				
-4	−2	0	+2	+4
RH				**CO_2**
	ROH **RC1**			**CCl_4**
	RNH_2			
				
	etc.		etc.	
		OH OH etc.		

[a] Oxidation is the conversion of a functional group in a molecule to a higher category; reduction is conversion to a lower one. Conversions within a category are neither oxidations nor reductions. The numbers given at the bottom are only approximations.

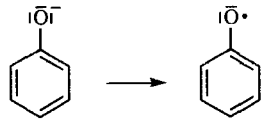
MECHANISMS

Note that our definition of oxidation has nothing to do with mechanism. Thus the conversion of bromomethane to methanol with KOH **(10-1)** and to methane with $LiAlH_4$ **(10-79)** have the same S_N2 mechanisms, but one is a reduction (according to our definition) and the other is not. It is impractical to consider the mechanisms of oxidation and reduction reactions in broad categories in this chapter as we have done for the reactions considered in Chapters 10-18.[2] The main reason is that the mechanisms are too diverse, and this in turn is because the bond changes are too different. For example, in Chapter 15, all the reactions involved the bond change C=C→ W—C—C—Y and a relatively few mechanisms covered all the reactions. But for oxidations and reductions the bond changes are far more diverse. Another reason is that the mechanism of a given oxidation or reduction reaction can vary greatly

with the oxidizing or reducing agent employed. Very often the mechanism has been studied intensively for only one or a few of many possible agents.

Though we therefore do not cover oxidation and reduction mechanisms in the same way as we have covered other mechanisms, it is still possible to list a few broad mechanistic categories. In doing this, we follow the scheme of Wiberg.[3]

1. *Direct Electron Transfer.*[4] We have already met some reactions in which the reduction is a direct gain of electrons or the oxidation a direct loss of them. An example is the Birch reduction (15-14), where sodium directly transfers an electron to an aromatic ring. An example from this chapter is found in the bimolecular reduction of ketones (19-55), where again it is a metal that supplies the electrons. This kind of mechanism is found largely in three types of reaction:[5] (a) the oxidation or reduction of a free radical (oxidation to a positive or reduction to a negative ion), (b) the oxidation of a negative ion or the reduction of a positive ion to a comparatively stable free radical, and (c) electrolytic oxidations or reductions (an example is the Kolbe reaction, 14-36). An important example of (b) is oxidation of amines and phenolate ions:



These reactions occur easily because of the relative stability of the radicals involved.[6] The SET mechanism, which we have met several times (e.g., p. 402) is an important case.

2. *Hydride Transfer.*[7] In some reactions, a hydride ion is transferred to or from the substrate. The reduction of epoxides with $LiAlH_4$ is an example (10-85). Another is the Cannizzaro reaction (19-60). Reactions in which a carbocation abstracts a hydride ion belong in this category:[8]

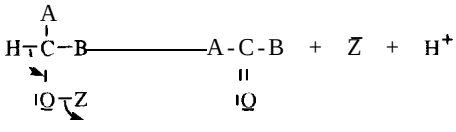
$$R^+ + R'H \longrightarrow RH + R'^+$$

3. *Hydrogen-Atom Transfer.* Many oxidation and reduction reactions are free-radical substitutions and involve the transfer of a hydrogen atom. For example, one of the two main propagation steps of 14-1 involves abstraction of hydrogen:

$$RH + Cl\cdot \longrightarrow R\cdot + HCl$$

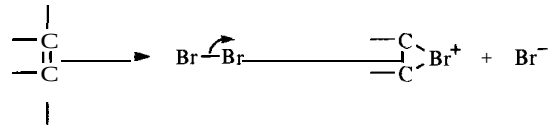
This is the case for many of the reactions of Chapter 14.

4. *Formation of Ester Intermediates.* A number of oxidations involve the formation of an ester intermediate (usually of an inorganic acid), and then the cleavage of this intermediate:

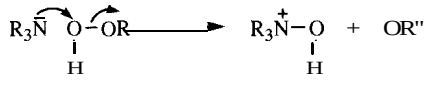


Z is usually CrO_3H, MnO_3, or a similar inorganic acid moiety. One example of this mechanism was seen in **14-6,** where A was an alkyl or aryl group, B was OH, and Z was CrO_3H. Another is the oxidation of a secondary alcohol to a ketone (19-3), where A and B are alkyl or aryl groups and Z is also CrO_3H. In the lead tetraacetate oxidation of glycols **(19-7)** the mechanism also follows this pattern, but the positive leaving group is carbon instead of hydrogen. It should be noted that the cleavage shown is an example of an E2 elimination.

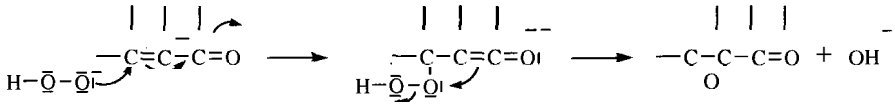
5. *Displacement Mechanisms.* In these reactions the organic substrate uses its electrons to cause displacement on an electrophilic oxidizing agent. One example is the addition of bromine to an alkene **(15-37).**



An example from this chapter is found in **19-27:**



6. *Addition-Elimination Mechanisms.* In the reaction between α,β-unsaturated ketones and alkaline peroxide **(15-48),** the oxidizing agent adds to the substrate, and then part of it is lost:



In this case, the oxygen of the oxidizing agent is in oxidation state − 1 and the OH^- departs with its oxygen in the — 2 state, so it is reduced and the substrate oxidized. There are several reactions that follow this pattern of addition of an oxidizing agent and the loss of part of the agent, usually in a different oxidation state. Another example is the oxidation of ketones with SeO_2 (19-14). This reaction is also an example of category 4, since it involves formation and E2 cleavage of an ester. This example shows that these six categories are not mutually exclusive.

REACTIONS

In this chapter, the reactions are classified by the type of bond change occurring to the organic substrate, in conformity with our practice in the other chapters.[9] This means that there is no discussion in any one place of the use of a particular oxidizing or reducing agent, for example, acid dichromate or $LiAlH_4$ (except for a discussion of selectivity of reducing agents, p. 1544). Some oxidizing or reducing agents are

fairly specific in their action, attacking only one or a few types of substrate. Others, like acid dichromate, permanganate, $LiAlH_4$, and catalytic hydrogenation, are much more versatile.[10]

When an oxidation or a reduction could be considered in a previous chapter, this was done. For example, the catalytic hydrogenation of alkenes is a reduction, but it is also an addition to the C=C bond and was treated in Chapter 15. This chapter discusses only those reactions that do not fit into the nine categories of Chapters 10-18. An exception to this rule was made for reactions that involve elimination of hydrogen (19-1-19-6), which were not treated in Chapter 17 because the mechanisms generally differ from those in that chapter.

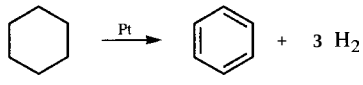
Oxidations[11]

The reactions in this section are classified into groups depending on the type of bond change involved. These groups are (A) eliminations of hydrogen, (B) reactions involving cleavage of carbon-carbon bonds, (C) reactions involving replacement of hydrogen by oxygen, (D) reactions in which oxygen is added to the substrate, and (E) oxidative coupling.

A. *Eliminations of Hydrogen*

19-1 *Aromatization of Six-Membered Rings*

HEXAHYDRO-TERELIMINATION



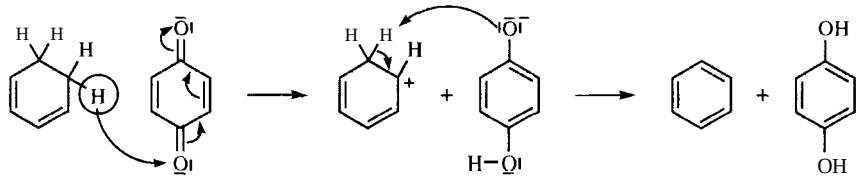
Six-membered alicyclic rings can be aromatized in a number of ways.[12] Aromatization is accomplished most easily if there are already one or two double bonds in the ring or if the ring is fused to an aromatic ring. The reaction can also be applied to heterocyclic five- and six-membered rings. Many groups may be present on the ring without interference, and even *gem*-dialkyl substitution does not always prevent the reaction: In such cases, one alkyl group often migrates or is eliminated. However, more drastic conditions are usually required for this. In some cases, OH and COOH groups are lost from the ring. Cyclic ketones are converted to phenols. Seven-membered and larger rings are often isomerized to six-membered aromatic rings, though this is not the case for partially hydrogenated azulene systems, which are frequently found in nature; these are converted to azulenes.

There are three types of reagents most frequently used to effect aromatization.

1. Hydrogenation catalysts,[13] such as platinum, palladium, nickel, and so on. In this case the reaction is the reverse of double-bond hydrogenation (15-11 and 15-15), and presumably the mechanism is also the reverse, though not much is known.[14] Cyclohexene has been detected as an intermediate in the conversion

of cyclohexane to benzene, using Pt.[15] The substrate is heated with the catalyst at ~300–350°C. The reactions can often be carried out under milder conditions if a hydrogen acceptor, such as maleic acid, cyclohexene, or benzene, is present to remove hydrogen as it is formed. The acceptor is reduced to the saturated compound. It has been reported that dehydrogenation of 1-methylcyclohexene-1-^{13}C over an alumina catalyst gave toluene with the label partially scrambled throughout the aromatic ring.[16]

2. The elements sulfur and selenium, which combine with the hydrogen evolved to give, respectively, H_2S and H_2Se. Little is known about this mechanism either.[17]
3. Quinones,[18] which become reduced to the corresponding hydroquinones. Two important quinones often used for aromatizations are chloranil (2,3,5,6-tetrachloro-1,4-benzoquinone) and DDQ (2,3-dichloro-5,6-dicyano-1,4-benzoquinone).[19] The latter is more reactive and can be used in cases where the substrate is difficult to dehydrogenate. It is likely that the mechanism involves a transfer of hydride to the quinone oxygen, followed by the transfer of a proton to the phenolate ion:[20]



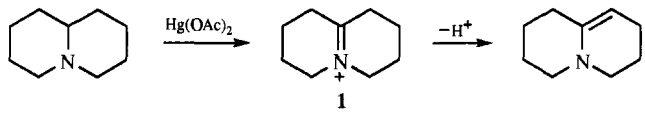
Among other reagents[21] that have been used are atmospheric oxygen, MnO_2,[22] SeO_2, various strong bases,[23] chromic acid,[24] and SeO_2 on P_2O_5/$Me_3SiOSiMe_3$.[25] The last-mentioned reagent also dehydrogenates cyclopentanes to cyclopentadienes. In some instances, the hydrogen is not released as H_2 or transferred to an external oxidizing agent but instead serves to reduce another molecule of substrate. This is a disproportionation reaction and can be illustrated by the conversion of cyclohexene to cyclohexane and benzene.

Heteroatom rings, such as that found in quinoline derivatives, can be generated from amino-ketones with [hydroxy(tosyloxy)iodo]benzene and perchloric acid.[26] Cyclic imines are converted to pyridine derivatives with NCS and then excess sodium methoxide.[27]

OS II, 214, 423; III, 310, 358, 729, 807; IV, 536; VI, 731. Also see OS III, 329.

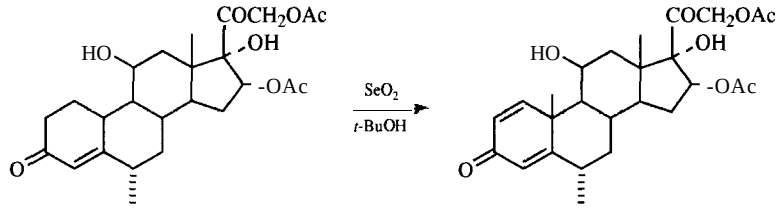
19-2 *Dehydrogenations Yielding Carbon-Carbon Double Bonds*

DIHYDRO-ELIMINATION



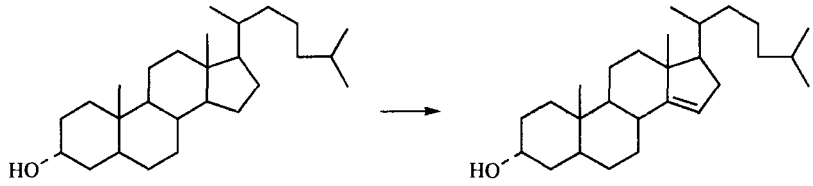
1

Dehydrogenation of an aliphatic compound to give a double bond in a specific location is not usually a feasible process, though industrially mixtures of alkenes are obtained in this way from mixtures of alkanes (generally by heating with chromia–alumina catalysts). There are, however, some notable exceptions, and it is not surprising that these generally involve cases where the new double bond can be in conjugation with a double bond or with an unshared pair of electrons already present.[28] One example is the synthesis developed by Leonard and co-workers,[29] in which tertiary amines give enamines when treated with mercuric acetate[30] (see the example above). In this case, the initial product is the iminium ion (1), which loses a proton to give the enamine. In another example, the oxidizing agent SeO_2 can in certain cases convert a carbonyl compound to an α,β-unsaturated carbonyl compound by removing H_2 (though this reagent more often gives 19-14).[31] This reaction has been most often applied in the steroid series, an example being[32]



Similarly, SeO_2 has been used to dehydrogenate 1,4-diketones ($RCOCH_2CH_2COR \rightarrow RCOCH{=}CHCOR$)[33] and 1,2-diarylalkanes ($ArCH_2CH_2Ar \rightarrow ArCH{=}CHAr$). These conversions can also be carried out by certain quinones, most notably DDQ (see **19-1**).[19] Ketones have been converted to conjugated ketones with Ph(S=O)OMe and KH[34] and also with (pyridyl)S(=O)OMe/KH, and then $CuSO_4$.[35] Silyl enol ethers also give the conjugated ketone upon treatment with ceric ammonium nitrate in DMF[36] or with $Pd(OAc)_2/NaOAc/O_2$.[37] Simple aldehydes and ketones have been dehydrogenated (e.g., cyclopentanone → cyclopentenone) by $PdCl_2$,[38] by $FeCl_3$,[39] and by benzeneseleninic anhydride (this reagent also dehydrogenates lactones in a similar manner),[40] among other reagents.

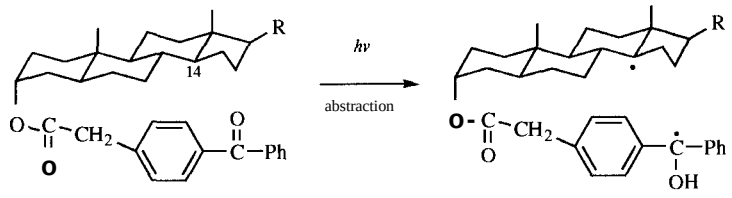
In an indirect method of achieving this conversion, the silyl enol ether of a simple ketone is treated with DDQ[41] or with triphenylmethyl cation (for another indirect method, see 17-11).[42] Simple linear alkanes have been converted to alkenes by treatment with certain transition metal compounds.[43]



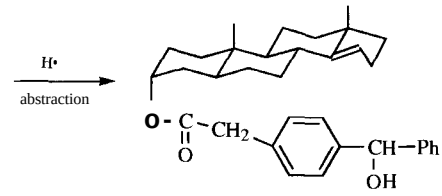
2 3

An entirely different approach to specific dehydrogenation has been reported by. Breslow[44] and by J.E. Baldwin.[45] By means of this approach it was possible, for example, to convert 3α-cholestanol (2) to 5α-cholest-14-en-3α-ol (3), thus intro-

ducing a double bond at a specific site remote from any functional group.[46] This was accomplished by conversion of 2 to the ester (4), followed by irradiation of 4, which gave 55% 6, which was then hydrolyzed to 3. The radiation excites the benzo-

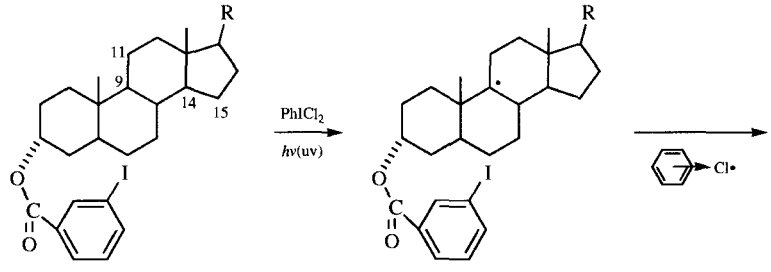


4 5



6

phenone portion of 4 (p. 321), which then abstracts hydrogen from the 14 position to give the diradical 5, which undergoes another internal abstraction to give 6. In other cases, diradicals like 5 can close to a macrocyclic lactone **(19-14).** In an alternate approach,[47] a 9(11) double bond was introduced into a steroid nucleus by



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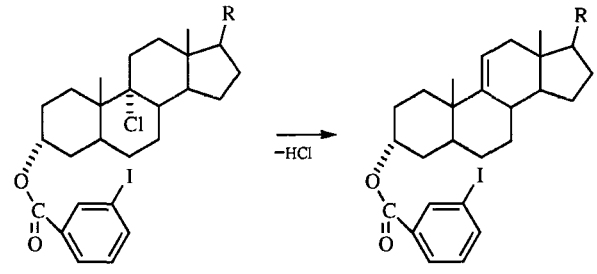


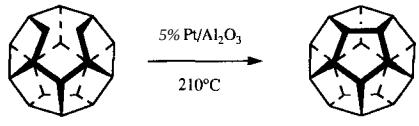
8 9

reaction of the *m*-iodo ester (7) with $PhICl_2$ and UV light, which results in hydrogen being abstracted regioselectively from the 9 position, resulting in chlorination at that position. Dehydrohalogenation of 8 gives the 9(11)-unsaturated steroid **(9).** In

contrast, use of the para isomer of 7 results in chlorination at the 14 position and loss of HC1 gives the 14-unsaturated steroid. These reactions are among the very few ways to introduce functionality at a specific site remote from any functional group (see also **19-14).**

Certain 1,2-diarylalkenes ArCH=CHAr′ have been converted to the corresponding alkynes ArC≡CAr'by treatment with *t*-BuOK in DMF.[48]

A different kind of dehydrogenation was used in the final step of Paquette's synthesis of dodecahedrane:[49]



Dodecahedrane

OS V, 428, **VII,** 4, 473.

19-3 *Oxidation or Dehydrogenation of Alcohols to Aldehydes and Ketones*

C,O-DIHYDRO-ELIMINATION

$$RCH_2OH \xrightarrow[chromite]{copper} RCHO$$

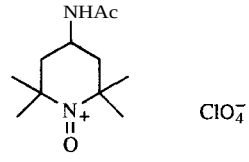
$$RCHOHR' \xrightarrow[H_2SO_4]{K_2Cr_2O_7} RCOR'$$

Primary alcohols can be converted to aldehydes and secondary alcohols to ketones in five main ways:'

1. *With Strong Oxidizing Agents.*[51] Secondary alcohols are easily oxidized to ketones by acid dichromate[52] at room temperature or slightly above. Though this is the most common reagent, many other strong oxidizing agents (e.g., $KMnO_4$, Br_2, MnO_2,[53] ruthenium tetroxide,[54] etc.) have also been employed. A solution of chromic acid and sulfuric acid in water is known as the *Jones reagent.*[55] When secondary alcohols are dissolved in acetone, titration with the Jones reagent oxidizes them to ketones rapidly and in high yield without disturbing any double or triple bonds that may be present (see **19-10)** and without epimerizing an adjacent chiral center.[56] The Jones reagent also oxidizes primary allylic alcohols to the corresponding aldehydes.[57] Three other Cr(VI) reagents commonly used[58] are dipyridine Cr(VI) oxide *(Collins' reagent),*[59] pyridinium chlorochromate,[60] and pyridinium dichromate[61] MnO_2 is also a fairly specific reagent for OH groups and is often used to oxidize allylic alcohols to α,β-unsaturated aldehydes or ketones. For acid-sensitive

compounds CrO_3 in HMPA[62] or trimethylsilyl chromates[63] can be used. Sodium hypochlorite in acetic acid is useful for oxidizing larger amounts of secondary alcohols.[64] The oxidizing agent can be supported on a polymer.[65] Both chromic acid[66] and permanganate[67] have been used in this way (see p. 509). Phase-transfer catalysis has also been used with permanganate,[68] chromic acid,[69] and ruthenium tetroxide.[70] Phase-transfer catalysis is particularly useful because the oxidizing agents are insoluble in most organic solvents, while the substrates are generally insoluble in water (see p. 454). Ultrasound has been used for $KMnO_4$ oxidations.[71]

Most of these oxidizing agents have also been used to convert primary alcohols to aldehydes, but precautions must be taken that the aldehyde is not further oxidized to the carboxylic acid (19-21).[72] One way to halt oxidation is by distillation of the aldehyde as it is formed. The following are among the oxidizing agents that have been used to convert at least some primary alcohols to aldehydes:[73] DMSO (see **19-19),** Collins' reagent, Corey's reagent, pyridinium dichromate, $Na_2Cr_2O_7$ in water,[74] $K_2Cr_2O_7$ in DMF at 100°C,[75] CrO_3 on silica gel,[76] wet CrO_3 on alumina with microwave irradiation,[77] tetrapropylammonium perruthenate ($Pr_4N^+ RuO_4^-$; also called TPAP),[78] and NCS-TEMPO.[79] Other nitroxyl radical oxidizing agents are known.[80] A related



10

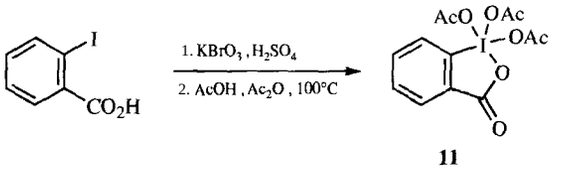
oxidizing agent is oxoammonium salt (10), a stable and nonhygroscopic salt that oxidizes primary and secondary alcohols in dichloromethane.[81] Most of these reagents also oxidize secondary alcohols to ketones. Reagents that can be used specifically to oxidize a secondary OH group in the presence of a primary OH group[82] are H_2O_2–ammonium molybdate,[83] $NaBrO_3$–CAN,[84] and NaOCl in HOAc,[85] while $RuCl_2(PPh_3)_3$–benzene,[86] osmium tetroxide,[87] and Br_2–$Ni(OBz)_2$[88] oxidize primary OH groups in the presence of a secondary OH group.[89] Benzylic and allylic alcohols have been selectively oxidized to the aldehydes in the presence of saturated alcohols by the use of potassium manganate ($KMnO_4$) under phase-transfer conditions.[90] On the other hand, Fremy's salt (see **19-4)** selectively oxidizes benzylic alcohols and not allylic or saturated ones.[91] Certain zirconocene complexes can selectively oxidize only one OH group of a diol, even if both are primary.[92]

2. *By Catalytic Dehydrogenation.* For the conversion of primary alcohols to aldehydes, dehydrogenation catalysts have the advantage over strong oxidizing agents that further oxidation to the carboxylic acid is prevented. Copper chromite is the agent most often used, but other catalysts (e.g., silver and copper) have also been employed. Many ketones have also been prepared

in this manner. Catalytic dehydrogenation is more often used industrially than as a laboratory method. However, convenient laboratory procedures using copper oxide,[93] Raney nickel,[94] and palladium acetate (under phase-transfer conditions)[95] have been reported.

3. *The Oppenauer Oxidation.* When a ketone in the presence of base is used as the oxidizing agent (it is reduced to a secondary alcohol), the reaction is known as the *Oppenauer oxidation.*[96] This is the reverse of the Meerwein-Ponndorf-Verley reaction **(16-23),** and the mechanism is also the reverse. The ketones most commonly used are acetone, butanone, and cyclohexanone. The most common base is aluminum tert-butoxide. The chief advantage of the method is its high selectivity. Although the method is most often used for the preparation of ketones, it has also been used for aldehydes.
4. *With DMSO Based Reagents.* An alcohol is treated with DMSO, DCC,[97] and anhydrous phosphoric acid[98] in what is called *Moffatt oxidation.* In this way, a primary alcohol can be converted to the aldehyde with no carboxylic acid being produced.

   Similar oxidation of alcohols has been carried out with DMSO and other reagents[99] in place of DCC: acetic anhydride,[100] SO_3–pyridine–triethylamine,[101] trifluoroacetic anhydride,[102] oxalyl chloride (called *Swern oxidation*)[103] tosyl chloride,[104] P_2O_5-Et_3N,[105] trichloromethyl chloroformate,[106] trimethylamine *N*-oxide,[107] KI and $NaHCO_3$,[108] and methanesulfonic anhydride,[322] among others.
5. *With Hypervalent Iodine Reagents.* Treatment of 2-iodobenzoic acid with $KBrO_3$ in sulfuric acid and heating the resulting product to 100°C with acetic anhydride and acetic acid gives hypervalent iodine reagent (11), the so-called *Dess–Martin Periodinane.*[109] This reagent reacts with alcohols at ambient temperature to give the corresponding aldehyde or ketone.[110] The reaction is accelerated by water.[111]



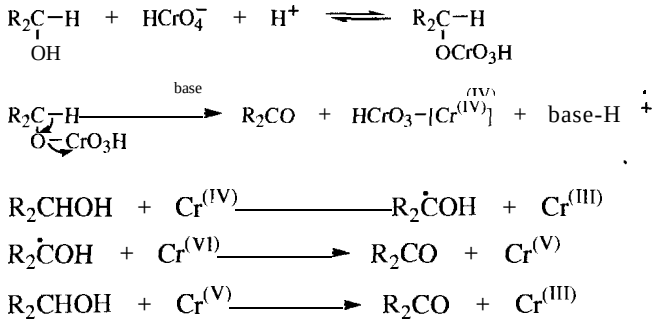
11

The reagent has an indefinite shelf-life in a sealed container but hydrolysis occurs upon long-term exposure to atmospheric moisture. A note of caution! The Dess-Martin reagent can be shock sensitive under some conditions and explode >200°C.[112] Other hypervalent iodine oxidizing reagents are known,[113] including $PhI(OAc)_2$/TEMPO[114] and $PhI(OAc)_2$ supported on alumina with microwave irradiation.[115]

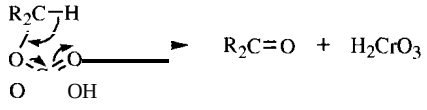
Primary and secondary alcohols can also be oxidized, indirectly, through their esters (see **19-20).** In some cases, isolation of the ester is not required and the alcohol can then be oxidized to the aldehyde or ketone in one step.

Enzymatic oxidations have been reported. *Bacilus stearothermophilus,* for example, oxidizes secondary alcohols to the ketone.[116]

The mechanism of oxidation with acid dichromate has been intensely studied.[117] The currently accepted mechanism is essentially that proposed by Westheimer.[118] The first two steps constitute an example of category 4 (p. 1508).



The base in the second step may be water, though it is also possible[119] that in some cases no external base is involved and that the proton is transferred directly to one of the CrO_3H oxygens in which case the Cr(IV) species produced would be H_2CrO_3.



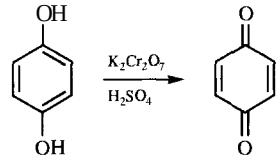
Part of the evidence for this mechanism was the isotope effect of ~6 found on use of MeCDOHMe, showing that the a hydrogen is removed in the rate-determining step.[120] Note that, as in 14-6, the substrate is oxidized by three different oxidation states of chromium.[121]

With other oxidizing agents, mechanisms are less clear.[122] It seems certain that some oxidizing agents operate by a hydride-shift mechanism,[173] for example, dehydrogenation with triphenylmethyl cation[124] and the Oppenauer oxidation, and some by a free-radical mechanism, for example, oxidation with $S_2O_8^{2-}$[125] and with VO_2^+.[126] A summary of many proposed mechanisms is given by Littler.[127]

OS I, 87, 211, 241, 340; II, 139, 541; III, 37, 207; IV, 189, 192, 195, 467, 813, 838; V, 242, 310, 324, 692, 852, 866; VI, 218, 220, 373, 644, 1033; VII, 102, 112, 114, 177, 258, 297; VIII, 43, 367, 386; IX, 132, 432. Also see OS IV, 283; VIII, 363, 501.

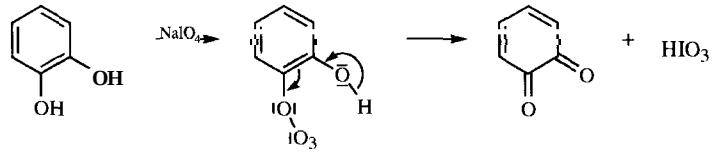
19-4 *Oxidation of Phenols and Aromatic Amines to Quinones*

1/*O*,6/*O*-Dihydro-elimination



Ortho and para diols are easily oxidized to ortho- and para-quinones, respectively.[128] Either or both OH groups can be replaced by NH_2 groups to give the same products, though for the preparation of ortho-quinones only OH groups are normally satisfactory. The reaction has been successfully carried out with other groups para to OH or NH_2; halogen, OR, Me, r-Bu, and even H, though with the last yields are poor. Many oxidizing agents have been used: acid dichromate,[129] silver oxide, silver carbonate, lead tetraacetate, HIO_4, dimethyl dioxirane,[130] and atmospheric oxygen,[131] to name a few. A particularly effective reagent for rings with only one OH or NH_2 group is $(KSO_3)_2N{-}O\cdot$ (dipotassium nitrosodisulfonate; *Fremy's salt),* which is a stable free radical.[132] Phenols, even some whose para positions are unoccupied, can be oxidized to ortho-quinones with diphenylseleninic anhydride.[133]

Less is known about the mechanism than is the case for **19-3**, but, as in that case, it seems to vary with the oxidizing agent. For oxidation of catechol with $NaIO_4$, it was found that the reaction conducted in $H_2{}^{18}O$ gave unlabeled quinone,[134] so the following mechanism[135] was proposed:



When catechol was oxidized with MnO_4^- under aprotic conditions, a semiquinone radical ion intermediate was involved.[136] For autoxidations[137] (i.e., with atmospheric oxygen) a free-radical mechanism is known to operate.[138]

OS I, 383, 482, 511; II, 175, 254, 430, 553; III, 663, 753; IV, 148; VI, 412, 480, 1010.

19-5 *Dehydrogenation of Amines*

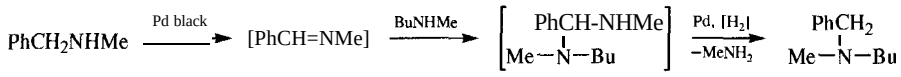
1/1/*N*,2/2/*C*-TETRAHYDRO-BIELIMINATION

$$RCH_2NH_2 \xrightarrow[2.\ H_2O]{1.\ NaOCl} RCN$$

Primary amines at a primary carbon can be dehydrogenated to nitriles. The reaction has been carried out with a variety of reagents, among others, lead tetraacetate,[139] NaOCl,[140] $K_2S_2O_8{-}NiSO_4$,[141] and $CuCl{-}O_2{-}$pyridine.[142] Several methods have been reported for the dehydrogenation of secondary amines to imines.[143] Among them[144] are treatment with (1) iodosylbenzene PhIO alone or in the presence of a ruthenium complex,[145] (2) Me_2SO and oxalyl chloride,[146] and (3) *t*-BuOOH and a rhenium catalyst.[147]

A reaction that involves dehydrogenation to an imine, which then reacts further is the reaction of primary or secondary amines[148] with palladium black.[149] The imine initially formed by the dehydrogenation reacts with another molecule of the same or a different amine to give an aminal, which loses NH_3 or RNH_2 to give a secondary or tertiary amine. An example is the reaction between *N*-methylbenzylamine and

butylmethylamine, which produces 95% *N*-methyl-*N*-butylbenzylamine.



19-6 *Oxidation of Hydrazines, Hydrazones, and Hydroxylamines*

1 / *N,2* / *N*-DIHYDRO-ELIMINATION

$$Ar\text{-}NH\text{-}NH\text{-}Ar \xrightarrow{NaOBr} Ar\text{-}N{=}N\text{-}Ar$$

N,N'-Diarylhydrazines (hydrazo compounds) are oxidized to azo compounds by several oxidizing agents, including NaOBr, HgO,[150] $K_3Fe(CN)_6$ under phase-transfer conditions,[151] MnO_2 (this reagent yields cis azobenzenes),[152] $CuCl_2$, and air and NaOH.[153] The reaction is also applicable to N,N'-dialkyl- and N,N'-diacylhydrazines. Hydrazines (both alkyl and aryl) substituted on only one side also give azo compounds,[154] but these are unstable and decompose to nitrogen and the hydrocarbon:

$$Ar{-}NH{-}NH_2 \longrightarrow [Ar{-}N{=}NH] \longrightarrow ArH + N_2$$

When hydrazones are oxidized with HgO, Ag_2O, MnO_2, lead tetraacetate, or certain other oxidizing agents, diazo compounds are obtained:[155]

$$R_2C{=}N{-}NH_2 \xrightarrow{HgO} R_2C{=}\overset{+}{N}{=}\overset{-}{N}$$

Hydrazones of the form $ArCH{=}NNH_2$ react with HgO in solvents such as diglyme or ethanol to give nitriles (ArCN).[156] Aromatic hydroxylamines (Ar—NH—OH) are easily oxidized to nitroso compounds (Ar—N=O), most commonly by acid dichromate.[157]

It is possible to oxidize dimethylhydrazones R—C=N—NMe_2 to the corresponding nitrile (R—C≡N) with $MeReO_3/H_2O_2$[158] magnesium monoperoxyphthalate (MMPP),[159] or with dimethyl dioxirane.[160]

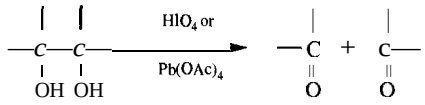
In a related reaction, primary aromatic amines have been oxidized to azo compounds by a variety of oxidizing agents, among them MnO_2, lead tetraacetate, O_2 and a base, barium permanganate,[161] and sodium perborate in acetic acid. *tert*-Butyl hydroperoxide has been used to oxidize certain primary amines to azoxy compounds.[162]

OS II, 496; **III,** 351, 356, 375, 668; IV, 66, 411; V, 96, 160, 897; VI, 78, 161, 334, 392, 803, 936; **VII,** 56. Also see OS V, 258. For oxidation of primary amines, see OS V, 341.

B. *Oxidations Involving Cleavage of Carbon-Carbon Bonds*[163]

19-7 *Oxidative Cleavage of Glycols and Related Compounds*

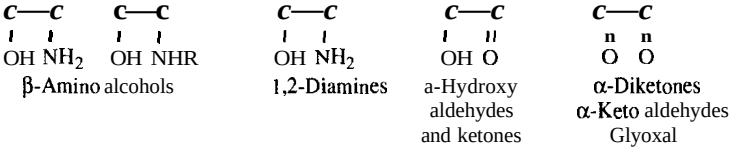
2/ *O*-DE-HYDROGEN-UNCOUPLING



1,2-Glycols are easily cleaved under mild conditions and in good yield with periodic acid or lead tetraacetate.[164] The products are 2 mol of aldehyde, or 2 mol of ketone, or 1 mol of each, depending on the groups attached to the two carbons. The yields are so good that alkenes are often converted to glycols (15-46), and then cleaved with HIO_4 or $Pb(OAc)_4$ rather than being cleaved directly with ozone (19-9) or dichromate or permanganate (19-10). A number of other oxidizing agents also give the same products, among them[165] activated MnO_2,[166] and pyridinium chlorochromate.[167] Permanganate, dichromate, and several other oxidizing agents[168] also cleave glycols, giving carboxylic acids rather than aldehydes, but these reagents are seldom used synthetically. Electrochemical oxidation is an efficient method, and is useful not only for diols, but also for their mono- and dimethoxy derivatives.[169]

The two reagents (periodic acid and lead tetraacetate) are complementary, since periodic acid is best used in water and lead tetraacetate in organic solvents. When three or more OH groups are located on adjacent carbons, the middle one (or ones) is converted to formic acid.

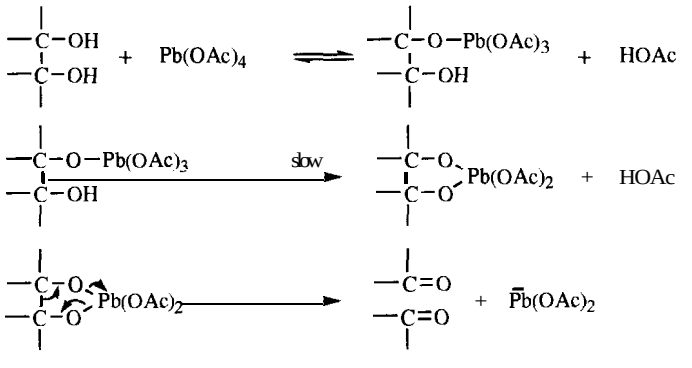
Similar cleavage is undergone by other compounds that contain oxygens or nitrogens on adjacent carbons:



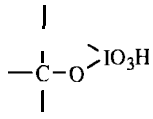
Cyclic 1,2-diamines are cleaved to diketones with dimethyl dioxirane.[170] α-Diketones and α-hydroxy ketones are also cleaved by alkaline H_2O_2.[171] HIO_4 has been used to cleave epoxides to aldehydes,[172] for example,

α-Hydroxy acids and α-keto acids are not cleaved by HIO_4 but are cleaved by $NaIO_4$ in methanol in the presence of a crown ether,[173] $Pb(OAc)_4$, alkaline H_2O_2, and other reagents. These are oxidative decarboxylations. a-Hydroxy acids give aldehydes or ketones, and a-keto acids give carboxylic acids. Also see 19-12 and 19-13.

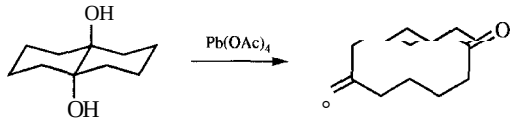
The mechanism of glycol oxidation with $Pb(OAc)_4$ was proposed by Criegee:[174]



This mechanism is supported by these facts: (1) the kinetics are second order (first order in each reactant); (2) added acetic acid retards the reaction (drives the equilibrium to the left); and (3) cis glycols react much more rapidly than trans glycols.[175] For periodic acid the mechanism is similar, with the intermediate[176]

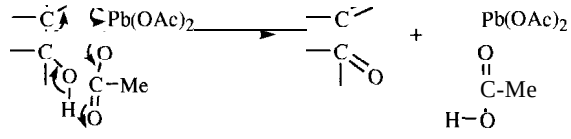


However, the cyclic-intermediate mechanism cannot account for all glycol oxidations, since some glycols that cannot form such an ester (e.g., 12) are nevertheless cleaved by lead tetraacetate



12

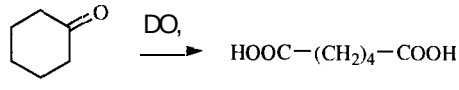
(though other glycols that cannot form cyclic esters are *not* cleaved, by either reagent[177]). To account for cases like 12, a cyclic transition state has been proposed:[175]



OS IV, 124; VII, 185; VIII, 396.

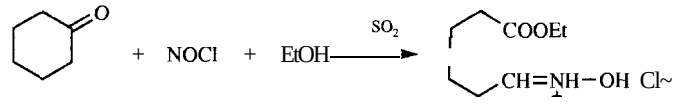
19-8 *Oxidative Cleavage of Ketones, Aldehydes, and Alcohols*

CYCLOALKANONE OXIDATIVE RING OPENING

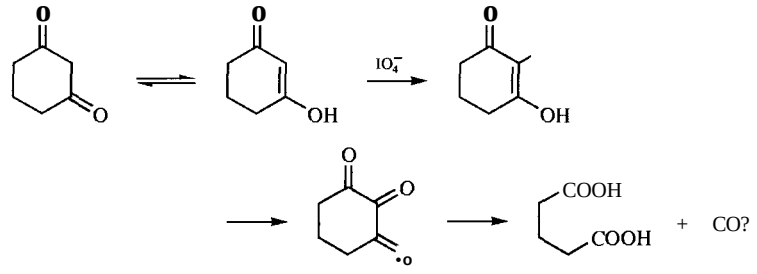


Oxidative cleavage of open-chain ketones or alcohols[178] is seldom a useful preparative procedure, not because these compounds do not undergo oxidation (they do, except for diaryl ketones) but because the result is generally a hopeless mixture. However, the reaction is quite useful for cyclic ketones and the corresponding secondary alcohols, the dicarboxylic acid being prepared in good yield. The formation of adipic acid from cyclohexanone (shown above) is an important industrial procedure. Acid dichromate and permanganate are the most common oxidizing agents, though autoxidation (oxidation with atmospheric oxygen) in alkaline solution[179] and potassium superoxide under phase-transfer conditions[180] have also been used. Other reagents include LiOCl/Chlorox®[181] and $MeOCO_2Me$ at 195°C.[182] Silyl-ketones have been cleaved to esters using electrolysis in alcohol solvents.[183]

Cyclic ketones can also be cleaved by treatment with NOCl and an alcohol in liquid SO_2 to give an ω-oximinocarboxylic ester, for example,[184]



Cyclic 1,3-diketones, which exist mainly in the monoenolic form, can be cleaved with sodium periodate with loss of one carbon, for example,[185]

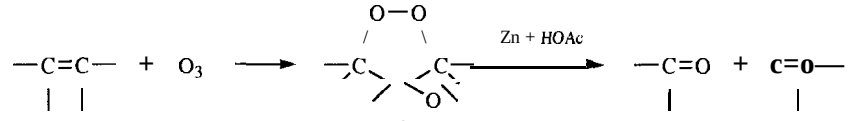


The species actually undergoing the cleavage is the triketone, so this is an example of 19-7.

OS I, 18; IV, 19; VI, 690. See also OS VI, 1024.

19-9 *Ozonolysis*

OXO-UNCOUPLING

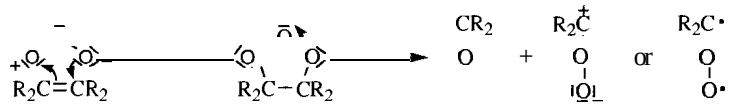


13

When compounds containing double bonds are treated with ozone, usually at low temperatures, they are converted to compounds called *ozonides* (13) that can be isolated but, because some of them are explosive, are more often decomposed with zinc and acetic acid or catalytic hydrogenation to give 2 mol of aldehyde, or 2 mol of ketone, or 1 mol of each, depending on the groups attached to the alkene.[186] The decomposition of 13 has also been carried out with triethylamine[187] and with reducing agents, among them trimethyl phosphite,[188] thiourea,[189] and dimethyl sulfide.[190] However, ozonides can also be *oxidized* with oxygen, peroxyacids, or H_2O_2 to give ketones and/or carboxylic acids or *reduced* with $LiAlH_4$, $NaBH_4$, BH_3, or catalytic hydrogenation with excess H_2 to give 2 mol of alcohol.[191] Ozonides can also be treated with ammonia, hydrogen, and a catalyst to give the corresponding amines,[192] or with an alcohol and anhydrous HC1 to give the corresponding carboxylic esters.[193] Ozonolysis is therefore an important synthetic reaction.

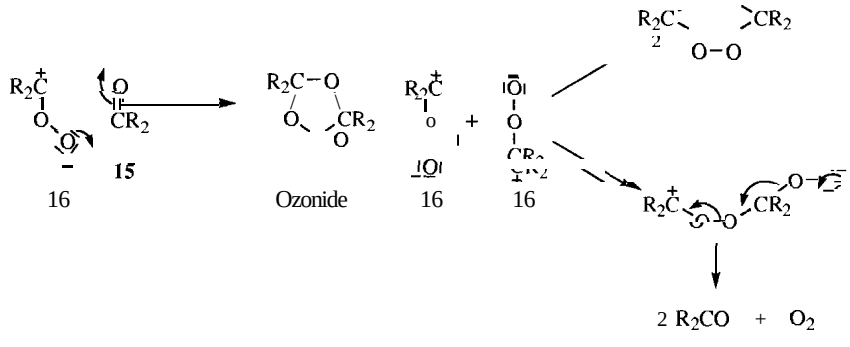
A wide variety of alkenes undergo ozonolysis, including cyclic ones, where cleavage gives rise to one bifunctional product. Alkenes in which the double bond is connected to electron-donating groups react many times faster than those in which it is connected to electron-withdrawing groups.[194] The reaction has often been carried

out on compounds containing more than one double bond; generally all the bonds are cleaved. In some cases, especially when bulky groups are present, conversion of the substrate to an epoxide **(15-48)** becomes an important side reaction and can be the main reaction.[195] Ozonolysis of triple bonds[196] is less common and the reaction proceeds less easily, since ozone is an electrophilic agent[197] and prefers double to triple bonds (p. 983). Compounds that contain triple bonds generally give carboxylic acids, though sometimes ozone oxidizes them to α-diketones **(19-26).** Aromatic compounds are also attacked less readily than alkenes, but have often been cleaved. Aromatic compounds behave as if the double bonds in the Kekulé structures were really there. Thus benzene gives 3 mol of glyoxal (HCOCHO), and *o*-xylene gives a glyoxal/MeCOCHO/MeCOCOMe ratio of 3:2:1, which shows that in this case cleavage is statistical. With polycyclic aromatic compounds the site of attack depends on the structure of the molecule and on the solvent.[198]



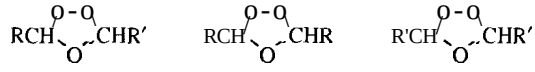
14 **15** 16 17

Although a large amount of work has been done on the mechanism of ozonization (formation of 13), not all the details are known. The basic mechanism was formulated by Criegee.[199] The first step of the Criegee mechanism[200] is a 1,3 dipolar addition **(15-57)** of ozone to the substrate to give the "initial" or "primary" ozonide, the structure of which has been shown to be the 1,2,3-trioxolane (14) by microwave and other spectral methods.[201] However, 14 is highly unstable and cleaves to an aldehyde or ketone (15) and an intermediate,[202] which Criegee showed as a zwitterion (16) but which may be a diradical (17). This compound is usually referred to as a carbonyl oxide.[203] The carbonyl oxide, which we will represent as 16, can then undergo various reactions, three of which lead to normal products. One is a recombination with **15,** the second a dimerization to the bisperoxide (18), and the third a kind of dimerization to 19.[204] If the first path is taken (this is normally possible only if 15 is an aldehyde; most ketones do not do this[205]), hydrolysis of the ozonide gives the normal products. If **18** is formed, hydrolysis of it gives one of the products, and of course 15, which then does not undergo further reaction, is the other. Compound **19,** if formed, can decompose directly, as shown, to give the normal products and

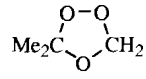


16 Ozonide 16 16

oxygen. In protic solvents, 16 is converted to a hydroperoxide, and these have been isolated, for example, $Me_2C(OOH)-OMe$ from $Me_2C{=}CMe_2$ in methanol. Further evidence for the mechanism is that 18 can be isolated in some cases, (e.g., from $Me_2C{=}CMe_2$). But perhaps the most impressive evidence comes from the detection of cross products. In the Criegee mechanism, the two parts of the original alkene break apart and then recombine to form the ozonide. In the case of an unsymmetrical alkene ($RCH{=}CHR'$), there should be three ozonides:



since there are two different aldehydes (15) and two different species of 16, and these can recombine in the three ways shown. Actually *six* ozonides, corresponding to the cis and trans forms of these three, were isolated and characterized for methyl oleate.[206] Similar results have been reported for smaller alkenes, (e.g., 2-pentene, 4-nonene, and even 2-mcthyl-2-pentene).[207] The last-mentioned case is especially interesting, since it is quite plausible that this compound would cleave in only one way, so that only one ozonide (in cis and trans versions) would be found; but this is not so, and three were found for this case too. However, terminal alkenes give little or no cross ozonide formation.[208] In general, the less alkylated end of the alkene tends to go to 15 and the other to 16. Still other evidence[209] for the Criegee mechanism is: (1) When $Me_2C{=}CMe_2$ was ozonized in the presence of HCHO, the



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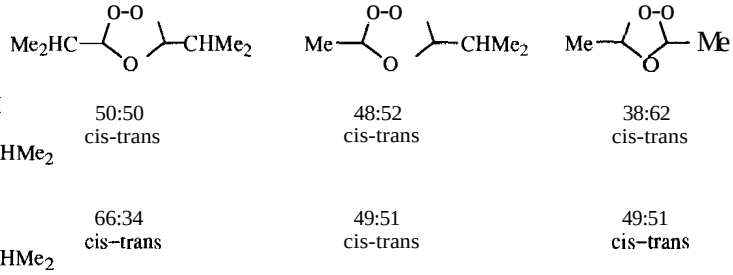
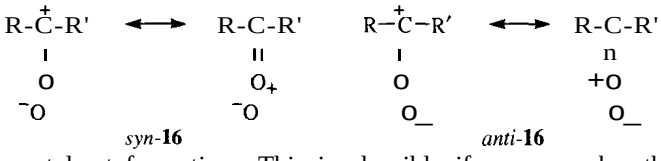
ozonide (20) could be isolated;[210] (2) Compound 16 prepared in an entirely different manner (photooxidation of diazo compounds), reacted with aldehydes to give ozonides;[211] and (3) cis and trans alkenes generally give the same ozonide, which would be expected if they cleave first.[212] However, this was not true for $Me_3CCH{=}CHCMe_3$, where the cis alkene gave the cis ozonide (chiefly), and the trans gave the trans.[213] The latter result is not compatible with the Criegee mechanism. Also incompatible with the Criegee mechanism was the finding that the cis/trans ratios of symmetrical (cross) ozonides obtained from *cis*- and *trans*-4-methyl-2-pentene were not the same.[214]



If the Criegee mechanism operated as shown above, the cis/trans ratio for each of the two cross ozonides would have to be identical for the cis and trans alkenes, since in this mechanism they are completely cleaved.

The above stereochemical results have been explained[215] on the basis of the Criegee mechanism with the following refinements: (1) The formation of 14 is stereospecific, as expected from a 1,3 dipolar cycloaddition. (2) Once they are formed, 16 and 15 remain attracted to each other, much like an ion pair. (3) Compound 16 exists in syn and anti forms, which are produced in different amounts and can hold

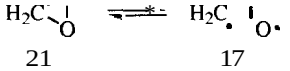


syn-**16** *anti*-**16**

their shapes, at least for a time. This is plausible if we remember that a C=O canonical form contributes to the structure of 16. (4) The combination of 16 and 15 is also a 1,3 dipolar cycloaddition, so configuration is retained in this step too.[216]

Evidence that the basic Criegee mechanism operates even in these cases comes from ^{18}O labeling experiments, making use of the fact, mentioned above, that mixed ozonides (e.g., 20) can be isolated when an external aldehyde is added. Both the normal and modified Criegee mechanisms predict that if ^{18}O-labeled aldehyde is added to the ozonolysis mixture, the label will appear in the ether oxygen (see the reaction between 16 and 15), and this is what is found.[217] There is evidence that the anti-16 couples much more readily than the syn-16.[218]

The ozonolysis of ethylene[219] in the liquid phase (without a solvent) was shown to take place by the Criegee mechanism.[220] This reaction has been used to study the structure of the intermediate 16 or 17. The compound dioxirane (21) was identified in the reaction mixture[221] at low temperatures and is probably in equilibrium with the biradical 17 (R = H). Dioxirane has been produced in solution but it oxidatively cleaves dialkyl ethers (such as Et–O–Et) via a chain radical process, [222] so the choice of solvent is important.



21 17

Ozonolysis in the gas phase is not generally carried out in the laboratory. However, the reaction is important because it takes place in the atmosphere and contributes to air pollution.[223] There is much evidence that the Criegee mechanism operates in the gas phase too, though the products are more complex because of other reactions that also take place.[224]

OS V, 489, 493; VI, 976; VII, 168; IX, 314. Also see OS IV, 554. For the preparation of ozone, see OS III, 673.

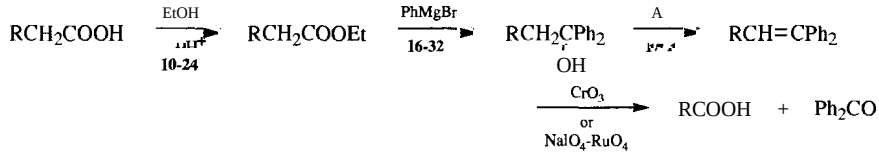
19-10 *Oxidative Cleavage of Double Bonds and Aromatic Rings*

OXO-DE-ALKYLIDENE-BISUBSTITUTION AND SO ON

$$R_2C{=}CHR \xrightarrow{CrO_3} R_2C{=}O + RCOOH$$

Double bonds can be cleaved by many oxidizing agents,[225] the most common of which are neutral or acid permanganate and acid dichromate. The products are generally 2 mol of ketone, 2 mol of carboxylic acid, or 1 mol of each, depending on what groups are attached to the alkene. With ordinary solutions of permanganate or dichromate yields are generally low, and the reaction is seldom a useful synthetic method; but high yields can be obtained by oxidizing with $KMnO_4$ dissolved in benzene containing the crown ether dicyclohexano-18-crown-6 (see p. 105).[226] The crown ether coordinates with K^+, permitting the $KMnO_4$ to dissolve in benzene. A mixture of aqueous $KMnO_4$ and $NaIO_4$ on sand is also effective.[227] Another reagent frequently used for synthetic purposes is the *Lemieux-von Rudloff reagent:* HIO4 containing a trace of MnO_4^-.[228] The MnO_4^- is the actual oxidizing agent, being reduced to the manganate stage, and the purpose of the HIO4 is to reoxidize the manganate back to MnO_4^-. Another reagent that behaves similarly is $NaIO_4$–ruthenium tetroxide.[229]

The *Barbier-Wieland procedure* for decreasing the length of a chain by one carbon involves oxidative cleavage by acid dichromate ($NaIO_4$–ruthenium tetroxide has also been used), but this is cleavage of a 1,1-diphenyl alkene, which generally gives good yields:

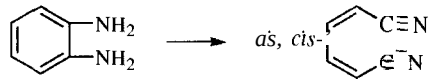


Addition of a catalytic amount of OsO_4 to Jones reagent (19-3) leads to good yields of the carboxylic acid from simple alkenes.[230] With certain reagents, the oxidation of double bonds can be stopped at the aldehyde stage, and in these cases the products are the same as in the ozonolysis procedure. Among these reagents are terf-butyl iodoxybenzene,[231] $KMnO_4$ in $THF–H_2O$,[232] and $NaIO_4–OsO_4$.[233] Electrolysis with $LiClO_4$ in aqueous acetonitrile also cleaves alkenes to give the aldehyde.[234] Enol ethers $RC(OR')=CH_2$ have been cleaved to carboxylic esters $RC(OR')=O$ by atmospheric oxygen.[235]

The mechanism of oxidation probably involves in most cases the initial formation of a glycol (15-35) or cyclic ester,[236] and then further oxidation as in **19-7**.[237] In line with the electrophilic attack on the alkene, triple-bonds are more resistant to oxidation than double bonds. Terminal triple-bond compounds can be cleaved to carboxylic acids ($RC\equiv CH \rightarrow RCOOH$) with thallium(III) nitrate[238] or with [bis(trifluoroacetoxy)iodo]pentafluorobenzene, that is, $C_6F_5I(OCOCF_3)_2$,[239] among other reagents.

Aromatic rings can be cleaved with strong enough oxidizing agents. An important laboratory reagent for this purpose is ruthenium tetroxide along with a co-oxidant such as $NaIO_4$ or NaOCl (household bleach can be used).[240] Examples[241] are the oxidation of naphthalene to phthalic acid[242] and, even more remarkably, of cyclohexylbenzene to cyclohexanecarboxylic acid[243] (note the contrast with 19-11). The latter conversion was also accomplished with ozone.[244] Another reagent that

oxidizes aromatic rings is air catalyzed by V_2O_5. The oxidations of naphthalene to phthalic anhydride and of benzene to maleic anhydride (p. 1021) by this reagent are important industrial procedures.[245] ortho-Diamines have been oxidized with nickel peroxide, with lead tetraacetate,[246] and with O_2 catalyzed by CuCl:[247]



The last-named reagent also cleaves ortho-dihydroxybenzenes (catechols) to give, in the presence of MeOH, the monomethylated dicarboxylic acids[248] HOOC–C=C–C=C–COOMe.

Enamines ($R'_2C{=}NR_2$) are oxidatively cleaved with potassium in sulfuric acid to the ketone ($R'_2C{=}O$).[249]

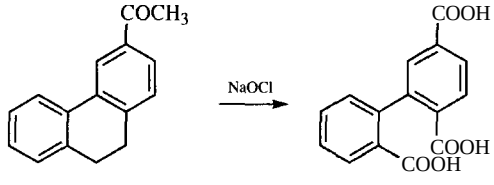
OS **II,** 53, 523; **III,** 39, 234, 449; **IV,** 136, 484, 824; **V,** 393; **VI,** 662, 690; **VII,** 397; **VIII,** 377, 490; **IX,** 530. Also see OS II, 551.

19-11 *Oxidation of Aromatic Side Chains*

OXO,HYDROXY-DE-DIHYDRO,METHYL-TERSUBSTITUTION

$$ArR \xrightarrow{KMnO_4} ArCO_2H$$

Alkyl chains on aromatic rings can be oxidized to COOH groups by many oxidizing agents, including permanganate, nitric acid, and acid dichromate.[250] The method is most often applied to the methyl group, though longer side chains can also be cleaved. However, tertiary alkyl groups are resistant to oxidation, and when they *are* oxidized, ring cleavage usually occurs too.[251] It is usually difficult to oxidize an R group on a fused aromatic system without cleaving the ring or oxidizing it to a quinone **(19-18).** However, this has been done (e.g., 2-methylnaphthalene was converted to 2-naphthoic acid) with aqueous $Na_2Cr_2O_7$.[252] Functional groups can be present anywhere on the side chain and, if in the a position, greatly increase the ease of oxidation. An exception is an a phenyl group. In such cases, the reaction stops at the diaryl ketone stage. Molecules containing aryl groups on different carbons cleave so that each ring gets one carbon atom, for example,



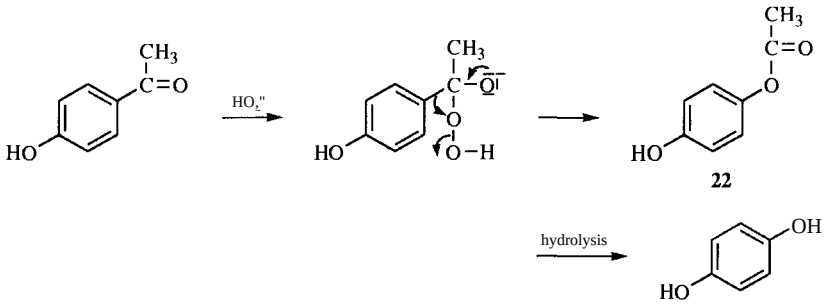
It is possible to oxidize only one alkyl group of a ring that contains more than one. The order of reactivity[253] toward most reagents is $CH_2Ar > CHR_2 > CH_2R > CH_3$.[254] Groups on the ring susceptible to oxidation (OH, NHR, NH_2, etc.) must be

protected. The oxidation can be performed with oxygen, in which case it is autoxidation, and the mechanism is like that in 14-8, with a hydroperoxide intermediate. With this procedure it is possible to isolate ketones from $ArCH_2R$, and this is often done.[255]

The mechanism has been studied for the closely related reaction: $Ar_2CH_2 + CrO_3 \rightarrow Ar_2C{=}O$.[256] A deuterium isotope effect of 6.4 was found, indicating that the rate-determining step is either $Ar_2CH_2 \rightarrow Ar_2CH\cdot$ or $Ar_2CH_2 \rightarrow Ar_2CH^+$. Either way this explains why tertiary groups are not converted to COOH and why the reactivity order is $CHR_2 > CH_2R > CH_3$, as mentioned above. Both free radicals and carbocations exhibit this order of stability (Chapter 5). The two possibilities are examples of categories 2 and 3 (p. 1508). Just how the radical or the cation goes on to the product is not known.

When the alkyl group is one oxidizable to COOH **(19-11),** cupric salts are oxidizing agents, and the OH group is found in a position ortho to that occupied by the alkyl group.[257] This reaction is used industrially to convert toluene to phenol.

In another kind of reaction, an aromatic aldehyde ArCHO or ketone ArCOR' is converted to a phenol ArOH on treatment with alkaline H_2O_2,[258] but there must be an OH or NH_2 group in the ortho or para position. This is called the *Dakin reaction*[59] The mechanism may be similar to that of the Baeyer-Villiger reaction (18-19):[260]



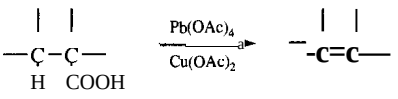
The intermediate **22** has been isolated.[261] The reaction has been performed on aromatic aldehydes with an alkoxy group in the ring, and no OH or NH_2. In this case acidic H_2O_2 was used.[262]

OS I, 159, 385, 392, 543; **II,** 135, 428; **III,** 334, 420, 740, 791, 820, 822; V, 617, 810. Also see OS I, 149; **III,** 759.

19-12 *Oxidative Decarboxylation*

$$RCOOH \xrightarrow{Pb(OAc)_4} ROAc$$

ACETOXY-DE-CARBOXY-SUBSTITUTION



HYDRO-CARBOXYL-ELIMINATION

Carboxylic acids can be decarboxylated[263] with lead tetraacetate to give a variety of products, among them the ester ROAc (formed by replacement of COOH by an acetoxy group), the alkane RH (see 12-38), and, if α, (3 hydrogen is present, the alkene formed by elimination of H and COOH, as well as numerous other products arising from rearrangements, internal cyclizations,[264] and reactions with solvent molecules. When R is tertiary, the chief product is usually the alkene, which is often obtained in good yield. High yields of alkenes can also be obtained when R is primary or secondary, in this case by the use of Cu(OAc)2 along with the $Pb(OAc)_4$.[265] In the absence of $Cu(OAc)_2$, primary acids give mostly alkanes (though yields are generally low) and secondary acids may give carboxylic esters or alkenes. Carboxylic esters have been obtained in good yields from some secondary acids, from β,γ-unsaturated acids, and from acids in which R is a benzylic group. Other oxidizing agents,[266] including Co(III), Ag(II), Mn(III), and Ce(IV), have also been used to effect oxidative decarboxylation.[267]

The mechanism with lead tetraacetate is generally accepted to be of the free-radical type.[268] First, there is an interchange of ester groups:

$$Pb(OAc)_4 + RCOOH \longrightarrow \underset{\textbf{23}}{Pb(OAc)_3OCOR} \quad \text{or} \quad \underset{\textbf{24}}{Pb(OAc)_2(OCOR)_2}$$

There follows a free-radical chain mechanism (shown for 23 and 24 and other lead esters can behave similarly)

Initiation

$$Pb(OAc)_3OCOR \longrightarrow \cdot Pb(OAc)_3 + R\cdot + CO_2$$

(23)

$$R\cdot + Pb(OAc)_3OCOR \longrightarrow R^+ + \cdot Pb(OAc)_2OCOR + OAc^-$$

Propagation

$$\cdot Pb(OAc)_2OCOR \longrightarrow Pb(OAc)_2 + R^- + CO_2$$

Products can then be formed either from $R\cdot$ or R^+. Primary $R\cdot$ abstract H from solvent molecules to give RH. The R^+ group can lose H^+ to give an alkene, react with HOAc to give the carboxylic ester, react with solvent molecules or with another functional group in the same molecule, or rearrange, thus accounting for the large number of possible products. The $R\cdot$ can also dimerize to give RR. The effect of Cu^{2+} ions[269] is to oxidize the radicals to alkenes, thus producing good yields of alkenes from primary and secondary substrates. The Cu^{2+} ion has no effect on tertiary radicals, because these are efficiently oxidized to alkenes by lead tetraacetate.

$$-\overset{|}{\underset{|}{CH-\dot{C}}}- + Cu^{2+} \longrightarrow -\overset{|}{\underset{|}{C=C}}- + H^+ + Cu^+$$

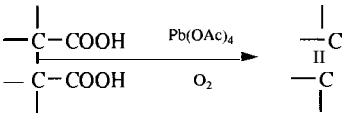
In another type of oxidative decarboxylation, arylacetic acids can be oxidized to aldehydes with one less carbon ($ArCH_2COOH \rightarrow ArCHO$) by tetrabutylammonium periodate.[270] Simple aliphatic carboxylic acids were converted to nitriles with one

less carbon ($RCH_2COOH \rightarrow RC{\equiv}N$) by treatment with trifluoroacetic anhydride and $NaNO_2$ in F_3CCOOH.[271]

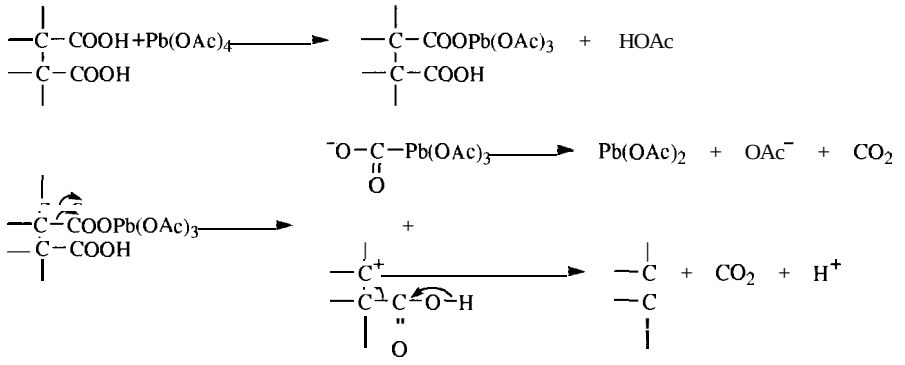
See also 14-37.

19-13 *Bisdecarboxylation*

DICARBOXY-ELIMINATION

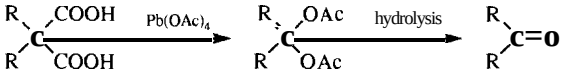


Compounds containing carboxyl groups on adjacent carbons (succinic acid derivatives) can be bisdecarboxylated with lead tetraacetate in the presence of O_2.[263] The reaction is of wide scope. The elimination is stereoselective, but not stereospecific (both *meso-* and *dl-* 2,3-diphenylsuccinic acid gave *trans-* stilbene);[272] a concerted mechanism is thus unlikely. The following mechanism is not inconsistent with the data:



though a free-radical mechanism seems to hold in some cases. Bisdecarboxylation of succinic acid derivatives to give alkenes[273] has also been carried out by other methods, including treatment of the corresponding anhydrides with nickel, iron, or rhodium complexes,[274] by decomposition of the corresponding bis- peroxyesters,[275] and electrolytically.[276]

Compounds containing geminal carboxyl groups (disubstituted malonic acid derivatives) can also be bisdecarboxylated with lead tetraacetate,[277] *gem*-diacetates (acylals) being produced, which are easily hydrolyzable to ketones:[278]



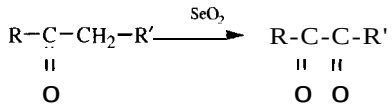
A related reaction involves α-substituted aryl nitriles having a sufficiently acidic a hydrogen, which can be converted to ketones by oxidation with air under phase-transfer conditions.[279] The nitrile is added to NaOH in benzene or Me_2SO containing a catalytic amount of triethylbenzylammonium chloride (TEBA).[280] This

reaction could not be applied to aliphatic nitriles, but an indirect method for achieving this conversion is given in 19-50. α-Dialkylamino nitriles can be converted to ketones, $R_2C(NMe_2)CN \rightarrow R_2C{=}O$, by hydrolysis with $CuSO_4$ in aqueous methanol[281] or by autoxidation in the presence of *t*-BuOK.[282]

C. *Reactions Involving Replacement of Hydrogen by Oxygen*

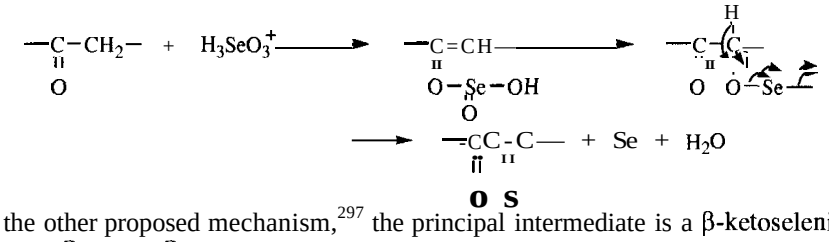
19-14 *Oxidation of Methylene to Carbonyl*

OXO-DE-DIHYDRO-BISUBSTITUTION



Methyl or methylene groups a to a carbonyl can be oxidized with selenium dioxide to give, respectively, α-keto aldehydes and α-diketones.[283] The reaction can also be carried out a to an aromatic ring or to a double bond, though in the latter case, hydroxylation (see 14-4) is the more common result. Although SeO_2 is the reagent most often used, the reaction has also been carried out with N_2O_3 and other oxidizing agents.[284] Substrates most easily oxidized contain two aryl groups on CH_2, and these substrates can be oxidized with many oxidizing agents (see 19-11). Monoaryl alkanes have been oxidized to alkyl aryl ketones with several oxidizing agents, including CrO_3–acetic acid,[285] the Jones reagent,[286] pyridinium chlorochromate,[287] and DDQ,[288] CrO_2Cl_2 with ultrasound,[289] $KMnO_4$ on alumina with microwave irradiation,[290] manganese salen / PhIO (salen= 1,2-bis(salicyledeneamino)ethene (2 —),[291] as well as with SeO_2. Alkenes of the form $C{=}C{-}CH_2$ have been oxidized to α,β-unsaturated ketones[292] by sodium dichromate in HOAc–Ac_2O, by *t*-BuOOH and chromium compounds,[293] as well as electrolytically.[294] Methyl ketones, RCOMe, react with ammonium peroxydisulfate, $(NH_4)_2S_2O_8$, and a catalytic amount of diphenyl diselenide in MeOH to give a-keto acetals, $RCOCH(OMe_2)$.[295]

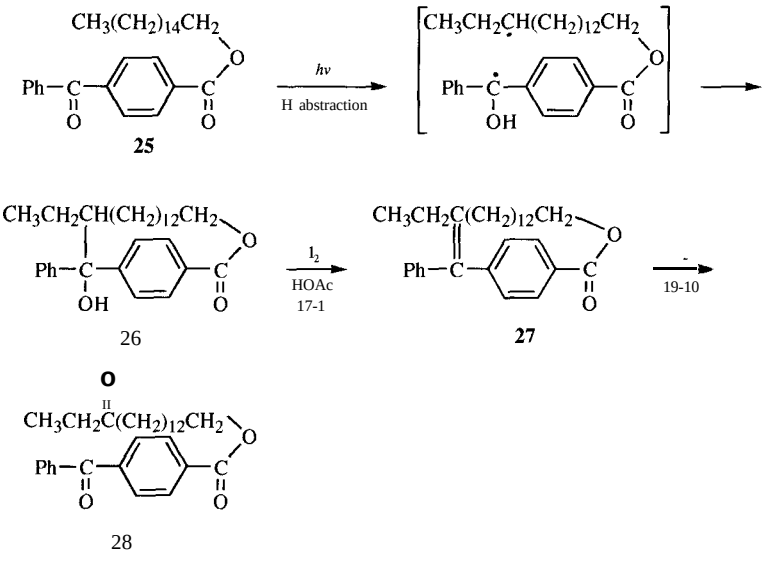
Two mechanisms have been suggested for the reaction with SeO_2. One of these involves a selenate ester of the enol:[296]



In the other proposed mechanism,[297] the principal intermediate is a β-ketoseleninic acid, $-\overset{O}{\overset{\|}{C}}-CH-Se-OH$, and a selenate ester is not involved.

It has proved possible to convert CH_2 to C=O groups, even if they are not near any functional groups, indirectly, by the remote oxidation method of Breslow (see

19-2).[44] In a typical example, the keto ester (25) was irradiated to give the hydroxy lactone (26), which was dehydrated to 27. Ozonolysis of 27 gave the diketo ester



28, in which the C-14 CH_2 group of 25 has been oxidized to a C=O group.[298] The reaction was not completely regioselective: 28 comprised ~60% of the product, with the remainder consisting of other compounds in which the keto group was located at C-12, C-15, and other positions along the carbon chain. Greater regioselectivity was achieved when the aromatic portion was connected to the chain at two positions.[299] In the method so far described, the reaction takes place because one portion of a molecule (the benzophenone moiety) abstracts hydrogen from another portion of the same molecule, that is, the two portions are connected by a series of covalent bonds. However, the reaction can also be carried out where the two reacting centers are actually in different molecules, providing the two molecules are held together by hydrogen bonding. For example, one of the CH_2 groups of hexadecanol monosuccinate, $CH_3(CH_2)_{14}CH_2OCOCH_2CH_2COOH$, was oxidized to a C=O group by applying the above procedure to a mixture of it and benzophenone-4-carboxylic acid *p*-$PhCOC_6H_4COOH$ in CCl_4.[300]

Other remote oxidations[301] have also been reported. Among these are conversion of aryl ketones, $ArCO(CH_2)_3R$, to 1,4-diketones, $ArCO(CH_2)_2COR$, by photoirradiation in the presence of such oxidizing agents as $K_2Cr_2O_7$ or $KMnO_4$,[302] and conversion of alkyl ketones, $RCO(CH_2)_3R'$, to 1,3- and 1,4-diketones with $Na_2S_2O_8$ and $FeSO_4$.[303] 2-Octanol was oxidized to give 2-propyl-5-methyl γ-butyrolactone with lead tetraacetate in a CO atmosphere.[304]

It is possible to perform the conversion $CH_2 \rightarrow C{=}O$ on an alkane, with no functional groups at all, though the most success has been achieved with substrates in which all CH_2 groups are equivalent, such as unsubstituted cycloalkanes. One method uses H_2O_2 and bis(picolinato)iron(II). With this method, cyclohexane was converted with 72% efficiency to give 95% cyclohexanone and 5% cyclohexanol.[305]

This was also accomplished with $BaRu(O)_2(OH)_3$.[306] The same type of conversion, with lower yields (20-30%), has been achieved with the *Gif system*.[307] There are several variations. One consists of pyridine-acetic acid, with H_2O_2 as oxidizing agent and tris(picolinato)iron(III) as catalyst.[308] Other Gif systems use O_2 as oxidizing agent and zinc as a reductant.[309] The selectivity of the Gif systems toward alkyl carbons is $CH_2 > CH \geq CH_3$, which is unusual, and shows that a simple free-radical mechanism (see p. 899) is not involved.[310] Another reagent that can oxidize the CH_2 of an alkane is methyl(trifluoromethyl)dioxirane, but this produces CH—OH more often than C=O (see **14-4**).[311]

OS I, 266; **II,** 509; **III,** 1, 420, 438; IV, 189, 229, 579; VI, 48; IX, 396. Also see OS IV, 23.

19-15 *Oxidation of Methylene to OH, O_2CR, or OR*

HYDROXY (OR ALKOXY) -DE-DIHYDRO-BISUBSTITUTION

$$R-\underset{\underset{0}{\|}}{C}-CH_2-R' \longrightarrow R-\underset{\underset{0}{\|}}{C}-\underset{\underset{OH}{|}}{CH}-R'$$

Methyl or methylene groups α to a carbonyl can be oxidized to give α-hydroxy ketones, aldehydes or carboxylic acid derivatives. The reaction of tetradecanoic acid with the α-oxidase from *Pisum sativum*, in the presence of molecular oxygen, gives 2(*R*)-hydoxytetradecanoic acid with high asymmetric induction.[312] α-Hydroxyketones can be generated from silyl enol ethers with a catalytic amount of $MeReO_3$ and H_2O_2.[313] Methanesulfonic acid and CuO converts ketones to α-mesyloxy (MsO—) ketones[314] and PhI(OH)OTs converts ketones to α-toxyloxy (OTs) ketones.[315] The α′-position of α,β-unsaturated ketones can be selectively oxidized.[316]

Benzylic methylene groups can also be oxidized. Typical reagents include manganese salen and PhIO[317] or peroxides.[318] α-Hydroxy ethers are also generated by reaction of this regents with ethers.[319] Simple alkanes can be converted to esters with dialkyloxiranes. Cyclohexane was converted to cyclohexyl trifiuoroacetate with di(trifluoromethyl) dioxirane and trifluoroacetic anhydride[320] and also with $RuCl_3$/$MeCO_3H$/CF_3CO_2H.[321] Dimethyl dioxirane converts alkanes to alcohols in some cases.

Allylic methylene groups can be converted to ester (—CHOCOR) derivatives in a similar manner using copper triflate.[323] Cupric acetate has also been used[324] as well as Cu_2O.[325] Acyl peroxides have been used as well.[326]

19-16 *Oxidation of Arylmethanes*

OXO-DE-DIHYDRO-BISUBSTITUTION

$$ArCH_3 \xrightarrow{CrO_2Cl_2} ArCHO$$

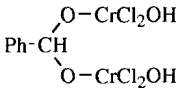
Methyl groups on an aromatic ring can be oxidized to the aldehyde stage by several oxidizing agents. The reaction is a special case of **19-14.** When the reagent is

chromyl chloride (CrO_2Cl_2), the reaction is called the *Étard reaction*[327] and the yields are high.[328] Another oxidizing agent is a mixture of CrO_3 and Ac_2O. In this case, the reaction stops at the aldehyde stage because the initial product is ArCH(OAc)2 (an acylal), which is resistant to further oxidation. Hydrolysis of the acylal gives the aldehyde.

Among other oxidizing agents[329] that have been used to accomplish the conversion of $ArCH_3$ to ArCHO are ceric ammonium nitrate,[330] ceric trifluoroacetate,[331] and silver(II) oxide.[332] Oxidation of $ArCH_3$ to carboxylic acids is considered at **19-11.**

Conversion of $ArCH_3$ to ArCHO can also be achieved indirectly by bromination to give $ArCHBr_2$ (14-1), followed by hydrolysis (10-2).

The mechanism of the Étard reaction is not completely known.[333] An insoluble complex is formed on addition of the reagents, which is hydrolyzed to the aldehyde. The complex is probably a kind of acylal, but what the structure is not fully settled, though many proposals have been made as to its structure and as to how it is



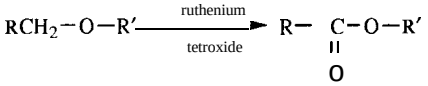
29

hydrolyzed. It is known that $ArCH_2Cl$ is not an intermediate (see **19-19),** since it reacts only very slowly with chromyl chloride. Magnetic susceptibility measurements[334] indicate that the complex from toluene is 29, a structure first proposed by Étard. According to this proposal the reaction stops after only two hydrogens have been replaced because of the insolubility of 29. There is a disagreement on how 29 is formed, assuming that the complex has this structure. Both an ionic[335] and a free-radical[336] process have been proposed. An entirely different structure for the complex was proposed by Nenitzescu and co-workers.[337] On the basis of ESR studies they proposed that the complex is $PhCH_2OCrCl_2OCrOCl_2OH$, which is isomeric with 29. However, this view has been challenged by Wiberg and Eisenthal,[336] who interpret the ESR result as being in accord with 29. Still another proposal is that the complex is composed of benzaldehyde coordinated with reduced chromyl chloride.[338]

OS **II,** 441; **III,** 641; IV, 31,713.

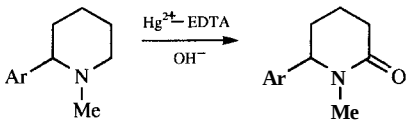
19-17 *Oxidation of Ethers to Carboxylic Esters and Related Reactions*

OXO-DE-DIHYDRO-BISUBSTITUTION



Ethers in which at least one group is primary alkyl can be oxidized to the corresponding carboxylic esters in high yields with ruthenium tetroxide.[339] Molecular oxygen with a binuclear copper (II) complex[340] or $PdCl_2/CuCl_2/CO$[341] also converts ethers to esters. Cyclic ethers give lactones.[342] The reaction, a special case of **19-14,**

has also been accomplished with CrO_3 in sulfuric acid,[343] and with benzyltriethylammonium permanganate.[344]



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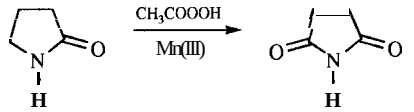
EDTA = ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid

In a similar reaction, tertiary amines are converted to amides[345] and cyclic tertiary amines (e.g., 30) can be converted to lactams by oxidation with $Hg^{(II)}$–EDTA complex in basic solution.[346] Lactams,

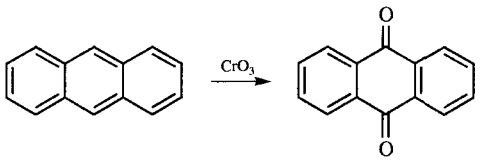


31

which need not be N-substituted (e.g., 31), can be converted to cyclic imides by oxidation with a hydroperoxide or peroxyacid and an Mn(II) or Mn(III) salt.[347]

19-18 *Oxidation of Aromatic Hydrocarbons to Quinones*

ARENE-QUINONE TRANSFORMATION



Condensed aromatic systems (including naphthalenes) can be directly oxidized to quinones by various oxidizing agents.[348] Yields are generally not high, though good yields have been reported with ceric ammonium sulfate.[349] Benzene cannot be so oxidized by strong oxidizing agents but can be electrolytically oxidized to benzoquinone.[350]

OS IV, 698, 757. Also see OS II, 554.

19-19 *Oxidation of Primary Halides and Esters of Primary Alcohols to Aldehydes*[351]

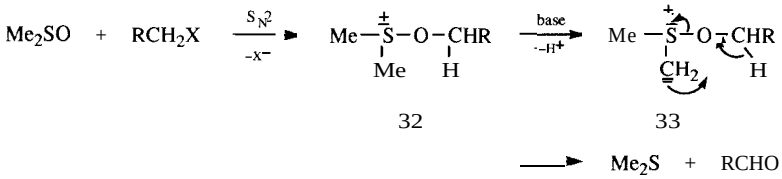
OXO-DE-HYDRO,HALO-BISUBSTITUTION

$$RCH_2Cl \xrightarrow{Me_2SO} RCHO$$

Primary alkyl halides (chlorides, bromides, and iodides) can be oxidized to aldehydes easily and in good yields with DMSO.[352] Tosyl esters of primary alcohols can be similarly converted to aldehydes,[353] and epoxides[354] give α-hydroxy ketones

or aldehydes.[355] The reaction with tosyl esters is an indirect way of oxidizing primary alcohols to aldehydes (19-3).

The mechanism of these DMSO oxidations is probably as follows:[356]



32 33

though in some cases the base abstracts a proton directly from the carbon being oxidized, in which case the ylid 33 is not an intermediate. Alkoxysulfonium salts (32) have been isolated.[357] This mechanism predicts that secondary compounds should be oxidizable to ketones, and this is the case. In a related procedure for the oxidation of alcohols, the intermediate 32[358] is formed without the use of DMSO by treating the substrate with a complex generated from chlorine or NCS and dimethyl sulfide.[359]

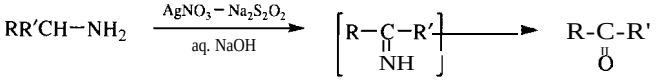
Another way to oxidize primary alkyl halides to aldehydes is by the use of hexamethylenetetramine followed by water. However, this reaction, called the *Sommelet reaction*,[360] is limited to benzylic halides. The reaction is seldom useful when the R in RCH_2Cl is alkyl. The first part of the reaction is conversion to the amine $ArCH_2NH_2$, which can be isolated. Reaction of the amine with excess hexamethylenetetramine gives the aldehyde. It is this last step that is the actual Sommelet reaction, though the entire process can be conducted without isolation of intermediates. Once the amine is formed, it is converted to an imine ($ArCH_2N{=}CH_2$) with formaldehyde liberated from the reagent. The key step then follows: Transfer of hydrogen from another mole of the arylamine to the imine. This last imine is then hydrolyzed by water to the aldehyde. Alternatively, the benzylamine may transfer hydrogen directly to hexamethylenetetramine.

Another reagent that convert benzylic halides to aldehydes is pyridine followed by *p*-nitrosodimethylaniline and then water, called the *Kröhnke reaction.* Primary halides and tosylates have been oxidized to aldehydes by trimethylamine N-oxide,[361] and by pyridine N-oxide with microwave irradiation.[362]

OS II, 336: III, 811; IV, 690, 918, 932; V, 242, 668, 825, 852, 872. Also see OS V, 689; VI, 218.

19-20 *Oxidation of Amines or Nitro Compounds to Aldehydes, Ketones, or Dihalides*

OXO-DE-HYDRO,AMINO-BISUBSTITUTION (OVERALL TRANSFORMATION)



Primary aliphatic amines can be oxidized to aldehydes or ketones.[363] Other reagents used[364] have been *N*-bromoacetamide[365] (for benzylic amines), 3,5-di-*tert*-butyl-1,2-benzoquinone,[366] and aqueous NaOCl with phase-transfer catalysts.[367] Benzylic

amine salts $PhCHRNR'_2H^+Cl^-$ (R,R' =H or alkyl) give benzaldehydes or aryl ketones when heated in Me_2SO.[368] Several indirect methods for achieving the conversion $RR'CHNH_2 \rightarrow RR'C{=}O$ (R' = alkyl, aryl, or H) have been reported.[369]

Primary, secondary, and tertiary aliphatic amines have been cleaved to give aldehydes, ketones, or carboxylic acids with aqueous bromine[370] and with neutral permanganate.[371] The other product of this reaction is the amine with one less alkyl group. In a different type of procedure, primary alkyl primary amines can be converted to *gem*-dihalides, $RCH_2NH_2 \rightarrow RCHX_2$ (X = Br or Cl), by treatment with an alkyl nitrite and the anhydrous copper(I) halide.[372]

Primary and secondary aliphatic nitro compounds have been oxidized to aldehydes and ketones, respectively ($RR'CHNO_2 \rightarrow RR'C{=}O$) with sodium chlorite under phase-transfer conditions,[373] TPAP,[374] Oxone®,[375] as well as with other reagents.[376]

19-21 *Oxidation of Primary Alcohols to Carboxylic Acids or Carboxylic Esters*

OXO-DE-DIHYDRO-BISUBSTITUTION

$$RCH_2OH \xrightarrow{CrO_3} RCOOH$$

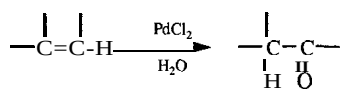
Primary alcohols can be oxidized to carboxylic acids by many strong oxidizing agents including chromic acid, permanganate,[377] and nitric acid.[378] Other reagents include H_5IO_6/CrO_3.[379] The reaction can be looked on as a combination of **19-3** and **14-6.** When acidic conditions are used, a considerable amount of carboxylic ester $RCOOCH_2R$ is often isolated, though this is probably not formed by a combination of the acid with unreacted alcohol, but by a combination of intermediate aldehyde with unreacted alcohol to give an acetal or hemiacetal, which is oxidized to the ester.[380] The $RCOOCH_2R$ compound can be made the main product by treating the alcohol with (1) $Ru_3(CO)_{12}$ and diphenylacetylene, or with a complex formed from these two reagents;[381] (2) Pd salts and CCl_4 in the presence of K_2CO_3;[382] or (3) $RuH_2(PPh_3)_4$.[383] Primary alcohols RCH_2OH can be directly oxidized to acyl fluorides RCOF with cesium fluoroxysulfate.[384] Lactones can be prepared by oxidizing diols in which at least one OH is primary,[385] and addition of a chiral additive such as sparteine leads to lactones with high asymmetric induction.[386]

Primary alkyl ethers can be selectively cleaved to carboxylic acids by aqueous Br_2 ($RCH_2OR' \rightarrow RCOOH$).[387] Aldehydes RCHO can be directly converted to carboxylic esters RCOOR' by treatment with Br_2 in the presence of an alcohol.[388]

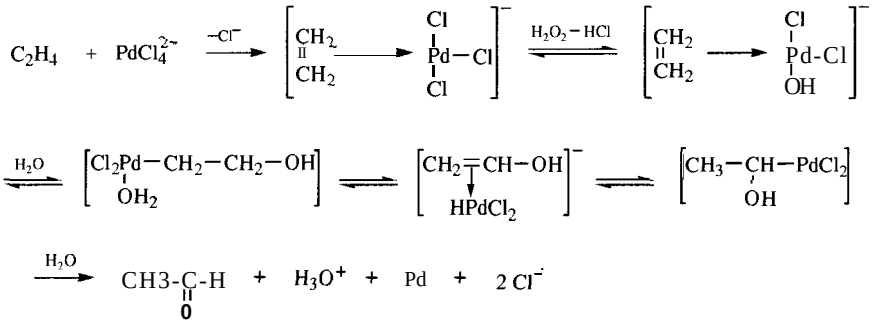
OS I, 138, 168; **IV,** 499, 677; V, 580; **VII,** 406; IX, 462. Also see OS **III,** 745.

19-22 *Oxidation of Alkenes to Aldehydes and Ketones*

1/OXO-(1,2/HYDRO)-*MIGRO*-ATTACHMENT



Monosubstituted and 1,2-disubstituted alkenes can be oxidized to aldehydes and ketones by palladium chloride and similar salts of noble metals.[389] 1,1-Disubstituted alkenes generally give poor results. The reaction is used industrially to prepare acetaldehyde from ethylene (the *Wacker process),* but it is also suitable for laboratory preparations. The palladium chloride is reduced to palladium. Because the reagent is expensive, the reaction is usually carried out with a co-oxidant, most often $CuCl_2$, whose function is to reoxidize the Pd to Pd(II). The $CuCl_2$ is reduced to Cu(I), which itself is reoxidized to Cu(II) by air, so that atmospheric oxygen is the only oxidizing agent actually used up. Many other co-oxidants have been tried, among them O_3, Fe^{3+}, and PbO_2. /er/-Butylhydroperoxide in bromoperfluorooctane/benzene oxidizes styrene to acetophenone is a Wacker-type process.[390] The principal product is an aldehyde only from ethylene: With other alkenes Markovnikov's rule is followed, and ketones are formed predominantly. The generally accepted mechanism involves *n* complexes of palladium.[391]



This mechanism accounts for the fact, established by deuterium labeling, that the four hydrogens of the acetaldehyde all come from the original ethylene and none from the solvent.

Similar reactions have been carried out with other oxidizing agents. An example involving migration of an alkyl group instead of hydrogen is oxidation of $Me_2C{=}CMe_2$ with peroxytrifluoroacetic acid-boron trifluoride to give Me_3COMe (pinacolone).[392] This reaction consists of epoxidation (15-48) followed by pinacol rearrangement of the epoxide (18-2). A migration is also involved in the conversion of $ArCH{=}CHCH_3$ to $ArCH(CH_3)CHO$ by treatment with $I_2{-}Ag_2O$ in aqueous dioxane.[393]

Other reagents used include $Pb(OAc)_4{-}F_3CCOOH$[394] (e.g., $PhCH{=}CH_2 \rightarrow PhCH_2CHO$), H_2O_2 and a Pd catalyst,[395] $H_2O{-}PdCl_2$—polyethylene glycol,[396] $CrO_3{-}H_2SO_4{-}Hg(II)$ salts,[397] and $Hg(OAc)_2$ followed by $PdCl_2$.[398] The reaction has also been accomplished electrochemically.[399]

Alkenes have also been converted to more highly oxidized products. Examples are (1) Treatment with $KMnO_4$ in aqueous acetone containing acetic acid gives α-hydroxy ketones.[400] (2) 1,2-Disubstituted and trisubstituted alkenes give α-chloro ketones when oxidized with chromyl chloride in acetone: RCH=CR'R"—* RCOCClR'R".[401] (3) α-Iodo ketones can be prepared by treating alkenes with

bis(*s*-collidine)iodine(I) tetrafluoroborate.[402] (4) The $KMnO_4$ in acetic anhydride oxidizes large-ring cycloalkenes to 1,2-diketones.[403]

Enol ethers are oxidized to carboxylic esters ($RCH{=}CHOR' \rightarrow RCH_2COOR'$) with pyridinium chlorochromate[404] and enamines to α-amino ketones ($R^1CH{=}CR_2NR \rightarrow R^1COCR_2NR$) with N-sulfonyloxaziridines.[405] Enamines $R^1R^4C{=}CR^2NR_2^3$ ($R^4 \neq H$) do not give these products, but lose the amino group to give α-hydroxy ketones, $R^1R^4C(OH)COR^2$.[405] Carboxylic acids can be prepared from terminal alkynes ($RC{\equiv}CH \rightarrow RCH_2COOH$) by conversion of the alkyne to its phenylthio ether ($RC{\equiv}CSPh$) and treatment of this with $HgSO_4$ in $HOAc{-}H_2SO_4$.[406]

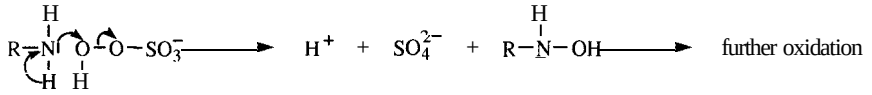
OS VI, 1028; VII, 137; VIII, 208.

19-23 *Oxidation of Amines to Nitroso Compounds and Hydroxylamines*

N-OXO-DE-DIHYDRO-BISUBSTITUTION

$$ArNH_2 \xrightarrow{H_2SO_5} Ar{-}N{=}O$$

Primary aromatic amines can be oxidized[407] to nitroso compounds. Most often the conversion is accomplished by Caro's acid (H_2SO_5) or with H_2O_2 in HOAc.[408] Hydroxylamines, which are probably intermediates in most cases, can sometimes be isolated, but under the reaction conditions are generally oxidized to the nitroso compounds. Primary aliphatic amines can be oxidized in this manner, but the nitroso compound is stable only if there is no α hydrogen. If there is an α hydrogen, the compound tautomerizes to the oxime.[409] Among the reagents used for this oxidation are sodium perborate[410] and $Na_2WO_4{-}H_2O_2$.[411] The mechanism with H_2SO_5 has been postulated to be an example of category 5 (p. 1509).[412]



Secondary amines (R_2NH) are oxidized to hydroxylamines (R_2NHOH), which are resistant to further oxidation, by dimethyldioxirane[413] and by benzoyl peroxide and Na_2HPO_4.[414]

OS III, 334; VIII, 93.

19-24 *Oxidation of Primary Amines, Oximes, Azides, Isocyanates, or Nitroso Compounds to Nitro Compounds*

$$R_3CNH_2 \xrightarrow{KMnO_4} R_3CNO_2$$

$$R_2C{=}NOH \xrightarrow{F_3CCOOOH} R_2CHNO_2$$

Tertiary alkyl primary amines can be oxidized to nitro compounds in excellent yields with $KMnO_4$.[415] This type of nitro compound is not easily prepared in other ways.

All classes of primary amine (including primary, secondary, and tertiary alkyl as well as aryl) are oxidized to nitro compounds in high yields with dimethyl dioxirane.[416] Other reagents that oxidize various types of primary amines to nitro compounds are dry ozone,[417] various peroxyacids,[418] $MeReO_3/H_2O_2$,[419] Oxone®,[420] *tert*-butyl hydroperoxide in the presence of certain molybdenum and vanadium compounds,[421] and sodium perborate.[422]

Dimethyl dioxirane in wet acetone oxidizes isocyanates to nitro compounds ($RNCO \rightarrow RNO_2$).[423] Oximes can be oxidized to nitro compounds with peroxytrifluoroacetic acid, or Oxone®,[424] sodium perborate,[425] among other ways.[415] Primary and secondary alkyl azides have been converted to nitro compounds by treatment with Ph_3P followed by ozone.[426] Aromatic nitroso compounds are easily oxidized to nitro compounds by many oxidizing agents.[427]

OS **III,** 334; V, 367, 845; VI, 803.

19-25 *Oxidation of Thiols and Other Sulfur Compounds to Sulfonic Acids*

THIOL-SULFONIC ACID OXIDATION

$$RSH \xrightarrow{HNO_3} RSO3H$$

Thiols, sulfoxides, sulfones, disulfides,[428] and other sulfur compounds can be oxidized to sulfonic acids with many oxidizing agents, though for synthetic purposes the reaction is most important for thiols.[429] Among oxidizing agents used are boiling nitric acid, barium permanganate, and dimethyl dioxirane.[430] Autoxidation (oxidation by atmospheric oxygen) can be accomplished in basic solution.[431] Oxidation of thiols with chlorine and water gives sulfonyl chlorides directly.[432] Thiols can also be oxidized to disulfides **(19-32).**

OS **II,** 471; **III,** 226. Also see OS V, 1070.

D. *Reactions in Which Oxygen Is Added to the Substrate*

19-26 *The Oxidation of Alkynes to α-Diketones*

DIOXO-BIADDITION

$$R-C\equiv C-R' \xrightarrow[\text{tetroxide}]{\text{ruthenium}} R-\underset{\underset{O}{\|}}{C}-\underset{\underset{O}{\|}}{C}-R'$$

Internal alkynes have been oxidized[433] to α-diketones by several oxidizing agents,[434] including neutral $KMnO_4$,[435] bis(trifluoroacetoxy)iodobenzene,[436] $NaIO_4$–RuO_2,[437] I_2–Me_2SO,[438] $MeReO_3/H_2O_2$,[439] as well as by electrooxidation.[440] Ozone generally oxidizes triple-bond compounds to carboxylic acids (19-9), but ot-diketones are sometimes obtained instead. The SeO_2 compound with a small amount of H_2SO_4 oxidizes alkynes to ot-diketones as well as arylacetylenes to ot-keto acids ($ArC\equiv CH \rightarrow ArCOCOOH$).[441]

19-27 *Oxidation of Tertiary Amines to Amine Oxides*

N-OXYGEN-ATTACHMENT

$$R_3N \xrightarrow{H_2O_2} R_3\overset{+}{N}-\overset{-}{O}$$

Tertiary amines can be converted to amine oxides by oxidation. Hydrogen peroxide is often used, but peroxyacids are also important reagents for this purpose. Pyridine and its derivatives are oxidized only by peroxyacids.[442] In the attack by hydrogen peroxide there is first formed a trialkylammonium peroxide, a hydrogen-bonded complex represented as $R_3N{\cdot}H_2O_2$, which can be isolated.[443] The decomposition of this complex probably involves an attack by the OH^+ moiety of the H_2O_2. Oxidation with Caro's acid has been shown to proceed in this manner:[444]

$$R_3N \longrightarrow \underset{H}{O}-O-SO_3H \longrightarrow HSO_4^- + R_3\overset{+}{N}-OH \xrightarrow{-H^+} R_3\overset{+}{N}-O^-$$

This mechanism is the same as that of **19-23;** the products differ only because tertiary amine oxides cannot be further oxidized. The mechanism with other peroxyacids is probably the same. Racemic β-hydroxy tertiary amines have been resolved by oxidizing them with *t*-BuOOH and a chiral catalyst one enantiomer reacts faster than the other.[445] This kinetic resolution gives products with enantiomeric excesses of > 90%.

It is noted that azo compounds can be oxidized to azoxy compounds by peroxyacids[446] or by hydroperoxides and molybdenum complexes.[447]

OS **IV,** 612, 704, 828; **VI,** 342, 501; **VIII,** 87.

19-28 *Oxidation of Thioethers to Sulfoxides and Sulfones*

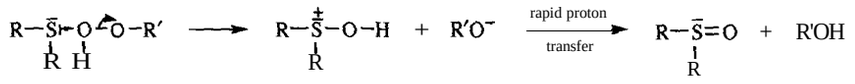
S-OXYGEN-ATTACHMENT

$$R-\overset{-}{S}-R \xrightarrow{H_2O_2} R-\overset{-}{\underset{\underset{O}{\|}}{S}}-R \xrightarrow{KMnO_4} R-\overset{O}{\underset{O}{\overset{\|}{\underset{\|}{S}}}}-R$$

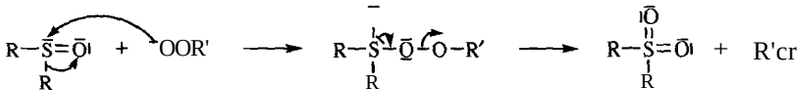
Thioethers can be oxidized to sulfoxides by 1 mol of 30% H_2O_2 or by many other oxidizing agents,[448] including $NaIO_4$,[449] dioxiranes,[450] $MeReO_3/H_2O_2$,[450] O_2 and a ceric ammonium nitrate catalyst,[452] sodium perborate,[422] and peroxyacids.[453] Sulfoxides can be further oxidized to sulfones by another mole of H_2O_2, $KMnO_4$, sodium perborate, or a number of other agents. If enough oxidizing agent is present, thioethers can be directly converted to sulfones without isolation of the sulfoxides.[454] These reactions give high yields, and many functional groups do not interfere.[455] As with tertiary amines **(19-27),** racemic thioethers can be kinetically resolved by oxidation to sulfoxides with an optically active reagent, and this has often been done.[456] In addition, the use of chiral additives in conjunction with various oxidizing agents leads to chiral nonracemic sulfoxide with good-to-excellent asymmetric induction.[457] Chiral sulfur reagents are also known.[458]

Selenides (R_2Se) can be oxidized to selenoxides and selenones.[459] It is possible to oxidize a thioether to a sulfoxide in the presence of an alcohol moiety using MnO_2/HCl.[460]

When the oxidizing agent is a peroxide, the mechanism[461] of oxidation to the sulfoxide is similar to that of 19-27.[462]



The second oxidation, which is normally slower than the first[463] (which is why sulfoxides are so easily isolable), has the same mechanism in neutral or acid solution, but in basic solution it has been shown that the conjugate base of the peroxy compound ($R'OO^-$) also attacks the SO group as a nucleophile:[464]

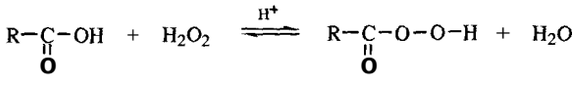


Thioethers can be oxidized directly to the sulfone by treatment with excess NaOCl[465] tetramethylperruthenate (TPAP,)[466] or with $NaIO_4$/catalytic $RuCl_3$.[467]

OS V, 791; VI, 403, 404, 482; VII, 453, 491; VIII, 464, 543; IX, 63. Also see OS V, 723; VI, 23.

19-29 *Oxidation of Carboxylic Acids to Peroxy Acids*

PEROXY-DE-HYDROXY-SUBSTITUTION

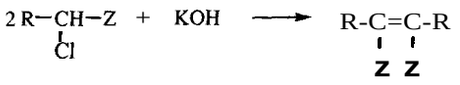


The oxidation of carboxylic acids with H_2O_2 and an acid catalyst is the best general method for the preparation of peroxy acids.[468] A mixture of $Me_2C(OMe)OOH$ and DCC has also been used.[469] The most common catalyst for aliphatic R is concentrated sulfuric acid. The reaction is an equilibrium and is driven to the right by removal of water or by the use of excess reagents. For aromatic R the best catalyst is methanesulfonic acid, which is also used as the solvent.

E. ***Oxidative*** *Coupling*

19-30 *Coupling Involving Carbanions*

DE-HYDRO,CHLORO-COUPLING



Alkyl halides with an electron-withdrawing group on the halogen-bearing carbon can be dimerized to alkenes by treatment with bases. The Z group may be nitro, aryl,

and so on. It is likely that in most cases the mechanism[470] involves nucleophilic substitution followed by elimination[471] (illustrated for benzyl chloride):

$$PhCH_2Cl \xrightarrow{base} PhCHCl^- \xrightarrow[S_N]{PhCH_2Cl} PhCHClCH_2Ph \xrightarrow{-HCl} PhCH{=}CHPh$$

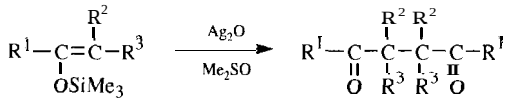
α,α-Dibromotoluenes ($ArCHBr_2$) give tolanes ($ArC{\equiv}CAr$), by debromination of the intermediates $ArCBr{=}CBrAr$.[472] In a related reaction, diarylmethane dihalides (AR_2CX_2) have been dimerized to tetraaryl alkenes ($Ar_2C{=}CAr_2$) with copper,[473] and with iron(II) oxalate dihydrate.[474]

A somewhat different type of coupling is observed when salts of P-keto esters, arylacetonitriles ($ArCH_2CN$), and other compounds of the form ZCH_2Z' are treated with an oxidizing agent such as iodine,[475] or Cu(II) salts.[476] Arylmethanesulfonyl chlorides ($ArCH_2SO_2Cl$) couple to give $ArCH{=}CHAr$ when treated with Et_3N.[477]

OS **II,** 273; **IV,** 372, 869, 914; **VIII,** 298. Also see OS I, 46; **IV,** 877.

19-31 *Dimerization of Silyl Enol Ethers or of Lithium Enolates*

3/*O*-DE-TRIMETHYLSILYL-1/*C*-COUPLING



34

Silyl enol ethers can be dimerized to symmetrical 1,4-diketones by treatment with Ag_2O in DMSO or certain other polar aprotic solvents.[478] The reaction has been performed with R^2, R^3 = hydrogen or alkyl, though best yields are obtained when $R^2 = R^3 = H$. In certain cases, unsymmetrical 1,4-diketones have been prepared by using a mixture of two silyl enol ethers. Other reagents that have been used to achieve either symmetrical or cross-coupled products are iodosobenzene–BF_3–Et_2O,[479] ceric ammonium nitrate,[480] and lead tetraacetate.[481] If $R^1 = OR$ (in which case the substrate is a ketene silyl acetal), dimerization with $TiCl_4$ leads to a dialkyl succinate (34, $R^1 = OR$).[482]

In a similar reaction, lithium enolates, $RC(OLi){=}CH_2$, were dimerized to 1,4-diketones, $RCOCH_2CH_2COR$, with $CuCl_2$, $FeCl_3$, or copper(II) triflate, in a nonprotic solvent.[483]

OS **VIII,** 467.

19-32 *Oxidation of Thiols to Disulfides*

S-DE-HYDROGEN-COUPLING

$$2\ RSH \xrightarrow{H_2O_2} RSSR$$

Thiols are easily oxidized to disulfides.[484] Hydrogen peroxide is the most common reagent,[485] but many oxidizing agents give the reaction, among them KMnO

$CuSO_4$,[486] Me_2SO–I_2,[487] Br_2 under phase-transfer conditions,[488] sodium perborate,[489] and NO. It can also be done electrochemically.[490] However, strong oxidizing agents may give **19-26.** Even the oxygen in the air oxidizes thiols on standing, if a small amount of base is present. The reaction is reversible (see **19-54),** and the interconversion between cysteine and cystine is an important one in biochemistry.

The mechanism has been studied for several oxidizing agents and varies with the agent.[491] For oxygen it is[492]

$$\begin{aligned}
&RSH + B^- \rightleftharpoons RS^- + BH\\
&RS^- + O_2 \longrightarrow RS\text{-} + \cdot O_2^-\\
&RS^- + \cdot O_2^- \longrightarrow RS\cdot + O_2^{2-}\\
&2\,O_2^{2-} + 2\,BH \longrightarrow 2\,OH'' + 2\,B^- + O_2
\end{aligned}$$

With respect to the sulfur, this mechanism is similar to that of **14-16,** involving as it does loss of a proton, oxidation to a free radical, and radical coupling.

Unsymmetrical disulfides can be prepared[493] by treatment of a thiol RSH with diethyl azodicarboxylate (EtOOCN=NCOOEt) to give an adduct, to which another thiol R'SH is then added, producing the disulfide RSSR'.[494]

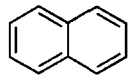
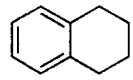
OS **III,** 86, 116.

Reductions: Selectivity[495]

It is often necessary to reduce one group in a molecule without affecting another reducible group. It is usually possible to find a reducing agent that will do this. The most common broad-spectrum reducing agents are the metal hydrides[496] and hydrogen (with a catalyst).[497] Many different metal-hydride systems and hydrogenation catalysts have been investigated in order to find conditions under which a given group will be reduced chemoselectively. Tables 19.2,[498] 19.3,[498] and 19.4[498] list the reactivity of various functional groups toward catalytic hydrogenation. $LiAlH_4$, and BH_3, respectively. Table 19.5[499] shows which groups can be reduced by catalytic hydrogenation and various metal hydrides. Of course, the tables cannot be exact, because the nature of R and the reaction conditions obviously affect reactivity. Nevertheless, the tables do give a fairly good indication of which reagents reduce which groups.[500] Lithium aluminium hydride is very powerful and unselective reagent.[501] Consequently, other metal hydrides are generally used when chemoselectivity is required. As mentioned on page 1199, a number of less reactive (and more selective) reagents have been prepared by replacing some of the hydrogens of $LiAlH_4$ with alkoxy groups (by treatment of $LiAlH_4$ with ROH).[502] Most of the metal hydrides are nucleophilic reagents and attack the carbon atom of a carbon–hetero single or multiple bond. However, BH_3[503,504] and AlH_3[505] are electrophiles (Lewis acids) and attack the hetero atom. This accounts for the different patterns of selectivity shown in the tables.

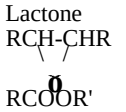
The reactions in this section are grouped into classifications based on bond changes, similar to those used for the oxidation reactions. These sections are (A) reactions involving replacement of oxygen by hydrogen, (B) reactions in which

TABLE 19.2 The Ease of Reduction of Various Functional Groups [a] Toward Catalytic Hydrogenation*

Reaction	Substrate	Product	
10-89	$RCOCl$	RCHO	Easiest
19-41	RNO_2	RNH_2	
15-11	$RC{\equiv}CR$	RCH=CHR	
16-23	RCHO	RCH_2OH	
15-11	RCH=CHR	RCH_2CH_2R	
16-23	RCOR	RCHOHR	
10-84	$ArCH_2OR$	$ArCH_3$ + ROH	
16-25	$RC{\equiv}N$	RCH_2NH_2	
15-14			
19-38	RCOOR'	RCH_2OH + R′OH	
19-35	RCOHNR'	RCH_2NHR	
15-14			Most difficult
19-34	RCOCr		Inert

[a] The groups are listed in approximate order of ease of reduction.
* See Ref. 498

TABLE **19.3 The Ease of Reduction of Various Functional Groups with $LiAlH_4$ in Ether** [a]

Reaction	Substrate	Product	
16-23	RCHO	RCH_2OH	Easiest
16-23	RCOR	RCHOHR	
19-37	$RCOCl$	RCH_2OH	
19-38	Lactone	Diol	
10-85		RCH_2CHOHR	
19-38	RCOOR'	RCH_2OH + R′OH	
19-34	RCOOH	RCH_2OH	
19-34	$RCOO^-$	RCH_2OH	
19-35	$RCONR'_2$	$RCH_2NR'_2$	
16-25	$RC{\equiv}N$	RCH_2NH_2	
19-41	RNO_2	RNH_2	
19-59	$ArNO_2$	$ArN{=}NAr$	Most difficult
15-11	RCH=CHR		Inert

However, $LiAlH_4$ is a very powerful reagent, and much less chemoselectivity is possible here than with most of the other metal hydrides.

TABLE 19.4 The Ease of Reduction of Various Functional Groups with Borane[a]

Reaction	Substrate	Product	
19-34	RCOOH	RCH_2OH	Easiest
15-16	RCH=CHR	$(RCH_2CHR)_3B$	
16-23	RCOR	RCHOHR	
16-25	RCN	RCH_2NH_2	
10-85		RCH_2CHOHR	
19-38	RCOOR'	$RCH_2OH + R'OH$	Most difficult
10-89,19-37	RCOCl		Inert

"It is evident that this reagent and $LiAlH_4$ (Table 19.3) complement each other.

TABLE 19.5 Reactivity of Various Functional Groups with Some Metal Hydrides and Toward Catalytic Hydrogenation [a]

Reaction				A	B	C	D[b]	E[c]	F[d]	G	H	I	V	K[f]	L	M	N
16-23	RCHO	—>	RCH_2OH	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
16-23	RCOR	—>	RCHOHR	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
10-89			RCHO														
19-37			RCH_2OH	+[g]	+	+	-	-	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
19-37	Lactone	—>	diol	—	+	+	+	+	+	±	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
10-85	Epoxide	—>	alcohol	—	+	+	+	±	±	±	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
19-38	RCOOR'	—>	$RCH_2OH + R'OH$	—	+	+	±	-	±	±	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
19-34	RCOOH	—>	RCH_2OH	—	-	+	+	-	±	-	+	+	+	-	+	+	-
19-34	RCOO'	—>	RCH_2OH	—	-	+	-	-	-	-	+	+	+	-	-		-
19-35			$RCH_2NR'_2$														
10-91			RCHO	—	-	-	+	+	+	-	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
16-25	RC≡N	—>	RCH_2NH_2	—	—	—	+	—	±	_	+	+	+	±	+[h]	+	+
19-41			$RCH_2NR'_2$														
19-59			RCHO	—	_	_	-	-	-	-	+	+	-	-	+[i]	+	+
15-11	RCH=CHR	—>	RCH_2CH_2R	—	-	-	+	+	+	-	-	—	—	+	-	—	+

[a] The ± indicates a borderline case. A = $NaBH_4$ in EtOH; B = $NaBH_4$ + LiCl in diglyme; C = $NaBH_4$ + $AlCl_3$ in diglyme; D = BH_3—THF; E = bis-3-methyl-2-butylborane (disiamylborane) in THF; F = 9-BBN; G = $LiAlH(Ot\text{-}Bu)_3$ in THF; H = $LiAlH(OMe)_3$ in THF; I = $LiAlH_4$ in ether; J = AlH_3 in THF; K = $LiBEt_3H$; L = $(i\text{-}Bu)_2AlH$ (dibal-h); M = $NaAlEt_2H_2$; N = catalytic hydrogenation.

[b] See Ref. 496.

[c] See Ref. 506.

[d] See Ref. 507.

[e] See Ref. 508.

[f] See Ref. 509.

[g] See Ref. 510.

[h] See Ref. 505.

[i] See Ref. 511.

oxygen is removed from the substrate, (C) reduction with cleavage, and (D) reductive coupling.

A. *Reactions Involving Replacement of Oxygen by Hydrogen*

In reactions **19-33-19-37,** a C=O group is reduced to a CH_2 group.

19-33 *Reduction of Carbonyl to Methylene in Aldehydes and Ketones*

DIHYDRO-DE-OXO-BISUBSTITUTION

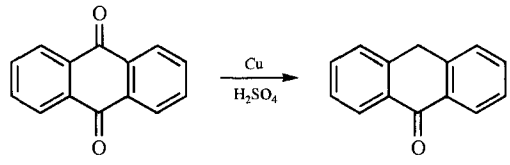
$$R-\underset{\underset{O}{\|}}{C}-R' \xrightarrow[HCl]{Zn-Hg} R-CH_2-R'$$

There are various ways of reducing the C=O group of aldehydes and ketones to CH_2.[512] The two oldest, but still very popular, methods are the *Clemmensen reduction*[513] and the *Wolff–Kishnerreduction.* The Clemmensen reduction consists of heating the aldehyde or ketone with zinc amalgam and aqueous HCl.[514] Ketones are reduced more often than aldehydes. In the Wolff–Kishner reduction,[515] the aldehyde or ketone is heated with hydrazine hydrate and a base (usually NaOH or KOH). The *Huang-Minion modification*[516] of the Wolff-Kishner reaction, in which the reaction is carried out in refluxing diethylene glycol, has completely replaced the original procedure. The reaction can also be carried out under more moderate conditions (room temperature) in DMSO with potassium tert-butoxide as base.[517] The Wolff-Kishner reaction can also be applied to the semicarbazones of aldehydes or ketones. The Clemmensen reduction is usually easier to perform, but it fails for acid-sensitive and high molecular weight substrates. For these cases, the Wolff-Kishner reduction is quite useful. For high molecular weight substrates, a modified Clemmensen reduction, using activated zinc and gaseous HC1 in an organic solvent such as ether or acetic anhydride, has proved successful.[518] The Clemmensen and Wolff-Kishner reactions are complementary, since the former uses acidic and the latter basic conditions.

Both methods are fairly specific for aldehydes and ketones and can be carried out with many other functional groups present. However, certain types of aldehydes and ketones do not give normal reduction products. Under Clemmensen conditions,[519] 7-hydroxy ketones give either ketones (hydrogenolysis of the OH, **10-81)** or alkenes, and 1,3-diones usually undergo rearrangement, (e.g., $MeCOCH_2COMe \rightarrow MeCOCHMe_2$.[520] Neither method is suitable for α,β-unsaturated ketones. These give pyrazolines[521] under Wolff-Kishner conditions, while under Clemmensen conditions both groups of these molecules may be reduced or if only one group is reduced, it is the C=C bond.[522] Sterically hindered ketones are resistant to both the Clemmensen and Huang-Minion procedures but can be reduced by vigorous treatment with anhydrous hydrazine.[523] In the Clemmensen reduction, pinacols **(19-55)** are often side products.

Other reagents have also been used to reduce the C=O of aldehydes and ketones to CH_2.[524] Among these are Me_3SiCl followed by $Et_3SiH/TiCl_4$,[525] $Ni(OAc)_2$ on

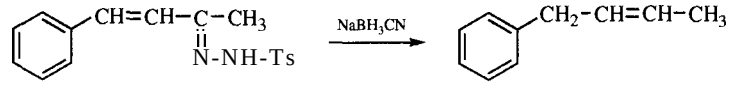
borohydride exchange resin,[526] Et_3SiH on pyridinium poly(hydrogen fluoride) [abbreveated as PPHF],[527] and, for aryl ketones (ArCOR and ArCOAr), $NaBH_4$–F_3CCOOH,[528] $NaBH_4$–$AlCl_3$,[529] $HCOONH_4$–Pd–C,[530] or trialkylsilanes in F_3CCOOH.[531] Most of these reagents also reduce aryl aldehydes ArCHO to methylbenzenes $ArCH_3$.[532] Aliphatic aldehydes RCHO can be reduced to RCH_3 with titanocene dichloride, $(C_5H_5)_2TiCl_2$.[533] One carbonyl group of 1,2-diketones can be selectively reduced by H_2S with an amine catalyst[534] or by HI in refluxing acetic acid.[535] One carbonyl group of quinones can be reduced with copper and sulfuric acid or with tin and HC1:[536]



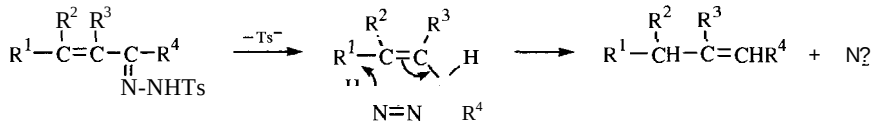
One carbonyl group of 1,3-diketones was selectively reduced by catalytic hydrogenolysis.[537]

The carbonyl of acid derivatives can be reduced in some cases. Lactones are converted to cyclic ethers by treatment with Cp_2TiCl_2 followed by Et_3SiH on Amberlyst 15®.[538]

An indirect method of accomplishing the reaction is reduction of tosylhydrazones ($R_2C{=}N{-}NHTs$) to R_2CH_2 with $NaBH_4$, BH_3, catecholborane, bis(benzyloxy)-borane, or $NaBH_3CN$. The reduction of α,β-unsaturated tosylhydrazones with $NaBH_3CN$, with $NaBH_4$–HOAc, or with catecholborane proceeds with migration of the double bond to the position formerly occupied by the carbonyl carbon, even if this removes the double bond from conjugation with an aromatic ring,[539] for example,



A cyclic mechanism is apparently involved:



Another indirect method is conversion of the aldehyde or ketone to a dithioacetal or ketal, and desulfurization of this (14-34).

It is interesting to see that amines can be deaminated to give the corresponding methylene compounds with low-valent titanium ($TiCl_3$/Li/THF).[540]

The first step in the mechanism[541] of the Wolff–Kishner reaction consists of formation of the hydrazone (16-19).

$$R_2C{=}O \longrightarrow R_2C{=}N{-}NH_2$$

It is this species that undergoes reduction in the presence of base, most likely in the following manner:

$$R_2C{=}H{-}NH_2 \overset{OH^-}{\rightleftharpoons} R_2CH{-}N{=}NH + OH^- \longrightarrow R_2CH{-}N{=}N^- + H_2O$$

$$R_2CH{-}N{=}N^- \xrightarrow{-N_2} R_2\dot{C}H \xrightarrow{H_2O} R_2CH_2 + OH^-$$

Not much is known about the mechanism of the Clemmensen reduction. Several mechanisms have been proposed,[542] including one going through a zinc-carbene intermediate.[543] One thing reasonably certain is that the corresponding alcohol is not an intermediate, since alcohols prepared in other ways fail to give the reaction. Note that the alcohol is not an intermediate in the Wolff–Kishner reduction either.

OS I, 60; **II,** 62, 499; **III,** 410, 444, 513, 786; **IV,** 203, 510; V, 533, 747; **VI,** 62, 293, 919; **VII,** 393. Also see OS **IV,** 218; **VII,** 18.

19-34 *Reduction of Carboxylic Acids to Alcohols*

DIHYDRO-DE-OXO-BISUBSTITUTION

$$RCOOH \xrightarrow{LiAlH_4} RCH_2OH$$

Carboxylic acids are easily reduced to primary alcohols by $LiAlH_4$.[544] The reaction does not stop at the aldehyde stage (but see **10-90).** The conditions are particularly mild, the reduction proceeding quite well at room temperature. Other hydrides have also been used,[545] but not $NaBH_4$ (see Table 19.5).[546] Catalytic hydrogenation is also generally ineffective.[547] Borane is particularly good for carboxyl groups (Table 19.4) and permits selective reduction of them in the presence of many other groups (though the reaction with double bonds takes place at about the same rate).[548] Borane also reduces carboxylic acid salts.[549] Aluminum hydride reduces COOH groups without affecting carbon-halogen bonds in the same molecule. The reduction has also been carried out with SmI_2 in basic media[550] or aqueous H_3PO_4,[551] or simply with SmI_2 in water.[552] A mixture of $NaBH_4$ and I_2 has been used to reduced amino acids to amino alcohols.[553]

OS **III,** 60; **VII,** 221; 530; **VIII,** 26, 434, 528.

19-35 *Reduction of Amides to Amines*

DIHYDRO-DEOXO-BISUBSTITUTION

$$RCONH_2 \xrightarrow{LiAlH_4} RCH_2NH_2$$

Amides can be reduced[554] to amines with $LiAlH_4$ or by catalytic hydrogenation, though high temperatures and pressures are usually required for the latter. Even with $LiAlH_4$ the reaction is more difficult than the reduction of most other functional groups, and other groups often can be reduced without disturbing an amide function. $NaBH_4$ by itself does not reduce amides, though it does so in the presence of certain other reagents[555] including iodine.[556] Substituted amides can be similarly reduced:

$$RCONHR' \longrightarrow RCH_2NHR'$$

$$RCONR'_2 \longrightarrow RCH_2NR'_2$$

Borane[557] and sodium in 1-propanol[558] are good reducing agents for all three types of amides. Another reagent that reduces disubstituted amides to amines is trichlorosilane.[559] Sodium(dimethylamino)borohydride reduces unsubstituted and disubstituted, but not monosubstituted amides.[560]

With some RCONR , $LiAlH_4$ causes cleavage, and the aldehyde **(10-91)** or alcohol is obtained. Lithium triethylborohydride produces the alcohol with most N,N-disubstituted amides, though not with unsubstituted or N-substituted amides.[561] Lactams are reduced to cyclic amines in high yields with $LiAlH_4$, though cleavage sometimes occurs here too. A mixture of $LiBHEt_3/Et_3SiH$ is also effective.[562] Imides are generally reduced on both sides, though it is sometimes possible to stop with just one. Both cyclic and acyclic imides have been reduced in this manner, though with acyclic imides cleavage is often obtained, for example,[563]

$$PhN(COMe)_2 \longrightarrow PhNHEt$$

Acyl sulfonamides have been reduced ($RCONHSO_2Ph \rightarrow RCH_2NHSO_2Ph$) with $BH_3{-}SMe_2$[564] and with SmI_2/DMPU,[565]

OS IV, 339, 354, 564; VI, 382; **VII,** 41.

19-36 *Reduction of Carboxylic Esters to Ethers*

DIHYDRO-DE-OXO-BISUBSTITUTION

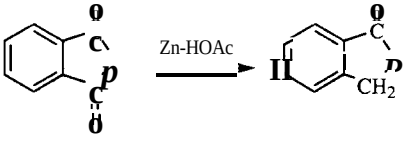
$$RCOOR' \xrightarrow[LiAlH_4]{BF_3\text{-etherate}} RCH_2OR'$$

Carboxylic esters and lactones have been reduced to ethers, though 2 mol of alcohol are more commonly obtained **(19-38).** Reduction to ethers has been accomplished with a reagent prepared from BF_3–etherate and either $LiAlH_4$, $LiBH_4$, or $NaBH_4$,[566] with trichlorosilane and UV light,[567] and with catalytic hydrogenation. The reaction with the BF_3 reagent apparently succeeds with secondary R', but not with primary R', which give **19-38.** Lactones give cyclic ethers.[568] Thiono esters (RCSOR') can be reduced to ethers RCH_2OR' with Raney nickel (**14-34**).[569] Since the thiono esters can be prepared from carboxylic esters **(16-10),** this provides an indirect method for the conversion of carboxylic esters to ethers. Thiol esters RCOSR' have been reduced to thioethers RCH_2SR'.[570]

See also **19-39, 10-86.**

19-37 *Reduction of Cyclic Anhydrides to Lactones and Acid Derivatives to Alcohols*

DIHYDRO-DE-OXO-BISUBSTITUTION



Cyclic anhydrides can give lactones if reduced with Zn–HOAc, with hydrogen and platinum or $RuCl_2(Ph_3P)_3$,[571] with $NaBH_4$,[572] or even with $LiAlH_4$, though with the last-mentioned reagent diols are the more usual product. With a BINOL–AlHOEt complex, however, reduction to the lactone proceeds smoothly.[573] With some reagents the reaction can be accomplished regioselectively, i.e., only a specific one of the two C=O groups of an unsymmetrical anhydride is reduced.[574] Open-chain anhydrides either are not reduced at all (e.g., with $NaBH_4$) or give 2 mol of alcohol. Lithium aluminium hydride usually reduces open-chain anhydrides to give 2 mol of alcohol. With cyclic anhydrides the reaction with $LiAlH_4$ can be controlled to give either diols or lactones.[575] With dropwise addition of methanol, $NaBH_4$ in THF reduces open-chain anhydrides to 1 mol of primary alcohol and 1 mol of carboxylic acid.[576]

Acyl halides are reduced[577] to alcohols by $LiAlH_4$ or $NaBH_4$, as well as by other metal hydrides (Table 19.5), but not by borane.

In general, reduction of amides to alcohols is difficult. More commonly the amide is reduced to an amine. An exception uses LiH_2NBH_3 to give the alcohol.[578] Reduction with sodium metal in propanol also gives the alcohol.[579] Acyl imidazoles are also reduced to the corresponding alcohol with $NaBH_4$ in aqueous HC1.[580]

There are no *Organic Syntheses* references, but see OS **II,** 526, for a related reaction. See OS **VI,** 482 for reduction to alcohols and OS IV, 271 for reduction of acyl halides.

19-38 *Reduction of Carboxylic Esters to Alcohols*

DIHYDRO,HYDROXY-DE-OXO,ALKOXY-TERSUBSTITUTION

$$RCOOR' \xrightarrow{LiAlH_4} RCH_2OH + R'OH$$

Lithium aluminium hydride reduces carboxylic esters to give 2 mol of alcohol.[581] The reaction is of wide scope and has been used to reduce many esters. Where the interest is in obtaining R'OH, this is a method of "hydrolyzing" esters. Lactones yield diols. Among the reagents that give the same products[582] are DIBAL-H, lithium triethylborohydride, and BH_3– SMe_2 in refluxing THF.[583] The $NaBH_4$ reduces phenolic esters, especially those containing electron-withdrawing groups,[584] but its reaction with other esters is usually so slow that such reactions are seldom feasible (though exceptions are known[585]), and it is generally possible to reduce an aldehyde or ketone without reducing an ester function in the same molecule. However, $NaBH_4$ reduces esters in the presence of certain compounds (see Table 19.5).[586] Carboxylic esters can also be reduced to alcohols by hydrogenation over copper chromite catalysts,[587] though high pressures and temperatures are required. Ester functions generally survive low-pressure catalytic hydrogenations. Before the discovery of $LiAlH_4$, the most common way of carrying out the reaction was with sodium in ethanol, a method known as the *Bouveault–Blanc procedure.* This procedure is still sometimes used where selectivity is necessary. See also **19-36,19-39,** and **10-86.**

OS II, 154, 325, 372, 468; **III,** 671; **IV,** 834; **VI,** 781; **VII,** 356; **VIII,** 155; **IX,** 251.

19-39 *Reduction of Carboxylic Acids and Esters to Alkanes*

TRIHYDRO-DE-ALKOXY,OXO-TERSUBSTITUTION, AND SO ON

$$RCOOR' \xrightarrow{(C_5H_5)_2TiCl_2} RCH_3 + R'OH$$

The reagent titanocene dichloride reduces carboxylic esters in a different manner from that of 10-86, 19-36, or 19-38. The products are the alkane RCH_3 and the alcohol R'OH.[533] The mechanism probably involves an alkene intermediate. Aromatic acids can be reduced to methylbenzenes by a procedure involving refluxing first with trichlorosilane in MeCN, then with tripropylamine added, and finally with KOH and MeOH (after removal of the MeCN).[588] The following sequence has been suggested:[588]

$$ArCOOH \xrightarrow{SiHCl_3} (ArCO)_2O \xrightarrow[R_3N]{SiHCl_3} ArCH_2SiCl_3 \xrightarrow[MeOH]{KOH} ArCH_3$$

Esters of aromatic acids are not reduced by this procedure, so an aromatic COOH group can be reduced in the presence of a COOR' group.[589] However, it is also possible to reduce aromatic ester groups, by a variation of the trichlorosilane procedure.[590] The *o*- and *p*-hydroxybenzoic acids and their esters have been reduced to cresols ($HOC_6H_4CH_3$) with sodium bis(2-methoxyethoxy)aluminum hydride, $NaAlH_2(OC_2H_4OMe)_2$ (*Red-Al*).[591]

Carboxylic acids can also be converted to alkanes, indirectly,[592] by reduction of the corresponding tosylhydrazides ($RCONHNH_2$) with $LiAlH_4$ or borane.[593]

OS VI, 747.

19-40 *Complete Reduction of Epoxides*

$$\underset{\text{R O H}}{\overset{\text{R}\quad\text{R''}}{\diagdown\ /}\ C-C} \xrightarrow{(C_5H_5)_2TiCl_2} \underset{\text{R'}-CH-CH_2-\text{R''}}{\text{R}}$$

Though the usual product of epoxide reductions is the alcohol (10-85), epoxides are reduced all the way to the alkane by titanocene dichloride[533] and by $Et_3SiH{-}BH_3$.[594]

19-41 *Reduction of Nitro Compounds to Amines*

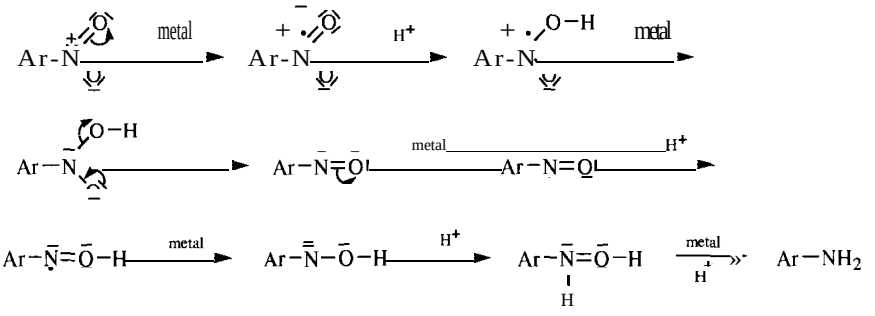
$$RNO_2 \xrightarrow[HCl]{Zn} RNH_2$$

Both aliphatic[595] and aromatic nitro compounds can be reduced to amines, though the reaction has been applied much more often to aromatic nitro compounds, owing to their greater availability. Many reducing agents have been used to reduce aromatic nitro compounds, the most common being Zn, Sn, or Fe (or sometimes other metals) and acid, and catalytic hydrogenation.[596] Indium metal in aqueous ethanol with ammonium chloride also reduces aromatic nitro compounds to the corresponding aniline derivative.[597] Samarium and a catalytic amount of iodine also accomplishes this reduction.[598] A mild reduction uses Al(Hg) in aqueous THF with ultrasound.[599]

Among other reagents used[600] have been $Et_3SiH/RhCl(PPh_3)_3$,[601] AlH_3—$AlCl_3$, formic acid and Pd—C,[602] and sulfides such as NaHS, $(NH_4)_2S$, or polysulfides. The reaction with sulfides or polysulfides is called the *Zinin reduction.*[603] The $LiAlH_4$ reduces aliphatic nitro compounds to amines, but with aromatic nitro compounds the products with this reagent are azo compounds **(19-59).** Most metal hydrides, including $NaBH_4$ and BH_3, do not reduce nitro groups at all, though both aliphatic and aromatic nitro compounds have been reduced to amines with $NaBH_4$ and various catalysts, such as $NiCl_2$ or $CoCl_2$.[604] Borohydride exchange resin in the presence of $Ni(OAc)_2$, however, gives the amine.[605] Treatment of aromatic nitro compounds with $NaBH_4$ alone has resulted in reduction of the *ring* to a cyclohexane ring with the nitro group still intact[606] or in cleavage of the nitro group from the ring.[607] With $(NH_4)_2S$ or other sulfides or polysulfides it is often possible to reduce just one of two or three nitro groups on an aromatic ring or on two different rings in one molecule.[608] The nitro groups of N-nitro compounds can also be reduced to amino groups, for example, nitrourea ($NH_2CONHNO_2$) gives semicarbazide (NH_2 $CONHNH_2$). Bakers yeast reduces aromatic nitro compounds to aniline derivatives.[609]

With some reducing agents, especially with aromatic nitro compounds, the reduction can be stopped at an intermediate stage, and hydroxylamines **(19-42),** hydrazobenzenes, azobenzenes **(19-59),** and azoxybenzenes **(19-58)** can be obtained in this manner. However, nitroso compounds, which are often postulated as intermediates, are too reactive to be isolated, if indeed they are intermediates. Reduction by metals in mineral acids cannot be stopped, but always produces the amine. Amines are also the products when nitro compounds, both alkyl and aryl, are reduced with $HCOONH_4$—Pd—C.[610] Many other functional groups (e.g., COOH, COOR, CN, amide) are not affected by this reagent (though ketones are reduced, see **19-33).** With optically active alkyl substrates this method gives retention of configuration.[611]

The mechanisms of these reductions have been very little studied, though it is usually presumed that, at least with some reducing agents, nitroso compounds and hydroxylamines are intermediates. Both of these types of compounds give amines when exposed to most of these reducing agents **(19-43),** and hydroxylamines can be isolated **(19-42).** With metals and acid the following path has been suggested:[612]



Certain aromatic nitroso compounds (Ar—NO) can be obtained in good yields by irradiation of the corresponding nitro compounds in 0.1 *M* aqueous KCN with UV light.[613] The reaction has also been performed electrochemically.[614] When nitro

compounds are treated with most reducing agents, nitroso compounds are either not formed or react further under the reaction conditions and cannot be isolated.

OS **I**, 52, 240, 455, 485; II, 130, 160, 175, 254, 447, 471, 501, 617; **III,** 56, 59, 63, 69, 73, 82, 86, 239, 242, 453; IV, 31, 357; V, 30, 346, 552, 567, 829, 1067, 1130.

19-42 *Reduction of Nitro Compounds to Hydroxylamines*

$$ArNO_2 \xrightarrow[H_2O]{Zn} ArNHOH$$

When aromatic nitro compounds are reduced with zinc and water under neutral conditions,[615] hydroxylamines are formed. Among other reagents used for this purpose have been SmI_2,[616] N_2H_4—Rh—C,[617] and $KBH_4/BiCl_3$.[618] Borane in THF reduces aliphatic nitro compounds (in the form of their salts) to hydroxylamines:[619]

$$R-\underset{R}{\overset{|}{\bar{C}}}-NO_2 \xrightarrow{BF_3\text{-}THF} R-\underset{R}{\overset{|}{CH}}-NHOH$$

Nitro compounds have been reduced electrochemically, to hydroxylamines as well as to other products.[620]

OS **I,** 445; **III,** 668; **IV,** 148; **VI,** 803; **VIII, 16.**

19-43 *Reduction of Nitroso Compounds and Hydroxylamines to Amines*

N-Dihydro-de-oxo-bisubstitution $\quad RNO \xrightarrow[HCl]{Zn} RNH_2$

N-Hydro-de-hydroxylation or *N*-Dehydroxylation $\quad RNHOH \xrightarrow[HCl]{Zn} RNH_2$

Nitroso compounds and hydroxylamines can be reduced to amines by the same reagents that reduce nitro compounds **(19-41).** One example reduces a hydroxylamine to the amine with CS_2 in acetonitrile.[621] N-Nitroso compounds are similarly reduced to hydrazines:[622]

$$R_2N-NO \longrightarrow R_2N-NH_2$$

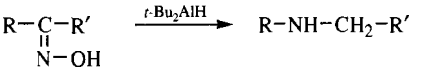
OS I, 511; II, 33, 202, 211, 418; **III,** 91; IV, 247. See also OS **VIII, 93.**

19-44 *Reduction of Oximes to Primary Amines or Aziridines*

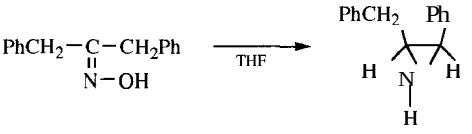
$$R-\underset{\underset{N-OH}{\overset{\|}{C}}}{\overset{}{}}-R' \xrightarrow{LiAlH_4} R-\underset{NH_2}{\overset{|}{CH}}-R'$$

Both aldoximes and ketoximes can be reduced to primary amines with $LiAlH_4$. The reaction is slower than with ketones, so that, for example, PhCOCH=NOH gave 34% PhCHOHCH=NOH.[623] Among other reducing agents that give this reduction[624] are zinc and acetic acid, sodium ethoxide, BH_3,[625] $NaBH_3CN$–$TiCl_3$,[626] and sodium and an alcohol.[627] Catalytic hydrogenation is also effective.[628] The reduction has been performed enantioselectively with baker's yeast[629] and with Ph_2SiH_2 and an optically active rhodium-complex catalyst.[630]

When the reducing agent is DIBAL-H, the product is a secondary amine, arising from a rearrangement:[631]



With certain oximes (e.g., those of the type $ArCH_2CR{=}NOH$), treatment with $LiAlH_4$ gives aziridines,[632] for example,



Hydrazones, arylhydrazones, and semicarbazones can also be reduced to amines with various reducing agents, including Zn–HCl and H_2 and Raney nickel.

Oximes have been reduced in a different way, to give imines ($RR'C{=}NOH \rightarrow RR'C{=}NH$), which are generally unstable but can be trapped to give useful products. Among reagents used for this purpose have been $Bu_3P{-}SPh_3$[633] and $Ru_3(CO)_{12}$.[634]

Oximes can also be reduced to hydroxylamines **(16-24).**

OS **II,** 318; **ffl,** 513; **V,** 32, 83, 373, 376.

19-45 *Reduction of Azides to Primary Amines*

N-DIHYDRO-DE-DIAZO-BISUBSTITUTION

$$RN_3 \xrightarrow{LiAlH_4} RNH_2$$

Azides are easily reduced to primary amines by $LiAlH_4$, as well as by a number of other reducing agents,[635] including $NaBH_4$, PPh_3 (with this reagent, the process is called the *Staudinger reaction*),[636] H_2 and a catalyst, $Bu_3SnH/PhSiH_3/AIBN$,[637] Mg or Ca in MeOH,[638] baker's yeast,[639] Sm/I_2,[640] $LiMe_2NBH_3$,[641] and tin complexes prepared from $SnCl_2$ or $Sn(SR)_2$.[642] This reaction, combined with $RX \rightarrow RN_3$ **(10-65),** is an important way of converting alkyl halides RX to primary amines RNH_2; in some cases the two procedures have been combined into one laboratory step.[643] Sulfonyl azides (RSO_2N_3) have been reduced to sulfonamides (RSO_2NH_2) by irradiation in isopropyl alcohol[644] and with NaH.[645]

OS V, 586; **VII,** 433.

19-46 *Reduction of Miscellaneous Nitrogen Compounds*

ISOCYANATE-METHYLAMINE TRANSFORMATION

$$R{-}N{=}C{=}O \xrightarrow{LiAlH_4} R{-}NH{-}CH_3$$

ISOTHIOCYANATE-METHYLAMINE TRANSFORMATION

$$R\text{-}N{=}C{=}S \xrightarrow{LiAlH_4} R\text{-}NH\text{-}CH3$$

N,N-DIHYDRO- ADDITION

$$\text{Ar-N=N-Ar} \xrightarrow[\text{catalyst}]{H_2} \text{Ar-NH-NH-Ar}$$

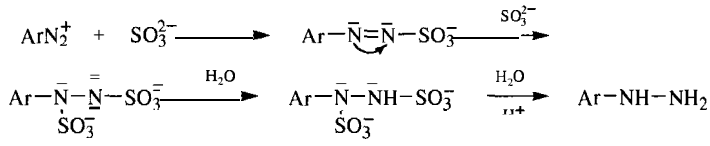
DIAZONIUM-ARYLHYDRAZONE REDUCTION

$$ArN_2^+\ Cl^- \xrightarrow{Na_2SO_3} ArNHNH_2$$

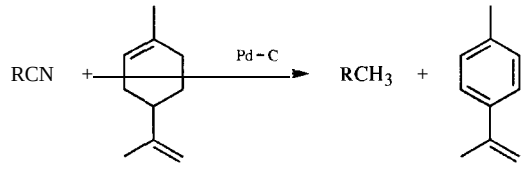
N-HYDRO-DE-NITROSO-SUBSTITUTION

$$R_2N{-}NO \xrightarrow[Ni]{H_2} R_2NH$$

Isocyanates and isothiocyanates are reduced to methylamines on treatment with $LiAlH_4$. Lithium aluminium hydride does not usually reduce azo compounds[646] (indeed these are the products from $LiAlH_4$ reduction of nitro compounds, **19-59),** but these can be reduced to hydrazo compounds by catalytic hydrogenation or with diimide[647] (see **15-11).** Diazonium salts are reduced to hydrazines by sodium sulfite. This reaction probably has a nucleophilic mechanism.[648]



The initial product is a salt of hydrazinesulfonic acid, which is converted to the hydrazine by acid treatment. Diazonium salts can also be reduced to arenes **(14-24).** N-Nitrosoamines can be denitrosated to secondary amines by a number of reducing agents, including H2 and a catalyst,[649] BF_3—THF—$NaHCO_3$,[650] and $NaBH_4$—$TiCl_4$,[651] as well as by hydrolysis.[652]



A cyano group can be reduced to a methyl group by treatment with a terpene such as limonene (which acts as reducing agent) in the presence of palladium-charcoal.[653] H_2 is also effective,[654] though higher temperatures are required. The R group may be alkyl or aryl. Cyano groups CN have also been reduced to CH_2OH, in the vapor phase, with 2-propanol and zirconium oxide.[655]

OS I, 442; **III,** 475. Also see OS V, 43.

19-47 *Reduction of Sulfonyl Halides and Sulfonic Acids to Thiols*

$$RSO_2Cl \xrightarrow{LiAlH_4} RSH$$

Thiols can be prepared by the reduction of sulfonyl halides[656] with $LiAlH_4$. Usually, the reaction is carried out on aromatic sulfonyl chlorides. Zinc and acetic acid, and

HI, also give the reduction. Sulfonic acids have been reduced to thiols with a mixture of triphenylphosphine and either I_2 or a diaryl disulfide.[657] Disulfides (RSSR) can also be produced.[658] For the reduction of sulfonyl chlorides to sulfinic acids, see **10-128.**

OS **I,** 504; **IV,** 695; **V,** 843.

B. *Reactions in Which an Oxygen Is Removed from the Substrate*

19-48 *Eduction of Amine Oxides and Azoxy Compounds*

N-OXYGEN-DETACHMENT

$$R_3\overset{+}{N}-O \xrightarrow{PPh_3} R3N$$

$$Ar\text{-}\overset{+}{N}(O^-)\text{=}N\text{-}Ar \xrightarrow{PPh_3} Ar-N=N-Ar$$

Amine oxides[659] and azoxy compounds (both alkyl and aryl)[660] can be reduced practically quantitatively with triphenylphosphine.[661] Other reducing agents (e.g., $LiAlH_4$, H_2-Ni, PCl_3, $TiCl_3$)[662] $TiCl_4$ with $LiAlH_4$, or $SbCl_2$ have also been used. Nitrile oxides[663] $R-C\equiv N^+-O^\theta$ can be reduced to nitriles with trialkylphosphines,[664] and isocyanates (RNCO) to isocyanides RNC with Cl_3SiH– Et_3N.[665]

OS IV, 166. See also OS **VIII, 57.**

19-49 *Reduction of Sulfoxides and Sulfones*

S-OXYGEN-DETACHMENT

$$R-\underset{\underset{O}{\|}}{S}-R \xrightarrow{LiAlH_4} R-S-R$$

Sulfoxides can be reduced to sulfides by many reagents,[666] among them $LiAlH_4$, HI, Bu_3SnH,[667] $MeSiCl_3$–NaI,[668] H_2–Pd–C,[669] $NaBH_4$–$NiCl_2$,[670] Ph_3P,[671] and SiO_2/$SOCl_2$. Sulfones, however, are usually stable to reducing agents, though they have been reduced to sulfides with DIBAL-H [$(i\text{-Bu})_2AlH$].[672] A less general reagent is $LiAlH_4$, which reduces some sulfones to sulfides, but not others.[673] Both sulfoxides and sulfones can be reduced by heating with sulfur (which is oxidized to SO_2), though the reaction with sulfoxides proceeds at a lower temperature. It has been shown by using substrate labeled with ^{35}S that sulfoxides simply give up the oxygen to the sulfur, but that the reaction with sulfones is more complex, since about 75% of the original radioactivity of the sulfone is lost.[674] This indicates that most of the sulfur in the sulfide product comes in this case from the *reagent.* There is no direct general method for the reduction of sulfones to sulfoxides, but an indirect method has been reported.[675] Selenoxides can be reduced to selenides with a number of reagents.[676]

OS IX, 446

19-50 *Reduction of Hydroperoxides and Peroxides*

$$R{-}O{-}O{-}H \xrightarrow{LiAlH_4} ROH$$

Hydroperoxides can be reduced to alcohols with $LiAlH_4$ or Ph_3P[677] or by catalytic hydrogenation. This functional group is very susceptible to catalytic hydrogenation, as shown by the fact that a double bond may be present in the same molecule without being reduced.[678]

$$RR'CHCN \xrightarrow[-78\ ^\circ C]{LiN(i\text{-}Pr)_2} [RR'\bar{C}CN] \xrightarrow[-78\ ^\circ C]{O_2} RR'CCN(OO^-) \xrightarrow[2.\ Sn^{2+}]{1.\ H^+} RR'C(OH)CN \xrightarrow{OH^-} RR'CO$$

The reaction is an important step in a method for the oxidative decyanation of nitriles containing an a hydrogen.[679] The nitrile is first converted to the α-hydroperoxy nitrile by treatment with base at -78°C followed by O_2. The hydroperoxy nitrile is then reduced to the cyanohydrin, which is cleaved (the reverse of 16-51) to the corresponding ketone. The method is not successful for the preparation of aldehydes ($R' = H$).

Peroxides are cleaved to 2 mol of alcohols by $LiAlH_4$ or by catalytic hydrogenation. Peroxides can be reduced to ethers with $P(OEt)_3$.[680] In a similar reaction, disulfides (RSSR') can be converted to sulfides (RSR') by treatment with tris(diethylamino)phosphine, $(Et_2N)_3P$.[681]

OS VI, 130.

19-51 *Reduction of Aliphatic Nitro Compounds to Oximes or Nitriles*

$$RCH_2NO_2 \xrightarrow[HOAc]{Zn} RCH{=}NOH$$

Nitro compounds that contain an a hydrogen can be reduced to oximes with zinc dust in HOAC[682] or with other reagents, among them CS_2–Et_3N,[683] $CrCl_2$,[684] and (for α-nitro sulfones) $NaNO_2$.[685] α-Nitro alkenes have been converted to oximes ($-C=C-NO_2 \rightarrow -CH-C=NOH$) with sodium hypophosphite and with Pb–HOAc–DMF, as well as with certain other reagents.[686]

$$RCH_2NO_2 \xrightarrow{NaBH_2S_3} RC{\equiv}N$$

Primary aliphatic nitro compounds can be reduced to nitriles with sodium dihydro(trithio)borate[584] or with *t*-BuN≡C/BuN=C=O.[687] Secondary compounds give mostly ketones (e.g., nitrocyclohexane gave 45% cyclohexanone, 30% cyclohexanone oxime, and 19% *N*-cyclohexylhydroxylamine). Tertiary aliphatic nitro compounds do not react with this reagent. See also 19-41.

OS IV, 932.

C. *Reduction with Cleavage*

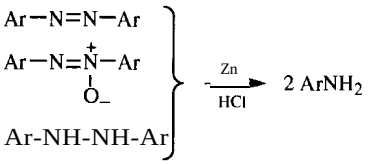
19-52 *de-Alkylation of Amines and Amides*

$$R_2'N{-}R \longrightarrow R_2'N{-}H$$

Certain amines can be dealkylated, usually under reductive conditions. N-Allyl amines ($R_2N{-}CH_2CH{=}CH_2$) are converted to the corresponding amine ($R_2N{-}H$) with DIBAL/$NiCl_2$dppp,[688] where diisobutylaluminum = DIBAL and 1,3-bis(diphenylphosphino)propane = dppp, and with $Pd(dba)_2$dppb.[689] A mixture of $TiCl_3$ and Li converts N-benzylamines to the amine ($R_2NCH_2Ph \rightarrow R_2NH$).[690] In the case of N,N-dimethyl amines, $RuCl_3$ and H_2O_2 demethylate the amine ($ArNMe_2 \rightarrow ArNHMe$).[691]

The process is not limited to amines. Amides can also be dealkylated. N-Benzyl amides are debenzylated in the presence of NBS and AIBN.[692]

19-53 *Reduction of Azo, Azoxy, and Hydrazo Compounds to Amines*

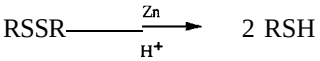


Azo, azoxy, and hydrazo compounds can all be reduced to amines.[693] Metals (notably zinc) and acids, and $Na_2S_2O_4$, are frequently used as reducing agents. Borane reduces azo compounds to amines, though it does not reduce nitro compounds.[694] Lithium aluminum hydride does not reduce hydrazo compounds or azo compounds, though with the latter, hydrazo compounds are sometimes isolated. With azoxy compounds, $LiAlH_4$ gives only azo compounds (19-48).

OS I, 49; II, 35, 39; III, 360. Also see OS II, 290.

19-54 *Reduction of Disulfides to Thiols*

S-HYDROGEN-UNCOUPLING



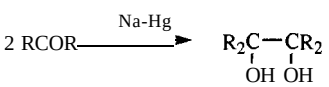
Disulfides can be reduced to thiols by mild reducing agents,[695] such as zinc and dilute acid or Ph_3P and H_2O.[696] The reaction can also be accomplished simply by heating with alkali.[697] Among other reagents used have been $LiAlH_4$, Mg/MeOH,[698] $KBH(O{-}i{-}Pr)_3$,[699] and hydrazine or substituted hydrazines.[700]

OS II, 580. Also see OS IV, 295.

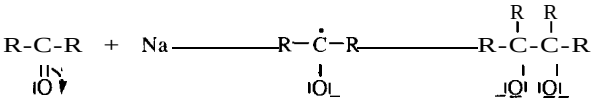
D. *Reductive Coupling*

19-55 *Bimolecular Reduction of Aldehydes and Ketones to 1,2-Diols*

2/*O*-HYDROGEN-COUPLING

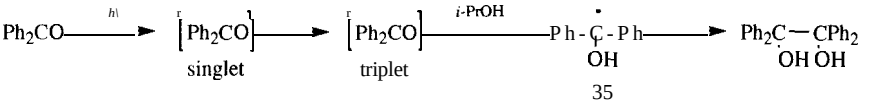


1,2-Diols (pinacols) can be synthesized by reduction of aldehydes and ketones with active metals such as sodium, magnesium, or aluminum.[701] Aromatic ketones give better yields than aliphatic ones. The use of a $Mg-MgI_2$ mixture has been called the *Gomberg–Bachmann pinacol synthesis.* As with a number of other reactions involving sodium, there is a direct electron transfer here, converting the ketone or aldehyde to a **ketyl**, which dimerizes.



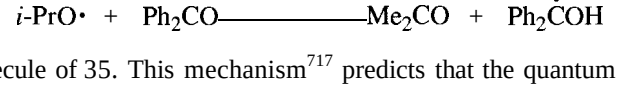
Other reagents have been used,[702] including SmI_2,[703] Yb,[704] activated Mn,[705] In with ultrasound,[706] $VCl_3(thf)_3/Zn$,[707] and a reagent prepared from $TiCl_4$ and Mg amalgam[708] (a low-valent titanium reagent; see 19-56). Dialdehydes have been cyclized by this reaction (with $TiCl_3$) to give cyclic 1,2-diols in good yield.[709] Unsymmetrical coupling between two different aldehydes has been achieved by the use of a vanadium complex,[710] while $TiCl_3$ in aqueous solution has been used to couple two different ketones.[711] Two aldehydes have also been coupled using magnesium in water.[712] Coupling leads to a mixture of syn- and anti-diols. "Syn-selective" reagents are Cp_2TiCl_2/Mn[713] and $NbCl_3$.[714]

The dimerization of ketones to 1,2-diols can also be accomplished photochemically; indeed, this is one of the most common photochemical reactions.[715] The substrate, which is usually a diaryl or aryl alkyl ketone (though a few aromatic aldehydes and dialkyl ketones have been dimerized), is irradiated with UV light in the presence of a hydrogen donor such as isopropyl alcohol, toluene, or an amine.[716] In the case of benzophenone, irradiated in the presence of 2-propanol, the ketone molecule initially undergoes $n \rightarrow n^*$ excitation, and the singlet species thus formed crosses to the T_1 state with a very high efficiency.



35

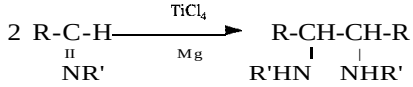
The T_1 species abstracts hydrogen from the alcohol (p. 321), and then dimerizes. The *i*-PrO· radical, which is formed by this process, donates H· to another molecule of ground-state benzophenone, producing acetone and



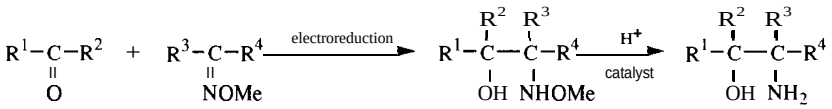
another molecule of 35. This mechanism[717] predicts that the quantum yield for the disappearance of benzophenone should be 2, since each quantum of light results in the conversion of 2 mol of benzophenone to 35. Under favorable experimental conditions the observed quantum yield does approach 2. Benzophenone abstracts hydrogen with very high efficiency. Other aromatic ketones are dimerized with lower quantum yields, and some (e.g., *p*-aminobenzophenone, *o*-methylacetophenone) cannot be dimerized at all in 2-propanol (though *p*-aminobenzophenone, e.g., can be dimerized in cyclohexane[718]). The reaction has also been carried out electrochemically.[719]

A radical-induced coupling of an α,ω-dialdehyde led to *cis*-1,2-cyclopentanediol when treated with Bu_3SnH and AIBN.[720] or induced photochemically.[721]

In a similar type of process, imines have been dimerized to give 1,2-diamines, by a number of procedures, including treatment with $TiCl_4$–Mg,[722] In / aqueous EtOH,[723] Zn / aqueous NaOH,[724] Cp_2VCl_2 / Zn / $PhMe_2SiCl$,[725] with SmI_2,[726] and (for silylated imines) $NbCl_4(thf)_2$.[727] When electroreduction was used, it was even



possible to obtain cross-products, by coupling a ketone to an O-methyl oxime:[728]

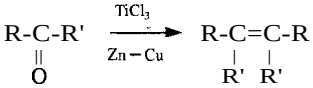


The *N*-methoxyamino alcohol could then be reduced to the amino alcohol.[728]

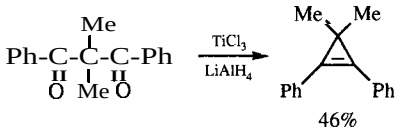
OS I, 459; II, 71. For diamines, OS 76, 23

19-56 *Bimolecular Reduction of Aldehydes or Ketones to Alkenes*

DE-OXYGEN-COUPLING

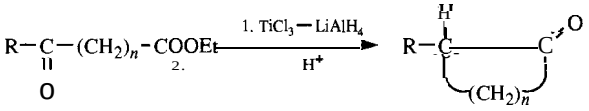


Aldehydes and ketones, both aromatic and aliphatic (including cyclic ketones), can be converted in high yields to dimeric alkenes by treatment with $TiCl_3$ and a zinc-copper couple.[729] This is called the *McMurry reaction*.[730] The reagent produced in this way is called a *low-valent titanium reagent*, and the reaction has also been accomplished[731] with low-valent titanium reagents prepared in other ways, for example, from Mg and a $TiCl_3$–THF complex,[732] from $TiCl_4$ and Zn or Mg,[733] from $TiCl_3$ and $LiAlH_4$,[734] from $TiCl_3$ and lamellar potassium graphite,[735] from $TiCl_3$ and K or Li,[736] as well as with Zn–Me_3SiCl[737] and with certain compounds prepared from WCl_6 and either lithium, lithium iodide, $LiAlH_4$, or an alkyllithium (see 17-17).[738] The reaction has been used to convert dialdehydes and diketones to cycloalkenes.[739] Rings of 3-16 and 22 members have been closed in this way, for example,[740]



46%

The same reaction on a keto ester gives a cycloalkanone.[741]

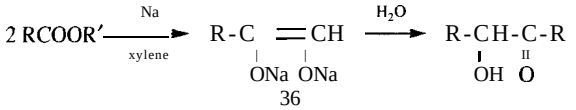


Indoles have been prepared form *o*-acyl amides with Ti(powder) and Me_3SiCl[742] or with $TiCl_3$—C_8K.[743] Benzofurans have been prepared by a closely related reaction.[744]

Unsymmetrical alkenes can be prepared from a mixture of two ketones, if one is in excess.[745] The mechanism consists of initial coupling of two radical species to give a 1,2-dioxygen compound (a titanium pinacolate), which is then deoxygenated.[746]

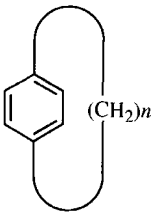
OS VII, 1.

19-57 *Acyloin Ester Condensation*

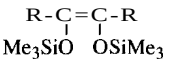


36

When carboxylic esters are heated with sodium in refluxing ether or benzene, a bimolecular reduction takes place, and the product is an α-hydroxy ketone (called an acyloin).[747] The reaction, called the *acyloin ester condensation*,[748] is quite successful when R is alkyl. Acyloins with long chains have been prepared in this way, for example, $R = C_{17}H_{35}$, but for high molecular weight esters, toluene or xylene is used as the solvent. The acyloin condensation has been used with great success, in boiling xylene, to prepare cyclic acyloins from diesters.[749] The yields are 50-60% for the preparation of 6- and 7-membered rings, 30-40% for 8- and 19-membered, and 60-95% for rings of 10-20 members. Even larger rings have been closed in this manner. This is one of the best ways of closing rings of 10 members or more. The reaction has been used to close four-membered rings,[750] though this is generally not successful. The presence of double or triple bonds does not interfere.[751] Even a benzene ring can be present, and many paracyclophane derivatives (37) with $n = 9$ or more have been synthesized in this manner.[752]



37

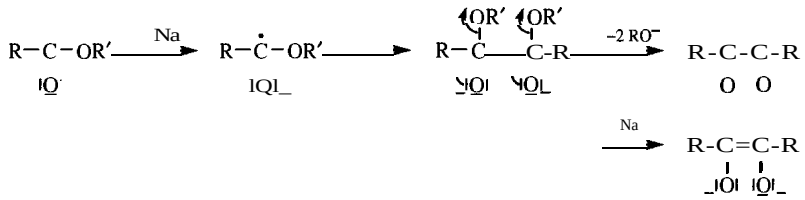


38

Yields in the acyloin condensation can be improved by running the reaction in the presence of chlorotrimethylsilane Me_3SiCl, in which case the dianion 36 is converted to the bis silyl enol ether 38, which can be isolated and subsequently hydrolyzed to the acyloin with aqueous acid.[753] This is now the standard way to conduct the acyloin condensation. Among other things, this method inhibits the Dieckmann condensation[754] **(10-118),** which otherwise competes with the acyloin condensation when a five-, six-, or seven-membered ring can be closed (note that the ring formed by a Dieckmann condensation is always one carbon atom smaller than that formed by an acyloin condensation of the same substrate). The Me_3SiCl method

is especially good for the closing of four-membered rings.[755] Yields of four-, five-, and six-membered rings are improved by the use of ultrasound.[756]

The mechanism is not known with certainty, but it is usually presumed that the diketone RCOCOR is an intermediate,[757] since small amounts of it are usually isolated as side products, and when it is resistant to reduction (e.g., *t*-Bu—COCO—*t*-Bu), it is the major product. A possible sequence (analogous to that of 19-55) is:



In order to account for the ready formation of large rings, which means that the two ends of the chain must approach each other even though this is conformationally unfavorable for long chains, it may be postulated that the two ends become attached to nearby sites on the surface[758] of the sodium.

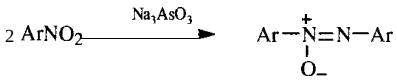
In a related reaction, aromatic carboxylic acids were condensed to α-diketones (2 ArCOOH → ArCOCOAr) on treatment with excess Li in dry THF in the presence of ultrasound.[759]

The acyloin condensation was used in an ingenious manner to prepare the first reported catenane (see p. 113).[760] This synthesis of a catenane produced only a small yield and relied on chance for threading the molecules before ring closure.

OS II, 114; IV, 840; VI, 167.

19-58 *Reduction of Nitro to Azoxy Compounds*

NITRO-AZOXY REDUCTIVE TRANSFORMATION

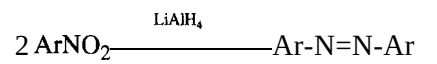


Azoxy compounds can be obtained from nitro compounds with certain reducing agents, notably sodium arsenite, sodium ethoxide, NaTeH,[761] $NaBH_4$—PhTeTePh,[762] and glucose. The most probable mechanism with most reagents is that one molecule of nitro compound is reduced to a nitroso compound and another to a hydroxylamine (**19-42**), and these combine (12-51). The combination step is rapid compared to the reduction process.[763] Nitroso compounds can be reduced to azoxy compounds with triethyl phosphite or triphenylphosphine[764] or with an alkaline aqueous solution of an alcohol.[765]

OS II, 57.

19-59 *Reduction of Nitro to Azo Compounds*

N-DE-BISOXYGEN-COUPLING



Nitro compounds can be reduced to azo compounds with various reducing agents, of which $LiAlH_4$ and zinc and alkali are the most common. With many of these reagents, slight differences in conditions can lead either to the azo or azoxy **(19-58)** compound. Analogously to **19-58,** this reaction may be looked on as a combination of $ArN{=}O$ and $ArNH_2$ **(12-50).** However, when the reducing agent was $NaBH_4$,[766] it was shown that azoxy compounds were intermediates. Nitroso compounds can be reduced to azo compounds with $LiAlH_4$.

Nitro compounds can be further reduced to hydrazo compounds with zinc and sodium hydroxide, with hydrazine hydrate and Raney nickel,[767] or with $LiAlH_4$ mixed with a metal chloride such as $TiCl_4$ or VCl_3.[768] The reduction has also been accomplished electrochemically.

OS HI, 103.

Reactions in Which an Organic Substrate Is Both Oxidized and Reduced

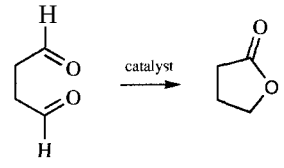
Some reactions that belong in this category have been considered in earlier chapters. Among these are the Tollens' condensation **(16-46),** the benzil-benzilic acid rearrangement (18-6), and the Wallach rearrangement **(18-43).**

19-60 *The Cannizzaro Reaction*

CANNIZZARO ALDEHYDE DISPROPORTIONATION

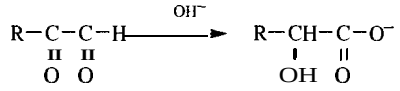
$$2\ ArCHO \xrightarrow{NaOH} ArCH_2OH + ArCOO^-$$

Aromatic aldehydes, and aliphatic ones with no a hydrogen, give the *Cannizzaro reaction* when treated with NaOH or other strong bases.[769] In this reaction, one molecule of aldehyde oxidizes another to the acid and is itself reduced to the primary alcohol. Aldehydes with an a hydrogen do not give the reaction, because when these compounds are treated with base the aldol reaction **(16-38)** is much faster.[770] Normally, the best yield of acid or alcohol is 50% each, but this can be altered in certain cases. When the aldehyde contains a hydroxide group in the ring, excess base oxidizes the alcohol formed and the acid can be prepared in high yield (the OH^- is reduced to H_2). On the other hand, high yields of alcohol can be obtained from almost any aldehyde by running the reaction in the presence of formaldehyde. In this case, the formaldehyde reduces the aldehyde to alcohol and is itself oxidized to formic acid. In such a case, where the oxidant aldehyde differs from the reductant aldehyde, the reaction is called the *crossed Cannizzaro reaction*.[771] The Tollens' condensation **(16-46)** includes a crossed Cannizzaro reaction as its last step. A Cannizzaro reaction run on 1,4-dialdehydes (note that a hydrogens are present here) with a rhodium phosphine complex catalyst gives ring closure, for example,[772]



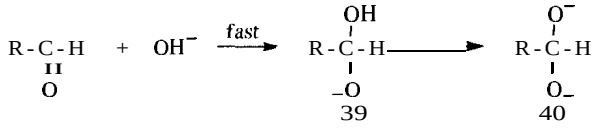
The product is the lactone derived from the hydroxy acid that would result from a normal Cannizzaro reaction.

α-Keto aldehydes give internal Cannizzaro reactions:

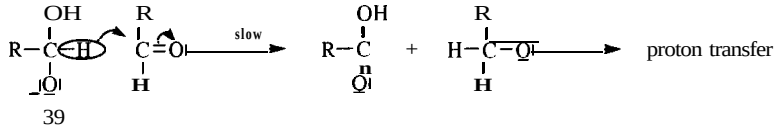


This product is also obtained on alkaline hydrolysis of compounds of the formula $RCOCHX_2$. Similar reactions have been performed on α-keto acetals[773] and γ-keto aldehydes.

The mechanism[774] of the Cannizzaro reaction[775] involves a hydride shift (an example of mechanism type 2, p. 1508). First, OH~adds to the C=O to give 39, which may lose a proton in the basic solution to give the di-ion 40.



The strong electron-donating character of O^- greatly facilitates the ability of the aldehydic hydrogen to leave with its electron pair. Of course, this effect is even stronger in 40. When the hydride does leave, it attacks another molecule of aldehyde. The hydride can come from 39 or 40:



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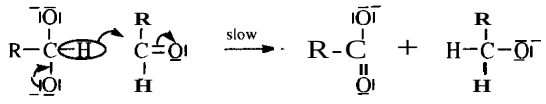


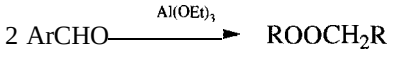
40

If the hydride ion comes from 39, the final step is a rapid proton transfer. In the other case, the acid salt is formed directly, and the alkoxide ion acquires a proton from the solvent. Evidence for this mechanism is (1) The reaction can be first order in base and second order in substrate (thus going through 39) or, at higher base concentrations, second order in each (going through 40); and (2) when the reaction was run in D_2O, the recovered alcohol contained no a deuterium,[776] indicating that the hydrogen comes from another mole of aldehyde and not from the medium.[777]

OS I, 276; II, 590; III, 538; IV, 110.

19-61 *The Tishchenko Reaction*

TISHCHENKO **ALDEHYDE-ESTER DISPROPORTIONATION**

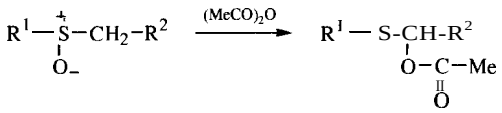


When aldehydes, with or without a hydrogen, are treated with aluminum ethoxide, one molecule is oxidized and another reduced, as in **19-60,** but here they are found as the ester. The process is called the *Tishchenko reaction.* Crossed Tishchenko reactions are also possible. With more strongly basic alkoxides, such as magnesium or sodium alkoxides, aldehydes with an a hydrogen give the aldol reaction. Like **19-60,** this reaction has a mechanism that involves hydride transfer.[778] The Tishchenko reaction can also be catalyzed[779] by ruthenium complexes,[780] by Cp_2ZrH_2[781] or $BuTi(O\text{—}i\text{-}Pr)_4Li$,[782] and, for aromatic aldehydes, by di sodium tetracarbonylferrate, $Na_2Fe(CO)_4$.[783]

OS I, 104.

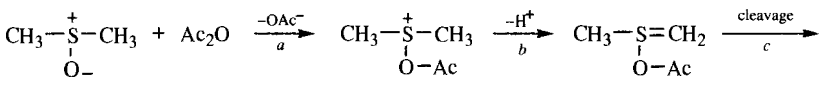
19-62 *The Pummerer Rearrangement*

PUMMERER METHYL SULFOXIDE REARRANGEMENT



When sulfoxides bearing an a hydrogen are treated with acetic anhydride, the product is an α-acetoxy sulfide. This is one example of *the Pummerer rearrangement,* in which the sulfur is reduced while an adjacent carbon is oxidized.[784] The product is readily hydrolyzed **(10-6)** to the aldehyde R_2CHO.[785] Besides acetic anhydride, other anhydrides and acyl halides give similar products. Inorganic acids such as HC1 also give the reaction, and $RSOCH_2R'$ can be converted to RSCHC1R' in this way. Sulfoxides can also be converted to α-halo sulfides[786] by other reagents, including sulfuryl chloride, NBS, and NCS. Enantioselective Pummerer rearrangements are known.[787] Uncatalyzed thermal rearrangements are also known.[788]

The following four-step mechanism has been proposed for the reaction between acetic anhydride and DMSO:[789]



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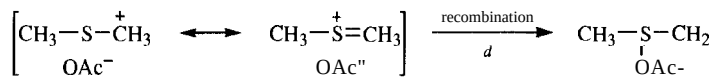


For DMSO and acetic anhydride, step d is intermolecular, as shown by ^{18}O isotopic labeling studies.[790] With other substrates, however, step d can be inter- or intramolecular, depending on the structure of the sulfoxide.[791] Depending on the substrate and reagent, any of the first three steps can be rate-determining. In the case of Me_2SO treated with $(F_3CCO)_2O$ the intermediate corresponding to 41[792] could be isolated at low temperature, and on warming gave the expected product.[793] There is much other evidence for this mechanism.[794]

19-63 *The Willgerodt Reaction*

WILLGERODT CARBONYL TRANSFORMATION

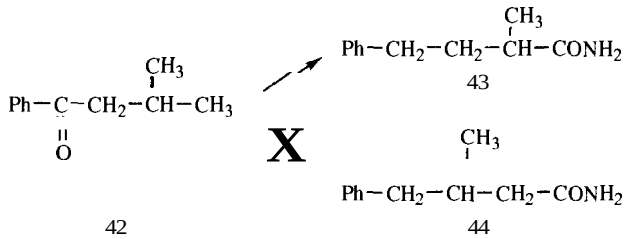
$$ArCOCH_3 \xrightarrow{(NH_4)_2S_X} ArCH_2CONH_2 + ArCH_2COO^- NH_4^+$$

In the *Willgerodt reaction*, a straight- or branched-chain aryl alkyl ketone is converted to the amide and/or the ammonium salt of the acid by heating with ammonium polysulfide.[795] The carbonyl group of the product is always at the end of the chain. Thus $ArCOCH_2CH_3$ gives the amide and the salt of $ArCH_2CH_2COOH$, and $ArCOCH_2CH_2CH_3$ gives derivatives of $ArCH_2CH_2CH_2COOH$. However, yields sharply decrease with increasing length of chain. The reaction has also been carried out on vinylic and ethynyl aromatic compounds and on aliphatic ketones, but yields are usually lower in these cases. Unlike the Pummerer rearrangement (19-62), which involves transposition of an oxygen from S to C, the Willgerodt reaction involves oxygen migration *and* oxidation of the organic species. The use of sulfur and a dry primary or secondary amine (or ammonia) as the reagent is called the *Kindler modification* of the Willgerodt reaction.[796] The product in this case is $Ar(CH_2)_nCSNR_2$,[797] which can be hydrolyzed to the acid. Particularly good results are obtained with morpholine as the amine. For volatile amines the HCl salts can be used instead, with NaOAc in DMF at 100°C.[798] Dimethylamine has also been used in the form of dimethylammonium dimethylcarbamate ($Me_2NCOOMe_2NH_2^+$.[799]) The Kindler modification has also been applied to aliphatic ketones.[800]

Alkyl aryl ketones can be converted to arylacetic acid derivatives in an entirely different manner. The reaction consists of treatment of the substrate with silver nitrate and I_2 or Br_2,[801] or with thallium nitrate, MeOH, and trimethyl orthoformate adsorbed on Montmorillonite K-10 clay, an acidic clay.[802]

$$ArCOCH_2R \xrightarrow[I_2 \text{ or } Br_2]{AgNO_3} Ar-\underset{\displaystyle R}{\underset{|}{CH}}-COOCH_3 \qquad R = H, Me, Et$$

The mechanism of the Willgerodt reaction is not completely known, but some conceivable mechanisms can be excluded. Thus, one might suppose that the alkyl group becomes completely detached from the ring and then attacks it with its other end. However, this possibility is ruled out by experiments such as the following: When isobutyl phenyl ketone (42) is subjected to the Willgerodt reaction, the product is 43, not 44, which would arise if the end carbon of the ketone became bonded to the ring in the product:[803]



42 43 44

This also excludes a cyclic-intermediate mechanism similar to that of the Claisen rearrangement (18-33). Another important fact is that the reaction is successful for singly branched side chains, such as 42, but not for doubly branched side chains, as in $PhCOCMe_3$.[803] Still another piece of evidence is that compounds oxygenated along the chain give the same products; thus $PhCOCH_2CH_3$, $PhCH_2COMe$, and $PhCH_2CH_2CHO$ all give $PhCH_2CH_2CONH_2$.[804] All these facts point to a mechanism consisting of consecutive oxidations and reductions along the chain, though just what form these take is not certain. Initial reduction to the hydrocarbon can be ruled out, since alkylbenzenes do not give the reaction. In certain cases, imines[805] or enamines[806] have been isolated from primary and secondary amines, respectively, and these have been shown to give the normal products, leading to the suggestion that they may be reaction intermediates.

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[6] For a review of the oxidation of phenols, see Mihailović, M.Lj.; Čeković, Z. in Patai *The Chemistry of the Hydroxyl Group,* pt. 1; Wiley: NY, *1971,* p. 505.

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APPENDIX A

The Literature of Organic Chemistry

All discoveries in the laboratory must be published somewhere if the information is to be made generally available. A new experimental result that is not published might as well not have been obtained, insofar as it benefits the entire chemical world. The total body of chemical knowledge (called *the literature)* is located on the combined shelves of all the chemical libraries in the world. Anyone who wishes to learn whether the answer to any chemical question is known, and, if so, what the answer is, has only to turn to the contents of these shelves. Indeed the very expressions "is known", "has been done" and so on, really mean "has been published". To the uninitiated, the contents of the shelves may appear formidably large, but fortunately the process of extracting information from the literature of organic chemistry is usually not difficult. In this appendix, we shall examine the literature of organic chemistry, confining our attention chiefly to the results of laboratory work, rather than those of industrial organic chemistry.[1] The literature can be divided into two broad categories: primary sources and secondary sources. A *primary source* publishes the original results of laboratory investigations. Books, indexes, and other publications that cover material that has previously been published in primary sources are called *secondary sources.* It is because of the excellence of the secondary sources in organic chemistry (especially Chemical *Abstracts* and Beilstein) that literature searching is comparatively not difficult. The two chief kinds of primary source are journals and patents. There are several types of secondary source.

PRIMARY SOURCES

Journals

For well over 100 years, nearly all new work in organic chemistry (except for that disclosed in patents) has been published in journals. There are thousands of journals that publish chemical papers, in many countries and in many languages. Some print papers covering all fields of science; some are restricted to chemistry; some to organic chemistry; and some are still more specialized. Fortunately for the sanity of organic chemists, the vast majority of important papers in "pure" organic chemistry (as opposed to "applied") are published in relatively few journals, perhaps 50 or fewer. Of course, this is still a large number, especially since some are published

weekly and some semimonthly, but it is considerably smaller than the total number of journals (perhaps as high as 10,000) that publish chemical articles.

In addition to ordinary papers, there are two other types of publications in which original work is reported: *notes* and *communications*. A note is a brief paper, often without a summary (nearly all papers are published with summaries or abstracts prepared by the author). Otherwise, a note is similar to a paper.[2] Communications (also called *letters)* are also brief and usually without summaries (though some journals now publish summaries along with their communications, a welcome trend). However, communications differ from notes and papers in three respects:

1. They are brief, not because the work is of small scope, but because they are condensed. Usually, they include only the most important experimental details or none at all.
2. They are of immediate significance. Journals that publish communications make every effort to have them appear as soon as possible after they are received. Some papers and notes are of great importance, and some are of lesser importance, but all communications are supposed to be of high importance.
3. Communications are preliminary reports, and the material in them may be republished as papers at a later date, in contrast to the material in papers and notes, which cannot be republished.

Although papers (we use the term in its general sense, to cover notes and communications also) are published in many languages, the English-speaking chemist is in a fairly fortunate position. At present, well over one-half of the important papers in organic chemistry are published in English. Not only are American, British, and British Commonwealth journals published almost entirely in English, but so are many others around the world. There are predominantly English-language journals published in Japan, Italy, Czech Republic and other countries. In a recent reorganization, six prominent European journals *(Chemische Berichte, Liebigs Annalen der Chemie, Bulletin de la Societe Chimique de France, Bulletin des Societes Chimique Beiges, Recueil des Travaux Chimiques des Pays-Bas, and Gazzetta Chimica Italiana)* have been discontinued. In their place is the *European Journal of Organic Chemistry,* published in English. Most of the articles published in other languages have summaries printed in English also. Furthermore, the second most important language (in terms of the number of organic chemical papers published) was Russian, and most of these papers are available in English translation, though in most cases, 6 months to 1 year later. With the political changes in Russia, however, many of these journals have been modified or discontinued. A considerable number of important papers are published in German and French; these are generally not available in translation, so that the organic chemist should have at least a reading knowledge of these languages. An exception is the journal *Angewandte Chemie,* which in 1962 became available in English under the title *Angewandte Chemie International* edition in English. Of course, a reading knowledge of French and German (especially German) is even more important for the older literature. Before $\sim$1920, more than one-half of the important

chemical papers were in these languages. It must be realized that the original literature is never obsolete. Secondary sources become superseded or outdated, but nineteenth century journals are found in most chemical libraries and are still consulted. Table A.1 presents a list of the more important current journals that publish original papers[3] and communications in organic chemistry. Some of them also publish review articles, book reviews, and other material. Changes in journal title have not been infrequent; footnotes to the table indicate some of the more important, but some of the other journals listed have also undergone title changes. In 1999, the *Journal of Organic Chemistry* stopped publishing communications, and these are now published in a new journal, *Organic Letters.*

The primary literature has grown so much in recent years that attempts have been made to reduce the volume. One such attempt is the *Journal of Chemical Research,* begun in 1977. The main section of this journal, called the "Synopses", publishes synopses, which are essentially long abstracts, with references. The full texts of most of the papers are published only in microfiche and miniprint versions. For some years, the American Chemical Society journals, including/ *Am. Chem. Soc. and J. Org. Chem.*, have provided supplementary material for some of their papers. This material is available from the Microforms and Back Issues Office at the ACS Washington office, either on microfiche or as a photocopy. These practices have not yet succeeded in substantially reducing the total volume of the world's primary chemical literature.

Patents

In many countries, including the United States, it is possible to patent a new compound or a new method for making a known compound (either laboratory or industrial procedures), as long as the compounds are useful. It comes as a surprise to many to learn that a substantial proportion of the patents granted (perhaps 20-30%) are chemical patents. Chemical patents are part of the chemical literature, and both U.S. and foreign patents are regularly abstracted by *Chemical Abstracts.* In addition to learning about the contents of patents from this source, chemists may consult the *Official Gazette* of the U.S. Patent Office, which, published weekly and available in many libraries, lists titles of all patents issued that week. Bound volumes of all U.S. patents are kept in a number of large libraries, including the New York Public Library, which also has an extensive collection of foreign patents. Photocopies of any U.S. patent and most foreign patents can be obtained at low cost from the U.S. Patent and Trademark Office, Washington, DC, 20231. In addition, *Chemical Abstracts* lists, in the introduction to the first issue of each volume, instructions for obtaining patents from 26 countries.

Although patents are often very useful to the laboratory chemist, and no literature search is complete that neglects relevant patents, as a rule they are not as reliable as papers. There are two reasons for this:

1. It is in the interest of the inventor to claim as much as possible. Therefore he or she may, for example, actually have carried out a reaction with ethanol and

TABLE A.1 A List of the More Important Current Journals that Currently Publish Original Papers in Organic Chemistry[a]

No.	Name	Papers or Communications	Issues per Year
1	Acta Chemica Scandinavica (1947)	P	10
2	Angewandte Chemie (18 8 8)[b]	C[c]	12
3	Australian Journal of Chemistry (1948)	P	12
4	Bioorganic Chemistry (1971)	P[c]	4
5	Bioorganic & Medicinal Chemistry Letters (1991)	C	12
6	Bulletin of the Chemical Society of Japan (1926)	P	12
7	Canadian Journal of Chemistry (1929)	PC	12
8	Carbohydrate Research (1965)	PC	22
9	Chemistry and Industry (London) (1923)	C	24
10	Chemistry Letters (1972)	C	12
11	Chimia(1947)	C[c]	12
12	Collection of Czechoslovak Chemical Communications (1929)	P	12
13	Doklady Akademii Nauk SSSR (1922)[b]	C	36
14.	European Journal of Organic Chemistry (1998)	P	12
15	Helvetica Chimica Acta (1918)	P	8
16	Heteroatom Chemistry (1990)	P	6
17	Heterocycles(1973)	C[c]	12
18	International Journal of Chemical Kinetics (1969)	p	12
19	Israel Journal of Chemistry (1963)	P[d]	4
20	Izvestiya Akademii Nauk SSSR, Seriya Khimicheskaya (1936)[b]	PC	12
21	Journal of the American Chemical Society (1879)	PC	52
22	Journal of Chemical Research, Synopses (1977)	p	12
23	Chemical Communications (1965)	C	24
24	Journal of the Chemical Society, Perkin Transactions 1: Organic and Bio-Organic Chemistry (1841)[e]	PC	12
25	Journal of the Chemical Society, Perkin Transactions 2: physical Organic Chemistry (1841)[f]	P	12
14.	Journal of Computational Chemistry (1979)	P	16
26	Journal of Fluorine Chemistry (1971)	PC	12
27	Journal of Heterocyclic Chemistry (1964)	PC	12
28	Journal of the Indian Chemical Society (1924)	P	12
29	Journal of Medicinal Chemistry (1958)	PC	12
30	Journal of Molecular Structure (1967)	PC	16
31	Journal of Organometallic Chemistry (1963)	PC	48
32	Journal of Organic Chemistry (1936)	PC	26
33	Journal of Photochemistry and Photobiology, A: Chemistry (1972)	P	12
34	Journal of Physical Organic Chemistry (1988)	P	12
35	Journal für Praktische Chemie (1834)	P	6
36	Khimiya Geterotsiklicheskikh Soedinenii (1965)[b]	P	12
37	Liebigs Annalen der Chemie (1832)	P	12

TABLE A.1 *(Continued)*

No.	Name	Papers or Communications	Issues per Year
38	Mendeleev Communications (1991)	C	8
39	**Metalloorg**anicheskaya **Khimi**ya (1988)[b]	PC	6
40	**Monatsh**efte für **Chem**ie (1870)	P	12
41	New Journal of Chemistry (1977)*	P	11
42	**Organometallics** (1982)	PC	12
43	Organic Letters (1999)	C	12
44	**Org**anic **Mass Spectrom**etry (1968)	PC	12
45	Organic Preparations and Procedures International (1969)	P[c]	6
46	Photochemistry and Photobiology (1962)	P[c]	12
47	Polish Journal of Chemistry (1921)*	PC	12
48	Pure and Applied Chemistry (1960)	*h*	12
49	Research on Chemical Intermediates (1973)[11]	P[c]	6
50	Sulfur Letters (1982)	C	6
51	**Synlett** (1989)	C[c]	12
52	Synthetic Communications (1971)	C	22
53	Synthesis (1969)	P[c]	12
54	Tetrahedron (1958)	P[c]	52
55	Tetrahedron: Asymmetry (1990)	PC	12
56	Tetrahedron Letters (1959)	C	52
57	**Zh**urnal Obshchei **Khimi**i (1869)[b]	PC	12
58	Zhurnal Organicheskoi Khimii (1965)[b]	PC	12

"These journels listed in alphabetical order of *Chemical Abstracts* abbreviations, which are indicated in boldface. Also given are the year of founding, number of issues per year as of 1998, and whether the journal primarily publishes papers (P), communications (C), or both.

[b] See Ref. 4.

[c] See Ref. 5.

[d] See Ref. 6.

[e] See Ref. 7.

[f] See Ref. 8.

[g] See Ref 9.

[h] See Ref. 10.

with 1-propanol, but will claim all primary alcohols, and perhaps even secondary and tertiary alcohols, glycols, and phenols. An investigator repeating the reaction on an alcohol that the inventor did not use may find that the reaction gives no yield at all. In general, it is safest to duplicate the actual examples given, of which most chemical patents contain one or more.

2. Although legally a patent gives an inventor a monopoly, any alleged infringements must be protected in court, and this may cost a good deal of money. Therefore some patents are written so that certain essential details are concealed or entirely omitted. This practice is not exactly cricket, because a patent is supposed to be a full disclosure, but patent attorneys are generally

skilled in the art of writing patents, and procedures given are not always sufficient to duplicate the results.

Fortunately, the above statements do not apply to all chemical patents: many make full disclosures and claim only what was actually done. It must also be pointed out that it is not always possible to duplicate the work reported in every paper in a journal. In general, however, the laboratory chemist must be more wary of patents than of papers.

SECONDARY SOURCES

Journal articles and patents contain virtually all of the original work in organic chemistry. However, if this were all, if there were no indexes, abstracts, review articles, and other secondary sources, the literature would be unusable because it is so vast that no one could hope to find anything in particular. Fortunately, the secondary sources are excellent. There are various kinds and the categories tend to merge. Our classification is somewhat arbitrary.

Listings of Titles

The profusion of original papers is so great that publications merely listing the titles of current papers find much use. Such lists are primarily methods of alerting the chemist to useful papers published in journals that he or she does not normally read. There are two "title" publications covering the whole of chemistry. One of these, *Current Contents Physical, Chemical & Earth Sciences*,[12] which began in 1967 and appears weekly, contains the contents pages of all issues of ~ 800 journals in chemistry, physics, earth sciences, mathematics, and allied sciences. Each issue contains an index of important words taken from the titles of the papers listed in that issue, and an author index, which, however, lists only the first-named author of each paper. The author's address is also given, so that one may write for reprints. *Current Contents* is also available on computer disks, with "keywords"—words taken from the title and the interior of the paper. The disks can be searched for the keywords, allowing the user to find papers containing specific topics of interest.

The other "title" publication is *Chemical Titles*, published by chemical Abstracts Service. This biweekly publication, begun in 1961, lists, in English, all titles from more than 700 journals, all in the field of chemistry. The most useful aspect of this publication is the way the titles are given. They are listed in alphabetical order of *every word in the title*, except for such words as "the", "of", "investigation", "synthesis", and so on. (each issue contains a list of words prevented from indexing). This means that a title containing seven significant words is listed seven times. These words are also called "keywords". Furthermore, at each listing are given the words that immediately precede and follow the keyword. In the second section of each issue (called the Bibliography), the complete titles and the authors are given. Incidentally, this Bibliography duplicates, for the journals they both cover, the

listings in *Current Contents Physical, Chemical, & Earth Sciences,* since the complete contents of journals are given in order of page number. Each issue of *Chemical Titles* has an author index, covering all authors, not just the first author. Addresses are not given.

Abstracts

Listings of titles are valuable, as far as they go, but they do not tell what is in the paper, beyond the implications carried by the titles. From the earliest days of organic chemistry, abstracts of papers have been widely available, often as sections of journals whose principal interests lay elsewhere.[13] At the present time, there are only two publications entirely devoted to abstracts covering the whole field of chemistry. One of these, *Referativnyi Zhurnal, Khimiya*, which began in 1953, is published in Russian and is chiefly of interest to Russian-speaking chemists. The other is *Chemical Abstracts.* This publication, which appears weekly, prints abstracts in English of virtually every paper containing original work in pure or applied chemistry published anywhere in the world.[14] Approximately 18,000 journals are covered, in many languages. In addition, *CA* publishes abstracts of every patent of chemical interest from 18 countries, including the United States, the United Kingdom, Germany, and Japan, as well as many patents from 8 additional countries. *Chemical Abstracts* lists and indexes but does not abstract review articles and books. The abstracts currently appear in 80 sections, of which sections 21–34 are devoted to organic chemistry, under such headings as Alicyclic Compounds, Alkaloids, Physical Organic Chemistry, Heterocyclic Compounds (One Heteroatom), and so on. Each abstract of a paper begins with a heading that gives (1) the abstract number;[15] (2) the title of the paper; (3) the authors' names as fully as given in the paper; (4) the authors' address; (5) the abbreviated name of the journal (see Table A.1);[16] (6) the year, volume, issue, and page numbers; and (7) the language of the paper. In earlier years, *CA* gave the language only if it differed from the language of the journal title. Abstracts of patents begin with the abstract number, title, inventor and company (if any), patent number, patent class number, date patent issued, country of priority, patent application number, date patent applied for, and number of pages in the patent. The body of the abstract is a concise summary of the information in the paper. For many common journals, the author's summary (if there is one) is used in *CA* as it appears in the original paper, with perhaps some editing and additional information. Each issue of *CA* contains an author index, a patent index, and an index of keywords taken from the titles and the texts or contexts of the abstracts. The patent index lists all patents in order of number. The same compound or method is often patented in several countries. *Chemical Abstracts* abstracts only the first patent, but does list the patent numbers of the duplicated patents in the patent index along with all previous patent numbers that correspond to it. Before 1981 there were separate Patent Number Indexes and Patent Concordances (the latter began in 1963).

At the end of each section of *CA* there is a list of cross-references to related papers in other sections.

Chemical Abstracts is, of course, highly used for "current awareness"; it allows one to read, in one place, abstracts of virtually all new work in chemistry, though its large size puts a limit on the extent of this type of usefulness.[17] *Chemical Abstracts* is even more useful as a repository of chemical information, a place for finding out what was done in the past. This value stems from the excellent indexes, which enable the chemist in most cases to ascertain quickly where information is located. From the time of its founding in 1907 until 1961, *CA* published annual indexes. Since 1962 there are two volumes published each year, and a separate index is issued for each volume. For each volume there is an index of subjects, authors, formulas, and patent numbers. Beginning in 1972 the subject index has been issued in two parts, a chemical substance index and a general subject index, which includes all entries that are not the names of single chemical substances. However, the indexes to each volume become essentially superseded as collective indexes are issued. The first collective indexes are 10-year (decennial) indexes, but the volume of information has made 5-year indexes necessary since 1956. Collective indexes so far published are shown in Table A.2. Thus a user of the indexes at the time of this writing would consult the collective indexes through 1995 and the semiannual indexes thereafter. The 14th collective index (covering 1997-2001) is scheduled to appear in 2002.

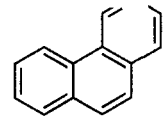
Beginning with the eighth collective index period, *CA* has published an *Index Guide.* This publication gives structural formulas and/or alternate names for thousands of compounds, as well as many other cross-references. It is designed to help the user efficiently and rapidly to find *CA* references to subjects of interest in the general subject, formula, and chemical substance indexes. Each collective index contains its own *Index Guide.* A new *Index Guide* is issued every 18 months. The *Index Guide* is necessary because the *CA* general subject index is a "controlled

TABLE A.2 *CA* Collective Indexes So Far Published

	Subject				
Collective Index	General Subject	Chemical Substance	Author	Formula	Patents
1	1907-1916		1907-1916		
2	1917-1926		1917-1926		1907-1936
3	1927–1936		1927-1936	1920-1946	
4	1937_1946		1937-1946		1937-1946
5	1947-1956		1947-1956	1947-1956	1947-1956
6	1957-1961		1957-1961	1957-1961	1957-1961
7	1962-1966		1962-1966	1962-1966	1962-1966
8	1967–1971		1967-1971	1967-1971	1967-1971
9	1972-1976	1972-1976	1972-1976	1972-1976	1972-1976
10	1977-1981	1977-1981	1977-1981	1977-1981	1977-1981
11	1982-1986	1982-1986	1982-1986	1982-1986	1982-1986
12	1987-1991	1987-1991	1987-1991	1987-1991	1987-1991
13	1992-1996	1992-1996	1992-1996	1992-1996	1992-1996
14					

index", meaning it restricts its entries only to certain terms. For example, anyone who looks for the term "refraction" in the general subject index will not find it. The *Index Guide* includes this term, and directs the reader to "Electromagnetic wave, refraction of", "Sound and ultrasound, refraction of", and other terms, all of which will be found in the general subject index. Similarly, the chemical substance index usually lists a compound only under one name the approved *CA* name. Trivial and other names will be found in the *Index Guide.* For example, the term "methyl carbonate" is not in the chemical substance index, but the *Index Guide* does have this term, and tells us to look for it in the chemical substance index under the headings "carbonic acid, esters, dimethyl ester" (for Me_2CO_3) and "carbonic acid, esters, monomethyl ester" (for $MeHCO_3$). Furthermore, the *Index Guide* gives terms related to the chosen term, helping users to broaden a search. For example, one who looks for "Atomic orbital" in the *Index Guide* will find the terms "Energy Level", "Molecular orbital", "Atomic integral", and "Exchange, quantum mechanical, integrals for", all of which are controlled index terms.

Along with each index (annual, semiannual, or collective) appears an index of ring systems. This valuable index enables the user to ascertain immediately if any ring system appears in the corresponding subject or chemical substance index and under what names. For example, someone wishing to determine whether any compounds containing this ring system



Benz(*h*)isoquinoline

are reported in the 1982–1986 collective index (even if he or she did not know the name) would locate, under the heading "3-ring systems" the listing **6, 6, 6** (since the compound has three rings of six members each), under which he or she would find the sublisting C_5N– C_6–C_6 (since one ring contains five carbons and a nitrogen while the others are all-carbon), under which is listed the name benz(*h*)isoquinoline, as well as the names of 30 other systems C_5N–C_6–C_6. A search of the chemical substance index under these names will give all references to these ring systems that have appeared in *CA* from 1982 to 1986.

Before 1967, *CA* used a two-column page, with each column separately numbered. A row of letters from *a* to *h* appeared down the center of the page. These letters are for the guidance of the user. Thus an entry 7337*b* refers to the *b* section of column 7337. In early years, superscript numbers (e.g., 4327^5) were used in a similar manner. In very early years, these numbers were not printed on the page at all, though they are given in the decennial indexes, so that the user must mentally divide the page into nine parts. Beginning with 1967, abstracts are individually numbered and column numbers are discarded. Therefore, beginning with 1967, index entries give abstract number rather than column number. The abstract numbers are followed by a letter that serves as a check character to prevent miscopying errors in computer handling. To use the *CA* general subject, chemical substance, and formula indexes

intelligently requires practice, and the student should become familiar with representative volumes of these indexes and with the introductory sections to them, as well as with the *Index Guides.*

In the *CA* formula indexes, formulas are listed in order of (1) number of carbon atoms; (2) number of hydrogen atoms; (3) other elements in alphabetic order. Thus, all C_3 compounds are listed before any C_4 compound; all C_5H_7 compounds before any C_5H_8 compound; $C_7H_{11}Br$ before C_7H_1,N; $C_9H_6N_4S$ before C_9H_6O, and so on. Deuterium and tritium are represented by D and T and treated alphabetically (e.g., C_2H_5DO after C_2H_5Cl and before C_2H_5F or C_2H_6).

Since 1965, *CA* has assigned a Registry Number to each unique chemical substance. This is a number of the form [766-51-8] that remains invariant, no matter what names are used in the literature. More than 10 million numbers have already been assigned and thousands are added each week. Registry Numbers are primarily for computer use. All numbers so far have been published with the *CA* preferred names in a multivolume "Registry Handbook".

For abstracts printed since 1967 (the eighth collective period and later), *CA* can be searched by computer online. For a discussion of online searching see pages. 1616, 1631.

Although *CA* and *Referativnyi Zhurnal, Khimya* are currently the only chemical abstracting publications that cover the entire field of chemistry, there were a number of earlier abstracting publications now defunct. The most important are *Chemisches Zentralblatt* and *British Abstracts.* These publications are still valuable because they began before *CA* and can therefore supply abstracts for papers that appeared before 1907. Furthermore, even for papers published after 1907, *Zentralblatt* and *British Abstracts* are often more detailed. *Zentralblatt* was published, under various names, from 1830 to 1969.[18] *British Abstracts* was a separate publication from 1926 to 1953, but earlier abstracts from this source are available in the *Journal of the Chemical Society* from 1871 to 1925.

Beilstein

This publication is so important to organic chemistry that it deserves a section by itself. Beilstein's "Handbuch der Organischen Chemie", usually referred to as *Beilstein,* lists all the known organic compounds reported in the literature during its period of coverage. For each compound are given: all names; the molecular formula; the structural formula; all methods of preparation (briefly, e.g., "by refluxing 1-butanol with NaBr and sulfuric acid"); physical constants such as melting point, refractive index, and so on; other physical properties; chemical properties including reactions; occurrence in nature (i.e., which species it was isolated from); biological properties, if any; derivatives with melting points; analytical data, and any other information that has been reported in the literature.[19] Equally important, for every piece of information, a reference is given to the original literature. Furthermore, the data in Beilstein have been critically evaluated. That is, all information is carefully researched and documented, and duplicate and erroneous results are eliminated.

Some compounds are discussed in two or three lines and others require several pages. The value of such a work should be obvious.

The first three editions of Beilstein are obsolete. The fourth edition *(vierte Auflage)* covers the literature from its beginnings through 1909. This edition, called *das Hauptwerk*, consists of 27 volumes. The compounds are arranged in order of a system too elaborate to discuss fully here.[20] The compounds are divided into three divisions which are further subdivided into "systems":

Division	Volumes	System Numbers
I. Acyclic Compounds	1-4	1-499
II. Carbocyclic Compounds	5-16	450-2359
III. Heterocyclic Compounds	17-27	2360-4720

Das Hauptwerk is still the basis of Beilstein and has not been superseded. The later literature is covered by supplements that have been arranged to parallel *das Hauptwerk*. The same system is used, so that the compounds are treated in the same order. The first supplement *(erstes Ergänzungswerk)* covers 1910-1919; the second supplement *(zweites Ergänzungwerk)* covers 1920-1929; the third supplement *(drittes Ergdnzungswerk)* covers 1930-1949; the fourth supplement *(viertes Ergdnzungswerk)* covers 1950-1959, and the fifth supplement covers 1960-1979. Like *das Hauptwerk*, each supplement contains 27 volumes,[21] except that supplements 3 and 4 are combined for vols. 17-27, so that for these volumes the combined third and fourth supplement covers the years 1930-1959. Each supplement has been divided into volumes in the same way as *das Hauptwerk*, and, for example, compounds found in vol. 3, system number 199 of *das Hauptwerk* will also be found in vol. 3, system number 199 of each supplement. To make cross-referencing even easier, each supplement gives, for each compound, the page numbers at which the same compound can be found in the earlier books. Thus, on page 554 of vol. 6 of the fourth supplement, under the listing phenetole are found the symbols (H 140; E I 80; E II 142; E III 545) indicating that earlier information on phenetole is given on page 140 of vol. 6 of *das Hauptwerk*, on page 80 of the first, page 142 of the second, and page 545 of the third supplement. Furthermore, each page of the supplements contains, at the top center, the corresponding page numbers of *das Hauptwerk*. Since the same systematic order is followed in all six series, location of a compound in any one series gives its location in the other five. If a compound is found, for example, in vol. 5 of *das Hauptwerk*, one has but to note the page number and scan vol. 5 of each supplement until that number appears in the top center of the page (the same number often covers several pages). Of course, many compounds are found in only one, two, three, four, or five of the series, since no work may have been published on that compound during a particular period covered. From *das Hauptwerk* to the fourth supplement, Beilstein is in German, though it is not difficult to read since most of the words are the names of compounds (a Beilstein German-English Dictionary, available free from the publisher, is in many libraries). For the fifth supplement

(covering 1960–1979), which is in English, publication of Division III began before the earlier divisions. At the time of this writing, vols. 17-22 (totaling 70 separate parts exclusive of index volumes) of this supplement have been published, as well as a combined index for volumes 17-19. This index covers only the fifth supplement. The subject portion of this index, which lists compound names only, gives these names in English.

Volumes 28 and 29 of Beilstein are subject and formula indexes, respectively. The most recent complete edition of these volumes is part of the second supplement and covers only *das Hauptwerk* and the first two supplements (though complete indexes covering *das Hauptwerk* and the first four supplements have been announced to appear in the next few years). For vol. 1, there is a cumulative subject and a cumulative formula index, which combine *das Hauptwerk* and the first four supplements.[22] Similar index volumes, covering all four supplements, have been issued for the other volumes, 2-27. Some of these are combined, (e.g., 2-3, 12-14, and 23-25). For English-speaking chemists (and probably for many German-speaking chemists), the formula indexes are more convenient. Of course (except for the fifth supplement indexes), one must still know some German, because most formula listings contain the names of many isomers. If a compound is found only in *das Hauptwerk*, the index listing is merely the volume and page numbers, (e.g., 1, 501). Roman numbers are used to indicate the supplements, (e.g., 26, 15, I 5, II 7). Thus the subject and formula indexes lead at once to locations in *das Hauptwerk* and the first four supplements. The Beilstein formula indexes are constructed the same way as the *CA* indexes (p. 1614).

There is also a fourth division of Beilstein (systems 4721-4877) that covers natural products of uncertain structure: rubbers, sugars, and so on. These are treated in vols. 30 and 31, which do not go beyond 1935 and which are covered in the collective indexes. These volumes will not be updated. All such compounds are now included in the regular Beilstein volumes.

Like *CA*, Beilstein is available online, including the useful search engine *CrossFire.*

Tables of Information

In addition to Beilstein, there are many other reference works in organic chemistry that are essentially compilations of data. These books are very useful and often save the research worker a great deal of time. In this section, we discuss some of the more important of such works.

1. The sixth edition of "Heilbron's Dictionary of Organic Compounds", J. Buckingham, Ed., 9 vols., Chapman and Hall, London, ***1996,*** contains brief listings of > 150,000 organic compounds, giving names, structural formulas, physical properties, and derivatives, with references. For many entries additional data concerning occurrence, biological activity, and toxicity hazard information are also given. The arrangement is alphabetical. The dictionary contains indexes of names, formulas, heteroatoms, and *CA*

Registry Numbers. Annual supplements, with cumulative indexes, have appeared since 1983. A similar work, devoted to organometallic compounds. is the 2nd edition of the "Dictionary of Organometallic Compounds"', 6 vols. in its 5th supplement, published by Chapman and Hall in ***1989.*** Another, "Dictionary of Steroids", 2 vols., 1991, is also published by Chapman and Hall.

2. A multivolume compendium of physical data is Landolt-Börnsteins's "Zahlenwerte und Funktionen aus Physik, Chemie, Astronomie, Geophysik, und Technik", 6th ed., Springer, Berlin, 1950–. There is also a "New Series", for which the volumes are given the English title "Numerical Data and Functional Relationships in Science and Technology", as well as the German title. This compendium, which is not yet complete, lists a great deal of data, some of which are of interest to organic chemists, (e.g., indexes of refraction, heats of combustion, optical rotations, and spectral data). Literature references are given for all data.
3. "The Handbook of Chemistry and Physics", CRC Press, Boca Raton, FL (called the "rubber handbook"), which is revised annually (81st ed., 2000-2001), is a valuable repository of data quickly found. For organic chemists the most important table is "Physical Constants of Organic Compounds", which lists names, formulas, color, solubilities, and physical properties of thousands of compounds. However, there are many other useful tables. A similar work is Lange's "Handbook of Chemistry", 13th ed., McGraw-Hill, New York, 1985. Another such handbook, but restricted to data of interest to organic chemists, is Dean, "Handbook of Organic Chemistry", McGraw-Hill, New York, 1987. This book also contains a long table of "Physical Constants of Organic Compounds", and has much other information including tables of thermodynamic properties, spectral peaks, pK_a values, bond distances, and dipole moments.
4. A list of most of the known natural compounds (e.g., terpenes, alkaloids, carbohydrates) to which structures have been assigned, along with structural formulas, melting points, optical rotations, and references, is provided in Devon and Scott, "Handbook of Naturally Occurring Compounds", 3 vols., Academic Press, New York, 1972.
5. Dreisbach, "Physical Properties of chemical Compounds", Advances in Chemistry Series nos. 15, 22, 29, American chemical Society, Washington, 1955-1961 lists many physical properties of more than 1000 organic compounds.
6. Physical properties of thousands of organometallic compounds, with references, are collected in five large compendia: the "Dictionary of Organometallic Compounds", mentioned under item 1, above; Dub, "Organometallic Compounds", 2nd ed., 3 vols. with supplements and index, Springer, New York, 1966–1975; Hagihara, Kumada, and Okawara, "Handbook of Organometallic Compounds", W. A. Benjamin, New York, 1968; and Kaufman, "Handbook of Organometallic Compounds", Van

Nostrand, Princeton, NJ, 1961; "Comprehensive Organometallic Chemistry II", 14 vols., Pergamon, 1995.

7. The "Merck Index", 12th ed., Merck and Company, Rahway, NJ, ***1996*** is a good source of information about chemicals of medicinal importance. Many drugs are given three types of name: chemical *name* (which is the name an organic chemist would give it; of course, there may well be more than one); *generic name*, which must be placed on all containers of the drug; and *trade names*, which are different for each company that markets the drug. For example, the generic name for 1-(4-chlorobenzhydryl)-4-methylpiperazine is chlorcyclazine. Among the trade names for this drug, which is an antihistamine, are Trihistan, Perazyl, and Alergicide. The Merck Index is especially valuable because it gives all known names of all three types for each compound and the names are cross-indexed. Also given, for each compound, are the structural formula, *CA* preferred name and Registry Number, physical properties, medicinal and other uses, toxicity indications, and references to methods of synthesis. There are indexes of formulas and Registry Numbers, and miscellaneous tables. The 10th edition of the Merck Index (1983) also includes a lengthy list of organic name reactions, with references. The 11th edition omits this list, but it is restored in the 12th edition.
8. There are two publications that list properties of azeotropic mixtures. Timmermans, "The Physicochemical Constants of Binary Systems in Concentrated Solutions", 4 vols., Interscience, New York, 1959-1960, is by far the more comprehensive. The other is "Azeotropic Data", 2 vols., Advances in Chemistry Series no. 6 and no. 35, American chemical Society, Washington, 1952, 1962.
9. Thousands of dipole moments, with references, are collected in McClellan, "Tables of Experimental Dipole Moments", vol. 1, W.H. Freeman, San Francisco, CA, 1963; vol. 2, Rahara Enterprises, El Cerrita, CA, 1974.
10. "Tables of Interatomic Distances and Configurations in Molecules and Ions", London Chemical Society Special publication no. 11, 1958, and its supplement, Special publication no. 18, 1965, include bond distances and angles for hundreds of compounds, along with references.
11. The "Ring Systems Handbook", published in 1988 by the Chemical Abstracts Service, provides the names and formulas of ring and cage systems that have been published in *CA*. The ring systems are listed under a system essentially the same as that used for the *CA* index of ring systems (p. 1613). Each entry gives the *CA* index name and Registry Number for that ring system. In many cases, a *CA* reference is also given. There is a separate Formula Index (for the parent ring systems) and a Ring Name Index. Cumulative supplements are issued twice a year. The "Ring Systems Handbook" supersedes earlier publications called "The Parent Compound Handbook" and "The Ring Index".
12. The Sadtler Research Laboratories publish large collections of IR, UV, NMR, and other spectra, in loose-leaf form. Indexes are available.

13. Infrared, UV, NMR, Raman, and mass spectral data, as well as melting point, boiling point, solubility, density, and other data for > 30,000 organic compounds are collected in the "CRC Handbook of Data on Organic Compounds", 2nd ed., 9 vols., CRC Press, Boca Raton, FL, 1988, edited by Weast and Grasselli. It differs from the Sadtler collection in that the data are given in tabular form (lists of peaks) rather than reproduction of the actual spectra, but this book has the advantage that all the spectral and physical data for a given compound appear at one place. References are given to the Sadtler and other collections of spectra. Volumes 7-9 contain indexes of spectral peaks for IR, UV, NM, NMR, ^{13}C NMR, mass, and Raman spectra, as well as indexes of other names, molecular formulas, molecular weights, and physical constants. Annual updates began appearing in 1990 (the first one is called volume 10).
14. The "Aldrich Library of Infrared Spectra", 3rd ed., Aldrich chemical Company, Milwaukee, WI, 1981, by Pouchert contains more than 12,000 IR spectra so arranged that the user can readily see the change that takes place in a given spectrum when a slight change is made in the structure of a molecule. The same company also publishes the "Aldrich Library of FT–IR Spectra" and the "Aldrich Library of NMR Spectra", both also by Pouchert. A similar volume, which has ir and Raman spectra of about 1000 compounds, is "Raman/Infrared Atlas of Organic Compounds", 2nd ed., VCH, New York, 1989, by Schrader.
15. An extensive list of visible and UV peaks is given in "Organic Electronic Spectral Data", Wiley, New York. Twenty-six volumes have appeared so far, covering the literature through 1984.
16. A collection of 500 ^{13}C NMR spectra is found in Johnson and Jankowski, "Carbon-13 NMR Spectra", Wiley, New York, 1972.

Reviews

A review article is an intensive survey of a rather narrow field; for example, the titles of some recent reviews are "Desulfonation Reactions: Recent Developments",[23] "Pyrrolizidine and Indolizidine Syntheses Involving 1,3-Dipolar Cycloaddtion",[24] and "From Corrin Chemistry to Asymmetry Catalysis—A Personal Account."[25] A good review article is of enormous value, because it is a thorough survey of all the work done in the field under discussion. Review articles are printed in review journals and in certain books. The most important review journals in organic chemistry (though most are not exclusively devoted to organic chemistry) are shown in Table A.3. Some of the journals listed in Table A.1, for example, the *Bull Soc. Chim. Fr.* and *J. Organomet. Chem.* also publish occasional review articles.

There are several open-ended serial publications that are similar in content to the review journals but are published irregularly (seldom more often than once a year) and are hardbound. Some of these publish reviews in all fields of chemistry; some cover only organic chemistry; some specialize further. The coverage is indicated by

TABLE A.3 Review Journals, With Year of Founding and Issues per Year as of 1998

Accounts of Chemical Research (1968)	12
Aldrichimica Acta (1968)	4
Angewandte **Chem**ie (1888)	12
and its English Translation:	
Angewandte Chemie, International Edition in English (1962)	12
Chemical Reviews (1924)	8
Chemical Society Reviews (1947)[a]	4
Heterocycles (1973)	12
Natural Product Reports (1984)	6
Organic Preparations and Procedures International (1969)	6
Soviet Scientific Reviews, Section B, Chemistry Reviews (1979)	Irreg.
Sulfur Reports (1980)	6
Synlett (1989)	12
Synthesis (1969)	12
Tetrahedron (1958)	52
Topics in Current Chemistry (1949)[b]	Irreg.
Uspekhi **Khim**ii (1932)	12
and its English translation: Russian chemical Reviews (1960)	12

[a] See Ref. 26.
[b] See Ref. 27.

the titles. Table A.4 shows some of the more important such publications, with *CA* abbreviations.

There are several publications that provide listings of review articles in organic chemistry. The most important is the *J. Org. Chem.*, which began to list review articles in 1978 (the first list is at *J. Org. Chem., 43,* 3085), suspended the listings in 1985, and resumed them in 1990 (at *J. Org. Chem., 55,* 398). These lists, which appear about four times a year, give the titles and reference sources of virtually all review articles in the field of organic chemistry that have appeared in the preceding three months, including those in the review journals and serials mentioned above, as well as those in monographs and treatises. There is also a listing of new monographs on a single subject. Each list includes a subject index.

Another publication is the "Index of Reviews in Organic Chemistry", complied by Lewis, Chemical Society, London, a classified listing of review articles. The first volume, published in 1971, lists reviews from $\sim$ 1960 (in some cases much earlier) to $\sim$1970 in alphabetical order of topic. Thus four reviews are listed under "Knoevenagel condensation", five under "Inclusion compounds", and one under "Vinyl ketones." There is no index. A second volume (1977) covers the literature to 1976. Annual or biannual supplements appeared from 1979 until the publication was terminated in 1985. Classified lists of review articles on organometallic chemistry are found in articles by Smith and Walton[28] and by Bruce.[29] A similar list for heterocyclic chemistry is found in articles by Katritzky and others.[30] See also the discussion of the *Index of Scientific Reviews,* page 1638.

TABLE A.4 Irregularly Published Serial Publications

Advances in Carbocation Chemistry
Advances in Carbohydrate Chemistry and Biochemistry
Advances in Catalysis
Advances in Cycloaddition
Advances in Free Radical Chemistry
Advances in Heterocyclic Chemistry
Advances in Metal-Organic Chemistry
Advances in Molecular Modeling
Advances in Organometallic Chemistry
Advances in Oxygenated Processes
Advances in Photochemistry
Advances in Physical Organic Chemistry
Advances in Protein Chemistry
Advances in Theoretically Interesting Molecules
Fluorine Chemistry Reviews
Fortshritte der Chemie Organischer Naturstoffe
Isotopes in Organic Chemistry
Molecular Structure and Energetics
Organic Photochemistry
Organometallic Reactions
Organic Reactions
Organic Synthesis: Theory and Applications
Progress in Heterocyclic Chemistry
Progress in Macrocyclic Chemistry
Progress in Physical Organic Chemistry
Reactive Intermediates (Plenum)
Reactive Intermediates (Wiley)
Survey of Progress in Chemistry
Topics in Physical Organometallic Chemistry
Topics in Stereochemistry

Annual Reviews

The review articles discussed in the previous section are each devoted to a narrow topic covering the work done in that area over a period of years. An annual review is a publication that covers a broad area but limits the period covered, usually to 1 or 2 years.

1. The oldest annual review publication still publishing is *Annual Reports on the Progress of Chemistry*, published by the Royal Society of Chemistry (formerly the chemical Society), which began in 1905 and which covers the whole field of chemistry. Since 1967 it has been divided into sections. Organic chemistry is found in Section B.
2. Because the number of papers in chemistry has become so large, the Royal Society of Chemistry publishes annual review type volumes of smaller scope,

called *Specialist Periodical Reports.* Among those of interest to organic chemists are "Carbohydrate Chemistry" (vol. 22 covers 1988); "Photochemistry" (vol. 21 covers 1988-1989); and "General and Synthetic Methods", (vol. 12 covers 1987).

3. "Organic Reaction Mechanisms", published by Wiley, New York, is an annual survey that covers the latest developments in the field of mechanisms. The first volume, covering 1965, appeared in 1966.
4. There are two annual reviews devoted to progress in organic synthesis. Theilheimer, "Synthetic Methods of Organic Chemistry", S. Karger Verlag, Basel, is an annual compilation, beginning in 1946, of new methods for the synthesis of organic compounds, arranged according to a system based on bond closings and bond breakings. Equations, brief procedures, yields, and literature references are given. Volume 44 was issued in 1990. Volumes 3 and 4 are available only in German, but all the rest are in English. There is an index to each volume. Cumulative indexes appear in every fifth volume. Beginning with vol. 8, each volume includes a short summary of trends in synthetic organic chemistry. A more recent series is "Annual Reports in Organic Synthesis," Academic Press, New York, which has covered the literature of each year since 1970. Equations are listed with yields and references according to a fairly simple system.
5. The *Journal of Organometallic Chemistry* several times a year publishes annual surveys arranged according to metallic element. For example, vol. 404, published in February 1991, contains annual surveys for 1989 of organic compounds containing Sb, Bi, and Fe, and the use of transition metals in organic synthesis, and surveys for 1988 covering B, Ru, and Os.

Awareness Services

Besides the annual reviews and the title and abstract services previously mentioned, there exist a number of publications designed to keep readers aware of new developments in organic chemistry or in specific areas of it.

1. *Chemtracts: Organic Chemistry* is a bimonthly Periodical, begun in 1988, that prints abstracts of certain recently published papers (those that the editors consider most important), with commentaries on these papers by distinguished organic chemists. Each issue deals with about 20 papers, and also includes a review article.
2. The Institute for Scientific Information (ISI), besides publishing *Current Contents* (p. 1611) and the *Science Citation Index* (p. 1637), also publishes *Index Chemicus* (formerly called *Current Abstracts of Chemistry and Index Chemicus).* This publication, begun in 1960 and appearing weekly, is devoted to printing structural formulas of all new compounds appearing in more than 100 journals, along with equations to show how they were synthesized and an author's summary of the work. Each issue contains five indexes: author,

journal, biological activity, labeled compounds, and unisolated intermediates. These indexes are cumulated annually.

3. Theilheimer and the "Annual Reports on Organic Synthesis", mentioned in the previous section, list new synthetic methods once a year. There are several publications that do this monthly. Among these are *Current Chemical Reactions* (begun in 1979 and published by ISI), *Journal of Synthetic Methods* (begun in 1975 and published by Derwent publications), and *Methods in Organic Synthesis,* begun in 1984 and published by the Royal Society of Chemistry. *Methods in Organic Synthesis* also lists books and review articles pertaining to organic synthesis.
4. *Natural Product Updates,* a monthly publication begun in 1987 and published by the Royal Society of Chemistry, lists recent results in the chemistry of natural products, along with structural formulas. It covers new compounds, structure determinations, new properties and total syntheses, among other topics.

General Treatises

There are a number of large-scale multivolume treatises that cover the whole field of organic chemistry or large areas of it.

1. "Rodd's Chemistry of Carbon Compounds", edited by Coffey, Elsevier, Amsterdam, is a treatise consisting of five main volumes, each of which contains several parts. Publication began in 1964 and is not yet complete. The organization is not greatly different from most textbooks, but the coverage is much broader and deeper. Supplements to many of the volumes have appeared. An earlier edition, called "Chemistry of Carbon Compounds", edited by Rodd, was published in 10 parts from 1951 to 1962.
2. Houben-Weyl's "Methoden der Organischen Chemie'', Georg Thieme Verlag, Stuttgart, is a major treatise in German devoted to laboratory methods. The fourth edition, which was begun in 1952 and consists of 20 volumes, most of them in several parts, is edited by E. Muller. The series includes supplementary volumes. The first four volumes contain general laboratory methods, analytical methods, physical methods, and general chemical methods. The later volumes are devoted to the synthesis of specific types of compounds, (e.g., hydrocarbons, oxygen compounds, and and nitrogen compounds). Beginning in 1990 parts of the series have appeared in English.
3. "Comprehensive Organic Chemistry", Pergamon, Elmsford, NY, 1979, is a six-volume treatise on the synthesis and reactions of organic compounds. The first three volumes cover the various functional groups, vol. 4, heterocyclic compounds, and vol. 5, biological compounds such as proteins, carbohydrates, and lipids. Probably the most useful volume is vol. 6, which contains formula, subject, and author indexes, as well as indexes of reactions and

reagents. The last two of these not only refer to pages within the treatise, but directly give references to review articles and original papers. For example, on page 1129, under "Chromic acid–sulfuric acid (Jones reagent), oxidation, alcohols", are listed 13 references to original papers. Several similar treatises, including the nine-volume "Comprehensive Organometallic Chemistry" (1982), the eight-volume "Comprehensive Heterocyclic Chemistry" (1984), and the six-volume "Comprehensive Medicinal Chemistry" (1989) are also published by Pergamon. The indexes to these works also include references.

4. A major treatise devoted to experimental methods of chemistry is "Techniques of Chemistry", edited first by Weissberger, and then by Saunders, Wiley, New York. This publication, which began in 1970, so far consists of 21 volumes, most of them in several parts, covering such topics as electrochemical and spectral methods, kinetic methods, photochromism, and organic solvents. "Techniques of Chemistry" is a successor to an earlier series, called "Techniques of Organic Chemistry", which appeared in 14 volumes, some of them in more than one edition, from 1945 to 1969.
5. "Comprehensive Chemical Kinetics", edited by Bamford and Tipper, 1969—, Elsevier, Amsterdam, is a multivolume treatise covering the area of reaction kinetics. Six of these volumes (not all published at the time of writing) deal with the kinetics and mechanisms of organic reactions in a thorough and comprehensive manner.
6. Three multivolume treatises that cover specific areas are Elderfield, "Heterocyclic Compounds", Wiley, New York, 1950- ; Manske and Holmes, "The Alkaloids", Academic Press, New York, 1950- ; and Simonson, Owen, Barton, and Ross, "The Terpenes", Cambridge University Press, London, 1947-1957.
7. "Encyclopedia of Reagents for Organic Synthesis", edited by Paquette, Wiley, New York, was published in 1995. It is an 8 volume, alphabetic listing of reagents used in organic chemistry with descriptions of the preparation, use and chemistry, with references. Each reagent was researched by organic chemists active in research, who contributed to the total publication.
8. "Comprehensive Organic Synthesis", edited by Trost and Fleming, Pergamon, was published in 1991. It is a nine volume compilation.
9. "Comprehensive Organic Functional Group Transformations", edited by Katritzky, Meth-Cohn, and Rees, Pergamon, was published in 1995. It is a seven volume compilation.

Monographs and Treatises on Specific Areas

Organic chemistry is blessed with a large number of books devoted to a thorough coverage of a specific area. Many of these are essentially very long review articles, differing from ordinary review articles only in size and scope. Some of the books are by a single author, and others have chapters by different authors but all are carefully planned to cover a specific area. Many of these books have been referred to in

footnotes in appropriate places in this book. There have been several series of monographs, one of which is worth special mention: "The Chemistry of Functional Groups", under the general editorship of Patai, published by Wiley, New York. Each volume deals with the preparation, reactions, and physical and chemical properties of compounds containing a given functional group. Volumes covering more than 20 functional groups have appeared so far, including books on alkenes, cyano compounds, amines, carboxylic acids and esters, quinones, and so on.

Textbooks

There are many excellent textbooks in the field of organic chemistry. We restrict ourselves to listing only a few of those published, mostly since 1985. Some of these are first-year texts and some are advanced (advanced texts generally give references; first-year texts do not, though they may give general bibliographies, suggestions for further reading, etc.); some cover the whole field, and others cover reactions, structure, and/or mechanism only. All the books listed here are not only good textbooks but valuable reference books for graduate students and practicing chemists.

Carey, "Organic Chemistry", 3rd ed., McGraw-Hill, New York, 1996.

Carey and Sundberg, "Advanced Organic Chemistry", 2 vols., Plenum, New York, 3rd. ed., 1990.

Carruthers, "Some Modern Methods of Organic Synthesis", 3rd ed., Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, 1986.

Ege, "Organic Chemistry", 4th ed., D.C. Houghton Mifflin, Boston 1999.

Fessenden and Fessenden, "Organic Chemistry", 6th ed., Brooks/Cole, Monterey, CA, 1998.

Fox and Whitesell, "Organic Chemistry", 2nd ed, Jones and Bartlett, Sudbury, MA, 1997.

House, "Modern Synthetic Reactions", 2nd ed., W. A. Benjamin, New York, 1972.

Ingold, "Structure and Mechanism in Organic Chemistry", 2nd ed., Cornell University Press, Ithaca, NY, 1969.

Isaacs, "Physical Organic Chemistry", Wiley, New York, 1987.

Jones, "Physical and Mechanistic Organic Chemistry", 2nd ed., Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, 1984.

Jones, "Organic Chemistry", W.W. Norton, New York, 2000.

Loudon, "Organic Chemistry", 2nd ed., Benjamin/Cummings, Menlo Park, CA, 1988.

Lowry and Richardson, "Mechanism and Theory in Organic Chemistry", 3rd ed., Harper and Row, New York, 1987.

McMurry, "Organic Chemistry", 5th ed., Brooks/Cole, Monterey CA, 2000.

Maskill, "The Physical Basis of Organic Chemistry", Oxford University Press, Oxford, 1985.

Morrison and Boyd, "Organic Chemistry", 6th ed., Prentice-Hall, Englewood Cliffs, NJ, 1992.

Pine "Organic Chemistry", 5th ed., McGraw-Hill, New York, 1987.

Ritchie, "Physical Organic Chemistry", 2nd ed., Marcel Dekker, New York, 1989.

Solomons and Fryhle, "Organic Chemistry", 7th ed., Wiley, New York, 2000.

Smith, "Organic Synthesis", 2nd ed., WCB, McGraw-Hill, New York, 2001.

Streitwieser and Heathcock, "Introductory Organic Chemistry", 3rd ed., Macmillan, New York, 1985.

Sykes, "A Guidebook to Mechanism in Organic Chemistry", 6th ed., Longmans Scientific and Technical, Essex, 1986.

Vollhardt and Schore, "Organic Chemistry", 3rd ed., W.H. Freeman, New York, 1999.

Wade, "Organic Chemistry", 4th ed., Prentice-Hall, Upper Saddle Rive, NJ, 1999.

Other Books

In this section, we mention several books that do not fit conveniently into the previous categories. All but the last have to do with laboratory synthesis.

1. *Organic Syntheses*, published by Wiley, New York is a collection of procedures for the preparation of specific compounds. The thin annual volumes have appeared each year since 1921. For the first 59 volumes, the procedures for each 10- (or 9-) year period are collected in cumulative volumes. Beginning with vol. 60, the cumulative volumes cover five-year periods. The cumulative volumes published so far are

Annual Volumes	Collective Volumes
1-9	I
10-19	II
20-29	HI
30-39	IV
40-49	V
50-59	VI
60-64	VII
65-69	VIII
70-74	IX

The advantage of the procedures in *Organic Syntheses*, compared with those found in original journals, is that these procedures are *tested.* Each preparation is carried out first by its author and then by a member of the *Organic Syntheses* editorial board, and only if the yield is essentially duplicated is the procedure published. While it is possible to repeat most

procedures given in journals, this is not always the case. All *Organic Syntheses* preparations are noted in Beilstein and in *CA.* In order to locate a given reaction in *Organic Syntheses,* the reader may use the OS references given in the present volume (through OS 69); the indexes in *Organic Syntheses* itself; Shriner and Shriner, *"Organic Syntheses* Collective Volumes I, II, III, IV, V Cumulative Indexes", Wiley, New York, 1976, or Sugasawa and Nakai; "Reaction Index of *Organic Syntheses",* Wiley, New York, 1967 (through OS 45). Another book classifies virtually all the reactions in *Organic Syntheses* (collective vols. I–VII and annual vols. 65-68) into 11 categories: annulation, rearrangement, oxidation, reduction, addition, elimination, substitution, C–C bond formation, cleavage, protection/deprotection, and miscellaneous. This is *"Organic Syntheses:* Reaction Guide", by Liotta and Volmer, published by Wiley, New York, in 1991. Some of the categories are subdivided further, and some reactions are listed in more than one category. What is given under each entry are the equation and the volume and page reference to *Organic Syntheses.*

2. Volume 1 of "Reagents for Organic Synthesis", by Fieser and Fieser, Wiley, New York, 1967, is a 1457-page volume that discusses, in separate sections, some 1120 reagents and catalysts. It tells how each reagent is used in organic synthesis (with references) and, for each, tells which companies sell it, or how to prepare it, or both. The listing is alphabetical. Eighteen additional volumes have so far been published, which continue the format of vol. 1 and add more recent material. A cumulative index for vols. 1-12, by Smith and Fieser, was published in 1990. The series has recently been resumed, after the death of Mary Fieser, by L. Ho.

3. "Comprehensive Organic Transformations", by Larock, VCH, New York, 1989, has been frequently referred to in footnotes in Part 2 of this book. This compendium is devoted to listings of methods for the conversion of one functional group into another, and covers the literature through 1987. It is divided into nine sections covering the preparation of alkanes and arenes, alkenes, alkynes, halides, amines, ethers, alcohols and phenols, aldehydes and ketones, and nitriles, carboxylic acids and derivatives. Within each section are given many methods for synthesizing the given type of compound, arranged in a logical system. A schematic equation is given for each method, and then a list of references (without author names, to save space) for locating examples of the use of that method. When different reagents are used for the same functional group transformation, the particular reagent is shown for each reference. There is a 164-page index of group transformations. The 2nd edition has only recently been published and is *not* referenced in this edition, and a CD-ROM version is now available.

4. "Survey of Organic Synthesis", by Buehler and Pearson, Wiley, New York, 2 vols., 1970, 1977, discusses hundreds of reactions used to prepare the principal types of organic compounds. The arrangement is by chapters, each covering a functional group (e.g., ketones, acyl halides, and amines). Each

reaction is thoroughly discussed and brief synthetic procedures are given. There are many references.

5. A similar publication is Sandier and Karo, "Organic Functional Group Preparations", 2nd ed., 3 vols., Academic Press, New York, 1983-1989. This publication covers more functional groups than Buehler and Pearson.
6. "Compendium of Organic Synthetic Methods", Wiley, New York, contains equations describing the preparation of thousands of monofunctional and difunctional compounds with references. Nine volumes have been published so far (1971 and 1974, edited by Harrison and Harrison; 1977, edited by Hegedus and Wade; 1980 and 1984, edited by Wade; 1988, 1992, 1995, and 2000 edited by Smith). Volume 10 will appear in 2000-2001.
7. "The Vocabulary of Organic Chemistry", by Orchin, Kaplan, Macomber, Wilson, and Zimmer, Wiley, New York, 1980, presents definitions of more than 1000 terms used in many branches of organic chemistry, including stereochemistry, thermodynamics, wave mechanics, natural products, and fossil fuels. There are also lists of classes of organic compounds, types of mechanism, and name reactions (with mechanisms). The arrangement is topical rather than alphabetical, but there is a good index. "Compendium of Chemical Terminology", by Gold, Loening, McNaught, and Sehmi (the Gold book), published by Blackwell Scientific publications, Oxford, in 1987, is an official IUPAC list of definitions of terms in several areas of chemistry, including organic.

LITERATURE SEARCHING

Until recently searching the chemical literature meant looking only at printed materials (some of which might be on microfilm or microfiche). Now, however, much of the literature can be searched online, including some of the most important. Whether the search is online or uses only the printed material, there are two basic types of search, (1) searches for information about one or more specific compounds or classes of compounds, and (2) other types of searches. First, we will discuss searches using only printed materials, and then online searching.[32]

Literature Searching Using Printed Materials

Searching for Specific Compounds. Organic chemists often need to know if a compound has ever been prepared and if so, how, and/or they may be seeking a melting point, an IR spectrum, or some other property. Someone who wants all the information that has ever been published on any compound begins by consulting the formula indexes in Beilstein (p. 1614). At this time there are two ways to do this. (1) The formula index to the second supplement (vol. 29, see p. 1614) will quickly show whether the compound is mentioned in the literature through 1929. If it is there, the searcher turns to the pages indicated, where all methods used to prepare the compound are given, as well as all physical properties, with references. Use of the page heading method described on p. 1614 will then show the locations, if any, in the

third and later supplements. (2) If one has an idea which volume of Beilstein the compound is in (and the tables of contents at the front of the volumes may help), one may search the cumulative index for that volume. If not sure, one may consult several indexes. One of these two procedures will locate all compounds mentioned in the literature through 1959. If the compound is heterocyclic, it may be in the fifth supplement. If it is in vols. 17-19 (or in a later volume whose index has been published), the corresponding indexes may be consulted. If not, the page heading method will find it, if it was reported before 1960.[31] There is a way by which all of the above can be avoided. A computer program, called SANDRA (available from the Beilstein publisher), allows the user to find the Beilstein location by using a mouse to draw the structural formula of the compound sought. At this point the investigator will know (1) all information published through 1959 or 1979,[32] or (2) that the compound is not mentioned in the literature through 1959 or 1979.[32] In some cases, scrutiny of Beilstein will be sufficient, perhaps if only a boiling point or a refractive index is required. In other cases, especially where specific laboratory directions are needed, the investigator will have to turn to the original papers.

To carry the search past 1959 (or 1979), the chemist next turns to the collective formula indexes of *Chemical Abstracts:* 1957-1961; 1962-1966; 1967-1971; 1972-1976; 1977-1981; 1982-1986; 1987-1991; 1992-1996 and such later collective indexes as have appeared; and the semiannual indexes thereafter. If a given formula index contains only a few references to the compound in question, the pages or abstract numbers will be given directly in the formula index. However, if there are many references, the reader will be directed to see the chemical substance index or (before 1972) the subject index for the same period; and here the number of page or abstract numbers may be very large indeed. Fortunately, numerous subheadings are given, and these often help the user to narrow the search to the more promising entries. Nevertheless, one will undoubtedly turn to many abstracts that do not prove to be helpful. In many cases, the information in the abstracts will be sufficient. If not, the original references must be consulted. In some cases (the index entry is marked by an asterisk or a double asterisk) the compound is not mentioned in the abstract, though it is in the original paper or patent. Incidentally, all entries in the *CA* indexes that refer to patents are prefixed by the letter P. Since 1967, the prefixes B and R have also been used, to signify books and reviews, respectively.

By the procedure outlined above, all information regarding a specific compound that has been published up to about a year before the search can be found by a procedure that is always straightforward and that in many cases is rapid (if the compound has been reported only a few times). Equally important, if the compound has not been reported, the investigator will know that, too. It should be pointed out that for common compounds, such as benzene, ether, acetone, and so on, trivial mentions in the literature are not indexed (so they will not be found by this procedure), only significant ones. Thus, if acetone is converted to another compound, an index entry will be found, but not if it is used as a solvent or an eluant in a common procedure.

The best way to learn if a compound is mentioned in the literature after the period covered by the latest semiannual formula index of *CA* is to use the online services (p.

1631). However, if one lacks access to these, one may consult *Chemical Titles* and the keyword index (p. 1611) at the end of each issue of *CA*. In these cases, of course, it is necessary to know what name might be used for the compound. The name is not necessary for *Index Chemicus* (p. 1622); one consults the formula indexes. However, these methods are far from complete. *Index Chemicus* lists primarily new compounds, those which would not have been found in the earlier search. As for chemical *Titles*, the compound can be found only if it is mentioned in the title. The keyword indexes in *CA* are more complete, being based on internal subject matter as well as title, but they are by no means exhaustive. Furthermore, all three of these publications lag some distance behind the original journals. To locate all references to a compound after the period covered by the latest semiannual formula index of *CA*, it is necessary to use *CAS*-online.

The complete procedure described above may not be necessary in all cases. Often all the information one needs about a compound will be found in one of the handbooks (p. 1617), in the "Dictionary of Organic Compounds" (p. 1617), or in one of the other compendia listed in this chapter, most of which give references to the original literature.

Other Searches.[33] There is no definite procedure for making other literature searches using only printed materials. Any chemist who wishes to learn all that is known about the mechanism of the reaction between aldehydes and HCN, or which compounds of the general formula Ar_3CR have been prepared, or which are the best catalysts for Friedel-Crafts acylation of naphthalene derivatives with anhydrides, or where the group $-C(NH_2)=N-$ absorbs in the IR, is dependent on his or her ingenuity and knowledge of the literature. If a specific piece of information is needed, it may be possible to find it in one of the compendia mentioned previously. If the topic is more general, the best procedure is often to begin by consulting one or more monographs, treatises, or textbooks that will give general background information and often provide references to review articles and original papers. In many cases this is sufficient, but when a complete search is required, it is necessary to consult the *CA* subject and/or chemical substance indexes, where the ingenuity of the investigator is most required, for now it must be decided which words to look under. If one is interested in the mechanism of the reaction between aldehydes and HCN, one might look under "aldehydes", or "hydrogen cyanide", or even under "acetaldehyde" or "benzaldehyde," and so on., but then the search is likely to prove long. A better choice in this case would be "cyanohydrin", since these are the normal products and references there would be fewer. It would be a waste of time to look under "mechanism". In any case, many of the abstracts would not prove helpful. Literature searching of this kind is necessarily a wasteful process. Of course, the searcher would not consult the *CA* annual indexes but only the collective indexes as far as they go and the semiannual indexes thereafter. If it is necessary to search before 1907 (and even before 1920, since *CA* was not very complete from 1907 to $\sim$1920), recourse may be made to *Chemisches Zentralblatt* (p. 1614) and the abstracts in the *Journal of the Chemical Society* (p. 1614).

Literature Searching Online[32]

Online searching means using a computer terminal to search a *database.* Although databases in chemistry are available from several organizations, by far the most important such organization is STN International (The Scientific & Technical Information Network), which is available in many countries. The STN has dozens of databases, including many that cover chemistry and chemical engineering. To access these databases a chemistry department, a library, or an individual subscribes to STN (for a nominal fee), and receives code numbers that will permit access to the system. Then all one needs is a computer and a modem. The STN charges for each use, depending on which databases are used, for how long, and what kind of information is requested. One of the nice features of STN is that the same command language is used for all databases, so when one has mastered the language for one database, one can use it for all the others. In this section, we will discuss literature searching using *CAS* online, which is one of the databases available from STN. One thing that must be remembered is that *CAS* online is complete only from 1967 to the present,[34] so that searches for earlier abstracts must use the printed volumes. However, for the period since 1967, not only is online searching a great deal faster than searching the printed *CA,* but, as we shall see, one can do kinds of searches online that are simply not possible using only the printed volumes. Furthermore, the online files are updated every 2 weeks, so that one will find all the abstracts online well past the appearance of the latest semiannual indexes, often even before the library has received the latest weekly printed issue of *CA. Chemical Abstracts Service* online is extremely flexible; one can search in a great many ways. It is beyond the scope of this book to discuss the system in detail[35] *(CA* conducts workshops on its use), but even with the few commands we will give here, a user can often find all that he or she is looking for. *Chemical Abstracts Service* online has two major files, *the CA File* and *the Registry File.*[36] These are so different that we discuss them separately.

THE CA FILE

This file is accessed with the command FILE *CA.* Once in the file, the user uses the command SEARCH (or SEA or S)[37] to look for references to specific terms. For example, one may type SEA SEMIPINACOL. On the screen will appear something like

L1 4 SEMIPINACOL

The L1 means that this is line one. Future answers from the system will number the lines in consecutive order. The 4 means that the system has four abstracts that contain the word semipinacol. The word may be in the title, an index entry, or a keyword. The search term may be the name of a compound, which means that individual compounds can be searched for in this way. If the name used is the *CA* indexing name, all the abstracts mentioning that compound will be retrieved.

However, common names or other names can also be searched (e.g., catechol), and if they are mentioned in the title of the paper, or, for example as a keyword, those abstracts will be retrieved.

Compounds can also be searched for by using the Registry Number, for example.,

SEARCH 126786-44-3

Let us return to the example of semipinacol. The system told us there were four abstracts for this term. We may now see these abstracts by using the display command (DISPLAY or DIS or D), for example,

D L1 1 BIB ABS

The L1 means we are asking the system to display material pertaining to semipinacol, which is on line L1. If we fail to insert this information, the system will display items pertaining to the last L number shown.

The 1 means we are asking for information on the first of the four papers. The papers are listed in reverse chronological order, meaning paper 1 will be the latest of the four. Similarly, we can ask to see the information on any of the others.

The BIB ABS means we are asking for bibliographic data (abstract number, title of paper, authors' names, journal, year, etc.) and for a display of the full abstract.[38] There are other choices. Instead of BIB ABS we could have typed *CAN*, which would give us the abstract number only (we might then choose to find the other information in the printed *CA).* Or, we could have typed IND, which would give us the abstract number and the index terms for this paper, or ALL, which would give everything we get from BIB ABS plus the index terms. In all, there are 9 or 10 ways to ask for display material. Our choice will depend on how much we need to know, and on the cost, since the more information requested, the higher the cost.

As so far described, online searching is faster then searching the printed *CA,* but gives us essentially the same information. The scope of the online method is much greater than that, for it allows us to combine words, in a number of ways. One such way is by the use of the terms AND, NOT, and OR. If we search AMBIDENT AND NUCLEOPHILE, we will get something like this

332 AMBIDENT
3275 NUCLEOPHILE
L2 42 AMBIDENT AND NUCLEOPHILE

This means there are 42 entries that have the words AMBIDENT and NUCLEOPHILE somewhere in them; in the titles, keywords, or index entries. We can now, if we wish, display any or all of them. But a particular entry might have these two words in unrelated contexts, for example, it might be a paper about ambident electrophiles, but which also has NUCLEOPHILE as an index term. We would presumably get fewer papers, but with a higher percentage of relevant ones, if we could ask for AMBIDENT NUCLEOPHILE, and in fact, the system does allow

this. If we type S AMBIDENT(W)NUCLEOPHILE, we will get only those papers in which the term NUCLEOPHILE directly follows AMBIDENT, with no words in between.[39] This is called proximity searching, and there are other, similar commands. For example, the use of (4A) instead of (W) will give all instances in which the two words appear 4 or fewer words apart, in either order.

Another important option is a truncation symbol. If we ask for NUCLEOPHILE we will find all entries that contain the term nucleophile, but not those that contain a different form of this term (e.g., nucleophilic). We can take care of this by using NUCLEOPHIL? as a search term instead of NUCLEOPHILE. This will retrieve all terms that start with the letters NUCLEOPHIL, no matter what other letters follow, thus retrieving nucleophilic, nucleophilicity, nucleophiles, and so on, as well as nucleophile. The question mark is one of several truncation symbols, each of which serves a different function.

The words AND, NOT, and OR are called *Boolean operators*. They may be combined in many ways, for example,

S ORTHO AND EFFECT AND HAMMETT
S (carbon(W)DIOXIDE OR carbon(W)DISULFIDE) AND CATALY? NOT ACID
S HYDANTOIN AND (METHYL OR ETHYL) NOT (VINYL? OR PHENYL)

A particular search command can contain dozens of such terms. Obviously, if one is careful about choosing the proper search terms, one can focus in on just the relevant papers, and leave out those that will not be useful. However, there will often be far more papers than can conveniently be handled, and there are other ways to limit searches. One such way is by using a narrow field. For example, a synthetic chemist may wish to find references in which a given compound is synthesized, but find, when he or she searches for that compound, that most of the references concern biological or medicinal uses of the compound. By using the command

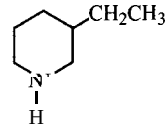
SEA 3489-26-7/ORG

the search will retrieve only those papers for the compound of Registry Number 3489-26-7 that have been abstracted in the organic (ORG) sections of *CA* (Sections 21-34), and will not retrieve papers from the biochemical sections, which are more likely to stress biological or medicinal uses. There are many other ways to limit searches. It is possible to search only for papers in a single section of *CA*, only those that appeared in a given year or range of years, only those in which the search term appears in the title of the paper, only those by a given author, and so on.

Besides subject terms, the *CA* File also contains bibliographical information, such as author names, location of the laboratory in which the work was done, language of the paper, and so on, and these can be searched. For example, S ROBERTS, J?/AU will find all papers published by any authors named Roberts whose first name begins with J. These terms can be combined with subject terms in Boolean searches.

THE REGISTRY FILE

The Registry File is entered with the command FILE REGISTRY. This can be done at any time, and it is possible to go back and forth between the *CA* and Registry Files at will. The Registry File uses the same commands (including Boolean) as the *CA* File, but instead of displaying abstracts and bibliographical information, it displays information about compounds. Its most useful feature is that it allows the user to build a structure, and then gives information about compounds that possess that structure, even if the structure is only part of a larger structure (see below).



3-Ethylpiperidine

The procedure for building a structure can be long and complex, if the structure is large and complex, but the commands are simple. We will illustrate by building the structure for 3-ethylpiperidine, which uses the most important commands. We begin with the command STRUCTURE. The system will ask if we wish to build on a structure previously used. If we say no, we will then get the prompt

ENTER (DIS), GRA, NOD, BON OR ?:

GRA is used for putting in chains or rings. We enter GRA R6, DIS (the DIS must be typed if the structure is to be displayed), and get the structure 1 shown in Figure A. 1.[40] The R6 specifies a six-membered ring. If we had simply entered 6 we would

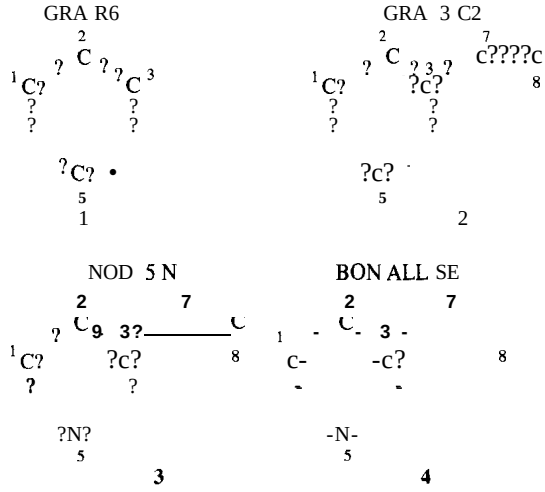


FIGURE A.1 Steps in building the structure of 3-ethylpiperidine in the Registry File. Above each structure is the command that gave that structure.

have created a six-atom chain. The six numbers shown are purely arbitrary and have no connection with the way the positions are actually numbered in any nomenclature scheme. Immediately after this structure is displayed, the same prompt reappears, as it does after every structure. We wish to introduce a two-atom side chain (the ethyl group), so we enter GRA 3 C2, DIS, and get structure 2 in Figure A.1. The C2 indicates a two-atom chain, and the 3 means that we want it attached to atom 3 (in this case the atom number is completely arbitrary, since attachment to any atom would give an equivalent result). Note that the system has numbered the new atoms 7 and 8. We will not be introducing any more atoms into our structure, but if we were they would be numbered consecutively, in the order in which they were introduced. We have all the atoms we need (we do not indicate the hydrogens because the system assumes that all nonspecified valences are connected to hydrogen, unless we tell it otherwise), but we still have not told the system about the nitrogen. Although the system uses C to specify all atoms, they will only remain carbon atoms until we instruct the system differently. To get 3-ethylpiperidine, the atom in the 5 position must be nitrogen. A C can be changed to another element by using NOD (for node), so we now type NOD 5 N, DIS. This changes C-5 to N-5, giving all the atoms in their final positions (3 in Fig. A.1). However, the structure is still not complete because the bonds have not been specified. By using the BON command we can make any bond single, double, or triple, and can even indicate aromaticity or other resonance. In this case we want all the bonds to be single bonds, so we type BON ALL SE, DIS (SE is used for single bonds), and get our final structure 4 in Figure A.1.

At this point we type END, and get

L1 STRUCTURE CREATED

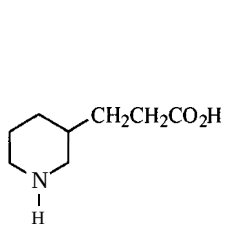
The structure is now ready to be searched. At the command SEARCH L1, the system will give the prompts

ENTER TYPE OF SEARCH (SSS), CSS, FAMILY, OR EXACT:
ENTER SCOPE OF SEARCH (SAMPLE), FULL, RANGE, OR SUBSET:

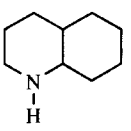
The system asks for the desired scope, because a full search (of the entire Registry File of > 10 million substances) may cost a lot of money and may not be worth it if the desired answers can be obtained from a more limited search.

As shown by the first prompt there are four types of search, of which we will discuss two: exact and substructure (SSS). In an exact search, only information regarding exactly the structure given will be retrieved, but even so there may well be several answers, because *CA* treats stereoisomers and isotopically substituted compounds as separate answers. At the conclusion of the search the system gives the number of answers, (e.g., 4). We may now look at the four answers by using the display command. As in the *CA* File, there is a choice of display formats, but if we choose SUB we will get (1) the Registry Number, (2) the approved *CA* index name, (3) other names that have appeared in *CA* for that compound, (4) a structural formula, and (5) the number of *CA* references since 1967, along with a notation as to

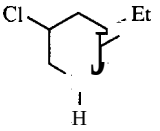
whether the compound is found in the CAOLD File. By using other display formats, we can also obtain the bibliographic information and abstracts for the latest 10 references. If there are more than 10 *CA* references, we can of course switch to the *CA* File, and use the Registry Number to search that file completely. If the exact structure search yields no answers, we know that no references to it have appeared in *CA* since 1967.



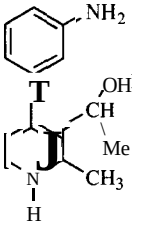
5



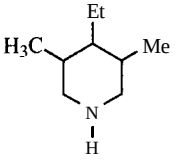
6



7



8



9

Although an exact search can be useful, in most cases it does not give any more information than can be obtained from the printed *CA.* Substructure searches (SSS) are far more important, because there is no other way to get this information. If we do a substructure search on 4 in Figure A. 1, we not only get all the answers we would get in an exact search, but all substances that contain, anywhere within their structure, the arrangement of atoms and bonds shown in 4. For example, 5, 6, 7, and 8 would all be retrieved in this search, but 9 would not be. The SSS searches typically retrieve from tens to hundreds of times as many answers as exact searches of the same structure. Furthermore, the scope can be widened by the use of variable nodes. For example, the symbol X means any halogen, the symbol M any metal, and the symbol G allows the user to specify his or her own variable at that point (e.g., G =C1 or NO_2 or Ph). As with an exact search, each answer can be displayed as described above.

As mentioned above, building structures can be very complicated, and, because there is great flexibility in the system, there are a great many ways to use the commands, but the rewards are the retrieval of information that cannot be obtained in any other way. We have given here only a hint of the possibilities in using this system.

It is not necessary to build structures to use the Registry File. Compounds can also be searched for by using names, combinations of name fragments, Registry Numbers, molecular formulas, and in other ways. The display methods are the same.

OTHER DATABASES

Several of the other databases carried by STN are of interest to organic chemists. Among these are BEILSTEIN, which allows Beilstein to be searched online (SSS and EXACT searches can also be done in this database); CASREACTS, in which the user can specify a starting compound and a product, usually by giving Registry Numbers, and the system tells whether that transformation has been reported in the literature (beginning in 1985), and if so gives reagents and references; and CJACS, which gives the complete texts (but not the display material, such as tables and displayed equations) of all papers published in about 20 journals published by the American chemical Society (including *J. Am. Chem. Soc, J. Org. Chem.*, and *Chem. Rev.)* since 1982. chemical journals of several other publishers, including Elsevier *(J. Organomet. Chem.* etc.), VCH (*Angew. Chem. Int. Ed. Engl.*),and the Royal Society of Chemistry *(J. Chem. Soc, Perkin Trans. 1* etc.), are also available online in a similar manner. Having these journals online is particularly useful because their texts can be searched for keywords, author's names, Registry Numbers, and other types of information.

Science Citation Index

A publication that can greatly facilitate literature searching is *Science Citation Index* (*SCI*), begun in 1961. This publication, which is quite different from any other mentioned in this chapter, gives a list of all papers in a given year that have cited a given paper, patent, or book. Its utility lies in the fact that it enables the user to search *forward* from a given paper or patent, rather than backward, as is usually the case. For example, suppose a chemist is familiar with a paper by Jencks and Gilchrist *(J. Am. Chem. Soc,* **1968**, *90,* 2622) entitled "Nonlinear Structure-Reactivity Correlations. The Reactivity of Nucleophilic Reagents toward Esters". The chemist is easily able to begin a search for earlier papers by using references supplied in this paper and can then go further backward with the aid of references in those papers, and so on. But for obvious reasons the paper itself supplies no way to locate *later* papers. The *SCI* is designed to make up for this gap. The citation index of *SCI* lists all papers, patents, or books cited in a given year or 2-month period (by first author only), and then gives a list of papers that have done the citing. The index is published bimonthly and cumulated annually. For example, column 43901 of the 1989 citation index shows that the Jencks paper mentioned above was cited as a footnote in 16 papers published in 1989. It is reasonable to assume that most of the papers that cited the Jencks paper were on closely related subjects. For each of the 16 papers are listed the first author, journal abbreviation, volume and page numbers, and year. In a similar manner, if one consulted *SCI* for all the years from 1968 on, one would have a complete list of papers that cited that paper. One could obviously broaden the search by then consulting *SCI* (from 1989 on) for papers that cited these 16 papers, and so on. Papers, patents, or books listed, for example, in the 1989 *SCI* may go back many years (e.g., papers published by Einstein in 1905 and 1906 are included). The only requirement is that a paper published in 1989 (or late 1988) has mentioned the

earlier paper in a footnote. The arrangement of cited papers or books is alphabetical by cited first author and then by cited year. Cited patents are listed in a separate table, in order of patent number, though the inventor and country are also given.

SCI covers ~ 3200 journals in the physical and biological sciences, as well as in medicine, agriculture, and technology. In addition to the citation index, each bimonthly and annual *SCI* also includes three other indexes. One of these, called *Source Index,* is similar to the *CA* author index. It lists the titles, journal abbreviations, volume, issue, page numbers, and year of all papers published by a given author during that 2-month period or year. All authors are listed; not just first authors. The second, called the *Corporate Index,* lists all publications that have been published from a given institution during that period, by first author. Thus, the corporate index for 1989 lists 63 papers by 45 different first authors emanating from the Department of Chemistry of Rutgers University, New Brunswick, NJ. The main section of the corporate index (the Geographic Section) lists institutions by country or (for the U.S.) by state. There is also an Organization Section, which lists the names of institutions alphabetically, and for each gives the location, so it can be found in the geographic section. The third index included in *SCI* is the *Permuterm*[41] *Subject Index.* This index alphabetically lists every significant word in the titles of all papers published in that year or bimonthly period, paired with all other significant words in the same title. Thus, for example, a title with seven significant words appears at 42 separate places in the index. Each of the seven words appears six times as the main word, each time paired with a different word as the co-word. The user is then led to the *Source Index,* where the full reference is given. The *SCI* is also available online (though not through STN) and on CD-ROM discs. A version of *SCI* that is restricted to chemistry but also includes searchable abstracts, is available only in the CD-ROM format.

The publishers of *SCI* also produce another publication, called *Index to Scientific Reviews,* that appears semiannually. This publication, which began in 1974, is very similar to *SCI,* but confines itself to listing citations to review articles. The citations come from ~ 2500 journals in the same general areas as are covered by *SCI.* The review articles cited appeared in about 215 review journals and books, as well as in those journals that publish occasional review articles. Like *SCI,* the *Index to Scientific Reviews* contains citation, source, corporate, and Permuterm indexes. It also contains a "Research Front Specialty Index", which classifies reviews by subject.

How to Locate Journal Articles

Having obtained a reference from Beilstein, *SCI, CA,* a treatise, or some other source, one often needs to consult the original journal (the location of patents is discussed on p. 1607). The first step is to ascertain the full name of the journal, since it is the abbreviation that is generally given. Of course, everyone should be familiar with the abbreviations of the very important journals, such as *J. Org. Chem., Chem. Ber.,* but references are often found to journals whose titles are not at all familiar (e.g., *K. Skogs Lantbruksakad. Tidskr. or Nauchn. Tr. Mask. Lesotekh. Inst.*).In such

cases, one consults the *Chemical Abstracts Service Source Index (CASSI)*, 1989 edition, which contains the names of all the journals covered by *CA* from 1907 to 1989 (even those no longer published), with the most recent abbreviations in bold print. The *CASSI* also lists journals covered by *Chemisches Zentralblatt* and its predecessors from 1830 to 1969, and journals cited in Beilstein before 1907. The journals are listed in alphabetical order of the *abbreviations*, not of the titles. Journal title changes have not been infrequent, and *CASSI* also contains all former names, with cross-references to the current names. Quarterly supplements, cumulated annually, to *CASSI* have appeared since 1990 listing new journals and recent changes in journal titles. It should be pointed out that, while many publications use the *CA* abbreviations, not all do. The student will find that usages vary from country to country, and even from journal to journal within a country. Furthermore, the *CA* abbreviations have changed from time to time.

Once the complete title is known, the journal can easily be obtained if it is in the library customarily used by the chemist. If not, one must use another library, and the next step is to find out which libraries carry the journal. *CASSI* answers this question too, since it carries a list of some 360 libraries in the United States and other countries, and *for each journal it tells which of these libraries carries it*, and furthermore, if the holdings are incomplete, which volumes of that journal are carried by each library. It may be possible to visit the closest library personally. If not, a copy of the article can usually be obtained through interlibrary loan. The *CASSI* also includes lists of journal publishers, sales agents, and document depositories. Photocopies of most documents cited in *CA* can be obtained from chemical Abstracts Document Delivery Service, Customer Services, 2540 Olentangy River Road, Columbus OH, 43210, USA. Orders for documents can be placed by mail, telephone, Telex, fax, or online through STN or other services.

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[1] For books on the chemical literature, see Wolman *Chemical Information,* 2nd ed.; Wiley: NY, ***1988;*** Maizell *How to Find Chemical Information,* 2nd ed.; Wiley: NY, ***1987;*** Mellon *Chemical Publications,* 5th ed.; McGraw-Hill: NY ***1982;*** Skolnik *The Literature Matrix of Chemistry;* Wiley: NY, ***1982;*** Antony *Guide to Basic Information Sources in Chemistry;* Jeffrey Norton Publishers: NY, ***1979;*** Bottle *Use of the Chemical Literature;* Butterworth: London, ***1979;*** Woodburn *Using the Chemical Literature;* Marcel Dekker: NY, ***1974.*** For a three-part article on the literature of organic chemistry, see Hancock *J. Chem. Educ,* ***1968,*** *45,* 193, 260, 336.

[2] In some journals, notes are called "short communications", an unfortunate practice, because they are not communications as that term is defined in the text.

[3] In Table A.1 notes are counted as papers.

[4] These journals are available in English translation.

[5] These journals also publish review articles regularly.

[6] Each issue of this journal is devoted to a specific topic.

[7] Beginning with 1966 and until 1971, *J. Chem. Soc.* was divided into three sections: *A, B,* and *C.* Starting with 1972, Section *B* became *Perkin Trans. 2* and Section *C became Perkin*

Trans. 1. Section *A* (Physical and Inorganic Chemistry) was further divided into *Faraday* and *Dalton Transactions.*

[8] Before 1987 this journal was called *Nouveau Journal de Chimie.*

[9] Before 1978 this journal was called *Roczniki Chemii.*

[10] *Pure Appl. Chem.* publishes IUPAC reports and lectures given at IUPAC meetings.

[11] Before 1989 this journal was called *Reviews of Chemical Intermediates.*

[12] Title pages of organic chemistry journals are also carried by *Current Contents Life Sciences,* which is a similar publication covering biochemistry and medicine.

[13] For example, *Chem. Ind. (London)* publishes abstracts of papers that appear in other journals. In the past, journals such as *J. Am. Chem. Soc, J. Chem Soc,* and *Ber.* also did so.

[14] For a guide to the use of *CA,* see Schulz *From CA to CAS ONLINE;* VCH: NY, 1988.

[15] Beginning in 1967. See p. 1612.

[16] These abbreviations are changed from time to time. Therefore the reader may notice inconsistencies.

[17] It is possible to subscribe to *CA Selects,* which provides copies of all abstracts within various narrow fields, such as organofluorine chemistry, organic reaction mechanisms, organic stereochemistry, and so on.

[18] An "obituary" of *Zentralblatt* by Weiske, which gives its history and statistical data about its abstracts and indexes, was published in the April 1973 issue of *Chem. Ber.* (pp. I–XVI).

[19] For a discussion of how data are processed for inclusion in Beilstein, see Luckenbach, R.; Ecker, R.; Sunkel, J. *Angew. Chem. Int. Ed. Engl.* **1981,** *20,* 841.

[20] For descriptions of the Beilstein system and directions for using it, see Sunkel, J; Hoffmann, E; Luckenbach, R. *J. Chem. Educ.* **1981,***58,* 982; Luckenbach, R. *CHEMTECH* **1979,** 612. The Beilstein Institute has also published two English-language guides to the system. One, available free, is *How to Use Beilstein;* Beilstein Institute: Frankfurt/Main, **1979.** The other is by Weissbach *A Manual for the Use of Beilstein's Handbuch der Organischen Chemie;* Springer: NY, **1976.** An older work, which many students will find easier to follow, is by Huntress *A Brief Introduction to the Use of Beilstein's Handbuch der Organischen Chemie,* 2nd ed.; Wiley: NY, **1938.**

[21] In some cases, to keep the system parallel and to avoid books that are too big or too small, volumes are issued in two or more parts, and, in other cases, two volumes are bound as one.

[22] Most page number entries in the combined indexes contain a letter, for example, $CHBr_2Cl$ 67f, II 33a, III 87d, IV, 81. These letters tell where on the page to find the compound and are useful because the names given in the index are not necessarily those used in the earlier series. The letter "a" means the compound is the first on its page, "b" is the second, and so on. No letters are given for the fourth supplement.

[23] Nájera, C; Yus, M. *Tetrahedron,* **1999,** *55,* 10547.

[24] Broggini, G.; Zecchi, G. *Synthesis,* **1999,** 905.

[25] Pfaltz, A. *Synlett,* **1999,** 835.

[26] Successor to *Quarterly Reviews* (abbreviated as *Q. Rev., Chem. Soc).*

[27] Formerly called *Fortschritte der Chemischen Forschung.*

[28] Smith J. D; Walton D. R. M. *Adv. Organomet. Chem.,* **1975,** *13,* 453.

[29] Bruce M. I. *Adv. Organomet. Chem.,* **1972, 10,** 273, **1973,** *11,* 447, **1974,** *12,* 380.

[30] Belen'kii L. I. *Adv. Hetemcycl. Chem., 1988, 44,* 269; Katritzky A. R.; Jones P. M. *Adv. Heterocycl.Chem.,1979, 25,* 303; Katritzky A. R.; Weeds S. M. *Adv. Hetemcycl. Chem., 1966, 7,* 225.

[31] Compounds newly reported in the fifth supplement that are in a volume whose index has not yet been published will not be found by this procedure. To find them in Beilstein it is necessary to know something about the system (see Ref. 21), but they may also be found by consulting *CA* indexes beginning with the sixth collective index, or by using Beilstein online.

[32] For those heterocyclic compounds that would naturally belong to a volume for which the fifth supplement has been published.

[32a] For a monograph that covers both online searching and searching using printed materials, see Wiggins, G. *Chemical Information Sources;* McGraw-Hill: NY, *1991.*

[33] This discussion is necessarily short. For much more extensive discussions, consult the books in Refs. 1 and 15.

[34] There is also a file called CAOLD that has some papers earlier than 1967.

[35] For a discussion of *CA* online, see Ref. 15.

[36] There is also a file, LCA, which is used for learning the system. It includes only a small fraction of the papers in the CA File, and is not updated. There is no charge for using the LCA File, except for a small hourly fee.

[37] Most commands can be used in three ways, as shown here. When the full term is spelled out (SEARCH), the system assumes an unsophisticated user, and gives more help. If the command is S, the system assumes the user is knowledegable about the system.

[38] For some papers in the late 1960s only the bibliographic data, and not the abstracts, are available online.

[39] If we ask for AMBIDENT NUCLEOPHILE without the (W), the system treats it as if we asked for AMBIDENT(W)NUCLEOPHILE, and gives the same answers.

[40] The structures shown in Figure A.1 are those received by ordinary computer terminals. Better looking structures, more like those printed in books, are obtained with certain types of terminals. The system always asks the user to specify which type of terminal is being used.

[41] Registered trade name.

APPENDIX B

Classification of Reactions By Type of Compound Synthesized

Acetals and Ketals

10-12	Reaction between alkoxides and *gem*-dihalides (Williamson) or α-halo ethers
10-15	Reaction between diazoalkanes and alcohols
10-17	Transetherification
10-84	Reduction of ortho esters
10-101	Reaction between Grignard reagents and ortho esters
14-7	Cyclization of (3-hydroxy ethers
15-5	Addition of alcohols or phenols to triple bonds
16-5	Addition of alcohols to aldehydes or ketones
16-53	Addition of aldehydes to alkenes (Prins)
16-58	Trimerization and polymerization of aldehydes

Acetoxy Sulfides

19-62	Pummerer rearrangement

Acetylenes *{see* Alkynes)

Acids *(see* Carboxylic Acids, Sulfonic Acids)

Acylals

15-6	Addition of carboxylic acids to alkynes
16-57	Acylation of aldehydes or ketones
19-13	Bisdecarboxylation of malonic acids
19-16	Oxidation of arylmethanes with CrO_3 and Ac_2O

Acyl Halides

10-3	Reaction between 1,1,1 -trihalides and SO3
10-77	From carboxylic acids
10-78	Conversion of acid derivatives to acyl halides

14-3 Halogenation of aldehydes
15-2 Addition of hydrogen halides to ketenes
15-28 Free-radical addition of acyl halides to alkenes
19-22 Oxidation of alcohols

Acyloxy Ketones

15-55 Addition of an acyl and an acyloxy group to a double bond

Acyloins *(see* Hydroxy Aldehydes and Ketones)

Alcohols *(see also* Diols, Hydroxy Esters, etc.)

10-1 Hydrolysis of alkyl halides
10-4 Hydrolysis of inorganic esters
10-6 Hydrolysis of enol ethers, acetals, or ortho esters
10-10 Hydrolysis of carboxylic esters
10-17 Transetherification
10-18 Payne rearrangement
10-20 Oxidation of silanes
10-24 Transesterification
10-34 From amines by reaction of KNO_2 and sulfonamides
10-58 Ammonolysis of carboxylic esters
10-71 Cleavage of ethers with concentrated acids
10-84 Reduction of acetals or ortho esters
10-85 Reduction of epoxides
10-92 Coupling of allylic silanes and epoxides
10-101 Cleavage of acetals or ortho esters with Grignard reagents
10-102 Reaction between organometallic compounds and epoxides
10-107 Alkylation of alcohols
10-124 Hydrolysis of sulfonic esters
11-12 Alkylation of aromatic rings with ethylene oxide
11-22 Hydroxyalkylation of aromatic rings
12-25 Reaction between organometallic reagents and oxygen
14-4 Hydroxylation at an aliphatic carbon
14-23 Free-radical hydroxymethylation of aromatic rings
15-3 Hydration of alkenes and of cyclopropanes
15-16 Hydroboration–oxidation of alkenes
15-24 Addition of organometallic compounds to unsaturated alcohols
15-26 Addition of CH_3 and H to allylic alcohols
15-28 Free-radical addition of alcohols to alkenes
15-54 Addition of OH and SR to double bonds
16-23 Reduction of aldehydes or ketones
16-27 Addition of Grignard reagents and organolithium reagents to aldehydes or ketones

16-28	Addition of organometallic compounds to aldehydes or ketones
16-33	Addition of Grignard reagents to carboxylic esters or acyl halides
16-50	Addition of allylic silanes to aldehydes
16-53	Reductive addition of alkenes to aldehydes
16-55	Addition of radicals to ketones and aldhydes
17-2	Alkaline cleavage of ethers
17-32	Reaction of N-substituted amides with certain catalysts
18-1	Rearrangement of alcohols or alkenes (Wagner-Meerwein)
18-3	Expansion and contraction of rings (Demyanov)
18-19	Cleavage of methyl ketones with peracids (Baeyer–Villiger)
18-20	Cleavage of hydroperoxides
18-22	Rearrangement of ethers upon treatment with alkyllithiums (Wittig)
18-23	From boranes and CO, or CN^-, or $CHCl_2OMe$
18-23	From boranes, CO, water, and NaOH
18-24	From boranes, CO, and $LiAlH_4$
18-35	[2,3] Sigmatropic rearrangements of allylic ethers or allylic sulfoxides
19-9	Reduction of ozonides
19-34	Reduction of carboxylic acids
19-38	Reduction of carboxylic esters
19-39	Reduction of carboxylic esters with titanocene dichloride
19-37	Reduction of anhydrides
19-37	Reduction of acyl halides
19-46	Reduction of nitriles
19-60	Reaction between aldehydes and base (Cannizzaro)

Aldehydes *(see also* Dicarbonyl Compounds, Unsaturated Carbonyl Compounds, etc.)

10-2	Hydrolysis of *gem*-dihalides
10-4	Hydrolysis of enol esters of inorganic acids
10-6	Hydrolysis of enol ethers, acetals, thioacetals, and so on
10-10	Hydrolysis of enol esters
10-89	Reduction of acyl halides
10-90	Reduction of carboxylic acids, esters, or anhydrides
10-91	Reduction of amides
10-105	Alkylation and hydrolysis of imines; alkylation of aldehydes
10-107	Alkylation and hydrolysis of dithianes
10-108	Alkylation and hydrolysis of oxazines and similar compounds
10-109	Reaction of diazo aldehydes with boranes
10-112	Carbonylation of alkyl halides
10-115	Reaction between formates or formamides and organometallic compounds
10-120	Formylation of carboxylic acid salts
10-123	Reaction between formic acid, another acid, and thorium oxide

11-15	Formylation of aromatic rings with formamides and $POCl_3$ (Vilsmeier)
11-16	Formylation of aromatic rings with Zn(CN)2 and HCl (Gatterman)
11-17	Formylation of aromatic rings with chloroform (Reimer–Tiemann)
11-18	Other formylations of aromatic rings
12-25	Oxidation of 1,1-dimetallic compounds
12-31	Carbonylation of organometallic compounds
12-39	Decarboxylation of glycidic acids
13-13	Carbonylation of aryl iodides
13-15	Vicarious substitution of aryl nitro compounds
14-15	Cross-coupling of alkanes with trioxane
14-19	Arylation of allylic alcohols
14-30	Reaction of diazonium salts with oximes, followed by hydrolysis
15-3	Cleavage of activated alkenes with water
15-4	Hydration of acetylene
15-13	Selective reduction of unsaturated aldehydes
15-16	Oxidation of boranes; hydrolysis of unsaturated boranes
15-24	Addition of organometallic compounds to unsaturated aldehydes
15-25	Addition of boranes to unsaturated aldehydes
15-31	Hydroformylation of alkenes (oxo process)
16-2	Hydrolysis of imines, oximes, hydrazones, or other C=N compounds
16-3	Hydrolysis of primary nitro compounds (Nef)
16-26	Reduction of nitriles
16-33	Addition of Grignard reagents to formamides
16-41	Reaction of aldehydes or ketones with boron methides
16-67	Hydrolysis of metalated aldimines
17-1	Dehydration of 1,2-diols
17-2	Pyrolysis of vinylic ethers
17-25	Fragmentation of y-amino or y-hydroxy halides
17-26	Fragmentation of 1,3-diols
17-31	Fragmentation of certain ketoximes
17-34	Pyrolysis of (3-hydroxy alkenes
18-2	Rearrangements of diols (pinacol)
18-9	Homologation of aldehydes
18-13	Reaction between α-hydroxy or α-halo amides and NaOBr (Hofmann)
18-20	Cleavage of hydroperoxides
18-22	Rearrangement of allylic ethers
18-24	Treatment of boranes with CO and $LiAl(OMe)_3$
18-30	[1,3] Sigmatropic rearrangements of allylic vinylic ethers
18-40	Photolysis of nitrites, followed by hydrolysis (Barton)
19-5	Oxidation of primary alcohols
19-7	Oxidative cleavage of glycols or related compounds
19-9	Ozonolysis of alkenes
19-12	Oxidation of arylacetic acids

19-14 Oxidation of activated methyl groups
19-16 Oxidation of arylmethanes (Étard)
19-19 Oxidation of primary halides or esters of primary alcohols
19-20 Oxidation of amines or nitro compounds
19-22 Oxidation of alkenes with noble metal salts
19-62 Hydrolysis of α-acetoxy sulfides

Alicyclic Compounds

10-93 Internal coupling (Wurtz)
10-97 Cyclization of diallylic halides
10-99 Cyclization of 1,3-diols
10-104 Internal malonic ester synthesis
10-112 Carbonylation of 1,4-dihalides
10-118 Internal condensation of diesters (Dieckmann)
10-123 Ketonic decarboxylation of dicarboxylic acids
11-12 Intramolecular Friedel-Crafts alkylation
11-13 Scholl ring closure
11-14 Intramolecular Friedel-Crafts acylation
11-23 Cyclodehydration of aldehydes and ketones
12-15 Intramolecular insertion of carbocations
12-19 Intramolecular insertion of carbenes
13-14 Cyclization of dihalobiphenyls
14-16 Coupling of terminal diynes (cycloalkynes)
14-17 Intramolecular arylation (Pschorr)
14-31 Cyclization of dimagnesio compounds
15-14 Reduction of aromatic rings
15-19 Cyclization of dienes or diynes
15-24 Cyclization of unsaturated Grignard reagents
15-26 Free radical cyclization of alkenes with tin or mercury halides
15-28 Cyclization of unsaturated aldehydes
15-31 Carbonylation of dienes
15-35 Radical cyclization
15-44 Cyclization of halo alkenes
15-58 Addition of alkenes to dienes (Diels–Alder)
15-60 All-carbon 2 + 3 cycloadditions
15-61 Dimerization of alkenes
15-62 Addition of carbenes or carbenoids to alkenes or alkynes
15-63 Tetramerization of alkynes
15-64 Other cycloaddition reactions
16-27 Ring closure of halo carbonyl compounds
16-33 Reaction between carboxylic esters and dimagnesium compounds
16-38 Internal aldol reactions
16-39 Internal Mukaiyama aldol reactions
16-47 Internal Wittig reactions

16-49	Cyclization of dinitriles (Thorpe–Ziegler)
17-36	Extrusion of N_2 from pyrazolines or pyrazoles
17-37	Extrusion of CO from cyclic ketones
17-38	Extrusion of SO_2 from cyclic sulfones
17-39	Decarboxylation of cyclic peroxides (Story)
18-1	Wagner-Meerwein rearrangements to give cyclic products
18-3	Expansion and contraction of rings
18-7	Ring contraction of halo ketones (Favorskii)
18-8	Ring contraction of cyclic diazo ketones (Wolff)
18-9	Ring expansion of cyclic ketones
18-23	Treatment of cyclic boranes with CO
18-27	Cyclization of conjugated dienes and trienes
18-30	[1,7] Sigmatropic migrations of carbon
18-31	Ring expansion of vinylcyclopropenes and cyclobutenes
18-32	Ring expansion of vinylcycloalkanes; cyclization of diynes
18-37	Metathesis of dienes
18-38	Metal-ion-catalyzed σ-bond rearrangements
18-39	The di-π-methane rearrangement
19-2	Dehydrogenative ring closing
19-30	Oxidative cyclization
19-55	Reductive cyclization of dialdehydes
19-56	Cyclization of diketones or keto esters
19-57	Condensation of diesters (acyloin)

Alkanes *(see also* Alicyclic Compounds)

10-79	Reduction of alkyl halides
10-80	Reduction of tosylates and similar compounds
10-81	Hydrogenolysis of alcohols
10-82	Hydrogenolysis of esters (Barton–McCombie Reaction)
10-83	Hydrogenolysis of nitriles
10-86	Reductive cleavage of carboxylic esters
10-87	Reduction of the C—N bond
10-88	Reductive cleavage of thiols, sulfides, and sulfoxides
10-93	Coupling of alkyl halides (Wurtz)
10-94	Coupling of alkyl halides with groups I and II organometallic reagents
10-95	Coupling of alkyl halides with organocuprates
10-96	Coupling of alkyl halides with organometallic reagents other than Cu and groups I or II
10-98	Reaction between organometallic reagents and alkyl sulfates or sulfonates
10-99	Coupling of alcohols
10-101	Reaction between Grignard reagents and ethers
10-107	Reduction of dithianes

11-40 Deoxygenation of aryl ethers
12-17 Alkylation of alkanes
12-19 Insertion of carbenes
12-23 Reaction between organometallic compounds and acids
12-38 Decarboxylation of carboxylic acids
12-39 Cleavage of tertiary alkoxides
12-43 Cleavage of nonenolizable ketones
12-44 Cleavage of ketones with amide ion (Haller–Bauer)
12-45 Cleavage of alkanes
12-46 Decyanation of nitriles
14-15 Coupling of alkanes
14-31 Coupling of Grignard reagents
14-32 Coupling of boranes
14-33 Coupling of other organometallic compounds
14-34 Desulfurization of sulfur compounds
14-36 Decarboxylative dimerization (Kolbe)
14-39 Decarbonylation of aldehydes or acyl halides
15-11 Hydrogenation of alkenes and alkynes
15-12 Reduction of alkenes and alkynes
15-14 Reduction of aromatic rings
15-15 Reductive cleavage of cyclopropanes
15-18 Addition of alkanes to alkenes
15-19 Dimerization of alkenes
15-22 Addition of organometallics to alkenes and alkynes
15-35 Radical addition to alkenes
16-28 Reaction of ketones with trimethylaluminum
16-33 Reaction of carboxylic acids with trimethylaluminum
17-37 Extrusion of CO_2 from diacyl peroxides
19-6 Oxidation of hydrazines
19-12 Oxidative decarboxylation of carboxylic acids
19-33 Reduction of aldehydes or ketones (Wolff–Kishner; Clemmensen)
19-39 Reduction of carboxylic acids or esters
19-40 Reduction of epoxides
19-46 Reduction of cyano to methyl groups

Alkenes *{see also* Alicyclic Compounds, Unsaturated Acids, Unsaturated Alcohols, etc.)

10-79 Reduction of unsaturated halides
10-81 Reduction of allylic alcohols
10-87 Reductive cleavage of enamines
10-92 Coupling of allylic silanes and alkyl halides
10-93 Coupling of vinylic halides
10-94 Coupling of unsaturated halides with organometallic reagents
10-97 Coupling of allylic halides, tosylates, or acetates

10-98	Coupling of vinylic triflates with organometallic reagents
10-99	Coupling of allylic alcohols with organometallic reagents
10-100	Coupling of allylic esters with organometallic reagents
10-101	Cleavage of allylic, vinylic, or silyl ethers
12-2	Migration of double and triple bonds
12-38	Decarboxylation of unsaturated acids
14-18	Arylation of alkenes (Meerwein)
14-19	Arylation of alkenes by organopalladium compounds
14-29	Vinylation of diazonium salts
14-31	Dimerization of allylic Grignard reagents
14-32	Dimerization of vinylic chloroboranes
14-33	Dimerization of vinylic organometallic reagents
14-34	Desulfurization of thiophenes
14-36	Additive dimerization of alkenes and carboxylic acids
15-1	Isomerization of double bonds
15-11	Hydrogenationm of alkynes or allenes
15-14	Reduction of aromatic rings
15-16	Reduction of vinylic boranes; hydroboration of enamines
15-19	Dimerization of alkenes; dimerization of alkynes
15-20	The ene synthesis
15-24	Reaction of allylic halides, alkynes, and zinc
15-58	Addition of alkenes to dienes (Diels–Alder)
15-62	Addition of carbenes to aromatic rings
15-63	Tetramerization of alkynes
15-64	Dimerization of dienes
15-23	Addition of two alkyl groups to an alkyne
16-27	Reaction of *gem*-dimetallic compounds or organolithium compounds with aldehydes or ketones
16-31	Reformatsky reaction with Bu_3P
16-48	Reaction of ketones with Tebbe's reagent
16-41	From tosylhydrazone salts
16-42	Addition to aldehydes or ketones of α-sulfinyl carbanions or of α-lithiosilanes (Peterson)
16-47	Reaction between phosphorus ylids and aldehydes or ketones (Wittig)
16-48	Tebbe, Petasis and alternative alkenylations
16-62	Reaction of sulfonyl halides with tertiary amines and diazoalkanes
17-1	Dehydration of alcohols
17-2	Alkaline cleavage of ethers
17-3	Pyrolysis of carboxylic esters
17-4	Pyrolysis of xanthates (Chugaev)
17-5	Cleavage of inorganic esters and sulfonates
17-6	Cleavage of quaternary ammonium hydroxides (Hofmann)
17-7	Cleavage of quaternary ammonium salts
17-8	Cleavage of amine oxides (Cope)

17-10 Decomposition of tosylhydrazones
17-11 Cleavage of sulfoxides, selenoxides, and sulfones
17-12 Dehydrohalogenation of alkyl halides
17-13 Reaction of sulfonyl halides with tertiary amines
17-14 Elimination of boranes
17-16 Decarbonylation of acyl halides
17-17 Deoxygenation of *vic*-diols
17-18 Cleavage of cyclic thionocarbonates
17-19 Deoxidation of epoxides
17-20 Reaction of α-halo sulfones with bases (Ramberg–Bäcklund)
17-21 Reaction of aziridines with nitrous acid
17-22 Dehalogenation of *vic*-dihalides
17-24 Elimination of a halo and a hetero group (Boord)
17-25 Fragmentation of y-amino or y-hydroxy halides
17-26 Fragmentation of 1,3-diols
17-27 Decarbonylation of P-hydroxy carboxylic acids and of β-lactones
17-29 Elimination of CO and CO_2 from bridged bicyclic compounds
17-34 Pyrolysis of P-hydroxy alkenes
17-40 Twofold extrusion from certain cyclic molecules
18-1 Rearrangement of alcohols and alkenes (Wagner-Meerwein)
18-7 Expansion and contraction of rings (Demyanov)
18-8 Rearrangement of carbenes or carbenoids
18-25 Reaction between vinylic boranes and iodine or NaOMe
18-26 Reaction of lithium alkynyltrialkylborates with electrophiles
18-27 Electrocyclic rearrangements of cyclobutenes and cyclohexadienes
18-29 [1, *j*] Sigmatropic migrations of hydrogen
18-30 [1, *j*] Sigmatropic migrations of carbon
18-31 Rearrangement of vinylcyclopropanes
18-32 Rearrangement of 1,5-dienes (Cope)
18-37 Metathesis of alkenes
18-38 Cyclobutane reversions
18-39 The di-π-methane rearrangement
19-2 Dehydrogenation of diarylalkanes; remote dehydrogenation
19-12 Oxidative decarboxylation of carboxylic acids
19-13 Bisdecarboxylation of succinic acids
19-30 Oxidative coupling of halides
19-33 Reduction of α-hydroxy ketones; of unsaturated tosylhydrazones
19-56 Bimolecular reduction of aldehydes or ketones

Alkyl Halides *(see also* Dihalides, Halohydrins, etc.)

10-20 Fluoride displacement of arylsilanes
10-68 Halide exchange (Finkelstein)
10-69 Reaction between inorganic esters and halide ions
10-70 Reaction between alcohols and hydrogen halides or inorganic acid halides

10-71 Cleavage of ethers with HI or HBr
10-73 Cleavage of carboxylic esters with LiI
10-75 Conversion of amines to halides
10-76 Cleavage of tertiary amines (von Braun)
10-79 Reduction of dihalides
10-85 Reductive halogenation of epoxides
10-101 Homologation of alkyl halides
10-107 Homologation of alkyl halides
11-12 Reaction between aromatic rings and carbon tetrachloride
11-24 Haloalkylation of aromatic rings
12-30 Halogenation of organometallic compounds
12-38 Exchange between halides and organometallic compounds
14-1 Free-radical halogenation
14-2 Allylic halogenation
14-37 Decarboxylative halogenation (Hunsdiecker)
15-2 Addition of hydrogen halides to alkenes or alkynes
15-28 Free-radical addition of alkyl halides to alkenes
15-37 Addition of halogens to alkenes or alkynes
15-44 Addition of alkyl or aryl halides to alkenes
16-22 Reductive halogenation of aldehydes
16-28 Addition of methylniobium reagents to ketones
17-32 Reaction of N-substituted amides with PCl_5 (von Braun)

Alkynes *(see also* Alkynyl Halides, Alkynyl Ethers)

10-81 Reduction of acetylenic alcohols
10-94 From allenic substrates, with organocopper reagents
10-97 Propargylation of alkyl halides
10-110 Alkylation at an alkynyl carbon
12-2 Triple-bond migration
12-38 Decarboxylation of acetylenic acids
13-11 Reaction between aryl iodides and copper acetylids
14-16 Coupling of alkynes (Eglinton)
14-19 Arylation of alkynes
14-31 Dimerization of alkynyl organometallic compounds
14-32 Coupling of alkynyl borates
17-6 Pyrolysis of bisquaternary ammonium hydroxides
17-11 Cleavage of selenoxides
17-12 Dehydrohalogenation of dihalides or vinylic halides
17-15 Elimination of the elements of CH4 from certain alkenes
17-20 Decomposition of thiiren-1,1 -dioxides
17-22 Dehalogenation of tetrahalides
18-26 From boranes and lithium acetylids
18-37 Metathesis of alkynes
19-2 Dehydrogenation of certain diaryl alkenes

19-30 Oxidation of dihalotoluenes

Alkynyl Ethers

17-12 Reaction between vinylidine dihalides and amide ion

Alkynyl Halides

12-28 Reaction of acetylide ions with halogens

Allenes

10-79 Reduction of propargyl halides
10-86 Reduction of propargyl acetates
10-97 Alkylation of propargyl halides
10-98 Alkylation of propargyl tosylates
10-100 Reaction between propargyl esters and organometallic reagents
10-101 Cleavage of propargyl ethers by Grignard reagents
12-2 Rearrangement of alkynes
16-47 Reaction of phosphoranes with ketenes or CO_2
16-48 Tebbe, Petasis and alternative alkenylations
17-12 Dehydrohalogenation of dihalides
17-22 Dehalogenation of tetrahalides or dihaloalkenes
17-34 Pyrolysis of P-hydroxy alkynes
18-3 Contraction of three-membered rings
18-33 Rearrangement of propargylic vinyl compounds

Amidals *(see* Bisamides)

Amides *(see also* Bisamides)

10-11 Cleavage of an alkyl group from N-*tert*-butyl amides
10-48 Transamidation
10-54 Reaction between secondary amines and chloroform
10-55 Amination of acyl halides
10-56 Amination of anhydrides
10-57 Amination of carboxylic acids
10-58 Amination of carboxylic esters
10-59 Amination of amides
10-60 Amination of other acid derivatives
10-61 N-Alkylation of amides
10-113 Carbonylation of alkyl halides
11-6 Amidation of aromatic rings with hydroxamic acids
11-19 Carbamoylation of aromatic rings (Gatterman)
11-21 Amidation of aromatic rings with isocyanates
11-25 Amidoalkylation of aromatic rings

11-34	Rearrangement of N-halo-N-acyl aromatic amines (Orton)
12-12	Insertion by nitrenes
12-29	Indirectly from aldehydes
12-30	From imines, CO, and a borane
12-40	Reaction between amino acids and anhydrides (Dakin-West)
12-44	Cleavage of ketones with amide ion (Haller–Bauer)
12-46	Decyanation of cyano amides
12-53	Carbonylation of amines
13-5	N-Arylation of amides
13-13	Carboamidation of aryl halides
14-13	Reaction of aldehydes with ammonia
14-14	Amidation at an alkyl carbon
14-23	Carboamidation of nitrogen heterocycles
15-4	Hydration of ynamines
15-8	Addition of amides to alkenes; addition of amines to ketenes
15-9	Addition of amides to alkenes
15-28	Free-radical addition of amides to alkenes
15-29	Carbonylation of Double and Triple Bonds in the presence of amines
15-30	Hydrocarboxylation of alkenes in the presence of amines
16-4	Partial hydrolysis of nitriles
16-14	Reductive alkylation of amines (Leuckart)
16-17	Addition of amines and water to nitriles
16-24	Reduction of isocyanates
16-56	Addition of alcohols or other carbocation sources to nitriles (Ritter)
16-65	Addition of water to isocyanides
18-7	Rearrangement of α-halo ketones in the presence of amines (Favorskii)
18-8	Rearrangement of diazo ketones in the presence of amines (Arndt-Eistert)
18-13	Reaction between amides, lead tetraacetate, and acetic acid
18-16	Reaction between ketones and hydrazoic acid (Schmidt)
18-17	Rearrangement of oximes (Beckmann)
18-42	Rearrangement of aryl imidates (Chapman)
19-17	Oxidation of tertiary amines
19-52	de-Alkylation of amides
19-63	Oxidation of aryl ketones with ammonium polysulfide (Willgerodt)

Amidines

10-58	Amination of imidates
15-8	Addition of amines to ketenimines
16-17	Addition of ammonia or amines to nitriles

Amido Ketones

15-55	Addition of an acyl group and an acylamino group to a double bond

Aminals

16-12 Addition of amines to aldehydes or ketones

Amine Oxides

19-27 Oxidation of tertiary amines

Amines *(see also* Cyanoamines, Amino Acids, etc.)

10-11 Hydrolysis of amides
10-38 Cleavage of amines or quaternary ammonium salts
10-44 Alkylation of ammonia or amines
10-45 Coupling of amines and aryl halides
10-46 From alcohols or ethers
10-47 Transamination
10-49 Alkylation of amines with diazo compounds
10-52 Reaction of amines with aziridines
10-53 Amination of alkanes
10-61 Hydrolysis of phthalimides (Gabriel); and so on
10-75 Cleavage of aromatic amines or quaternary ammonium salts
10-87 Reduction of quaternary ammonium salts or aziridines
10-101 Cleavage of amine ethers with organometallic compounds
10-102 Reaction of organometallic compounds with aziridines
10-103 Reaction of organometallics with aziridines
10-107 Alkylation of amines
10-124 Hydrolysis of sulfonamides
11-6 Direct amination of aromatic rings
11-25 Aminoalkylation of aromatic rings
11-31 Rearrangement of N-nitroamines
11-32 Rearrangement of N-nitrosoamines (Fischer-Hepp)
11-33 Rearrangement of triazenes
11-35 Rearrangement of arylamines or aryl alkyl ammonium salts
12-11 Amination at an activated position
12-29 Conversion of organometallic compounds to amines
12-38 Decarboxylation of amino acids
12-46 Decyanation of cyanoamines
13-5 Arylation of ammonia or amines
13-6 Reaction between naphthols, bisulfite ion, and ammonia or amines (Bucherer)
13-16 Amination of heterocyclic nitrogen compounds (Chichibabin)
13-22 Rearrangement of benzylic quaternary ammonium salts (Sommelet–Hauser)
13-23 Rearrangement of aryl hydroxylamines
14-9 Demethylation of tertiary amines
14-34 Desulfurization of thioamides
15-8 Addition of ammonia or amines to alkenes

15-24	Addition of organometallic compounds to allylic amines
15-28	Free-radical addition of amines to alkenes
15-52	Diamination of alkenes
15-54	Addition of R_2N and SR to double bonds
15-59	Heteroatom Diels Alder reaction of imines
16-2	Hydrolysis of imines, enamines, and iminium ions
16-4	Hydrolysis of cyanamides
16-14	Reductive alkylation of ammonia or amines
16-15	Reaction between aldehydes, ammonia or amines, and an active hydrogen compound (Mannich)
16-24	Reduction of imines, hydrazones, or other compounds containing the C=N bond
16-25	Reduction of nitriles or nitrilium ions
16-27	Addition of Grignard reagents and organolithium reagents to amides
16-28	Addition of organometallic compounds to amides
16-33	Addition of Grignard reagents to formamides
16-35	Addition of Grignard reagents to imines
16-55	Addition of radicals to imines
17-6	Cleavage of quaternary ammonium hydroxides (Hofmann)
17-7	Cleavage of quaternary ammonium salts
17-31	Fragmentation of certain ketoximes
18-13	Reaction between amides and NaOBr (Hofmann)
18-14	Rearrangement of acyl azides in the presence of water (Curtius)
18-15	Rearrangement of hydroxamic acids and acyl halides (Lossen)
18-16	Addition of hydrazoic acid to carboxylic acids (Schmidt)
18-18	Rearrangement of N-haloamines
18-21	Rearrangement of quaternary ammonium salts and tertiary benzylic amines (Stevens)
18-35	[2,3] Sigmatropic rearrangements of quaternary ammonium salts
18-36	Rearrangement of benzidines
18-40	Hofmann–Löffler and related reactions
19-5	Conversion of primary to secondary amines by dehydrogenation
19-9	Reaction between ozonides, ammonia, and hydrogen
19-20	Oxidative cleavage of amines
19-35	Reduction of amides
19-41	Reduction of nitro compounds
19-43	Reduction of nitroso compounds or hydroxylamines
19-44	Reduction of oximes
19-45	Reduction of azides
19-46	Reduction of isocyanates, isothiocyanates, or N-nitroso compounds
19-48	Reduction of amine oxides
19-52	de-Alkylation of amines
19-53	Reduction of azo, azoxy, or hydrazo compounds
19-55	Bimolecular reduction of imines (1,2-diamines)

Amino Acids and Esters

10-11	Hydrolysis of lactams
10-44	Amination of halo acids
10-58	Ammonolysis of β-lactones
10-104	Alkylation of N-acetylaminomalonic esters (Sorensen)
12-8	Nitrosation at a carbon bearing an active hydrogen and reduction of the resulting oxime or nitroso compound
12-11	From acyl halides and a dialkyl azodicarboxylate
16-4	Hydrolysis of cyanohydrins
16-15	Reaction between aldehydes, ammonia, and carboxylic acids or esters
16-51	Addition of cyanide and ammonium ions to aldehydes or ketones, followed by hydrolysis (Strecker)
18-13	Reaction between imides and NaOBr (Hofmann)

Amino Carbonyl Compounds

10-46	Amination of α-hydroxy ketones
10-47	Transamination of Mannich bases
11-35	Photolysis of acylated arylamines
16-15	Reaction between aldehydes, ammonia, and aldehydes, ketones, or esters (Mannich)
18-12	Rearrangement of ketoxime tosylates (Neber)
18-21	Rearrangement of quaternary ammonium salts (Stevens)
19-22	Oxidation of certain enamines

Amino Ethers

10-18	Alcoholysis of aziridines
15-51	Aminomercuration of alkenes, followed by alcoholysis
16-15	Reaction between aldehydes, amines, and alcohols or phenols (Mannich)

Amino Thiols

10-50	Amination of episulfides
11-9	Sulfurization of aromatic amines (Herz)
16-15	Reaction between an aldehyde, ammonia, and a thiol (Mannich)

Anhydrides

10-29	Reaction of acyl halides with acid salts
10-30	Dehydration of carboxylic acids
10-35	Reaction of acid derivatives with inorganic acids

13-13	From aryl halides and CO
14-10	Acyloxylation of aldehydes
14-30	Reaction between diazonium fluoroborates, CO, and an acid salt
15-6	Addition of carboxylic acids to ketenes
15-28	Free-radical addition of anhydrides to alkenes
18-19	Reaction between α-diketones and peroxy compounds (Baeyer-Villiger)
19-10	Oxidation of aromatic rings

Arenes

10-79	Reduction of aryl and benzylic halides
10-81	Hydrogenolysis of benzyl alcohols
10-84	Reduction of benzylic ethers
10-93	Coupling of halides containing aryl groups
10-94	Coupling of aryl halides with organometallic reagents
10-99	Coupling of benzylic alcohols
11-12	Alkylation of aromatic rings (Friedel-Crafts)
11-13	Arylation of aromatic rings (Scholl)
11-22	Diarylation of ketones
11-23	Ring closure of aryl-substituted carbonyl compounds
11-36	Cleavage or rearrangement of alkyl arenes
11-37	Decarbonylation of aromatic aldehydes or deacylation of aromatic ketones
11-38	Decarboxylation of aromatic acids
11-41	Desulfonation of aromatic sulfonic acids
11-42	Dehalogenation of aryl halides
11-44	Hydrolysis of organometallic compounds
12-38	Decarboxylation of α-aryl acids
12-39	Cleavage of tertiary alkoxides
12-43	Cleavage of aryl ketones
12-44	Cleavage of aryl ketones with amide ions (Haller–Bauer)
12-46	Decyanation of aryl nitriles
13-8	Reduction of phenols, phenolic ethers, or phenolic esters
13-9	Reduction of aromatic nitro compounds
13-11	Coupling of organometallic compounds with aryl halides, ethers, and esters
13-14	Coupling of aryl iodides (Ullmann)
13-15	Alkylation with organometallic compounds
14-17	Free-radical arylation by diazonium salts (Gomberg–Bachmann, Pschorr)
14-21	Free-radical arylation by peroxides
14-22	Photochemical arylation
14-24	Reduction of diazonium salts
14-28	Dimerization of diazonium salts

14-29 Methylation of diazonium salts
14-31 Coupling of Grignard reagents
14-32 Coupling of arylboranes
14-33 Coupling of other organometallic compounds
14-34 Reduction of sulfur compounds
14-36 Coupling of aromatic acyl halides, with decarbonylation
14-39 Decarbonylation of aromatic aldehydes
15-26 Addition of tin and mercury hydrides to aryl alkenes
15-63 Trimerization of alkynes
16-27 Alkylation-reduction of aromatic aldehydes and ketones
17-29 Diels–Alder reactions of cyclopentadienones with alkynes
18-28 Photoconversion of stilbenes to phenanthrenes
19-1 Aromatization of six-membered rings
19-6 Oxidation of hydrazines
19-30 Dimerization of arenes
19-33 Reduction of aromatic aldehydes
19-39 Reduction of aromatic acids

Aryl Halides

11-11 Halogenation of aromatic compounds
11-34 Rearrangement of N-haloamines (Orton)
11-38 Replacement of aromatic COOH by halogen
11-41 Replacement of aromatic SO_2Br by halogen
11-42 Migration of halogen
12-28 Reaction of aryl organometallic compounds with halogens
13-7 Aryl halide exchange; halo-denitration; halo-dehydroxylation
13-19 Reaction between diazonium salts and iodide ion
13-20 Heating of diazonium fluoroborates (Schiemann)
14-25 Reaction between diazonium salts and CuCl or CuBr (Sandmeyer)
14-37 Decarboxylative halogenation (Hunsdiecker)
14-39 Decarbonylation of acyl halides

Azides

10-65 Alkylation or acylation of azide ion
12-10 Treatment of amides with tosyl azide
12-48 Reaction between hydrazines and nitrous acid
14-37 Reaction of acyl peroxides with copper azide
15-10 Addition of hydrazoic acid to double bonds
15-43 Addition of halogen azides to double bonds
15-52 Treatment of alkenes with sodium azide, ferrous ion, and hydrogen peroxide
15-54 Addition of SR and N_3 to double bonds
18-14 Reaction between hydrazides and nitrous acid
18-16 Reaction between alcohols or alkenes and hydrazoic acid

Azido Amides

12-10 Azidation of amides

Azines

16-19 Addition of hydrazine to aldehydes or ketones

Aziridines

10-44 Cyclization of haloamines
10-46 Cyclization of amino alcohols
10-63 Formation of aziridines from epoxides
10-65 Cyclization of P-azido alcohols
15-43 From P-iodo azides
15-53 Reaction of alkenes with azides
16-36 Addition of carbenes and diazoalkanes to imines
16-45 Reaction of imines with α-halo carbonyl compounds
17-36 Extrusion of N_2 from triazolines
19-44 Reduction of oximes

Azo Compounds

11-4 Coupling of diazonium salts with aromatic rings
11-33 Rearrangement of aryl triazenes
12-7 Aliphatic diazonium coupling
12-50 Reaction of amines with nitroso compounds (Mills)
12-51 From aromatic nitro compounds
14-28 Coupling of aryl diazonium salts
18-43 Rearrangement of azoxy compounds (Wallach)
19-6 Oxidation of hydrazines
19-48 Reduction of azoxy compounds
19-59 Reduction of nitro compounds

Azoxy Compounds

10-67 Reaction between alkyl halides and alkanediazotates
12-51 Reaction of nitroso compounds with hydroxylamines
19-58 Reduction of nitro or nitroso compounds; reaction between nitroso compounds and hydroxylamines

Benzoins *(see* Hydroxy Aldehydes and Ketones)

Bisamides

14-15 Coupling of amides
16-12 Addition of amides to aldehydes or ketones
16-13 Addition of amides to aldehydes

16-66 Reaction between isocyanides, acids, amines, and aldehydes or ketones (Ugi)

Bisulfite Addition Compounds (see Hydroxy Sulfonic Acids)

Boranes

12-33 Reaction between boron halides and Grignard reagents
15-16 Hydroboration of alkenes or alkynes
15-25 Reaction of borinates with organometallic compounds
17-14 Exchange reaction between boranes and alkenes
18-11 Migration of boron

Bunte Salts

10-41 Reaction between alkyl halides and thiosulfate ion

Carbamates

10-26 Reaction between K_2CO_3, amines, and halides
10-55 Reaction between chloroformates and primary amines
10-66 Reaction between alkyl halides, ethanol, and thiocyanate ion
10-75 Cleavage of tertiary amines with ClCOOPh
12-12 Insertion by nitrenes
12-53 Carbonylation of amines or nitro or nitroso compounds
16-7 Addition of alcohols to isocyanates
16-8 Reaction of alcohols with ClCN
18-13 Reaction between amides, bromine, and alkoxides (Hofmann), and similar rearrangement reactions
18-14 Rearrangement of acyl azides in the presence of alcohols (Curtius)

Carbodiimides

16-59 Addition of isocyanates to isocyanates

Carbonates

10-21 Alcoholysis of phosgene
10-26 Reaction between alkyl halides and carbonate salts

Carboxylic Acids

10-3 Hydrolysis of 1,1,1-trihalides
10-6 Hydrolysis of ortho esters
10-8 Hydrolysis of acyl halides

10-9	Hydrolysis of anhydrides
10-10	Hydrolysis of carboxylic esters
10-11	Hydrolysis of amides
10-73	Cleavage of carboxylic esters with LiI
10-86	Reductive cleavage of carboxylic esters
10-104	Malonic ester synthesis
10-106	Alkylation of carboxylate ions
10-108	Hydrolysis of oxazines
10-113	Carbonylation of alkyl halides and other substrates
11-19	Carboxylation of aromatic rings with carbonyl halides
11-20	Carboxylation of aromatic rings with carbon dioxide (Kolbe–Schmitt)
11-38	Rearrangement of aromatic carboxylate ions
12-38	Decarboxylation of dicarboxylic acids
12-41	Basic cleavage of P-keto esters or p-diketones
12-42	The haloform reaction
12-43	Cleavage of nonenolizable ketones
13-13	Carboxylation of aryl halides
13-21	Rearrangement of aromatic nitro compounds upon treatment with cyanide ion (von Richter)
14-6	Oxidation of aldehydes
14-30	Reaction of diazonium fluoroborates with CO
15-3	Addition of water to ketenes
15-16	Oxidation of 1,1-diboranes
15-18	Addition of carbocations to 1,1-dichloroethene; addition of carboxylates to alkenes
15-24	Addition of alkylcopper reagents to unsaturated carboxylic acids
15-28	Free-radical addition of acids to alkenes
15-30	Hydrocarboxylation of alkenes
16-3	Hydrolysis of primary nitro compounds
16-4	Hydrolysis of nitriles
16-34	Addition of Grignard reagents to carbon dioxide
16-41	Reaction of ketones with tosylmethyl azide, followed by hydrolysis
16-47	Reaction of phosphoranes with CO_2
16-48	Tebbe, Petasis and alternative alkenylations
17-3	Pyrolysis of carboxylic esters
17-31	Fragmentation of certain ketoximes
18-7	Rearrangement of α-halo ketones (Favorskii)
18-8	Rearrangement of diazo ketones (Arndt–Eistert)
18-19	Oxidation of aldehydes
18-24	From boranes
19-7	Oxidative cleavage of α-diketones and α-keto acids
19-8	Oxidative cleavage of ketones and secondary alcohols
19-9	Oxidation of ozonides; ozonolysis of alkynes
19-10	Oxidative cleavage of alkenes, terminal alkynes, or aromatic rings

19-11 Oxidation of aromatic side chains
19-20 Oxidation of amines
19-21 Oxidation of primary alcohols or ethers
19-22 Oxidation of arylthioalkynes
19-60 Reaction between aldehydes and base (Cannizzaro)
19-63 Oxidation of aryl ketones by ammonium polysulfide (Willgerodt)

Carboxylic Esters *{see also* Dicarbonyl Compounds, Unsaturated Esters, etc.)

10-3 Alcoholysis of trihalides
10-6 Hydrolysis of ortho esters
10-21 Alcoholysis of acyl halides
10-22 Alcoholysis of anhydrides
10-23 Esterification of carboxylic acids
10-24 Transesterification
10-25 Alcoholysis of Amides and Hydrazides
10-26 Alkylation of carboxylic acid salts
10-27 Cleavage of ethers with anhydrides
10-28 Alkylation of carboxylic acids with diazo compounds
10-105 Alkylation of carboxylic esters
10-107 Alkylation of aryl esters
10-108 Alkylation and alcoholysis of oxazines
10-109 Reaction of halo esters or diazo esters with boranes
10-113 Carbonylation of alkyl halides and other substrates
10-114 Reaction between Grignard reagents and chloroformates
12-30 Carbonylation of organometallic compounds
12-41 Base cleavage of β-keto esters
12-42 Haloform cleavage of methyl ketones
13-3 Reaction between aryl halides and carboxylic acid salts
13-12 Arylation of carboxylic esters
13-13 Carbalkoxylation of aryl halides and phenols
13-15 Vicarious substitution of aryl nitro compounds
14-10 Free-radical acyloxylation
14-23 Carbalkoxylation of nitrogen heterocycles
14-37 Reaction between silver salts and iodine (Simonini)
15-4 Hydration of acetylenic ethers
15-5 Addition of alcohols or phenols to ketenes
15-6 Addition of carboxylic acids or acyl peroxides to alkenes
15-13 Selective reduction of conjugated esters
15-21 Addition of carboxylic esters to activated alkenes (Michael)
15-24 Addition of organometallic compounds to unsaturated esters
15-26 Addition of tin and mercury hydrides to unsaturated ketones
15-28 Free-radical addition of carboxylic esters to alkenes
15-30 Hydrocarboxylation of alkenes in the presence of alcohols
15-46 Addition of carboxylic acid salts to alkenes

15-54	Addition of OAc and SR to double bonds
16-6	Reductive acylation of ketones
16-8	Alcoholysis of nitriles
18-7	Rearrangement of α-halo ketones (Favorskii)
18-8	Rearrangement of diazo ketones in the presence of alcohols (Arndt-Eistert)
18-19	Reaction between ketones and peroxy compounds (Baeyer-Villiger)
19-8	Cleavage of cyclic ketones with NOCl and an alcohol
19-9	From ozonides
19-10	Oxidative cleavage of enol ethers
19-12	Reaction between carboxylic acids and lead tetraacetate
19-17	Oxidation of ethers
19-21	Oxidation of primary alcohols or aldehydes
19-22	Oxidation of enol ethers
19-61	Reaction between aldehydes and aluminum ethoxide (Tishchenko)
19-63	Reaction of acetophenones with $AgNO_3$–I_2 or other reagents

Catenanes

19-57	Acyloin condensation or other methods

Cyanamides

10-76	Cleavage of tertiary amines with cyanogen bromide (von Braun)
17-32	Dehydration of disubstituted ureas

Cyanates

10-12	Reaction of aroxides and cyanogen halides

Cyanoamines

10-46	Amination of cyanohydrins
11-28	Cyanation of aromatic amines
12-16	Cyanation of secondary amines
16-15	Reaction between aldehydes, ammonia, and nitriles (Mannich)
16-51	Addition of cyanide and ammonium ions to aldehydes or ketones (Strecker)
16-52	Addition of HCN to C=N or C≡N bonds

Cyano Carbonyl Compounds

10-104	Akylation of cyano carbonyl compounds
10-117	Acylation of nitriles by acyl halides
10-119	Acylation of nitriles by carboxylic esters

10-121	Reaction between acyl halides and CuCN
12-16	Cyanation of ketones
12-18	Cyanoethylation of enamines; reaction of enamines with cyanogen chloride
13-12	Arylation of cyano carbonyl compounds
15-21	Addition of alkenes (Michael)
15-27	Acylation of unsaturated nitriles
15-33	Addition of HCN to unsaturated aldehydes, ketones, or carboxylic esters
16-41	Addition of cyano carbonyl compounds to aldehydes or ketones (Knoevenagel)
16-49	Condensation of nitriles (Thorpe)
19-30	Dimerization of cyano carbonyl compounds

Cyanohydrins *(see* Hydroxy Nitriles)

Cycloalkanes and Alkenes *(see* Alicyclic Compounds)

Dialdehydes *(see* Dicarbonyl Compounds)

Diamines

10-52	Reacation of amines with aziridines
15-52	Diamination (additon of nitrogen, nitrogen)
19-55	Dimerizatino of imines

Diazo Compounds

10-122	Reaction between acyl halides and diazomethane
12-9	Reaction of active hydrogen compounds with tosyl azide
12-47	Diazotization of α-amino esters and similar compounds
16-41	Addition of diazo esters to aldehydes
17-45	Elimination from N-nitroso-N-alkyl compounds
19-6	Oxidation of hydrazones

Diazonium Salts

11-5	Direct diazotization of aromatic rings
12-47	Diazotization of primary amines

1,2-Dicarbonyl Compounds

10-113	Dicarbonylation of halides
10-116	Dimerization of acyl halides
10-119	Acylation of 1,3-dithianes, followed by hydrolysis
16-27	Addition of RLi and CO to carboxylic esters

16-67 Reaction of metalated aldimines with CO_2
19-9 Ozonization of alkynes or aromatic rings
19-14 Oxidation of ketones with selenium dioxide
19-20 Oxidative cleavage of α-amino ketones
19-22 Oxidation of alkenes
19-26 Oxidation of alkynes
19-57 Reductive condensation of aromatic carboxylic acids

1,3-Dicarbonyl Compounds

10-104 Alkylation at a carbon bearing an active hydrogen
10-117 Acylation at a carbon bearing an active hydrogen
10-118 Acylation of carboxylic esters by carboxylic esters (Claisen; Dieckmann)
10-119 Acylation of ketones by carboxylic esters
10-120 Acylation of carboxylic acid salts
11-22 Reaction between aromatic compounds and diethyl oxomalonate
12-14 Acylation of acetals or ketals followed by hydrolysis
12-15 Alkoxycarbonylalkylation of aldehydes
12-18 Acylation of enamines followed by hydrolysis (Stork)
13-12 Arylation at a carbon bearing an active hydrogen
15-3 Cleavage of activated alkenes with water
15-21 Addition of active hydrogen compounds to alkenes (Michael)
15-28 Free-radical addition of 1,3-dicarbonyl compounds to alkenes
16-31 Reaction between nitriles, zinc, and α-halo esters (Blaise)
16-41 Addition of 1,3-dicarbonyl compounds to aldehydes or ketones (Knoevenagel)
16-43 Carboxylation of ketones and carboxylic esters
18-2 Rearrangement of epoxy ketones
18-9 Reaction of ketones with ethyl diazoacetate
19-14 Remote oxidation of ketones
19-30 Dimerization of β-keto esters or similar compounds

1,4-Dicarbonyl Compounds

10-6 Cleavage of furans
11-14 Acylation of aromatic rings by succinic anhydride
14-15 Coupling of ketones, carboxylic acids, and esters
15-27 Acylation of unsaturated ketones or alkynes
19-14 Remote oxidation of ketones
19-31 Dimerization of silyl enol ethers or of lithium enolates

1,5-Dicarbonyl Compounds

15-21 Addition of silyl enol ethers or silyl ketene acetals to unsaturated ketones or esters

Dicarboxylic Acids *{see* Dicarbonyl Compounds, Carboxylic Acids)

Dicyano Compounds

10-104	Alkylation of malononitriles
13-12	Arylation of malononitriles
15-21	Addition of nitriles to unsaturated nitriles (Michael)
15-33	Addition of HCN to triple bonds
16-41	Addition of malononitriles to aldehydes or ketones (Knoevenagel)
16-52	Addition of HCN to nitriles
19-10	Oxidation of *o*-diamines

Dienes

10-94	Coupling of vinylic halides with copper
10-97	Coupling of allylic halides with thioether anions
14-20	Arylation and alkylation of alkenes by vinyltin compounds (the Stille reaction)
14-32	Coupling of vinylic boranes
15-14	Hydrogenation of aromatic compounds
15-19	Coupling of alkynes
18-32	Sigmatropic rearrangments of 1,5-dienes (the Cope rearrangement)

Diesters *{see* Dicarbonyl Compounds)

Dihalides and Polyhalides

10-72	Treatment of epoxides with $SOCl_2$, Ph_3P and CCl_4 or Ph_3PCl_2
10-79	Reduction of trihalides
10-94	Coupling of halides with trihalides
12-38	Decarboxylation of trihalo acids
12-42	The haloform reaction
13-15	Vicarious substitution of aryl nitro compounds
14-1	Free-radical halogenation
15-2	Addition of hydrogen halides to alkynes
15-37	Addition of halogens to alkenes or alkynes
15-44	Free-radical addition of polyhalides to alkenes
16-22	Reaction of PCl_5, SF_4, or other reagents with aldehydes, ketones, or other C=O compounds
19-20	Treatment of amines with CuX and alkyl nitrites

Diketones *{see* Dicarbonyl Compounds)

Dinitro Compounds

14-12	Nitration of alkanes or nitro compounds

gem-Diols (Hydrates)

16-1 Hydration of aldehydes

1,2-Diols

10-7 Hydrolysis of epoxides
14-15 Coupling of alcohols
15-46 Hydroxylation of alkenes
16-27 Addition of a masked Grignard reagent to an aldehyde or ketone
16-41 From aromatic aldehydes and carbanions
19-55 Bimolecular reduction of aldehydes or ketones

1,3-Diols

16-46 Condensation between formaldehyde and aldehydes or ketones (Tollens)
16-53 Addition of aldehydes to alkenes (Prins)

Disulfides

10-40 Reaction between alkyl halides and disulfide ion
13-4 Reaction between aryl halides and disulfide ion
13-24 The Smiles rearrangement
15-40 Addition of ArSSCl to alkenes
19-32 Oxidation of thiols
19-47 Reduction of sulfonyl halides

Dithioacetals

10-38 From *gem*-dihalides or acetals and thiolate ions
15-7 Addition of thiols to alkynes
16-10 Addition of thiols to aldehydes or ketones

Dithiols

15-50 Reaction of alkenes with a disulfide and BF_3 etherate
16-10 Addition of H_2S to carbonyl compounds or imines

Enamines

10-107 Alkylation of enamines
15-8 Addition of amines to triple-bond compounds
16-12 Addition of amines to aldehydes or ketones
16-33 Reaction between Grignard reagents and formamides
16-47 Reaction of phosphonates with aldehydes or ketones

16-48 Tebbe, Petasis and alternative alkenylations
19-2 Dehydrogenation of tertiary amines

Enolate Ions

10-105 From enol acetates
12-3 Treatment of aldehydes or ketones with base
12-21 Treatment of active hydrogen compounds with base

Enol Carbamates

15-6 Reaction between alkynes, CO, and an amine

Enol Ethers and Esters

10-15 O-Alkylation of carbonyl compounds with diazo alkanes
10-17 Transetherification
10-21 Reaction between acyl halides and active hydrogen compounds
10-24 Transesterification
10-26 Acylation of vinylic halides
10-104 Alkylation with ortho esters
10-117 O-Acylation of 1,3-dicarbonyl compounds
15-5 Addition of alcohols or phenols to alkynes; addition of aldehydes or ketones to ketene
15-6 Addition of carboxylic acids to alkynes
16-5 Addition of alcohols or anhydrides to aldehydes or ketones
16-48 Reaction between carboxylic esters and Tebbe's reagent or metal carbene complexes
16-47 Reaction of α-alkoxy phosphoranes with aldehydes or ketones
16-48 Tebbe, Petasis, and alternative alkenylations
17-2 Cleavage of acetals
17-24 Elimination from β-halo acetals

Enols *{see* Unsaturated Alcohols and Phenols)

Enol Thioethers

15-7 Addition of thiols to alkynes
16-10 Reaction of aldehydes or ketones with thiols
19-2 Dehydrogenation and reduction of sulfoxides

Enynes

15-19 Dimerization of alkynes

Episulfides

10-38	Reaction between epoxides and phosphine sulfides
15-40	Cyclization of β-halo disulfides
16-62	Reaction of diazoalkanes with sulfur or thioketones

Epoxides

10-13	Cyclization of halohydrins
10-16	Cyclization of 1,2-diols
10-18	Payne rearrangement of 2,3-epoxy alcohols
14-7	Epoxidation of a secododecahedrane
15-48	Epoxidation of alkenes
16-27	Reaction of carbonyl compounds with *gem*-dihalides and Li or BuLi
16-45	Condensation between aldehydes and α-halo esters, ketones, or amides (Darzens)
16-61	Addition of sulfur ylids or diazomethane to aldehydes or ketones
19-63	Bimolecular reduction of aldehydes or ketones

Esters *{see* Carboxylic Esters, Inorganic Esters)

Ethers *{see also* Hydroxy Ethers, etc.)

10-6	Cleavage of oxonium ions
10-10	Reaction between carboxylic esters and alkoxide ion
10-12	Reaction between alkoxides or aroxides and alkyl halides (Williamson)
10-14	Reaction between alkoxides or aroxides and inorganic esters
10-15	Alkylation of alcohols or phenols with diazo compounds
10-16	Dehydration of alcohols
10-17	Transetherification
10-19	Alkylation of alcohols with onium salts
10-31	Exchange of ethers and oxonium salts
10-71	Cleavage of oxonium salts
10-84	Reduction of acetals or ketals
10-101	Reaction between Grignard reagents and acetals or ketals; dimerization of acetals
12-22	Reaction between Grignard reagents and terf-butyl peroxy esters
13-3	Reaction between aryl halides and alkoxides or aroxides
14-7	Cyclization of alcohols with lead tetraacetate
14-34	Desulfurization of thiono esters
15-7	Addition of alcohols or phenols to alkenes
15-28	Free-radical addition of ethers to alkenes
15-59	Heteroatom Diels–Alder reaction of ketones and aldhydes
16-6	Reductive alkylation of alcohols
19-36	Reduction of carboxylic esters

Glycidic Esters

15-34 Epoxidation of α,β-unsaturated esters
16-45 Condensation between aldehydes or ketones and α-halo esters (Darzens)

Grignard Reagents *(see* Organometallic Compounds)

Halo Acids, Esters, Aldehydes, Ketones *(see* Halo Carbonyl Compounds)

Haloamines

15-41 Addition of N-haloamines to unsaturated compounds

N-Haloamines and Amides

12-52 Halogenation of amines or amides

Halo Carbonyl Compounds

10-72 Reaction of acyl chlorides with ethylene oxide and NaI
10-74 Reaction of diazo ketones with hydrohalic acids
12-4 Halogenation of aldehydes or ketones
12-5 Halogenation of carboxylic acids (Hell–Volhard–Zelinskii) and acid derivatives
15-37 Addition of halogens to ketenes
15-39 Addition of HOBr or HOCl to triple bonds; addition of chlorine acetate or other reagents to alkenes
15-45 Addition of acyl halides to alkenes
18-10 Rearrangement of halo epoxides
19-22 Oxidation of certain alkenes

Halo Ethers and Acetals

15-39 Addition of hypohalites to double bonds
16-22 Reaction of carboxylic esters with C1F or other reagents

Haloformic Esters

10-21 Alcoholysis of phosgene

Halohydrins

10-72 Cleavage of epoxides with hydrogen halides
15-39 Addition of hypohalous acids to alkenes

Halo Sulfides, Sulfoxides, and Sulfones

12-6 Halogenation of sulfoxides and sulfones
15-41 Addition of sulfonyl halides to alkenes
19-62 Pummerer rearrangements

Hemiacetals

14-4 Electrolytic oxidation of tetrahydrofuran
16-5 Addition of alcohols to aldehydes or ketones

Hemiaminals

16-12 Reaction between aldehydes or ketones and amines

Hemimercaptals

16-10 Addition of thiols to aldehydes or ketones

Heterocyclic Compounds *{see also* Anhydrides, Aziridines, Epoxides, Episulfides, Imides, Lactams, Lactones)

10-13 Cyclization of halohydrins (cyclic ethers)
10-16 Cyclization of glycols (cyclic ethers; furans)
10-17 Reaction of diols with acetals (cyclic acetals)
10-38 Reaction of dihalides with sulfide ion (cyclic sulfides)
10-44 Cyclization of haloamines (cyclic amines); dealkylation of quaternary salts of nitrogen heterocycles
10-62 Reaction between ureas and malonic esters (cyclic ureides)
11-9 Sulfurization of aromatic rings (cyclic sulfides)
11-14 Intramolecular acylation
11-21 Intramolecular amidation of aromatic rings
11-23 Cyclization of amides with $POCl_3$ (isoquinolines)
12-12 Intramolecular nitrene insertion
13-5 Intramolecular arylation of amines (cyclic amines)
13-12 Intramolecular arylation of active hydrogen compounds
13-15 Arylation of heterocyclic nitrogen compounds
13-16 Amination of heterocyclic nitrogen compounds
14-7 Cyclization of alcohols with lead tetraacetate (tetrahydrofurans)
14-14 Cyclization of N-tosyl malonic esters
14-17 Intramolecular arylation (Pschorr)
14-23 Alkylation, arylation, and carbalkoxylation of nitrogen heterocycles
15-8 Addition of ammonia or primary amines to conjugated diynes (pyrroles)
15-14 Hydrogenation of heterocyclic aromatic rings

15-16 Addition of boranes to dienes (cyclic boranes)
15-49 Photooxidation of dienes (cyclic peroxides)
15-50 Cyclization of unsaturated alcohols with sulfenyl chlorides (tetrahydrofurans)
15-53 Addition of aminonitrenes to triple bonds (1-azirines)
15-57 1,3-Dipolar addition to double or triple bonds
15-58 Diels–Alder addition involving hetero atoms
15-59 Heteroatom Diels-Alder reactions
15-62 Expansion of heterocyclic rings upon treatment with carbenes
15-64 Other cycloaddition reactions
16-5 Formation of cyclic acetals; reaction between diketones and acids (furans, pyrans)
16-10 Addition of H_2S to aldehydes or ketones (cyclic thioacetals)
16-12 Reaction between aldehydes and ammonia (cyclic amines)
16-12 Intramolecular addition of amines to carbonyl groups (cyclic imines)
16-17 Reaction of dinitriles with ammonia (cyclic imidines)
16-19 Reaction between hydrazines and P-diketones or β-keto esters (pyrazoles; pyrazolones)
16-41 Reaction of ketones with tosylmethylisocyanide (oxazolines)
16-53 Reaction between alcohols and aldehydes (dioxanes)
16-58 Trimerization of aldehydes (trioxanes)
16-63 Addition of alkenes to aldehydes or ketones (oxetanes)
17-20 Reaction of dichlorobenzyl sulfones with base (thiiren-1,1-dioxides)
17-37 Extrustion of CO_2 from benzoxadiazepinones (indazoles)
17-40 Condensation of thiobenzilic acid with aldehydes or ketones (oxathiolan-5-ones)
18-14 Curtius rearrangement of cycloalkyl or aryl azides
18-18 Rearrangement of N-haloamines (cyclic amines)
18-21 Ring enlargement of cyclic quaternary ammonium salts (cyclic amines)
18-31 Ring expansion of N-acylaziridines (oxazoles)
18-34 Cyclization of arylhydrazones (Fischer indole synthesis)
18-40 Acid-catalyzed rearrangement of N-haloamines (pyrrolidines; piperidines Hofmann–Löffler)
19-1 Aromatization of heterocyclic rings
19-33 Reduction of α,β-unsaturated ketones (pyrazolones)
19-35 Reduction of lactams (cyclic amines)
19-36 Reduction of lactones (cyclic ethers)

Hydrates *(see* gem-Diols)

Hydrazides

10-55 Acylation of hydrazines with acyl halides
10-58 Acylation of hydrazines with carboxylic esters

Hydrazines

13-16	Hydrazination of heterocyclic nitrogen compounds
15-8	Addition of hydrazines to alkenes
18-18	Reaction between ureas and NaOBr (Hofmann)
19-41	Reduction of N-nitro compounds
19-43	Reduction of N-nitroso compounds
19-46	Reduction of azo compounds or diazonium salts

Hydrazo Compounds (see Hydrazines)

Hydrazones

12-7	Aliphatic diazonium coupling
16-19	Addition of hydrazines to aldehydes or ketones

Hydroperoxides

10-32	Reaction between alkyl or acyl halides and hydrogen peroxide
12-24	Reaction between organometallic reagents and oxygen
14-8	Autoxidation; reaction of alkenes with singlet oxygen

Hydroxamic Acids

10-55	Acylation of hydroxylamine with acyl halides
10-58	Acylation of hydroxylamine with carboxylic esters
16-3	Hydrolysis of aliphatic nitro compounds

Hydroxy Acids

10-10	Hydrolysis of lactones
10-113	Dicarbonylation of aryl iodides
11-20	Carboxylation of phenols
11-22	Reaction between aromatic compounds and diethyl oxomalonate
12-25	Oxidation of dilithiated carboxylic acids
16-4	Hydrolysis of cyanohydrins
16-31	Reaction between aldehydes or ketones and zinc carboxylates
16-41	Addition of dianions of carboxylic acids to ketones
18-6	Rearrangement of benzils
18-7	Rearrangement of α,β-epoxy ketones (Favorskii)
19-60	Reaction between keto aldehydes and base

Hydroxy Aldehydes and Ketones

10-5	Hydrolysis of diazo ketones
10-107	Reaction between dithiane salts and epoxides

10-108 Alkylation of oxazines with epoxides
11-30 Rearrangement of phenolic esters (Fries)
12-18 Alkylation of enamines with epoxides
14-4 Hydroxylation of ketones
16-23 Monoreduction of α-diketones
16-27 Addition of RLi and CO to ketones
16-31 Reaction between aldehydes or ketones, zinc, and halo ketones
16-38 Combination of aldehydes and/or ketones (aldol)
16-39 Mukaiyama aldol reactions
16-41 Various Knoevenagel methods
16-46 Condensation of formaldehyde with aldehydes or ketones (Tollens)
16-54 Condensation of aromatic aldehydes (benzoin)
16-67 Reaction of metalated aldimines with aldehydes or epoxides
18-1 Rearrangement of epoxy silyl ethers
18-4 Rearrangement of α-hydroxy aldehydes or ketones
19-15 Oxidation of methylene to OH, O_2CR, or OR
19-19 Oxidation of epoxides
19-22 Oxidation of alkenes
19-57 Condensation of carboxylic esters (acyloin)

Hydroxyamines and Amides

10-50 Animation of epoxides
10-51 Reaction of amines with oxetanes
10-54 Hydrolysis of silyloxy isocyanides
11-22 Hydroxymethylation of aromatic amines
11-25 Aminoalkylation and amidoalkylation of phenols
11-29 Hydroxylation of amines
13-23 Rearrangement of aryl hydroxylamines (Bamberger)
14-4 Hydroxylation of amides
15-51 Oxyamination of double bonds; aminomercuration of alkenes, followed by hydrolysis
16-12 Addition of ammonia, amines or amides to aldehydes or ketones
16-13 Addition of amides to aldehydes
16-31 Reaction between aldehydes or ketones, zinc, and halo amides
16-41 Reaction of aldehydes with the conjugate base of formamide; reaction of ketones with imines
16-66 Reaction between isocyanides, $TiCl_4$ and aldehydes or ketones, followed by hydrolysis
19-55 Coupling of ketones and O-methyl oximes

Hydroxy Esters

10-24 Transesterification of lactones
10-27 Acylation of epoxides
14-4 Hydroxylation of carboxylic esters

16-30 Addition of conjugated alkenes to aldehydes (the Baylis-Hillman reaction)
16-31 Reaction between aldehydes or ketones, zinc, and α-halo esters (Reformatsky)
16-40 Condensation between carboxylic esters and aldehydes or ketones
16-41 Addition of α-metalated esters to ketones
19-15 Oxidation of methylene to OH, O_2CR, or OR

Hydroxy Ethers

10-18 Alcoholysis of epoxides

Hydroxylamines

15-8 Addition of hydroxylamine to alkenes
16-24 Reduction of oximes
16-35 Addition of alkyllithium compounds to oximes
17-8 Cleavage of amine oxides (Cope)
18-21 Rearrangement of N-oxides (Meisenheimer)
19-23 Oxidation of amines
19-42 Reduction of nitro compounds

Hydroxy Nitriles

10-111 Reaction between epoxides and cyanide ion
14-4 Hydroxylation of nitriles
16-31 Reaction between aldehydes and ketones, zinc, and halo nitriles
16-41 Addition of nitriles to ketones
16-51 Addition of HCN to aldehydes or ketones

Hydroxy Sulfonic Acids

16-11 Addition of bisulfite ion to aldehydes or ketones

Hydroxy Thiols and Thioethers

10-37 Reaction between epoxides and NaSH
10-38 Reaction between epoxides and thiolate ions
11-26 Thioalkylation of phenols
15-50 Hydroxysulfenylation af alkenes
16-10 Addition of H_2S to aldehydes or ketones

Imides (including Ureides)

10-55 Reaction between acyl halides and lithium nitride
10-56 Amination of anhydrides

10-61 N-Alkylation of imides
10-62 N-Acylation of amides or imides
15-8 Addition of imides to alkenes
15-30 Hydrocarboxylation of unsaturated amides
18-13 Reaction between amides and NaOBr (Hofmann)
18-14 Rearrangement of acyl azides in the presence of water (Curtius)
19-17 Oxidation of lactams

Imines

12-8 Reaction between active hydrogen compounds and nitroso compounds
12-18 Treatment of enamines with nitrilium salts
15-8 Addition of amines to triple-bond compounds
15-59 Heteroatom Diels–Alder reaction of imines
16-12 Addition of ammonia, amines to aldehydes or ketones
16-37 Addition of Grignard reagents to nitriles
16-47 Addition of ylids to nitroso compounds
16-67 Reaction of isocyanides with organometallic compounds (metalated imines)
18-14 Pyrolysis of alkyl or aryl azides
18-17 Reaction between oxime sulfonates and organometallic compounds
18-18 Rearrangement of trityl N-haloamines and hydroxylamines (Stieglitz)
19-5 Dehydrogenation of secondary amines
19-44 Reduction of oximes

Imino Esters (Imidates), Imino Thioesters, and Their Salts

11-27 Reaction of phenols with nitriles
16-8 Alcoholysis of nitriles (Pinner)
18-17 Reaction between oxime sulfonates and organoaluminum sulfides
18-42 From amides

Imino Nitriles

18-17 Reaction between an oxime sulfonate, an organoaluminum compound, and Me_3SiCN

Inorganic Esters

10-33 Reaction of alcohols or alkyl halides with inorganic acids or halides
12-26 Oxidation of trialkylboranes
13-7 Reaction between aryl halides and $POCl_3$

13-17 Reaction between diazonium salts and F3CSO2OH
15-39 Addition of Cl_2 and SO_3 to alkenes

Isocyanates

10-55 Reaction between amines and phosgene
10-62 Reaction between oxalyl chloride and unsubstituted amides
10-66 Alkylation or acylation of cyanate ion
12-53 Carbonylation of amines
18-13 Reaction between amides and NaOBr (Hofmann)
18-14 Rearrangement of acyl azides (Curtius)
18-15 Rearrangement of hydroxamic acids (Lossen)
18-17 Addition of hydrazoic acid to carboxylic acids (Schmidt)

Isocyanides

10-54 Reaction between primary amines and chloroform, or Me_3SiCN and epoxides or oxetanes
10-111 Reaction between alkyl halides and cyanide ion
17-33 Elimination of water from N-alkylformamides
19-48 Reduction of isocyanates

Isothiocyanates

10-55 Reaction between amines and thiophosgene
10-66 Alkylation or acylation of thiocyanate ion
13-18 Reaction between diazonium salts and thiocyanate ion
16-18 Addition of amines to carbon disulfide

Isothiuronium Salts

10-37 Reaction between alkyl halides and thiourea

Ketals *(see* Acetals)

Ketenes

17-1 Pyrolysis of carboxylic acids
17-13 Dehydrohalogenation of acyl halides
17-23 Dehalogenation of α-halo acyl halides
18-8 Rearrangement of diazo ketones (Wolff)

Ketenimines

16-47 Reaction between phosphoranes and isocyanates
17-1 Dehydration of amides

Keto Acids, Aldehydes, and Esters *(see also* Dicarbonyl Compounds)

Ketones *(see also* Dicarbonyl Compounds, Unsaturated Carbonyl Compounds, etc.)

10-1	Hydrolysis of vinylic halides
10-2	Hydrolysis of *gem*-dihalides
10-4	Hydrolysis of enol esters of inorganic acids
10-6	Hydrolysis of enol ethers, ketals, thioketals, etc.
10-10	Hydrolysis of enol esters
10-79	Reduction of halo ketones
10-81	Reduction of hydroxy ketones
10-87	Reduction of diazo ketones or nitro ketones
10-94	Coupling of halo ketones with lithium alkylcopper reagents
10-104	Acetoacetic ester synthesis and similar reactions
10-105	Alkylation of ketones
10-107	Alkylation and hydrolysis of dithianes and similar compounds
10-108	Alkylation and hydrolysis of oxazines
10-109	Reaction of halo ketones or diazo ketones with boranes
10-112	Carbonylation of alkyl halides
10-114	Reaction between acyl halides and organometallic compounds
10-115	Reaction between other acid derivatives and organometallic compounds
10-117	Acylation of active hydrogen compounds followed by cleavage
10-119	Reduction of β-keto sulfoxides
10-120	Acylation of carboxylic acid salts followed by cleavage
10-123	Ketonic decarboxylation
11-14	Acylation of aromatic rings (Friedel-Crafts)
11-19	Reaction between aromatic rings and phosgene
11-27	Acylation of aromatic rings with nitriles (Hoesch)
11-30	Rearrangement of phenolic ethers (Fries)
11-35	Photolysis of acylated arylamines
12-2	Rearrangement of hydroxy alkenes
12-15	Reaction between aldehydes and boron-stabilized carbanions
12-18	Alkylation of enamines followed by hydrolysis (Stork)
12-24	Oxidation of *gem*-dimetallic compounds
12-30	Carbonylation of organometallic compounds
12-38	Decarboxylation of (3-keto acids or esters
12-39	Cleavage of tertiary alkoxides
12-40	Reaction between amino acids and anhydrides (Dakin-West)
12-41	Basic cleavage of (3-diketones
13-12	Arylation of ketones
13-13	Acylation of aryl iodides
14-19	Arylation of allylic alcohols
14-23	Acylation of nitrogen heterocycles

14-30	Reaction of diazonium salts with oximes, followed by hydrolysis; or with R_4Sn and CO; or with silyl enol ethers
15-4	Hydration of alkynes or allenes
15-13	Selective reduction of unsaturated ketones
15-14	Reduction of phenols
15-16	Oxidation of boranes; hydrolysis of unsaturated boranes
15-21	Addition of ketones to activated alkenes (Michael)
15-24	Addition of organometallic compounds to unsaturated ketones
15-25	Addition of boranes to unsaturated ketones
15-26	Addition of tin and mercury hydrides to unsaturated ketones
15-28	Free-radical addition of aldehydes or ketones to alkenes
15-29	Carbonylation of double And triple bonds in the presence of an alkene
15-31	Hydroacylation of alkenes
15-32	Addition of aldehydes to alkenes
15-62	Hydrolysis of bicyclo[4.1.0]heptanes
16-2	Hydrolysis of imines, oximes, hydrazones, and other C=N compounds
16-3	Hydrolysis of secondary aliphatic nitro compounds (Nef)
16-32	Reaction between lithium carboxylates and alkyllithium compounds
16-48	Indirectly, from carboxylic esters
16-37	Addition of Grignard reagents to nitriles
16-42	Hydrolysis of epoxy silanes
16-67	Reaction of alkyl halides with metalated aldimines
17-1	Dehydration of 1,2-diols
17-25	Fragmentation of y-amino or y-hydroxy halides
17-26	Fragmentation of 1,3-diols
17-31	Fragmentation of certain ketoximes
17-34	Pyrolysis of β-hydroxy alkenes
18-2	Rearrangement of glycols and related compounds (pinacol)
18-3	Ring expansion of certain hydroxyamines (Tiffeneu–Demyanov)
18-4	Acid-catalyzed ketone rearrangements
18-9	Homologation of aldehydes or ketones
18-13	Reaction between α-hydroxy or α-halo amides and NaOBr (Hofmann)
18-20	Cleavage of hydroperoxides
18-24	Treatment of boranes with CO and H_2O, followed by NaOH and H_2O_2; or with CN^- followed by trifluoroacetic anhydride; from dialkylchloroboranes
18-26	Treatment of lithium alkynyltrialkylborates with electrophiles
18-30	[1,3] Sigmatropic rearrangements of allylic vinylic ethers
19-3	Oxidation of secondary alcohols
19-7	Oxidative cleavage of glycols and related compounds
19-9	Ozonolysis of alkenes
19-10	Oxidative cleavage of alkenes

19-11	Oxidation of diarylmethanes
19-13	Bisdecarboxylation of malonic acids
19-14	Oxidation of activated or unactivated methylene groups
19-19	Oxidation of secondary alkyl halides and tosylates
19-20	Oxidation of amines or nitro compounds
19-22	Oxidation of alkenes with noble metal salts
19-33	Reduction of diketones or quinones
19-50	Indirect oxidative decyanation of nitriles

Lactams

10-57	Cyclization of amino acids
10-58	Reaction between lactones and ammonia or amines; ring expansion of lactams
10-61	Cyclization of halo amides
15-8	Addition of lactams to alkenes
15-30	Hydrocarboxylation of unsaturated amines
15-38	Halolactamization from alkene acids
16-32	Reaction between imines, zinc, and halo esters
16-47	Reaction between imides and phosphoranes
16-64	Addition of ketenes to imines; addition of enamines to isocyanates
18-16	Reaction between cyclic ketones and hydrazoic acid (Schmidt)
18-17	Rearrangement of oximes of cyclic ketones (Beckmann)
18-18	Expansion of aminocyclopropanols
19-17	Oxidation of cyclic tertiary amines

Lactones

10-23	Cyclization of hydroxy acids
10-26	Cyclization of halo acids
10-98	Intramolecular coupling
12-41	Cleavage of cyclic α-cyano ketones
15-5	Internal addition of alcohols to a ketene function
15-6	Cyclization of alkeneic acids
15-30	Hydrocarboxylation of unsaturated alcohols
15-38	Halolactonization from alkene acids
15-56	Reaction of alkenes with manganese(III) acetate
16-47	Reaction of anhydrides with phosphoranes
16-63	Addition of ketenes to aldehydes or ketones
17-37	Extrusion of CO_2 from 1,2-dioxolane-3,5-diones
17-39	Decarboxylation of cyclic peroxides (Story)
18-19	Reaction between cyclic ketones and peroxy compounds (Baeyer-Villiger)
18-40	Rearrangement of N-halo amides
19-17	Oxidation of cyclic ethers

19-21 Oxidation of diols
19-37 Reduction of cyclic anhydrides
19-60 Oxidative–reductive ring closure of dialdehydes

Mercaptals *(see* Thioacetals)

Mercaptans *(see* Thiols)

Metallocenes

12-33 Reaction between sodium cyclopentadienylid and metal halides

Monoesters of Dicarboxylic Acids

10-22 Alcoholysis of cyclic anhydrides
10-24 Equilibration of dicarboxylic acids and esters
16-8 Alcoholysis of cyano acids
19-10 Oxidative cleavage of catechols

Nitriles *(see also* Dicyano Compounds, Cyano Carbonyl Compounds, etc.)

10-105 Alkylation of nitriles
10-109 Reaction of halo nitriles or diazo nitriles with boranes
10-111 Reaction between alkyl halides and cyanide ion
11-28 Cyanation of aromatic rings
12-16 Cyanation of ketones, nitro compounds, or benzylic compounds
12-31 Cyanation of organometallic compounds
12-38 Decarboxylation of α-cyano acids
13-10 Reaction between aryl halides and CuCN (Rosenmund-von Braun)
13-12 Arylation of nitriles
13-15 Vicarious substitution of aryl nitro compounds
14-25 Reaction between diazonium salts and CuCN (Sandmeyer)
14-37 Reaction of acyl peroxides with copper cyanide
14-39 Decarbonylation of aromatic acyl cyanides
15-13 Selective reduction of unsaturated nitriles
15-21 Addition to activated alkenes (Michael)
15-25 Addition of boranes to acrylonitrile
15-26 Addition of tin and mercury hydrides to unsaturated nitriles
15-28 Free-radical addition of nitriles to alkenes
15-33 Addition of HCN to alkenes
15-54 Addition of CN and SR to double bonds
16-21 From aldehydes or carboxylic esters
16-41 Reaction of ketones with tosylmethylisocyanide

16-52 Addition of KCN to sulfonyl hydrazones
16-60 Reaction between acid salts and BrCN
17-30 Dehydration of aldoximes and similar compounds
17-31 Fragmentation of ketoximes
17-32 Dehydration of amides
18-21 Rearrangement of isocyanides
19-5 Dehydrogenation of amines
19-6 Oxidation of hydrazones
19-12 Treatment of carboxylic acids with trifluoroacetic anhydride and $NaNO_2$
19-48 Reduction of nitrile oxides
19-51 Reduction of nitro compounds with $NaBH_2S_3$

Nitro Compounds

10-64 Reaction between alkyl halides and nitrite ion
10-104 Alkylation of nitro compounds
11-2 Nitration of aromatic rings
11-31 Rearrangement of N-nitro aromatic amines
12-38 Decarboxylation of α-nitro acids
12-49 N-Nitration of amines or amides
13-15 Alkylation of aromatic nitro compounds
14-12 Nitration of alkanes
14-26 Reaction between diazonium salts and sodium nitrite
15-8 Nitromercuration-reduction of alkenes
15-13 Reduction of unsaturated nitro compounds
15-21 Addition to activated alkenes (Michael)
15-24 Addition of organometallic reagents to nitroalkenes
15-42 Addition of NOCl and other nitrogen compounds to alkenes
15-54 Addition of NO_2 and SR to double bonds
16-41 Addition of nitro compounds to aldehydes or ketones; reaction of pyrylium salts with nitromethane
16-43 Carboxylation of nitro compounds
19-1 Oxidation of primary amines, oximes, azides, isocyanates, or nitroso compounds

Nitrogen Ylids

12-20 Treatment of quaternary ammonium salts with organometallic compounds

Nitrones

10-36 Alkylation of oximes

Nitroso Compounds

11-3	Nitrosation of aromatic rings
11-32	Rearrangement of N-nitroso aromatic amines (Fischer-Hepp)
11-38	Nitrosative decarboxylation of aromatic acids
12-8	Nitrosation at a carbon bearing an active hydrogen
12-49	Reaction between secondary amines or amides and nitrous acid
15-42	Addition of NOCl to alkenes
18-40	Photolysis of nitrites (Barton)
19-6	Oxidation of hydroxylamines
19-23	Oxidation of primary amines

Olefins *(see* Alkenes)

Organometallic Compounds *(see also* Boranes)

11-38	Replacement of aromatic COOH with Hg
12-20	Metallation of susceptible positions with organometallic compounds
12-21	Metallation of susceptible positions with metals or strong bases
12-23	Cleavage of alkyl groups from di- or polyvalent organometallic compounds
12-32	Reaction between an organometallic compound and a metal
12-33	Reaction between an organometallic compound and a metal halide
12-34	Reaction between an organometallic compound and an organometallic compound (exchange)
12-36	Metallation of alkyl or aryl halides with metals
12-36	Rearrangement of Grignard reagents
12-37	Metallation of alkyl or aryl halides with organometallic compounds
12-38	Decarboxylation of carboxylic acid salts
14-35	Reaction between sulfides and lithium or lithium naphthalide
15-17	Hydrometallation of alkenes
15-24	Reaction between copper-containing compounds and organolithium compounds
15-23	Addition of allylic zinc compounds to vinylic Grignard and lithium reagents (*gem*-dimetallic compounds)

Ortho Esters

10-12	Reaction of alkoxides with 1,1,1-trihalides (Williamson)
10-17	Transetherification
16-5	Addition of alcohols to formic acid

Osazones

16-19	Addition of hydrazines to α-hydroxy aldehydes or ketones

Oxime Ethers

10-15 Alkylation of oximes with diazo compounds
10-36 Alkylation of oximes with alkyl sulfates

Oximes

12-8 Nitrosation at a carbon bearing an active hydrogen
15-42 Addition of NOCl to alkenes
16-20 Addition of hydroxylamine to aldehydes or ketones
16-35 Addition of Grignard reagents to the conjugate bases of nitro compounds
18-40 Photolysis of nitrites (Barton)
19-8 Cleavage of cyclic ketones with NOCl and an alcohol
19-23 Oxidation of aliphatic primary amines
19-51 Reduction of nitro compounds

Oxiranes *{see* Epoxides)

Oxonium Salts

10-31 Reaction between alkyl halides and ethers or ketones

Ozonides

19-9 Ozonolysis of alkenes

Peptides

10-57 Coupling of amino acids

Peroxides *{see also* Hydroperoxides, Peroxy acids)

10-32 Reaction of alkyl and acyl halides with peroxide ion
14-9 Reaction between hydroperoxides and susceptible hydrocarbons
15-5 Oxymercuration-reduction of alkenes in the presence of a hydroperoxide
15-49 Photooxidation of dienes
17-39 Reaction of ketones with H_2O_2

Peroxy Acids

19-29 Oxidation of carboxylic acids

Phenols

10-10	Hydrolysis of phenolic esters
10-33	Cleavage of phenolic ethers with sulfonic acids
10-38	Cleavage of phenolic ethers
10-46	Cleavage of phenolic ethers
10-71	Cleavage of phenolic ethers with HI or HBr
11-29	Electrophilic hydroxylation of aromatic rings
11-30	Rearrangement of phenolic esters (Fries)
12-24	Oxidation of aryl organometallic compounds
13-1	Hydrolysis of aryl halides and other compounds
13-2	Alkali fusion of sulfonate ions
13-17	Hydrolysis of diazonium salts
13-23	Rearrangement of N-hydroxylamines
14-5	Free-radical hydroxylation of aromatic rings
14-21	Phenylation of phenols
15-62	Ortho methylation of phenols
16-23	Reduction of quinones
18-5	The dienone-phenol rearrangement
18-19	Cleavage of aryl ketones with peracids (Baeyer-Villiger)
18-20	Rearrangement of aralkyl peroxides
18-33	Rearrangement of allylic aryl ethers (Claisen)
18-43	Rearrangement of azoxy compounds (Wallach)
19-1	Aromatization of cyclic ketones
19-38	Reduction of phenolic esters
19-39	Reduction of certain acids and esters

Phosphines

10-44	Reaction between alkyl halides and phosphine
10-87	Reduction of quaternary phosphonium salts
12-33	Reaction between phosphorus halides and Grignard reagents

Phosphonates

16-47	Reaction between alkyl halides and phosphites (Arbuzov)

Phosphoranes

16-47	Treatment of phosphonium ions with alkyllithiums

Quaternary Ammonium and Phosphonium Salts

10-44	Alkylation of amines (Menschutkin) or phosphines
15-8	Addition of tertiary amines to alkenes

16-47 Reaction of phosphines with Michael alkenes or with alkyl halides

Quinones

11-14 Intramolecular Friedel-Crafts acylation of diaryl ketones
19-4 Oxidation of phenols or aromatic amines
19-18 Oxidation of aromatic hydrocarbons

Schiff Bases (see Imines)

Selenides

10-38 Selenylation of alkyl halides
12-13 Selenylation of aldehydes, ketones, and carboxylic esters
12-27 Selenylation of organometallic compounds
19-49 Reduction of selenoxides

Semicarbazones

16-19 Addition of semicarbizide to aldehydes or ketones

Silanes

10-20 Reaction of aryl silanes with fluoride
15-34 Addition of silanes to alkenes

Silyl Enol Ethers

12-22 Trialkylsilylation of ketones or aldehydes
12-25 Reaction betweeen vinylic lithium compounds and silyl peroxides
15-24 Michael-type reaction in the presence of Me_3SiCl

Sulfenyl Chlorides

14-11 Chlorosulfenation

Sulfides *{see* Thioethers)

Sulfinic Acids and Esters

10-128 Reduction of sulfonyl chlorides
12-27 Reaction of Grignard reagents with SO_2
13-24 The Smiles rearrangement
14-27 Reaction of diazonium salts with $FeSO_4$ and Cu
17-11 Cleavage of sulfones

Sulfonamides

10-61	N-Alkylation of sulfonamides
10-104	Alkylation of sulfonamides
10-109	Reaction of halo sulfonamides with boranes
10-126	Reaction between sulfonyl halides and ammonia or amines
13-15	Vicarious substitution of aryl nitro compounds
15-8	Addition of sulfonamides to alkenes
19-35	Reduction of acyl sulfonamides
19-46	Reduction of sulfonyl azides

Sulfones

10-42	Reaction between alkyl halides and sulfinates
10-104	Alkylation of sulfones
10-105	Alkylation of sulfones
10-109	Reaction of halo sulfones with boranes
10-119	Reaction between carboxylic esters and methylsulfonyl carbanion
10-129	Reaction between sulfonic acid derivatives and organometallic compounds
11-10	Sulfonylation of aromatic rings
13-4	Reaction between aryl halides and sulfinate ions
13-15	Vicarious substitution of aryl nitro compounds
15-21	Addition of sulfones to activated alkenes (Michael)
15-24	Addition of organometallic compounds to unsaturated sulfones
15-40	Addition of sulfonyl halides to alkenes
16-41	Addition of sulfones to aldehydes or ketones (Knoevenagel)
19-28	Oxidation of thioethers or sulfoxides

Sulfonic Acid Esters

10-33	Reaction between alcohols or ethers and sulfonic acids
10-104	Alkylation of sulfonic acid esters
10-105	Alkylation of sulfonic acid esters
10-109	Reaction of halo sulfonic acid esters with boranes
10-125	Alcoholysis of sulfonic acid derivatives
13-15	Vicarious substitution of aryl nitro compounds
16-41	Addition of sulfonic acid esters to aldehydes or ketones (Knovevenagel)

Sulfonic Acids

10-124	Hydrolysis of sulfonic acid derivatives
11-7	Sulfonation of aromatic rings
11-39	Sulfonation with rearrangement (Jacobsen)

13-4 Reaction between aryl halides and sulfite ion
19-25 Oxidation of thiols or other sulfur compounds

Sulfonium Salts

10-38 Reactions between alkyl halides and thioethers

Sulfonyl Azides

10-126 Reaction between sulfonyl halides and azide ion

Sulfonyl Halides

10-127 From sulfonic acids and derivatives
11-8 Halosulfonation of aromatic rings
12-27 Reaction of Grignard reagents with sulfuryl chloride or with SO_2 followed by X_2
14-11 Free-radical halosulfonation (Reed)
14-27 Reaction of diazonium salts with SO_2 and $CuCl_2$

Sulfoxides

10-104 Alkylation of sulfoxides
10-119 Reaction between carboxylic esters and methysulfinyl anion
11-9 Sulfurization of aromatic rings with thionyl chloride
12-27 Reaction of Grignard reagents with sulfinic esters
15-24 Addition of organometallic compounds to unsaturated sulfoxides
15-50 Treatment of alkenes with O_2 and RSH
16-41 Addition of sulfoxides to aldehydes or ketones (Knoevenagel)
19-28 Oxidation of thioethers
19-49 Indirectly, from sulfones

Thioamides

11-21 Amidation of aromatic rings with isothiocyanates
14-13 From thioaldehydes generated *in situ*
19-63 Reaction of ketones with sulfur and ammonia or amines

Thiocarbamates

16-4 Hydrolysis of thiocyanates
16-7 Addition of alcohols to isothiocyanates

Thiocyanates

10-43 Reaction between alkyl halides and thiocyanate ion
13-4 Reaction between aryl halides and thiocyanate ion

13-18 Reaction between diazonium salts and thiocyanate ion
14-37 Reaction between acyl peroxides and copper thiocyanate
15-40 Addition of halogen and SCN to alkenes

Thioethers

10-38 Reaction between alkyl halides and thiolate ions or Na_2S
10-107 Alkylation of thioethers
11-9 Sulfurization of aromatic rings
11-26 Thioalkylation of aromatic rings
12-13 Sulfenylation of ketones, carboxylic esters, and amides
12-27 Reaction between Grignard reagents and sulfur or disulfides
13-4 Reaction between aryl halides and thiolate ions
13-18 Reaction bewteen diazonium salts and thiolate ions or Na_2S
14-34 Reduction of dithioacetals
15-7 Addition of thiols to alkenes
15-40 Addition of sulfenyl chlorides to alkenes
15-54 Diarylamino-arylthio-addition to double bonds
15-59 Heteroatom Diels–Alder reaction of thioketones and thioaldehydes
16-10 Reductive alkylation of thiols
18-21 Rearrangement of sulfonium salts (Stevens)
18-35 [2,3] Sigmatropic rearrangements of sulfur ylids
19-36 Reduction of thiol esters
19-49 Reduction of sulfoxides or sulfones

Thiol Acids and Esters

10-38 Reaction between alcohols and thiol acids
10-39 Reaction between acid derivatives and thiols or H_2S
11-27 Reaction between aromatic rings and thiocyanates
15-4 Hydration of acetylenic thioethers
15-7 Addition of thiol acids to alkenes; addition of thiols to ketenes
15-30 Hydrocarboxylation of alkenes in the presence of thiols
16-10 From carboxylic acids, alcohols, and P_4S_{10}
16-34 Addition of Grignard reagents to carbon disulfide

Thiols

10-10 Hydrolysis of thiol esters
10-37 Reaction of alkyl halides with NaSH; cleavage of isothiuronium salts
11-9 Sulfurization of aromatic compounds (Herz)
12-27 Reaction between Grignard reagents and sulfur
13-4 Reaction between aryl halides and NaSH
13-18 Reaction between diazonium salts and NaSH
15-7 Addition of H_2S to alkenes

16-33 Addition of lithium dialkylcopper reagents to dithiocarboxylic esters
19-47 Reduction of sulfonic acids or sulfonyl halides
19-54 Reduction of disulfides

Thioketones

16-10 From ketones

Thiono Esters and Thioamides

16-10 From carboxylic esters or amides
16-64 Addition of imines to thioketenes (β-thiolactams)

Thioureas *(see* Ureas)

Triazenes

11-4 Reaction between aromatic amines and diazonium salts
12-49 Reaction between amines and diazonium salts

Unsaturated Acids, Esters, Aldehydes, Ketones *(see* Unsaturated Carbonyl Compounds)

Unsaturated Alcohols and Phenols

12-2 Isomerization of allylic alcohols (formation of enols)
14-4 Allylic hydroxylation
15-14 Selective reduction of α,β-unsaturated aldehydes or ketones
15-24 Addition of organometallic compounds to propargylic alcohols
16-23 Selective reduction of α,β-unsaturated aldehydes or ketones
16-28 Addition of vinylic or alkynyl organometallic compounds to aldehydes or ketones
16-29 Addition of trialkylallylsilanes to aldehydes and ketones
16-30 Addition of conjugated alkenes to aldehydes (the Baylis–Hillman reaction)
16-41 Condensation of alkyne salts with aldehydes or ketones
16-47 Reaction of certain ylids with aldehydes (scoopy reactions)
16-48 Tebbe, Petasis and alternative alkenylations
16-53 Addition of aldehydes to alkenes (Prins)
17-2 Reaction of epoxides with strong bases
17-11 From epoxides or alkenes via selenoxide cleavage
18-3 Ring opening of cycloalkyl carbocations
18-31 Rearrangement of Li salts of 2-vinylcyclopropanols

18-33 Rearrangement of allylic aryl ethers (Claisen)
18-35 [2,3] Sigmatropic rearrangements

Unsaturated Carbonyl Compounds

10-105 Vinylation of ketones or carboxylic esters
10-107 Hydrolysis of bis(methylthio)alkenes
12-2 Isomerization of α-hydroxy alkynes and alkynones
12-14 Acylation of alkenes
12-25 From lithium acetylids
12-30 From vinylic organometallic compounds
12-53 From allylic amines and CO
14-6 Oxidation of unsaturated aldehydes
14-38 Decarboxylative allylation of keto acids
15-19 Nazarov cyclization
15-21 Addition to activated alkynes (Michael)
15-24 Addition of vinylic organometallic compounds to unsaturated carbonyl compounds; addition of organometallic compounds to acetylenic carbonyl compounds
15-25 Addition of unsaturated boranes to methyl vinyl ketones
15-30 Hydrocarboxylation of triple bonds
15-45 Addition of acyl halides to triple bonds
15-46 1,4-Addition of acetals to dienes
16-15 Reaction between aldehydes, ammonia, and aldehydes, ketones, or carboxylic esters (Mannich)
16-30 Addition of conjugated alkenes to aldehydes (the Baylis–Hillman reaction)
16-31 Reaction between aldehydes or ketones, zinc, and α-halo esters (Reformatsky)
16-38 Condensation of aldehydes and/or ketones (aldol)
16-39 Mukaiyama aldol reactions
16-40 Condensation between carboxylic esters and aldehydes or ketones
16-41 Condensation between active-hydrogen compounds and aldehydes or ketones (Knoevenagel)
16-44 Condensation between anhydrides and aldehydes (Perkin)
16-47 Condensation between β-carboxy phosphoranes and aldehydes or ketones
16-48 Tebbe, Petasis, and alternative alkenylations
17-3 Pyrolysis of lactones
17-11 Cleavage of carbonyl-containing selenoxides and sulfones
17-28 Fragmentation of epoxy hydrazones
18-29 Rearrangement of vinylic hydroxycyclopropanes
18-32 Rearrangement of 3-hydroxy-l,5-dienes (oxy-Cope)
18-33 Rearrangement of allylic vinylic ethers (Claisen)
18-35 [2,3] Sigmatropic rearrangements

19-2 Dehydrogenation of aldehydes or ketones
19-14 Oxidation of a methylene group a to a double or triple bond

Unsaturated Ethers and Thioethers

10-107 Alkylation of allylic ethers
17-24 Elimination of X and OR from β-halo acetals
18-35 [2,3] Sigmatropic rearrangement of allylic sulfur ylids

Unsaturated Nitriles, Nitro Compounds, and Sulfonic Acids and Esters

12-31 Cyanation of vinylic organometallic compounds
15-21 Addition to activated alkynes (Michael)
15-24 Addition of organometallic compounds to activated alkynes
15-33 Addition of HCN to alkynes
15-44 Addition of nitryl chloride to triple bonds
16-41 Condensation between active hydrogen compounds and aldehydes or ketones (Knoevenagel)
18-33 Rearrangemenrt of allylic vinylic sulfones and sulfoxides

Ureas and Thioureas

10-59 Exchange of ureas
12-53 Carbonylation of amines
16-16 Addition of amines to isocyanates or isothiocyanates
16-18 Addition of amines to CO_2 or CS_2
16-56 Addition of alcohols or other carbocation sources to cyanamides (Ritter)
18-13 Reaction between amides and lead tetraacetate

Ureides *(see* Imides)

Urethanes *(see* Carbamates)

Vinylic Ethers *(see* Enol Ethers)

Vinylic Halides

10-68 Halide exchange
12-28 Halogenation of alkenyl organometallic compounds
15-2 Addition of hydrogen halides to triple bonds
15-37 Halogenation of alkynes or allenes
15-44 Addition of alkyl halides to triple bonds
15-45 Addition of acyl halides to triple bonds

16-22 Addition of PCl_5 to aldehydes or ketones
16-47 Reaction of halophosphoranes with aldehydes or ketones; reaction of certain ylids with halogen compounds (scoopy reactions)
16-48 Tebbe, Petasis and alternative alkenylations

Xanthates

16-9 Addition of alcohols to carbon disulfide
17-4 Reaction of alcohols with NaOH and CS_2, followed by methyl iodide

Ylids *(see* Nitrogen Ylids, Phosphoranes)

AUTHOR INDEX

Entries in this index refer to chapter number (boldface) and reference number.

Aalbersberg, W.G.L. 17-299
Aalten, H.L. 11-469, **13-**189
Aaron, H.S. 1-86, 3-30
Aarts, G.H.M. 15-11
Abatjoglou, A.G. 5-114
Abbott, D.E. **10-**1229
Abbott, S.J. 4-29
Abbotto, A. 5-99, 5-167
Abboud, J.L.M. **8-**186
Abboud, J.M. 2-305, **3-**12, **8-**193, 10-427, 10-432
Abdel-Magid, A.F. 16-169, 16-253, 16-286, 16-597
Abdel-Malik, M.M. 10-287, 11-448
Abdesaken, F. 1-11
Abdourazak, A.H. 2-299
Abdulla, N.I. 18-332
Abdulla, R.F. 10-454, 10-1707
Abe, H. 10-1688, 13-105, **13-**111
Abe, M. 15-832
Abe, S. 10-1585
Abe, T. 10-432, 15-153
Abe, Y. 10-362
Abel, T. 16-427
Abell, A.D. 10-1653,16-785
Abell, C. 10-1006
Abell, P.I. 15-49, 15-53, 15-57
Abelman, M.M. 14-367, 17-156
Aben, R.W. 16-909
Abenhaïm, D. 16-382, 16-462
Abeywickrema, A.N. 13-257, 13-263
Abidi, S. 10-1233
Abidi, S.L. 17-262
Abiko, A. 15-1407, 16-752
Abiko, S. 18-383
Abiko, T. **18-**591
Abis, L. 18-160
Ablenas, F.J. 19-675
About-Jaudet, E. 19-308
Abraham, M.H. 3-12, 4-272, **8-**114, 10-413, 10-416, 10-427, 10-432, 10-1530, 12-2, 12-19, 12-20, 12-22, 12-23, 12-37, 12-39, 12-316, 12-323, 12-351, 12-370, 12-424
Abraham, N.A. 11-363
Abraham, R.J. 4-233, 4-234, 4-253, 4-271, **4-**284, 4-315, **15-**15
Abraham, W. 2-125
Abraham, W.D. 15-684, 18-200
Abrahams, S.C. 1-81
Abrahamson, E.W. 18-401
Abraitys, V.Y. 15-1344
Abram, T.S. **5-**58
Abramenkov, A.V. 4-371
Abramov, A.I. 16-841
Abramovitch, A. 18-379
Abramovitch, R.A. 5-317, 5-326, 5-328, 11-64, 13-198, 14-299, 14-324, 14-387, 18-244, 18-583
Abrams, S.R. 12-66, 19-406
Abu-Hasanayn, F. 5-166,12-296
Abu-Raqabah, A. 5-238
Aburatani, R. 4-143
Acemoglu, M. 15-1285
Achiwa, K. 10-1316, 15-294, 15-1153, 18-456, 19-366
Achmatowicz Jr., O. 16-842, 16-843
Achmatowicz, O. 15-554
Acke, M. 16-93
Ackerman, J.H. 4-439
Ackerman, J.J.H. 10-1829
Acott, B. 18-234
Acton, N. 4-373
Adachi, K. 12-136
Adachi, M. **10-**911, **11-**362, **11-**383, 11-389
Adam, G. **10-**1113
Adam, J. 14-141
Adam, M. 19-606

Adam, W. 7-37, 7-40, 7-46, 10-725, 11-419, 12-328, **14-188**, 14-189, 14-240, 15-1074, 15-1081, 15-1087, 15-1091, 15-1093, 15-1095, 15-1097, 17-354, 17-420, 18-67, 18-67, 18-392, 8-415, 18-666, 19-10, 19-130, 19-312
Adams, A.D. 19-47
Adams, C. 16-335
Adams, CM. 16-272
Adams, D.B. 4-33
Adams, D.G. **5-154**
Adams, D.R. 16-827
Adams, H. 3-54, 4-303
Adams, J. 3-15, 12-244, 12-247, 15-1405, 16-890
Adams, J.P. 14-379
Adams, J.S. 5-249
Adams, J.T. 10-1993
Adams, R. 4-1, 4-12, 4-51, 4-52, 18-510
Adams, R.D. 4-450
Adams, R.M. 4-87
Adams, W.R. 14-238, 15-1089
Adamsky, F. 18-464
Adapa, S.R. 10-1916
Adcock, J.L. 14-97
Adcock, W. 1-42,4-278,5-81,9-60
Adcock. J.L. 10-316
Addadi, L. **4-91**, **4-155**, **4-155**
Addess, K.J. **10-1201**
Addy, J.K. 10-479
Adelaere, B. 16-112
Adema, E.H. 11-281
Ader, J.C. 10-1096
Adger, B.M. 19-617
Adickes, H.W. 10-1820, 10-1822, 10-1823, 18-291
Adinolfi, M. **15-1005**
Adkins, H. 19-587
Adkins, J.D. 10-1426
Adler, E. **19-134**, **19-166**
Adlington, M.G. 19-531
Adlington, R.M. 17-215, 18-127, 18-143
Adrian, F.J. 5-188, 5-237
Aerssens, M.H.P.J. 15-349
Afanas'ev, I.B. 9-16, 9-61, 15-63
Affandi, H. 10-1116
Agababyan, A.G. **16-183**, **16-184**
Agadzhanyan, Ts.E. 18-701
Agam, G. 3-146
Agami, C. 15-1452, 16-620
Aganov, A.V. 6-55
Agarwal, A. 19-461
Agarwal, S. 19-60,19-119
Agawa, T. 10-1261, 14-343
Agdeppa Jr., D.A. **18-110**
Ager, D.J. 10-1785, 12-307, 14-485, 16-684, 16-692, 19-566
Aggarwal, V.K. 4-303, 15-550, 15-556, 15-1076, 16-473, 16-773, 18-213
Agirbas, H. 5-264
Agmon, N. 8-122
Agnihotri, R.K. 15-415
Agranat, I. **4-154**, **11-304**, 11-461
Agrios, K.A. 18-256
Aguero, A. 16-801, 16-802
Aguiló, A. 19-389
Agwada, V.C. 16-175
Agwaramgbo, E.L.O. 16-685
Ahern, M.F. 12-561
Ahlberg, P. 3-46, 6-58, 17-48, 17-54, 17-144, 18-9
Ahlbrecht, H. 10-1759, **10-1804**, 10-1816
Ahmad, A. 17-384
Ahmad, I. 15-1056
Ahmad, M. 10-507
Ahmad, S. 10-709, 10-712, 10-892, 12-312, 18-581
Åhman, J. **5-71**, **13-119**, **13-120**, 18-349, **18-451**
Ahmberg, C.H. 10-1414, 14-481
Ahmed, E.A.A. 10-333, 18-338
Ahmed, S. 19-555
Ahn, J.H. **10-1256**, **16-432**
Ahn, K.H. 10-1972, 15-589
Ahn, Y. **16-517**
Ahola, C.J. 4-425
Ahond, A. 16-188
Ahonen, M. 16-430
Ahramjian, L. 16-708
Ahrens, A.F. 10-337
Ahuja, J. 15-1012
Aida, T. 10-872, 10-1170, 15-628, 15-1070, 19-487
Aihara, H. 16-308
Aihara, J-i. 2-27, 2-260
Aihara, J. 2-6, 2-285
Aihara, M. 10-1127
Aikawa, Y. 15-601
Ainslie, R.D. 12-427
Ainsworth, C. **10-2011**, 19-757
Aires-de-Sousa, J. 15-1126
Aït Haddou Mouloud, H. **10-1518**
Aitken, E.J. 8-192
Aitken, R.A. 17-212, 17-213, 17-214
Aizawa, T. 16-205, 17-405

Aizpurua, J.M. **10-**1193, 10-1362, 16-175, 16-488, 17-364
Akabori, S. 7-49, 10-474, 13-129, 19-555
Akada, T. 11-399
Akamanchi, K.G. 16-294, 19-96
Akao, H. 4-95
Akasaka, M. 18-567
Akasaka, T. **15-**1127, 16-226, 19-464, 19-487, 19-667
Akashi, K. 15-990, 19-59
Akashi, M. 15-1482
Akazome, M. 15-258, 16-143, 19-634
Akehi, M. 10-672
Akelah, A. 10-1027
Åkermark, B. 10-1631, 14-262, 15-251, 15-252, 19-391
Akhmatdinov, R.T. 5-48, 10-508
Akhmetova, N.E. 17-250
Akhrem, A.A. 10-478, 15-399, 18-161, 18-439, 18-461
Akhtar, M. **14-**221, 18-685
Akhtar, M.I. **15-**122
Akiba, K. **10-**1257, 16-436
Akiba, M. 15-903
Akimoto, H. 12-556
Akita, M. 10-698
Akita, Y. 13-99
Akiyama, F. 19-738
Akiyama, M. 10-1344
Akiyama, S. 2-249, 2-273, 2-275, 19-48
Akiyama, Y. 10-1055
Akiyoshi, K. 10-1749
Akkerman, O.S. 12-438, 12-453, 12-455, 12-473, 12-481
Akritopoulou, I. 16-796
Aksel'rod, Zh.I. 11-64
Aksenov, V.S. 10-309
Aksnes, G. **16-**783, **17-**117
Akutagawa, S. 14-256, 16-321, 16-322
Al Neirabeyeh, M. 19-388
Al-Aseer, M.A. 16-421
Al-Awadi, N.A. 17-131
Al-Borno, A. 12-514
Al-Ka'bi, J. 11-462
Al-Mallah, K.Y. 18-332
Al-Sader, B.H. **15-**1160, 18-488
Al-Shalchi, W. 10-597
Al-Talib, M. 5-53, 11-312
Alajann, M. 16-205, 17-364
Alam, N. **13-**46, **13-**98, **13-**180
Alami, M. 10-1572,10-1579,15-695
Alarid-Sargent, M. 16-923
Alauddin, M.M. 15-1187
Albanese, D. 10-1275, 19-683
Albano, C. 10-158
Albeck, M. 17-53
Albert, M. 15-577
Alberti, A. 10-1464, 15-484
Albery, W.J. 6-21, 6-23, 6-25, 8-120, 10-344
Albini, A. 7-24, 13-60, 19-442, 19-659
Albizati, K.F. 19-85
Albonico, S.M. 15-904
Albrech, H. 8-67
Albrecht, P. 11-254
Albright, J.D. 10-1760, 19-98, 19-100, 19-104
Albright, T.A. 1-1
Alcais, P. 15-35
Alcaraz, L. 16-894
Alcock, N.W. 4-56
Alcock, W.G. 19-201
Alcorn, P.G.E. 11-68
Alcudia, F. 4-292, 4-297, 15-1209
Alden, L. 10-1938
Alder, K. **15-**539, **15-**1199
Alder, R. 4-200
Alder, R.W. 4-203, 8-153, 8-157, 13-92
Aldersey-Williams, H. 2-294
Alderson, T. 15-519
Alderweireldt, F.C. **4-**15
Aldous, G. **5-**81
Aldred, S.E. 10-825
Aldridge, C.L. 15-803
Alekseeva, L.A. 16-242
Aleksiuk, O. 11-255
Alemdaroğlu, N.H. 15-800
Aleskerov, M.A. 10-1715, 17-3
Aleskovskii, V.B. 14-239, 15-1093
Alessi, D.M. 4-143
Alewood, P.F. 12-183
Alexakis, A. 4-100, 10-1545, 10-1655, 10-1660, 10-1665, 10-1671, 10-1676,15-641, 15-643, 15-646, 15-649, 15-654, 15-657, 15-699, 15-707, 19-722
Alexander, C.W. 10-1505, 15-672
Alexander, D.W. 18-665
Alexander, R. 4-303, 17-70
Alexanian, V. 10-737
Alfassi, Z.B. 5-174
Algarin, W. 17-367
Ali, M. 10-533
Ali, M.B. **15-**1250
Alkabets, R. 15-339
Alker, D. **14-**100, **14-**101
Alkorta, I. 8-12
Allavena, C. 15-739
Allegretti, M. 15-1148

Allen Jr., D.S. 19-233
Allen, A.D. **2**-197, **5**-50, 10-68, **10**-189, **10**-291, 10-610, 15-23, 15-78, 15-184
Allen, C.F.H. 19-536
Allen, D.J. 12-496
Allen, D.L. 15-293
Allen, E.E. 19-388
Allen, F.H. 1-52, 1-63, 2-29, 3-14, 3-55, 4-86, 4-395
Allen, G.F. 15-250
Allen, J.C. 15-757
Allen, J.G. 15-295
Allen, L.C. 1-26, 3-1, 4-31, 4-247, 5-2, 5-66
Allen, L.E. 14-524, 14-525
Allen, R.G. 15-54
Allen, R.H. 11-454, 11-455
Allen, W.D. 2-52
Allenmark, S.G. 4-141
Allerhand, A. 3-42, 3-47, 16-568
Alleston, D.L. 10-1264
Allinger, J. 12-27
Allinger, N.L. 1-53, 1-86, 4-215, 4-217, 4-229, **4**-246, **4**-270, **4**-326, **4**-331, **4**-333, **4**-334, **4**-335, 4-341, 12-531, 15-306, 18-685
Allmendinger, H. **4**-143
Allred, A.L. 3-52, 4-378, 10-91, 10-92
Almond Jr., H.R. 16-768
Almond, M.R. 18-235
Almond, S.W. 18-500
Almy, J. 12-30, 12-63
Alnajjar, M.S. 12-497
Alonso, D.A. **15**-1132, 16-326
Alonso, F. 15-353, 15-354, 16-508
Alonso, I. 15-1207
Alonso, R.A. 11-499, 13-50, 13-192
Alonso-Cires, L. 10-786, **15**-1116, 15-1121
Alpatova, N.M. 15-404, 19-10
Alper, H. 3-59, 10-437, **10**-1311, 10-1922, 10-1923, 10-1924, 10-1925, 12-411, 12-607, **12**-611, 12-612, 12-613, 12-615, 13-203, 15-379, 15-395, 15-539, 15-765, 15-770, 15-771, 15-773, 15-781, 15-787, 16-741, **17**-296, **18**-124, **19**-179, **19**-396, **19**-532, **19**-658
Alpha, S.R. 19-777
Alphonse, P. 15-1470
Alston, P.V. **15**-1194, **15**-1214
Alt, G.H. 12-223, 12-230
Altamura, A. 19-160
Altland, H.W. **12**-331, 12-332
Altman, L.J. **10**-1824, **14**-16
Altmann, J.A. **2**-34
Altona, C. 4-289, 4-300, 4-326
Alumbaugh, R.L. **10**-481
Alunni, S. 11-323, 17-99
Aluotto, P.F. 8-50
Alvarado, J. 16-228
Alvarado, L. 15-886
Alvarado, S.I. 12-304, 12-368
Alvarez, C. 16-228, 16-877, 19-53
Alvarez, F.J. 6-86
Alvarez, F.S. 10-775
Alvarez, M.T. 10-1095
Alvarez, R.M. 11-324, 16-868
Alvarez, S.G. 10-1095, 19-641
Alvárez, J. 19-522
Alvernhe, G. 10-1162, 12-374, 15-113, 15-878, 16-550
Alzérreca, A. 2-179
Amabilino, D.B. 3-143
Amador, P. 16-470
Amano, S. 10-1888
Amaratunga, S. 12-411
Amaratunga, W. 12-400
Amariglio, A. **4**-111
Amariglio, H. **4**-111
Amatore, C. **13**-42, **13**-46, **13**-76, **13**-98, **13**-180, 13-221
Amberg, W. 15-1009, **15**-1011
Ambidge, I.C. **10**-189
Ambroise, L. 15-588
Ambrosetti, R. **15**-21
Ambroz, H.B. 5-59, 13-22
Amedio Jr., J.C. 12-518,19-105
Amer, I. 10-1922, 15-770, 15-787, 19-330
Amer, M.I. 11-387
Amice, P. 12-126
Amick, D.R. 11-378
Amiel, Y. 2-239, 14-312, 15-49, 15-938
Amin, H.B. 9-28
Amin, M. 17-60, 17-62
Amin, N.V. 15-338
Amin, S. 19-349
Amin, Sk.R. 16-342
Amiya, T. 10-703
Amos, R.D. 4-136,4-237
Amosova, S.V. 10-846
Amouroux, R. **10**-1183, **10**-1190, 16-402
Ampleman, G. 11-48, 16-258
Amrani, Y. 15-288
Amrollah-Madjdabadi, A.A. 10-80
Amstutz, D. 5-164
Amstutz, E.D. 17-339
Amstutz, R. **5**-164, 5-165
Amupitan, J.O. 19-798
Amyes, T.L. 5-9, 5-17, 5-82, **8**-63, **10**-68, 10-69, 10-507, 10-512, 18-262

An, T.D. 17-26
Anand, M. 18-25
Anand, R.C. 10-761
Anantakrishnan, S.V. 15-26
Anastasiou, D. 15-793
Anastassiou, A.G. 2-210, 2-213, 2-214, 2-215, 2-226, **12-186**, 15-1398
Anatol, J. 16-871
Anbazhagan, M. 17-147
Andell, O.S. 15-812
Anders, K. 14-47
Andersch, J. 19-799
Andersen, K.K. 4-27, 4-45, 4-46, 4-178, 10-2029
Andersen, M.W. 15-554
Andersen, N.H. 5-105, 10-795, 16-364
Andersen, P. 5-237
Andersen, T.P. 10-1018
Anderson III, F.E. 14-124
Anderson Jr., A.G. **10-1192**, **10-1246**
Anderson, A.G. 11-247
Anderson, B.R. 4-406
Anderson, D.J. 15-1128
Anderson, E.D. 5-288
Anderson, E.W. **4-261**, **10-112**
Anderson, G.J. 19-352, 19-353
Anderson, G.K. 10-1909, 15-767
Anderson, H.J. 11-64
Anderson, J.C. 11-412, 12-243, 14-176, 18-349
Anderson, J.E. 4-218, 4-262, 4-306
Anderson, J.M. 14-394
Anderson, K.R. 1-11
Anderson, O.P. 16-922
Anderson, P.C. 10-1184
Anderson, PH. 10-268, 18-89
Anderson, R. 10-465, 12-264, 16-691
Anderson, R.J. 10-1641, 10-1682, 10-1969, 15-716
Anderson, R.S. 19-619
Anderson, S.W. 10-415, 10-416, 10-420, 10-1286
Anderson, TJ. **15-221**
Anderson, W.K. 18-574
Andersson, C. 12-206, 14-342
Andersson, C.-M. 15-218
Andersson, K. 2-329
Andersson, PG. 15-196, 15-265, 15-1014, **15-1132**, 16-326, 16-532, 19-324, 19-730
Andisik, D. **10-1112**, **15-269**
Ando, A. **14-186**, 16-603
Ando, H. **10-1104**, **11-325**
Ando, K. 10-622, 15-577, 16-464, 16-756
Ando, M. 17-280, 18-284
Ando, T. 6-66, 10-48, 10-143, 10-150, 10-151, 10-182, 10-1066, 10-1867, 10-2018, 15-1129, 18-279, 18-619, 19-71
Ando, W. 10-856, 10-985, 14-244, 15-1094, 15-1417, 18-182, 18-185, 19-464
Andrade, J.G. 10-2015, 19-654
Andreades, S. 16-250
Andree, R. 2-229
Andreev, S.A. 12-583
Andreev, S.M. 10-1026
Andrejević, V. 14-226, **19-139**
Andres, J. 10-210,15-1201
Andrés, J.M. 16-502
Andréu, P. 17-162, 17-255
Andrews Jr., T.G. 2-128
Andrews, B.K. 5-249
Andrews, C.W. 10-516
Andrews, G.C. 10-1813, 18-601
Andrews, G.D. 15-97, 18-488
Andrews, L. 5-176, 5-230, 5-286, 14-128, 19-201
Andrews, L.J. 11-215, 17-136
Andrews, M.A. 17-270
Andriamialisoa, R.Z. 14-179
Andrianov, K.A. 15-484
Andrieux, J. **10-1113**
Andringa, H. 15-398
Andrisano, R. 10-263
Andrist, A.H. 15-133,15-1262,18-418
Andrulis Jr., PJ. 16-39
Andrus, A. 10-1886
Andrus, M.B. 16-473, 19-326
Andrus, W.A. 10-525
Andrussow, K. 8-18
Andryukhova, N.L. 13-163
Andryukhova, N.P 10-1571
Andrzejewski, D. 17-203, **17-211**
Aneja, R. 12-518
Anelli, PL. 3-148, 10-771, 19-73
Anet, F.A.L. 1-86, 3-81, 4-218, 4-259, 4-261, 4-268, 4-273, 4-318, 4-323, 4-398, 10-136, 18-526
Anet, R. 4-218, 4-398
Ang, K.R 8-49
Angeletti, E. 10-1698
Angelini, G. 10-9, 10-258, 17-93
Angelis, Y. 15-1079
Angell, E.C. 19-346
Angell, R.M. 16-476
Angelo, B. **10-2011**
Angeloni, A.S. 10-263
Angeloni, L. 16-183
Angelov, Kh.M. 15-59

Angibeaud, P. **15-**333
Angioloni, S. 4-253
Angus Jr., R.O. 4-419
Angus, J.C. 17-40
Angyal, S.J. 4-215,4-217,4-298,19-177,19-360
Anh, N.T. 1-48, **4-**112, 16-595
Anjaneyulu, S. 16-664, 18-258
Anker, D. 15-113
Anker, W. 2-233
Annby, U. 15-218
Annoura, H. 11-380
Annunziata, R. 4-27, 5-122, 11-461, 15-1015, 16-636
Anosike, P. 15-1238
Ansari, M.H. 16-313
Ansell, H.V. 11-45, 11-67
Ansell, M.F. 10-1235, 15-216
Anselme, J. 6-14, 16-918, 18-203, 18-604
Anselmi, C. 15-123
Ansersh, B. 10-1576
Ansmann, A. 15-1301
Anson, M.S. 14-361
Anteunis, M. 10-63, 16-93, 16-834
Anton, D.R. 17-243
Antoniades, E.P. 18-261
Antonioletti, R. 15-917,15-1059
Antonova, N.D. 16-841
Anunziata, J.D. 13-10
Anuradha, M.V. 10-996
Anvia, F. 8-81,8-138
Anwer, M.K. 11-497
Anzai, J. 19-386
Aoki, K. 10-1479, 15-1005, 15-1363
Aoki, O. 19-711
Aoki, S. 10-1566,12-520,13-167
Aoki, T. 11-362
Aoki, Y. 15-1440
Aono, M. **15-**1153
Aonuma, S. 5-101
Aoyagi, Y. 16-495
Aoyama, M. 15-729
Aoyama, T. 12-379, 18-183, 18-196
Aoyama, Y. **3-**114
Aparicio, D. **16-**211
Aped, P. **4-**301
Apeloig, Y. 2-327, 10-157, 10-158, 10-246, 10-254, 13-26, 15-1053, 15-1267
Aponte, G.S. 18-67
Apparu, M. **15-**165, **17-**169
Appel, R. **1-**9, **10-**1171, **17-**386, 17-403
Appelbaum, A. 14-273
Appelman, E.H. 15-920
Appl, M. 18-246
Applegate, L.E. **10-**261
Applegath, F. 12-606
Appleman, J.O. 16-884
Applequist, D.E. 2-49, 4-47, 5-87, 10-1481, 12-12, 14-31, 15-140
Applequist, J. 4-47,4-103
Appleton, R.A. 10-1283
Aprahamian, N.S. 11-231
ApSimon, J.W. **4-**111
Arad, D. 2-327, 10-157, 10-158, 13-26
Arad-Yellin, R. 4-132,4-133,9-12
Arai, K. 10-1044
Arai, M. 10-1566,14-151
Arai, S. **16-**584, **16-**713, **16-**751
Arai, T. 15-146,15-1045
Araki, K. 3-99, 10-305, 10-1618, **14-**419
Araki, M. 10-1965,15-1209,15-1215
Araki, S. **10-**1639, 16-436, 16-458, 16-493, 16-539, 16-898
Araki, Y. 16-278
Araneo, S. 19-308
Aranyos, A. 15-265
Arapakos, P.G. 12-552
Arase, A. 12-419, 15-725, 15-734
Arata, K. 2-315,8-15
Arbuzov, B.A. 18-90
Arbuzov, P.V. 14-119
Arbuzov, Yu.A. 15-1089, 16-841
Arcadi, A. 15-531,15-696
Arcand, H.R. 18-567
Arce de Sanabia, J. 11-419
Arcelli, A. 10-947, 10-957
Archelas, A. 10-556
Archer, C.M. 16-396
Archer, D.A. 17-194
Archer, S. 18-687
Arcoria, A. 10-2031
Ardoin, N. 13-64
Arduengo III, A.J. 5-281,5-308
Arens, J.F. 10-1669,15-188,15-189
Arenz, T. 16-671
Aretakis, A.J. 15-99
Argabright, P.A. **10-**1120, 13-237, 17-232
Argade, A.B. 19-326
Argile, A. 5-304,9-21,15-15
Argyropoulos, J.N. 10-1710, 16-297, 16-566
Arhart, R. 14-119
Arifuddin, M. 16-36, 16-229
Ariga, M. **15-**1155
Arigoni, D. 4-19, 14-171, 15-505, 17-422
Arimatsu, S. 17-161
Arime, T. 16-496
Arimoto, K. 15-375, 15-567

Arimura, T. 15-160
Arinich, A.K. 11-436
Arisawa, M. 18-636
Arison, B.H. 15-1160
Arkle, S.R. 16-938
Arlt, R.E. 10-201
Armani, E. 12-111
Armesto, D. 18-671
Armet, O. 5-217
Armit, J.W. 2-75
Armor, J.N. 16-220
Armstrong III, J.D. 18-562
Armstrong, A. 10-663
Armstrong, D.A. 1-97
Armstrong, D.R. 13-231
Armstrong, D.W. 10-449
Armstrong, K.B. 4-306
Armstrong, R. 14-71
Arnaut, L.G. 7-36
Arndt, D. 19-10
Arnestad, B. 11-127
Arnett, E.M. 2-305, 4-431, 4-433, 4-435, 5-2, 5-62, 5-65, 5-114, 5-173, 6-86, 8-20, 8-29, 8-31, 8-33, 8-97, 8-101, 8-160, 8-177, 8-178, 8-181, 8-189, 10-39, 10-157, 10-158, 10-164, 12-524, 15-1460, 16-577, 16-761, 18-413
Arnett, J.F. 5-119
Arnold, B.R. 2-178, 5-220, 15-835
Arnold, C. 10-1865
Arnold, D.R. 14-57, 15-1344, 16-911, 16-913, 17-425, 17-427
Arnold, J.R.P. 18-302
Arnold, R.T. 12-142, 15-545, 16-841, 17-115, 17-409, 17-411, 18-458
Arnold, S. 15-3, 15-32
Arnold, Z. 11-322
Arnoldi, A. 14-399
Arnould, D. 10-1779
Arnould, J.C. 13-259
Aroella, T. 8-92
Aroney, M. 4-230
Aronica, L.A. 10-1958, 17-325
Aronoff, M.S. 12-474, 15-421
Aronovitch, H. 10-63
Arora, A. 10-1690
Arora, S. 12-340
Arora, S.K. 14-183,19-506
Arotsky, J. 11-233
Arouisse, A. 10-1959
Arques, A. 16-205, 16-226
Arrad, O. 10-778
Arrhenius, G.M.L. 10-232
Arrieta, A. 10-736, 16-503
Arrowsmith, C.H. 8-92
Arsenijević, L. 10-1971
Arsenijević, V. 10-1971
Arseniyadis, S. 10-1736
Arshinova, R.P. 4-318
Artamanova, N.N. 13-85
Artamkina, G.A. 10-1520, 12-492, 12-498, 13-5, 13-154
Artaud, I. 10-1755
Arthur Jr., P. 15-811
Arukwe, J. 2-355
Arumugam, N 5-304, 11-400
Arvanaghi, M. 10-120,10-180,10-1277, 10-1968, 10-2016, 11-207, 11-313, 11-315, 12-127, 16-52,19-354, 19-531
Arzoumanian, H. 15-466
Asai, S. 10-1455
Asaka, N. 15-1155
Asakawa, Y. 14-162
Asami, K. 15-841
Asami, M. 4-111,17-173
Asami, Y. 13-107
Asano, F. 19-73
Asano, K. 12-596
Asano, R. 10-785
Asano, S. 12-603
Asano, T. 11-152, 15-1227, 17-65, 18-187
Asao, N. 10-966, 10-975, 10-1677, 15-639, 15-673
Asao, T. 2-160,5-40,5-41
Asencio, G. 11-15, 10-786, 15-260, 15-739, 15-879, 15-880, 15-1116, 15-1121, 19-320
Asfandiarov, N.L. 4-37
Asfari, Z. 3-105
Ash, D.K. 19-494
Ashby, E.C. 5-140, 5-142, 5-145, 5-150, 5-151, 5-152, 5-153, 5-295, 10-74, 10-75, 10-76, 10-80, 10-83, 10-86, 10-657, 10-844, 10-1284, 10-1343, 10-1401, 10-1529, 10-1710, 10-1999, 10-1284, 12-427, 12-457, 12-460, 12-479, 12-493, 12-494, 12-497, 15-389, 15-642, 15-694, 16-5, 16-281, 16-297, 16-333, 16-334, 16-409, 16-410, 16-411, 16-412, 16-413, 16-416, 16-456, 16-557, 16-566, 17-163, 17-164, 19-774
Ashby, M.T. 15-288
Ashe III, A.H. 5-42
Ashe III, A.J. 10-172, 10-175, 10-177
Ashley, K.R. 19-172
Ashmawy, M.I.A. 15-1103
Ashton, PR. 2-259,3-143
Asinger, F. 12-349, 12-427, 19-797, 19-804, 19-805

Asirvatham, E. 16-649
Askani, R. 15-1373
Askitoğlu, E. 10-1058
Aslam, M. **10**-1796, **17**-305
Aslapovskaya, T.I. **11**-437
Asleson, G.L. 13-222
Aspinall, H.C. 10-643
Assadourian, L. **8**-14
Asscher, M. 15-895, 15-937, 15-972
Assenheim, H.M. 5-178
Assfeld, X. **15**-1203
Astaf'ev, I.V. 12-60
Astin, K.B. **10**-196
Astruc, D. 13-64
Asveld, E.W.H. 14-252
Atanesyan, K.A. 15-980
Atavin, A.S. 10-688,15-199
Ateeq, H.S. 15-1489
Atherton, J.H. 11-139, 11-142
Atherton, J.I. 17-212
Atherton, M. 16-248
Atkins, K.E. 10-949, 15-250
Atkins, R.L. **19**-421
Atkins, T.J. 18-654, 18-657
Atkinson, J.G. 12-54, 15-331, 15-332
Atkinson, R. 19-223, 19-224
Atkinson, R.C. 15-72
Atkinson, R.F. 17-190
Atkinson, R.S. 15-1127
Atkinson, V.A. **4**-271
Atsumi, K. 10-896
Atta-ur-Rahman 10-1447
Attanasi, O. 17-364, 19-593
Attea, M. 10-151
Attenni, B. 15-627
Attiná, M. **13**-140
Attinà, M. 11-92
Atwood, J.L. 3-48, 3-76, 3-120
Aubé, J. 18-256
Aubrecht, K.B. 8-165, 14-376
Aubrey, D.W. 17-181
Aubry, J.M. **14**-242
Audeh, C.A. 4-443
Audrain, H. **15**-1282
Aue, D.H. 8-159, 8-177, 8-182, 10-1271, 12-188
Auerbach, R.A. 10-1990
Aufdermarsh Jr., C.A. 10-37
Aufranc, P. 10-1299
Augé, J. 10-968, 15-570, 15-1280, 16-485
August, R. **17**-131
Augustijn, G.J.P. 11-491
Augustín, J. 10-986
Augustine, R.L. 15-272, 15-327, 15-371, 19-10, 19-11, 19-14, 19-495
Aujard, I. 19-722
Aulmich, G. **5**-201
Ault, A. 4-206
Ault, B.S. 3-37
Aumiller, J.C. 10-1482
Aurell, M.J. 15-691, 16-509, 19-475
Aurich, H.G. 5-216
Aurrekoetxea, N. 16-488
Ausloos, P. 7-41
Austad, T. 10-471
Austel, V. 18-413
Austin, D.J. 15-1156
Austin, E. 11-499
Autrey, T. 5-322
Auvray, P. **6**-15
Avakian, S. 13-34
Avasthi, K. 18-359
Avedissian, H. **10**-1511, **10**-1513
Avendaño, C. 10-1081, 10-1302, 15-1281
Aver'yanov, V.A. 14-84, 14-86
Averko-Antonovich, I.G. **10**-1137
Avery, M.A. 16-171, 16-470
Avila, D.V. 15-828
Avila, W.B. 12-284
Avison, A.W.D. 10-838
Aviyente, V. 18-548
Avramovitch, B. 10-242, 10-264
Awachat, M.M. 16-128
Awachie, P.I. 16-175
Awasthi, A.K. 10-34, 14-181, 15-1026, 19-239
Awasthy, A. **19**-119
Awazu, K. **15**-148
Axe, F.U. 4-249
Axelrod, E.H. **10**-1174, 10-1609
Axelrod, J. 14-204
Axelsson, A.-K. 15-1237
Axiotis, G. 16-489
Axiotis, G.P. 16-550
Ay, M. 12-373
Ayad, K.N. 11-443
Ayala, P.Y. 1-96
Aycard, J. 18-190
Aycock, B.F. 15-53
Aydin, R. 2-229, 18-526
Ayers, T.A. 15-798
Aylett, B.J. 4-23, 12-1
Aylward, F. 15-343
Aylward, J.B. **19**-10, **19**-164
Ayres, D.C. 19-241
Ayres, R.L. 15-869
Ayrey, G. 13-15,17-57

Ayrey, P.M. 16-774
Ayyangar, N.R. **4-**159, 12-586, 15-439, 19-608
Azar. J.C. 14-88
Aznar, F. **15-**1117
Azovskaya, V.A. 15-116
Azrak, R.G. 3-41
Azran, J. 19-368
Azuma, N. **5-**231
Azzaro, M. 19-632
Azzaro, M.E. 6-73
Azzena, U. 11-280

Baader, W.J. 15-1097
Baarda, D.G. **17-**421
Baardraan, F. **15-**1362
Baarschers, W.H. 10-2053
Baas. J.M.A. 11-47
Baba, A. 10-969, **10-**1104, 12-313, 16-272, 16-345, 16-440
Baba, H. 2-26
Baba, S. 10-1593
Baba, T. 18-359
Babad, H. 10-1449, 15-904
Babanyan, Sh.O. 12-64
Babayan, E.V. 15-980
Babayan, V.I. 18-54
Babiak, K.A. 12-442
Babich, E.D. 18-624
Babichev, S.S. 15-1244
Babitskii, B.D. 15-1403
Babic, D. 2-80
Babler, J.H. **10-**1132, 10-1421, 16-265, 19-369, 19-602
Babot, O. 12-312
Babston, R.E. 18-561, 18-562
Babu, G. **15-**1279
Babu, J.R. 19-658
Babudri, F. 10-1535, 10-1957, 10-1962
Baburao, K. 10-1089
Bacaloglu, R. 10-218, 13-16
Bach, R.D. 1-96, **4-**251, **10-**206, **14-**290, **15-**221, 15-1035, 15-1326, 17-203, 17-204, 17-211, 18-261
Bach, T. 10-1662, 16-634, 16-636, **16-**911, 16-916
Bacha, J.D. 19-265, 19-268, 19-269
Bachand, C. 19-371
Bachhuber, H. 15-347
Bachman, G.B. 14-497, 19-417
Bachman, G.L. 4-123, 15-292
Bachman, R.E. 18-140
Bachmann, C. 18-190
Bachmann, W.E. 18-36
Bachrach, S.M. 2-71,4-290,18-450
Baciocchi, E. 11-10, 11-95, 11-101, 11-193, 15-976, 17-31, 17-33, 17-49, 17-50, 17-99 , 17-108, 17-242, 17-319, 17-331, 19-480
Back, R.A. 14-36, 15-341, 15-344
Back, T.G. 4-443, 10-727, 10-1404, 10-1411, 12-193, 14-479, 17-236, **19-**31, 19-494
Backer, HJ. 17-415
Bäckvall, J. 19-391
Bäckvall, J.-E. 10-204, 10-1507, 10-1512, 10-1647, 10-1648, 15-196, 15-250, 15-812, 15-862, 15-1026, **15-**1110, **15-**1115, **15-**1119
Bacon, J. 5-21
Bacon, R.G.R. 13-129, 13-145
Badaev, F.Z. 12-477
Badanyan, Sh.O. 15-980, 19-225
Badding, V.G. 10-1342
Bade, T.R. 14-223,16-710
Bader, J. **4-**124
Bader, R.F.W. 4-228, 4-340, 4-353, 10-658, **12-**512, **17-**187
Badet, B. 10-390, 10-889
Badger, G.M. 2-72
Badger, R.C. 14-290
Badiger, V.V. 10-260, 15-1452
Badone, D. 13-175, 14-380
Badri, M. 10-444
Bae, D. **10-**657
Baechler, R.D. 4-32
Baeckström, P. **10-**1592
Baele, J. 10-923
Baenziger, N. 17-265
Baer, D.R. **18-**128
Baer, H.H. 15-560,16-183,16-651
Baer, S. 10-350
Baerends, E.J. 15-799
Baes, M 4-61
Baeza, J. 10-725, 17-354
Bafus, D.A. 5-136
Bagal, L.I. 14-427, 18-253, 18-263
Baganz, H. 10-670
Baggott, J.E 2-294
Baghel, S.S. 11-505
Bagheri, V. 12-244, 19-88
Baghurst , D.R. 10-455
Bagnell, L. 15-694
Bagnell, L.J. 13-149
Bagno, A. 5-60, 8-9, **8-**111, 10-613, 14-441
Bagrovskaya, N.A. 11-485
Bahl, M.K. 8-192
Bahn, C.A. 10-255
Bahr, M.L. 10-1096
Bahrmann, H. 10-1906,10-1907,15-767

Bahule, B.B. 15-894
Bahzad, D. 11-122, 11-191
Bai, D. 10-1007
Baigrie, L.M. 16-614
Baik, I. 4-143
Baik, W. 19-609
Baiker, A. 10-947
Bailey, D.M. 19-572
Bailey, D.S. 17-26, 17-27, 17-94, 17-95
Bailey, G.C. **18-621**, 18-626, 18-644
Bailey, K.E. **19-513**
Bailey, M. 15-891
Bailey, N.A. 2-218
Bailey, P.L. 15-1055
Bailey, P.S. 19-186, 19-195, 19-198, 19-201, 19-215
Bailey, T.R. 13-173, 14-346
Bailey, W.F. 10-1486, 12-484, 12-492, 12-493, 12-494, 15-620, 15-621, 15-622, 15-624, 15-625
Bailey, W.J. 10-1331, 16-101, 17-125, 17-139, **17-182**, 18-455
Baillargeon, M.M. 15-152
Baillargeon, V.P. 10-1889
Baine, P. 8-24
Baines, K.M. 1-9
Bains, S. 10-1237, 15-1238, 16-63
Baiocchi, F. 12-606
Bair, K.W. 10-1778, 17-203
Baird Jr., W.C. 11-228, 12-409, 15-895
Baird, C.P. 16-893
Baird, C.W. 14-512
Baird, J.C. 5-178
Baird, M.C. 12-5, **14-511**, 15-362
Baird, M.S. 4-395, **5-282**, 18-141
Baird, N.C. 8-189
Baizer, M.M. 10-1543,19-719
Bajwa, G.S. 18-589
Bak, D.A. 13-142, 15-1300, 15-1306
Bak, R.R. 15-387
Bakac, A. 19-55
Bakalova, G.V. 19-532
Baker III, T.N. 15-950
Baker Jr., J.D. 19-539
Baker, A.D. 1-13, 1-16
Baker, B.E 14-366, 14-367
Baker, C. 1-13
Baker, E.B. 5-13
Baker, G. 13-115
Baker, G.R. 10-1989
Baker, J.W. 2-301, 2-302, 2-303, 10-307
Baker, K.V. 12-451, 12-466
Baker, N.J. 11-25
Baker, R. 10-46, 10-59, 10-1597, 15-250, 15-1483, 18-624
Baker, R.T. 15-471
Baker, S.R. 15-847, 19-692
Bakinovskii, L.V. 15-982
Bakke, J.M. 3-48, 11-127, 14-158, 19-339
Bakker, C.N.M. 11-237
Bakó, P. 16-704
Bakos, J. 15-288, 15-797
Bakoss, H.J. 11-452
Bakshi, R.K. 16-323, 16-576, 18-363
Bakulev, V.A. 16-820
Bakunin, V.N. 12-33, 12-36
Bal'yan, Kh.V. 18-554
Bal, B.S. 14-212,16-872
Balaban, A.T. 2-72, 2-73, 2-92, 11-284, 12-203, 15-978, 15-1189, 18-530, 18-532, 18-621
Balachandran, K.S. 19-10
Balakrishnan, P. 12-199
Balandin, A.A. **1-92**, **15-319**
Balanikas, G. 19-349
Balas, L. 13-64
Balasubramanian, A. **2-311**
Balasubramanian, K.K. 11-509, 18-470
Balasubramanian, N. 15-1153
Balasubramaniyan, V. 15-478
Balavoine, G. 15-1074
Balavoine, G.G.A. 18-333
Balch, A.L. 2-300, 5-191
Balchunis, R.J. 10-618, 12-191
Balci, M. 2-205,15-1091
Balcom, B.J. 10-734
Balderman, D. **10-1111**
Baldridge, K.K. 1-67, 2-298, 11-74
Baldwin, F.P. 10-991
Baldwin, J.E 6-14, 6-17, 6-18, 12-282, 14-525, 15-749, 15-1198, 15-1262, 15-1303, 15-1318, 15-1325, 15-1326, **16-113**, 16-678, 16-730, 17-402, 18-127, 18-137, 18-143, 18-171, 18-319, 18-328, 18-404, 18-418, 18-453, 18-465, 18-473, 18-488, 18-514, 18-591, 18-597, 18-598, 19-45, 19-665
Baldwin, J.J. 4-171
Baldwin, M.A. 17-198
Baldwin, S.W. 14-108, 15-1343, 18-204, 19-44, 19-567
Balenkova, E.S. **15-1142**, **15-1144**
Balestra, M. 18-599
Baliga, B.T. 15-23
Balkovec, J.M. 4-171
Balkus Jr., K.J. 15-302
Ball Jr., A.L. 12-12
Ball, D.L. 19-125

Ball, R.G. 12-559, 15-7
Balla-Achs, M. 3-129
Ballantine, J.A. 10-957, 15-213
Ballard, D.H. 15-209
Ballard, R.E. 1-13
Ballatore, A. **10-**1476
Ballester, M. 5-205, 5-217, 16-707
Ballestri, M. 10-1258, 10-1322, 10-1373, **10-**1464, **15-**66
Ballini, R. 10-738, 10-908, 10-1389, 16-31, 16-651, 19-373, 19-604
Ballistreri, F.P. **10-**2031
Ballod, A.P. 14-284
Balls, D.M. 15-1305,15-1371
Bally, T. 2-168
Balrae, G. 10-525
Balquist, J.M. 18-138
Baltzly, R. 10-955
Balu, N. 16-486
Balzani, V. 7-11
Bambridge, K. 16-529
Bamfield, P. 13-226
Bamford, C.H. **6-**51, 14-45, 14-228, 19-2, **19-**11
Bamford, W.R. 17-226
Bamkole, T. 17-141
Bampfield, H.A. **15-**1307, 18-464
Ban, H. 15-1477
Ban, Y. 13-246
Banait, N. 10-322, 15-190
Banait, N.S. 17-47
Banciu, M. 2-72, 18-530, 18-532
Bandgar, B.P. 19-526
Bando, T. 18-603
Banerjee, A.K. 19-522, 19-737
Banerjee, S. 16-297
Banerjee, S.K. 10-646
Banerji, A. 19-540, 19-690
Banerji, K.K. **14-**218, **19-**365, **19-**461
Banert, K. 10-311
Banfi, L. 12-181
Bangert, K.F. 2-143
Banik, B.K. 19-598
Banitt, E.H. 17-354
Banjoko, O. **10-**2031, **13-**14
Bank, J. 10-979
Bank, S. 10-74, 10-106, 10-957, 12-62
Bankovskii, Yu.A. 3-39
Banks, J.-T. 18-83
Banks, J.T. 14-50
Banks, M.L.A. 14-457
Banks, R.B. 10-1509,14-457
Banks, R.L. 18-621, 18-626, 18-628, 18-644
Bankston, D. 19-248
Bannard, R.A.B. 18-213
Bannerman, C.G.F. 15-1425, 18-396
Bannet, D.M. 17-280
Bannwarth, W. **10-**1031
Banoli, L. 18-578
Bansal, P. 10-1152
Bansal, R.K. 16-705
Banthorpe, D.V. 3-56, 11-26, 11-426, 11-429, 17-83, 17-87, 17-109, **17-**112, 17-198, 18-90, **18-**91, **18-**240, 18-250, 18-604, **18-**607, **18-**608, 18-609, **18-**610, **18-**612
Banwell, M.G. 4-395, 15-1393
Banwell, T. 11-54
Bao, L.Q. 12-139
Bao, W. 10-1953, 16-538, 16-584
Baquer, S.M. 16-64
Barager III, H.J. 12-145, 19-455
Barahate, N.B. 10-687
Barak, G. 10-650
Baram, S.G. 9-20
Baran Jr., J.R. 12-455
Baran, J. 15-1166
Baranne-Lafont, J. 19-142
Baránski, A. 13-245
Barany, G. 10-1026
Barar, D.G. 17-164
Barash, L. 15-1207
Barbachyn, M.R. 4-45, 15-1022
Barbara, C. 18-569
Barber, J. 10-1221
Barber, J.J. 12-474
Barber, M. 4-433
Barbero, M. 10-1927
Barbier, G. **15-**15
Barbier, J. 15-286
Barbier, P. 16-369
Barbieri, G. 15-1030
Barborak, J.C. 4-374, 18-9
Barbosa, M.C.N. 14-393, 14-397, 14-398
Barbot, F. 12-523, 15-41
Barbour, L.J. 3-134
Barbry, D. 16-178, 16-294, 18-314, 19-362
Barcina, J.O. 10-860, 10-1555, 11-324
Barclay, L.R.C. 4-433, 10-601, 11-266, 18-75
Barco, A. 15-1301
Barcóczy, J. 2-355
Barczynski, P. 2-74
Bard, A.J. 5-260, **12-**521, 14-488
Bard, R.R. 13-195,13-196
Barden, M.C. 19-713
Bardenm, T.C. 14-525
Baret, P. 4-202
Baretta, A. 18-164

Bargar, T. 13-195
Bargas, L.M. 19-366
Barger, T.M. 17-389
Bargiotti, A. 17-280
Bargon, J. 5-187, 5-191, 14-383
Barilli, P. 14-396
Barker, G.K. 15-1485
Barker, J.M. 18-249
Barker, P.J. 5-247
Barkhash, V.A. 10-103, 10-380
Barkley, R.M. 10-475
Barlet, R. 10-232, **15**-1393
Barlin, G.B. 8-137
Barlow, J.J. 10-759
Barlow, M.G. 18-413
Barlow, S.E. 5-91, 10-336
Barltrop, J.A. 7-1, 11-508, 16-886, 16-912
Barluenga, J. 10-786, **12**-114, 12-285, 12-322, 12-368, 15-260, 15-879, 15-880, **15**-1116, **15**-1117, **15**-1121, 16-389, 16-806
Barnard, P.W.C. 10-497
Barnatt, A. 17-181
Barneis, Z. 10-753
Barrier, R. 18-546
Barnes, C.E. 11-95
Barnes, C.L. 15-452
Barnes, C.S. 19-33
Barnes, D. 19-629
Barnes, D.S. 3-59
Barnes, M.W. 19-415
Barnett, B. 15-1485
Barnett, G.H. 8-152
Barnett, J.W. 10-632, 11-91
Barnette, W.E. 12-97
Barney, C.L. 16-168,16-182
Barnhart, R.W. 15-762, 15-805
Barnhart, T.M. 10-1540
Barnier, J.P. 18-458
Barnum, C. 12-199
Baron, D.L. 10-1404
Baron, W. 10-958
Barón, M. 16-878
Barone, G. 15-1005
Baroni, M. 13-175
Barot, B.C. 16-569
Barr, D. **13**-231
Barrau, J. 1-9
Barrault, J. 10-849
Barreiro, E. 10-1644, 16-370
Barrelle, M. 15-165
Barren, J.P. 11-505
Barrett, A.G.M. 10-790, 10-1001, 10-1040, 10-1083, 10-1364, 10-1365, 11-286, 16-476, 16-651, 16-659, 16-692, 16-928, 17-215, 17-273, 19-611
Barrett, G.C. 4-222
Barrett, J.H. 15-1267
Barrio, J.R. 10-1139
Barrish, J.C. 15-479
Barron, B.G. 10-1336
Barron, L.D. 4-14,4-126
Barrow, M.J. **2**-128
Barry, B.J. 12-70
Barry, G.W. 8-101
Barry, J. 10-762, 10-778
Barry, J. 17-249
Barsanti, P.A. **10**-1206
Barstow, J.R 18-560
Barta, N.S. 18-498
Bartell, L.S. 1-56, 1-61, 1-73, 2-33, 6-73
Bartels, A.P 19-532
Bartels, H.M. 15-99,15-110
Barter, R.M. 19-123
Barth, G. 4-19
Barth, J. 10-1219
Barth, W.E. 2-297
Bartkus, E.A. 13-275
Bartlett, P.A. **4**-111, 10-1657, 15-2, 15-506. 15-902, 16-5, 16-53, 18-491, 18-537, 18-560
Bartlett, P.D. 4-442, 9-7, 10-30, 10-37, 10-103, 10-106, **10**-115, 14-243, **15**-25, **15**-27, 15-1036, 15-1095, 15-1097, 15-1246, 15-1263, 15-1302, 15-1315, 15-1317, 15-1329, 15-1330, 15-1357, 16-400
Bartlett, R.S. 16-351,19-619
Bartlett, W.R. 18-560
Bartley, J.P. 10-1138
Bartley, W.J. 4-396
Bartmess, J.E. 2-193, 8-181, 8-189, 8-193, **8**-194, 8-196
Bartnicka, H. 8-187
Bartok, W. 19-492
Bartók, M. 10-363, 17-158, 18-109
Bartoletti, I. 10-1916
Bartoli, D. 19-295
Bartoli, G. 10-524, 13-65, 15-682, **15**-715, 15-720, 16-377
Barton, D.H.R. 4-443, 9-15, 10-534 10-830, 10-933, **10**-1164, 10-1320, 10-1321, 10-1323, 10-1324, 10-1325, 10-1364, 10-1365, 10-1367, 10-1369, 10-1392, 12-196, 12-216, 12-387, 12-390, 12-519, 12-602, 13-198, 13-199, **14**-100, 14-101, 14-221, 14-236, 14-299, 14-387, 14-388, 14-466, **14**-492, 14-504, 15-122, 15-739, 15-882, 16-869, 17-122, 17-134, **17**-141, **17**-273, 17-443, 18-681,

Barton, D.H.R. *(Continued)*
18-682, 18-683, 18-685, 18-685, 19-10, 19-33, **19-**40, **19-**133, 19-266, 19-267, **19-**308, **19-**309, 19-310, 19-523, 19-633, 19-683
Barton, J.K. 10-189
Barton, S. 18-150
Barton, T.J. 8-78, 8-196, 18-444, 18-521
Bartoń, H.J. 10-1091
Bartra. M. 19-642
Bartroli, J. 16-592
Bartsch, R.A. 3-82, **3-**137, **10-**453, **12-**561, **17-**7, **17-**15, **17-**21, **17-**22, **17-**29, **17-**31, **17-**31, **17-**86, 17-89, 17-90, 17-91, 17-92, 17-99
Barua, N.C. **10-**1178, **16-**265
Baruah, B. 10-1946, 16-26, 16-37, 19-724
Baruah, J.N. 17-287
Baruah, M. 10-1578, 15-566, 19-639
Baruah, R.N. 17-287
Basavaiah, D. 15-433, 16-480, 18-365, 18-374, 18-378
Basch, H. 1-16, 10-314
Basha. A. 10-1040, 10-1447, 12-378, 19-555
Bashe, R.W. 10-1549
Bashkin, J. 15-293
Baskaran, S. 15-173, 15-174, 15-1154, 16-587, 19-400, 19-404
Baskaran, T. 19-461
Bass, K.C. 14-18
Bass, L.S. 15-1022
Basselier, J. 11-201
Basset, J.M. 18-621,18-639
Bassetti, M. 15-221
Bassi, P. 15-86
Bassindale, A. 4-1
Bassindale, A.R. 1-45, 16-685, 16-688
Bässler, T. 10-247, 10-249
Basso. E.A. 4-288
Bast, P. 5-132
Bastiaan, E.W. 2-52
Bastiansen, O. 2-28, 2-199, 3-40, 4-215, 4-256
Bastide, J. **15-**1167, **15-**1181
Bastien, I.J. 5-13
Bastos. C. 15-287
Basu, A. **10-**1503
Basu, M.K. **10-**571, 16-62
Basu, S. 15-894
Basu, S.N. **19-**117, **19-**119
Batal, D.J. 15-1050
Bateman, L.C. 10-24, 10-27, 10-323
Bates, G.S. 10-727, **10-**1252, 18-468
Bates. R.B. 5-84, 13-99, 15-414, 18-591
Bates, T.F. 5-135
Batlaw, R. 12-479, 15-362
Batlle, A. 13-52
Batog, A.E. 15-1038
Batr, R. 19-47
Batrak, T.A. 15-1038
Batrakov, S.G. 19-548
Bats, J.-P. 10-970
Batsanov, A. 15-855
Batsanov, S.S. 1-22
Batt, L. 5-248, 6-48
Battersby, T.R. 1-67
Battioni, J. 15-720
Battioni, P. **12-**177, **15-**1127
Battiste, M.A. 8-71, 10-126, 10-128, 10-129, 10-132, 15-132, 15-136, 16-686
Batts, B.D. 10-496, 11-104
Baud, C. 15-1132
Bauder, A. 2-148, 2-334, 19-224
Baudin, J. 19-476
Baudjouk, P. 11-502
Baudoux, D. 12-229
Baudouy, R. **10-**1622
Baudry, D. **18-**175
Bauer, D. **19-**713
Bauer, D.P. 19-108
Bauer, L. 15-79, 18-247
Bauer, M. 10-655, 16-879
Bauer, P. 16-369, 16-400, 18-35
Bauer, T. 4-110
Bauer, W. 5-138, 5-158, 5-160, 12-281, 12-423
Baugh, S.P.D. 10-801
Baughman, E.H. 8-101
Bauld, N.L. **2-**170, 14-489, **15-**1216, 18-487, 19-215
Baura, A.A. 18-665
Baura, J.S. 2-156, 12-171
Baura, K. 12-601, 12-602, 14-291
Baura, M.W. 6-65
Baura, S. 18-530
Baumann, H. 2-239, 2-246
Bauraann, M.E. 18-115
Baurae, E. 13-220
Baumgarten, H.E. 10-1087, 18-220, 18-225, 18-234
Baumgarten, R.J. 10-371, 10-372, 10-795, 17-196
Baumgartner, M.T. 13-180
Bäuml, E. 15-1151
Baumstark, A.L. 10-1632, 19-739, 19-740
Baumstark, R. 5-8
Baus, U. **4-**116
Bausch, M.J. 5-212

Bauslaugh, P.G. 15-1346
Bautista, F.M. 15-323
Bautista, R.G. 4-259
Bavry, R.H. 15-937
Baxter III, H.N. 14-86, **14**-124
Baxter, A.G.W. 18-141
Baxter, S.L. **10**-1399, 14-472, 19-569
Bay, E. 13-142, 18-665, 18-668
Bayer, E. 10-1026
Bayer, R.P. 19-408
Bayeroju, I.A. 13-14
Bayle, J.P. 14-212
Bayless, J. 17-216, 17-220
Bayless, J.H. 10-183, 17-227
Baylis, A.B. 16-480
Baylouny, R.A. **17**-139, 18-455
Bayne, W.F. 17-31
Bayón, J.C. 15-798
Bayquen, A.V. 10-1116
Bazanova, G.V. 11-125
Bazarova, I.M. 10-1693,12-159
Baze, M.E. **4**-409, **15**-1316
Bazhenov, D.V. 15-221
Bazikian, CM. 10-625
Bałczewski, P. 15-826
Beadle, J.R. 12-561, 14-322
Beagley, B. 4-239
Beak, P. 2-338, 2-346, 2-347, 5-108, 10-37, 10-38, 10-1503, 10-1503, 10-1504, 10-1505, 10-1807, 10-1810, 10-1817, 12-204, 12-279, 12-285, 12-375, 12-377, 12-378, 12-496, 15-1037, 15-1293, 16-4, 16-524, 16-846
Beal, M.F. **5**-182
Beale, J.H. 10-359
Beale, W.J. 12-70
Beam, C.F. 16-612
Beard, C. 11-443
Beard, R.D. 12-272
Beard, W.Q. 13-277, 13-278
Beasley, G.H. **18**-515
Beaton, J.M. 18-683
Beatty, H.R. 13-137
Beauchamp, J.L. 5-63, 5-65, 5-73, 8-177, 8-181, 10-164, 18-650
Beaudegnies, R. 15-1283
Beaudoin, S. 16-753, 16-773
Beaulieu, PL. 15-654
Beaupère, D. 19-388
Bebb, R.L. 12-262, 12-279
Bebout, D.C. 5-67
Bechara, E.J.H. 19-739
Beck Jr., K.R. 19-416
Beck, A.K. 10-1991
Beck, B.R. 4-378
Beck, F. 14-196
Beck, J.P. **15**-1223
Beck, J.R. 13-70
Beck, S.M. **11**-421
Becker, A. 10-46 , 10-59
Becker, A.R. 12-590
Becker, D. **15**-1327, **15**-1349, **15**-1355
Becker, D.A. 5-182
Becker, E.I. **2**-130, 17-362
Becker, F.F. 19-598
Becker, H. 2-329, 10-2007, 11-490, 19-18, 19-166
Becker, H.-C. 4-50
Becker, H.-D. 4-50
Becker, H.G.O. 13-268
Becker, J. 16-723
Becker, J.Y. 2-149
Becker, K.B. 4-424, 4-425, 14-503, 15-33, 16-779, 17-342
Becker, L.W. 10-311
Becker, N. 1-42, 15-1038
Becker, P.N. **15**-1120
Becker, R. 19-630
Becker, R.H. 18-319
Becker, S. 10-1401,10-1490,14-474
Becker, W.E. 5-147
Becker, Y. 17-265
Beckhaus, H. 4-244, 5-212, 5-227, 9-77
Beckhaus, H.-D. 1-0103, 4-317, 5-223
Beckhaus, K. 4-341
Beckler, J.D. 12-446
Beckley, R.S. 18-656
Beckman, J.A. 17-15
Beckmann, W. 3-146
Beckwith, A.L.J. **1**-0103, **5**-223, **10**-982, **10**-995, 10-1004, 10-1033, 11-500, 11-501, 13-257, 13-263, 14-9, 14-65, **14**-272, 14-415, 15-51, 15-101, 15-102, 15-837, 15-850, 16-9, 16-60, 16-866, 18-54, 18-58, 18-75, 18-234, 18-253, 18-263, 18-268, 18-681, 19-268, 19-301
Bedekar, A.V. 15-981, **15**-1130, **15**-1132
Bedenbaugh, A.O. **10**-116, **10**-1426
Bedenbaugh, J.H. 10-1426
Bedford, A.F. 1-94
Bedford, CD. 12-581
Bedi, G. **12**-177, **15**-1127
Bednar, R.A. 8-91
Bedworth, P.V. 16-389
Beebe Jr., T.P 15-326
Beech, W.F. 14-436
Beels, C.M.D. 17-280
Beer, PD. **7**-52

Beg, M.A. **15**-1056
Beggs, J.J. **18**-11
Begley, M.J. 16-529
Bégué, J. 10-292, 10-469, 18-175, 19-46
Beguin, C. 15-113
Behar, V. 5-263
Behforouz, M. 16-208
Behling, J.R. 12-442
Behnke, M. 15-703
Beholz, L.G. 18-498
Behr, L.C. 18-698
Behrens, C.H. 10-478, 10-480, 10-695
Behrens, S. 2-85
Behrman, E.J. 10-359, 11-397, 11-399
Beiner, J.M. 16-902
Beirich, C. 16-408
Bejan, E. 18-333
Bekárek, V. 10-432
Bekker, R.A. 2-332
Belanger, D.B. 18-636
Belen'kii, G.G. 15-71
Belen'kii, L.I. 4-383, 4-387, **10**-1398, 11-244, 11-369, **14**-471
Beletskaya, I.P. 5-84, 5-85, 5-113, **5**-114, 8-13, 8-14, 10-41, 10-46, 10-59, 10-242, 10-333, 10-462, 10-472, 10-473, 10-474, 10-841, 10-1498, 10-1520, 10-1571, 10-1575, 10-1722, **10**-1860, **10**-1914, **11**-224, **11**-228, 12-2, 12-33, 12-36, 12-42, 12-44, 12-372, 12-392, 12-492, 12-498, 12-533, 13-5, 13-40, 13-154, 13-163, 13-166, 13-171, 13-174, 13-204, 13-205, 13-213, 14-343, 14-463, 14-450, 15-739, 16-409, 16-455, 18-338, 19-263
Belevskii, V.N. 5-181
Belew, J.S. 19-186
Belfield, K.D. 18-465
Belfoure, V. 11-275
Belikov, V.M. **4**-111, **4**-137, **4**-174
Belin, B. 10-936
Belinka Jr., B.A. 12-379
Belisle, CM. 16-347
Belkin, Yu.V. 2-69, **15**-1451
Bell, A. 15-1309,16-158
Bell, F. 11-69
Bell. H.C. 14-386
Bell. H.M. 10-1253, 10-1287
Bell, J.A. 12-256
Bell, K. 10-513
Bell, N.A. 5-140
Bell, R.P. 6-58, 6-63, 8-1,8-2, 8-21, 8-42, **8**-117, 8-137, 12-81, 12-122, 15-4, 16-13, 16-14, 16-21
Bell, T.W. 10-1201,13-163
Bellassoued, M. 10-1766, 16-506, 16-624, 16-693
Bellatti, M. 14-399
Beller, M. **13**-117, **15**-1009
Bellesia, F. 12-107, 12-108, **12**-112, 15-889, 15-940
Belletire, J.L. **4**-171, 19-475, 19-564
Belley, M. 15-228
Bellini, F. 11-363
Bellmann, P. 16-806
Belloli, R. **2**-110, **4**-23, **5**-317
Bellosta, V. 5-250, 15-240, 16-840
Bellucci, G. **15**-11, **15**-13, **15**-21, 15-35, 15-885, 15-887, 15-893
Belluš, D. **11**-413, **11**-416, 15-972, 16-898, 15-1300
Belmont, J.A. 15-787
Belmonte, F.G. 15-416
Belokon', Y. **16**-813a
Belokon, Y.N. 16-814
Belokurova, A.P. 11-490
Belotti, D. 15-240, 16-853
Belsner, K. 10-1212
Belson, D.J. 11-132
Belter, R.K. 15-610
Beltrame, P. **10**-242, **15**-1153, **15**-1171, **15**-1295, 17-75
Belyaev, E.Yu. 11-437, 11-438
Belyaev, V.A. 14-232
Bemis, A.G. 14-236
Ben Ray ana, E. **17**-172
Ben Salem, R. 16-842, 16-843
Ben-David, Y 10-1889,13-207
Ben-Efraim, D.A. 2-239, 4-178, 10-1852, 17-145, 17-253, 18-640, 18-641
Ben-Shoshan, B. 15-142
Ben-Shushan, G. 14-101
Benaim, J. 12-232
Benati, L. 15-1136
Benbrook, D.M. 19-181
Benchegroun, M. **16**-164
Bencini;, E. 13-209
Bender, C.J. 3-73
Bender, D.D. 14-340
Bender, M.L. **3**-137, 6-36, 6-70, **8**-116, 10-223, 10-224, 10-226, 10-233, 10-235, 10-348, 10-560, 10-569, 10-596, 10-608, **10**-616, 10-625, 10-628, 10-992
Bender, R. 12-610
Benderly, A. 10-1040, 16-575
Benedetti, E. 8-24
Benedetti, F. **6**-11
Benedict, D.A. 10-636

Benedikt, G.M. 11-461
Benet-Buchholz, J. 2-45
Benezra, C. **10-**1194
Benfey, O.T. 10-23
Beni, Y.A. 19-131
Benjamin, B.M. 10-382, 18-16, 18-40, 18-56, 18-92, **18-**147
Benjaminov, B.S. 18-40
Benkeser, R.A. 12-287, 12-288, 12-447, 12-523, 15-334, 15-415, 15-416, 19-559, 19-588, 19-589, 19-590
Benkovic, P.A. 16-187
Benkovic, S.J. 16-187
Benn, F.R. 15-546
Benn, R. 5-146
Bennani, Y.L. 15-1011
Benner, C.W. 18-508
Benner, J.P. 16-847
Benner, S.A. 4-208
Bennet, A.J. **10-**627, 10-628, **15-**11
Bennett, G.B. 10-1938, 18-537
Bennett, G.D. 16-451
Bennett, J.M. 11-100, 11-215
Bennett, J.N. **15-**1171, **15-**1239
Bennett, M. 15-394
Bennett, M.A. 3-59, **4-**411, 16-65
Bennett, M.J. 10-128
Bennett, R.G. 7-27
Bennett, R.P. 11-158, 12-609
Bennett, S.G. 14-446
Bennett, S.M. 15-631
Bennett, W.D. 13-199
Benning, W.F. 16-214
Beno, B.R. 15-1244
Benoit, R.L. 8-159, 8-177
Benson, H. 15-124
Benson, R.E. 2-212
Benson, S.W. 1-87, 1-88, 15-58
Benson, W.R. 18-435
Bent, H.A. 1-5, 1-50, 3-73
Bentley, K.W. 17-193, 19-163
Bentley, M.D. 3-58, 10-150
Bentley, T.W. 10-67, **10-**114, 10-217, 10-318, 10-319, 10-366, 10-387, 10-389, 10-405, 10-414, 10-417, 10-418, 10-419, 10-421, 10-422, 10-423, 10-558, 10-560, 10-561, 10-701, 10-1217
Benton, F.L. 19-192
Bentor, Y. 11-461
Bentrude, W.G. 5-215, 14-33, 18-59
Benzaïd, A. 10-611
Benzon, M.S. 18-510
Beockman Jr., R.K. 15-749
Beránek, L. **17-**162
Bercaw, J.E. 15-1468
Bérces, T. 7-36
Berchtold, G.A. 15-1310
Berdahl, D.R. 15-1399
Berdnikov, V.M. 14-320
Berecoechea, J. 16-871
Berecz, E. 3-129
Berenschot, D.R. **19-**113
Berestova, S.S. 15-739
Berezin, G.H. 4-355
Berezovskii, G.A. 11-490
Berezovskii, V.M. 11-64
Berg, U. 4-224, **4-**271, 4-436, 9-65, **10-**914
Bergan, J.J. 10-740
Bergbreiter, D.E. 10-760, 10-1255, 10-1541, 10-1829, 10-1940, 12-14, 12-234,15-476, 15-971
Bergel'son, L.D. 19-548
Bergelson, L.D. 16-722
Bergens, S.H. 12-76, 15-762, 19-772
Berger, J.G. **5-**314, 12-239
Berger, K.R. 12-204
Berger, M. 19-190
Berger, R. 2-194
Berger, S. 15-702, 16-765
Bergeron, R. 3-137, 10-1085, 10-2048
Bergin, W.A. 10-1426
Berglund, B.A. 14-184
Berglund-Larsson, U. 11-6
Bergman, A. 4-400
Bergman, R. 15-1226
Bergman, R.G. 5-240, 10-253, 10-249, 10-254, 10-256, 15-1120, 15-1468, 18-39, **18-**92, 8-0136, 18-138, **18-**411, 18-534
Bergmann, D. 1-28
Bergmann, E.D 10-1198, 2-72, 14-516, 14-517, 14-519, 15-559
Bergon, M. 10-608
Bergson, G. 12-62, 12-63
Bergstrom, R.G. 10-500, 13-28, 13-29
Beringer, F.M. 19-520
Berk, S.C. 10-1941, 12-468, 15-536
Berkessel, A. 15-1069, 15-1408, 16-342
Berkheimer, H.E. 5-61, 8-103
Berkoff, C.E. 12-554
Berkovitch-Yellin, Z. **4-**91, **4-**155
Berkowitz, D.B. 10-1270
Berkowitz, W.F. 10-1577, 18-223
Berks, A.H. 5-110
Berlan, J. 15-575, 15-657, 15-720, 15-1221, 16-59
Berlin, A.J. 4-261

Berlin, K.D. 19-181
Berliner, E. 9-37, 11-68, 11-215, 13-58, 15-79, 15-83, 15-86
Berman, J.D. 14-522
Bernabé, M. 10-1664
Bernabé, P. 10-960, 14-375
Bernadou, F. 10-1852,17-145
Bernard, D. 10-1493
Bernard, H.W. 5-288
Bernard, J.-M. 19-689
Bernard, M. 16-742
Bernardelli, P. **10**-1640
Bernardi, A. 16-609
Bernardi, F. 4-241, 5-104, 5-105, 10-843, 15-1257, 15-1319, 15-1439
Bernardi, R. **14**-114, **14**-402
Bernardinelli, G. 4-398, **15**-1199, **15**-1209, 15-1411
Bernardo, J.E. **10**-1303, 16-259
Bernasconi, C.F. **5**-106, 6-29, 6-36, **6**-51, 6-52, 8-90, 8-93, 10-240, 13-2, 13-10, **13**-11, 15-23, 15-40, 15-175, 15-178, 15-241
Bernatchez, M. **16**-512
Bernath, P.F. 5-320
Bernath, T. 14-281
Bernáth, G. 10-236
Berndt, A. 15-93, 17-53
Berneis, H.L. 17-107
Berner, D. **10**-378, **18**-110
Bernett, W.A. 4-349
Bernhardt, J.C. 10-1592, 14-461, 14-463
Bernheim, M. 12-375
Bernheim, R.A. 5-288
Berninger, R.W. 11-470
Bernocchi, E. **15**-531
Bernstein, E.R. 4-221
Bernstein, H.I. 18-13
Bernstein, M.A. **10**-1184
Bernstein, M.D. **16**-168, **16**-182
Bernstein, M.P. 5-161, 8-169
Bernstein, R.B. 6-12, 17-40
Bernstein, S. 19-32
Bernstein, W.J. 4-61 , 04-127
Beronius, P. 10-73
Berrier, A.L. **10**-120, **10**-171, 17-378
Berrier, C. 11-395
Berrigan, P.J. 10-472
Berry, J.F. 15-1073
Berry, R.S. 2-34, 13-37
Bersohn, R. 5-178
Berson, J.A. 4-178, 15-1250, 15-1262, 17-361, 18-38, 18-39, 18-40, 18-92, 18-136, 18-138, 18-456, 18-463, 8-0463, 18-464, 18-466, 18-466, 18-467, 18-488, 18-495, 18-513, 18-514, 18-515
Berteau, P. **17**-162
Bertelli, D.J. 2-123, 2-128, 2-138, 2-139
Berthelot, J. 11-201
Berthelot, M. **1**-51, 8-79, 8-80, **8**-81, 8-82, 8-83, 8-84
Berther, C. 19-409
Berthier, G. 2-13
Berthon, B. 19-380
Berti, F. 17-149
Berti, G. 10-554, 10-659, 15-35, 15-123, 15-1032, 15-1039, 16-704, 16-887
Bertie, J.E. 2-174
Bertin, J. 14-120
Bertini, F. 12-455, **14**-116, 16-388, 16-389, 16-392
Bertolini, G. 12-181,16-623
Bertounesque, E. 16-489
Bertram, A.K. 12-242
Bertrand, G. 10-961
Bertrand, J.A. **18**-107
Bertrand, M. 15-1307, 15-1320, 15-1400
Bertrand, N. 10-1049
Bertrand, R. 15-200
Bertrand, W.S. 14-506
Bertsch, H. 17-146
Bertsch, R.J. 10-1254,10-1289
Bertz, S.H. 10-1529, 10-1541, 10-1552, 10-1554, 10-1558, 10-1559, 12-433, 14-456, 15-657, 15-719, 15-724, 16-527
Berwin, H.J. 11-101
Besace,Y. 15-657
Besançon, J. 19-714
Besemer, A.C. 19-80
Besev, M. 15-853
Beslin, P. 18-579
Bespalova, N.B. 18-624
Besseau, F. 8-80, 8-82, 8-83
Bessho, K. 10-576, 17-327
Besson, L. 15-947
Best, D.C. 10-141,10-150
Bestian, H. 16-928
Bestmann, H.J. 4-61, 10-920, 15-1455, 16-722, 16-726, 16-739, 16-745, 16-781, 16-787, 16-788, 17-407
Bestre, R.D. 14-270
Betancor, C. 17-151
Betchaku, A. 10-570
Bethea III, T.W. 19-268
Bethell, D. 5-2, 5-60, **5**-188, 5-267, 5-270, 6-63, **10**-103, 10-669, 12-236, 12-249, 12-260, 13-127, 15-1076, **15**-1379, 19-471

Bethmont, V. 10-648
Bethune, D.S. 2-295
Betkouski, M. 7-48
Betschart, C. 16-192, 19-722, 19-730
Betteridge, D. 1-13, 1-16
Betts, J. 14-228
Betts, M J. 16-928
Betz, W. 18-527
Betzemeier, B. 19-390
Beuchet, P. 12-235, 16-539
Beug, M. 11-10
Beugelmans, R. 10-1335, 13-180, 13-192
Beumel Jr., O.F. **10**-1855, 16-656
Beutler, M. 15-794
Bevan, C.W.L. 10-562
Beveridge, D.L. 2-16
Beverwijk, C.D.M. 3-59
Bévière, S.D. 19-308,19-310
Bevington, J.C. 16-876
Bevins, C.L. 12-58
Bewersdorf, M. 12-489
Bewick, A. **15**-1103, **15**-1141
Beyer, K. **3**-139
Beylerian, N.M. 19-125
Beynek, H. 16-789
Bezbozhnaya, T.V. 10-182, 10-277, 10-409
Bezman, S.A. 15-1366
Bezrodnyi, V.P. 10-2034
Bhacca, N.S. 18-672
Bhaduri, A.P. 11-198
Bhagwat, M.M. 15-359
Bhalerao, U.T. 10-443, 14-171, 18-255, 19-698
Bhandari, A. 15-356
Bhandari, K. 19-260, 19-558
Bhanu, S. 10-1856
Bhar, S. 10-1330, 15-605
Bharadwaj, P.K. 3-93
Bhat, K.S. 16-382
Bhat, N.G. 10-1839, 12-358, 12-360, 15-728, 18-365, 18-374, 18-383, 18-386
Bhat, S.V. 16-486
Bhatia, B. 14-68
Bhatnagar, A.K. 19-45
Bhatnagar, S.P. 16-827
Bhatt, M.V. **10**-1180, 17-260, 18-528, 19-349, 19-658
Bhatt, P. 19-461
Bhattacharya, A.K. 16-750
Bhattacharya, S. 14-433
Bhattacharya, S.N. 12-345
Bhattacharyya, S. 16-171,16-470
Bhatti, A.M. 12-550
Bhatti, Z.A. 10-564
Bhaumik, A. 15-195
Bhinderwala, N.S. 10-1505
Bhupathy, M. 14-482, 18-200
Bhushan, V. 4-161, 14-194, 15-985, 15-995, 15-1012
Bhuvaneswari, N. 11-509
Biaggio, F.C. 19-788
Biale, G. 17-68, 17-70, 17-75
Biali, D.A. 2-328
Biali, S.E. 2-326, 2-328, 2-329, 3-98, 4-264, 4-283, 4-435, 4-437, 11-255
Bianchi, D. 4-163
Bianchi, G. **15**-1153, **15**-1159
Bianchi, M. 10-1906, 15-767, 15-786
Bianchi, R. 2-221
Bianchi, T.A. 10-636, 10-2051
Bianchini, C. 15-220, 15-1469
Bianchini, J. 15-106
Bianchini, R. 15-11, 15-13, 15-21, 15-887, 15-893
Bianco, A. 19-585
Białeck-Florjańczyk, E. 15-554
Bible Jr., R.H. 15-137
Bible, R. 2-300
Bickart, P. 18-602
Bickel, A.F. 14-237
Bickelhaupt, F. 2-51, 2-52, **2**-53, **10**-311, **12**-438, 12-452, 12-453, 12-454, 12-455, 12-473, 12-481, 15-1398, 15-278, 15-331, 15-332, 18-533
Bida, G. 19-125
Bidd, I. 10-1134
Bieber, J.B. 18-341
Bieber, L.W. 16-498
Bieber, W. 10-875
Bieberbach, A. 2-214
Biechler, S.S. 10-623
Biehl, E.R. 13-67, 13-188
Biellmann, J.F. 10-1610, 10-1797, 10-1814, 12-72, 12-262, 12-279, 17-225, 18-591
Bielmann, R. 10-155
Bielski, B.H.J. 5-180
Bielski, R. 17-273
Biemann, K. 10-2025
Bieniarz, C. 13-101
Bienz, S. 12-532
Bierbaum, V.M. 2-24, 5-91, 10-266, 10-336, 10-356, 17-167
Bieri, J.H. 4-391
Bierling, B. 19-38
Biermann, D. **15**-1189
Bieron, J.F. 11-440, 17-385
Biethan, U. 18-524

Biffi, C. 19-73
Biffin, M.E.C. 10-1095, 15-268, 15-956
Bigam, G. 2-208
Bigeleisen, J. 6-58
Bigg, D.C.H. 10-961
Biggs, J. 10-479
Bigi, F. 11-285, 11-346
Bigler. P. 18-157
Bigley, D.B. 12-507, 12-508, 12-514, 16-886, 19-506
Bigot, A. **10-**1335
Bijoy, P. 11-269
Bijvoet, J.M. 4-86
Bilevitch, K.A. 5-257, 12-483
Bilgrien, C. 19-73
Billet, J. 16-413
Billeter, M. 4-332
Billingham, N.C. 14-521
Billington, D.C. 10-1597
Billion, A. 12-216
Billmers, J.M. 14-192, 19-459
Billups, W.E. 2-64, **2-**156, 2-294, 04-397, 4-422, 6-40, 14-115, 14-118, 18-140, 18-300, 18-488
Bilodeau, M.T. 16-589
Biloski, A.J. 19-414
Bindu, K.H. 10-708, 10-1949
Binev, I.G. 9-23, 9-25
Bingel. W.A. 1-78
Binger. P. 12-340, 15-1290, 15-1365, 15-1400
Bingham, R.C. 2-18, 5-235, 10-44, 10-278, 10-279, 10-319, 14-69, 18-98
Bingham, T.E. 18-242
Binkley, R.W. 18-525
Binsch. G. 4-265, 4-312, 6-55, 15-1320
Binshtok, E.V. 16-766
Binzet. S. 4-445, 10-275
Biordi. J. 10-642
Bir, G. 15-1208
Birch, A.J. 12-552, 15-277, 15-285, 15-332, 15-399, 15-402, 15-405
Birchal, J.M. 11-447
Birckbichler, P.J. 19-181
Bird, C.N. **17-**125, **17-**182
Bird, C.W. 2-111,2-119, 2-120, 12-72, 14-511, 15-785, 17-15, 19-389
Bird, PH. 15-1366
Bird, R. **10-**1750, 10-1779, **19-**471
Biresaw, G. 15-1442
Birladeanu, L. 18-489
Birmingham, J.M. 12-435
Birnbaum, G. 1-37
Birney, D.M. 17-361
Birr, C. 10-1026
Birum, G.H. 16-767
Bisaha, J. 15-1207
Bisarya, S.C. 11-196
Bischof, P. 2-145
Bishop III, K.C. **18-**651
Bishop, C.A. **17-**64
Bishop, C.E. 17-442, 19-217
Bishop, R. 3-120
Bishop, R.J. 1-86
Bishop, S.W. 14-412
Biskup, M. 2-217,2-218,2-229
Biss, J.W. 16-364
Bissell, E.R. 15-884
Bissinger, H.J. 4-402
Biswas, G. 10-907
Bitsi, G. 12-603
Bitter, I. **15-***1156*
Bittler, K. 15-770
Bittner, S. 10-753
Björkling, F. 10-1592
Bjorklund, C. 12-553
Björkman, E.E. **15-**1115
Black, C.J. 12-139
Black, D.J. 18-296
Black, D.S. **15-**1153, 18-570, 19-369
Black, K.W. 18-106
Black, T.H. 10-462, **17-**414, 18-708
Blackburn, B.K. 15-1009
Blackburn, E.V. 14-29, **18-**431
Blackburn, G.M. 10-1049, **10-**1051, 18-591
Blackburne, I.D. 1-86
Blackert, J.F. **14-**42
Blacklock, T.J. 10-1034, 18-477, 18-515
Blackman, N.A 19-369
Blackman, S.W. 10-955
Blackmond, D.G. 15-303
Blackstock, S.C. 3-70, 5-262
Blackwell, J. 10-1302
Blackwell, L.F. 17-61, 17-63
Blackwood, R.K. 10-470
Bladé-Font, A. 10-1005,16-769
Blagoev, B. 10-1781, 12-275
Blagoveschenskii, V.S. 4-303
Bláha, K. 12-223
Blain, D.A. 2-293
Blair, L.K. 8-77,8-182,8-189,8-191, 8-192
Blake, A.J. 15-855
Blake, J.F. 10-19,15-1251
Blake, M.R. 11-110
Blake, P. 15-104
Blake, PG. 15-224
Blanc, D. 16-326
Blanc, J. 10-319

Blanch, R. 4-407
Blanchard, E.J. 10-991
Blanchard, E.P. 15-1369, 15-1436, 15-1439
Blanchard, M. 10-2025
Blanchette, RE. 15-1035
Blanchot-Courtois, V. 10-1673
Blanco, L. 12-126
Blancou, H. 12-468
Bland, W.J. 15-971
Blandamer, M.J. 2-338, 6-56, 10-21, 10-22, 10-63, 15-1228
Blander, M. 3-5
Blankert, J.F. 10-1598
Blanton, J.R. 10-1255, 16-267
Blanzat, J. 4-201
Blart, E. 13-177
Blaschke, G. 4-141, 4-142, 4-444
Bläser, D. 2-64, 4-398, 11-317, 15-297
Blaskó, A. 10-218, 13-16
Blay, G. 10-574
Blaević, N. 10-936
Blazejewski, J. **13-**199
Blechert, S. 15-844, 18-572, 18-635
Bleeke, J.R. 15-394
Blindheim, U. 15-516
Bloch, R. 2-146, 16-329
Block Jr., P. 16-221
Block, E. 2-69, 5-103, 10-96, 10-1397, 10-1763, 10-1796, 12-276, 13-285, 14-470, 15-1451, 16-887, 17-274, 17-305, 18-581, 19-448, 19-453, 19-484, 19-666, 19-784, 19-794
Blodgett, J.K. 18-235
Blokzijl, W. 2-338,15-1228
Blom, C.E. 2-334
Blom, H.P. **15-**471
Blomberg, C. 5-145, 12-453, 12-472, 12-473, 16-369, 16-409, **16-**418
Blomquist, A.T. 4-69, 04-403, 16-830, 18-50
Bloodworth, A.J. 15-209, 15-1091
Bloom, S.H. 17-223
Bloomfield, J.J. 10-1996, 16-805, 19-575, 19-747, 19-750, 19-754, 19-755, 19-757
Blough, B.E. 15-418
Blucher, W.G. 11-121
Blues, E.T. 10-1292
Bluhm, A.L. 19-191
Bluhm, H.J. 19-22
Blukis, V. 1-80
Blum, J. 10-1107, 11-487, 14-517, 14-519, 18-124
Blum, L. 14-409
Blum, Y. 19-381
Blume, E. 16-673
Blume, R.C. 10-725
Blunt, J.W. 15-384
Bly, R.K. 10-116
Bly, R.S. 10-115, 10-116, 10-118, **18-**81
Blyumberg, E.A. 14-214, 15-1058
Boar, R.B. 10-1364, 10-1365
Boaz, N.W. 10-207, **10-**211, 10-1557, 15-293, 15-657, 15-720, 15-723
Bobbitt, J.M. **19-**81, **19-**185, **19-**386
Bobylev, V.A. 10-477
Bocarsly, A.B. 19-73
Bocharov, B.V. 17-404
Boche, G. 2-214, 5-120, 5-127, 5-132, 5-224, 12-29, 12-375, 16-659, 18-424, 18-425
Bocher, S. 10-255
Bochkov, A.F. 8-135
Bock, H. 1-13, 11-160, 16-139, 19-136
Bock, M.G. 17-144
Bock, PL. 12-12
Bockman, T.M. 15-362, 15-802
Bockrath, B. 5-94
Bockstiegel, B. 10-1758
Bodanszky, A. 10-1010
Bodanszky, M. 10-1010
Bode, K. 16-96
Boden, D.J. 14-369
Boden, E.P. 10-737
Boden, H. 10-1869
Bodepudi, V.R. 15-117
Bodewitz, H.W.H.J. 12-473
Bodot, H. 18-190
Bodrikov, I.V. 15-20, **15-**1137, 16-105
Bodwell, G.J. 2-56
Boeckman Jr., R.K 15-750, 15-131, 15-134, 15-212, 10-1750, 16-619, 18-480, 18-539, 18-557
Boehm, P. **10-**1421
Boehshar, M. 12-336
Boekelheide, V. 2-228, 2-243, 2-246, 2-279, 6-73, 10-1789, 10-1794, 17-166
Boelens, H. 17-222
Boelens, M. 10-923
Boelhouwer, C. 10-1468, 18-643
Boer, F.P. 5-56, 5-65, **11-**311
Boerner, D. **10-**210
Boersma, J. 16-504
Boersma, M.A.M. **18-**471
Boerth, D.W. 8-68, 8-70, 8-74
Boerwinkle, F. 15-19
Boese, R. 2-45, 2-64, 4-398, 15-297
Boese, W.T. 19-43
Boesten, W.H.J. 10-960, 19-579
Boeters, C **17-**214

Boettcher, R.J. 18-666
Boev, V.I. 12-243
Bogatkov, S.V. 10-233, 10-453
Bogavac, M. 10-1971
Bogdal, D. 10-637
Bogdanov, G.N. 18-154
Bogdanov, V.S. 15-48
Bogdanović, B. 12-449, 15-287, 15-488
Bogen, S 15-837
Boger, D.L. 15-690, 15-752, 15-1255, 15-1272, 15-1277
Boggio, C. 15-240
Boggs, J.E. 4-215
Boggs, J.K. 10-522
Boggs, R.A. 7-41
Bogseth, R.C. 10-507
Boguslavskaya, L.S. 4-106, 10-831, 14-102, 14-309, 15-877, 15-915, 15-875, 16-243
Bohlmann, F. 7-8
Böhm, H.P. 12-453
Böhm, M. 14-254
Bohme, D.K. 8-51, 8-77, 8-181, 8-195, 10-329, 10-337, 10-338
Böhme, H. 16-43
Böhme, M. 10-1540
Böhmer, V. 3-97
Bohn, A.A. 2-41
Bohne, C. 2-319
Boireau, G. 16-284, 16-382, 16-462
Bois-Choussy, M. 13-180
Boitiaux, J.P. 15-286
Boivin, J. 12-216, 16-862, 16-863
Bojanowska, I. 8-187
Bojarski, J.T. 10-1091
Bokova, A.I. 11-461
Bolan, J.L. 16-208
Boland, W. 16-804, 19-312
Boldeskul, I.E. 15-1452
Boldt, P. **10**-1713, 10-1714, 15-99, 15-110, **15**-1151
Boleslawski, M.P. 16-389
Bolesov, I.G. 15-1378, 18-503
Bolestova, G.I. **10**-1589, **15**-361, **15**-496, **16**-473
Bolhofer, W.A. 10-1074
Bolitt, V. 10-1858, 15-201
Böll, W.A. 2-217, 2-218, 2-219, 17-425, 17-427
Bollinger, F.W. 12-169
Bollinger, J.M. 4-431, 4-433, 4-435, 10-101, 15-1460, 18-413
Bolm, C. 15-1012, 15-1446, 16-350, 16-470, 16-814, 16-816, 18-297
Bolon, D.A. 10-115
Bolster, J.M. 4-409
Bolton, G.L. 10-1801, 10-1813, 15-621
Bolton, J.R. 5-178
Bolton, P.D. 8-137, 8-196, 8-197
Bolton, R. 14-18, 14-321, 14-381, 15-1
Bolze, C. 12-606
Bolze, R. 15-93
Bomben, K.D. 8-192
Bombicz, P. 16-704
Bombrun, A. **10**-1507
Bommer, R **4**-168
Bon, E. 10-961
Bonacčić-Koutecký, V. 7-1
Bonadies, F. 15-1059
Bonato, M. 15-455
Bonaventura, MM. 4-265
Bonazzola, L. 5-227
Bonchev, D. 4-214
Bond, FT. 17-217, 17-222
Bonde, S.E. 10-1509
Bondybey, V.E. 15-347
Bonet, J. 18-153
Bongini, A. **15**-712
Bonham, R.A. 1-60, 1-61
Bonhoeffer, K.F. 19-776
Boniardi, O. 19-280
Bonini, C. 10-1201, 10-1204, 10-1216, 10-1355
Bonini, G. 11-346
Bonitz, G.H. 16-191
Bonk, P.J. 6-15
Bonnat, M. 19-557
Bonne, F 16-164
Bonneau, R. 4-400,5-311
Bonner, O.D. 16-17
Bonner, R.M. **10**-1294
Bonner, W.A. 10-1413, 14-480
Bonner, W.A. 18-32, 18-79
Bonnesen, P.V. 15-1212
Bonnet-Delpon, D. 10-293, 11-363
Bonnett, R. 16-149, 18-690
Bonnier, J. 14-73
Bonnier, J.M. 14-333
Bonnin, J.P. 11-310
Bonthrone, W. 19-124
Bonvino, V. 11-245
Bonzougou, Y. 10-580, 10-1959
Boojamra, C.G. 14-301
Boone, A.W. 6-63
Boone, J.R. 16-281, 16-333, 16-334
Boons, G.-J. 10-647
Boord, C.E. 4-347
Booth, B.L. 10-1908, 11-387
Booth, H. 4-276, 4-301, 4-302, 17-82
Booth, S.E. 5-126

Boothe, R. 11-229
Boothe, T.E. 17-136
Boozer, C.E. 10-191
Bopp, R.J. 10-98
Borbaruah, M. 16-265
Borčić, S. 10-115
Borch, R.F. 5-47, 16-168, 16-182, 16-359, 16-709
Borchardt, A. 2-298
Borchardt, J.K. 17-31, 17-32
Borchert, A.E. 18-482
Borden, G.W. 18-394
Borden, J.E. 18-472
Borden, W.T. 1-1, 2-176, 2-193, 4-401, 4-452, 4-453, 5-105, 5-206, 5-239, 5-240, 5-272, 5-319, 10-35, 10-205, 15-384, 18-515, 18-559, 19-418
Bordwell, EG. 1-98, 1-99, 1-0102, 2-113, 5-90, 5-122, 5-211, 5-212, 5-304, 8-18, 8-51, 8-56, 8-122, 8-175, 9-60, 10-62, 10-196, 10-198, 10-200, 10-300, 10-302, 10-324, 10-326, 10-1710, 17-3, 17-38, 17-46, 17-50, 17-52, 17-55, 17-71, 17-123, 17-294, 17-300, 17-302, 17-304, 17-309, 18-165, 19-673
Borer, A. 15-797
Borgen, G. 4-322
Borgwardt, S. 10-1697
Borisov, A.E. 5-119
Borisov, A.V. 15-20, 15-1137
Borkent, J.H. 4-63
Borkowski, M. 9-9
Born, D. 4-371
Borodin, A. 14-495
Borodkin, G.I. 18-6,18-11
Borodkin, V.S. 12-533
Borosky, G.L. 13-49, 18-87
Borredon, ME. 10-886
Bors, D.A. 8-60
Bortolussi, M. 16-491
Boruah, A. 10-1578, 10-1946, 15-566, 16-26, 16-37, 19-639, 19-724
Bos, H. 10-784
Bos, H.J.T. 15-188, 16-112, 18-579
Bos, W. 10-1741
Bosc, J. 10-1659
Bosch, A. 18-685, 18-686
Bosch, A.I. 18-271
Bosch, E. 11-113, 16-911, 19-137
Bosch, I. 10-1007
Bosch, R.J. 4-286, 5-278, 10-1225
Boschetto, D.J. 12-12
Bosco, M. 10-524, 15-682, 15-715, 15-720
Bose, A.K. 10-1707
Bose, D.S. 16-64,17-371,19-424
Bosin, T.R. 11-503
Bosma, R.H.A. 18-642
Bosnian, C. 15-1107
Bosnich, B. 4-122, 4-123, 12-76, 15-762, 15-805, 16-625, 16-838, 18-571, 19-772
Bosret, J. 16-376
Bossard, F. 12-235
Bosser, G. 17-319, 17-331
Bosshard, H. 18-115
Boswell Jr., G.A. 10-1159, 16-241
Boswell, C.J. 10-252
Bothe, H. 4-364
Bothner-By, A.A. 2-239
Bott, K. 10-378, 15-787
Bott, R.W. 11-11
Botta, M. 10-948
Bottaro, J.C. 12-581
Botteghi, C. 15-787, 15-794
Botteron, D.G. 17-140
Bottini, A.T. 4-406, 10-261, 10-914, 13-79
Bottino, F.A. 19-734
Botto, R.E. 10-171
Bottom, A. 5-105, 15-1319, 15-1439, 16-474
Bouab, O. 10-516
Bouas-Laurent, H. 10-1869
Bouchoule, C. 10-2025
Bouda, H. 10-886
Boudakian, MM. 10-238
Boudin, A. 12-462
Boudjouk, P. 1-11, 10-454, 10-1475, 15-159, 15-374, 16-492
Boudreaux, G.J. 17-306
Boué, S. 12-39
Bougauchi, M 15-1045
Bouhlel, E. 16-490
Bouillon, G. 10-821
Bouis, P.A. 5-81
Boukherroub, R. 10-1322
Boumizane, K. 16-247
Bounds, PL. 12-58
Bourcier, S. 4-85
Bourdelande, J.L. 15-1085
Bourdet, S. 10-1335
Bourdon, F. 10-897
Bourgain, M. 10-1663, 10-1664, 10-1853
Bourgeois, M 10-816
Bourgois, J. 10-264
Bourhis, M. 10-1659
Bourn, A.J.R. 4-261
Bourns, A.N. 6-66, 13-15, 17-57, 17-187
Boussu, M. 10-1963
Boustany, K.S. 19-494
Boutagy, J. 16-748

Boutin, R.H. 18-235
Boutonnet, F. 15-52
Bouzide, A. 10-1337,15-542,15-547
Bovenkamp, J.W. 3-88, 18-213
Bovey, FA. 4-261
Bovicelli, P. 16-238
Bowden, K. 1-42, 2-353, 8-48, 8-108, 10-626, 15-46, 19-55
Bowe, M.D. 5-125
Bowen, C.T. 10-67
Bowen, J.P. 4-335
Bowen, P. 18-685
Bower, S. 10-1446
Bower, T.R. 15-3, 15-32
Bowers Jr., J.R. 16-416
Bowers, A. 19-55
Bowers, C.W. 3-77
Bowers, K.W. 15-407
Bowers, M.T. 8-177,8-182
Bowles, A.J. 14-28
Bowlin, H.B. 18-464
Bowlus, S.B. 16-669
Bowman, N.S. 18-147
Bowman, W.R. 10-1390, **10-**1711, 10-1722, 13-108, 16-864
Box, V.G.S. 4-301
Boy, J. 1-65
Boyd, D.R. 4-36, **4-**111, 18-529, 19-457
Boyd, D.S. 4-326
Boyd, G.V. 15-37, 15-539
Boyd, R.H. 8-32, 8-99, 15-27
Boyd, R.J. 1-29
Boyd, S.D. 10-1723
Boyd, S.E. 3-143
Boyer, B. 16-281
Boyer, J.H. **10-**1119, 12-579, 12-580, 12-585, 12-587, 15-268, 18-227, 19-415, 19-427
Boyer, L.E. 18-161
Boyer, R.F 18-462
Boyle Jr., W.J. 8-122,15-23
Boyle, B.A. 18-685
Boyle, PH. 4-128, 4-129
Boynton, W.A. 10-252
Bozell, J.J. 14-341
Braca, G. 15-767
Brace, N.O. 10-1065
Brackenridge, I. 10-663
Brackman,W. 14-422
Bradamante, S. **2-**115, **5-**99
Bradbury, D. 11-508
Braddock, D.C. 10-790, 10-1083, 16-476
Braddon, D.V. 10-150
Bradley, J. 5-306, 14-20, 14-384
Bradley, W.A. 10-62, 10-196
Bradshaw, C.W. 16-326
Bradshaw, J.S. 3-76, 3-80, **3-**113, 4-134, 4-145, 10-1399, 13-103, 14-472, **16-**117, 19-569
Bradshaw, R.W. 10-1073
Bradsher, C.K. 11-364, 11-365, 12-482
Brady, D.G. 15-48
Brady, J.D. 11-19
Brady, W.T. **15-**211, **15-**1300, **15-**1304, **15-**1305, 15-1306, 15-1321, 15-1321, 15-1322, 15-1324, 16-925, 17-154, 17-156
Braenden, J.E. 14-158
Braendlin, H.P 11-190
Braga, A.L. 10-856,15-188
Bragin, J. 4-370
Bragole, R.A. 18-500
Braig, W. 10-1522
Braillon, B. 16-139
Braish, T.F 15-39
Bram, G. 10-332, 10-473 10-474, 10-762, 10-778, **10-**1131, 10-1866, 17-249
Brammer Jr., L.E. 5-186
Brammer, L. 1-52, 2-29
Brånalt, J. 15-1209
Branca, J.C. 5-304
Branca, S.J. 4-376
Branchadell, V. 15-1212
Brand, D.J. **4-**17
Brand, M. 12-101, 15-878, 15-882
Brand, W.W. 13-289
Brandange, S. 10-1282
Brandenberger, S.G. 19-251
Brandes, B.D. 15-1069
Brandes, E. 18-551
Brandes, E.B. 18-558
Brandl, M. 6-75, 19-47
Brandon, R.W. 5-268
Brandsma, L. 10-208, 10-879, **10-**1813, 10-1942, 12-270, 12-297, 12-352, 15-188, 15-349, 15-398, 18-579
Brändström, A. 10-437
Brandt, S. 10-158
Brandvold, T.A. 15-1122
Brannen Jr., W.T. 10-300
Brannock, K.C. 10-1756, 15-1309, 16-158
Brant, J.B. 14-219
Branton, G.R. 18-475
Brasen, W.R. 19-471
Braslavsky, S.E. 7-1,7-11
Brassel, B. 18-472
Bratcher, M.S. 2-299
Bratovanov, S. 16-377
Bratsch, S.G. 1-29

Braude, E.A. **5-119**, 15-537, 19-20
Brauman, J.I. 2-288, 5-91, 5-107, 8-14, 8-77, **8-182**, 8-191, 8-192, 10-9, 10-19, 10-329, 10-345, 10-346, 10-350, 10-1882, 12-527, 14-161, 14-168, 15-787
Braun, A. 15-952
Braun, A.M. 14-122
Braun, H. 16-890
Braun, M. 15-1087, 16-587, **16-602**, 16-659
Braun, M.P. 14-379
Braun,R. 15-1223
Braunstein, D.M. 19-625
Braunstein, P. 12-610
Braverman, S. 15-1222, **18-603**
Bravo-Borja, S. 10-1380
Bray, L.E. 12-12
Bray, T.L. 15-1221
Bray, T.M. 5-218
Brayer, J.-L. 14-434, 14-435
Brazier, C.R. 5-320
Brazzillo, J. **18-161**
Breau, L. **16-785**
Breault, G.A. 15-1240
Breaux, E.J. 7-25
Brechbiel, M. 14-54, 16-842, 16-843, 16-846, 18-611, 18-615
Brechbühler, H. 10-794
Brechot, P. 15-797,15-1056
Breder, C.V. 11-203
Breen, P.J. 4-221
Bregadze, V.I. 12-304, 12-368
Breger, I.K. 17-90
Bregman, J. 2-226, 2-240
Breitbeil, F.W. 15-131
Breitmaier, E. 12-404, 15-1205
Bremer, M. 1-54
Bremner, D.H. 15-923
Bremner, J.B 15-1343
Breneman, C. 4-228
Breneman, CM. 2-37, 10-1539, 12-433
Brener, L. 15-1364, 18-420, 18-523
Brennan, J. **16-786**
Brenner, E. 10-940
Brenner, S. 15-414
Breslow, D.S. 15-799
Breslow, R. 2-122, 2-157, 2-158, 2-163, 2-169, 2-182, **2-185**, **2-189**, **2-191**, 2-192, **2-193**, **2-194**, 2-195, 2-196, 3-137, 8-75, 10-1267, 11-48, 15-1228, 16-857, 18-129, 18-171, 18-415, 18-476, 19-44, 19-47, 19-298, 19-299, 19-300
Bresson, A. 15-931
Breton, G.W. 15-152
Brettschneider, H. 5-198
Breuckmann, R. 15-1340
Breuer, E. 5-216, 10-2045, 12-382, 17-280, 18-248
Breuer, S.W. 14-453
Breuker, K. 1-86
Breuning, M. 16-470
Brewer, R.G. 1-89
Brewster, A.G. 19-133
Brewster, J.H. 4-21, 4-91, 4-103, 4-106, **18-317**
Briand, S. 12-529, 16-400
Bribes, J.L. 5-67, 10-185
Brickman, M. 11-39
Bridge, A.W. **10-1448**
Bridges, A.J. **15-1194**
Bridon, D. 14-492, 19-267
Bridson, J.N. **2-56**, 10-1851, 12-124
Brieden, W. 16-470
Brieger, G. **10-472**, 15-365, **15-1171**, **15-1239**, 17-164
Briehl, H. 4-407
Brielmann, H.L. **15-264**
Brienne, M. 4-149
Brienne, M.J. 4-85
Brier, P.N. 4-227
Briggs, A.J. 10-232
Briggs, E.M. 10-1086
Briggs, J.P. 8-182,8-183,8-184
Briggs, N.H. 11-215
Briggs, W.S. 17-123
Brilkina, T.G. 12-324, 12-333, 12-390
Brill, T.B. 16-750
Brill, W.F. 10-288
Brillon, D. 10-1708
Brilmyer, G. 19-331
Brimble, M.A. 15-1002
Brindell, G.D. 18-63
Bringmann, G. **10-1392**, 13-215, 16-470
Brini, M. 10-1185
Brinich, J.M. 10-101
Brinkman, G.A. 11-237
Brinkman, H.R. 19-601
Brinkman, M.R. 5-188
Briody, J.M. 15-224, **15-248**
Briody, R.G. 10-53, 10-54
Brisbois, R.G. 12-173
Brittain, J. 10-883
Brittain, J.M. 11-202
Brittain, T.J. 14-279
Brittain, W.J. 10-180
Britten, A.Z. 12-224
Britton Jr., G.H. 17-17
Britton, T.C. 12-174, 12-181
Brix, B. 12-423

Brixius, D.W. 19-266
Brizzolara, A. 12-223, 12-226
Broaddus, C.D. 12-56, 12-274
Broadhurst, A.T. 12-39
Broadhurst, M.J. 2-251
Brocchetta, M. 10-771
Broch, N.C. 11-293
Brock, C.P. 16-916
Brockington, J.W. 17-131
Brockington, R. 5-19
Brockmann Jr., H. 4-117
Brocks, J.J. 1-0103, 5-223
Brocksom, T.J. 12-194, 18-560
Brockway, N.M. 5-280, 5-297
Brod, A.O. 10-798
Brod, L.H. 10-513
Brodhag, A.E. 19-471
Brodie, B.B. 14-204
Broekhof, N.L.J.M. **16-755**
Broene, R.D. 15-297
Brogan, J.B. 15-1449
Broger, E.A. 15-288
Brois, S.J. 4-34
Brokaw, M.L. 8-59
Brokhovetsky, D.B. 11-244
Broline, B.M. 18-473
Bromilow, J. 9-47 , 09-55
Bromley, D. 11-192, 14-500, 14-501
Bromley, K. 10-626
Bronson, J.J. 18-484
Brook, A.G. 1-9,1-11
Brook, M.A. 4-106, 10-742, 14-206, 16-75
Brook, P.R. 15-1307, 15-1318, 15-1321, 15-1323, 18-464
Brookhart, M 10-112,10-113,10-136,15-1131, 15-1403, 15-1404, 15-1407, 15-1407
Brooks, D.W. 10-1164
Brophy, J.E. 18-444
Broster, F.A. 14-453
Brougham, P. **15-1082**, **15-1083**
Brouwer, D.M 5-13, 08-19, 8-23, 11-4, 12-47, **12-218**, 18-7, 18-8, 18-27, 18-29, 18-48
Browej, E.I. 16-795, 16-797
Brower, H.E. 17-65
Brower, K.R. 14-99, 17-65
Brown, C.A. 10-2000, 12-66, 15-275, 15-301, 15-688, 16-340
Brown, C.K. 15-787
Brown, C.W. 19-181
Brown, D. 10-879
Brown, D.E. 4-239
Brown, D.F. 17-131
Brown, D.J. 15-277, 15-1305
Brown, D.W. 16-925
Brown, E 10-807
Brown, E.S. 15-807,15-812
Brown, E.V. 19-795
Brown, F.J. 10-64
Brown, F.K. **15-1155**, **15-1245**
Brown, G.R. 2-259, 19-654
Brown, G.W. 10-1086, 10-1145
Brown, H.C. 4-159, 05-81, 06-73, 8-40, 8-151, **8-158**, 9-4, 9-6, 9-8, 9-9, 9-20, 9-33, 10-109, **10-114**, 10-137, 10-150, 10-157, 10-158, 10-159, 10-162, 10-178, 10-313, 10-1211, 10-1250, 10-1251, 10-1287, 10-1332, 10-1354, 10-1360, 10-1384, 10-1416, 10-1427, 10-1428, 10-1434, 10-1447, 10-1583, 10-1585, 10-1592 , 10-1803, 10-1832, 10-1833, 10-1834, 10-1836, 10-1837, **10-1838**, 10-1839, 10-1840, 10-1841, 10-1842, 10-1843, 10-1844, 10-1848, 10-1851, **11-19**, **11-21**, **11-47**, **11-76**, **11-77**, **11-83**, **11-84**, 11-86, 11-241, 11-277, **11-278**, **11-454**, 11-500, **12-12**, **12-319**, 12-327, **12-337**, **12-338**, **12-342**, 12-353, 12-354, 12-355, 12-356, 12-358, 12-360, 12-382, 12-383, 12-385, 12-386, **12-430**, **14-451**,**14-452**, **14-454**, **14-455**, **15-113**, 15-114, 15-115, 15-165, 15-207, 15-208, 15-301, 15-308, 15-310, 15-367, 15-425, 15-429, 15-430, **15-431**, 15-432, 15-433, 15-434, 15-435, 15-436, 15-437, 15-438, 15-439, 15-440, 15-441, 15-442, 15-444, 15-445, 15-446, 15-447, 15-449, 15-450, 15-451, 15-452, 15-454, 15-456, 15-459, 15-460, 15-461, 15-463, 15-464, 15-465, 15-467, 15-468, 15-476, 15-477, 15-478, 15-725, 15-726, 15-727, 15-728, 15-729, 15-730, **15-731**, 15-734, 15-965, 16-280, 16-302, 16-303, 16-316, 16-318, 16-327, 16-332, 16-353, 16-362, 16-382, 16-431, 16-453, 16-464, 16-465, 16-575, 16-576, 16-592, 16-870, 17-15, **17-85**, 17-86, 17-88, 17-98, 17-107, 17-260 18-65, 18-215, 18-217, 18-350, 18-351, 18-352, 18-353, 18-354, 18-355, **18-356**, **18-359**, 18-360, 18-361, **18-363**, **18-365**, **18-366**, **18-367**, 18-368, 18-369, 18-371, 18-372, 18-373, 18-374, 18-377, 18-378, 18-380, 18-383, 18-385, 18-386, 19-496, 19-498, 19-499, 19-503, 19-506, 19-507, 19-508, 19-509, 19-510, 19-548, 19-557, 19-561, 19-583, 19-586, 19-694, 19-699
Brown, H.L. 15-591
Brown, J. 2-191
Brown, J.D. 10-1951,16-318
Brown, J.E. 18-319,18-597

Brown, J.M 4-157, 4-56, 2-246, 5-110, 12-451, 12-466, 15-313,15-475, 15-787, 18-502, 18-503
Brown, L.R. 18-231
Brown, M.G 2-34
Brown, M.J. 16-918
Brown, M.S. 19-585
Brown, P.B. 15-1360
Brown, R. 17-337
Brown, R.A. 16-56
Brown, R.D. 2-152, 13-37
Brown, R.F.C 5-245, 5-309, 15-1242, 15-1339
Brown, R.K. 10-1343, 18-589
Brown, R.S. 8-181, 10-627, 10-628, 15-7, 15-11, 15-21, 15-886
Brown, R.T. 12-518
Brown, R.W. 19-82
Brown, S.H. 14-300
Brown, S.M. 15-1027, 19-78
Brown, T.H. 11-377
Brown, T.L. 5-132,5-133,5-136
Brown, W.G. 15-368, 16-264
Brownawell, M. 18-616
Brownawell, ML. 11-433, 18-614
Brownbridge, P. 12-307, 15-1136, 16-684, 18-32
Browne, A.R. 2-138, 4-375
Brownell, R. 19-120
Brownhill, A. 15-553
Brownlee, R.T.C. 9-47, 9-51, 9-55
Brownlee, T.H. 17-82
Brownlie, G. 18-97
Brownstein, S. 4-433, 11-308, 11-426, 11-429, 15-982
Broxterman, Q.B. 19-579
Broxton, T.J. 10-608, 10-609, 14-414, 14-418, 17-70
Bruce, M.I. 2-131,3-59
Bruch, M.D. 15-1177
Brack, D. 5-47, 11-16
Brack, P. 10-1270
Brackenstein, S. 8-7, 8-39
Bruckner, V. 9-13
Bruckner, R. 18-599
Bruckner, S. 4-36
Bragger, W. 10-2024
Braggink, A. 13-189, 15-42
Braice, P.Y. 12-81, 12-82
Braice, T.C. 4-208, 10-222, 10-227, 10-228, 10-236, 10-358, 10-359, 10-609, 10-1047, 10-1048, 10-1049, 12-81, 15-1074
Brain, J.W. 12-455
Brummond, K.M. 15-621
Bran, C. 15-1250
Bran, P. 12-72, 15-1147, 15-1429
Brundle, C.R. 1-13,1-15,1-16
Brune, H.A. 18-391
Bruneau, C. 15-220, 15-222, 16-206, 18-636
Brunei, J.-M. 10-926, 19-457
Brunei, Y. 15-1109, 16-729
Brunelle, D.J. 10-728, 10-730, 10-1546, 10-1550, 10-1564, 10-1646, 15-675
Brunelle, W.H. 19-203
Bruner, H.S. 16-100
Brunei, J. 10-261, 10-1880, 11-507, 13-209
Brunei, J.-J. 10-444, 11-498, 15-774, 15-776
Brungardt, B. 10-158
Brunie, J. 12-78
Brunner, H. 4-121, 4-122, 5-198, 15-287, 16-438, 19-630
Brunner, M. 15-781
Bruno, F. 14-490
Bruno, J.J. 15-348
Brunow, G. 16-706
Brüntrup, G. 16-579, 17-351, 17-353, 17-355
Brunvoll, J. 2-94, 2-224
Bras, L.E. 11-421
Brusova, G.P. 18-213
Brassee, J. 4-81
Bratcher Jr., F.V. 15-1003
Braylants, A. 14-84, 14-89, 16-40
Braza, K.J. 15-749, 15-750
Bruzinski, PR. 15-1407
Bryan, C.J. 11-231
Bryan, V.J. 10-1949
Bryant, G.L. 13-104
Bryant, J.A. 13-164
Bryany, J.A. 3-95
Bryce, M.R. 13-32, 15-1184
Bryce-Smith, D. 10-1292, 10-1526, 11-273, 12-288, 12-289, 13-233, 14-507, 18-413
Brycki , B. 10-374
Brycki, B.E. 10-1, 10-69
Bryker, W.J. 13-265
Brylikowska-Piotrowicz, J. 10-1086
Bryson, T.A. 10-1802, 16-191
Brzezinski, L.J. 16-482
Bublitz, D.E. 2-131, 11-59, 12-435, 19-570
Bubnov, Y.N. 18-453
Bubnov, Yu.N. 16-453
Bucciarelli, M. 4-36
Biich, H.M. 15-1400
Buchan, C. 10-1923
Buchanan, D.H. 12-12
Buchanan, D.N. 15-1264
Buchanan, G.L. 4-422, 12-509, 12-530, 15-591
Buchanan, G.W. 2-202, 3-88, 4-274
Buchanan, J.G.S. 19-519

Buchardt, O. 4-61, 4-126, 4-127
Buchbauer, G. 16-102
Buchecker, C. 17-425
Buchholz, B. 10-1686
Buchholz, S. 12-29
Büchi, G. 10-688, 15-244, 15-1351, 18-337, 19-281
Büchi, G.H. 10-697
Büchi, H. 10-794
Buchina, I.K. **11-461**
Buchman, O. 10-1889,18-124,19-368
Büchner, W. 12-552
Buchneva, L.M. 9-34
Buchwald, G. 14-245
Buchwald, S.L. 10-939, 10-1446, 11-161, 13-86, 13-87, 13-116, **13-117**, **13-119**, 13-120, 15-297, 15-487, 15-527, 15-536, 15-764, 15-780, 15-795, 15-813, 16-342, 16-347, 16-791, 19-538
Buck, C.J. 18-50
Buck, H.M. 7-15, 10-132, 10-1598
Buck, J.S. 16-854
Buck, P. 13-2
Buck, P. 17-253
Buckingham, A.D. 4-102
Buckingham, J. 4-85, 16-209
Buckl, K. 18-425
Buckle, M.J.C. **12-3**
Buckles, R.E. 15-13, 15-872, 19-473
Buckley, P. 4-232
Buckley, P.D. 17-63
Buckner, J.K. 10-56
Buckpitt, A.R. 11-503
Buckwalter, B. 10-1813
Buckwalter, B.L. 10-1638
Bucsi, I. 11-113
Buda, A.B. 2-59, 4-435, 18-407
Buddenbaum, W.E. 6-79
Budhai. L. 14-189
Budzelaar, P.H.M. 16-504
Buehler, C.A. 11-42, 11-190, 11-297, 11-393
Buehler, E. 10-842
Buehler, N.E. 18-666
Buenker, R.J. 7-15
Buess, CM. 2-108
Bugaenko, L.T. 5-181
Bugl, M. 18-627
Buhl, H. 4-403
Buhler, J.D. 16-401
Bühler, R.E. 14-87
Bui-The-Khai 10-947, 10-957
Buisson, P. 15-275
Buist, G.J. 16-938, 19-176
Bulbule, V.J. 10-755
Bulgarevich, S.B. 8-128
Bull, H.G. 10-500
Bullen, J.V. 11-98
Bulliard, M. 16-326
Bullock, R.M. 15-362
Bulman, A. 18-583
Bulten, E.J. 15-393
Bulthuis, J. 4-233
Bumagin, N.A. 10-1571, 10-1575, 10-1586, 10-1860, 10-1914, 12-392, 13-163, 13-166, 13-171, 13-174, 13-204, 13-205, 13-213, 14-343, 14-463
Bumgardner, C.L. 10-1375, 12-103, 13-284
Bunce, N.J. 5-178, 14-65, 14-86, 14-106, 14-508, 18-704
Buncel, E. 5-84, 5-95, **5-114**, 5-304, 8-14, 8-65, **8-66**,**08-115**, 10-217, 10-349, 10-352, 10-353, 10-356, 10-359,10-395, 10-433, 10-435, 10-2034, 10-698, 12-503, 13-2, 13-5, 13-6, 13-27, 18-604, 18-693, **18-694**, **18-696**, 18-699, 18-700, 18-702
Buncel, I.M. 11-402
Bunch, B. **10-189**
Bundel', Yu.G. **10-1163**, 15-29, 18-28, 18-35, 18-46
Bunina-Krivorukova, L.I. 18-554
Bunnell, R.D. 15-241
Bunnelle, W.H. 16-243
Bunnett, J.F. 6-34, 6-35, 6-57, 8-3, 8-109, **8-112**, 9pt2-2, 10-48, 10-1047, 10-1048, 10-1052, 11-221, 11-465, 11-468, 11-493, 11-494, 12-548, 13-2, 13-9, 13-10, 13-12, 13-34, 13-35, 13-39, 13-40, 13-43, 13-47, 13-73, 13-75, 13-109, 13-122, 13-136, 13-152, 13-188, 13-191, 13-192, 13-193, 13-195, 13-196, 13-272, 13-292, 14-414, 17-3, 17-35, 17-55, 17-67, 17-71, 17-84, 17-89, 17-99
Buntain, G.A. 18-288, 18-290
Bunting, J.W. **8-44**, **17-51**
Bunton, C.A. 6-87, 10-46, 10-59, 10-218, 10-406, 10-496, 10-628, **11-426**, **11-429**, 13-16, 15-1053, 19-164, 19-176
Bunyan, P.J. 19-764
Bunzli, J. 2-242
Buono, G. 10-926, 15-291
Buonora, P.T. **16-571**
Burawoy, A. 3-32
Burch, R.R. 15-315
Burchard, T. 19-43
Burden, ER. 2-152
Burdett, J.K. 1-1
Burdisso, M. 15-1163

Burditt, A.M. 6-38, 16-885
Burdon, J. 19-543
Burdon, M.G. 11-375
Burfield, D.R. 14-233
Burfitt, I.R. 10-1638
Burford, S.C. 15-646
Burg, D.A. 15-1293
Burgard, A. 18-222
Burger, G. 4-142
Burger, T.F. 17-205
Burger, U. 15-1260, 15-1398, 18-402, 18-535
Burgess, E.M. 10-230, **10**-951
Burgess, J. 6-56, 10-22
Burgess, K. 15-179, 15-180, 15-471, 15-472, 15-475, 15-480
Burgess, L.E. 10-1463
Burghard, H. 19-733
Burgoyne, W. 10-1253
Burgstahler, A.W. 10-1418, 10-1426, 15-505
Burham, R.L. 15-872
Burini, A. 15-531
Burk, M.J. 15-288, 15-295, 15-296, 16-326, 16-.343, 19-43
Burk, P.L. 15-1365
Burka, L.T. 18-67
Burke, J.J. 8-33,8-101
Burke, L.A. 2-44
Burke, M.C. 12-272
Burke, P.O. 10-1068
Burke, S.D. 12-240,15-1379,18-684
Burkert, U. 1-5.3, 4-326, 4-331, 04-333, 4-335, 4-341,4-426
Burkett, H. 11-464
Burkhardt, E.R. 12-469
Burkoth, T.L. 2-206, 2-208
Burkus, T. **10**-2010
Burlingame, A.L. 12-92
Burlingame, T.G. **4**-211
Burmakov, A.I. 16-242
Burmeister, J.L. 15-277
Burn, D. 12-207
Burnell, D.J. 15-1206
Burnell-Curty, C. **10**-1014, **10**-1042
Burnett, D.A. 15-841
Burnett, E. 16-191
Burns, S.J. 17-176
Burns, T.P. 12-468
Burpitt, R.D. 15-1320, 16-158
Burri, P. 13-23, 14-333
Burrous, M.L. 15-415
Burrows, C.J. **15**-1134
Burrows, E.P. 19-407
Burstinghaus, R. 15-688
Burt, R.A. 10-547
Burton, D.J. 5-279, 10-1246, 14-315, 16-734
Burton, J. 15-699
Burton, K.A. 5-249, 2-348
Burton, N.A. 18-550
Burton, RE. 18-53
Burwell Jr., R.L. 15-320, 15-322, 15-325
Bury, A. 10-365
Busch, P. 17-439, 17-440, 17-442
Busch, S. 10-1732
Buschek, J.M. 15-11
Buschhoff, M. 12-251
Buschmann, E. 10-1756
Buschmann, J. 4-310
Buschmann, J. 18-522
Bush Jr., J.B. 15-1145
Bushby, R.J. 12-64
Bushell, A.W. 18-93
Bushman, D.G. 17-63
Bushmelev, V.A. 11-13
Bushweller, C.H. 4-215, 4-255, 4-263, 4-269, 4-270, 4-289
Buss, D.R. 4-128
Buss, E. 15-928
Buss, V. 5-2, 5-45, 5-66, 5-73, 15-420
Bussell, G.E. 6-34
Büssemeier, B. 15-1485
Bussman, W. 4-134
Bussolari, J. 16-758
Buston, J.E.H. 18-331
Busujima, T. 16-626, 16-631
Butcher, S.S. 4-246
Buteiko, Zh.F. 10-1528
Butin, K.P. 5-85, 8-13, 8-14, **12**-42, 12-44
Butler, A.B. 11-104
Butler, A.R. 1-42, 10-566, 10-981, 10-1047, 11-223, 12-557, 19-407
Butler, D.N. 15-92, 15-363, 15-166
Butler, J.R. 13-124
Butler, K.E. 2-258
Butler, R. 11-233
Butler, R.N. 5-49, 12-301, 12-565, 14-220, 14-260, 14-266, 14-327, 18-265, 19-415
Butskus, PR **15**-1175, 17-102
Butsugan, Y. 10-1639, 16-436, 16-458, 16-493, **16**-539, 16-898
Butt, G. 1-42
Butte, W.A. 12-266
Butters, M. 11-124
Buttery, R.G. 5-303
Buu-Hoï, N.P 11-506
Buvet, R. 19-407
Buynak, J.D. 16-453

Buys, H.R. 4-256, 4-289, 4-300
Buza, M. 15-895
Buzás, A. 16-884
Buzbee, L.R. 13-82
Buzby, J.H. 19-410
Buzek, P. 10-188
Byers. G.W. 17-445
Byk, S.Sh. 3-129
Bykhovskaya, M.Sh. 15-44
Byrd, L.R. 15-110
Byrne, C.J. 09-30
Byrne, K. 4-95
Byrne, M.P. 3-77, 17-179
Byrne, N.E. 16-910
Bystrom, S.E. 15-1115, 14-262, 17-330
Bzowej, E.I. 16-792

Cabaleiro, M.C. 17-50
Caballero, G.M. 10-519
Cabaret, D. 16-423
Cabello, J.A. 15-373
Cabiddu, S. 1-0100
Cablewski, T. 11-169
Cabrera, A. 10-1495, 15-379
Cabri, W. 4-163, 13-150, 14-338, 19-709
Cacace, F. 10-259, 11-92, 11-236, 13-140
Cacchi, S. 10-1450, 10-1915, 13-150, 13-208, 15-531, 15-696, 15-697, 15-705, 15-739, 16-61, 16-824
Cacciapaglia, R. 10-335
Cadamuro, S. 10-1927
Cadilhac, C. 13-259
Cadiot, P. 14-310,14-316,18-644
Cadogan, J.I.G. 14-328, 14-330, 14-413, 14-422, 15-15, 15-49, 15-755, 15-757, 15-1379, 15-1425, 16-722, 18-396, 19-764
Cafferata, L.F.R. 10-282
Caglioti, L. 16-824, 19-593
Cahiez.G. 10-1493,10-1511,10-1513,10-1561, 10-1579, 10-1580, 10-1950, 12-310, 15-646, 15-648, 15-649, 15-695, 16-408, 16-494
Cahn, R.S. 4-87
Cai, J. 4-293, 4-306
Cai, M.-Z. 10-1537,10-1918,12-413
Caille, S.Y. 11-26
Cain, C.M. 12-91
Cain, E.N. 10-114, 14-29, 19-275
Cain, M.E. 10-861
Caine, D. 10-1735, 10-1776, 12-190, 12-294, 15-364, 16-573, 17-348
Cainelli, G. 12-455, 14-156, 14-209, 15-993, 16-388, 16-389, 16-392, 19-10, 19-52, 19-66, 19-129, 19-225, 19-229, 19-250
Caira, M.R. 3-134
Cairncross, A. 11-470, 13-219, 15-1369
Cairns, T.L. 15-1335, 15-1336, 15-1395, 15-1430, 16-130
Cais, M. 3-59, 10-1935, 15-897
Cajthami, C.E. 8-167
Calabrese, J.C. 12-495, 15-471
Calder, G.V. 8-78, 8-196, 13-37
Calder, I.C. 2-224, 2-271, 2-273, 2-275
Calderari, G. 15-577
Calderbank, K.E. 2-112
Calderon, N. 18-621, 18-622, 18-623, 18-625, 18-640, 18-650
Calderwood, D.J. 16-516
Caldin, E.F. 6-61
Caldwell, D. 4-222
Caldwell, D.J. 4-102
Caldwell, G. 8-190, 10-270, 10-400
Caldwell, M. 19-486
Caldwell, R.A. 5-241, 6-78, 7-40, 8-71, 15-1358
Calet, S. 17-296
Calkins, T.L. 15-1459, 18-411, 18-412
Callahan, J.H 2-295
Callier, A.-C. 15-263
Calloway, N.O. 11-241
Calmes, M. 11-317
Calmon, J.P. 10-608
Calo, V. 10-1664
Calverley, M.J. 10-1085
Calvert, J.G. 7-1, 7-26, 7-31, 07-36, 7-54, 19-715
Calvert, R.L. 2-112
Calves, J. 5-19
Calvin, M. 4-61, 4-127
Calzada, J.G. 10-1851
Calō, V. 10-886
Camaggi, G. 18-413
Camaioni, D.M. 11-399, 19-125
Camarena, R. 16-877
Cambie, R.C. 12-129, 14-500, 14-501, 15-907, 15-916, 15-941, 15-942, 15-957, 15-962, 15-1006
Cambillau, C. 10-474
Cambron, R.T. 18-59
Cameron, A.G. 18-561, 18-562
Cameron, D.K. 15-15
Cameron, G.S. 12-69
Cameron, K.S. 4-313
Cameron, R.E. 19-73
Cameron, T.S. 5-128
Caminati, W. 3-27
Camp, D. 10-739, 10-740
Camp, R.L. 15-1050
Campaigne, E. 16-2,16-109,16-131

Campana, C.F. 1-11
Campbell Jr., B.N. 11-264
Campbell Jr., J.B. 10-1592, 10-1839, 14-454, 15-463, 15-465
Campbell, A. 18-10
Campbell, A.L. 10-1229, 12-442
Campbell, D.H. 15-1120
Campbell, D.S. 10-609
Campbell, G. 10-599
Campbell, G.A 11-219
Campbell, J.R. 10-1209, 13-102, 19-241
Campbell, M.L. 8-37
Campbell, M.M. 15-923
Campbell, M.S. 2-62
Campbell, P. 11-48
Campbell, T.W. 16-881, 16-882
Campelo, J.M. 15-169, 15-323, 15-373
Campi, E. 15-794
Campi, E.M. 15-793, 15-1005
Campillo, N. 8-12
Campion, A. 2-178
Campos, K. **5-186**
Campos, P.J. 10-786, 15-879, 15-880
Camps, F. 10-645, **10-1164**, 10-1874, 15-878, 18-635
Camps, M. 10-611,15-213,15-224
Camps, P. 4-265, 4-421
Canali, L. **15-1064**
Canary, J.W. 2-196
Cancho, Y. 15-634
Candiani, I. 14-338
Candlin, J.P. 15-272, 19-495
Cane, D.E. 10-1703, 16-753
Canepa, C. 15-1035
Canet, J. 19-756
Canivet, P. **8-19**
Cann, P.F. 17-44
Cannizzo, L.F. 16-790
Cano, A.C. 16-228, 16-877
Canonne, P. 16-403, **16-512**, 16-549
Cant, P.A.E. 15-1340
Cantacuzene, J. 16-153
Cantagalli, G. 15-715
Cantello, B.C.C. 19-268
Cantone, A. 10-2031
Cantow, H. 4-240
Cantu, A.A. 14-332
Cao, G.-Q. 16-626
Cao, P. 16-326
Cao, Y. 5-300
Capdevielle, P. 11-398, 19-142, 19-266
Čaplar, V. 15-287
Caple, R. 15-1224
Capobianco, A.M. 17-90
Capon, B. 2-325, 2-334, 10-87, 10-229, 10-234, 10-404, 10-513, 12-83
Caporusso, A.M. 15-255
Capozzi, F. 15-943
Capozzi, G. 15-20, 15-943, 15-1088, 15-1137, 19-429, 19-484
Cappelli, F.P. 6-85
Capperucci, A. 15-659, 16-125
Capponi, M. 2-343, 15-187
Capson, T.L. 18-241
Caputo, J.A. 19-243
Caputo, R. 10-1202, 16-75, 17-288
Capwell, R.J. 4-309
Caramella, P. 15-79, 18-489
Carboni, B. 12-385
Cardamone, R. 14-380
Cardellicchio, C. 10-1962
Cardellina, J.H.I. 18-171
Cardenas, R. 10-210
Cardi, N. 10-1373
Cardillo, G. **14-156**, 14-209, 15-712, 15-902, 19-10, 19-52, 19-62, 19-66, 19-129, 19-225, 19-250, 19-401
Cardin, D.J. **18-651**
Cardinale, G. 19-39,19-193
Cardomone, R. **13-175**
Cardona, L. 10-574
Cardona, R. 15-1268
Carducci, M. **15-1125**
Caress, E.A. 17-88
Carey, E. 17-50
Carey, F.A. 4-106, 10-46, 10-59, 10-1290, 17-279
Carey, J.G. 13-262
Cargill, R.L. **15-1350**, **18-394**
Cargioli, J.D. 8-23
Cargle, V.H. 18-489
Carhart, R.E. 4-105
Carles, J. 19-217
Carless, H.A. 7-36
Carless, H.A.J. 15-1027, 16-911, 16-912
Carlier, P.R. 4-160, 5-168, 15-1067
Carlin, R.B. 18-609
Carlsen, P. 10-837
Carlsen, P.H.J. 14-509, 19-339
Carlsmith, L.A. 13-33, 13-66
Carlson, B.A. 18-356
Carlson, R. 15-340, 15-1237, 16-157, 16-158, 19-796
Carlson, R.G. 15-904, 15-1239
Carlson, R.M. 17-316
Carlson, S.C. 10-1388, 10-1721

Carlson, T.A. **1-13**
Carlsson, D.J. 14-125
Carlton, L. 15-525
Carmack, M. 10-861
Carman, R.M. 10-1138
Carmichael, G. 17-422
Carmody, M.J. 2-137, 15-1340
Carnahan Jr., J.C. 5-58, 17-271
Carnahan, E. 7-33
Carneiro, J.W. 10-186
Carneiro, J.W. de M. 10-188
Carninji, J.J. 15-526
Caro, B. **16-281**
Caron, H. 16-403
Caron, M. 10-480, 15-922
Caronna, T. 14-399, 14-402
Caroon, J.M. 10-774
Carothers, W.H. 16-357
Carpenter, B.K. 2-177, 2-178, 15-1466, 18-422, 18-467, 18-559
Carpenter, G.B. 5-164, 10-334
Carpenter, J.G.D. 1-86
Carpenter, T.C. 10-1233
Carpentier, J.-F. 16-326
Carpino, L.A. 17-313
Carpita, A. 10-859, 10-1510
Carr, D.B. 15-692
Carr, M.D. 12-70
Carr, R.V.C. 15-1185
Carrasco, M.C. 19-522
Carrasco, R. **13-125**
Carrasquillo, A. 18-290
Carre, M.C. 10-969
Carrea, G. 19-457, 19-457
Carreira, E.M. **16-329**, 16-475
Carreira, L.A. 4-316
Carreno, M.C. 19-562
Carretero, J.C. 10-471, 15-661, 15-1207
Carreyre, H. 11-395
Carrick, P.G. 5-320
Carrie, R. 12-385
Carrillo, J.R. 10-1068
Carrington, A. 15-407
Carrion, A.E. 18-108
Carriuolo, J. 10-1048
Carroll, A.R. **19-733**
Carroll, F.I. 11-337, 15-418
Carroll, P.J. 15-1205, 19-457
Carroll, T.X. 8-145
Carrupt, P. 15-1346
Carruthers, W. 4-425, 10-1691, 15-272, 15-539, **15-1153**, **15-1171**, **15-1295**, 18-677
Carson, A.S. 4-198
Carson, F.W. 18-602
Carson, K.G. 16-169
Carson, M.W 15-622
Cartaya-Marin, C.P. 16-844
Carter Jr., T.P. 19-201
Carter, D.S. 13-234
Carter, G.E 10-418, 10-421, 10-422, 10-561
Carter, J.C. 17-197
Carter, J.V. 10-62, 10-63, 10-196
Carter, P. 10-107,10-115
Carter, PL. 16-930
Carter, R.E. 6-73
Carter, R.L. 4-153
Carter, T.L. 15-3, 15-32
Carter, W.L. 18-138
Carter, W.P.L. 19-223, 19-224
Carter. L.G. **10-1817**
Cartledge, F.K. 12-1
Caruso, A.J. 13-104
Caruso, T.C. 3-77, 10-1772
Carvalho, E. 12-581
Carver, D.R. 13-40
Carver, J.R. 14-171
Casadei, M.A. 12-616
Casadevall, A. 10-68
Casadevall, E 10-68
Casado, F. 13-54
Casado, J. 12-576
Casagrande, F. 18-160
Casanova Jr., J. 14-489
Casanova, J. 4-137, 4-318, 4-370, 10-609, **17-219**, 17-377, 19-272
Casapieri, P. 10-69
Casares, A. 15-703
Casarini, D. 4-54, 4-55, 4-254
Casarrubios, L. 15-1131
Casas, J. 19-222
Case, R. 18-422
Čásenský, B. 19-10, 19-496
Caserio, M.C. 10-666, 15-104, **15-110**, 15-1105, 15-1138, 15-1330
Casey, C.J. 18-629
Casey, C.P. 7-41, 10-1646, 12-74, 14-456, 14-457, 15-720, 18-650
Casey, M. 10-1627
Casini, G. 11-245
Casiraghi, G. 11-340, 11-358, 11-360
Casnati, G. 11-340, 11-346, 11-358, 11-360, 12-111
Cason, J. 10-1153, 10-1945, 10-1962, 16-506, 16-552
Caspar, M.L. 18-53
Caspi, E. 19-241

Cassar, L. 10-1909, 13-160, 13-201, 14-363, 15-1365, 18-653
Casselman, A.A. 18-213
Cassidei, L. 15-1074
Cassidy, J. 15-480
Cassimatis, D. 11-310
Cassis, F.A. 11-271
Cast, J. 18-342
Castaldi, G. 16-291, 18-160
Castañer, J. 5-217, 16-893
Castellano, G. 19-320
Castellino, S. 16-381, 16-473
Castells, J. 16-857
Castillón, S. 15-790
Castle, G.H. 10-647
Castle, L. 14-206
Castro, A. 12-573, 12-576
Castro, B. 10-952, 12-459
Castro, B.R 10-1167
Castro, C.E. 10-1942, 13-171
Castro, E.A. 16-46
Casu, A. 19-480
Casy, G. 15-295,16-314
Catalán, J. 8-107, 8-113, 8-186
Catalane, D.B. 10-1086
Cate, L.A. 10-636, 10-2051
Catelani, G. 15-123
Cathcart, R.C. 18-213
Cativiela, C. 15-1207, 15-1236
Cattania, M.G. 10-242
Catteau, J.-P. 10-531
Catto, B.A. 18-323
Caubere, P. 10-261, 10-969, 10-1490, 10-1401, 13-67, 13-187, 13-209, 13-221, 14-474, 19-10
Cauci, S. 10-806
Caughlan, C.N. 16-767
Caulton, K.G. 15-1469
Cava, M.P. 2-168, 16-115, 17-435, 18-432
Cavazza, M. 4-127,17-114
Cavé, A. 10-1135, 16-188
Cavicchioni, G. 10-485
Cawley, J.J. 10-506
Cawse, J.N. 10-1882
Cayón, E. 13-52
Cazaux, M. 12-204
Cazeau, P. 12-312
Cazes, B. 15-947
Cazes, J. 14-73, 14-337
Cazianis, C.T. 16-297,18-159
Cazin, B. 14-242
Ceasar, G.P. 2-187
Ceccarelli, C. 3-20
Ceccherelli, P. 10-541, 19-375
Ceccon, A. 10-69, 17-75
Cecere, M. 15-944
Čeković, Z. 14-220, 14-224, 14-225, 14-226, 19-6
Červinka, O. 12-223
Celewicz, L. 18-406
Cella, J.A. 10-1637
Cellura, R.P. 15-1398
Cenini, S. 12-613, 19-765
Cense, J.M. 18-103
Ceppi, E. 1-44
Ceré, V. 4-401,18-591
Cerefice, S.A. 15-13712
Cerero, S. de la M. 11-324
Cereti, A. 15-627
Cerezo, A. de F. 10-860
Cerfontain, H. 8-28, 8-29, 11-172, 11-174, 11-175, 11-176, 11-177, 11-178, 11-179, 11-181, 11-480, 11-481, 11-484, 13-290
Cerioni, G. 3-98
Cermola, F. 15-1157
Černý, M. 16-338, 19-502, 19-591
Cerreta, F. 16-125
Ceruti, M. 16-736
Cerveau, G. 12-462
Červený, L. 15-272
Cervera, M. 13-54
Cesa, M.C. 15-720
Cesare, V. 11-200
Cessac, J. 2-170
Cessna, A.J. 18-24
Cesti, P. 4-163
Cetinkaya, B. 18-651
Cevasco, G. 10-609
Cevidalli, G. 18-413
Cha, D.Y. 15-991
Cha, H.T. 14-425
Cha, J.K. 11-56, 15-1007
Cha, J.S. 10-1416, 10-1423, 10-1424, 10-1428, 10-1428, 10-1430, 10-1433, 16-363, 19-699
Cha, K.L. 12-246
Cha, Y. 5-275
Chaabouni, R. 12-176
Chabardes, P. 12-79
Chabaud, B. 10-858, 13-108, 14-174, 14-175
Chadwick, D.J. 3-48
Chafetz, H. 12-204
Chaiez, G. 12-364
Chaigne, F. 15-1290
Chaikin, S.W. 16-264
Chaisupakitsin, M. 11-353
Chakrabarti, D. 15-832
Chakrabarti, P. 4-245

Chakrabartty, S.K. 12-534
Chakraborti, A.K. 19-244
Chakraborty, R. **15-**169, **16-**268
Chakraborty, U.R. 18-652
Chalais, S. 18-151
Chalfont, G.R. 14-385
Chalk, A.J. 14-353
Chalk, A.J. 15-786
Challis, B.C. **10-**620, **10-**1067, 10-1088, 11-104, 11-143, 11-144, 12-557, 12-566, 12-572, **12-**575, **12-**577, **16-**162, **18-**692, **19-**407, **19-**554
Challis, J.A. 10-1067, 10-1088, 12-572, 16-162, 19-554
Challis, J.C. 10-620
Challis, M.S. 10-981
Chaloner, P.A. 15-548
Chaly, T. 16-75
Chamberlain, P. 15-165
Chamberlain, P.H. 15-15
Chamberlin, A.R. 17-222, 17-223
Chambers, D.J. 14-414
Chambers, E.J. 4-284
Chambers, M.R.I. **13-**161
Chambers, R. 16-925
Chambers, R.A. **10-**1227
Chambers, R.D. 12-99, 13-62, 15-69, 15-71, 15-198, **15-**238, **16-**248
Chambers, V.C. 10-310
Chambers, W.T. **10-**171
Chambournier, G. 15-864
Chamness, J.T. 18-607
Chamorro, E. 15-878
Chamot, E. 2-138
Champagne, P. 19-362
Chan, A.S.C. 15-789, 16-460
Chan, D.M.T. 10-938, **10-**1072
Chan, E.D. 18-235
Chan, H. 4-425
Chan, R.P.K. 10-1450
Chan, T. 2-201, 2-283, 16-684, 18-326
Chan, T.-H. 10-487, 10-742, 10-827, 10-872, 10-885, 10-1474, 10-1747, 10-1949, 16-451
Chan, T.-L. 4-71
Chan, T.H. 12-346, 14-195, 15-1049, 16-75, 16-539, 16-671, 16-686, 19-658
Chan, T.Y. 15-1240
Chan, W.H. 10-1022, 11-86, 17-185
Chanan, H. **10-**1603
Chance, J.M. 2-59
Chanda, B.M. 15-1130
Chandler, W.D. 8-36, 19-435
Chandra, S. 1-76
Chandrasakar, R. 13-287
Chandrasekaran, S. 10-743, 10-812, 10-900, 15-173, 15-174, 15-444, 16-142, 16-270, 19-287, 19-293, 19-400, 19-404, 19-708
Chandrasekhar, J. 5-36, 5-108, 10-16, 10-20, **10-**164, 16-7, 18-2
Chandrasekhar, S. 10-713, 10-1436, 16-667
Chandrasekharan, J. 15-477, 16-332
Chaney, M.O. 12-177
Chang, C. 15-977, 19-282
Chang, C.J. 8-64
Chang, C.T. 13-224
Chang, D.C.K. 10-302
Chang, D.W.L. 7-46
Chang, F.C. 10-2039
Chang, H.W. 2-122,2-158,2-195
Chang, J. 11-86
Chang, J.C. 18-415
Chang, J.S. 16-925
Chang, K. 12-591
Chang, L.W. 11-105
Chang, L.Y. 15-1000
Chang, S. 10-48, 10-158, 15-1069
Chang, S.-Y. 15-833
Chang, T.C.T. **10-**1749
Chang, V.H. 15-738
Chang, VS. 19-226, 19-236
Chang, Y 1-11
Chang, Y.-T. 16-664
Chang, YW. 19-120
Chanon, F. 5-257
Chanon, M. 5-257, 10-75, 10-77, 10-427, 13-40
Chanson, E. 10-1984
Chanysheva, I.R. 10-277
Chao, C.S. 13-224
Chao, D.-Y **15-**815
Chao, I. 10-274
Chao, L. 16-410, 16-557
Chao, YL. 10-1221
Chaouk, H. 15-793
Chapdelaine, M.J. 15-678
Chapleo, C.B. 10-206
Chapleur, Y 15-838
Chapman, D. 15-703
Chapman, K.T. 15-1207, 16-329, 19-64, 19-85
Chapman, N.B. 9-16, 9-19, 10-479
Chapman, O.I. 2-173, 4-259, 4-408, 4-410, 5-313, 7-36, 13-37, 15-1343, 16-911, 18-192, 18-394
Chapman, R.D. 12-581
Chappell, I. 15-546
Chaquin, P. 11-201,15-1255
Chardon, C. 15-1469
Charette, A.B. 10-770, 15-1440, 16-120

Charewicz, W.A. 3-82
Charles, G. **10-**1659, **16-**181, **16-**182
Charles, K.R. 8-101
Charles, N.R. 15-1489
Charles, R. 4-174
Charleson, D.A. 14-179
Charlton, J.L. 7-46, **15-**1187, **15-**1205
Charman, H.B. 12-16
Charnsangavej, C. 15-1408
Charonnat, J.A. 15-660
Charpentier, P. 10-970
CharpentierMorize, M. 10-292, 10-469, 11-363, 18-175
Charpiot, B. 13-199
Charton, B. 14-75
Charton, M. 4-354, 5-59, 9-16, 9-31, 9-32, 9-38, 9-39, 9-41, 9-47, 9-51, 9-56, 9-60, 9-64, 9-68, 9-70, 9-71, 9-78, 9-80, 13-22, 14-75, 15-126, 15-419, 17-86
Charushin, V.N. 13-229
Chase, C.R. 10-210
Chassaing, G. **5-**122
Chassin, C. **10-**1283
Chastrette, M. 10-427, **10-**1190, 16-402, 16-550
Chatani, N. 15-822
Chateauneuf, J. 5-248
Chatgilialoglu, C. 10-1258, 10-1322, 10-1373, **10-**1464, 14-6, 14-7, 15-66, 15-736, 15-821
Chattaraj, P.K. 8-133
Chatterjee, A.K. 10-530, 10-575, 10-581
Chatterjee, B.G. 10-1707
Chatterjee, S.K. 19-558
Chattopadhyaya, J.B. 18-274
Chatziiosifidis, I. 10-1747, 10-1872
Chatzopoulos, M. **10-**611
Chaudhari, B.A. 19-96
Chaudhary, S.S. 10-976
Chaudhuri, N. 5-303
Chaudhuri, P. 3-90
Chauhan, K. 18-526
Chauhan, P.M.S. 11-198
Chauncy, B. 14-326
Chauret, D.C. 10-1674
Chavan, S.P. 10-1494, 16-128
Chavant, P. 16-494
Chavant, P.-Y. 10-1950
Chavasiri, W. 19-308,19-310
Chawla, H.P.S. 15-305
Chayangkoon, P. 4-77
Chaykovsky, M. 10-2006, 15-1452, 16-728, 16-889
Chebolu, V. 14-86
Chechik, V.O. 10-477
Cheema, Z.K. 18-92
Cheeseman, J.R. 4-228
Cheikh, R.B. 12-176
Chekhuta, V.G. 9-48
Chekulaeva, LA. 15-46, 15-245
Chelius, E.C. 5-52, **15-**137
Chellamani, A. 19-461
Chellé-Regnaut, I. 19-78
Chemat, F. 16-59
Chemerda, J.M. 16-29
Chemla, F. 5-123,14-191
Chen, A. 5-88,8-61,8-62
Chen, B. 14-194
Chen, B.-L. 7-43
Chen, C. 11-68, 13-9, **16-**312, 16-489
Chen, C.-T. 8-144
Chen, E.N. 19-274
Chen, F.M.F. 18-587
Chen, G. 5-218,18-296
Chen, H. 15-1009
Chen, H.E. 16-219
Chen, H.G. 16-867
Chen, H.K. 15-716
Chen, H.Y. 18-622, 18-625
Chen, J. 3-1, 10-868, 10-1390, **10-**1726. 19-419
Chen, J.C. 15-438
Chen, K. 4-334
Chen, K.S. 5-235, 14-28, 18-77
Chen, L. 4-146, 15-511, 15-855
Chen, M. 15-977
Chen, M.C. 10-560, 10-596
Chen, N.Y. 11-48
Chen, P. **10-**916, **15-**836
Chen, Q. 10-1519,13-150,14-339
Chen, R. 2-94
Chen, R.H.K. 16-699
Chen, R.S. 2-224
Chen, S. 10-1062
Chen, S.M. 15-789
Chen, T. 5-186, 15-1000, 19-461
Chen, T.-H. 3-3
Chen, W. 13-185
Chen, X. 8-174, 14-249, 19-326
Chen, Y 15-1489, 19-293
Chen, Y.-J. 19-187
Chen, Y.-Y 3-97
Chen, Y.J. 18-296
Chen, Z.-N. 4-158
Chen, Z.-R. 18-638
Chen,Y. 11-264
Chen. M.-F 16-33
Chenard, B.L. 10-573
Chne, A. 13-108

Chnevert, R. 11-48, 11-448, 16-258
Cheng, A.K. 18-526
Cheng, C. **16**-151
Cheng, C.-c. 8-95
Cheng, C.-H. 15-223
Cheng. C.-L. 10-527
Cheng, C.H. 13-147, 13-224
Cheng, H.N. 15-545
Cheng, J. 10-198, 13-185, 14-446
Cheng, J.-P. 1-98,5-212
Cheng, L. 10-283
Cheng, P. 8-94
Cheng, T. 15-478
Cheng, W. 13-175
Cheng, Y. 18-105
Cheng, Y.M. 12-243,12-251
Chenier, J.H.B. 14-29, 14-230
Chenier, P.J. **10**-131, **18**-161
Chens, H. 15-1009
Cheprakov, A.V. 11-224, 11-228
Cherednichenko, L.V. 12-582
Cherepanov, LA. 10-1163
Chérest, M. 4-113
Cherkasov, R.A. **16**-115
Cherkasova, E.M. 10-233
Cherkinski, M. 15-1222
Cherluck, R.M. 16-559
Chermprapai, A. 10-1226
Chern, C. 10-818, 19-66
Cherng, C.-D. 15-833
Chernov, A.N. 15-221
Cherry, W. **7**-18
Chervin, I.I. 4-34, 4-37, 4-40
Cheskis, B.A. 19-63
Chesney, A. **15**-581
Chesnokova, A.E. 16-879
Chesnut, D.B. 2-212
Chettle, S.J. 10-1417
Chetverikov, V.P. 10-1698
Cheung, A.W-H. 10-1322
Cheung, C.K. 16-6
Cheung, H.K.Y. 14-65
Cheung, M.F. 10-594
Cheung, Y. 14-153
Chevalier, P. 18-624
Chevli, D.M. 10-98
Chevrier, B. **11**-293, **11**-311
Chhabra, B.R. 14-170,14-172
Chhatriwalla, A. 16-451
Chia, L.H.L. 4-242
Chiacchiera, S.M. 13-10
Chianelli, D. 13-83, 13-102, 13-163
Chiang, C. **18**-196, **19**-195, 19-209
Chiang, C.C. 2-215, 2-226
Chiang, Y. 2-315, 2-318, 2-320, 2-321, 8-57, 8-101, 10-509, 10-515, 10-547, 11-104, 12-80, 12-83, 15-24, 15-78, 15-187
Chiao, W. 17-27
Chiappe, C. **15**-11, **15**-13, **15**-21, **15**-885, **15**-887
Chiara, J.L. 19-709
Chiba, K. 13-151
Chiba, T. 16-824
Chickos, J.S. 4-393
Chidambaram, N. 15-173, 19-293
Chiericato Jr., G. 19-294
Chiesa, A. 11-352
Chihal, D.M. 18-672
Chihara, T. 10-662, 10-667, **15**-211, 16-136
Chikamatsu, H. 2-57
Chikami, Y. **15**-158
Chikinev, A.V. 11-13
Childers Jr., W.E. 14-212
Childs, R.F. 2-288, 2-290, 2-291, 5-45, 7-36, 15-1375, 18-449
Chilingaren, A. 18-146
Chimishkyan, A.L. 10-1056
Chin, C.-P. 10-424
Chin, C.S. 2-335
Chin, J. 10-220
Ching, W. 16-817
Ching-Yun, C. 16-18
Chini, M. 10-690, 10-881, 10-967, 10-969, 10-974, 10-1201
Chinn Jr., J.W. 5-136
Chinn, L.J. 14-154, 14-207, 14-228, **19**-10, 19-11
Chiocconi, A.A. 10-919
Chiola, V. 10-288
Chiou, B.L. 18-370
Chirinko Jr., J.M. 10-1782
Chisholm, M.H. 19-738, 19-745
Chitnavis, A. 19-76
Chittari, P. 15-1012
Chittattu, G. 10-1410, 14-478
Chitwood, J.L. 10-182, 16-930
Chiu, P. 10-1339
Chiu, R.-T. 15-840
Chiurdoglu, G. 4-215
Chiusoli, G.P. 10-1909
Olivers, T. 5-38, 8-61, 8-62, 12-456
Chizhov, B.A. 19-63
Chizhova, N.V. 16-134
Chloupek, F.J. 10-235
Chmurny, G.N. 12-12
Cho, B.R. 17-91, 17-92
Cho, B.T. **16**-316, **16**-470, **19**-549

Cho, C.-W. 10-1972
Cho, D.-J. 15-1406
Cho, D.H. 10-1322,10-1323
Cho, I.H. 19-90
Cho, I.S. 10-1106
Cho, M.H. 11-467
Cho, S.H. 10-635, 10-747
Cho, Y. 18-237
Cho, Y.S. 10-1329
Chobe, P. 18-334
Chodkiewicz, W. 14-310, **14-**313, **14-**316
Chodowska-Palicka, J. 11-472
Chodroff, S.D. 5-233
Choe, J. 19-214, 19-216
Choguill, H.S. 11-492
Choi, E.B. 17-446
Choi, H.K.J. 5-292
Choi, J. 10-578, 10-1256, 15-299, 15-350, **16-**172, 19-605
Choi, J.-K. 15-841
Choi, K.I. 10-1423
Choi, S. 16-718, 18-143, 18-144
Choi, S.-B. 15-374
Choi, S.-C. 10-1574,18-211
Choi, S.-Y. 14-51, **14-**14
Choi, S.U. 11-278
Choi, W. 16-597
Choi, W.-K. 10-943
Choi, Y 10-748, **14-**160, **19-**314
Choi, Y.M. 16-353, 19-557, 19-583, 19-586
Chong, A.O. **15-**1111, **15-**1118
Chong, J.A. 4-427, 10-32
Chong, J.M. 10-480, 10-1674, 10-1675
Chong, YH. 15-758
Chono, M. **12-**611
Chono, N. 15-847
Choo, J. 4-287
Choplin, A. 10-1732
Chorbadjiev, S. 10-899
Chordia, M.D. 15-894
Chortyk, O.T. 18-281
Chotii, K.Yu. 9-48
Chou, C.S. 19-73
Chou, F.E. 2-344
Chou, P.K. 5-119
Chou, S. 10-1613,10-1614
Chou, S.P 12-363
Chou, T. 10-486, 12-443, 15-1243
Chou, W. 15-349

Choudary, B.M. 11-496, 15-215, 19-95
Choudhary, V.R. **14-**360, **15-**1411
Chounan, Y **10-**212
Chow, A. 5-139
Chow, D. 16-870
Chow, Y 10-235
Chow, YL. 11-163, 14-146, 14-147, 15-945, 19-604
Chowdhury, S. 14-496
Choy, W. 4-120, 16-588, 16-592, 16-608
Chrétien, J.R. 15-96
Chrisman, W. 19-103
Christ, W.J. 15-1007
Christen, D. 4-398
Christensen, JJ. 3-76, 3-80, 3-83, 4-134
Christensen, L.W. 14-289, 15-937
Christenson, B. 15-709, 15-720
Christiaens, L. 10-865
Christian, B. 10-465
Christl, M. 10-366, 18-535
Christman, D.R. 10-2030
Christmann, K. 16-776, 16-777
Christmann, K.F. 16-763
Christoffers, J. 15-576
Christol, H. 10-159, 10-858, 13-108, 15-768
Christophy, E. 7-38
Christy, M.E. 4-171
Christy, P.F. 11-26
Chronister, C.W. 10-388
Chu, C. 12-433
Chu, C.C.C. 12-233
Chu, K. 18-388
Chu, K.C. 12-30
Chu, M. 16-426
Chu, S. **15-**1259, 18-403
Chu, W.K.C. 8-59
Chua, P. 10-770, 16-120
Chuang, C. 15-103
Chuang, L. 14-63
Chuang, T. 19-282
Chuaqui, C. 10-359
chubert, W.M. 11-215
Chuchani, G. 11-34, 11-271, 17-129, 17-142
Chudek, J.A. 16-138
Chuit, C. 10-188, 12-364, 12-462, 15-648, 15-654
Chukovskaya, E.C. 10-1266, 15-970
Chukovskaya, E.Ts. 10-1263, 10-1480
Chumakov, L.V. 15-20, **15-**1137
Chun, Y.S. 16-470
Chung, B.C. 10-1166,13-141
Chung, B.Y **10-**1106, **19-**706
Chung, D.S. 10-18
Chung, E.-A. 10-1972
Chung, F. **11-**500
Chung, K.H. 17-365
Chung, M. 15-1104

Chung, R.P. 10-608
Chung, S. 10-1284, 10-1285, 11-500, 15-389, 19-90, 19-777
Chung, S.-K. 16-664
Chung, S.Y. 9-21, 10-301
Chung, Y.K. **15-**1473
Chupakhin, O.N. 13-131, 13-229
Chupp, J.P. 16-148
Church, D.F. **14-**61, **19-**194, **19-**196
Churchill, M.R. 3-59, **18-**645
Chuvatkin, N.N. **10-**831, **14-**102, **15-**877, **16-**243
Chwang, A.K. 5-76
Chwang, W.K. 10-548
Chylińska, J.B. 19-204
Ciabattoni, J. 2-162, 15-1086
Ciaccio, J.A. **10-**1201
Ciamician, G. **15-**1351
Ciappenelli, D.J. 12-266
Ciattini, P.G. 10-204, 10-1641, 13-208, 13-150
Cieplak, A.S. **15-**118, **15-**119
Cieplak, P. 4-292
Ciganek, E. **15-**1175, **15-**1190, 15-1398, 15-1424, 15-1425, 16-554, 17-208, 18-396, 18-527
Cilento, G. 14-240, **15-**1093, **15-**1095
Ciliberti, L. 16-635
Ciminale, F. 15-715,15-720
Cimiraglia, R. 11-152
Cingolani, G.M. 11-245
Cinquini, M. 4-27, 4-45, 5-122, 10-302, 12-150, 15-1015, 16-636
Cintas, P. 16-449
Cioffari, A. 12-329
Ciorba, V. 2-72
Ciro, S.M. 5-25
Cisneros, A. 19-167
Cistone, F. 10-1253, 10-1379, 15-427
Citterio, A. 11-164, 11-354, 13-200, 14-395, 14-399, 14-403, 14-437, 15-739
Ciuffarin, E. 8-58, 10-2026, 10-2032, 10-2033
Ciufolini, M.A. 2-294, 16-910, 16-916
Ciula, R.P. 4-369
Çizmeciyan, D. 8-173
Clabo Jr., D.A. 2-52
Claesson, A. 10-1272, 10-1663
Claisen, L. 16-643, 18-556
Clar, E. 2-93, 2-109
Clardy, J. 2-293, 12-541
Clardy, J.C. 15-1022
Clarembeau, M. 10-879
Claremon, D.A. 17-388
Clarendon, N.B. 9-16
Clark Jr., B.C. 2-290, **10-**110, 10-112
Clark, A.J. 15-834, **15-**857
Clark, B.M. 16-785
Clark, C.T. 14-204
Clark, D.L. 15-349
Clark, D.R. 10-1883,16-250
Clark, D.T. 2-190, 10-161, 10-186
Clark, F.R.S. 13-221
Clark, G.M. 16-20, 18-168
Clark, G.R. 2-161
Clark, G.W. 4-369
Clark, I.D. 12-39
Clark, J.D. 18-470, 18-558
Clark, J.H. 10-777, 10-786, **10-**1131, **13-**112, 13-140, 13-145, 13-146
Clark, K.B. 1-97, 10-1258
Clark, L.W. 12-502
Clark, M.T. **11-**447
Clark, R.D. 10-1087,17-316
Clark, R.F. 16-240
Clark, R.G. 1-3
Clark, T. 1-1, 2-14, **2-**17, 2-20, 4-326, 4-335, 4-336
Clarke, C.T. 10-1085
Clarke, E.M. 2-322
Clarke, G.M. 18-39
Clarke, H.L. 3-59
Clarke, J.K.A. 15-320
Clarke, M. 18-302
Clarke, M.J. 12-507
Clarke, M.T. 5-135, 5-169
Clarke, R.L. 4-259
Clarke, T.C. 10-253, 10-256
Clarkson, D. 2-4, 2-7
Clary, D.C. 10-337
Clary, D.W. 11-187
Clase, J.A. 10-647
Classon, B. 10-1164
Claus, P. 11-377
Claus, R.E. 19-193
Clausen, K. **16-**115, **16-**118
Clausen, T.P. 10-162
Clausius, K. 18-590
Claver, C. 15-798
Clawson, L. 10-93, 10-402, 16-791
Clayden, J. 13-184
Clayton Jr., T.W. 15-486
Clayton, J.W. 10-190
Clayton, T.L. 15-603
Cleary, D.G. 10-862, 10-1682
Clegg, W. 15-1055
Cleland, G.H. **15-**860
Clemens, A.H. 10-198, 11-101
Clement, A. 15-1085,18-187

Clément, G. 19-678
Clément, J. 10-1890
Clementi, S. 17-33
Clennan, E.L. 14-249, 15-1089, 15-1095
Clerici, A. 14-62, 16-9, 16-72, 19-125, 19-708, 19-711, 19-713
Clerici, L. 19-713
Cléry, P. 12-310
Cleve, N.J 10-595
Clifford, A.A. 14-320
Clifford, P.R. 10-370
Clifford, R.P. 18-137
Clift, S.M. 16-791,16-802
Clikeman, R.R. 4-286
Clinet, J.C. 15-839
Clippinger, E. 10-42,10-51,10-154
Clive, D.L.J. 10-37, 10-1410, 12-194,'14-478, 15-654, 17-239
Clos, N. 15-287
Closs, G.L. 2-156, 4-395, 5-188, 5-267, 5-268, 5-270. 5-305, 12-260, 15-1412, 15-1421, 17-425, 17-427
Closs, L.E. 12-260
Closson, W.D. 10-114, 10-115, 10-117, 17-271, 19-645
Clough, R.L. 4-441
Clouse, A.O. 10-261
Clowes, G.A. 11-287
Clunie, J.C. 16-14
Coates, G.E. 2-136, 5-129, 12-1
Coates, R.M. 10-128, 10-1776, 15-679, 18-97, 18-425
Coates, W.M. 19-61
Coble, H.D. 16-100
Coche, L. 16-285
Cochran, J.C. 11-330
Cocivera, M. 16-219, 17-35, 17-114
Cockerill, A.F. 10-380, 10-500, 16-216, 16-759, 17-3, 17-7, 17-22, 17-37, 17-38, 17-55, 17-61, 17-63, 17-82, 17-99, 17-101, 17-160, 17-195, 17-331
Cockerill, A.F. 19-122, 19-470
Cocks, AT. 15-1340, 17-120
Coe, D.E. 15-1141
Coe, G.R. 12-441
Coe, PL. 19-745
Coenen, J.W.E. 6-36
Coffey, D.S. 12-280
Coffi-Nketsia, S. 10-802
Coffinet, D. 16-775
Cofre, P. 19-305
Cogdell, T.J. 10-115
Cogen, J.M. 5-263
Coggins, P. 12-89
Cogolli, P. 13-105
Cohen, G.M. 15-1317
Cohen, H. 19-270
Cohen, J.F. 10-1750
Cohen, L.A. 19-584
Cohen, M. 19-118
Cohen, M.D. 9-12
Cohen, M.H. 18-578
Cohen, N. 1-88
Cohen, S.G. 14-522, 19-716
Cohen, T. 10-192, 10-382, 10-896, 10-1489, 11-469, 11-470, 12-261, 13-90, 13-218, 13-254, 14-431, 14-482, 14-484, 14-485, 14-486, 15-684, 15-1194, 15-1457, 16-436, 16-517, 17-174, 18-200, 18-479, 19-355
Cohen, Y. 2-278, 10-441
Cohen, Z. 14-155
Cohn, M. 16-15
Coisne, J.M. 12-292
Coke, J.L. 10-142, 17-7, 17-15, 17-17, 17-20, 17-22, 17-23
Colapret, J.A. 16-671
Colard, N. 15-1108
Colb, A.L. 13-162
Colborn, R.E. 15-1466, 15-1467
Colcha, W. 4-408
Coldham, I. 15-626, 18-331, 18-349
Cole, CM. 15-414
Cole, E.R. 14-270
Cole, L.L. 10-401,10-1149
Cole, S.J. 10-1257
Cole, S.M. 15-232
Cole, T. 5-227
Cole, T.E. 12-383, 15-431, 15-432, 15-434, 18-352, 18-383
Coleman III, D.T. 19-774
Coleman, D. 10-1529
Coleman, M.J. 17-280
Coleman, R.A. 15-467, 18-368, 18-369
Colens, A. 10-1239
Coles, C.J. 10-68
Coles, J.A. 5-119
Colins, C.C. 6-44
Coll, J. 10-645
Collazo, L.R. 10-1224
Collet, A. 3-106, 4-8, 4-128, 4-149
Colley, A.M. 13-104
Collier, T.L. 4-111
Collin, J. 10-1105, 10-1928, 10-1983
Collin, J. 16-295, 16-627
Collings, B.A. 6-12
Collington, E.W. 10-1821

Collingwood, S.P. **10-**1164
Collins, C. **18-**611
Collins, C.H. **15-**31, **17-**137
Collins, C.J. 6-37, 10-64, 10-376, 10-380, 10-382, 15-135, 18-1, 18-16, 18-22, 18-40, 18-41, 18-56, 18-92, 18-109, 18-145, 18-147
Collins, G.R. 14-278
Collins, J.A. 18-40
Collins, J.C. 16-39, 19-59
Collins, J.J. 18-504, 18-576
Collins, S. 10-1978
Collins, S. 16-632
Collis, M.P. 18-642
Collman, J.C. 18-649
Collman, J.P. 3-59, 10-1539, 10-1597, 10-1880, 10-1881, 10-1882, 10-1883, 10-1909, 10-1911,10-1912, 14-161, 14-511, **15-**277, 15-786, 15-787, 15-788, 15-1405, **15-**1467, **15-**1468
Collum, D.B. 5-161, 5-168, 8-165, 8-166, 8-167, 8-168, 8-169, 8-170, 8-171, 10-918, 10-1062, 12-213, 12-298, 14-376
Collumeau, A. 8-18
Colombo, L. **12-**181, **16-**623
Colon, C. 13-115
Colon, I. **13-**221
Colonge, J. 12-78
Colonna, S. 4-27, 4-46, 5-122, 10-302, 12-150, 19-450, 19-456, 19-457
Colpa, J.P. 15-362
Colquhoun, H.M. 10-1901, 12-72, 15-272
Colter, A.K. 5-77
Colvin, E.W. 12-307, 12-375, 16-684, 16-689
Comasseto, J.V. 10-856
Comasseto, J.V. 19-681
Combellas, C. 13-46, 13-76, 13-98, **13-**180
Comfort, D.R **16-**187
Comins, D.L. 11-64, 12-295, 12-315, 12-400, 13-230, 16-518
Comisarow, M. 10-605
Comisarow, M.B. 5-73, 10-145, 10-146
Comisso, G. 15-287
Commercon, A. 10-1663,10-1664
Commerçon-Bourgain, M. 15-654
Commeyras, A. 5-67, 10-185, 12-468, 16-69
Compagnon, P.L. 16-57, 16-103
Compain, P. 15-193
Conant, J.B. 10-300
Conaway, R. 11-229
Concellón, J.M. 16-389
Concepcion, A.B. 12-247, 16-294
Conception, J.I. 14-222
Condon, RE. 8-179, 11-20, 11-258
Condon-Guegnot, L. 15-597
Condon-Gueugnot, S. 15-1390
Condroski, K.R. 15-1039
Confalone, P.N. 15-1153
Conggui, Y. 10-638
Conia, J.M. 10-519, 10-1966, 12-126, 15-539, 15-1432, 15-1447, 18-127, 18-176, 18-458
Conlan, D.A. 18-486
Conley, R.A. 15-415, 19-802
Conley, R.T. 17-377, 17-378, 17-381, 18-219, 18-281
Conlon, E.H. 16-41
Conlon, L.E. 10-688
Connell, R. **12-**169
Connell, R.D. **15-**1011
Connolly, J.W. **3-**124
Connor, D.S. 4-369, 10-1487
Connor, J.A. 13-156, 13-159
Connor, J.K. 10-382
Connor, T.M. 1-32
Connors, K.A. 6-42, **6-**51, 6-52, **9-**16
Conover, W.W. 15-1050
Conrad, N.D. 18-538
Conroy, H. 18-541
Considine, W.J. 12-460
Consiglio, G. 4-121, 10-1638, 10-1729, 15-787, 15-796, 15-797
Consolandi, E. 16-636
Consoli, G.M.L. **3-**100, **3-**101
Constantieux, T. 10-926
Contento, M. 15-993, 19-229
Conway, B.E. 14-487
Cook Jr., J.A. 10-145, 10-146
Cook, A.G. 12-223, 12-230, 14-265, 15-1308, 16-45, 16-155, 16-346, 19-30
Cook, A.H. 15-250
Cook, D. 11-310, 17-70
Cook, F. **17-**216, **17-**220
Cook, F.B. 17-227
Cook, F.L. 3-77
Cook, G.K. 17-270
Cook, G.R. 18-498
Cook, M.J. 4-272
Cook, R.S. 11-78
Cook, W.J. 19-69
Cooke Jr., M.P. 10-1386, 10-1879, 10-1885, 10-1960, 15-623, 15-685, 15-689, 16-559, 17-15, 17-17
Cooke, D.W. 15-280, 15-373
Cooke, F. 16-690
Cooke, G.A. 10-601
Cooke, T.W. 17-90
Cookson, P.G. 10-816

Cookson, R.C. 2-171, 15-785, 15-1267, 17-15, 17-413, 18-171, 18-469, 18-668
Cookson, R.F. 8-6
Cooley, J.H. **10**-1228, **10**-1231
Coombes, R.G. 11-26, 11-78, 11-88, 11-90, 11-175
Coombs, R.V. **10**-1776
Coon, C.L. 11-121, 19-421
Cooney, B.T. 2-306
Cooney, J.J.A. 13-184
Cooney, J.V. 10-582
Cooney, M.J. 2-293
Cooper, A. 18-608
Cooper, AJ.L. 16-943
Cooper, C.F. 12-563
Cooper, C.N. 18-22, 18-94
Cooper, D.L. 2-6,2-14,2-95
Cooper, G.D. 12-427, **14**-415
Cooper, J. 14-28
Cooper, J.S. 10-402
Cooper, K.A. 10-323, 17-34, **17**-116, **17**-119
Cooper, M.A. 2-100
Cooper, M.S. 15-1082, 15-1083
Cooper, P.J. 15-88, 15-477
Cooper, R.A. 5-187, 5-190, 10-1524, 12-493, 12-494
Cooper, R.M. 14-333
Cooper, T.A. 10-1476
Coote, S.J. 15-534
Cope, A.C. 4-66, **4**-187, 4-388, **10**-13, 14-24, 14-226, 17-193, 17-198, 17-199, 17-200, 17-207, 17-208, 18-50, 18-53, 18-81, 18-493
Cope, A.C. 19-750
Copley, S.D. 18-540
Coppola, G.M. **4**-110, **4**-412, 10-209, 10-520, 15-104, 15-312, 15-1303, 16-917, 17-328, 18-139, 18-576
Coppolino, A. **16**-617
Corbally, R.P. 4-198
Corbiau, J.L. 14-89
Corbin, VL. 15-716
Corcoran, J.W. 10-727
Corcoran, R.J. 19-47
Cordes, E.H. 10-500, 10-505, 16-42, 16-817
Corey, D.E. 4-143
Corey, E.J. 4-137, 5-122, 10-205, 10-207, **10**-211, 10-535, 10-652, 10-728, 10-730, 10-818, **10**-1176, 10-1196, 10-1316, 10-1541, 10-1544, 10-1557, 10-1563, 10-1598, 10-1599, 10-1601, **10**-1611, 10-1703, 10-1775, 10-1785, 10-1789, 10-1791, 10-1793, 10-1798, 10-1799, 10-1910, 10-2006, 10-2008, 12-309, 14-489, 15-345, 15-577, 15-657, 15-662, 15-690, 15-707, 15-716, 5-0720, 15-723, 15-742. 15-904, 15-992, 15-1004, 15-1011, 15-1014, 15-1067, 15-1094, **15**-1145, 15-1202, 15-1208, 15-1209, 15-1305, 15-1452, 16-121, 16-323, 16-387, 16-464, 16-470, 16-598, 16-607. 16-609, 16-612, 16-670, 16-699, **16**-718, 16-728, 16-737, 16-741, 16-753, 16-754. 16-775, 16-776, 16-814, 16-851, 16-889. 16-890, 17-189, 17-190, 17-263, 17-275. **17**-276, **17**-278, **17**-279, **17**-358, 18-95, 18-380, 18-456, 18-566, 18-579, 19-60, 19-61, 19-272, **19**-296, **19**-359, **19**-366, **19**-411, **19**-426, **19**-708
Corley, R.C. 5-254
Cormier, R.A. 19-537
Cornejo, JJ. 19-144
Cornélls, A. 11-123, 11-124
Cornelisse, J. 13-45, **19**-613
Cornforth, J.W. 4-209, 15-917
Cornils, B. 10-1906, 15-786
Cornwell, MJ. 13-101
Corral, J. 19-320
Correa, P.E. 19-452
Correi, V.R. 19-681
Correia, C.R.D. 15-1299
Correia, J.S. 10-1153
Corrette, C.P. **15**-816
Corrigan, J.R. 19-61
Corriu, R. 11-292, 11-308, 15-23, 15-224
Corriu, R.J.P. 4-24, 10-1419, 10-1423, 10-1515, 11-26, 12-462, 14-378
Corsaro, A. 16-127
Corset, J. **5**-122, 5-250, **15**-561
Corson, F.P. **10**-261, **10**-1193
Cortés, D.A. 2-193, 19-73
Cortez, C.N. 15-408
Cory, R.M. 15-1318
Coryn, M. 16-834
Cosa, J.J. 11-448
Cosgrove Jr., W.R. 3-124
Cosmo, R. 4-441
Cossar, J. 8-54, 8-57, 12-535, 12-539, 16-572
Cossé-Barbi, A. 4-245
Cossio, F.P. 16-503,15-1161
Cossu, S. 15-239
Cossy, J. 10-539, 10-730, 10-1017, 12-198, 15-240, **15**-423, **15**-542, 15-547, 15-1346, 16-9, 16-840, 16-853
Costa, A. 10-759, 18-266
Costa, A.L. 16-474
Costa, P.R.R. 16-638
Costain, C.C. 1-70
Costanza, A. 10-128
Coste, J. 10-159

Costello, A.M. 10-1089
Costero, A.M. 13-36, 16-741
Costisella, B. 16-580, 19-782
Cosyns, J. 15-286
Cota, D.J. **16**-866
Cote, P.N. 18-56
Cotelle, P. **10**-531, **18**-314
Cottard, F. 5-252
Cotterrell, G. 15-716
Cotton, F.A. 1-8, 3-66, 4-308
Cornell, C.E. 2-200, 4-160, 5-154, 18-508
Cottrell, F.D. 4-370
Coudert, G. 10-953
Couffignal, R. **10**-1994
Coughlan, N. 15-891
Coulson, C.A. 2-4, 2-7, 2-8, 2-26, **2**-31, 2-89, 4-352
Coulson, D.R. 13-126
Coulson, J. 11-443
Coulter, J.M. 10-1383
Coumbarides, G. 12-91
Courgeon, T. 12-385
Court. J. 14-73
Court, JJ. 10-1979
Courtieu, J. 14-212
Courtneidge, J.L. **5**-251, 5-260, 12-302
Courtney, J.L. 19-10
Courtois, G. 12-32
Cousins, K.R. 18-573
Cousins, R.P.C. 12-91
Cousseau, J. 15-158
Coussemant, F. 15-23, **16**-166, 16-829, 16-832, 16-834, 16-835
Couto, A. 8-107,8-113
Coutts, I.G.C. 18-235
Couture, A. 16-757
Couture, C. 13-156
Couture, Y. 15-946
Couturier, D. 18-314
Couty, F. 16-376
Couvillon, T.M. 18-81
Covell, J. 18-668
Coverdale, A.K. 10-408
Covey, W.D. 11-25
Cowan, D. 12-446
Cowan, D.O. 7-5
Cowan, P.J. **10**-1986
Cowdrey, W.A. 10-2, 10-600
Cowell, G.W. 17-414
Cowen, K.A. 16-168,16-182
Cowley, A.H. 1-9
Cox, B.G. 6-63
Cox, D. 5-18
Cox, D.P 15-1416,18-110
Cox, G.R. **15**-716
Cox, G.S. 7-32
Cox, J.D. 1-90,1-91,1-95
Cox, J.L. 14-270
Cox, PJ. 4-326
Cox, R.A. 8-38, 8-102, **8**-111, 16-614, 18-604, 18-694, 18-699, 18-700, 18-702
Cox, R.H. 10-1527
Cox. P.J. 10-1753
Coxon, J.M. 7-1, 8-71, 15-121, 15-132, 15-136. 15-1340, 16-384, 17-35
Coyle, J.D. **7**-1, **7**-13, 7-34, 7-36
Coyle, J.J. 5-305
Cozens, F.L. 5-9
Cozzi, F. 4-45, 5-122, 15-1015, 16-636
Cozzi, P. 16-603
Cozzi, P.G. 16-636
Crabb, T.A. 4-289
Crabbé, P. 4-222, 10-1641, 10-1644, 16-370
Crabbé, P. 16-370
Crabtree, R.H. 14-300, **14**-301, 15-284, **15**-329. 15-530, 17-243, 18-648, 19-43
Craft, J. 2-300
Cragg, G.M.L 10-1353, 10-1836, 15-425, 15-435, 16-301, 18-350, 19-503, 19-510
Craig, D. **15**-1171, **15**-1241, 16-687
Craig, D.P. 4-6
Craig, J.C. 10-1447, 10-1450, 18-162, 19-380
Craig, N.C. 15-347
Craig, R.A. 4-347
Craig, S.L. 15-152
Crain, D.L. 18-641
Cram, D.G. 17-97
Cram, D.J. **2**-51, **2**-172, 3-76, 3-92, 3-95, **3**-107, **3**-119, **3**-136, **4**-112, **4**-132, **4**-134, **4**-145, **4**-145, 5-84,5-119,5-121,5-122, 8-13, 8-47, 8-61, 8-62, 10-6, 10-108, 10-133, 10-135, 10-136, 10-141, 10-2029, 12-27, 12-28, 12-29, 12-30, 12-56, 12-62, 12-63, 12-545, 13-164, 15-306, 16-379, 17-79, 17-97, 17-210, 18-12, 18-28, 18-31, 18-35, 18-86, 18-221, 18-222, 19-517, 19-673, 19-751,19-752
Cram, J.M. **2**-51, 3-76, 10-6, 12-28
Cramer, CJ. 4-302
Cramer, J. 19-266
Cramer, P. 15-194
Cramer, R. 12-73, 13-126, 15-517
Crameri, Y. 15-288
Crammer, B. 18-474
Crampton, M.R. 3-39, 8-43, 13-5, 13-6, 13-16
Crandall, J.K. 2-164, 10-1272, 10-1910, 15-1050, **15**-1051, 17-169

Crane, L.J. **4**-122, **4**-139
Crank, G. 14-270
Crans, D.C. 4-173
Cravero, R.M. 2-336
Craw, J.S. 18-558
Crawford, M. 16-703
Crawford, R.J. **10**-106
Craze, G. 10-512
Creary, X. **5**-211, 5-277, 10-26, 10-128, 10-158, 10-293, 10-294, 10-296, 10-303, 10-420, 13-109, 13-196, 14-57
Creed, D. 15-1358
Creedon, S.M. 17-398
Creese, M.W. 17-123
Cregar, P.L 10-1782, 10-1784
Cregge, R.J. 10-1741
Crelier, A.M. 10-261
Cremer, D. **2**-167, 4-337, 4-349, 4-353, 4-424, 16-595
Cresp, T.M. 2-72, 2-246
Creswell, C.J. 3-52
Cretton, A. 2-334
Crews, A.D. **13**-115
Crews, P.O. 2-128
Crich, D. 10-740, **10**-1367, 12-519, 15-843, 18-57, 18-59, 19-266
Criegee, R. 15-985, 15-1373, 18-304, 18-397, **18**-398, **19**-174, **19**-175, **19**-199, **19**-201, **19**-210
Crimmin, M.J. **18**-624
Crimmins, M.T. 10-1322,15-1349
Crimmins, T.F. 10-1713, 18-105
Cripe, T.A. 5-304
Cripe, T.H. 5-212
Crisp, C.T. 18-642
Crisp, G.T. 14-372
Crispino, G.A. 15-987, **15**-1011
Crist, D.R 11-218
Cristau, H.J. 10-858, **13**-108
Cristol, S.J. 10-51, **10**-114, **10**-1164, **14**-498, **15**-113, 15-134, 15-1350, **17**-11, **17**-16, 17-337, 18-63
Crivello, J.V. **15**-143
Croft, A.P. 3-137,17-31
Croizy, J.F. 15-520
Crombie, L. 16-694
Cromer, F. 2-300
Cramer, R.A. 18-560
Cromwell, N.H. 4-355
Cron, S. 19-592
Cronin, ME 6-44
Crookes, M.J. 12-163
Crooks III, WJ. 10-1310
Crooks, J.E. 8-85
Crosby, D. 10-1390
Crosby, J. 4-109
Cross, G.A. 10-1516
Cross, R.T. 19-268
Crossland, I. 16-418
Crossland, R.K. 10-369
Crotti, C. 12-613
Crotti, P. 10-690, 10-881, 10-969, 10-973, 10-974, 10-1201, 10-1687, 10-967
Crounse, N.N. 11-328
Crouse, G.D. 15-1185
Crout, D.H.G. 11-78
Crowe, D.F. 17-357
Crowe, W.E. 16-342, 18-620
Crowley, H.K. 17-398
Crowley, J.I. **10**-1027, **10**-1998
Crowley, K.J. 15-1343, 18-397
Crowley, P.J. 1-86
Crozet, M.P. 10-1476
Crozier, R.F. 15-1153
Cruickshank, D.W.J. 2-96
Crumbliss, A.L. 12-487
Crumine, D.S. 18-675
Crump, R.A.N.C. 4-70
Crumrine, D.S. 16-578
Cruse, R.W. 14-202
Crutchfield, M.M. 19-125
Cruz, R. 4-272
Cruz, S.G. 16-791
Cruz-Almanza, R. 18-197
Cryberg, R.L. 5-329
Csizmadia, I.G. 4-235, 5-105, 10-843, 18-191
Csuhai, E. 19-308, 19-309, **19**-310
Csuk, R. 15-298,16-491,19-701
Cueto, O. 12-328
Cuevas, G. 4-299
Cui, C. 11-413
Cui, W. 4-332, 10-807
Cullen, E. 13-275
Cullen, W.R. 2-200
Cullis, C.F. 19-50
Cullis, P.M. 4-29, 18-302
Culmann, J. 12-48
Culvenor, C.J. 17-298
Cummerson, D.A. 15-1082,15-1083
Cumming, J.B. 8-181
Cummings, D.L. 3-52
Cummings, T.F. 16-186
Cummins, J.M. 12-257
Cundall, R.B. 15-1347,16-56
Cundari, T.R. **8**-177
Cunningham Jr., A.F. 4-376
Cunningham, I.D. 15-553, 16-938

Cunningham, I.M. 12-33
Cunningham, M. 18-282
Cunsolo, F. 3-101
Cuny, G.D. 15-795
Cuong, N.K 19-142
Cuppen, T.J.H.M. 18-434
Curci, R. 15-1074, **15-**1100, 19-10, 19-125, 19-160, **19-**311, 19-464
Curini, M. 10-541,19-375
Curl, R.F. 2-294
Curphey, T.J. 10-367, 12-233, 15-1085
Curran, A.C.W. 15-591
Curran, D.P. 10-80, **10-**1070, **10-**1259, 10-1401, 10-1464, 14-1, 14-68, 15-64, 15-77, 15-737, 15-824, 15-833, 15-977, 16-447, 19-703
Curran, E.L. 10-98
Currie Jr., J.O. 16-87, 18-327
Curriev Jr., Y.O. 10-1785
Curry. M.J. 10-686
Curtin, D.Y. 4-149, 4-154, **5-**119, 17-125, 18-56
Curtis, E.A. 16-559
Curtis, R.F. 14-317
Curtis. V.A. 10-371, 10-372, 10-795
Curtiss, L.A. 1-52, 3-5
Cusack, K.P. 10-2052
Cusack, N.J. 19-520
Cuscurida, M. 10-1335
Cussans, N.J. 10-534
Cuvigny, T. 10-1754, 10-2040, 12-554, 14-178, 17-376
Cuyegkeng, M.A. 4-439
Cvetanović, R.J. **5-**273, **15-**1344, **15-**1353, **19-**197
Cvetkoviá, M. 19-46
Cynkowski, T. 2-292
Cyr, C.R. 12-74
Cyr, D.R. 10-1675
Cyvin, B.N. 2-94, 2-224
Cyvin, S.J. 2-93, 2-94, 2-224
Cywin, C.L. 16-607
Cywinski, N.F. 15-760
Czaja, R.F. 15-53, 15-124
Czarnik, A.W. 10-769
Czech, B.P. 3-82, 10-453
Czekay, G. 19-46
Czernecki, S. 12-474, **19-**61
Czerncckki,S. 10-207
Czugler, M. 3-121

D'Accolti, L. **19-**160
D'Achille, R. 10-1216
D'Agostino, J. 7-46
d'Angelo, J. 10-1759, 10-1770, 12-87, 15-579, 15-580, 15-588, 15-1342, 16-638
D'Annibale, A. 15-627, **15-**1107, **15-**1146, 15-1148
D'Ascoli, R. 19-401
D'Auria, M. 11-230, 15-917, 19-60, 19-401, 19-404
D'Ettole, A. 10-1962
d'Incan, E. 10-196
D'Rozario, P. 10-2031
D'Silva, R.M 17-136
D'Souza, M.J. 10-134
D'Souza, V.T. **15-**1104
D'yachenko, A.I. 5-301,13-32
D'yakonov, I.A. 2-156, 2-165, 18-519
Daasbjerg, K. 8-72, 10-76
Daasvatn, K. **3-**81
Dabbagh, G. 10-1529, 10-1554, 12-433, 16-527
Dabin, G. 10-749
Dabora, S.L. 15-280, 15-373
DaCunha, L. **15-**1221
Dadali, V.A. 10-2050
Dadjour, D.F. 12-39
Daeuble, J.F. 15-1223
Dafaye, J. 17-272
Dafforn, G.A. 10-281, 10-404
Dagani, D. 15-1386
Dagonneau, M. **16-**414
Dahiya, R. 10-1432, 16-25, 16-145, 16-177, 19-53, 19-115
Dahl, A.R. 15-134
Dahl, M. 12-295
Dahlberg, D.B. 17-54
Dahlgren Jr., G. 3-52
Dahlgren, L. 6-73
Dahlman, O. 10-1282
Dahmen, A. 18-417
Dahn, H. **10-**499, **18-**110
Dai, L. 15-481,16-571
Dai, L.-X. 10-693, 10-965, 16-529, 16-537, 16-773
Dai, S. 15-1327
Daignault, R.A. 19-570,19-631
Dailey, B.P. 1-57,2-100,2-187
Dailey, W.P. 4-361,4-364
Dainty, R.F. 11-407
Dairokuno, T. 10-134
Dais, P. 09-52
Dake, G.R. 15-267
Dakka, G. 10-1154
Dakka, J. 10-778
Dal Pozzo, R. 15-720
Dalcanale, E. 14-212
Dale, J. 1-7, **3-**81, 3-82, **4-**215, **4-**318, 4-322, 4-433, 16-423

Dale, J.A. 4-94, **4-171**
Dalessandro, J. 10-1253
Dalgaard, L. 16-700
Dalipi, S. 15-20,15-1137
Dalkiewicz, M. 15-1076
Dalla Croce, P. 10-1085
Dallavalle, S. 19-457
Dallemer, F. **10-1983**
Dalley, N.K. **4-134**, **4-145**
Dalman, G.W. 13-79
Dalpozzo, R. **15-715**
Dalrymplem D.L. 18-537
Dalton, D.M. 16-328
Dalton, D.R. **15-15**, **15-921**
Dalton, J.C. 7-24, 7-36, **7-3** 8, **15-1343**
Dalvi, P.V. 15-1219
Daly, W.H. **16-157**
Dalzell, H.C. 14-457
Damayanthi, Y. 19-639
Dämbkes, G. 16-859
Dambrin, V. 12-235
Damin, B. 15-924
Damm, L. 12-34
Damm, W. 5-208, 14-41, 14-60, 14-32, 14-67, 15-65
Dammel, R. 16-139
Damrauer, R. 5-91,5-306
Dams, R. 19-734, 19-738, 19-746
Dan'kov, Yu.V. 15-9
Danca, D.M. 15-856
Dance, I.G. 3-120
Danda, H. 16-598
Danehy, J.P. 19-697
Danen, W.C. 5-233, 10-74, 15-945
Daney, M. 10-1869
Danforth, R.H. 12-331
Dang, H.-S. 15-502, 15-753, 15-806
Dangat, V.T. 11-217
Danheiser, R.L. 10-1621, 12-173, 15-1235, 18-412, 18-484, 18-485, 19-708
Danhui, Y. 16-509
Daniel, C. 15-330
Daniel, H. 17-204
Daniel, T. 11-191, 11-197, 11-295
Danielmeier, K. 14-487
Daniels, R. 15-79
Daniewski, A.R. 10-382
Danikiewicz, W. **13-241**
Danilova, N.A. 14-462
Danishefsky, S. 15-142, **15-1188**, 15-1195
Danishefsky, S.J. 19-413
Dannenberg, J.J. **10-189**, **18-79**
Danno, S. 14-365
Danova , B.V. 16-105
Dao, L.H. 10-298
Darba, P. 4-445, 10-275
Darby, A.C. 11-233
Darby, N. 2-206, **18-411**
Darchen, A. 12-590
Darcy, M.G. **19-410**
Dardis, R.E. 16-191
Dardoize, F. 10-1781
Dargel, T.K. 15-1438
Darling, S.D. 17-334
Darrin, M. 19-328
Darses, S. 14-434, 14-435
Darwish, D. 17-67
Das Gupta, T.K. 15-1151
Das, A.R. **10-1351**, **10-1951**, 16-276, 16-446
Das, B. 15-390
Das, B.C. 15-1078
Das, G. 16-586
Das, J. 15-1004, 19-400
Das, N.B. **10-1103**, 10-1203
Das, S. 15-585
Dasent, W.E. 15-82
Dasgupta, S.K. 14-363
Datar, R. 16-535
Datta Gupta, A. 19-323
Datta, A.P. 11-314
Datta, D. 9-74
Datta, I. 12-168
DattaGupta, A. **15-1407**
Daub, G.H. 16-646
Daub, G.W. 18-560
Daub, J. 18-527
Dauben Jr., H.J. 2-77, 2-122, 2-138, 14-137, **14-140**, 19-276
Dauben, W.G. 4-355, 4-376, 5-263, 7-32. 10-182, 15-557, 15-1350, 16-76, 16-733. 17-218, 18-392, 18-393, 18-394, 18-409. 18-410, 18-445, 18-446, 18-656, 18-658. 18-669
Daunis, J. 11-317
Dauphin, G. **15-931**
Daus, K.A. 15-152
Davankov, V.A. 4-141
Dave, H.R. 10-997
Dave, V. 15-1382,18-206
Davenport, D. 4-232
Daves Jr., G.D. 14-348, 14-350
Davey, P.N. 15-550, 15-556
Daviaud, G. 15-674
Davico, G.E. 2-24
Davidovich, Yu.A. 10-502, 10-1026
Davidson, D. 10-1089

Davidson, E.R. 2-176, 5-105, 5-239, 5-240, 5-272
Davidson, E.W. **15**-414
Davidson, M. 16-829, 16-832, 16-834, 16-835
Davidson, M.M. 18-550
Davidson, N. 5-227
Davidson, R.B. 4-134, 4-247, 4-352
Davidson, R.S. 12-521, 14-45, 15-1359
Davidson, W.R. 8-159
Davidsson, O. **3**-46, 8-172
Davies, A.G. 4-293, 4-306, 5-179, 5-259, 5-260, 10-698, **10**-816, **11**-72, **12**-302, **12**-329, 12-342, 14-254, 15-551
Davies, A.P. **10**-1164, **12**-518
Davies, D.G. 12-544
Davies, D.I. 10-1530, 14-1, 14-74, 14-76, 15-834, 15-902, 19-264, 19-268
Davies, D.T. 15-1152
Davies, H.M.L. 12-171, 15-1407, 15-1408
Davies, I.W. 15-256, 15-822
Davies, J.A. 10-1909, 15-767, 15-786
Davies, J.E. 3-76,3-120,3-131
Davies, J.W. 18-288
Davies, M. 15-213
Davies, M.H. **8**-122
Davies, N.R. 12-72
Davies, R.V. 16-205,16-516
Davies, S.G. 10-1638
Davies, T.M. 10-283
Davies, W. 17-298
Davis Jr., J.C. 3-33
Davis, A.B. **13**-16
Davis, A.P. 16-479
Davis, B.H. 17-153
Davis, B.R. 19-513,19-520
Davis, C.B. 10-1090
Davis, D.D. 4-103, 12-6, **12**-11
Davis, F.A. 4-26, 12-101, 12-335, 14-180, 14-192, 14-193, 14-194, 16-543, 19-405, 19-456, 19-457, 19-459
Davis, G.A. 16-912
Davis, G.T. 10-1047, 10-1048, 10-1052, 17-67
Davis, H.A. **10**-1343
Davis, J.H. 18-534
Davis, M. 4-256
Davis, M.E. 15-787
Davis, P. **4**-164
Davis, P.D. **10**-1893
Davis, R. **10**-1874, **15**-971
Davis, R.C. 19-369
Davis, R.E. 17-294
Davis, R.F. 18-523
Davis, R.M. 15-15
Davis, S. **14**-107, 19-73
Davis, T.C. 15-1207
Davis, V.C. **15**-1153
Davis, W.M. 18-650
Davister, M. 11-259
Davoust, D. 17-256
Davy, H. 16-123
Dawes, H.M. 3-24
Dawes, K. 7-36
Dawson, B.T. 10-1943, 12-470
Dawson, I.M. 11-403, **11**-411
Dawson, L.R. **8**-199
Dawson, M.I. 10-1612
Day, A.C. 15-1257, 16-207, 16-886
Day, A.R. 16-300
Day, J.C. 14-144,14-147
Dayagi, S. 16-141,19-143
Daynard, T.S. 19-748
Dayrit, F.M. 15-692, 15-693
De Angelis, F. 10-948, 10-957
De Bernardinis, S. **13**-150
De Boer, C.D. 18-513
De Cock, C. 15-1302, 15-1330
De Felippis, J. 4-400
De Giovani, W.F. 19-294
De Jong, F. 3-76
De Kimpe, N. 10-290, 10-923, 10-1480, 12-93, 15-1379, 16-716,19-27
De Lombart, S. 16-376
De Lucchi, O. **15**-1186, **17**-420, **18**-666, **19**-273, 19-784
De Lue, N.R. 12-353, 12-354, 12-355
De Maria, P. 10-263
De Meio, G.V. 12-369
De Micheli, C. 15-1153, **15**-1159
DeMico, A. 15-917
De Munary, S. 10-1221
De Poorter, B. 14-157
De Santis, A. **8**-111
De Shazo, M. 11-37
De Tar, D.F. 6-9, 9-66, 10-217, 14-20, 14-73
De Valois, P.J. 11-489, 11-492
de Avila, E. 15-188
de Boer, H.J.R. 2-53,12-481
de Boer, T.J. **10**-311, 13-61, 16-20, 17-415, 19-770
de Diego, C. 10-1302
de Dios, A. 10-1492
de Echagüen, C.O. 15-1253
de Faria, A.R. 15-1299
de Groot, A. 17-241
de Gunst, G.P. 13-45
de Haan, J.W. **10**-132, **18**-471

de Jeso, B. 2-350
de Jonge, A.P. 10-726
de Jonge, C.R.J.I. 19-10
de Julien de Zélicourt, Y. 2-242
de Kanter, F.J.J. 2-52
de Klein, W.J. 15-756
de Koning, A.J. 11-506
de la Cruz, P. 16-664, 18-271
de la Mare, P.B.D. 2-301, 9-27, 10-1, 10-200, 11-60, 11-113, 11-190, 11-202, 11-215, 15-1, 15-67, 15-72, 15-866, 15-934, 17-67, 17-78
de la Pradilla, R.F. 10-1492, 18-412
de la Vega, F. 11-204
de la Zerda, J. 10-650
de Lange, B. 7-52
de le Mare, P.B.D. 11-5, 11-215
de Ligny, C.L. 9-57
de los Santos, J.M. 16-211
de M. Carneiro, J.W. 5-68
de Manderola, O.B. 16-878
de Mattos, M.C.S. 15-930
de Mayo, P. 2-146, 11-448, 15-837, 16-126, 16-272, 18-1, 18-282
de Meijere, A. 4-349, 10-1299, 14-347, 18-489, 18-515
de Mendoza, J. 16-356
de Meyer-van Duyse, A. 9-47
de Nooy, A.E.J. 19-80
de Oliveira-Neto, J. 16-771
de Parrodi, C.A. 16-470
de Pascual-Teresa, B. 15-1252
de Petris, G. 11-92
de Rossi, R.H. 11-414, 11-448, 13-11, 13-40, 13-192
de Ryck, PH. 12-372
de Sanabia, J.A. 18-108
de Savignac, A. 10-1096
de Souza Barboza, J.C. 15-701
de Souza, R.F. 15-521
de Souza-Barboza, J.C. 12-477
de Souza-Barboza, J.D. 16-368
de Vos, M.J. 16-376
de Vries, E.F.J. 4-81
de Waard, E.R. 12-154
de Wit, P. 11-172
de Wolf, W.E. 2-52, 2-53
de Wolf, W.H. 10-311, 15-1398, 18-533
De, N.C. 15-175
De, S.K. 3-44
De-xiang, W. 15-1257
Deacon, G.B. 12-44, 12-522, 15-1005
Deady, L.W 10-914, 10-566, 10-935, 10-1230
Deakyne, C.A. 3-1
Dean, C.L. 15-20, 15-1137
Dean, F.H. 15-877
Deans, F.B. 11-80
Dear, R.E.A. 11-489, 11-492
Deardorff, D.R. 10-803
Deb, K.K. 3-33
Deberly, A. 16-284, 16-382, 16-462
DeBoer, A. 15-53, 15-124
DeBoer, C.D. 14-142, 15-1347
DeBoer, J.E. 16-38
DeBoos, G.A. 11-122, 11-191
DeBruin, K.E. 15-176
DeBruin, K.R. 15-131
DeBruyn, D.J. 16-92
Deb, F. 18-190
DeCamp, M.R. 18-508
DeCarlo, V.J. 16-884
Dechoux, L. 12-90, 17-170
Declercq, J. 16-716
Decock-Le Révérend, B. 18-519
Decodts, G. 10-778, 17-249
Decorzant, R. 10-1776
Decouzon, M. 19-632
Dedeoglu, E. 11-90
Dedov, A.G. 14-200, 15-392
Deets, G.L. 19-270
Defay, N. 4-61
DeFoe, J.D. 19-631
DeFrees, D.J. 6-71, 8-193, 10-165, 10-166, 10-181
Degani, I. 10-1927, 16-736, 19-592
Degani, Y. 16-141,19-143
Degen, P. 15-722
Degenhardt, C.R. 10-62, 10-196
Deger, H.M. 2-279
Degering, E.F. 19-682
Deghenghi, R. 10-766
Degl'Innocenti, A. 15-659, 16-125, 16-649, 17-172
Deglise, X. 12-598
Degnan, A.P. 15-1276
DeGonia, D.J. 14-327
Degorre, F. 10-356
DeHaan, F.P 11-25, 11-86
Dehghani, A. 12-315
Dehmlow, E.V. 10-437, 10-442, 10-450, 10-583, 10-789, 12-518, 15-1298, 15-1321, 15-1394, 19-180
Dehmlow, S.S. 10-437
Dehn, R.L. 17-357
Dehnicke, K. 4-371, 15-956
DeHoff, B. 10-1616
Deitch, J. 10-1994

DeJong, F. 4-132
Dejroongruang, K. 2-293
Dekker, J. 16-504
Dekkers, H.P.J.M. 4-181
Del Re, G. 2-13
Del Valle, L. 10-1649
del Villar, A. **10**-1648
DeLaat, A.M. 3-37
Delacroix, A. 15-244
Delahunty, C. 9-66
Delair. P. 19-711
Delaude, L. 11-124
Delaumeny, M. 10-1663
Delavarenne, S.Y. 12-352
Delay, F. 10-204,10-1250
Delfly, M. 11-409
Delgado, A. **12**-541, 15-634
Delgado, F. 16-228, 16-877, 19-53
Delgado, M. 18-638
Delgass, W.N. 6-36
Delguzzo, L. 10-94
Delker, G.L. 11-25
Dell'Erba, C. 8-143, 17-54
Dell, C.P. 18-563
Delia, E.W. 4-366, 5-70, 5-72, 10-33, 10-356, 12-519, 14-504
Dellacoletta, B.A. 14-520
Dellaria Jr., F.F. 10-895
Dellaria Jr., J.F. 14-336, **14**-412, 14-423, 15-860
Dellaria, J.F. 12-181
Delmas, M. 10-886, 11-330, **16**-771
Delmon, B. 17-162
Delogu, G. 11-280
DeLong, G.T. 5-169
deLong, M. 15-1494
Delorme, D. 10-653, 16-773
Delplancke, J.-L. 16-446
DeLucca, J.P. 12-252
DeLucchi, O. 15-239
DeLue, N.R. 18-366
Dem'yanov, N.Ya. 4-396
Dem'yanov, P.I. 10-474
DeMarco, A.M. 18-259
DeMaria, P. 8-143
DeMario, D.R. 14-314
Dembech, P. 12-44
Dembofsky, B.T. 4-99
Demchuk, D.V. 4-295
Demchuk, K.J. 8-36
deMeijere, A. 5-75, 5-283
DeMello, N.C. **15**-1039
DeMember, J.R. 5-21, 5-67, **10**-167, **10**-185, 12-219
Demers, J.P. **12**-12, **15**-1155
Demerseman, P. 11-409, 12-326
DeMico, A. **19**-114, **19**-781
Demir, A.S. 14-268,15-577,19-316
DeMira, M. 18-302
Demisch, W.H. 10-130
Demonceau, A. 10-669
Demoute, J.-P. 14-434, 14-435
Dempsey, B. 8-18, 8-137
Demuth, M. 15-1343, 18-670, 18-673, 18-676
Demuynck, M. 16-131
den Hertog, H.J. 13-38
Denekamp, C. 15-1327
Denes, A.S. 16-833
DeNet, R.W. 10-1697
Deng, G. 3-97
Deng, L. **15**-1068
Deng, L.X. 15-825
Deng, M.-Z. 13-178
Deng, Q. 15-540
Deniau, E. 16-757
Denis, G. 11-330
Denis, G.I. 17-102
Denis, J. 2-343, 5-34
Denis, J.M. 15-1432,16-139
Denis, J.N. 12-597, 17-288, 17-289, 17-295, 19-676
Denis, P. 15-520
Denis, R.C. 15-52
Denise, B. 12-453, 16-423
Denisenko, S.N. 4-37
Denisov, E.T. **14**-11
Denk, M.K. 5-281
Denmark, S.E. 10-1206, 15-1076, 15-1437, 15-1440, 16-347, 16-383, 16-473, 16-540, 16-595, 16-625, 18-564
Denney, D.B. 12-333, 14-273, 14-274
Denney, D.Z. 12-333, 14-273, 14-274
Dennis, N. 4-297, **15**-1272, 15-1277
Denniston, A.D. 5-105
Denny, R.W. 14-238,14-246,15-1089
Deno, N.C. 5-29, 5-30, 5-33, 5-38, 5-43, 5-44, 5-45, 5-54, 5-55, 5-61, 5-65, 8-22, 8-35, 8-103, 9-47, 9-50, 10-870, **12**-121, 12-204, 12-597, **14**-48, 14-110, 14-112, 14-113, 14-114, 14-115, **14**-119, 14-163, 18-300, 18-678, 19-244, 19-370, 19-387
Denson, D.D. 17-442, 19-217
Dent III, W.H. 15-1037
Dent, A.L. 15-276
Denyer, C.V. 10-37
Denzel, T. 16-788
DePalma, V.M. **5**-114

Depew, M.C. **5**-258
Depew, R.E. 3-152
Depezay, J. **16**-612
Depezay, J.C. 10-1759
Depriest, R.N. 10-657
DePue, J.S. 10-918
DePuy, C.H. **2**-24, **5**-91, **10**-266, **10**-312, **10**-356, 12-172, 15-129, 15-131, 15-133, 17-8, 17-15, 17-64, 17-97, 17-137, 17-138, 17-167, 17-180, 17-186, 17-207, 17-227, 18-423, 18-426
Derenberg, M. 12-544
Derendyaev, B.G. 18-35
Derevitskaya, V.A. 10-746
Derfer, J.M. 4-347
Derguini-Boumechal, F. 10-1508, 10-1669
Dérien, S. 15-775
Dermer, O.C. 10-478, 10-694, 10-922, 10-972, 14-94, 15-1123, 17-315, 18-481
Dernell, W. 16-518
Derome, A.E. 19-665
Derrien, N. 16-470
Dershem, S.M. 14-57
DeRussy, D.T. 4-160, 18-508
Dervan, P.B. 15-1250, 17-288, 18-488, 18-514
Des Roches, D. 18-124
des Abbayes, H. **10**-1890, **10**-1913
Desai, D.G. 16-293
Desai, M.C. 18-373
Desai, N.B. 16-725, **16**-741
Desai, V.R. 18-65
Desbène, P. 11-201
Deschnes, D. 15-1440
Descotes, G. 18-624
Deshayes, H. 10-1366
DeShong, P. **15**-1153
Deshpande, A.K. 5-295, 10-1284
Deshpande, M.S. 10-1064
Deshpande, R.P. 16-872
Deshpande, V.H. 10-687, 10-755
Deshpande, V.M. 16-288
Desimoni, G. **15**-539, **15**-578, **15**-1272, **15**-1301, 18-549
Desio, PJ. 16-430
Desiraju, G.R. **3**-55, **8**-11
Deskus, J. 10-916,16-510
Deslongchamps, P. 4-298, 10-232, 10-517, 10-1708, **15**-1171
DeSmaele, D. 10-923
Desmaële, D. 15-580, 15-588, 16-638
DesMarteau, D.D. 11-239
Desmond, K.M. 14-142
Desmond, R. 19-379
DeSouza, D.J. 14-421
Despeyroux, B. 15-770
Despres, L. 10-1024
Dess, D.B. 19-73,19-109
Dessau, R.M. 15-896, **15**-1145, 19-266
Dessy, R.E. 5-88, 8-61, 8-62, 12-2, 12-39, 12-441
DeStephano, J.P. 16-402
Destro, R. 2-229, 2-236, 2-267, 13-7
Desvard, O.E. 10-282
DeTar, D.F. 4-328, 4-336, 4-445, 9-60, 9-73, 10-275, 14-384, 14-414
Detomaso, A. 19-160
Detoni, S. 3-6
Detre, G. 17-357
Detsina, A.N. 11-26, 11-82
Detty, M.R. 17-171
Deuchert, K. 19-4
Deussen, R. 15-792
Deutch, J.E. 12-479
Deutsch, M. 19-457
Deutsch, P.P. 5-191
Dev, S. 14-164, 15-305, 16-88, 19-189
Dev, V. 4-406, 17-425, 17-427
Devant, R.M. 16-659
Devaprabhakara, D. 14-454, 15-357, 15-359, 15-444
Devasagayaraj, A. 10-1897
Devos, A. **10**-1164, 10-1239
Devynck, J. **10**-1921, **12**-218
Dewald, R.R. 16-290
Dewar, M.J.S. 1-1, 1-42, 2-5, 2-9, 2-13, 2-18, 2-19, 2-34, 2-89, 2-150, 2-151, 2-178, 2-301, 3-58, **3**-61, 5-272, 6-78, 8-145, 10-150, 10-159, 10-200, 11-17, 15-3, 15-32, 15-154, 15-1245, 15-1250, 15-1251, 15-1260, 18-402, 18-515, 18-559, 18-610, 18-612
Dewey, R.S. 15-344
Dewhurst, B.B. 12-531
DeWolfe, R.H. 10-193, 10-194, 10-286, 10-500, 10-621, 10-625, 10-649, 10-685, 10-1654, **10**-1716, **12**-56, **16**-82, **18**-397, **18**-439, 18-474, 18-491
Dey, K. 12-399
Dey, S. 14-216
Deycard, S. 5-236
DeYoung, D.J. 1-11
DeYoung, S. 15-79
Deyrup, A.J 5-55, 5-65, 8-98
Deyrup, C.L. 10-126, 10-129
Deyrup, J.A. 7-48, 16-720
Dhal, P.K. 15-1012
Dhanabalasingam, B. 15-859
Dhanak, D. 10-1040

Dhanoa, D. **10**-159
Dhanoa, D.S. 10-1939
Dhar, D.N. 15-70
Dhar, M.L. **17**-103, **17**-104, **17**-116
Dhar, P. 10-900
Dhar, R.K. 16-576
Dhas, N.A. 15-1222
Dhawan, S.N. 7-40
Dhillon, R.S. 15-383, 15-425, 15-469, 18-371
Dhokte, U.P. 15-452
Dhuru, S.P. **10**-1274
Di Blasio, B. 8-24
Di Fabio, R. 10-1355
Di Furia, F. 19-456, 19-464
Di Giorgio, V.E. 7-15
Di Silvestro, G.D. 4-36
Di Vona, M.L. 10-365, 19-542
di Maio, G. 2-224
Diab, Y. 19-632
Dial, C. 11-229
Dial, J.L. 11-215
Diamond, C.J. **3**-0111
Diaper, D.G.M. 19-191, 19-192
Dias, J.R. 2-22, 2-90, 2-93, 19-566
Dias, M. 10-1038
Diaz, A. **10**-113, **10**-132, **10**-138
Diaz, A.F. 10-47
Díaz, M.J. 10-848
Díaz-Ortiz, Á. 14-362
Dick, K. 3-117
Dick, K.F. 19-57
Dickason, W.C. 10-61, 10-63, 15-461, 18-354
Dicken, C.M. 15-1153
Dickens, M.J. 10-457
Dicker, I.B. 16-629
Dickerhoof, D.W. 5-136
Dickerman, S.C. 14-73, 14-337, 14-421
Dickhaut, J. 14-41
Dickinson, C.L. 15-72
Dickinson, M.G. 11-257
Dickstein, J.I. 10-284, 15-78, 15-830
DiCosimo, R. **14**-281
Didelot, M. 13-259
Didiuk, M.T. 15-637, 17-175, 18-636
Dieck, H.A. 14-363
Diederich, F. 2-256, 2-295, 3-87, **3**-115, **3**-117, 3-150, 16-857
Diefenbach, A. 16-470
Dieffenbacher, A. **15**-1321
Diego-Castro, M.J. 15-1225
Diehl, W. 16-226
Diehm, M. 4-65
Diercks, R. **15**-1466
Dieter, J.W. 10-1505
Dieter, R.K. **10**-499, **10**-1503, **10**-1505, **10**-1805, 15-671, 15-672, 16-535, 16-555
Dietl, H.K. 10-1756,12-110
Dietrich, B. 3-94, **4**-201, 4-203
Dietrich, C.O. 12-176
Dietrich, H. 5-137
Dietrich-Buchecker, C.O. **3**-150, **3**-151, 19-760
Dietsche, M. 10-730
Dietz Jr., A.G. 13-90, 13-254
Dietz, F. 2-203
Dietze, P. 10-347
Dietze, P.E. 10-50, 10-68, 10-278
Díez, B.R. 10-1555
Diez-Barra, E. 18-271, 10-1068, 16-664
DiFate, V.G. 10-178
Differding, E. 12-98
Dijkstra, G. 10-781
Dill, K. 10-189
Dill, K. 18-79
Dillard, D.E. 10-98
Dilling, W.L. 15-1295, 15-1345, 15-1349, 16-257
Dillon, R.L. 8-41
Dilworth, B.M. 19-786
DiMarino, J.-L. 18-270
Dimas, L. 16-556
Dimitriadis, E. 10-1294
Dimitrov, V. 16-377
Dimock, S.H. 10-1567,15-658
Dimonie, M. 18-621
Dimroth, K. 5-47, 10-414, 10-427, 10-429, **10**-431, **19**-151
Dinan, F.J. 11-440, 17-385
Dinçtürk, S. 14-57
Diner, U.E. 10-1343
Ding, J. 15-132
Dingle, T.W. 2-232
Dinizo, S.E. 15-132,19-369
Dinner, A. 18-162
Dinnocenzo, J.P. 18-486
Dinoi, A. **19**-160
DiPietro, J. 15-760
Dirkx, L.P. **13**-61
Dirlam, J. 10-150
Discordia, R.P. **4**-160
Dishong, D.M. 3-76, **3**-111
Distler, H. **10**-901
Diter, P. 19-457
DiTommaso, D. 16-474
Ditrich, K. 12-325, 16-593, 16-595
Dittman Jr., W.R. 19-531
Dittmer, B. 5-122

Dittmer, D.C. 4-160, 15-20, 15-1137
Dittmer, H. 10-192
Diversi, P. 4-58, 18-641
Dix, D.T. **5-154**
Dix, L.R. 11-125
Dixneuf, P.H. 15-220, 15-222, 16-206, 18-636
Dixon, D.A. 4-197,8-181
Dixon, J.A. 10-1528,13-232
Dixon, J.E. 10-358
Dixon, J.M. 4-302
Dixon, N.J. 10-1666
Djerassi, C. 4-19, 4-105, 15-373, 17-123, 17-297, **19-56, 19-96**, 19-388, 19-539
Dmitrienko, G.I. 2-44
Dmitriev, D.E. 4-295
Dmitriev, L.B. 15-619
Dmitrieva, L.G. 12-582
Dneprovskii, A.N. 14-48
Dneprovskii, A.S. 6-28, 14-65, 14-95, 14-119
do Amaral, A.T. 10-604
do Amaral, L. 16-212,16-216,16-817
Do, J.Y. 18-60
Doad, G.J.S. 16-736
Doan, P.E. 10-432
Dobaeva, N.M. 11-95
Dobashi, S. 15-1090
Dobashi, Y. **4-143**
Dobbs, A.P. 15-842
Dobi, P. 10-428
Dobinson, F. **19-198**
Dobler, M. 2-221,4-39
Dobronravov, P.N. **18-213**
Dobrovolny, M. 2-164
Dobrynin, V.N. 10-478
Dobson, B. 10-46, 10-59, 17-62
Doca, N. 16-884
Dockery, K.P. 18-59
Dockx, J. 10-437
Doctorovich, F. **5-295, 10-1284, 12-398**, 12-403, 16-522
Dodderel, D. 4-268
Dodge, J.A. 10-740
Dodge, R.P. 2-187
Dodonov, V.A. 12-333, 12-390
Dodson, R.M. 18-668
Dodziuk, H. 4-90
Doecke, C.W. 4-375, 10-132
Doering, W. von E. **2-124**, 5-303, 5-306, **5-311**, 10-12, 12-62, 12-172, 12-239, 12-241, 12-250, 15-1250, 15-1330, 15-1340, 15-1415, 15-1422, **18-158**, 18-305, **18-489, 18-500**, 18-508, 18-515, 18-518, 18-524, 19-101
Dogadina, A.V. 16-750
Dogan, O. 10-927
Doherty, A.M. 19-49
Doherty, M.M. 10-113
Doherty, R.M. 3-12, 10-413, 10-416, 10-427, 10-432, 10-59
Dohmaru, T. 19-559, 19-567
Dohner, B.R. 17-28
Döhnert, D. 5-239
Doi, J.T. **10-1164, 19-485**
Doi, M. **10-1412**
Dokawa, S. 16-857
Dolak, T.M. 10-1802
Dolata, DP. 15-1226
Dolbier Jr., W.R. 4-57, 12-137, 15-1, 15-828, 15-1297, 15-1327, 18-127, 18-390, 18-406, 18-428,18-488,18-513
Dolbier, D.W. 15-1327
Dolbier, W.B. 18-468
Dolbier, W.R. 18-397
Dolby, L.J. 16-831
Dolby-Glover, L. 13-143
Doldouras, G.A. 10-1374
Dolenc, D. 12-115
Dolenko, A. 18-693, 18-702
Doleschall, G. 10-735, 10-1447, 19-270. 19-369
Dolfini, J.E. 15-47
Dolhem, E. 10-1888
Doll, R.J. 19-47
Dollat, J. 10-1644
Doller, D. 19-308, 19-310
Dollinger, H. 10-1804
Dollinger, M. 18-515
Dolphin, J.M. 16-683
Domae, T. **16-813a**
Domaille, P.J. 15-812
Domain, R. 8-177
Domalski, E.S. 1-90
Domalski, M.S. 15-612
Domareva-Mandel'shtam, T.V. 18-519
Dombrovskii, A.V. 14-335, 15-860, 15-861, 16-748
Dombrovskii, V.A. 16-748
Domeier, L.A. 4-132
Domenick, R.L. 10-158
Domingo, L. 16-857
Domingo, L.R. 15-1201
Domingo, V.M. 16-893
Dominguez, R.M. 17-129, 17-142
Domínguez, E. 15-661,16-175
DoMinh, T. 15-1321
Donald, D.S. 18-39
Donaruma, L.G. 18-278
Donath, W.E. **4-313**

Donato, A. 16-288
Done, J.N. 10-1530
Donetti, A. 19-280
Dong, D.C. 10-434
Dong, M. 14-147
Dong, T.-W. 15-355, 15-377, 16-439
Dönges, R. **2-146**
Donnelly, D.M.X. 12-387
Donnelly, S.J. 19-531
Donnoli, M.I. 19-457
Donohoe, G. 16-98
Donohoe, T.J. 15-400
Donohue, J.A. 10-625
Donovan, D.J. **5-19**, 5-79, **10-180**
Donovan, T.A. 10-1472
Donovan, W.H. 5-173
Donow, F. **4-142**
Donzel, A. 10-1047
Doomes, E. 17-302
Doorakian, G.A. 18-391
Döpp, D. 18-675
Dore, M. 11-308
Dorff, P. 16-758
Dorfman, E. 18-305
Dorfman, L.M. 5-94
Doria, G. 15-335
Dorigo, A.E. 4-245
Doris, E. 10-933, 12-90, 17-170
Dorn, H.C. 2-300
Dornow, R. 15-99
Dorofeenko, G.N. 16-152
Doron'kin, V.N. 13-244
Dorow, R.L. 12-181, 14-194
Dorr, H. 19-249
Dörr, M. 18-666
Dorrell, F.J. 12-20
Dorsch, H. 4-415
Dorsey, G.F. 10-594
Dorta, R.L. 17-151
Dorwin, E. 13-16
Dosa, P.I. 16-470
Dossena, A. **12-111**
Dostal, J.M. 17-50
Dostrovsky, I. 18-5
Dosunmu, M.I. 10-229
Doty, J.C. 15-1358
Dou, D.J. 10-437
Dou, H.J. 10-437, **14-321**, 14-328, 14-381, 14-382
Doubleday Jr., C. 5-239, 10-1564
Doubleday, W. 16-436
Douek, M. **2-192**
Dougharty, K.W. 15-3, 15-32
Dougherty, T.J. **7-41**
Dougherty, R.C. 1-1
Douglas, A.W. 18-588
Douglas, D.E. 6-38, 16-885
Douglas, J.E. 10-599
Douglas, K.T. 10-607, 10-609, 10-1061
Douglas, T.A. 6-25
Douglass, D.C. 10-112
Douglass, J.E. 11-453
Doumaux Jr., A.R. 14-259, 19-347
Douraghi-Zadeh, K. 16-880
Doussot, J. 10-1109,12-217
Dove, M.F.A. 11-119
Dow, R.L. 19-88
Dowd, P. **10-1877**, 15-540, 15-845, 18-143, 18-144, 18-211
Dowd, S.R. 12-231
Dowd, W. **10-414**, 17-90
Dowdy, E.D. 15-259, 15-535
Doweyko, A.M. 12-152
Dowle, M.D. 15-902
Dowling, J.P. **12-293**
Downie, I.M. 10-1262
Downing, J.W. 4-429
Downing, S. 16-63
Dows, D.A. 4-309
Doxsee, K.M. 3-95
Doxsee, K.M. 13-164
Doyarenko, M.N. 4-396
Doye, S. 13-86
Doyle, D.L. 12-201
Doyle, G. 18-630
Doyle, M.J. 15-1365,18-651
Doyle, M.P. 10-829, 10-1225, 10-1260, 11-209, **12-244**, 12-245, 12-247, 12-248, 13-265, **14-223**, 14-336, 14-412, 14-423, 15-337, 15-486, 15-789, 15-860, 15-1402, 15-1405, 15-1408, 16-38, 16-92, 18-207, 19-88, 19-121, 19-372, 19-531
Doyle, T.D. 18-435
Dozias, M.-J. 16-73
Drgun, V. **18-621**
Drabicky, M.J. 10-497
Drabowicz, J. 4-45, 10-906, 19-448, 19-453, 19-456, 19-458, 19-488, 19-666
Draffehn, J. 9-43
Drghici, C. 15-1318
Drago, R.S. 3-15, 3-44, 8-177, 10-388, 10-432, 19-73
Dragovich, P.S. 10-1350
Drahowzal, F.A. 11-240, 11-263
Drake, B.V. 15-1267
Drake, C.A. 4-447

Drake, R.A. 18-389
Dralants, A. 2-202
Draper, J.D. 10-682
Draper, T.L. 14-346
Drauz, K. 4-111, 10-1120, 19-553
Drechsel-Grau, E. 15-99
Drechsler, K. 15-1298
Dreher, E. 13-255
Dreiding, A.S. 4-38, 12-31, 15-1321
Drenth, W. 6-42, 10-1000, 15-190, 16-937
Dresely, S. 16-382
Drew, G.M. 4-278
Drew, R.M. 16-9
Drewello, T. 19-46
Drewer, R.J. 7-37
Drewes, R. 18-465
Drewes, S.E. 16-480, 16-481, 16-485
Driessen, P.B.J. 10-132
Driggs, R.J. 10-1592
Driver, M.S. 13-118,13-119
Drobnica, L. 10-986
Dronov, V.I. 16-183
Drozd, J.C. 19-237
Drozd, V.N. 10-1722, 13-40, 13-291, 15-619
Drozdova, T.I. 15-944
Drtina, G.J. 10-1201
Drucker, G.E. **2**-113, 09-60
Druelinger, M. 10-1758
Druelinger, M.L. 1-60
Druet, L.M. 8-38, 10-630
Druey, J. 18-324
Druliner, J.D. 15-812
Drumright, R.E. 4-355
Druzhkov, O.N. 12-486
Druzian, J. 10-1063
Drygina, O.V. 15-1153
Dryuk, V.G. 15-1032, 15-1035
Du, C.F. 13-182
Du, H. 10-1505
Du, P.C. **19**-113
Dua, S.S. 10-1937, 13-163
Duan, J. 12-137
Duan, W.-S. 4-338
Dubac, J. 10-1168, 15-541, 16-635
Duboc, C. 10-342
Dubois, J.E. **2**-315, 4-245, 0**9**-21, 9-59, 9-74, 10-150, 10-580, 10-1562, 10-1564, 10-1747, 10-1838, **10**-1959, **10**-1962, 10-1963, 10-2013, 11-10, 12-85, 12-204, 12-524, 14-490, 15-13, 15-15, 15-35, 15-67, 15-96, 16-400, 16-489, 16-588, 17-152, 18-35
Dubois, L.H. 12-476
Duboudin, F. 12-312
Duboudin, J.G. **15**-614
Dubree, N.J.P. 13-234
Dubrova, L.N. 11-427
Dubuis, R. 15-305
Duce, P.P. 10-22
Ducep, J. 10-1814
Ducep, J. 12-262, 12-279
Ducep, J.B. 10-1610, 10-1797, 18-591
Duchin, L. 10-582
Duclos Jr., R.I. 14-326
Ducom, J. 5-149, 12-453, 16-423
Ducoux, J.-P 10-1656
Duddeck, H. 4-389
Duddy, N.W. 10-609
Dudek, C.M. 10-1322
Dudinskaya, A.A. **15**-1176
Dudman, C.C. 10-1449
Duesler, E. 15-1318
Duesler, E.N. 4-154
Dufaux, R. 12-552
Duff, J.L. 10-83
Duffey, D. 18-701
Duffey, D.C. 10-192
Duffin, H.C. 19-338
Duffley, R.P. 14-457
Duffy, J.A. 10-632
Dufresne,Y. 10-653
Duggan, M.E. 16-99
Duggan, P.J. 18-58
Dughera, S. 10-1927
Duhaime, R.M. 12-77
Duhamel, L. **4**-111, **10**-1500, 17-256
Duhamel, P. **4**-111, **16**-153, **16**-154
Duhl-Emswiler, B.A. 16-771
Dujardin, R. 12-439
Duke, A.J. 15-1321, 15-1323, 17-360, 17-417, 17-420, 17-428, 17-434
Duke, C.V.A. **13**-112, **13**-145
Dulcère, J. **15**-1074
Dull, D.L. 4-94
Dumas, F. 15-580, 16-624
Dumont, W. 15-688, **18**-116, 18-200
Dumpis,Yu.Ya. 19-647
Dumsha, T.C. 10-625
Duñach, E. 10-1337, 15-775, 15-839
Duncan Jr., S. 11-275
Duncan, F.J. 5-273
Duncan, M.P 14-180,19-479
Duncan, P. 14-20, 14-384
Duncan, S.M. 15-1221
Duncan, W.G. 15-1327
Dunford, H.B. 2-319
Dunford, J.A. 12-365

Dunitz, J.D. **2-187**, **2-221**, 2-234, 3-36, 4-39, 4-245, 4-257, 4-318, 4-384, 4-385, 05-164, 5-165
Dunkelblum, E. 15-436, 15-439
Dunkin, I.R. **5-175**
Dunlap, N.K. 15-707
Dunlap, R.P. 6-75, 19-777
Dunlop, A.K. **3-125**
Dunn, A.D. **15-1159**, 16-106, 16-204, 16-698
Dunn, G.E. 12-502
Dunne, K. 5-54
Dunne, K. 18-613
Dünnebacke, D. 5-204
Dunnigan, D.A. 10-1697
Dunning, J.E. 17-197
Dunogues, J. 12-312, 12-320, 15-607, 16-473
Duong, T. 19-301
Dupont, J. 15-521
Duprat, F. 14-242
DuPriest, M.T. 10-1815
Duprilot, J. 10-1921
Dupuis, C. 14-368, 19-689
Dupuis, J. 10-1389
Dupuy, C. 15-701
Dupuy, W.E. 10-183,18-48
Duraisamy, M. 5-285
Duraisamy, M. 14-457
Durand, D. 12-603
Durand, R. 19-117
Durandetta, J.L. **10-1825**
Durandetti, M. 10-1581,13-181
Durant, A. 16-446
Durbut, P. 15-1056
Durham, D.L. 14-243
Durham, L.J. 19-201
Durig, J.R. 4-313
Durr, H. 2-42,2-201,5-324,7-37
Durr, R. 15-239
Dürr, H. 15-1425, 18-396, **18-527**
Durrant, J.L.A. 15-971
Durst, H.D. 3-76, 10-446, **16-168**, **16-182**
Durst, T. 4-185, 5-84, 5-103, 5-171, 8-14, 10-2006, 12-148, 12-264, 12-291, 16-670, **16-671**, **16-888**, **16-891**, **18-124**, **19-351**, **19-477**
Dushenko, G.A. 18-449
Dusold, L.R. **17-211**
Dussault, P. 19-469
Dust, J.M. 14-57
Dustman, C.K. 5-84
Dustman, J.A. 19-315
Duthaler, R.O. 16-463
Dutler, H. 18-97
Dutler, R. 10-279
Dutly, A. 11-90
Dutra, G.A. 10-1615
Dutron-Woitrin, F. 19-800
Dlitsch, H.R. 14-61
Dutta, M.P. 19-724
Dutta, P. 10-754,10-1473
Dutta, V.P. 15-921
Duval, D. 15-37
Duval, X. **4-111**
DuVernet, R.B. 2-243
Dux HI, F. 10-1253
Dux, F.J. 10-870
Duynstee, E.F.J. 10-406
Dvolaitzky, M. 10-1253
Dvorak, D. 16-923
Dvoretzky, I. 5-303,12-258,19-251
Dvorko, G.F. 10-21,10-394
Dwyer, F.G 11-48
Dwyer, J. 15-546
Dyadyusha, G.G. 15-91
Dyall, L.K. 5-324
Dyatkin, B.L. 15-71
Dyatkina , M.E. 5-239
Dye, J.L. 15-404
Dyker, H. 10-740
Dykstra, R.R. 5-159
Dyumaev, K.M. 8-175
Dzhemilev, U.M. 10-1648, 15-483, 15-485, 15-525,15-1361, 15-1483
Dzidic, I. 8-183
Dzielenziak, A. 19-91

Eaborn, C. **11-11**, 11-29, 1-41, 11-68, 11-79, 11-80, 12-44, 12-345, 12-399
Eachus, S.W. 2-215
Eadon, G. 19-93
Eapen, K.C. **13-163**
Earl, G.W. 10-283
Earl, H.A. 10-365
Earle, R.B. 13-4
Easdon, J.C. 15-3, 15-32
Eason, R.G. 2-58
Eastham, J.F. 12-266, **18-1**, **18-109**, **18-145**, 18-155
Eastment, P 8-157
Eastmond, R. **14-318**
Easton, C.J. 14-65
Easton, C.J. **15-102**, **15-1155**
Eastwood, F.W. 17-280, 18-570
Eaton , D.F. 7-32
Eaton, B.E. 15-1459
Eaton, G. 12-518
Eaton, J.T. 10-999, 16-68

Eaton, P. **15**-1212
Eaton, P.E. 4-374, 4-376, 4-451, 7-53, 10-34, 11-137, 12-286, 15-1346, 18-64, 18-652, 18-653, 19-423
Eaton, S.S. 4-181
Eatough, D.J. 3-76
Ebata, K. 4-434, 4-449
Ebbesen, T.W. **18**-190
Ebel, H.F. 5-84
Eberbach, W. 15-1371
Eberhard, J.K. 11-305
Eberhardt, G.G. 12-266, 15-500
Eberhardt, W.H. 10-230
Eberius, K.W. **2**-186
Eberle, M.K. **10**-1955, **16**-615
Eberlein, T.H. 10-1086
Ebersberger, J. 11-261
Eberson, L. 6-26, 8-150, 11-95, 14-487, 19-4
Ebert, C. 17-149
Ebert, G.W. 10-1472, 12-466
Ebine, S. 13-129
Ebner, M. 10-1036
Eby, P. 15-149
Eby, PS. 19-748
Echavarren, A.M. 13-213,16-356
Echegoyen, L. **5**-182
Echevarren, E.M. 13-170
Echigo, Y. **10**-1164
Eck, D.L. 17-35
Eckart, M.D. 18-40
Ecker, J.R. 15-1068
Eckert, C.A. 15-1250
Eckert-Maksić, M. 2-293, 11-73
Eckes, H. **15**-1197
Eckes, L. 5-58
Eckhardt, W. 1-44
Eda, Y. 12-520
Edens, M. 10-210
Eder, U. 16-620
Edgar, M. 4-253
Edge, D.J. 18-69
Edgecombe, K.E. 1-29
Edgington, D.N. 10-385
Edison, D.H. 17-6
Edman, C. 16-218
Edmison, M.T. 14-94
Edmondson, PB. 1-94
Edward, J.T. 8-105, 8-141, 16-56, 19-568
Edwards Jr., W.R. 10-1965, 11-298
Edwards, A.G. 10-428
Edwards, A.J. 16-730
Edwards, B.E. **16**-109, **16**-131
Edwards, G.L. 15-1005
Edwards, J.D. 12-244
Edwards, J.O. 10-340, **10**-351, **15**-1074, 15-1086, 19-10,19-125
Edwards, J.P. 15-1437, 15-1440, 16-540
Edwards, K. 15-998
Edwards, L.G. 15-1496
Edwards, M.L. 10-946
Edwards, O.E. 10-267
Effenberger, F. 10-698, **10**-1120, 11-13, 11-121, 11-188, 11-279, 11-296, 11-305, 11-354, 11-406, 13-70, 13-140
Effio, A. 16-219,18-70
Efraty, A. 2-186
Efros, L.S. 2-98
Ege, G. 17-425
Eggensperger, H. **10**-1156
Egger, K.W. 15-58, 15-1318, 17-120, 17-413
Eggerding, D. 2-286
Eggers, M.D. 10-303
Eggestad, J. 3-82
Egli, H. 14-171
Egli, M. 4-132
Egli, R.A. 11-503, 16-355
Egly, J. 10-1185
Egorochkin, A.N. 3-30, 9-20
Egorov, M.P. 13-5
Eguchi, K. **10**-1306
Eguchi, S. 10-1532
Ehler, D.F. 19-589
Ehlers, J. 4-143
Ehmann, W.J. 15-333
Eholzer, U. 17-399
Ehrenberg, M. 1-66
Ehrenkaufer, R.E. 16-174, **19**-610
Ehrenson, S. 9-37, 9-47, **9**-51, 9-54
Ehrlich, S. 15-79
Eibach, F. 19-23
Eichel, W. 15-99
Eichelmann, H. 10-905
Eichenauer, H. **4**-116, 16-603
Eicher, T. 2-164, 4-408, 16-366
Eichhorn, 1. 16-71
Eidenschink, R. 15-1292
Eidus, Ya.T. 10-1902, 12-603, 15-767, 18-352
Eierdanz, H. 15-93
Eigen, M. 8-86
Eigenmann, E.W. **17**-115
Eigenmann, H.K. 14-42
Eilbracht, P. 15-258, 15-792
Eilers, F. 10-1662
Eimer, J. 15-1425, 18-396
Einhorn, C. 10-457, 10-1201, 15-168, 16-509, 19-79

Einhorn, J. **10**-457, 12-326, 15-168, 16-509, 16-559, 19-79
Einstein, F.W.B. 2-200
Eis, M.J. 10-1686
Eisch, J.J. 11-190, 12-1, 15-348, 15-482, **15**-491, 15-613, 15-614, 15-1467, 15-1468, 16-147, 16-389, 18-334, 18-347
Eisele, G. 10-1659
Eisenberg, C. 16-470
Eisenberg, R. 5-191
Eisenbraun, E.J. 16-569, 19-285, 19-286
Eisenhardt, W. 16-912
Eisenschmid, T.C. 5-191
Eisenstein, O. 1-48, 10-352, 15-1469, 16-335
Eisenthal, R. 14-167,19-336
Eissenstat, M.A. 10-1776
Eiter, K. 17-245, 17-247
Ejiri, E. **2**-244, **2**-251, **2**-252
Eklund. L. 15-1237
Eksterowicz, J.E. 14-41
Ekwurieb, N.N. 10-1447
El Ali, B. 12-613,15-773,15-781
El Gharbi, R. **16**-771
El Idrissi, M. 19-209
El Kaim, L. 19-687
El Zaizi, A. 11-498
El'yanov, B. 15-546
El-Alaoui, M. **2**-315, **10**-510, **15**-200
El-Bassiouny, F.A. 16-648
El-Bouz, M. 15-687, 15-688
El-Din. A.M.N. 11-156
El-Din, G.N. 16-733
El-Dusouqui, O.M.E. 11-26
El-Fekky, T.A. 10-1908
El-Khrisy, E.A.M. 16-118
El-Mowafy, A.M. 10-1380
El-Nasr, M.M.S. 5-304
El-Newaihy, M.F. 16-648
El-Sayed, M.A. 7-23
El-Telbany, F. 19-560
Elad, D. 11-448, 15-49, 15-753, 15-754
Elam, E.U. 16-908
Elbl, K. 3-25
Eldin, S. 5-98, 12-59
Elemes, Y. 14-248, 14-250
Eleveld, M.B. 12-91,16-379
Elgendy, S. 12-212
Elguero, J. 2-346, **8**-12, **8**-186, **10**-1302
Elia, R.J. 10-192
Elian, M. 15-1318
Eliason, R. **10**-513, **10**-547
Eliel, E.L. 1-86, 4-1, 4-15, 4-19, 4-87, 4-88, **4**-102, **4**-111, **4**-112, **4**-114, **4**-128, **4**-129, **4**-206, **4**-209, **4**-213, **4**-215, **4**-217, **4**-224, **4**-255, **4**-275, **4**-281, **4**-289, **4**-291, **4**-292, **4**-294, **4**-296, **4**-297, 4-307, 4-312, 4-357, **5**-114, 6-40, 9-14, 10-93, 10-1342, 14-13, 14-329, 16-5, 16-336, 16-382, 17-67, 19-570
Eliev, S. 16-335
Elinson, M.N. 12-540
Eliseenkov, E.V. 6-28, 14-95
Elix, J.A. 2-224, 2-273, 18-303
Elkik, E. 16-707
Ellenberger, S.R. 15-1022
Ellencweig, A. 4-301
Ellestad, K.E. **15**-621
Ellingboe, J.W. 16-588
Ellinger, C.A. 10-951
Elliott, J.D. 10-1085
Elliott, R.C. 14-336, 15-860
Elliott, R.L. 2-226
Elliott, S.P. 15-1317,15-1329
Ellis, G.P. 13-155
Ellis, J.E. 16-617
Ellis, R.J. 16-685, 16-688
Ellis, W.W. 16-838
Ellison, F.O. 1-2
Ellison, G.B. 2-24, **5**-116, 10-475, **17**-118
Ellison, J.J. 5-157
Ellsworth, E.L. 10-1552, 10-1560, 10-1567, 15-487, **15**-658, **15**-669
Ellzey Jr., M.L. 2-101
Elmasmodi, A. 18-314
Elmore, S.W. 18-494
Elmorsy, S.S. **10**-1117
Elofson, R.M. 12-559, 14-325, 14-332
Elphimoff-Felkin, I. **10**-1311
Elschenbroich, C. 5-129
Elsenbaumer, R.L. 16-423
Elsevier, C.J. **10**-1556, **10**-1622
Elsinger, F. 10-1218
Elsom, L.F. 14-444, 14-445
Elson, I.H. 14-28
Elvidge, J.A. 11-107,16-200
Elworthy, T.R. 10-1619, 15-744
Emami, R. 12-68
Emerson, G.F. 2-188
Emerson, M.T. 3-7
Emerson, T.R. 16-149
Emery, E.M. 19-631
Emmons, W.D. **15**-1033, **16**-747, **18**-298, **19**-418
Emrani, J. **18**-561, **18**-562
Emrich, R. **4**-371
Emsley, J. 3-8, 3-24, 3-34, 10-786, 10-1244, 16-250
Enami, H. 12-420

Enayat, E.I. 16-648
Encarnación, L.A.A. 15-1097
Encina, M.V. 7-39
Enda, J. 14-343
Endate, K. **10**-1605
Enders, D. 4-116, 10-1757, 10-1758, 10-1808, 14-194, 15-577, 15-747, 15-1044, 16-531, 16-603, 16-612, 16-660, 8-544, **19**-649
Endo, K. 2-244
Endo, M. 10-1607, 15-994
Endo, R. 4-177
Endo, T. **15**-1056, **19**-703
Endo, Y. 4-226
Engbert, T. 10-311
Engberts, J.B.F.N. 2-338, 10-429, 10-1408, 14-476, 15-1228, 15-1229, 15-1232, 15-1234, 19-685
Engdahl, C. **18**-9
Engel, C.R. 10-766
Engel, J. 4-223
Engel, P.S. 5-244, 5-249, 7-29, 14-50, 14-107, 17-426
Engelking, P.C. **5**-116, 5-320
Engelsma, J.W. 14-94
Engenito Jr., J.S. 11-169
England, D.C. **15**-811, **16**-250
England, W.P. 18-507
Engler, E.M. 10-280, 18-103
English Jr., J. 17-347
Engman, A.M. 19-532
Engman, L. 15-853, 17-330
Enholm, E.J. 15-596, 16-537, 19-726
Enikolopiyan, N.S. 10-478
Enisov, E.T. 14-197
Enkelmann, V. **11**-291
Enomoto, K. 16-112
Enomoto, M. 12-67
ensen, F.R. 12-12
Ensley, H. **12**-199
Entelis, S.G. 16-97
Entreken, E.E. 19-586
Entwistle, I.D. **10**-1421, **15**-365, **19**-602, **19**-615, 19-622
Epa, W.R. **14**-181, 14-377, 15-196
Ephritikhine, M. 19-746
Epifano, F. 10-541, 19-375
Epiotis, N.D. 5-105, **15**-1194, 15-1257
Epling, G.A. 11-503, 15-402
Epple, G. 11-296
Eppley, R.L. 13-232
Epshtein, L.M. 3-11,8-175
Epstein, W.W. 19-351
Erashko, V.I. 10-467
Erdik, E. 10-1506, 12-373, 12-428
Erdman, J. 10-465
Erfort, U. 15-757
Erhardt, J.M. 10-1684
Erickson, A.S. 10-1720
Erickson, B.W. 10-535, 10-1026
Erickson, G.W. 10-1758
Erickson, J.A. 15-1346
Erickson, K.C. 10-745
Erickson, M.S. 2-299
Erickson, R.E. 16-39
Erickson, W.F. 15-612, 18-328
Eriks, K. 5-77
Erikson, C.M. 8-50
Eriksson, M. 10-1541, 10-1558
Eriksson, S.O. 10-624
Erivanskaya, L.A. 13-149
Eriyama, Y. 1-11
Erker, G. **16**-159
Erlandsson, P. 4-143
Erman, W.F. 10-268, 18-89
Ermanson, A.V. 12-372
Ermer, O. 2-176, 2-243, 4-326, 4-435
Ermolaev, V.L. 7-27
Ernst, A.B. 15-1145
Ernst, B. 10-1164
Ernst, T.D. 11-159
Ershov, B.A. 18-117
Ershov, V.V. 2-342, 2-344, 11-13, 18-154
Ertas, M. 16-588
Erykalov, Yu.G. 11-490
Érzyutova, E.I. 14-303
Esashi, Y. **10**-1318, **10**-1319
Escale, R. 2-352
Eschenmoser, A. 4-34, 4-39, 10-15, 10-794, 10-1218, 10-1294, 12-34, 15-505, **15**-1151, **16**-188, **16**-190, **17**-350, **17**-357, **17**-359. **19**-120
Eschner, M. **10**-414
Escribano, A. 19-562
Escudié, J. 1-9
Eshghi, H. 11-408
Eskenazi, C. 15-1074
Eskew, N.L. 10-947
Espejo de Ochoa, O. **18**-291
Espenson, J.H. 10-674, 12-12, 12-14, 19-55, 19-158, 19-313, 19-439
Espín, M. 13-54
Esteve Jr., R.M. 12-512
Eswarakrishnan, V. 12-276, 17-305
Etemad-Moghadam, G. 15-575
Etheredge, S.J. 10-1750
Ethiraj, K.S. 10-1494
Etlis, V.S. 15-1169

Eto, M. 15-544
Etter, J.B. 16-387, 16-496
Etter, M.C. 3-18, 3-28, 4-154
Etzemüller, J. **15-**1151
Eudy, N.H. 16-339
Eulenberger, A. 15-1394
Euler, K. 18-536
Euranto, E.K. 10-587, 10-595, **10-**611
Eustace, S.J. 12-293
Eustathopoulos, H. 14-333
Evain, E.J. 10-1228, 10-1231
Evans Jr., E.A. 4-209, 10-680, 10-947
Evans. A.C. 2-258
Evans. B.J. 19-485
Evans. C.A. 5-181
Evans, CM. 10-232
Evans, D.A. 10-1752, 10-1813, 12-174, 12-181, 14-194, 15-380, 15-471, 15-473, 15-480, 15-1007, 15-1207, 15-1209, 15-1407, 16-91, 16-296, 16-329, 16-576, 16-581, 16-587, 16-589, 16-592, 18-497, 18-601
Evans. D.F. 5-148
Evans. E. **10-**188
Evans, E.A. 10-1974, 11-107
Evans, F.E. 4-319
Evans. G.L. 16-130
Evans, G.R. 15-1255
Evans. J.C. 5-13
Evans. M.B. **10-**861
Evans. P.A. 18-257
Evans. P.A. 19-36
Evans. R.D. 15-876, 19-402
Evans. R.J. 19-256
Evans. S.A. 4-297
Evans, S.V. 4-115
Evans. W.D. 14-97
Evans, W.G. 3-45
Evans. W.J. **2-**211
Evans, W.L. 5-61, **8-**103
Evanseck, J.D. 10-19
Everaere, K. 16-326
Everett, J.R. 4-276
Everly, C.R. 14-27
Evers, M. 10-864, 10-865
Evstigneeva, R.P. 19-805
Evtushenko, N.Yu. 10-394
Ewing, D.F. **9-**19
Ewing, G.J. 10-522
Exner, J.H. 12-289
Exner. O. 1-34, 1-35, 1-42, 2-48, 8-145, 9-16, 9-20, 9-40, 18-247
Eyer, M. 16-651
Eyman, D.P. 10-1423
Eymann, W. 10-249
Eyring, H. **4-**102, 4-222
Ezhaya, A. 19-280
Ezquerra, J. 19-562

Faber, D.H. 4-326
Fabian, J. 7-3
Fabian, M.A. 4-306
Fabian, W. **2-**182
Fabiano, E. 10-945
Fabienke, E. 10-2043
Fabre, A. 14-302
Fabre, C. 12-556
Fabre, P. **12-**218
Fabricius, D.M. 18-500
Faburada, A.L. 10-465
Facelli, J.C. 2-178
Fache, F. 10-648,10-1071
Fadel, A. 19-756
Fadel, R. 15-384
Fagan, J.F. 10-46, 10-59
Fagan, M.W. 1-86
Fagan, P.J. 15-529
Fager, J.H. 19-270
Fagerli, A.K. 2-355
Faghih, R. 4-171
Fahey, R.C. 6-82, 15-2, 15-4, 15-12, 15-18, 15-29, 15-30, 15-32
Fähndrich, B. 15-1409
Fahrenholtz, S.R. 14-21, 17-88
Faid-Allah, H. 16-204
Fain, D. 12-529, 10-150
Fainberg, A.H. 10-42, 10-51, 10-403, **10-**414
Fainzil'berg, A.A. 5-267, 10-467
Fairlie, D.P. 15-762, 19-772
Fairlie, J.C. 10-1283
Faita, G. 15-539, 18-549
Fajer, J. 11-238
Fajgar, R. 19-202, 19-219
Fakultatea, K. 16-503
Falbe, J. 15-767, 15-778
Falck, J.R. 10-1874, 15-201, 16-667, 16-894
Falk, F. **17-**146
Falkehag, I. 19-134
Fall, M.J. 15-1407
Fallah, A. 15-261
Faller, J.W. 15-300
Faller, P. 19-64
Fallis, A.G. 10-2005, **15-**1106, **15-**1171, 15-1202, **15-**1239
Familoni, O.B. **10-**1573
Fan, D. **16-**510
Fan, D.-p. 10-916

Fan, H. 15-1385
Fan, K. 15-543
Fan, R. 16-917, 19-323
Fan, W.-Q. 11-62
Fan, X. 16-463
Faiianas, F.J. 12-285
Fancelli, D. 13-200
Fang, J. 19-282
Fang, J.-M. 19-703
Fanta, RE. 10-2047, 13-214
Fantin, G. 19-116
Fantoni, A.C. 3-27
Fanwick, P.E. 15-549
Faraci, G. 11-206
Farah, B.S. 16-234
Frcaşiu, D. 5-11, 5-20, 5-26, 6-20, 10-26, 10-68, 11-12, 18-46, 18-52
Farcasiu, M. 18-103
Farid, S. 7-46, 15-1358
Farina, M. 4-1
Farina, V. 14-372, 14-374, 15-654
Farinola, G.M. 13-177
Farkas, L.V. 10-1086
Farley, E.N. 2-274
Farmer, M.L. 15-250
Farneth, W. 7-18
Farnetti, E. 16-288
Farng, L.O. 10-2034
Farnham, W.B. 10-170, 12-495, 18-656
Farnoux, C.C. 16-199
Farnum, D.G. 2-157, 5-78, 10-162, 10-168, 10-171, 15-1298, 16-908
Farooq, O. 11-336, 12-218, 14-130, 17-155, 18-102
Farooq, S. 10-15
Farooqi, J.A. 11-462
Farquhar, D. 2-265
Farrall, M.J. 16-891
Farrant, G.C. 15-1488
Farrar, A.C. 12-329
Farrar, W.V. 16-140
Farrell, P.G. 11-13, 17-62
Farrington, G. 7-36
Farthing, C.N. 16-730
Fasel, J. 18-668
Fassberg, J. 10-240
Fastabend, U. 15-1298
Fataftah, Z.A. 4-443
Fatiadi, A.J. 3-72, 10-716, 10-1692, 10-1864, 15-70, 15-986, 19-10, 19-164
Fatiadi, K. 17-363
Fatland, A.W. 15-1459
Fattuoni, C. 1-0100
Faubl, H. 4-424
Faul, M.M. 15-1407
Faulconer, J.M. 12-578
Faulkner, D.J. 18-560
Faulks, S.J. 12-522
Faunce, J.A. 16-603
Faust, R. 2-23
Faustini, F. 10-1221
Fauth, D.J. 15-283
Fauvarque, J. 12-453, 16-417, 16-423
Fava, A. 2-69, 4-401, 10-69, 10-2026, 15-1451, 18-591
Favero, L. 10-967, 10-973, 10-974, 10-1687
Favini, G. 10-242
Favorskii, A. 18-146
Favre, A. 10-730
Favreau, D. 19-574
Fay, J.N. 15-1231
Fazakerley, V. 5-148
Feast, W.J. 18-621
Feaster, J.E. 16-343
Featherman, S.I. 1-86
Fedder, J.E. 10-1092
Fedenok, L.G. 14-320
Fedin, V.P. 2-131
Fedor, L.R. 10-222, 10-227, 15-175, 17-44, 17-45, 17-50
Fedorov, B.S. 15-860
Fedorova, A.V. 15-194
Fedorovich, A.D. 18-439, 18-461
Fedorynski, M. 10-437
Fedoryński, M. 10-1695
Fedrick, J.L. 13-59
Feeder, N. 4-386
Feely, W. 17-166
Fehlner, J.R. 14-122
Fehlner, T.P. 15-426
Fehnel, E.A. 10-861
Fehr, C. 10-1961,12-317
Feig, G. 14-274
Feigel, M. 10-43
Feigl, F. 11-486
Feigon, J.F. 11-25
Feiler, L.A. 15-1305, 15-1306, 15-1320, 15-1324,15-1333
Feit, B. 5-119
Feit, I.N. 17-81, 17-90, 17-99, 17-114
Feitler, D. 10-1011
Fel'dblyum, V.Sh. 15-513
Feld, D. 18-591
Felder, M. 16-350
Felder, P. 5-265
Feldman, D. 10-439

Feldman, J. 18-650
Feldmann, R. 15-1488
Felici, M. 15-705
Felix, D. 4-34, 12-34, 15-772, 15-1151, 17-357, 17-359
Felix, S. 10-753
Felker, D. **16-813**
Felkin, H. 4-113, 4-137, 10-188, 10-1638, 15-613, 15-619, 18-343, 19-43, 19-623
Fell, B. 12-349, 12-427, 15-791, 15-794
Fellenberger, K 10-1669, 18-429, 18-594
Fellmann, J.D. 10-957
Fellmann, P. 16-588
Fellous, R. 9-75
Fellows, C.A. 12-408
Felt, G.R. 10-61, 10-63
Feltkamp, H. 4-218
Feltman, T.L. 11-275
Felton, S.M. 10-1049
Feng, M.S. 6-70
Feng, R.H.C. 14-24
Feng, S.-Q. 10-930
Feng, X. 16-463
Fenichel, L. 15-577
Fenoglio, D.J. 4-245
Fenselau, A.H. 19-98
Fentiman Jr., A.F. 10-121
Fentiman, A. 11-430
Fenton, D.M. 15-770
Fenton, S.W. 14-24
Fenwick, A. 16-928
Fenwick, J. 18-189
Fenzl, W. 15-725
Feoktistov, L.G. 10-1269,16-285
Ferappi, M. 11-245
Ferber, P.H. **10-115**, **10-150**
Ferguson, C.P. 1-86
Ferguson, D.C. 16-266
Ferguson, G. 2-50,3-104
Ferguson, J.W. 18-36
Ferguson, L.N. 19-254
Ferguson, R. 18-685, 18-686
Ferguson, R.R. 14-301, 15-530
Fergusson, S.B. 10-1925
Feringa, B.L. 4-170, 7-52, 15-567, 19-324
Ferland, J.M. 19-568
Fernandes, E. 18-526
Fernandez, I. 19-683
Fernández, E. 15-790
Fernandez, I. 15-1209
Fernandez, J.M. **16-819**
Fernandez, K.M. 16-470
Fernandez, R. 19-159
Fernández, S. 19-167
Fernandez-Picot, I. 14-492
Fernández-Simón, J.L. 16-389
Fernelius, W.C. 4-87
Fernholt, L. 2-28, 3-40, 4-233, 4-256
Ferraboschi, P. 19-586
Ferrand, E.F. 10-474
Ferrara, D.M. 11-86
Ferraz, H.M. 18-177
Ferraz, H.M.C. 15-219
Ferreira, A.B. 18-668
Ferreira, J.T.B. **10-856**, **19-681**
Ferreiro, M.J. 4-97
Ferrell, T.M. 19-215
Ferrer, M. 19-222
Ferrer, P. 16-741
Ferreri, C. 10-1202, 10-1322, 10-1464, 14-6, 15-66, 16-75
Ferrero, L. 19-632
Ferrier, B.M. 18-524
Ferrieri, R.A. 14-35
Ferrini, P.G. 17-422
Ferris, A.F. 16-357, 17-380, 17-384
Ferris, D.C. 8-177, 10-388
Ferris, J.P. 12-511,16-825
Fersht, A.R. 10-234, 10-566
Ferstandig, L.L. 3-47
Fessenden, R. 10-1945
Fessenden, R.W. 2-78, **5-227**, 5-234
Fessner, W. 5-74, 15-1340, 19-49
Fetzer, U. 17-399
Feuer, B.I. 12-185
Feuer, H. 10-633, 10-671, 10-979, 14-289, 16-49, 16-351, 19-619, 19-625
Feuer, J. 15-1194,15-1256
Feutrill, G.I. 10-866
Fevig, T.L. 10-1259, 15-737
Fey, P. 10-1758
Feyen, P. 18-19
Feytmants-de Medicis, E. 16-40
Fiandanese, V. 10-1510, 10-1535, 10-1957, 10-1962, 10-1962, 13-177, 17-31, 17-54
Fiaschi, R. 16-237
Fiaud, J. 10-1649
Fiaud, J.C. 4-111,4-157
Fibiger, R. **10-1112**, 15-269
Fichter, K.C. 15-482
Ficini, J. 15-1342, 18-569
Fickes, G.N. 15-1193
Fidler, J. 4-104, 15-287
Fiedler, C. 15-1489
Fiedler, P. 1-42
Field, F.H. 10-164

Field, K.W. 10-382
Field, L. 16-85, 18-273
Field, L.D. 12-49, **12**-218, 18-218, 19-658
Fields, D.B. 15-884
Fields, D.L. 10-971
Fields, E.K. **12**-243, **13**-32, **15**-1190
Fields, J.D. 18-708
Fields, K.W. **10**-1980, 12-272, **18**-194
Fields, R. 18-137
Fields, T.R. 18-445
Fierz, H.E. 11-31
Fieser, L.F. 10-553, 10-1270, 15-893, 17-250, 19-52,19-514
Fieser, M. **10**-553, **15**-893, **17**-250, **19**-52, **19**-514
Fife, T.H. 10-509, **10**-510, **10**-511, **10**-512, 10-513, 10-515, 10-550
Fife, W.K. **10**-451, 10-806, 18-549
Fifolt, M. 10-1712
Fifolt, M.J. **10**-1721
Figadère, B. **10**-1135, 12-310, 16-408
Figeys, H.P. 2-72, 2-202, 12-292
Figge, L. 15-1340
ftgueras, F. **15**-1236
Figuly, G.D. 12-276
Fikes, L.E. 18-261
Fiksdahl, A. 10-837
Filirnonov, V.D. 19-438
Filipescu, N. 18-435
Filipp, N. 18-504, 18-576
Filippini, G. 2-128
Filippini, L. 11-354
Filippova, T.V. 15-1058
Filippova, T.Yu. 14-200
Filler, R. **1**-0102, **8**-140, **10**-1128, **11**-238, **12**-94, 19-74
Filley, J. 10-356, 10-475
Fillipi, G. 14-328
Filrnore, K.L. 11-500
Filzen, G.F. 18-57
Fina, N.J. 10-351
Finch, A.F. 10-479
Finch, M.A.W. 10-206
Findeis, M.A 4-124
Findlay, P. 15-190
Finet, J. 12-387, **12**-389, **12**-390, 13-198, 13-199, 14-299, **14**-387, **14**-388, **19**-10
Finger, A. 10-472
Fink, D.M. 10-1621
Fink, M.J. **1**-11
Fink, W.H. 6-63
Finkbeiner, H. **15**-1145
Finkbeiner, H.L. 12-427, 16-695
Finke, J. 16-579
Finke, R.G. 3-59, 10-1539, **10**-1882, **14**-511, 15-277, 15-786, 15-788, 15-1405, 15-1467, 18-649
Finkelhor, R.S. 15-1455
Finkelstein, M. 19-345
Finkenbine, J.R. 10-885
Finlay, J. 10-552
Finlayson, A.J. 10-190
Finlayson, W.L. 10-566, 10-935
Finley, K.T. 15-38, **15**-1180, 17-60, 19-749
Finley, R.L. 10-509
Finn, J. 4-175,4-176
Finn, J. **14**-192, **15**-1009, **15**-1035, **15**-1062, 15-1065, 15-1067
Finnegan, R.A. **11**-412, 12-274
Finney, N.S. 16-546
Finocchiaro, P. **3**-131, **19**-734
Finston, H.L. 8-1
Finzel, R.B. 10-114
Finzi, C. 13-200
Fiorani, T. 13-200
Fioravanti, S. **15**-1124, **15**-1125
Fiorentino, M. 19-160, **19**-311
Fioshin, M.Ya. 14-490
Firestone, R.A. 2-2, 10-461, **15**-1160, 15-1227, 18-541
Firl, J. 15-1272
Firnberg, D. 14-122
Firouzabadi, H. 10-757,19-161
Firouzbakht, M.L. 14-35
Firth, W.C. 14-498
Fisanick, G.J. 4-363
Fisch, A. 12-292
Fisch, M. 18-81
Fischer Jr., W.F. 10-1549, 15-674
Fischer, A. 8-30, 11-50, 11-54, 11-78, 15-1350, 18-34
Fischer, CM. 19-201
Fischer, E. 15-5
Fischer, G. 2-92, 4-174, **11**-110, 15-347
Fischer, H. 5-85, 5-178, 5-187, 8-14, 11-419, 14-61, 15-827, 15-1296, 18-55
Fischer, H.P. 12-29, 17-379, 17-383
Fischer, J.W. 4-375,11-115
Fischer, K. 15-516,16-903
Fischer, M. 11-448
Fischer, N.S. 16-904
Fischer, P.B. 11-99
Fischer, R. 15-522
Fischer, S.F. 7-21
Fischer, W. 17-344
Fish, A. 19-50
Fishbein, J.C. 13-288

Fishbein, R. 12-121, 12-597, 14-48, 14-115
Fishel, D.L. 16-213,19-252
Fisher, A.J. 2-300
Fisher, A.M. **5**-110
Fisher, C.L. **15**-1105
Fisher, F.J. 16-577
Fisher, G. 19-315
Fisher, G.B. 15-448, 19-641
Fisher, J. 4-17
Fisher, J.J. 2-35
Fisher, L.E. 10-774
Fisher, M.J. 15-1205
Fisher, R.D. 6-81, 10-45, 10-320, 10-414
Fisher, R.P. 18-359, 18-366, 18-374, 18-376, 18-381
Fisher, T.H. 14-33, 14-57
Fisher, W.F. 1-42
Fishman, J. **10**-1400, 14-473
Fitch, R.W. 19-599
Fitjer, L. 4-260, 4-264, 4-265
Fitzgerald, B.M. 18-587
Fitzgerald, P. 18-306
Fitzgerald, R. 1-41,10-261
Fitzmaurice, N.J. 15-794
Fitzpatrick, J.D. **2**-171, **2**-188
Fitzroy, M.D. 15-1005
Fizet, C. 16-225
Flack, H.D. 2-334
Flack, S.S. 10-801
Flamm-ter Meer 4-244
Flammang, R. 4-417
Flann, C.J. 18-557
Flautt , T.J. **12**-274
Fleet, G.W.J. 16-265
Flego, M. **16**-813a
Fleischer, F. 4-371
Fleischhauer, J. **15**-1211
Fleming, FF 10-1873,12-421
Fleming, I. 06-1, 10-698, 10-701, 10-1643, **10**-1773, **12**-3, 12-34, 12-320, **15**-607, **15**-1171, 15-1256, 15-1259, 16-473, 18-403, 18-537
Fleming, M.P. **10**-1630, **14**-498, **19**-729, **19**-734, 19-736, 19-739, 19-745, 19-746
Fleming, N.B. 11-337
Fleming, R.H. 15-1303
Fleming, S.A. 16-916, 18-489
Flemming, S. **15**-381, 15-604
Fletcher, B. 14-95
Fletcher, R.S. 9-6
Flippen, L.A. 10-1657, 13-234, 16-604, 19-191
Fliszár, S. 5-81, 19-197, 19-204, 19-217
Flitsch, W. 2-233, 2-352, 16-786
Flo, C. 5-48, 10-500
Flogaus, R. 10-1955
Flood, S.H. 11-22, 11-23, 11-24, 11-258
Flood, T.C. 12-6, 17-266, 19-738
Florez, J. 16-659
Florio, E. 15-402
Florio, E.M. 11-503
Floris, B. 15-221
Floss, H.G. 4-19
Floyd, D. 15-662
Floyd, D.M. 10-1553
Fliigge, J. 16-706
Flury, P. 10-155
Flygare, J.A. 16-692
Flynn Jr., J. 10-260
Flynn, D.L. 10-615
Flynn, K.E. **4**-401
Flynn, R. 13-188
Flynt, M.S. 16-208
Foá, M. **4**-163, **10**-1921, **13**-160, **13**-201, **13**-209
Fobare, W.F. 11-209
Fobker, R. 12-491
Fochi, R. 10-1927, 16-736, 19-592
Fodor, G. 9-13, 10-1233, 11-366, 11-368
Fogagnolo, M. **19**-116
Foglia, T.A. 10-780
Föhlisch, B. 10-1955
Fok, C.C.M. 17-281
Fokin, A.V. 10-478, 10-884
Foldi, V.S. 16-881
Folest, J. 10-1518,10-1921
Folest, J.C. 10-1477
Foley, K.M. 19-588
Follet, M. 15-455
Folli, U. 2-48
Folliard, J.T. 16-48
Folsom, H.E. 2-299
Folsom, T.K. 10-745
Folting, K. 15-1469
Fomina, V.I. 3-129
Fonck, G. 19-27
Fong, C.W. 12-348
Fong, F.K. **10**-162
Fong, G.D. 19-220
Fonken, G.J. **15**-1343, **18**-391, **18**-410
Fono, A. 15-225
Fontaine, C. 4-171
Fontana, A. **8**-143
Fontana, F. 11-206, 14-88, 14-392, 14-393, 14-397, 14-398, 19-308, 19-310
Fontenas, C. 18-333
Foos, J.S. 2-43
Foote, C.S. 4-350, 14-241, 14-244, 14-246, **14**-251, 14-254, **15**-1094, 15-1096

Foote, R.S. 16-612
Forbes, D.C. 19-726
Forbes, E.J. 11-465
Forbes, W.F. 15-537
Forch, B.E. 2-280
Ford, G.P. 9-39
Ford, K.L. **10**-523
Ford, P.C. 15-330
Ford, R.A. 4-270, 14-233
Ford, S.H. 10-1854
Ford, W.T. 10-328, 12-29, 16-742, **17**-66, **17**-71, 17-73, 18-425
Foreman, M.I. 3-69, 15-1472
Foresti, E. 4-54, 18-70
Forestiere, A. 19-380
Forlani, L. **13**-16, **16**-146
Forman, M.A. 18-161
Formosinho, S.J. 5-304, 7-36, 8-91
Fornarini, S. 10-149, 10-259
Forni, A. 4-36
Forrest, J. 13-217
Forrest, T.P. 18-587
Forrester, A.R. 5-193, 5-287
Forrester, J.L. 15-872
Forsén, S. 2-312,2-342
Forster, M. 19-224
Forster, H. 4-223, 4-440
Förster, S. 10-1120
Forsyth, D.A. 4-33, 10-147, 10-158, **10**-167, 11-15
Forsythe, G.D. 15-414
Fort Jr., R.C. 5-69, 5-73, **5**-206, 5-233, **8**-191, **10**-11, 10-29, 12-8, 14-69, 18-18
Fort, A.W. 18-171
Fort, Y. 10-940, 10-1401, 10-1490, 13-221, 14-474
Forth, M.A. 19-617
Fortier, S. 3-88
Fortunak, J.M. 16-317
Foscolos, G. 16-403
Foscolos, G.B. 16-549
Fosheé, D.O. 9-78
Foss, F.D. 10-217
Foss, R.P. 7-22, 19-717
Fossel, E.T. **18**-524
Foster, G. **19**-254
Foster, G.P. 16-944
Foster, R. 13-5
Foster, R. 3-56, 3-69, **3**-71, **16**-138
Foster, R.F. **5**-91, **12**-527
Foster, T.F. 15-280, 15-373
Fosty, R. 12-14
Fotuhi, L. 10-692
Fouad, F.M. 17-62
Foubelo, F. 12-285
Foubister, A.J. 19-654
Foulon, J.P. 15-654
Fountain, K.R. **6**-14
Fouquet, E. 10-1572, 16-862
Fouquet, G. 10-1522
Four, P. **10**-1420, 15-720
Fournier, J. 16-206
Fournier, L. 16-84
Fournier, P. 10-1562
Fowler, C.B. 16-555
Fowler, F.W. 15-964, 16-426, 18-569
Fowler, J.S. 10-906
Fowler, R. 16-191
Fowley, L.A. 15-284
Fox, A.S. 14-168
Fox, B.G. 19-64
Fox, B.L. 18-288
Fox, D.N.A. **16**-633, **16**-634
Fox, J.P. 15-178
Fox, M.A. 15-586, 15-1268
Fox, R.C. 4-389
Frach, R. 17-397
Fraenkel, G. 5-134, 5-139, 5-154, 6-55, 16-236
Fraenkel, R. 19-219
Fraga, S.A. 15-1155
Fraile, A.G. 11-324, 16-868
Frajerman, C. 18-343
Francalanci, A. 10-1921
Francalanci, F. 4-163, 13-150, 13-209
France, M.B. 15-1019
Francesch, C. 16-707
Francis, A.W. 11-260, 15-8
Francisco, C.G. 14-222
Franck-Neumann, M. 15-1250, 17-425
Francl, M.M. 10-95
Frank, D.L. **10**-151
Frank, F.J. **19**-59
Frank, R.M. 1-43
Franke, F.P. 14-27
Franke, J. 3-76
Franke, W. **5**-58, 17-202
Frankel, J.J. 10-1318
Frankel, M.B. 10-979
Franken, E. 4-432
Franklin, N.C. 4-218,17-82
Franz, L.H. 2-129
Franz, R.A. 12-606
Franzen, V. 5-306, 11-240, **19**-361
Franzosi, G. 19-457
Franzus, B. **10**-1171, **18**-464
Fraser, A.R. 15-1366

Fraser, M.E. 3-88
Fraser, R.R. 4-173, 10-1754, **11**-110, 12-107
Fraser-Reid, B. **10**-516, **16**-9
Frater. G. **18**-189, 18-546
Frauenkron, M. 15-1408
Frauenrath, H. 16-671
Fravel Jr., H.G. 18-445
Fray, G.I. 2-198
Frazier Jr., R.H. 19-483
Frazier, H.W. 16-714
Frazier, K.A. 19-567
Fréchet, J.M.J. **10**-1032, **12**-400, **13**-128, 16-891
Fréchette, M. 8-159
Fredenhagen, H. 19-776
Fredriksen, S.B. 3-82
Freed, K.F. 7-19
Freedman, H.H. **2**-166, 5-35, **18**-391, 19-367
Freedman, L.D. **13**-124
Freeman, F. 10-1692, 14-218, 14-219, 15-1, 15-1000
Freeman, H.S. 13-124
Freeman, J.P. 9pt2-6, 10-1375
Freeman, N.J. 3-24
Freeman, P.K. 12-449, 15-56, 15-1305, 15-1371
Freeman, R. 14-383
Freeman, R.C. 15-249
Freeman, W.R. **14**-109
Freenor, F.J. 10-1192
Freerksen, R.W. 19-679
Freidlin, V.I. 16-835
Freidlina, R.Kh. 5-181, 10-1263, 10-1266, 10-1480, 15-970, 18-54, 18-66, 18-76, 18-80
Freiesleben, W. 12-72, 14-269, **15**-515, 19-389
Freifelder, M. 15-272, 16-358
Freilich, S.C. 16-915
Freiser, B.S. 11-95
Frejd, T. 10-1588
Fremaux, B. 16-832
French, M.A. 3-42
Frenette, R. 12-244
Frenkel, A.D. 18-692
Frenking, G. **10**-1540, **15**-1014, 19-746
Frensdorff, H.K. 3-76
Frenz, B.A. 4-308
Frese, E. 16-901
Freskos, J. 10-1504
Freudenberger, J.H. **19**-710, **19**-711
Frey Jr., F.W. 10-1530
Frey, A. **10**-1294
Frey, E.J. 15-493
Frey, H.M. 4-348, 5-272, 5-278, 5-299, 5-306, 12-253, 15-1338, **15**-1340, 15-1383, 15-1413, 18-136, 18-456, 18-474, 18-475
Frey, J. 2-331
Frey, T.G. 15-46
Fricke, H. 15-1426
Fridman, A.L. **10**-1809, **10**-2020, **12**-572, **19**-652
Fried, H.E. 2-113,9-60
Fried, J. 10-1854
Fried, J.H. 15-73
Friedel, R.A. 15-415
Friederang, A. 15-963
Friedl, T. 12-297
Friedman, B.S. 11-240
Friedman, L. 5-312, 5-314, 10-380, 10-183, 10-1865, 12-239, **15**-1190, 17-216, 17-220, 17-227, 19-252
Friedman, M. 15-75
Friedman, N. 5-30
Friedrich, A. 18-459, 18-464
Friedrich, E. 16-603
Friedrich, E.C. 10-309, 15-1435, **15**-1442
Friedrich, K. 10-1864, 15-807, 16-812, 17-145, 17-363, 17-385
Friege, H. 15-1250
Friend, C.M. 10-1413, 14-480, 19-14
Frierson, M.R. 4-335
Friesen, D. 4-233
Frigerio, M. **19**-110
Frim, R. 4-64
Frimer, A.A. 14-238, 14-239, **14**-251, **15**-1093, 15-1095
Fringuelli, F. **15**-1001, **15**-1060, **15**-1174, **15**-1188
Friour, G. **10**-1950
Frisbee, A.R. 10-1030
Frisch, M.A. 4-259
Frisell, C. 12-333
Frisque-Hesbain, A. **10**-1164, **10**-1239
Fristad, W.E. 14-493, 15-1025, **15**-1122, **15**-1145, 19-266, 19-487
Fritch, P.C. 10-213
Fritz, H. 3-146, 4-244, 11-322, 16-225
Fritz, H.L. 12-14
Fritzberg, A.R. **18**-172
Fritzen, E. 10-1614
Fritzsche, G. 18-516
Fröch, S. 16-593
Froech, S. 16-595
Froemsdorf, D.H. 17-64, 17-90, 17-137, 17-227
Fr0haug, Az. 19-339
Fröhlich, H. 11-494
Frohn, M. 15-1076, 15-1079
Frölich, R. 16-911
Frolov, A.N. 14-427
Froment, F. 5-122, 15-561

Frommeld, H.D. 16-611,19-664
Fronczek, F.R. 16-282
Frontera, A. 12-263
Frost II, K.A. 4-406, 10-261
Frost, L.N. 10-608
Fr0yen, P. 16-783, 16-784
Fruchey, O.S. 10-204
Fruit Jr., R.E. 5-44, 19-370
Fry Jr., F.S. 2-347
Fry, A. 6-39, 10-202, 15-17, 15-477, 17-3, 17-6, 17-56, 17-126, 18-145, 18-147, 18-150, **18-306**
Fry, A.J. 10-170, 10-1269, 11-509, 14-487, 16-870, 17-322, 19-276, 19-620, **19-719**
Fry, D.F. 16-555, 19-564
Fry, J.L. 10-44, 10-278, 10-279, 10-280, 18-23, 18-26, 18-45, 18-48, 19-531, 19-594, 19-759
Fry, K. 11-124
Fry, M.A. 19-266
Frydrych-Houge, C.S.V. 19-737
Frye, L.L. 10-2052
Fryhle, C.B. 10-865
Fryzuk, M.D. 4-122,4-123
Fu, C.-G. 10-529
Fu, C.C. 10-1447
Fu, D.-K. 16-797
Fu, G.C. 10-1207, 10-1326, 15-380, 15-464, 15-471, 15-480, 16-470, 16-861, 18-620, 18-630, 19-637, 19-720
Fu, H. 16-326
Fu, P.P. 19-12
Fu, S.S. 15-45
Fu, X.Y. 15-330
Fu. G.C. 19-721
Fuchicello, A. 2-298
Fuchikami, T. 10-1921
Fuchs, B. **4-301**, **4-311**
Fuchs, H. 4-44
Fuchs, PL. **10-1030**, 10-1863, 14-367, 15-39, 16-34, 16-119, 16-741, 17-284
Fuchs, R. 10-326, 10-401, **10-1149**, 19-243
Fueno, T. 4-10, 10-547, 15-105, 15-938, 15-1268
Fuentes, A. 19-774
Fuerholzer, J.F. 10-1087
Fuest, M. 10-1534
Fugami, K. 15-977
Fuhlendorff, R. 10-77
Fuji, K. 10-542, 10-865, 10-867
Fuji, Z. 2-94
Fuji-i, K. 13-172
Fujibayashi, T. 16-440
Fujieda, Y. 17-191
Fujihara, H. 10-448
Fujii, A. 10-732, 16-308, 16-326
Fujii, K. 16-734, 16-751
Fujii, N. 10-212
Fujii, S. 15-1448
Fujii, T. 10-1465,14-150
Fujikura, Y. 14-162
Fujimori, C. 19-787, 19-789
Fujimori, M. 13-163
Fujimoto, E. 3-41
Fujimoto, E.K. 10-342, 10-409
Fujimoto, H. **15-1256**, 15-1259, 18-403, 18-509
Fujimoto, K. 11-401, 18-596
Fujimoto, S. 12-420
Fujimoto, T. **3-114**, 19-728, 19-546
Fujimura, T. 13-167
Fujinami, T. 16-205, 16-258, 16-313, 16-542, 17-405
Fujino, T. 15-55
Fujio, M. 8-181, 10-48, 10-134, 10-149. 10-150, 10-272, 10-273, 10-388, 10-424, 10-425, 10-426, 10-914, 11-152
Fujisaki, S. 10-863, 11-211, 12-113, 12-595, 12-596
Fujisawa, T. 10-1205, 10-1429, **10-1638**, 10-1962, 11-183, 15-943, 15-1408
Fujise, Y **15-1267**
Fujishima, H. 15-733
Fujita, A. 15-391
Fujita, E. 4-111,10-865,10-867
Fujita, H. 10-924, 15-243
Fujita, K. **18-11**
Fujita, M. 3-145, 5-96, 12-556, 15-55
Fujita, S. **2-251**, 2-252, 9pt2-l, 19-787
Fujita, T. 8-144, 9-78, 10-880, 17-324
Fujita, Y 19-361
Fujitsuka, H. 15-1362
Fujiwara, F.Y. 3-42
Fujiwara, I. 10-863
Fujiwara, K. 16-652
Fujiwara, M. 10-59, 10-969, 10-1104, 11-325, 11-342, 12-313
Fujiwara, N. 15-638
Fujiwara, T. 10-1460, 10-1466, 16-246, 16-797, 16-798
Fujiwara, Y 10-785, 10-1213, 11-352, 12-474, 14-338, 14-345, 14-365, 15-590, 15-863, 18-297, 19-704, **19-711**, 19-738
Fujiyama, R. 10-187, **16-815**
Fukata, G. 11-449
Fukazawa, Y **10-1999**
Fuks, R. 12-229, 15-1167, **15-1181**, 15-1341, 15-1412, 15-1458, 16-105
Fukuda, E.K. 10-606

Fukuda, K. 19-359
Fukuda, T. 15-1408
Fukuhara, T. 10-1905, 11-264, 13-256, 13-267, 15-153, 15-883
Fukui, K. **15-**1256, **15-**1259, **18-**401, 18-403, 18-509
Fukui, S. 19-787, 19-789
Fukuma, T. 16-445, **16-**813a
Fukumoto, K. 19-374
Fukumoto, T. 10-742, 10-2030, 12-592, 18-697
Fukumura, M. 16-226
Fukunaga, J.Y **15-**1317, 18-446
Fukunaga, K. 17-320
Fukunaga, R. 2-42
Fukunaga, T. 2-87
Fukuoka, S. **12-**611
Fukushima, A. 16-741
Fukushima, D. 19-494
Fukushima, H. 4-145, 10-1896
Fukushima, M. 10-1731
Fukutani, Y **15-**1443
Fukuto, J.M. **12-**11, 12-21, 12-6
Fukuyama, T. 10-1435
Fukuyo, E. 10-700
Fukuzawa, S. 4-390, 14-172, 15-632, 15-1026, 15-21, 16-258, 18-210
Fukuzawa, S.-i. 16-500
Fukuzumi, K. 18-624
Fukuzumi, S. 12-24, 16-808
Fuller, C.E. 13-170
Fuller, D.J. 5-161,8-169
Fuller, D.L. 14-15, 14-45
Fuller, G. **15-**881
Fuller, J.C. 16-271, 16-283, 16-347
Fuller, S.E. **4-**443, **14-**114
Fulton, R.P. 10-1371
Funabashi, Y. 15-707
Funabiki, K. 15-878
Funabiki, T. 14-203, 15-283, 15-812
Funakoshi, K. 15-555
Funaro, J.M. 10-2052
Funato, M. 10-1461
Funatsu, M. 15-534
Funderburk, L.H. **6-**61
Fünfschilling, P.C. 15-133
Fung, A.P. 10-676, 18-276, 19-387
Fung, N.Y.M. 16-272
Fung, S. 11-363
Funhoff, D.J.H. 2-256
Funk, B. 5-262
Funk, R.L. 10-1801, 10-1813, 15-621, 17-156
Furber, M. 15-646
Furet, N. 12-198
Furet, N. 15-423
Furin, G.G. 11-249, 18-696
Furlani, T.R. 15-1228
Furmanova, N.G. 2-341
Furrow, M.E. 10-557
Furrow, S.D. 15-917
Furst, A. 19-767
Furst, G.T. 16-528
Fürstner, A. 13-176, 15-542, 16-438, 16-487, 16-491, 18-631, 18-636, 19-701, 19-735, 19-742, 19-743, 19-744
Furstoss, R. 10-556, 18-656
Furubayashi, T. 15-726
Furuhashi, K. 10-1458
Furuhata, K. 4-320
Furuhata, T. 10-856
Furukawa, I. 10-753, 16-326
Furukawa, J. 4-10, 10-547, 15-1268, 15-1363, 15-1430, 15-1442, 16-430
Furukawa, N. 10-448, **10-**1170, 13-69, 13-82, **15-**1127, 16-226, 17-133, 18-224, 19-487, 19-674
Furumai, S. 19-667
Furusaki, A. 13-7
Furusawa,O. 13-140
Furuta, H. **11-**152
Furuta, K. **10-**1751, 14-222, **14-**227, **15-**1207, 16-436, 16-606, 16-609, 16-809
Furutani, H. **16-**313
Furuyama, S. 15-58
Fusco, C. **19-**160, **19-**311
Fusco, R. 18-582
Fuso, F. 10-155
Fuson, R.C. 2-330, 10-1415, 10-1441, 15-714
Fustero, S. 16-806
Fwu, S.-L. 15-640
Fyfe, C.A. 11-16, 13-5, 13-77, 16-219

G. Mayer, U. 4-409
Gaasbeek, C.J. 5-27, 10-164
Gaasbeek, M.M.P. 15-13712
Gabbi, C. 19-460
Gabe, E.J. 4-433
Gabhe, S.Y 12-325
Gable, C.M. 3-125
Gable, K.P. 15-985, 15-1014, 15-1466
Gaboury, J.A. 10-760
Gabriel, A.O. 16-810
Gabrielsen, B. 10-66
Gacon, A. 19-687
Gadallah, F.F. **14-**325, 14-332
Gadamasetti, G. 12-223
Gadamasetti, K.G. 15-1398

Gadberry, J.F. 15-4
Gadek, T.R. 10-740
Gadgil, V.R. 18-526
Gadru, K. 10-86
Gaetano, K. 11-229
Gaffney, A. 17-72
Gaffney, A.H. 17-31
Gage, J.R. 10-934
Gaggero, N. 19-450, 19-456, 19-457
Gagné, M.R. 10-752, 16-296
Gagnier, R.P. 10-1486
Gagnon, J.L. 19-170
Gagosian, R.B. 18-169, 18-172, 18-201
Gai, Y. 13-183,15-1234,17-233
Gais, H. 5-127
Gais, H.-J. 10-905
Gajare, A.S. 10-687, 10-755
Gajda, T. 10-1068
Gajek, K. 18-501
Gajewski, J.J. 2-191, 15-1245, 15-1248, 18-67, 18-397, 18-439, 18-472, 18-488, 18-490, 18-497, 18-508, 18-510, 18-515, 18-519, 18-538, 18-549, 18-550, 18-551, 18-559, 18-561, 18-562
Gakh, A.A. 10-316
Gal, C. 14-101,14-103
Gal, G. 11-368
Gal, J. 1-51,3-13,8-76,8-127
Gal, V.M.S. 8-91
Galaev, I.U. 4-124
Galán, A. 16-356
Gale, L.H. 4-267, 12-371, 12-372
Galili, N. 15-1408
Galindo, J. 10-1961
Gall, J.S. 10-55, 10-327
Gall, M. 10-1772, 10-1775, 10-1990, 12-296
Gallagher, D.W. 19-191
Gallagher, M.J. 4-42, 12-450
Gallagher, S.P. 18-218
Gallagher, T. 15-256
Galland, B. 15-11
Galland, J.-C. 15-533
Gallardo, I. 13-52, 13-54
Galle, D. 16-587
Galle, J.E. 15-1468
Gallego, C.H. 16-791
Galley, M.W. 11-101
Galli, C. 4-317, 5-207, 6-11, 10-265, 10-782, 11-234, 13-48, 13-51, 13-193, 14-405, 14-421
Galli, R. 14-114, 14-402, 15-944, 15-1122
Gallina, C. 10-204, 10-1641, 10-1648
Gallivan Jr., R.M. 15-446
Gallo, E.A. 3-53
Gallo, R. 9-65
Gallo, R.J. 10-437
Gallucci, J.C. 12-244, 15-103
Gallucci, R.R. 12-116
Gallulo, V. 16-556
Galpin, J.D. 18-498
Galton, S.A. 19-520
Galvagno, S. 16-288
Gamasa, M.P. 19-774
Gamba, A. 18-549
Gambaro, M. 15-989
Gambaryan, N.P. 16-18
Gambill, C.R. 10-2046
Gamboni, R. 14-176
Gammill, R.B. 15-368
Ganapathy, S. 18-59
Ganboa, I. 16-231
Gancher, E. 19-190
Gande, M.E. 18-559
Gandler, J.R. 13-9, 17-3, 17-50
Gandolfi, C.A. 10-1221
Gandolfi, R. 15-1153, 15-1159, 15-1163
Gandour, R.D. 15-1073
Gandour, R.W. 2-292
Ganellin, C.R. 4-66
Ganem, B. 10-481, 10-660, 10-800, 10-1062, 10-1079, 10-1686, 15-275, 15-389, 16-354, 17-229, 18-559, 19-107, 19-414, 19-604
Ganesan, K. 16-576
Ganesan, R. 16-98
Ganeshipure, P.A. 16-30
Ganguli, S. 10-356
Ganguly, B. 16-7
Ganguly, R.N. 18-288
Ganguly, S. 15-83
Gani, V. 10-625, 10-626
Ganin, E. 19-330
Ganis, P. 2-234
Gano, J. 4-410
Gansäuer, A. 19-713
Ganter, C. 18-103
Gantzel, P. 1-67
Ganushchak, N.I. 14-334, 15-860, 15-861
Ganz, C. 15-165
Ganzer, G.A. 4-428
Gao, J. 10-17,15-1228,18-558
Gao, J.J. 16-916
Gao, Q. 16-606, 16-809
Gao, Y. 10-482, 10-886, 10-1108, 10-1358, 15-1063, 16-324
Gaoni, Y 2-224, 2-225, 2-238, 2-239, 2-271
Gapinski, R.E. 10-896
Garapon, J. 15-924

Garavelas, A. 15-210
Garay, R.O. 17-50
Garbarino, G. 17-54
Garbarino, J.A. 16-869
Garbisch Jr., E.W. 10-1318, **12-**118, 13-9, 13-73
Garbuzova, I.A. **2-**211
Garcia Ruano, J.L. 15-1207, 10-471
García Ruano, J.L.G. 19-562
Garcia, A. 15-323, 15-373
Garcia, B. 10-574
Garcia, B.A. 10-1132
Garcia, C.F. 15-1408
Garcia, E. 10-1786, 14-469
Garcia, J. 10-1057, 16-466
Garcia, L.A. 15-1160
García, B. 8-101
García, J.I. 15-1203, **15-**1236
Garcia, O. 16-228, 19-53
García, T. 10-736
Garcia-Garibay, M. **4-**115
Garcia-Ochoa, S. 10-1664
Garcia-Raso, A. 10-1575
Garcia-Slanga, B.J. 14-322
Gardano, A. 10-1921, 13-209
Gardelli, C. 10-690, 10-1201, 10-1687
Gardette, M. 15-643
Gardiner Jr., W.C. 6-42
Gardini, G.P. **14-**116, 14-396, 14-399
Gardlik, J.M. 4-75
Gardner, H.C. 15-611
Gardner, J.N. 19-672
Gardner, P.D. 4-414, 15-357
Gardossi, L. 17-149
Gareau, Y. 10-883, 15-231
Gareev, G.A. 10-688
Garegg, P.J. 10-1166
Garg, C.P. **15-**444
Gariano Jr., P. 10-798
Gariano, A. 10-798
Garibina, V.A. 16-750
Garigipati, R.S. 16-202
Garkusha, O.G. 2-211
Garley, M. 10-825
Garner, A.Y. 15-1415
Garner, C.M. 16-819
Garner, C.S. 12-7
Garner, L.A. 18-687
Garner, P. 10-927, 15-1228
Garnett, J.L. **11-**110, **11-**111, **11-**112
Garnier, L. 10-1891
Garnier, B. 18-176
Garnovskii, A.D. 8-128
Garnovskii, A.D. 15-1153
Garratt, D.G. 15-1, 15-20, 15-25, 15-86, 15-1137
Garratt, P.J. 2-72, 2-212, 2-224, 2-226, 2-253, 2-273, 4-447
Garrett, C.E. 10-1207, 15-464
Garrigues, B. 15-1221
Garrison, B.J. 7-15
Garrou, P.E. 10-957
Garsky, V. 15-545
Garst, J.F. 10-1527, 10-2001, 12-329, 12-479, 15-362, 15-802, 18-345, 18-346
Garst, M.E. 15-1490
Garver, L.C. 14-291
Garvey, D.S. 4-108
Garwood, D.C. 10-6
Garwood, R.F. 11-443
Garza, T. 15-1297
Gasanov, R.G. **5-**181, **10-**1263
Gasc, M.B. 15-236, 15-250
Gasch, C. 19-159
Gaset, A. 10-886, 11-330, 16-771
Gash, D.M. 4-178
Gasol, V. **10-**1164, **10-**1874
Gasol, V. 15-878
Gaspar, P.P. 5-267, 12-50, 12-62, 15-1420
Gaspard-Iloughmane, H. 10-1168
Gasparrini, F. 4-54, 19-593
Gassman, P.G. 4-197, 4-204, 5-328, 5-329, 10-113, 10-119, 10-121, 10-123, 10-128, 10-131, 10-280, 10-291, 10-297, 10-579, 10-618, 10-980, 10-1270, 10-1271, 10-1700, 11-219, 11-378, 11-379, 12-191, 12-542, 15-232, 15-1247, 15-1367, 5-1368, 15-1370, 17-176, 18-288, 18-290, 18-654, 18-657, 18-658, 18-660
Gastaminza, A. 11-37
Gasteiger, J. 1-91, 2-47, 15-413
Gaston, L.K. 19-751
Gates, M. 10-151
Gati, A. 4-435, 15-1460
Gati, E. 4-155
Gatto, V.J. 3-76,3-111
Gattuso, M.J. 2-78
Gau, G. 8-14
Gaudemar, M. 10-1766, **10-**1781, 16-487, 16-506
Gauder, S. 19-630
Gaudry, M. **16-**189
Gaugler, R.W. 8-22
Gaul, J.M. 19-588
Gaul, M.D. 15-1223
Gault, Y. 4-137 *
Gäumann, T. **15-**319

Gaur, S. 12-89
Gautam, V.K. 15-469
Gauthier Jr., D.R. 16-475
Gauthier, J.Y. 10-897
Gauthier, R. 16-550
Gauthier, S. 13-128
Gautier, E.C.L. **10-521**
Gautier, I. 16-326
Gautier, J. **16-199**
Gavard, J. **11-409**
Gavaskar, K.V. 15-625
Gavezzotti, A. 1-7,1-71
Gaviña, F. 13-36, 16-741
Gavrilenko, V.V. 10-1434, 12-350
Gawley, R.E. 9-82, 10-1812, 16-616, 17-377, 18-264
Gawronska, K. 5-285
Gawronski, J. 5-285
Gaylord, N.G. 19-544, 19-554, 19-581
Gayton-Garcia, R. 12-280
Gázguez, J.L. **8-136**
Gazit, A. 10-244, 10-245
Gazzolo, F.H. 13-4
Ge, C.-S. 15-1385
Gebicki, J. 3-130
Gebicki, J.M. 5-180
Gebreyes, K. 17-305
Gebrian, J.H. 2-213,2-215
Gedanken, A. 15-1222
Gedye, R. 15-11
Gee, K.R. 18-497, 18-549
Geels, E.J. 12-591
Geer, R.P. 17-136
Gehret, J-C.E. **15-1398**
Geib, G.D. 16-791
Geiger, C.C. 10-158
Geise, B. **10-1389**
Geise, H.J. **4-233**, **4-256**, **19-734**, **19-738**, **19-746**
Geisel, M. 14-503, 17-345
Geiss, W. 5-263
Geissler, M. 5-115
Geissman, T.A. 19-769
Geke, J. **11-121**
Gelas-Mialhe, Y. 10-1467, 16-226
Geletii, Y.V. 19-310
Geller, B.A. 10-956, 11-427
Geller, L.E. 18-683
Gellert, E. 14-326
Gelman, S.H. 3-53
Gelo Pujic, M. 18-296
Geltz, Z. 8-102
Gemal, A.L. 10-1277, 16-258, 16-273
Gendreau, Y. 10-1664
Geneste, J. **15-931**
Geneste, P. **10-128**, **19-117**
Gent, J.-P. 14-368, 14-434, 14-435, 15-533, 16-326, 19-689
Gent, J.P. 10-204, 12-374, 13-177
Geng, B. 14-378, 16-453
Geng, F. 18-339
Gennari, C. 12-181, 16-603, 16-609, 16-623
Genov, D.G. 18-627
Gensler, W.J. 15-348
Gent, B.B. 17-82
Gentile, A. 11-164, 11-405, 14-395
Gentili, P. 10-265
Gentilli, P. 13-48, **13-51**
Gentilucci, L. **6-31**
Gentric, E. 3-12
Geoffroy, M. 16-292
Geoghegan Jr., P.J. 15-165
George, A.V. 15-1227
George, M.V. 15-585, 18-397, 19-10
George, R.S. 16-399
Georghiou, P.E. 10-1252
Georgiadis, R. 8-196
Georgoulis, C. 10-202, 10-207, 12-474, 19-61
Geraci, C. 3-97,3-101,3-104,4-81
Gérard, L. **18-14**
Gerasimova, E.S. 18-253, 18-263
Gerber, G.E. 10-744
Gerdes, J.M. 16-76
Gerdes, P. 15-747
Gerdil, R. **3-120**
Gerhardt,G. 6-14
Gerhardt, H. 10-1030
Geri, R. 15-255
Géribaldi, S. 15-37
Gerlach, A. **15-1012**
Gerlach, H. 10-728
Germain, A. 5-53,11-312
Germain, G. 4-391
German, A.L. 10-767
German, L. 11-235, 12-94, 14-98
German, L.S. **15-71**, 15-954
Germani, R. **15-1001**, **15-1060**
Germon, C. 10-1660
Gernon, M. 12-276
Gero, A. 2-317
Gerrard, W. 8-78, **8-196**, **17-181**
Gerratt, J. 2-6, 2-95
Gersch, B. 3-91
Gershtein, N.A. 11-490
Gersmann, H.R. 12-210, 14-237
Gerson, F. 5-257, **5-261**, 5-265
Gerstenberger, M.R.C. 14-96

Gerstmans, A. **11**-124
Gerth, D.B. 17-426
Gesche, P. 18-404
Geske, D.H. **5**-178
Gesson, J. 11-392
Gesson, J.-P. 15-497
Gestmann, D. 4-367
Getman, D. 18-477
Geuss, R. 5-154
Gevorgyan, G.A. **16**-183, **16**-184
Gevorgyan, V. 15-532, 15-1459
Gewald, K. 16-806
Geyer, E. 4-160
Ghadir, K.D.F. 1-42
Ghanbarpour, A. 6-81,17-60
Ghatak, U.R. 19-244, 19-566
Ghattas, A.A.G. 16-118
Ghelfenstein, M. 18-346
Ghelfi, F. 12-107, 12-108, 12-112, 15-889, 15-940, 19-460
Ghenciulescu, A. 19-337
Gheorghiu, M.D. 15-1318
Ghiaci, M. **18**-269
Ghirardelli, R.G. 17-41
Ghiro, E. 15-52
Ghorai, M.K. 15-832
Ghosal, S. 14-464
Ghose, B.N. 14-318
Ghosez, L. **10**-1164, **10**-1239, **15**-1223, **15**-1282, 15-1283, 15-1303, 15-1304, 15-1320, 15-1321, 18-428
Ghosh, A.C. 16-665
Ghosh, A.K. 10-229,18-631
Ghosh, K. 11-290
Ghosh, S. 11-361, 12-168, 17-377, 17-378, 18-219
Ghribi, A. 10-1655
Giacobbe, T.J. 14-267
Giacomello, P. 11-236
Giam, C. 12-401
Giamalva, D. **19**-194
Giamalva, D.H. 12-244
Giang, Y.F. **17**-154, **17**-156
Giangiordano, M.A. 16-543
Gianni, M.H. 4-215,4-289
Giannotti, C. 14-388
Giansiracusa, J.J. 10-162
Gibbard, H.C. 2-220
Gibbons, C.S. 4-382
Gibbs, D.E. 19-629
Gibbs, H.W. 11-51
Giberson, C.B. 2-223
Gibian, M.J. 5-254
Giboreau, P. 15-1221
Gibson, C.P. 14-456
Gibson, D. **13**-159
Gibson, D.T. 15-1027, 15-1028, 15-1029, 15-1030
Gibson, L.L. 18-560
Gibson, M.S. **10**-912, **10**-1073, 15-236, 15-250
Gibson, T.L. 11-282
Gibson, V.C. 15-293
Gibson, V.C. **18**-621
Gidaspov, B.V. **10**-1122, 11-120, 12-582, 12-583, 18-251, 18-263, 19-446
Gidley, G.C. 17-82
Gielen , M. 4-25
Gielen, M. 12-14, 12-39, 15-1470
Gieren, A. 4-398
Giersch, W. **19**-166
Giese, B. 5-208, 5-227, 5-245, 5-304, 10-1258, **14**-1, **14**-40, **14**-41, **14**-60, **14**-91, **14**-299, **15**-49, 15-51, 15-65, 15-90, 15-98, 15-125, 15-735, 15-736, 15-737, 15-753, 15-757, 15-821, 15-829, 15-1418, 18-74
Giese, R.W. 19-180
Giese, S. 15-538
Giesen, F.L.L. 11-262
Gieson, V. 10-1534
Giffney, J.C. 11-125
Giger, U. 15-1434
Giglio, E. 3-132
Giguere, R.J. 10-454, 10-455, 15-1221
Giguère, P.A. 4-232
Gil, P. 13-36
Gil, S. 12-3, 19-475
Gil-Av, E. 4-137, 4-138, 4-143, 4-174, 18-391
Gilabert, D.M. 19-145
Gilbert 14-421
Gilbert, A. **15**-1494, **18**-413
Gilbert, B.A. 10-1234
Gilbert, B.C. 5-178, 5-291, 14-107
Gilbert, D.P. 15-232
Gilbert, E.E. **11**-171, **11**-180, 11-484, 12-202, 13-81, 14-282, 14-429, **16**-162, **16**-234, **19**-429, 19-432
Gilbert, H.F. 16-10
Gilbert, J.C. 4-409, 12-244, 15-1316, 18-85, 18-489, 18-573
Gilbert, K.E. 18-514,19-418
Gilbert, L. 16-329
Gilbert, R.P. 10-252
Gilbertson, S.R. 18-627, 18-646
Gilchrist, J.H. 8-167,8-169,12-298
Gilchrist, M. **10**-221, 10-348

Gilchrist, T.L. 2-220, 5-267, 13-32, **15-1128**, 15-1256, 15-1273, 15-1295, 18-397
Gilday, J.P. 12-277, 12-528, 12-546, 12-547
Gilde, H. 14-487, 14-491
Giles, P.R. 16-484, 19-78
Giles, W.B. 15-1256
Gilheany, D.C. 15-1009
Gilkerson, T. 19-615
Gill, G.B. **15-511**, 15-855, **15-1256**, 16-847
Gill, N.S. 15-591
Gille, B. 16-840
Gilles, J. 2-239, 2-246, 2-262, 2-271, 18-522
Gillespie, R.J. 5-19, 5-21, 8-15, 8-16, 11-134
Gillies, C.W. 19-186, 19-195, 19-201, 19-217
Gillies, J.Z. 19-201
Gillis, D.J. **15-362**
Gilman, H. 10-1937, 12-1, 13-34
Gilman, N.W. 14-294, 18-508, 18-570
Gilmor, W.F. **18-163**
Gilow, H.M. 11-37, 11-217
Gimbert, Y. 16-757
Gimisis, T. **10-1322**
Gimzewski, J.K. 8-192
Ginah, F.O. **10-1472**
Ginak, A.I. 15-1
Gingras, M. 10-487, 10-820, 10-847, 10-872
Ginodman, L.G. **13-113**
Ginos, J.Z. 16-943
Ginsburg, D. 4-364,15-559,15-1266
Ginzburg, B.M. 13-55
Giordano, C. 11-461, 14-88, 14-403, 16-291, 18-160
Giordano, F. **15-1157**
Giovani, E. **10-881**
Giovannini, P.P. 19-116
Giovannini, R. 10-1407
Gipe, B.T. 15-3, 15-32
Girard, C. 15-1432, 16-329, 18-549
Girard, J.P. 15-1005
Girard, P. **17-291**
Girard, Y. **10-1184**
Girdhar, R. 10-291
Giri, V.S. 19-555
Girreser, U. 2-259
Gitlin, L.F. 17-90
Gitlitz, M.H. 12-460
Gittos, M.W. 16-205
Giudicelli, M.B. **10-1130**
Giuffrida, D. 2-259
Giuliano, C. 10-1204
Giumanini, A.G. 10-806, 10-1804, 12-574, 13-276, **18-312**, 18-319
Giunta, N. 15-1005
Givens, R.S. 7-42, 17-417, 17-433, 18-525
Gladfelter, E.J. **14-114**
Gladfelter, W.L. 12-610
Gladiali, S. 15-798, 16-717
Gladys, J.A. **19-533**
Gladysheva, F.N. 15-1169
Gladysz, J.A. 16-328, 16-819, 17-177
Glahsl, G. 19-456
Glänzer, B.I. 15-298
Glaser, J. 12-109
Glaser, R. 13-19
Glasfeld, A. 4-208
Glass, L.E. 10-156,10-608
Glass, R.S. 4-289, **4-318**, 16-226
Glass, T. 2-300
Glasson, W.A. 10-348
Glave, W.R. 17-50
Glaze, W. **15-1077**
Glaze, W.H. 12-12
Glazer, E.A. 18-291
Glazunova, E.M. 16-657
Gleason, J.G. **12-139**, 19-494, 19-681
Gleave, D.M. 16-599
Glebova, E.V. 16-197
Gledhill, A.P. **14-411**
Gleich, A. 4-202
Gleicher, G.J. 2-34, 14-72, 14-89, 15-99, **18-101**
Gleiter, R. 2-42, 2-145, 2-293, 3-49, 4-360, 4-421, 5-45, 11-354, 14-254, 15-1266, 18-516
Glendening, E.D. 2-23
Glenn, A.G. 18-72
Glenn, R. 10-232
Glick, A.H. 16-913
Glick, H.C. 5-297
Glick, M.D. 15-221
Glick, R.E. 9-54
Glidewell, C. **2-106**
Glineur, M. 18-428
Glöckner, H. **2-195**
Gloor, B.F. 13-191
Glover, I.T. 18-40
Glover, S.A. 15-851,15-929
Glowinski, R. 14-463
Glukhovtsev, M.N. **2-169**, 5-267
Glushkov, R.G. 10-367, 10-696
Glyde, E. 2-305
Gnanapragasam, N.S. 11-231
Gnanasekaran, C. 19-461
Gnedin, B.G. 10-2031
Gnonlonfoun, N. 15-506
Goda, K. 10-1462, 15-503
Godat, M. 10-449
Goddard III, W.A. **2-176**, 5-272, **15-1257**

Godefroi, E.F. 10-1296
Godfrey, A.G. 17-229, 19-107
Godfrey, C.R.A. **10-**1364, 19-40
Godfrey, I.M. 18-303
Godfrey, M. 5-304, **8-**145, **11-**78
Godfrey, P.D. 13-37
Godjoian, G. 10-1445
Godleski, S. 4-171
Godleski, S.A. 18-100
Godovikova, T.I. 12-557
Godschalx, J. 10-1607
Godschalx, J.P. 10-1893
Goedecke, E. 2-146
Goedicke, C. 4-61
Goedken, V. 5-285
Goedkin, V. 18-19
Goel, A.B. 10-74, 10-84, 15-642, **17-**163, **17-**164
Goel, OP. 16-867
Goel, S.C. 18-106
Goem G.L. 15-202
Goering, H.L. **4-**119, **5-**122, **10-**48, **10-**49, **10-**53, 10-54, **10-**115, 10-195, 10-196, 10-1636, 10-1641, 10-1642, 10-1647, 10-1754, 14-273, 15-53, 15-56, 15-122, 18-549
Goerlich, J.R. 5-281
Goerner Jr., R.N. 18-56
Goetschel, C.T. 18-56
Gogia, A. 19-465
Goh, S.H. 11-500, 11-501
Goicoechea-Pappas, M. 10-1812
Going, R. **12-**116
Gojo, T. 10-877
Gokcek, D.Y. 10-728
Gokel, G.W. 3-76, 3-79, 3-92, **3-**111, **4-**132, 10-437, 10-650, 10-776, 10-855, 10-978, **10-**1131, 10-1744, 10-1866, 12-561, 14-322, 14-409, 15-1391, 16-722, 16-939, 16-940, 17-399
Gokhale, A.S. 19-326
Gol'dberg, Yu.Sh. 15-1391
Gol'dfarb, Ya.L. 4-383, 4-387
Gol'ding, I.R. 13-171
Gol'dshtein, I.P. 3-1
Golan, O. **4-**264, 4-283
Golborn, P. 11-68
Gold, H. 10-499
Gold, P.M. 15-368
Gold, V. 5-2, 5-6, 5-60, 6-46, 6-86, **8-**19, 10-566, 10-103, 10-1244, 11-104, **12-**289, 13-6, 15-23, 16-335
Goldacre, R.J. 5-38
Goldberg, B.J. 10-189
Goldberg, G.M. 12-323
Goldberg, I. 1-68, 3-121
Goldberg, N.L. 10-784
Goldberg, S.I. 4-111,17-124
Goldberg, S.Z. **2-**211
Goldblum, A. 4-64, 10-2045
Golden, D.M. 5-221,15-58
Golden, J.T. 11-428
Golden, R. 1-42
Goldenberg, W.S. **5-**159
Goldfinger, P. 14-141
Goldhamer, D.M. 15-47
Golding, B.T. 10-945, **10-**1164, 18-502
Golding, P. 10-836
Golding, P.D. 11-441
Goldman, A.S. 19-43
Goldman, B.E. 16-845
Goldman, E.W. 15-1407
Goldman, G. 11-186,11-288
Goldman, G.K. 2-311
Goldman, I.M. 15-1351
Goldman, L. 19-98, **19-**100
Goldman, M. **4-**138
Goldman, N. 10-1776
Goldmann, A. **4-**371
Goldring, W.P.D. 18-631
Goldschmidt, Z. 18-474
Goldsmith, B. 10-1253, 10-1379
Goldsmith, E.A. 18-48
Goldstein, M.J. **2-**211, 18-508, **18-**510
Goldwhite, H. 11-447, 15-73
Golik, V.D. 15-861
Goliński, J. 13-240
Goller, E.J. 16-5
Gollis, M.H. 10-971
Gollnick, K. 14-238, 14-245, **14-**251, **15-**1089
Golobish, T.D. 4-361
Golod, E.L. 11-26, 11-120, 12-583
Gololobov, Yu.G. 15-1452
Golovina, Z.P. 10-233
Golse, R. 10-1659
Golubeva, I.A. 16-197
Golubkin, L.N. **11-**40
Gomaa, M.A.-M. 11-156
Gomberg, M. 5-3, 5-196
Gomes de Mesquita, A.H. 5-77
Gómez Aranda, V. **15-**1117
Gomez, J. **8-**113
Gómez, A.M 10-1664
Gómez, J. **8-**107
Gomez-Bengoa, E. 15-637
Gómez-López, M. **3-**143
Gómez-Parra, V. 10-799

Gompper, R. 2-180, 2-181, 2-183, 2-195, **10-468**, **15-1332**, 18-517
Goncharov, A.N. **10-217**
Gong, W.H. 14-356, 14-366, 14-367
Gonikberg, E.M. 15-546, **16-319**
Gonsalves, A.M. d'A.R. 15-1273
Gonzalez, D. 15-1030
Gonzalez, M.A. 10-1812
Gonzalez, T. 10-446
González, J. 16-929
González, J.M. 15-879, 15-880
González-Nuñez, M.E. 19-320, 15-739
Gonzalez-Sierra, M. 2-336
Goo, Y.M. 16-67
Gooch, E.E. 12-358
Goodacre, P.R. 14-420
Goodall, K. 15-847
Goode, E.V. 1-36
Goodlett, V.W. **15-1305**, **15-1309**, **15-1320**
Goodman, J.L. 5-311, 15-1427
Goodman, J.M. 16-592, 16-603, 16-609
Goodman, L. 17-293
Goodwin, T.H. 2-4, 2-7, 4-352
Goon, D.J.W. 17-35, 18-704
Goon, S. 11-319
Goosen, A. 14-228, 15-929, 18-681
Gopal, D. 15-689
Gopal, H. 19-264
Gopalakrishnan, G. 16-44
Gopalan, A.S. 15-510
Gopalan, R. **12-120**
Gopius, E.D. 18-44, 18-213
Goralski, C.T. 10-1384, 15-447, 15-448, 15-937, 16-283, 16-347
Görbitz, C.H. 3-28
Gordeichuk, S.S. 12-581
Gordillo, B. 4-296
Gordin, M.B. 18-28
Gordon, A.J. 14-233,15-127
Gordon, I.M. 10-2028
Gordon, J.E. 10-328
Gordon, J.W. 15-21
Gordon, K.M. 17-236, 19-297
Gordon, M. 14-226, 17-332
Gordon, M.D. 15-1194
Gordon, M.S 1-9,1-10
Gordon, P.F. 7-3, 11-147
Gordon, R.J. 18-419
Gordon, S. 2-100
Gore, J. 10-1645, 10-525, 10-1622
Gore, P.H. 11-68, 11-288, 11-309, 11-461, 11-462
Goré, J. 15-193, 15-358, 15-947, 15-1320
Gorelik, M.V. 2-72, 11-436
Goren, Z. 4-283
Gorenstein, D.G. 10-232, 13-25
Gorlier, J. 15-665
Görlitz, M. 18-527
Gorman, A.A. 14-239, 15-1093
Gorman, D.B. **15-1247**, **15-1278**
Görner, H. 7-46
Gorsane, M. **15-1113**, **16-329**
Gorton, P.J. 15-162
Gortva, A.M. 18-472
Gorzynski, J.D. 10-1490
Gosavi, R.K. 18-189,18-191
Goshaev, M. **13-214**
Gosney, A.P. 11-145
Gosney, I. 2-70, 15-15, 15-1425, 16-770, 18-396
Gosselain, P.A. 14-141
Gosselck, J. 10-1707
Gosselin, P. 10-354
Gosser, L. 12-29
Gotanda, K. 14-136
Gotebiowski, A. 4-110
Gothelf, K.V. 15-1165
Goto, D. **10-1921**
Goto, M. **10-134**, **10-150**, 10-425
Goto, N. **10-134**, 10-424
Goto, T. 15-707, 16-226
Gotor, V. 16-806
Gotou, H. 2-265
Gott, P.G. 15-1305,15-1310
Gottardi, W. **11-213**
Gottarelli, G. **4-154**
Gotteland, J. 15-1290
Gotō, H. 4-225
Goubitz, K. 11-469
Goudgaon, N.M. 12-339, 12-381, 12-384
Goudmand, P. 18-519
Gough, R.G. 10-1528
Gouin, L. 15-158
Gould, A.E. 18-412
Gould, E.S. 15-1056, 19-447
Gould, F.E. 16-357, 17-384
Gould, I.R. 5-275, 15-1416, 17-433
Gould, K.J. 18-387
Goure, W.F. 10-1893
Goux, C. 10-869,10-1569
Gover, T.A. 14-104
Govindan, C.K. 19-196
Gowenlock, B.G. 12-578
Gowland, F.W. 16-335
Gozzo, A. 19-796
Gozzo, F. 18-413
Grabley, F. 18-579

Graboski, G.G. 16-651
Grabowski, E.J.J. 4-164, 10-740, 15-574, 18-259, **19-379**
Grabowski, J. 10-306
Grabowski, J.J. 10-356, **17-118**
Grabowski, S. 7-40
Grachev, M.A. 15-982
Gracheva, E.P. 15-48, 15-227
Gracheva, R.A. **4-117**
Graczyk, D.G. 10-63
Graefe, J. 15-194
Graf, E. 3-93
Graf, N.A. 15-1318
Graf, R. 16-927, 16-928
Gragerov, I.P. 10-1527, 14-331, 14-415, 19-336, 19-412
Graham, A. **12-163**
Graham, A.E. 10-521
Graham, G.R. 15-1485
Graham, J. 11-135
Graham. S.H. 19-631
Graham. W.D. 15-1398
Grahn, W. 15-93
Graiver, D. **3-146**
Grakauskas, V. 11-235, 11-236, 12-601, 12-602, 14-291, 14-506
Gramaccioli, CM. 2-236, 13-7
Gramain, J.-C. 10-1467
Gramatica, P. 15-298
Gramstad, T. 11-247
Grand, E. 15-1280
Grandberg, I.I. 17-374, 18-572, 18-582
Grandbois, E.R. **16-311**
Grandclaudon, P. 16-757
Grandi, M. 11-285
Grandi, R. 12-107, **12-112**, 19-460
Granger, M.R. 8-25
Granger, R. 15-1005
Granik, V.G. 4-392, 10-367, 10-696, 12-223, 16-199
Granito. C. 10-2023
Granoth, I. 15-339
Grant, B. 10-1647
Grant, D.M. 2-178,4-134
Grant, K.M. 8-38
Grant, J.L. 8-75
Grant, R.W. 18-329
Gras, J. 10-652,15-1307
Gras, J.L. **15-1320**
Grashey, R. 15-1153, 15-1171, 15-1295, 15-1379
Grass, F. 12-533
Grasselli, P. 12-455, 16-388, 16-389, 16-392
Grätz, W. 10-1669
Graul, S.T. 5-86, 5-92, 12-505
Gravaatt, E.C. 18-706
Gravel, D. **10-1039**, 15-52
Graven, A. 15-1209
Gravestock, M.B. 15-508
Gray, D. 11-229
Gray, P. 14-78
Gray, T.A. 18-406
Graybill, B.M. 11-187
Grayshan, R. **10-1793**, **10-1794**
Grayson, J.I. **15-1188**
Grayston, M.W. **10-1630**, **18-137**
Graziani, M. 11-327, 16-288
Graziano, M.L. **15-1157**
Grdina, M.J. 14-247,14-251
Grdinic, M. 15-94
Gream, G.E. **10-115**, 10-150, 10-153, 19-268, 19-755
Greasley. P.M. **11-11**
Grebenik, P. 2-136
Grebenik, PD. 15-293
Grech, E. **3-10**
Greck, C. 12-374
Greeley, R.H 2-208
Green III, F.R. 16-53
Green, B. 19-566, 19-568
Green, B.S. 4-132,4-133,9-12
Green, D.L.C. 5-84, 10-466, 10-1705
Green, D.P. **5-159**, **12-495**
Green, D.T. **15-917**
Green, J. 10-1237,18-568
Green, M. 10-348,15-1485,17-384
Green, M.H.L. 15-293
Green, M.L.H. **2-136**, 3-59, **5-129**, **12-1**
Green, M.M. 18-685
Green, R. 15-996
Green, R.D. 3-36
Greenberg, A. **2-164**, 4-337, 4-344, 4-357, 18-98, 18-530
Greenblatt, J. 4-30
Greene Jr., G.H. 1-42
Greene Jr., J.L. 17-136
Greene, A.E. 19-539
Greene, F.D. 10-823, 15-1050, 17-97, 18-67, 18-170
Greene, J.L. 18-148
Greene, R.M.E. 18-650
Greene, T.W. 10-652
Greenhalgh, C. 13-16
Greenhall, M.R 12-99
Greenlee, K.W. 4-347, 15-352
Greenlimb, RE. 16-734

Greenspoon, N. 15-371,16-256
Greenwald, R. 16-728
Greenwood, F.L. 19-201,19-214
Greer, S. 16-327
Greeves, N. 10-643, 16-377, 16-383
Gregor, I.K. 11-110
Gregoriou, G.A. 10-64
Gregory, B.J. 10-64, 18-279, 18-280
Gregory, C.D. 10-1539
Gregory, M.J. 10-359, 11-465
Gregory, P. 7-3, 11-147
Gregory, R.J. 18-706
Gregory, T.A. 7-20
Gregson, M. **10**-1142, **10**-1606
Grehn, L. **10**-1085
Greiciute, D. 15-939,15-1375
Greico, P.A. 18-551
Greig, C.C. 11-54
Greigger, B.A. 19-244
Greiner, A. **17**-146
Greinert, R. 19-205
Greisinger, R. 18-462
Grekov, A.P. 10-351
Grela, K. 19-758
Grelbig, T. 1-93
Grelier, S. 13-64
Grell, E. 3-91
Grellier, M. 10-925
Grellier, P.L. **3**-12, 10-427, 12-2, **12**-39, **12**-316, 12-323, 12-351, 12-370, 12-424
Grendze, M.P. 10-169
Grenier, L. 12-244
Gresser, M. 6-87
Gresser, M.J. 10-1050
Gretz, E. 14-271
Greunig, H. 19-205
Greuter, H. **15**-1300, **16**-898
Grev, R.S. 4-229
Grey, R.A. 10-1947
Grgurina, I. 10-957
Gribble, G.W 16-68, 16-170, 16-176, 16-266, 10-999, 10-1303, 11-504, 15-340, 19-528
Gribchenko, E.A. 13-269
Grice, P. 10-647, **10**-1449
Gridnev, I.D. **15**-1144, 18-453
Griebe, D. **3**-117
Griebenow, N. 16-370
Grieco, C. 10-267
Grieco, P.A. 10-615, 10-1142, 10-1606, 12-195, 12-240, 15-202, 15-1223, 15-1228, 15-1379, 15-1455, 17-239, 18-470, 18-558
Griengl, H. 10-1994,16-826
Grier, M.C. 16-441
Griesbaum, K. 15-29, 15-104, 15-108, 15-229, 19-193, 19-205
Griesbeck, A. **15**-1087
Griesbeck, A.G. **16**-914, **16**-915
Griesinger, C. 5-160
Grieve, D.M.A. 10-229
Griffin, G.W. 4-374, 18-668, 18-672
Griffin, R.N. 12-512
Griffith, J.R. 16-101
Griffith, R.C. 4-236
Griffith, W.P. 19-78
Griffiths, D.W. 3-137
Griffiths, J. 7-3
Griffiths, J.G. 15-1318
Griffiths, P.A. 15-1347
Grigat, E. 10-654, 10-655
Grigg, R. 2-251, 10-947, 10-1490, 15-779, **15**-1158, 19-388
Grigina, I.N. 16-657
Grignon-Dubois, M. 12-204
Grigor, B.A. 8-30
Grijzen, Y. 6-31
Griller, D. 1-87, 5-174, 5-178, 5-291, 10-1258, 10-1390, 14-33, 14-65, 14-107, 18-70
Grillot, G.F. 11-444
Grim, S.O. 16-734
Grimaud, J. 18-33, 12-13
Grimes, P. 12-280
Grimm, K.G. **16**-91
Grimm, R.A. 10-1413, 14-480
Grimme, W. 4-398,15-1327,18-457
Grimmelikhuysen, J.C. 19-193, 19-206
Grinter, R. 2-136
Grisdale, E.E. 10-326
Grisdale, P.J. 1-42
Grishin, Yu.K. 15-221
Grisso, B.A. 16-603
Grissom, J.W. 15-1459, **18**-411, 18-412
Griswold, A.A. 18-394
Gritter, R.J. **10**-478
Grivas, J.C. 16-201
Grob, C.A. 1-42, 1-43, 1-44, 9-41, 10-153, **10**-155, **10**-157, 10-158, **10**-247, **10**-250, 14-70, **14**-503, **15**-33, **17**-342, **17**-343, **17**-344, 17-345, 17-346, 17-379, 17-383, 17-384
Gröbel, B. 10-534,10-1763
Groen, M.B. 4-153
Groenewege, M.P. 8-24
Groenewegen, F. 10-1755
Grogan, G. 18-296
Grogan, M.J. 15-992
Grohmann, K. 2-224, 18-526
Grondin, J. 12-468

Grondin, R. 15-262
Gronert, S. **5**-91, **5**-134, **10**-266
Gronowitz, S. 12-379
Gros, C. 4-85
Gros, E.G. 10-519
Grosjean, D. 15-67
Grosjean, F. 19-722
Grosjean, M. 4-222
Gross, A.W. **10**-1775, 12-309, **15**-1145, **19**-411
Gross, B. 12-474
Gross, E. **10**-1010
Gross, E.K.M. **10**-1463
Gross, G. 4-407,4-417
Gross, H. 10-289, 11-337, 11-338
Gross, M.F. 15-296
Gross, M.L. 11-28
Grosse, D. 10-1247
Grossert, J.S. 5-128
Grossi, L. 5-185,13-8,15-715
Grossman, N. 18-153
Grossman, R.B. 15-536
Grosu, I. 4-68
Groth, P. 2-286, 3-82
Grout, A. 17-59
Groutas, W.C. 16-813
Grove, D.M. 10-1648
Grovenstein Jr., E. 5-129, 11-231, 11-474, 12-550, 18-86, **18**-105, 18-106, 18-107
Groves, E.E. 12-203
Groves, J.K. 15-978
Groves, J.T. 2-157, 14-165, 14-166, **15**-1127
Groves, L.G. 2-302
Groves, P.T. 14-304
Grozinger, K. 11-367
Grubber, M.J. 18-427
Grubbs. E.J. 1-41
Grubbs, R. **2**-185
Grubbs, R.H. **15**-1365, 16-580, 16-790, 16-791, 18-620, 18-621, 18-630, 18-633, 18-638, 18-647, 18-650
Gruber, J.M. 14-179
Gruber, W. 18-11
Grubmüller, P. 12-549
Gruen, L.C. 11-104
Gruetzmacher, G. 11-379
Grünanger, P. 15-1153
Gründemann, E. 4-37
Grundke, H. 18-350
Grundmann, C. 19-663, 19-664
Grundon, M.F. 17-374
Grundy, J. 10-791
Griiner, H. 15-1373
Grunewald, G.L. **10**-1082, 18-525
Gruntz, U. **10**-796, **10**-911
Grunwald, E. 3-7, 6-4, 6-42, **8**-178, **9**-16, 10-406, **10**-411, 16-78, 16-79
Grunwell, J.R. 15-721
Gruseck, U. 18-482
Gruszecka, E. **18**-616, **18**-704
Grutzner, J.B. **5**-110, **5**-118, 12-86, 14-289, 15-867
Gruzdneva, V.N. 9-34, 18-44
Gschwend, H.W. 12-262, 12-279
Gu, C. 19-123
Gu, D. 15-1079,19-322,19-430
Gu, H. 10-1439
Gu, J. 19-621
Guan, L. 15-196
Guanti, G. 10-609, 10-2034, 12-181, 12-349
Guardeño, R. 15-323
Guarna, A. 16-314
Guarnieri, A. 5-207, 13-48
Guay, D. 15-507
Guchhait, S.K. 17-323
Gudkov, B.S. 15-316,15-319
Gudkova, A.S. 18-213
Gudkova, I.P. **4**-137, **4**-174
Gudmundsson, B.Ö. 5-159
Guella, F. 10-242, 10-332, 10-473
Guemas, J. **16**-112, 15-23, 15-213, 15-224
Guerin, C. 4-24
Guerrero, A. **10**-1164, **10**-1874, 15-878
Guerrieri, F. 10-1909
Guertin, D.L. 19-443
Guertin, K.R. 14-195,19-466
Guest, J.M. 18-558
Guette, C. 11-201
Guette, J. 11-205
Guetté, J. **4**-174, **4**-179
Gugel, H. 4-403
Guggenberger, L.J. **5**-143
Guggisberg, A. 10-1058
Guibe, F. **10**-1420
Guibé-Jampel, E. 18-296
Guida, A.R. 10-798
Guida, W.C. 10-798, 19-586
Guiheneuf, G. **3**-12
Guijarro, A. 16-368
Guijarro, D. 16-326
Guilhem, J. 3-151,4-203
Guillaumet, G. 10-953,13-187
Guillemin, J. 12-597
Guillemonat, A. **15**-106
Guindon, Y. 5-208, 10-653, 10-865, **10**-1184
Guingant, A. 15-580

Guinn, V.P. 18-61
Guinot, A. 10-69
Guir, C. 10-1655
Guiry, P.J. 12-387
Guisnet, M. 10-849
Guk, Yu.V. 11-26, **11**-120
Gula, M.J. 17-50
Gulevich, Yu.V. **10**-1914, 12-392, 13-205
Gulino, F. 12-518
Gultneh, Y. 14-202
Gulyaev, N.D. 10-1056
Gulyukina, N.S. 12-533
Gumby, W.L. 5-112,10-335
Gunaratne, H.Q.N. 10-552
Gund, P. 4-358
Gund, T.M. 4-358, 5-73, 18-99
Gundersen, L.-L. 4-322
Gündogan, B. 16-565, 16-580
Gung, B.W. 8-162,16-383
Gunn, D.M. 10-1849
Gunning, H.E. 18-191
Gunsher, J. **15**-1429
Günthard, H. 19-224
Günthard, H.H. 2-148
Günther, B. 18-42
Günther, H. 2-79, 2-216, 2-229, 2-267, 2-269, 4-124, **5**-132, **15**-1425, 18-395, 18-396, 18-522, 18-526, 18-527, 18-529
Günzl, W. **15**-1199
Guo, B. 2-334, 14-484, 16-436
Guo, C. 16-470, 17-159
Guo, G. 15-481
Guo, H. 10-1405, 16-553
Guo, J. **16**-615
Gupt, I. 15-92
Gupta, A. **15**-386
Gupta, A.K. 15-452
Gupta, B.D. 10-646
Gupta, B.G.B. 10-753, **10**-1164, **10**-1190, 10-1219, 16-54, 19-387
Gupta, D. 19-189
Gupta, K.B. 15-203
Gupta, M.D. 16-297
Gupta, S. 19-113
Gupta, S.C. 14-184
Gupta, S.K. 15-277, 15-280, 15-373, 15-464, 18-353
Gupta, V. 15-173,15-853
Gupta, V.K. 13-14
Gupta, V.P. 4-246
Gupton, J.T. 12-401, **13**-115, 19-227
Gur'yanova, E.N. 3-1
Gur'yanova, T.P. 12-372
Guram, A.S. 11-161
Gurien, H. 15-306, 17-338
Gurjar, M.K. 16-318
Gurka, D.F. 11-41
Gurman, A.S. 13-117
Gurr, PA. 11-169
Gurskii,M.E. 10-1849
Gurskii, M.E. 18-453
Gürtler, S. 15-710
Gurudutt, K.N. 17-286
Gurumurthy, R. 10-86
Gurwara, S.K. 15-175
Guseinova, S.N 11-372
Gusel'nikov, L.E. 1-9
Gushchin, A.V. 12-390
Gust, D. 1-86
Gustafson, D.H. 10-268, 18-89
Gustafson, G. 10-465, 15-45
Gut, I. 2-343
Gutekunst, B. **1**-11
Gutekunst, G. **1**-11
Guthrie, J.P. **2**-315, 08-54, **8**-57, **8**-121, **10**-217, 10-220, 10-561, 10-627, 12-535, 12-539, 16-567, 16-572, 16-615
Guthrie, R.D. 5-172, 5-198, 9pt2-4, 10-586, 10-679, 12-88, 18-4, 18-17
Gutierrez, E. 10-778
Gutiérrez, A. 4-435
Gutman, A.L. 2-226, 10-1006
Gutman, D. 5-225
Gutman, I. 2-93, 2-94
Gutmann, H. 15-304
Gutmann, R. 11-406
Gutowski, F.D. 14-449
Gutowsky, H.S. 5-200
Gutsche, CD. 3-76, 3-97, 3-100, 16-897, 17-428, 18-127, 18-142, **18**-161, **18**-184, **18**-195, 18-202, 18-474
Guttieri, M.J. **10**-1396, 15-305
Gutzwiller, J. 4-168,15-373
Guy, A. 10-1109,11-205,12-217
Guy, R.G. **10**-910
Guyo, P.M. 15-400
Guyon, R. 10-46
Guyton, C.A. 15-1330, 18-489
Guziec Jr., F.S. 10-1224, **10**-1378, 17-434, 17-444, 19-60
Guzik, H. 10-1400, 14-473
Guzzi, U. 13-175, 14-380
Gwynn, D. 18-549
Gybin, A.S. 15-1224
Gyoung, Y.S. 10-1423, 19-499
Gypser, A. **15**-1014

Ha, C. 15-835
Ha, D. 16-921
Ha, D.S. 19-401
Ha, H. 10-245
Ha, H.-J. 15-1013
Ha, T. 2-307
Haaf, W. 15-768
Haag, W. 17-282
Haag, W.O. 17-137
Haak, JR. 10-429
Haake. M. 16-43
Haaland, A. 2-132
Haas, A. 14-96
Haas, C.K. 15-1386
Haas, Y. **19-200**, **19-202**, **19-219**
Haase, K. **10-1247**
Habashita, H. **10-212**
Habata, Y. 7-49
Habaue, S. 16-443
Haberfield, P. 7-50, **7-51**, **10-84**, **10-217**, **10-402**, 10-472,10-473, 11-219
Haberland, H. 11-261
Haberman, J.X. 16-450
Haberman, L.M. 10-980
Habib, M.J. 15-1472
Habib, M.M. 15-283
Habibi, M.F. 4-201
Habich, A. 18-546
Häbich, D. 10-698
Haché, B. 15-231
Hachiya, I. 11-294, 11-407, 15-1209, 15-1215, 16-583, 16-630
Hacker, N.P. 15-1416
Hackett, P. 18-663
Hackler, R.E. **18-328**, **18-591**
Hackler, U.E. 18-516
Hadad, CM. 1-0104
Haddad,N. **15-1327**, **15-1349**, **15-1355**, **15-1408**
Haddon, H.A. 18-333
Haddon, R.C. 2-77, 2-87, 2-222, 2-224, 2-288, 5-22,5-272, 10-159
Haddon, V.R. **2-77**, **2-224**, **10-151**
Haderlein, G. 16-470
Hadj Ali Salem, M. 12-556
Hadjigeorgiou, P. 11-175
Hadju, E. 2-300,15-137
Hadži, D. 3-6
Haelg, P. 15-796
Haese, W. 15-746
Haffner, CD. **18-507**
Häflinger, O. 8-40
Hafner, A. 16-463
Hafner, H. 11-59
Hafner, K. 2-141, 2-143, 2-144, 2-145, 2-146, 2-268, 15-1135
Haga, T. 16-590
Hagaman, E. 15-619
Hagan, S. 2-299
Hagel, R. 4-143
Hageman, H.A. 10-1232
Hageman, H.J. 4-272, 11-448
Hagemann, H. 19-24
Hagen, E.L. **5-18**, **18-8**, **18-22**
Hagihara, N. 15-1468
Hagitani, A. **10-715**
Hagiwara, H. 10-667, 16-591
Hagiwara, I. **10-1749**
Hagler, A.T. 4-249
Hagopian, R.A. 12-374
Hague, D.N. 6-51
Hahn, CS. 18-699,18-701,19-90
Hahn, G. 10-1259,10-1357
Hahn, J.-T. 19-609
Hahn, P. 19-37
Hahn, R.C. 11-101
Hahn, S. 3-26
Hahn, W. 11-261,11-262
Hahn, Y.P. 18-34
Hahnfeld, J.L. 5-279
Hähnle, R. **10-1156**
Hai, A.K.M.A. 16-934
Haiduc, I. 3-59, 12-1
Haidukewych, D. 17-312
Hailes, H.C 15-1225
Haines, A.H. 11-392, 14-207, 14-208, 14-277, 15-984, 15-1032, 16-47, 19-10, **19-11**, 19-12, 19-128, 19-164, 19-348, 19-351, 19-363, 19-378, 19-433
Haines, A.J. 19-28
Haines, A.M. 19-50
Haines, R.J. **18-621**
Haire, D.L. 5-181
Hájek, M. 15-755
Hájiček, J. 10-1058
Hajos, Z.G. 15-593, 16-564, 16-620
Hajós, A. 10-1249, 16-253, 19-10, 19-496, 19-499
Hajra, S. 15-832
Håkansson, M. 15-709
Hakata, T. 10-947
Hakushi, T. 15-148, **15-1097**
Haky, J.E. 15-21,15-62
Halberstadt, M.L. 5-303, 12-254
Halcomb, R.L. 19-413
Halcour, K. 19-805
Halek, G.W. 15-1441

Hales, J.L. 11-347
Hales, R.H. 13-103
Halevi, E.A. 6-68, 6-74, 6-76, 6-77, 15-1257, 18-515
Haley, M.M. 2-64, 2-250, 4-397, 4-422
Hall Jr., H. 15-1253
Hall Jr., H.K. 8-177,15-1337
Hall, CD. 17-54
Hall, D. 11-215
Hall, D.M. 4-48
Hall, G.E. 4-212
Hall, G.G. 2-10, 2-63
Hall, J.A. 18-708
Hall, J.B. 10-123
Hall, K.J. 16-198
Hall, L.H. 15-1194
Hall, M.K. 13-19
Hall, N.D. 10-601
Hall, R.E. 6-79, 10-44, 10-64, 10-278
Hall, R.J. 18-550
Hall, S.S. 16-425, 16-548, 19-532
Hall, T.N. 13-5
Hall, W.L. 17-114, 17-125
Hallberg, A. 12-206, 13-165, 14-342, 14-349, 14-350
Hallé, J.-C. 15-1255
Haller, G.L. 6-36
Haller, I. 4-362,18-413
Haller, K.J. 1-11
Halley, F. 14-388
Halliday, D.E. 15-250
Hallman, P.S. 15-282
Halloran, DJ. 17-190
Halpern, B. 4-137,4-174
Halpern, J. 12-12, 15-287, 15-288, 15-362, 15-1365, 18-651, 18-653
Halpern, M. 10-441,17-249
Halpern, Y. 5-15,10-639
Halsall, T.G. 19-55
Halstenberg, M. 10-1171
Halterman, R.I. 10-1846
Halterman, R.L 16-464, 16-382, 15-297
Haltiwanger, R.C. 4-79
Halton, B. 2-64, 4-395, 4-397, 7-1
Halvorsen, A. 10-299
Ham, G.E. 10-478, 10-694, 10-922, 10-972, 15-1123, 17-315, 18-481
Hamachi, K. 19-317
Hamada, F. 3-48
Hamada, N. 15-1207
Hamada, T. 12-345, 15-1069, 19-317
Hamada, Y. 10-1874
Hamaguchi, H. 3-84
Hamaguchi, S. 16-751
Hamamoto, I. 10-1387
Hamamoto, K. 13-287
Hamamura, H. 18-650
Hamanaka, K. 11-95
Hamanaka, S. 11-13
Hamann, B.C. 13-119
Hamann, L.G. 16-273
Hamann-Gaudinet, B. 16-447
Hamaoka, S. 10-993
Hamaoka, T. 12-358, 12-360, 16-43, 17-252
Hamblin, M.C. 11-283
Hambling, J.K. 14-81
Hambly, A.N. 8-78, 8-196
Hamdani, M. 13-64
Hamdouchi, C. 5-170, 12-318
Hamel, N. 10-1923, 10-1924, 15-771
Hamelin, J. 15-1167, 6-73, 16-160, 16-194, 18-270
Hamelin, R. 5-142
Hamer, J. 15-1123, 15-1272, 16-899, 16-905, 16-911, 16-918
Hamereton, I. 15-553
Hamersma, J.W. 10-127
Hamill, H. 4-47
Hamilton Jr., E.J. 18-55
Hamilton, A.D. 3-115
Hamilton, G.A. 19-125
Hamilton, J.A. 4-146, 15-283
Hamilton, J.G. 4-330
11 Hamilton, R. 18-505
Hamilton, T.P. 15-10
Hamilton, W.C. 3-1
Hammadi, M. 19-352
Hammarstrom, L. 4-271
Hammerich, O. 5-260
Hammerschmidt, E. 10-875
Hammerschmidt, S. 16-470
Hammett, L.P. 5-55, 5-65, 6-42, 6-54, 8-97, 8-98, 8-106, 8-116, 9-16, 10-596, 11-7
Hammond, G.S. 4-194, 5-241, 5-273, 6-20, 7-11, 7-22, 7-23, 7-30, 7-36, 7-41, 11-58, 11-417, 5-4, 15-30, 15-31, 15-1347, 15-1350, 15-1357, 17-137, 18-513,8-608, 19-717
Hammond, R.C. 14-420
Hammond, W.B. 15-1399, 16-20
Hammons, J.H. 5-84, 8-13, 8-58, 15-133, 18-92
Hamon, L. 15-665
Hamor, T.A. 2-128
Hampel, F. 8-96
Hampel, M. 15-23
Hamprecht, G. 10-2006
Hamrick Jr., P.J. 10-1696, 19-776

Hamsen, A. 16-408
Han, B. **1-11**, **16-492**
Han, B.-H. 15-159
Han, B.H. 10-1475, 11-502
Han, G.R. 19-293
Han, J. 15-330
Han, J.L. 19-609
Han, W. 12-101, 19-457
Han, Y. 15-711
Hanack, H. 10-247
Hanack, M. 4-215, 5-58, 5-59, **10-117**, 10-130, 10-172, 10-247, 10-248, 10-249, 10-251, 10-253, 10-255, 10-258, 10-368, 10-1156, 11-324, 13-22, 15-34, 15-104, 16-868, 17-76
Hanafusa, T. 6-66, 10-1066, 10-1200, 10-1867, 10-2018, 15-878, 16-297, 16-416, 16-420, 16-421, 16-760
Hanamura, M. 10-182
Hanano, T. 12-144
Hanaoka, T.-a. 13-202
Hanaya, K. 19-604
Hancock, J.W. 10-239
Hancock, R.A. 11-188, 15-1245
Hand, E.S. 10-222
Handa, Y. 19-708
Handel, H. 16-334, 16-422
Handy, N.C. 4-136, 4-237
Handy, S.T. 15-1223
Hane, J.T. 18-524
Haneda, A. 10-1282
Hanessian, S. **4-110**, 10-653, 10-730, 10-865, **10-1164**, 10-1616, 16-753, 16-773, 17-280, 19-709
Haney, W.A. 11-95
Hanfusa, T. 19-71
Haning, H. 10-1740, 16-438
Hanissian, S.H. 9-78
Hanley, J.A. 4-33
Hanna, I. 10-1673
Hanna, J. 19-733
Hanna, R. **17-251**
Hanna, S.B. 19-471
Hanna, S.Y. 18-332
Hannan, W. 11-110
Hannick, S.M. 16-506
Hannon, F.J. **15-707**, 15-723
Hannon, F.J. 16-470
Hanold, N. 4-402
Hansch, C. 9-20, 9-63, 9-65
Hansell, D.P. 10-355
Hansell, G. 10-95
Hansen, B. 10-1050, 16-725
Hansen, D.E. 6-47
Hansen, H. 15-1263, 18-439, 18-508, 18-537, **18-540**, **18-545**, **18-568**, **18-568**, **18-572**, **18-668**
Hansen, H.-J. 5-261
Hansen, H.J. 18-70
Hansen, J. 13-249
Hansen, J.F. 14-390
Hansen, K.B. 16-546
Hansen, K.C. 19-227
Hansen, M.C. 19-538
Hansen, M.M. 16-598
Hansen, R.T. 15-692
Hanson, A.W. **2-231**
Hanson, B.E. 15-787
Hanson, G.C. 10-192
Hanson, J. 10-315
Hanson, J.R. 19-684
Hanson, K.R. 4-210
Hanson, M.P. 10-474
Hanson, M.V. 10-1951
Hanson, P. 9-59, 14-420, 14-421, 19-457
Hanson, R.M. 15-1063
Hansske, F. **10-1321**
Hansson, C. 16-520
Hansson, L. 4-143
Hansson, S. 14-262
Hanzawa, Y. 8-164
Hanzlik, R.P. **10-1629**, **15-1036**
Hao, Q.-S. 10-930
Hapala, J. 10-188, 17-30
Happer, D.A.R. 2-306, 9-30, 9-53
Haque, A. 15-386
Haque, M.S. 10-1980, 10-1981, 14-194, 15-1160, 18-194
Hara, M. 14-439
Hara, R. **15-651**
Hara, S. 4-143, 12-406
Hara, S. 15-729, 15-729, 15-733, 15-883, 16-452, 17-349, **18-371**, 18-377
Hara, Y. 19-571
Harada, K. 15-287
Harada, K. 16-344, 16-529, 16-823
Harada, M. 12-356, 15-903
Harada, R. 10-1053
Harada, S. 2-57
Harada, T. 2-57, 3-99, 12-261, 18-108, 19-483
Harada, Y. 4-320
Harano, K. 15-544, 18-500
Harbison, K.G. 13-23, 13-25, 13-268
Harbusch-Görnert, E. 10-430
Harch, P.G. **5-81**
Harcourt, R.D. 15-1160
Hardacre, J.M. 13-194
Hardcastle, I.R. 11-341

Harder, S. 10-1670
Hardie, B.A. 11-22, 11-24
Hardies, D.E. 10-410
Harding, C.E. 10-255
Harding, D.R.K. 18-580, 19-477
Harding, K.E. 19-57
Harding, P.J.C. 16-265
Hardy, W.B. 12-609
Hare, G.J. 6-63
Hare, P.E. 4-143
Hargis, J.H. 14-23, 14-30
Hargittai, I. 5-194
Hargreaves, M.K. 10-997
Hargreaves, R.T. 17-58
Harich, K. 2-300
Harirchian, B. 15-1186
Hariri, R. 10-68, 10-278
Harkema, S. 3-88
Harland, P.A. 10-1085
Härle, H. 15-1192
Harlow, R.L. 3-36, 5-308, 15-528, 19-483
Harman, W.D. 15-396
Harmata, M.A. 18-564
Harmon, C. 15-1297
Harmon, C.A. 2-211
Harmon, K.H. 2-123
Harmon, R.E. 15-277, 15-280, 15-373
Harmony, J.A.K. 5-246
Harmony, M.D. 1-52
Harms, K. 5-120, 5-127, 12-29, 16-470, 16-816, 18-599
Harms, W.M. 19-285
Harned, H.S. 8-52
Harriett, J.J. 16-894
Harney, D.W. 10-1633
Harper, D.J. 19-112
Harper, J.J. 10-144, 18-18
Harper, R.W. 19-45
Harper, T.G.P. 16-326
Harpold, M.A. 19-449
Harpp, D.N. 10-820, 10-847, 10-872, 12-139, 12-346, 19-430, 19-494, 19-658, 19-681
Harrelson Jr., J.A. 5-212, 8-160, 10-1710
Harring, L.S. 15-1444
Harrington, C.K. 10-291
Harris Jr., G.D. 10-946, 15-265
Harris Jr., J.F. 15-229, 16-110, 18-499
Harris, B.D. 16-169
Harris, B.R. 10-37
Harris, C.E. 19-249
Harris, CM. 10-466, 10-1705
Harris, D.O. 2-33
Harris, E.E. 5-119
Harris, H.C. 10-561
Harris, H.P. 10-446
Harris, J.C. 10-64
Harris, J.M. 6-79, 10-26, 10-41, 10-44, 10-46, 10-59, 10-142, 10-150, 10-278, 10-279, 10-304, 10-321, 10-413, 10-416, 10-432, 18-59
Harris, K.D.M. 3-54
Harris, M.C. 10-939
Harris, M.M. 10-792
Harris, PA. 2-346, 16-192
Harris, R.F. 16-656
Harris, R.J. 10-740
Harris, S.H. 14-523, 14-526
Harris, T.M. 10-466, 10-1705, 10-2009
Harrison, A.T. 5-161, 8-169
Harrison, C.R. 17-386, 18-387
Harrison, D.J. 10-1390
Harrison, I.T. 3-146, 10-1191, 15-1433, 19-343
Harrison, J. 16-283
Harrison, J.M. 15-1321, 15-1323
Harrison, K.N. 15-474
Harrison, R.G. 10-500, 16-216, 16-759, 17-3, 17-37, 17-38, 17-55, 17-101, 19-122
Harrison, S. 3-146, 19-343
Harrod, J.F. 15-786
Harrowven, D.C. 11-407
Hart, A.J. 5-114
Hart, C.R. 13-15
Hart, D.J. 14-8, 15-103, 15-841, 16-921
Hart, G. 10-1812
Hart, H. 2-326, 5-47, 7-44, 10-192, 11-271, 11-393, 11-446, 13-182, 15-1040, 15-1056, 15-1264, 19-392
Hart, L.S. 11-403,11-411
Hart, P. 2-176
Hart, PA. 19-56
Hart, PW. 10-1527
Hartan, H. 2-129
Hartemink, M.A. 16-105
Hartenstein, J.H. 18-524
Hartford, W.H. 19-328
Hartgerink, R.L. 12-409
Hartke, K. 2-143
Hartley, F.R. 3-59, 3-60, 12-1, 16-365
Hartman, A.F. 10-795
Hartman, B.C. 10-1675
Hartman, G.D. 17-301
Hartman, M.E. 18-204
Hartman, R.D. 17-301
Hartmann, J. 12-268, 12-269
Hartmann, M. 15-1271
Hartmann-Schreier, J. 19-312
Hartmanns, J. 15-494

Hartner Jr., F.W. 16-802
Hartog, F.A. 12-453, 16-369
Hartshorn, M.P. 09-30, 11-53, 11-101, 15-384, 15-1340
Hartshorn, S.R. 10-1, 10-55, 10-414, 11-38
Hartstock, F.W. 12-611
Hartter, D.R. 8-101
Hartung, J. 14-40, 15-1009, 15-1011
Hartwig, J.F. 13-88, **13-118**, **13-119**
Hartwig, W. **10-1363**
Hartzell, G.E. 17-299
Hartzell, S.L. 16-686
Harusawa, S. 16-813,16-824
Harvey, D.F. 10-526
Harvey, G.R. 15-268, 15-1310
Harvey, J.N. 17-235
Harvey, M.C. 15-868
Harvey, R.G. 15-399, 15-408, 19-12, 19-288
Harvey, S. 12-450
Harwood, H.J. 12-133
Hasan, S.K. 10-1080, 19-241, 19-676
Hasan, T. 17-56
Hase, T.A. 10-876, 10-1763, 10-1764, 10-1792
Hasebe. M. 12-521, 14-505
Hasegawa, A. 15-919
Hasegawa, E. 14-68, 18-209
Hasegawa, K. 11-95, 15-1000
Hasegawa, M. **10-1898**, **18-112**, **18-126**
Hasegawa, Y. **12-617**
Hasek, R.H. 15-1305, 15-1310
Hasenfratz, H. 10-2007
Hasha, D.L. 15-447, **15-448**
Hashem, Md.A. 15-1143
Hashemi, M.M. 2-297, 19-131
Hashida, Y. 11-150
Hashidzume, H. 18-703
Hashiguchi, S. 15-294, 16-326
Hashimoto, H. **10-1508**, **10-1795**, **13-96**, **14-339**, 15-1442, 16-734
Hashimoto, 1. 15-743
Hashimoto, M. 12-520
Hashimoto, N. 16-188, 16-190
Hashimoto, S. 10-753, 10-1035, 10-1037, 12-247
Hashimoto, Y. 2-322, 16-448, 16-497, 16-499, 16-534, 18-112
Hashish, Z.M. 19-20
Hashtroudi, H. 15-175
Hasiak, B. 18-314
Hasimoto, T. 12-402
Haslam, E. **10-717**
Hass, H.B. 14-46, 14-285
Hassan, H.A. 16-398
Hassan, J. 10-1569
Hassan, M. 12-59
Hassanali, A. 18-234
Hassanaly, P. 10-437
Hassdenteufel, J.R. 10-251
Hassel, O. 4-256, 4-271
Hassel, T. 19-649
Hasselmann, D. 15-1250, 18-465
Hassenriick, K. 18-526, 18-531
Hassid, A.I. 16-182
Hassine, B.B. **15-1113**, 16-329
Hassner, A. 10-464, 10-737, 10-1112, 12-126, 12-164, 12-379, **14-179**, **15-19**, 15-269, 15-956, 15-958, 15-960, 15-961, 15-962, 15-963, 15-964, 15-1300, 15-1318, 16-613, 16-927, 17-382
Hasvold, L.A. 15-265, 15-763
Haszeldine, R.N. 11-247, 18-137, 18-413
Hata, E. **15-1071**
Hata, G. 15-250
Hata, K. 18-436
Hata, N. 4-5
Hata, S. 14-206
Hata, T. 10-810
Hatada, K. 4-76, 4-143, 4-145, 5-281
Hatajima, T. 16-404, 16-382
Hatanaka, A. 10-46, 10-59
Hatanaka, K. 17-280
Hatanaka, N. 18-477
Hatanaka, Y. 10-1452, 10-1454, 10-1455, 10-1462, 12-395, 15-503
Hatano, B. 19-725
Hatayama, A. 15-1069
Hatayama, Y 19-42
Hatch, L.F. 10-288, **15-1243**
Hatch, M.J. 16-890, 18-221, 18-222
Hatch, R.P. 10-896
Hatcher, B.G. 15-1318
Hatem, J. 10-1284,10-1286
Hatfield, G.L. 10-1164
Hathaway, S.J. 15-1094
Hatlevik, O. 11-196
Hatta, T. 15-1153
Hattori, A. **10-1921**
Hattori, K. 16-326, 18-284, 18-285
Hatz, E. 10-794
Haubenstock, H. **16-311**, 16-336
Haubrich, J.E. 18-392
Hauck, B.J. 15-374
Hauck, S.I. 15-264
Haufe, G. 4-63, 15-113, 15-878
Haumann, T. 2-45
Haupt, F.C. 10-102

Hauptmann, H. 10-1398, **14**-471
Hauri, R.J. 10-328
Hause, N.L. 17-11,17-16
Hauser, C.R. 10-466, 10-1696, 10-1705, 10-1713, 10-1993, 10-2009, 10-2010, 12-272, **13**-277, **13**-278, 13-281, **13**-282, **16**-44, **16**-612, 17-42, 17-372, 18-105, 18-342, **19**-471, 19-776
Hauser, F.M. 15-1022
Hauske, J.R. 4-138, 16-758
Hausser, J.W. 10-312, 18-426, 18-427
Haut, S.A. 19-567
Hautala, R. 7-36
Hautala, R.T. 7-33
Hautefaye, P. 10-970
Havel, M. 17-333
Havelka, F. 10-813
Havinga, E. 4-272, 4-289, 4-300, 13-45, 19-613
Havlas, Z. 10-336
Havlin, R. 10-1942
Hawari, J.A. 14-107
Hawkins, CM. 18-508
Hawkins, E.G.E. 14-306
Hawkins, J.M. 2-295, 15-577, 15-1208, 15-1210
Hawkinson, DC. 10-423
Hawks III, G.H. 10-1988
Hawley, D.M. 4-39
Hawthorne, M.F. 11-58, 12-325, 16-48
Hay, B.P. 16-9
Hay, J.M. 5-174, 5-193
Hay, J.V. 13-192, 17-332
Hay, P.J. 5-272
Hayakawa, K. 15-47
Hayakawa, S. 10-1994, 16-819
Hayakawa, Y. **10**-1273, **15**-1294
Hayama, N. 10-1126, 13-158, 13-225
Hayami, J. 6-80, 10-307, **13**-16, 17-67
Hayami, K. 10-859
Hayasaka, T. 16-469
Hayashi, C. 16-325
Hayashi, H. 16-313
Hayashi, J. 15-607
Hayashi, K. 10-1733, 16-574
Hayashi, M. 4-160, 10-1797, 10-1861, 10-1872, 19-518
Hayashi, N. 15-1363,18-187
Hayashi, R. 10-2002
Hayashi, S. 15-537
Hayashi, T. 10-700, 10-1514, 10-1516, 10-1533, 10-1667, 10-1734, 10-1790, 11-353, 12-34, 15-181, 15-288, 15-475, 15-481, 15-732, **15**-832, **16**-325, **16**-438, **16**-660, **16**-852, **18**-573
Hayashi, Y. 11-377, 12-217, 15-1209
Hayasi, Y. **12**-194
Hayday, K. 14-65
Hayden, W. **10**-1994
Hayer, M.F. 15-1130
Hayes, J.C. 14-202
Hayes, J.M. 12-477, 18-260
Hayes, R. 18-406
Hayes, R.A. 18-192
Hayes, S. 5-142
Hayes, W. **3**-143
Haymore, B.L. 3-83
Haynes, L.W. 3-59, 16-155, 19-30
Haynes, P. 18-448
Häyri, L. 10-876
Hays, D.S. 10-1326, 16-861, 19-637, 19-720, 19-721
Hayward, R.C. 12-129, 14-500, 14-501, 15-957, 15-1006
Haywood-Farmer, J. 10-125, 10-126, 10-128, 10-129, 10-130, 10-131, 10-404
Hazato, A. 18-497
Hazell, R.G. **15**-1282, **15**-894
Hazen, G.G. 12-169
Hazzard, G. 16-99
He, G. 14-339
He, S.-L. 14-50
He, Y. 13-150, 19-604
He, Z. 15-1228
Head, A.J. 17-122, 17-141
Head, N.J. 5-72
Headley, A.D. 8-142,8-181,8-193
Healy, E.F. 2-18, 6-78, 10-1348
Heaney, H. 12-452, 13-32, 13-108, 13-121, 15-1082, 15-1083, 16-192, 18-313
Heard, G.L. 18-315
Hearn, M.J. 18-291
Hearn, R.A. 10-964
Heasley, G.E. 15-3, 15-32
Heasley, V.L. 15-3, 15-15, 15-32
Heath, J.R. 2-294
Heath, M.J. 17-216, 17-220
Heath, N.S. 17-298
Heathcock, C.H. 4-125, 4-355, 10-1657, 15-270, 15-331, 15-562, 15-565, 15-571, 15-572, 15-606, 16-587, 16-588, 16-592, **16**-598, 16-604, 16-605, 16-617, 18-576
Heatom, N.J. 3-126
Hebel, D. 11-237, 11-396, 15-935
Héberger, K. 15-50
Hebert, E. 18-343, 18-346
Hebrard, P. 10-1084
Hecht, A. 18-495
Hecht, R. 18-71
Hecht, S.S. 10-765, 19-349

Heck, H. d'A. 10-226
Heck, M.-P 17-392
Heck, R. 10-42, 10-51, 10-151
Heck, R.F. 10-1568, **10-1728**, **10-1909**, 10-1914, 10-1916, 10-1918, 12-72, 12-205, 13-206, 14-269, 14-338, 14-340, 14-343, 14-344, 14-353, 14-354, 14-355, 14-356, 14-363, 14-364, 14-365, 15-277, 15-515, **15-770**, 15-786, 15-799, 15-862, 15-1405, 15-1483, 16-287, 17-183, 19-38, 19-389, 19-602
Hedaya, E. 11-416
Hedayatullah, M. 19-407
Hedberg, K. 2-199, 3-40, 4-232, 4-233, **4-374**
Hedberg, L. 2-199, 4-374
Hedegaard, B. 18-577
Hederich, V. **10-814**
Hedgecock Jr., H.C. 12-341
Heep, U. 15-1425, 18-396
Heeren, J.K. 16-734
Heermann, D. 10-728
Heesing, A. **18-615**, 19-20
Hegarty, A.F. 2-329, 5-205, 10-232, 10-377, 10-476, 10-608, 11-146, 12-293, 12-557
Hegbom, I. 11-127
Hegde, S.G. 12-132
Hegedus, L.S. **3-59**, 10-1539, **10-1600**, **10-1601**, 10-1649, 10-1728, 10-1734, 10-1910, 14-511, 15-250, 15-25, 15-277, **15-742**, **15-786**, 15-788, 15-797, 15-1405, 15-1467, 16-922, 16-923, 18-649
Hegeman, A.D. 18-567
Hegenberg, P. 2-287
Hehre, W.J. 1-52, 2-14, 2-305, 4-235, 5-66, 5-81, 6-68, 6-71, 6-75. 8-193, 10-180, 15-1194, 15-1205
Hei, S. 12-70
Heiba, E.I. 15-1145, 19-266
Heibel, G.E. 15-1360
Heiber, M. **18-516**
Heicklen, J. 19-201
Heid, R.M. 15-1069
Heider, L. 11-354
Heidke, R.L. 18-35
Heigl, U.W. 15-1398
Heikens, D. 10-767
Heil, B. 15-288, 15-797
Heilbron, I.M. 19-55
Heilbronner, E. 2-176, 4-349
Heiliger, L. 5-50
Heilmann, S.M. 10-1759, 16-813
Heim, P. 19-503, 19-506, 19-510
Heimbach, H. 10-1747, 16-679
Heimbach, P. 10-1597, 15-1483, 15-1485
Heimgartner, H. 4-391, 15-1263, 18-572
Hein, G.E. 12-574
Heine, H.W. **17-318**, 18-481
Heinisch, G. 14-392, 14-402
Heinrich, N. 18-74
Heinrich, P. 5-47
Heinsohn, G. 15-694
Heintz, M. **13-210**
Heinz, K.J. 14-446
Heinz, W. 2-211
Heinzman, S.W. 15-389, 16-354
Heiser, B. 15-288
Heiszwolf, G.J. 10-472
Heitmann, P. 13-123
Heitz, M. 10-1172
Helbert, M. 1-51,3-12,8-79,8-81
Held, G. 12-295
Heldrich, F.J. 13-222
Heldt, W.Z. 18-278
Helgason, A.L. 18-412
Helgeson, R. 15-1263
Helgeson, R.C. 4-132,4-134
Helgren, PF. 10-1053
Helgstrand, E. 11-10
Helland, I. 14-509
Heller, B. 15-1481
Hellgardt, K. 14-361
Hellin, M. 15-23, 16-829, 16-832, 16-834, 16-835
Helliwell, S. 19-236
Heilmann, H. 15-1374, 15-1378, 16-185
Hellou, J. 10-2005
Hellwinkel, D. 5-201
Helmchen, G. 4-87, 4-138, 4-189, 10-1731, 15-1202, 16-326
Helmick, L.S. 13-245
Helmkamp, G.K. 17-298, 17-316
Helms, A.M. 5-241
Helquist, P. 10-1598, 15-643, 15-1403
Helquist, P.M. 10-1490, **13-221**
Helsby, P. 11-130
Hembre, R.T. 14-161
Hembury, G.A. 3-54
Hemesley, P. 16-694
Hemingway, A. 4-209
Hemmer, H. 12-72
Hemminger, J.C. 19-15
Henbest, H.B. 15-111,19-343,19-463
Henchman, M. 10-337
Henderson Jr., W.A. 15-1415
Henderson, G.N. 11-50, 18-34
Henderson, J.W. 5-66
Henderson, M.A. 18-576

Henderson, R.M. 11-470
Henderson, W.G. 8-177
Henderson. W.W. 10-656
Hendley, E.C. 18-698, 18-701
Hendrick, M.E. 5-277, 15-1417
Hendricks, R.T. 15-557
Hendrickson, J.B. **6-1**, 10-680, 10-788, 10-951, 10-1085, 10-1778, 10-2048, **14-411**, 15-131, **15-134**, 15-921, 17-292, 17-306
Hendriks, A.H.M. 10-1296
Hendrix, J.P. 12-274
Hendry, D.G. 14-42, 14-89
Hendry, J. 19-377, 19-486
Hendry, J.B. 11-104
Hendy, B.N. 10-496
Henis, J.M.S. 12-50
Henke, B.R. 16-595
Henke, H. 19-205
Henkel, J.G. 18-524
Henley, R.L. 15-342, 15-986
Henne, A.L. 15-352
Hennessy, M.J. 12-170
Henning, R. 10-698
Henning, W. 18-515
Hennion, G.F. 10-1613, 10-1614, 18-322
Hennis, R.P. 18-404
Henri-Rousseau, O. 10-264, **15-1181**
Henrichs, M. 5-134
Henrichs, P.M. 10-100
Henrick, C.A. 10-1641,10-1969
Henrick, C.A. 15-716
Henriksson, U. 16-336, 16-337
Henry, B.R. 1-72
Henry, J.-C. 16-326
Henry, J.P. 18-513
Henry, J.R. 10-946, 19-230
Henry, P.M. 10-768, 19-225, 19-389, 19-391
Henshilwood, J.A. 15-1489
Hensley, M. 15-1029
Hentchoya Hémo, J. **16-181**, **16-182**
Hentges, S.G. 15-1114
Henzel, R.P. 18-654, 18-659
Heo, C.K.M. 17-51
Heo, G.S. 3-82

Hepler, L.G. 8-137, 8-196, 8-197, 9-26
Hepp, H.J. 15-493, 15-760
Herbert, W. 10-1449
Herbst, G. 19-241
Herbst, M.D. 10-798
Herbstein, F.H. 3-131
Hercourt, A. 19-557
Hercules, D.M. 11-420
Herd, A.K. 10-1020
Herdle, W.B. 2-276
Herényi, B. 15-1156
Herges, R. 15-887
Hérion, H. 17-213
Herlem, M. 5-15
Herlihy, K.P. **18-123**
Herling, J. 18-391
Herman, F. 19-298
Hermans, B. 15-1108
Hermawan, I. 12-96
Hermeling, D. 15-1186
Hernandez Jr., L. 16-925
Hernández, A. 17-142
Hernández, J.E. 19-167
Hernández, R. 14-222
Herndon, W.C. 2-4, 2-11, 2-82, 2-94, 2-101, 2-103, 10-192, 15-1194, 15-1256, 15-1257, 15-1260, 15-1343, 18-402
Herod, A.A. 14-78
Herold, B.J. 5-267
Herold, L.R. **10-513**
Heron, N.M. **15-637**, 18-636
Herr, M.L. **2-185**
Herr, R.J. 15-265
Herr, R.W. **10-1675**, **10-1682**
Herranz, E. 15-1112,15-1114
Herrero, L.A. 8-101
Herrick, E.C. 15-1397, 19-750
Herrmann, J.L. 10-1741, 10-1790, 15-748
Herrmann, R. 10-105, 17-400, 19-456
Herrmann, W.A. 13-117
Herron, D.K. 18-456
Herron, J.T. 19-10, 19-224
Herscheid, J.D.M. 11-237
Herschlag, D. 10-355
Hersh, W.H. **15-1212**
Hershberger, J. 15-721
Hershberger, S.S. 12-396, 14-468
Hershenson, F.M. 4-138,15-1195
Hershkowitz, R.L 10-1166, 13-141
Hertel, L.W. 14-254
Herterich, I. 10-117
Hertwig, R.H. 2-266
Hervas', M. **5-186**
Herweh, J.E. 10-2050
Herz, A.H. 11-36
Herzberg, G. 5-229, 5-289
Herzog, K.J. 15-1177
Hess Jr., B.A. 2-74, 2-81, 2-182, 5-42, 10-114, 10-172, 10-177
Hess, G.P. 10-1009
Hess, H. 4-142
Hess, H.M. 15-367

Hess, R.E. 15-1298, 16-908
Hess, T.C. 18-192
Hess, W.W. 19-59
Hesse, D.G. 4-393
Hesse, G. 4-143
Hesse, M. 10-1058, 10-1059, 12-532, 18-127
Hesse, R.H. 12-602, 4-100, 14-101, 15-882, 18-682, 18-685
Hessler, D.P. 14-122
Hester, N.B. 14-219
Heublein, G. 15-13
Heuman, P. **10**-1379
Heumann, A. 14-262
Heumann, K.G. 3-86
Heuring, D.L. 18-313
Heus, M. 15-349
Heus-Kloos, Y.A. 10-1942
Heuschmann, M. 18-482
Heusler, K. 14-221, 16-339, 18-81
Hevesi, L. **5**-47, **10**-843, **15**-1108, **19**-10, **19**-283
Hewitt, C.D. 11-235
Hewitt, M. 5-134
Hext, N.M. 8-157
Hexter, R.M. 15-1471
Hey, D.H. **10**-1530, **14**-18, **14**-74, **14**-76, **14**-321, 14-381, 14-385, 15-755, 15-757
Hey, J.P. 4-199,4-204
Heyd, W.E. 10-249
Heydkamp, W.R. 12-382
Heyer, D. 19-300
Heyn, A.S. 15-612
Heyn, H. 17-425, 17-427
Hiatt, R. 10-815, 10-821, 15-1032
Hiatt, R.R. 15-1056, 19-421
Hibbert, F. **3**-34, **8**-61, **8**-85, **8**-89, **8**-152, **10**-619, 10-1244, 6-250
Hibbs, D.E. 16-814
Hiberty, P.C. 1-48, 2-6, 2-37, 10-180
Hibino, H. 10-1625
Hibino, S. 15-1272, 19-651
Hickey, E.R. 15-1200
Hickey, M.J. 4-246
Hickinbottom, W.J. 10-1302, 11-271, 11-443, 19-254
Hickmott, P.W. 12-223, 12-225
Hicks, F.A. 15-764, 15-780
Hicks, R. 15-1075
Hida, K. 15-388
Hida, M. 13-127
Hida, T. 10-1185
Hidaka, T. 13-163
Hideura, D. 15-524
Hiebert, J.D. 19-19
Hiemstra, H. 10-960, -375, 15-633
Hienuki, Y. 4-355
Hierl, P.M. 10-337
Higa, S. 10-1997
Higashi; F. 16-206
Higashijima, M. 15-397
Higashimae, Y. 10-1916
Higashizima, T. 15-789
Higasi, K. 2-26
Higginbotham, H.K. 1-56
Higgins, D. 10-1643
Higgins, J. 13-141
Higgins, R. 14-114,14-206,14-244
Higgins, R.J. 11-143, 11-144
Higgins, S.D. 19-801
Higgins, W. 17-237
High, K.G. 15-486
Highcock, R.M. **15**-15
Highet, R.J. 2-344
Hightower, T.R. 15-218, 15-265, 15-763, 19-37
Higley, D.P. 18-489, **19**-211, 19-217
Higuchi, H. 2-270
Higuchi, S. 13-172
Higuchi, T. 10-1020, **10**-1514, 12-599, **14**-159
Hiiragi, M. 10-871
Hilbert, J.M. 17-45
Hildebrandt, B. 16-382
Hilderbrandt, R.L. 1-62
Hill, A.E. 15-1493
Hill, C.L. **12**-474, **12**-475, **14**-154, **14**-297, **19**-43
Hill, D.G. 10-2010
Hill, D.R. 19-310
Hill, D.T. 15-1429
Hill, E.A. 12-426, 15-619
Hill, H.A.O. 13-145
Hill, H.D.W. 14-383
Hill, H.W. 4-177
Hill, J.A. 12-22
Hill, K.A. 12-125
Hill, M.E. 11-121
Hill, R. 2-195
Hill, R.H. 10-1377
Hill, R.K. 2-223, **4**-13, **10**-1179, **15**-545, **17**-144, 17-381, 18-281, 18-326, 18-508, 18-512, 18-569, 18-570
Hiller, G. 16-129, 19-534
Hillhouse, G.L. 14-417
Hillier, I.H. 2-348, 18-550, 18-558
Hillman, M.E.D. 16-480, 18-352
Hillmyer, M. 10-874
Hilmersson, G. 8-172, 15-1225
Hilpert, H. 4-38
Hilty, T.K. 16-622

Himabindu, K. 10-706
Himeshima, Y. 13-18
Himoe, A. 11-41, 11-43
Hin, Q.-H. 10-1276
Hinde, A.L. 15-402
Hindley, N.J. 16-484
Hine, J. 2-315, 3-26, 8-49, 8-137, 9-16, 9-22, 9-24, 10-495, 11-333, 12-57, **15-413**, 17-41
Hines, J.N. 17-280
Hines, W.G. 14-23
Hinkle, K.W. 16-440
Hinkley, J.M. 10-465
Hinman, M.M. 15-1407
Hinman, R.L. 16-913
Hino, F. 18-286
Hino, T. 16-347
Hinton, J. 6-39
Hintze, H. 19-20
Hinz, J. 14-135
Hinze, J. 1-25, 1-28
Hinzen, B. 19-78
Hioki, H. 10-741
Hioki, K. 16-447, 18-596
Hipperson, W.C.P. 19-176
Hirab, T. 10-199
Hirabayashi, K. 10-1454, 10-1455, 14-358
Hirabayashi, Y. 10-893
Hirabe, T. 10-1284
Hiraga, Y. 16-719
Hirai, H. 11-48
Hirai, K. 15-797
Hiraiwa, N. 2-270
Hirakawa, A.Y 7-12
Hirakawa, T. 12-119
Hirama, M. 15-370, 15-573, 15-1015, 15-1018, 16-599
Hiramatsu, H. 16-652
Hirano, K. 16-500, 16-501
Hirano, M. 10-536, 12-106, 15-890, 19-385
Hirano, T. 19-234
Hirano, Y. **19-221**
Hirao, I. **10-1976**, **11-348**
Hirao, K. 15-766
Hirao, T. 10-1259, 10-1261, 10-1412, 10-1465, 10-1895, 14-343, 15-778, 15-786, 19-725
Hirao, Y **14-150**
Hiraoka, K. 10-158
Hiraoka, M. 3-76
Hiraoka, N. 11-13
Hirashima, T. **15-1145**
Hirata, K. 10-730
Hirata, R. 10-2027
Hirata, T. 12-144
Hirata, Y. **19-440**, **19-518**
Hirayama, F. **7-20**
Hirobe, M. 14-159
Hiroi, K. 12-200, 17-240
Hirooka, S. 2-244, 2-252
Hirosawa, C. 10-1688
Hirose, Y 10-684
Hirota, E. 4-226, 5-229
Hirota, H. 10-389
Hirota, K. 10-639, 10-963, 12-603, 13-169
Hirota, M. 9-76
Hirota, N. 5-178
Hirotsu, K. 3-128,10-1514
Hirsch, J.A. 4-277
Hirsch, M.S. 10-388
Hirsch, R. **5-122**
Hirschmann, H. 4-209,4-210
Hirshfeld, F.L. 2-240
Hirsl-Starševic, S. 10-188
Hirst, D.M. 2-2
Hisano, T. **15-1153**
Hisatsune, I.C. 19-201
Hiscocks, S.P. 2-353
Hiskey, R.G. 19-449
Hite, G. 18-173
Hites, R.A. 10-2025
Hiti, J. 5-233
Hixson, S.S. 18-662, 18-668
Hiyama, R. 15-391
Hiyama, T. 10-1452, 10-1454, 10-1455. 10-1462, 10-1547, 10-1647, 10-1648, 10-1859, 10-1860, 12-395, 14-358, 14-371, 15-503, 15-798, 15-876, 16-408, 16-806, 17-280
Hiyama, Y 10-570
Hlasta, D.J. 10-1979
Ho, C. 6-81
Ho, C.-J. 18-84
Ho, D.M. 2-61
Ho, G. 5-311
Ho, G.-J. 5-282
Ho, I. 17-80
Ho, K.M. 10-1402, 14-475
Ho, L.L. 17-300
Ho, P.-S. 10-1862
Ho, PT. 15-1014
Ho, S. 10-352
Ho, S.P 3-95
Ho, T. **8-128**, **10-572**, **10-1277**, **10-1476**, **12-233**, 16-32, 16-38, 16-306
Ho, T.L. 10-1314, 10-1315, 19-10
Hoa, K. **11-110**
Hoang, H. 16-793
Hoard, J.A. 18-500

Hobson, J.D. 10-1228
Hoch, H. 12-225
Hochstrasser, R. 12-123
Hocker, J. 10-2049
Hocking, M.B. 19-258, 19-260, 19-261
Hocks, L. 18-621
Hodder, A.S. 18-631
Hodek, W. 17-397
Hodge, C.N. 3-50, 4-0204
Hodge, J.D. 5-30, 5-43, 5-45
Hodge, P. 10-1027, 10-1085, 12-544, 17-386
Hodges, F.W. 11-442
Hodgson, B. 5-233
Hodgson, P.K.G. 10-618, 18-32
Hodnett, E.M. 14-29, 17-60
Hodson, D. 10-2021
Hoefnagel, A.J. 9-64
Hoefnagel, M.A. 11-140
Hoefs, C.A.M. 17-180
Hoeg, D.F. 12-487
Hoeg, D.F. 19-471
Hoegerle, R.M. 17-346
Hoegy, S.E. 15-585
Hoekstra, A. 11-237
Hoekstra, M.S. 10-1991
Hoem, A.B. 18-567
Hoesch, L. 4-38
Hoet, P. 18-428
Hofelich, T.C. 5-2,5-62,10-157
Hofer, E. 4-180
Hoff, D.J. 16-755
Hoff, E.F. 15-211,15-1321
Hoff, W.S. 19-244
Hoffman Jr., J.M. 2-194
Hoffman Jr., L. 16-890
Hoffman, C. 15-103
Hoffman, D.H. 4-132, 12-30
Hoffman, D.K. 18-444
Hoffman, D.M. 15-1036
Hoffman, N.W. 10-1883
Hoffman, R.V. 18-288, 18-290
Hoffman, T.D 12-27,12-545
Hoffmann, F. 14-187
Hoffmann, H. 16-747
Hoffmann, H.M.R. 10-1212, 10-1247, 12-78, 15-539, 15-1294, 15-1491, 15-1492, 15-1493
Hoffmann, P. 16-936, 16-939, 16-940, 17-399
Hoffmann, R. 2-12, 2-42, 2-155, 4-66, 4-352, 5-270, 15-988, 15-1067, 15-1256, 15-1258, 15-1265, 15-1376, 17-311, 18-325, 18-399, 18-401, 18-438, 18-439, 18-442, 18-509
Hoffmann, R.W. 5-122, 5-123, 10-1534, 12-325, 12-489, 13-32, 13-38, 13-66, 13-122, 13-188, 14-430, 15-1184, 16-238, 16-382, 16-383, 16-453, 16-464, 16-593, 16-595, 18-592, 18-601
Hoffmann, V.T. 4-379
Höfle, G. 10-711,18-198,18-597
Höfle, G.A. 12-282, 16-678
Höfler, C. 19-20
Hofman, P.S. 11-450
Hofmann, A.W. 17-201
Hofmann, H.-J. 11-152
Hofmann, J.E. 11-357, 13-237, 17-232, 17-234
Hofstra, G. 16-112
Hofstraat, R. 16-909
Höft, E. 10-289, 11-337
Hogarth, M.J. 10-1530
Högberg, H. 10-1592
Högberg, T. 10-1036
Hoge, G.S. 18-627, 18-646
Hogen-Esch, T.E. 5-111, 5-114
Höger, E. 19-175
Hogeveen, H. 5-27, 10-164, 12-47, 12-91, 12-218, 12-220, 15-132, 15-190, 15-784, 15-1342, 15-1372, 15-1375, 16-379, 16-697, 18-7, 18-29, 18-90
Hogg, H.J. 10-628
Hogg, J.L. 10-594, 16-44
Hoggett, J.G. 11-26, 11-30, 11-37, 11-46, 11-78, 11-90
Hoggett, J.H. 11-113
Hogrefe, F. 2-140
Hohner, G. 2-51
Hoigné, J. 11-416
Hoiness, C.M. 15-1430
Hojatti, M. 2-318, 8-87, 8-92, 12-83, 15-190
Hojo, K. 2-208, 10-1099
Hojo, M. 10-55, 10-732, 16-265, 16-308
Hoke, D. 10-1253, 10-1254, 10-1289, 10-1295
Holbrook, K.A. 18-137
Holcomb, A.G. 2-166, 10-122
Holcomb, H. 19-388
Holden, D.A. 14-29
Holder, R.W. 15-1304, 15-1318, 18-466
Holland, G.W. 15-731
Holland, H.L. 19-448, 19-453, 19-457
Holliday, R.E. 13-28
Hollingsworth, C.A. 1-2
Hollinshead, D.M. 10-1364
Hollis, T.K. 16-625
Hollis, W.M. 12-518
Hollister, K.R. 10-1779
Holloway, F. 19-118
Holloway, R.L. 2-170
Hollowell, C.D. 1-73
Hollyhead, W.B. 8-59, 8-64

Holm, A. 10-463, 10-654
Holm, T. 16-373, 16-409, 16-416, 16-418, **16-419**, 16-423
Holman, R.W. 11-28
Holmberg, B. **10-591**
Holme, D. 15-314
Holmes, J. 18-342
Holmes, J.L. 2-334, 05-64, **5-221**, **10-164**
Holmes, R.R. 19-408
Holmes, S.A. 4-313
Holmgren, A. 10-73
Holmquist, B. 10-609
Holmquist, C.R. 12-211
Holness, N.J. 4-285, 17-67, 18-28
Holsboer, F. 2-183
Holt, G. 10-2021
Holt, R.J. 15-1399
Holthausen, M.C. 2-266
Holton, J. 10-1901, 12-72, 15-272
Holton, R.A. 15-592
Holtz, D. **8-177**
Holtz, H.D. 8-191,10-308
Holub, D.P. 19-726
Holubka, J.W. 14-290
Holy, A. **11-322**
Holy, N. **16-191**
Holy, N.L. 5-257, 10-283, 15-406
Homer, R.B. 8-24, 8-55, 10-608
Homma, K. 19-525
Hommeltoft, S.I. 5-191
Hommes, H. **10-1813**
Homsi, F. 15-905
Hon, M. 4-345, **15-126**, **18-129**, **18-474**, **18-481**, 18-501
Hon, Y. 10-31,10-315
Hon, Y.-S. 19-187
Honda, H. 15-444
Honda, K. 17-173, 18-593
Honda, T. 10-364, 19-703
Honda, Y 15-852, 19-477
Hondrogiannis, G. 15-899, 15-1238
Honegger, E. 4-349
Honeychuck, R.V. 15-1212
Hong, B.-C. 15-1489
Hong, J.-B. 15-804
Hong, J.-I. 13-106
Hong, R.-K. 10-943, 14-467
Hong, W.S. 10-1329
Hong, Y. 10-1978,16-324,16-632
Hongo, H. 16-470
Hongoh, Y. 4-145
Hongwen, H. **10-1085**
Hongxun, D. 18-359
Honma, S. 15-734
Hontschik, I. 11-371
Honwad, V.K. 10-1942
Honzatko, R. 4-103
Hoobler, M.A. 10-1829
Hood, F.P. **4-261**
Hoodless, I.M. 19-20
Hoogzand, C. 4-433, **15-1458**, **15-1470**
Hoornaert, G. 15-982
Hoover, F.W. 15-1363
Hooz, J. 10-633, **10-671**, 10-1768, **10-1849**, 10-1850, 10-1851, 12-124, 12-287, 12-288, 15-692, 15-693, 16-575, 18-388
Hopf, H. 2-39, 2-40, 10-49, **15-104**, **15-1182**, 15-1303, 15-1393
Hopff, H. 4-435, 10-767, 15-1460
Hopkins Jr., H.P. **8-159**, 10-326
Hopkins, A. 10-2034
Hopkins, P.B. 2-327, 17-278, 18-565
Hopkins, T.E. 12-593
Hopkinson, A.C. 3-37, 10-293, 10-298
Hoppe, D. 16-672, **16-681**, 16-682
Hoppen, V. 4-279
Hopper, C.R. 10-625
Hopperdietzel, S. 15-898
Horaguchi, T. 10-528
Horak, V. 19-366
Horan, C.J. 13-19
Hore, P.J. 5-189
Horeau, A. **4-117**, **4-166**, **4-174**, **4-179**
Horgan, A.G. **18-615**
Horgan, A.J. 18-611
Horgan, S.W. **19-132**
Hörhold, H. 11-244
Hori, I. 10-1790
Hori, K. 10-622
Hori, M. **15-1482**
Hori, T. 12-176, 12-177, 14-148
Hori, Y 15-221, 15-222
Horibe, I. 4-171, 11-503
Horie, T. **13-114**
Horiguchi, I. 15-839
Horiguchi, Y. 14-179, 14-85, 15-657
Horikawa, M. 16-226
Horino, H. 19-780
Horita, K. 14-97
Horiuchi, C.A. 11-228, **12-115**, 12-130, 12-140, 15-918, 15-930, 15-1005
Horiuchi, M. 16-803
Horiuti, I. **15-321**
Horler, H. 18-74
Hormi, O. **15-1064**
Hormi, O.E.O. 15-1012

Horn, U. 17-359
Hornaman, E.C. 17-220
Hornbuckle, S.F. 2-66
Horner, J.H. 14-91, 15-835, 15-856
Horner, L. 4-44, 4-160, 16-722, 16-747, 18-186, 19-542, 19-680
Hornfeld, H.L. 11-29
Hörnfeldt, A. 10-1977
Horning, D.E. 13-253
Horning, E.C. 19-380
Horrom, B.W. 10-1697
Horspool, W.M. **7-1**, **18-**671
Horton, D. 4-298
Horton, J.L. 9-78
Horvath, B. **14-**171
Hosaka, K. 10-1998
Hoshi, M. 12-419
Hoshino, E. 15-1000
Hoshino, M. 10-1357, 17-320, 19-477
Hoshino, Y. 16-848
Hosie, L. 10-231
Hosmane , R.S. **2-**118
Hosokawa, H. **15-**918, 15-930
Hosokawa, T. **19-**391
Hosomi, A. 10-732, 10-1607, 10-1968, 10-1970, 15-375, 15-534, 15-607, 16-308, 16-436, 16-591, 16-624
Hosoya, H. 2-106
Hosoya, N. **15-**1069, **15-**1134
Hossain, A.M.M. 19-241
Hossain, M.A. 14-374
Hossain, M.M. **15-**1130
Hosseini, M.W. 3-118,4-202
Hossenlopp, J.M. 7-38
Hotta, Y. 16-389, 19-262
Hou, K. **14-**183
Hou, S.-J. 10-271
Hou, W. 15-1074
Hou, X.-L. 10-693, 10-965, 16-529, 16-537
Hou, Z. 19-704,19-711
Houghton, T.J. 2-56
Houille, O. 10-584
Houk, J. 12-496
Houk, K.N. 2-292, 3-1, 4-245, 5-108, 5-227, 6-40, 7-1, 7-11, 8-161, **11-25**, 12-285, 14-41, 15-79, 15-101, 15-540, 15-546, 15-547, 15-1014, 15-1039, 15-1155, **15-**1160, 15-1163, 15-1214, 15-1244, 15-1245, 15-1251, 15-1252, 15-1256, 15-1259, 15-1267, **15-**1268, **15-**1269, 15-1319, 15-1490, 16-282, 16-595, 18-390, 18-403, 18-406, 18-407, 18-408, 18-456, **18-**540, **18-**548, **18-**559, **18-**599, **18-**665, **18-**669
Houle, FA. 5-63
Houlihan, W.J. 16-564
Houmounou, J.P. 10-969
Houpis, I.N. 15-623
Hourigan, M.J. 10-192
House, H.O. 10-766, **10-**1549, **10-**1691, 10-1701, 10-1769, 10-1771, 10-1772, 10-1775, 10-1934, 10-1990, 10-2007, 12-93, 12-223, 12-296, 12-433, 15-164, 15-272, 15-341, 15-399, 15-559, 15-655, 15-662, 15-674, 15-676, 15-718, 15-721, 15-722, 15-866, 15-904, 15-978, 15-1032, 16-183, 16-253, 16-289, 16-291, 16-371, 16-413, 16-561, 16-578, 16-722, 16-888, 17-332, 17-340, 18-163, 18-223, 18-294, 19-10, 19-12, 19-17, 19-51, 19-164, **19-**498, **19-**612
Houser, H.J. 5-43, 5-45
Houser, J.J. 5-30, 17-40
Houser, R.W. 12-153
Houston, D. 18-92
Hovanes, B.A. 10-26
Höver, H. 2-158
Hoveyda, A.H. **15-**471, **15-**480, **15-**485, 15-489, 15-637, 17-175, 18-636
Howard, A.E. 4-292, 4-332
Howard, J.A. 5-248, **14-**29, **14-**42, **14-**65, **14-**230
Howard, J.A.K. 3-9, 3-55, 15-1485, 18-706
Howard, S.I. 16-311
Howard, W.G. 14-228
Howe, C.A. 14-73, 14-337
Howe, G.R. **19-**421
Howe, R. 10-154
Howe, R.S. 10-1086
Howell, A.R. 15-1080, 16-917, 19-323
Howell, B.A. 10-311
Howell, C.F. 17-208
Howell, H.G. 16-348
Howell, R. 18-302
Howell, R.G. 15-868
Howells, R.D. 10-368
Howk, B.W. 15-237
Howlett, K.E. **17-**134
Howley, P.M. 15-1417
Howlin, B.J. 15-553
Hoy, R.C. 16-226
Hoy, V.J. 3-9, 3-55
Hoye, R.C. 4-204
Hoye, T.R. 15-1473,15-1475
Hoyle, C.E. 15-1353
Hoyle, J. 5-128
Hoyt Jr., E.B. 17-304, 17-309
Hoyte, O.P.A. 10-786
Hoz, S. 4-369, **8-**115, 10-217, 10-314, 10-342, 10-353, 10-354, 17-53

Hoz, T. **10**-1630, **17**-341
Hrdlovič, P. **11**-413
Hrovat, D.A. 4-452, 4-453, **5**-206, **10**-35, **18**-515
Hrubiec, R.T. 10-214, **10**-1175
Hruby, V.J. 15-711
Hrutfiord, B.F. 12-548, 13-122
Hsi, N. 18-25
Hsieh, W. 18-93
Hsu, C.S. 10-26
Hsu, H.C. 12-358
Hsu, J.N.C. 15-1340
Hsu, S. 19-293
Hsu, S.K. 12-25
Hu , D.D. 6-25
Hu, B. 19-308,19-310
Hu, C.-M. 16-245
Hu, H. **14**-184, **14**-185, **19**-113
Hu, J. 15-1074
Hu, L. 13-163
Hu, S. 16-911
Hu, W.-X. 10-1224
Hu, X. **19**-621
Hu, Y. 10-807, 10-808
Hu, Y.-H. 16-797
Hu, Y.-Q. 10-930
Hua-ming, Z. 15-1257
Huang, B. 19-227
Huang, C. 8-94
Huang, C.-H. 15-833
Huang, D. 6-65
Huang, F. 17-265
Huang, H. 4-242, 11-239, 14-97
Huang, H.H. 11-467
Huang, J. 4-232
Huang, L.W. 7-43
Huang, M. **2**-178
Huang, N.Z. **2**-201
Huang, P.C. 14-417, 14-418
Huang, S.K. 10-46, 10-59
Huang, S.L. 19-102
Huang, T.-Y 16-600
Huang, T.T. **10**-1171
Huang, W.-S. 15-640
Huang, X. 10-1537, 10-1918, **12**-413, 16-746, 18-232, 18-238
Huang, Y. 16-75, 16-436, 16-489, 16-505, 16-746, 19-640
Huang, Y.-Z. 16-746
Huang, Y.C.J. 15-1245
Huang-Minion 19-516
Huba, F. 13-67
Hubbard, J.L. **8**-151, 18-366, 18-367
Hubbard, R. **18**-413
Hübel, W. 4-433, 15-1458
Huber Jr., F.E. 12-552
Huber, E.W. 16-168,16-182
Huber, G. 16-890, 19-175
Huber, H. 18-417
Huber, J.E. 10-114
Huber, MB. 15-714
Huber, W. 2-233, 2-253, 2-255, 5-257
Huber-Buser, E. 4-384
Huber-Emden, H. 10-962
Hubert, A.J. 10-669, 12-56, **17**-261
Hubert, T.D. 10-1423
Hubig, S.M. 16-911
Hiibner, F. 10-1747
Hübner, T. 4-398
Hückel, W. 15-399, 17-76, 19-10
Huckin, S.N. 16-653
Hudec, J. 4-222, **15**-785, **15**-1267, **17**-15, **18**-469
Hudlicky, M. 10-491, 10-1123, **10**-1128, 10-1129, 10-1157, 10-1248, 10-1257, 12-538, 14-96, 14-208, 15-151, 15-273, 15-984, 15-1032, 16-252, 17-415, 18-294, 19-9, 19-10, 19-11, 19-50, 19-157, 19-225, 19-250, 19-348, 19-364, 19-378, 19-448, 19-453, **19**-495, 19-499, 19-500
Hudlicky, T. 4-345, **10**-1123, 13-192, 15-126, 15-1027, 15-1028, 15-1030, 15-1398, 15-1030, 18-129, 18-474, 18-481, 18-501
Hudrlik, A.M. 15-462, 15-490, 15-641, 16-685
Hudrlik, P.F. 5-161, 10-1675, 10-1773, 12-296, 15-462, 15-490, 15-641, 16-685
Hudson, A. 14-28
Hudson, C.E. 19-215
Hudson, G.V. 4-355
Hudson, H.R. 10-183,18-48
Hudson, R.F. 2-66, 10-321, 10-348, 10-355, 10-562
Hudspeth, J.P. 18-500
Huet, F. **10**-519, **10**-1966
Huet, J. 16-530
Huffman, J.C. 10-169
Huffman, J.W. 16-290
Huffman, R.W. 10-1047
Hufton, R. 15-626
Hug, M. 15-1072
Huggins, M.L. 3-1
Hughes, CM. 15-1155
Hughes, D.L. 4-164, 10-324, 10-326, 10-740, 18-585
Hughes, D.O. 2-33
Hughes, E.D. 9-3, 10-2, 10-14, 10-23, 10-24, 10-27, 10-323, 10-600, 11-0133, 11-135. 11-425, 11-426, 11-429, 12-9, 12-16, 12-567,

Hughes, E.D. *(Continued)*
17-12, 17-34, 17-82, 17-83, 17-87, 17-103, 17-104, 17-106, **17-**116, **17-**119, 18-5, 18-607, **18-**610, 18-612
Hughes, L. 5-236
Hughes, M.L. 17-105
Hughes, N. 12-451,12-466,13-62
Hughes, R. 14-455
Hughes, R.L. **18-**106
Hughes, W.B. 16-734, 18-621, 18-622, 18-625
Hughmark, P.B. 18-273
Huh, K. 10-947
Huheey, J.E. 1-24, **8-**192
Hühnerfuss, H. 4-189
Hui, R.A.H.F. 19-40
Hui, R.C. 15-744, 15-745, 16-396, 16-397
Huie, E.M. 15-1153
Huisgen, R. 13-75, 13-122, 13-139, **15-**1153, 15-1160, 15-1164, 15-1170, 15-1171, 15-1295, 15-1305, 15-1306, 15-1320, 15-1320, 15-1324, 15-1331, 15-1333, 15-1335, 15-1336, 15-1379, 18-246, 18-417, 18-425, 18-489, 19-648
Huisman, H.O. 12-154
Hulce, M. 2-41, 15-678
Hulkenberg, A. 17-395
Hull, L.A. 14-189
Hull, W. 4-240
Hulliger, J. 19-224
Hüllmann, M. 16-405
Hum, G.P. 19-123
Hummel, K. 10-255, 15-1317, 15-1329
Hummel, K.F. 15-1417
Hummel, W. 16-326
Humpf, H.-U. 19-312
Humphrey, G.R. 18-259
Humphrey, L.B. 5-233
Humphries, R.E. 2-62, 12-444
Humski, K. 10-46, 10-59, **10-**115, **10-**196, **17-**35
Hung, C.-W. 4-71
Hung, J.C. 12-233
Hunger, J. 19-47
Hunger, M 17-162, 17-255
Hiinig, S. 5-317, 10-958, 10-1759, 10-1761, 10-2014, 12-61, 12-167, **12-**225, 15-341, 16-680, 17-206, 19-4
Hunkler, D. 4-380
Hunt, D.A. 15-683
Hunt, D.E 19-398
Hunt, I.R. 8-125
Hunt, J.C. 10-994
Hunt, J.D. 14-445
Hunt, K. 18-464
Hunt, W.J. 5-272
Hunter, C.A. 3-54
Hunter, D.H. 5-109, **5-**119, 12-504, 17-37, 17-54, 18-86, 18-161
Hunter, J.E. 12-285
Hunter, W.E. 19-697
Huntsman, W.D. 12-65, 18-504
Huo, S. 15-522
Hupperts, A. 19-742, 19-743
Hurd, CD. 16-77
Hurst, J.J. 4-196
Hursthouse, M.B. **3-**24, **10-**1448, **15-**707, **16-**814
Hurwitz, M.J. 18-56
Hurwitz, S. 18-629
Husain, A. 10-572, **10-**1164, 15-202
Husain, A. 19-668
Huser, D.L. 15-408, **15-**412
Husfeld, CO. 18-478
Hush, N.S. 2-340
Husk, G.R. 15-1404
Huskey, W.P. 10-594
Hussain, A. 12-599
Hussain, K.A. 18-631
Hussain, N. 19-349
Hussénius, A. 12-63
Hussey, A.S. 15-331
Hussey, R.E. 10-300
Hussoin, M.S. 10-680
Hussoin, Md.S. 17-292
Huston, S.E. 10-56
Huszthy, P. 4-145
Hutchings, M.G. 18-357, 18-362, 19-548
Hutchins, M.G. 17-251
Hutchins, M.G.K. 15-304
Hutchins, R.O. 4-294, 10-484, 10-870, 10-1253, 10-1254, 10-1281, 10-1289, 10-1295, 10-1336, 10-1371, 10-1379, 15-304, 15-427, 16-168, 16-182, 16-265, 16-347, 17-251, 19-69, 19-539, 19-560, 19-766
Hutchins, R.R. 14-485
Hutchinson, E.G. 12-552
Hutchinson, J. 12-99, 17-305
Hutchinson, J.H. 19-748
Hutchinson, J.P. 14-202
Hutchinson, L.L. 12-449
Hutchinson, R.J. 4-443
Hutchison, C.A. 5-268
Hutchison, J.D. 10-326
Hutchison, R.J. 12-578
Huthmacher, K. 11-188
Hiittel, R. 19-389
Hüttmann, G. 15-792
Hutton, J. 16-295, 19-765
Hutton, R.S. **2-**194, 5-241, 5-288

Huuskonen, J. 3-135
Huybrechts, G. 15-1246
Huyffer, PS. 18-675
Huynh, C. **10-1669**, 18-600
Huyser, E.S. **5-174**, 14-1, 14-5, 14-24, 14-79, 14-82, 14-93, 14-108, 14-228, 15-49, 15-124, **15-753**, 18-54,19-717
Hwang, H. 10-159
Hwang, H.H. 19-195
Hwang, J.-T. 15-843
Hwang, S.H. **15-1473**
Hwang, Y.C. 16-426
Hwang-Lee, S. 15-452
Hwu, J.R. 7-43, 10-1234
Hyatt, J.A. **11-189**
Hyatt, J.A. 19-152
Hylarides, M.D. 12-362
Hylton, T. 10-1789, 10-1794
Hyma, R.S. 16-480
Hyman, H.H. 11-238
Hynes, M.J. 2-322
Hyoda, S. 3-128
Hyuga, S. 12-406, 15-729, 18-377
Hyun, M.H. 4-143

Ianskanen-Lehti, K. 10-664
Ibarbia, P.A. 15-106
Ibatullin, U.G. 16-828
Ibbitson, D.A. 1-36
Ibers, J.A. 3-1,3-60
Ibne-Rasa, K.M. 10-342, 11-471, 13-274, 15-1086
Ibrahim, I.T. 16-880, 17-404
Ibrahim, S. 12-527
Ibuka, T. 10-212,15-707
Ibuki, I. 10-1871
Ibukuro, F. 3-145
Ichihara, A. 15-1242
Ichihara, J. 10-1200, 10-1867, 15-878
Ichihashi, Y. 11-48
Ichikawa, K 11-280, 12-416, 12-485, 14-73, 15-895, 17-26, 18-624
Ichikawa, Y. 15-707
Ichimura, K. 10-950
Ichimura, Y. 10-662
Ichinari, D. **15-401**
Ichinose, N. 5-241
Ichinose, Y. 15-977
Ichiyanagi, T. 15-1408
Iczkowski, R.P. 1-25
Idacavage, M.J. **10-1836**, **18-350**
Iddon, B. 16-205
Ide, W.S. 16-854
Idemoto, T. 14-438, 14-180
Idoux, J.P. 9-71, **13-115**, 19-227
Ielmini, A. 13-175
Iesce, M.R. **15-1157**
Iffland, D.C. 10-470, 12-562
Igami, M. 10-1438
Iglesias, C. 4-265
Iglesias, E. **2-317**, 12-163, 12-573
Ignatenko, A.V. 18-453
Ignatov, S.M. 4-40
Ignatov, V.N. 15-1346
Iguchi, T. 16-206
Ihara, M. 19-142, 19-374
Ihara, Y 10-622
Ihrig, A.M. 19-16
Ii-hsein, U. 18-503
Iida, A. 10-1516
Iida, H. 12-147
Iida, K. 15-1018
Iida, S. 10-1638
Iida, T. 10-693
Iijima, T. 1-58, 1-82, 2-28
Iimori, T. 17-153
Iitaka, Y. 4-320
Iizuka, Y 17-235
Ikado, S. 18-568
Ikai, K. 10-46, 10-59, 10-423
Ikariya, T. 16-326, 19-574
Ikeda, A. **15-918**
Ikeda, I. 16-226
Ikeda, K. 15-288
Ikeda, M. 4-160, 10-1918, 15-847
Ikeda, N. 16-436
Ikeda, S. 10-1099
Ikeda, T. **12-605**
Dceda, Y. 12-416, 15-873, 16-436, 16-819
Ikegami, S. 10-159, 10-1354, 11-381, 12-247
Dcegashira, K. 10-1454, 10-1859, 10-1860
Ikemoto, Y 16-436
Ikoma, Y 13-172
Ikonnikov, N. **16-813a**
Ikonnikov, N.S. **16-814**
Ikuta, S. 3-42, 8-183, 10-400
Il'ichev, Y.V. 18-453
Ila, H. 11-246
Ilao, M.C. 18-82
Iley, J. 12-581
Illi, V.O. 10-705
Illuminati, G. 6-11, 10-365, 11-10, 11-101, 11-193, 13-5, 13-59
Ilyushin, M.A. 11-120, 12-583
Imad, Y 10-1102
Imada, M. 10-969

Imada, Y. 10-1099, 12-604, 12-614, 15-992
Imagawa, K. 15-1069
Imagire, J.S. 16-99
Imai, E. 19-340
Imai, H. 10-187, 15-814
Imai, N. 15-1208,15-1440
Imai, T. **10**-1607, **15**-457, **18**-371, **18**-372, **18**-373
Imai, Z. 19-555
Imaizumi, J. 12-147
Imaizumi, M. 17-366
Imaizumi, S. 10-1318, 10-1319
Imam, M.R. 4-335
Imamoto, T. 10-895, **10**-1164, 15-1444, 16-204, 16-393, 16-395, 16-404, 16-698, 16-640, 17-317, 17-393, 18-233, 19-726
Imamura, A. 2-42
Imamura, K.-i. 15-532
Imamura, P.M. 4-171
Imamura, S. 10-1916
Imanaka, T. 15-863
Imanari, M. 3-145
Imanzadeh, G.H. 18-269
Imaoka, K. 10-448
Imaoka, M 10-1638
Imashev, U.B. 10-508
Imbeaux, M. 10-1926
Imhoff, M.A. 10-188, 18-18
Imi, K. 15-822
Imoto, T. 2-243
Impastato, F.J. 12-547
Imper, V. 10-115
Imperiali, B. 16-592
Imwinkelried, R. **4**-111, 10-753, 16-923
Inaba, S. 10-1476, 13-224, 16-604, 19-482
Inada, S. 18-568
Inagaki, M. **12**-184
Inaki, K. 19-340
Inamoto, N. 1-29, **16**-112, 16-126
Inamoto, Y. 11-272, 14-162
Inanaga, J. 10-730, 10-1259, 10-1309, 10-1357, 10-1372, 10-1372, 16-849, 16-850, 17-291, 19-708
Inazu, T. 3-102, 10-1490
Inbasekaran, M 12-155
Inch, T.D. 4-111
Incremona, J.H. 14-143, 15-140
Indolese, A. 15-523
Indolese, A.F. 15-630
Inesi, A. 12-616
Ing, H.R. 10-1076
Ingate, S.T. 15-1479
Ingberman, A.K. 14-421
Ingham, R.K. 14-496
Ingham, S. 18-406
Inglis, G.G.A. 10-801
Ingold, C.F. 15-995
Ingold, C.K. 4-87, 07-13, 9-42, 10-2, 10-23, 10-24, 10-27, 10-323, 10-393, 10-585, 10-592, 10-598, 10-600, 11-0133, 11-134, 11-135, 12-10, 12-16, 12-25, 12-81, 12-567, 15-26, 17-12, 17-34, 17-83, 17-87, 17-103, 17-104, 17-105, 17-106, 17-116, **17**-119, 18-607, 18-609, 18-610, 18-612
Ingold, E.H. 10-592
Ingold, K.U. 4-241, 5-174, 5-178, 5-202, 5-236, 5-248, 10-1420, 14-33, 14-38, 14-50, 14-65, 14-84, 14-86, 14-87, 14-90, 14-124, 14-125, 14-228, 14-230, 15-828, 15-837, 18-54, 18-70, 18-75, 18-78, 18-83
Ingrosso, G. 15-35
Inners, R.R. 16-768
Innes, K.K. 7-12
Inoguchi, K. 15-294
Inokawa, S. **10**-1126, **10**-1491
Inoki, S. 15-172, 15-177
Inokuchi, T. 10-1875, 16-83, 19-235, 19-440
Inomata, K. 10-730, 10-1650, 15-770, 19-106, 19-341
Inomoto, Y. 10-188
Inoue, H. 15-1086, **15**-1105, 19-573
Inoue, I. 16-533
Inoue, K. 3-36, 5-243, 16-126
Inoue, M. 10-1955, 11-251
Inoue, R. 10-1680, 15-635
Inoue, S. 10-1877, 11-376, 12-603, 15-628, 15-1070, 16-322, 16-819, 16-858, 17-173, 18-593
Inoue, T. **10**-1170, 12-144, 15-908, 16-575
Inoue, T.C. 10-609
Inoue, Y 3-79, 4-163, 11-95, 15-145, 15-148, 15-1097, 15-1267, 16-314
Inouye, Y 10-1096, 18-597
Inukai, T. 9-20,15-1194
Invergo, B.J. 16-265, 19-369
Ioffe, A. 10-914
Ioffe, B.V. 5-317, 17-374, 19-647
Ioffe, S.L. 19-595
Iogansen, A.V. **8**-175
Ionin, B.I. 16-750
Ipaktschi, J. **10**-1371, **18**-669
Ippen, J. 2-140
Iqbal, J. 10-709, 10-712, 10-892, 10-1212, **12**-312, 14-68, 15-203
Iqbal, J. 15-1078
Iranpoor, N. 10-690, 10-692, 10-757, 10-887, 15-1480, 16-900

Irelan, J.R.S. 19-750
Ireland, D.T. 2-284
Ireland, J.F. 7-16
Ireland, R.E. 10-954, 10-1612, **18-561**, 18-562, 18-569, **19-112**
Iri, K. 12-554
Irie, M. 7-49
Irie, R. 15-1068, 15-1069, **15-1134**, **19-317**
Irie, T. 10-126, 10-141, 10-150
Iriuchijima, S. 12-146, 12-151
lrngartinger, H. 4-360, 4-371, 18-415
Irsa, P. **15-317**
Irvine, J.L 10-46, 10-59, 18-547
Irwin, K.C. 15-1056
Irwin, R.S. 15-1353
Isaac, M.B. 16-451
Isaacs, E.S. 6-58
Isaacs, N.S. 5-2, 5-84, 5-267, 10-460, 10-609, 12-38, 14-507, 15-1227, 15-1318, 15-1321, 15-1325, 16-733, 16-918
Isaacs, R.C.A. 10-1571
Isaccs, N.S. 10-1210
Isaev, I.S. 11-459, 11-490
Isaev, S.D. 18-276
Isaeva, Z.G. 18-90
Isagulyants, G.V. 16-835
Isagulyants, V.I. 16-827, 16-831, 16-835
Isaji, H. 17-235
Isaka, M. 16-371
Isakova, A.P. 11-345
Isaksson, R. 4-143
Isayama, S. 15-171,15-172,15-177
Isbister, R.J. 15-963
Isenberg, N. 15-94
Isenberger, K.M. 12-295
Ishi-i, K. **15-883**
Ishiba, A. 16-441
Ishibashi, H. 11-380, 15-847
Ishibashi, N. 10-732
Ishibashi, T. 11-129
Ishibe, N. 3-49
Ishida, A. 19-525
Ishida, K. 19-43
Ishida, M. 16-122
Ishida, N. 16-395
Ishida, T. **16-713**
Ishifune, M. 16-436
Ishigami, T. 15-1363
Ishiguro, K. 19-221
Ishihara, K. 10-1013, 10-1657, 15-1209, 15-1213, 16-313, 16-606, 16-809
Ishii, A. 16-112
Ishii, H. 18-582
Ishii, S. 10-799
Ishii, T. 10-1998
Ishii, Y. **5-231**, **15-158**, 15-288, **15-919**, 15-925, 15-1054, 19-83, 19-92, 19-574
Ishikawa, H. 10-998, 10-1668
Ishikawa, M. 10-1259, 10-1584
Ishikawa, N. 4-137, 10-1240, 12-368, 13-158, 13-163, 16-678
Ishikawa, R. 19-738
Ishimori, T. 3-84
Ishimoto, M. **12-617**
Ishino, Y. 16-799
Ishitani, H. 15-1209, 15-1215, 16-195
Ishitobi, H. 10-141, 10-150
Ishiyama, T. 10-1584, 10-1585, 12-414
Ishizaki, K. 10-1532
Ishizuka, T. 15-375, 15-820
Islam, I. 19-404
Ismagilova, G.S. 10-2020
Ismailov, S.A. 15-1171
Isobe, M. 15-707
Isobe, Y 13-169
Isoe, S. 19-183
Isola, M. 10-2032
Isolani, P.C. 8-189
Isotani, S. 15-369
Israel, G. 13-268
Issacs, N.S. 2-259, 15-1235, 16-434
Itabashi, K. 10-886
Itai, A. 4-248
Itano, H.A. 19-154
Ito, H. 8-164, 12-34, 15-375, 15-534, 16-458, 16-493, 16-624, 16-942, 18-542
Ito, K. 10-703, 15-1407, 15-1440, 16-175, 16-470, 19-383
Ito, M. 2-282, 4-355
Ito, O. 14-88, 14-89
Ito, S. 2-160, 5-40, **5-41**, **14-202**, **14-206**, 19-350
Ito, T. 19-780
Ito, T.I. 19-673
Ito, Y. 10-699, 10-700, 10-963, 10-1861, **10-1876**, 12-34, 12-603, 15-288, 15-475, 15-481, 15-528, 15-814, 15-1068, 15-1069, **15-1134**, 15-1448, 16-660, 16-941, 16-942, 18-644, 19-478, 19-483
It, S. 10-741, 15-1015, 15-1267, 16-599. 18-567
Itoh, A. 10-684, 10-1648
Itoh, H. 7-21, 15-120
Itoh, I. 11-188
Itoh, K. 10-882, 10-1672, 14-339, 15-656, 16-226, 16-326, 19-686
Itoh, M. 12-356, 12-385, 15-725, 15-726, **15-731**, **15-734**, **16-712**, **18-383**, **18-387**, **19-183**

Itoh, O. 19-789, **19-791**
Itoh, T. 10-570, **10-1376**, 11-286
Itoi, Y. 15-798
Ittah, Y. 10-1107
Ittel, S.D. 3-60
Iurkevich, A.M. 15-860
Ivakhnenko, E.P. 10-705
Ivanov, D. 12-275
Ivanov, S.N. **10-2031**
Ivanov, V.B. 14-239, 15-1093
Ivanova, T.M. **4-218**
Ivanyk, G.D. 10-1156
Ives, D.A.J. 19-523
Ives, J.L. 12-554, 14-238, 15-1089, 19-284
Ivey, R.C. 5-290
Ivin, K.J. 18-621, 18-650
Iwadare, T. 18-685, 18-686
Iwahara, T. 10-698
Iwai, I. 12-64, 18-312
Iwai, T. 4-67, 12-520
Iwaki, M. **15-1074**
Iwaki, S. 4-282
Iwakura, Y 10-989
Iwama, H. 16-537
Iwama, T. 17-437
Iwamoto, H. 10-449
Iwamoto, N. 12-603
Iwamoto, S. 16-537
Iwamura, H. 4-436, 5-242, 5-243
Iwamura, H.I. 18-328
Iwamura, M. 18-328
Iwanaga, K. **10-1751**, **15-1207**
Iwanek, W. 4-80
Iwaoka, M. 11-35
Iwasa, K. 16-470
Iwasaki, M. 10-1060
Iwasaki, N. 16-798
Iwasaki, Y. 13-99
Iwasawa, H. 10-1700, 16-653
Iwasawa, N. 15-578, 15-991, 16-83, 16-590, 16-819
Iwasawa, Y. 18-650
Iwashima, K. 3-84
Iwata, C. 14-180
Iwata, N. 14-447
Iwaya, M 13-250
Iwebuchi, Y. **15-1067**
Iyanar, K. 15-1075, 19-419
Iyengar, D.S. 10-1337,10-1349
Iyengar, N.R. 11-100, 11-216
Iyer, P.S. 10-103, 11-256, 18-70
Iyer, R. 17-305
Iyer, V.S. 16-519
Iyoda, M. 2-249, 2-252, **10-1476**, **13-221**, 15-1425, 18-396
Izatt, R.M. 3-76, 3-80, 3-83, 3-113, 4-134, 4-145
Izawa, H. 18-282
Izawa, K. 15-105, 15-938
Izawa, T. 10-1447, 10-1638
Izawa, Y. 5-306,18-187,18-193
Izmailov, F.F. 1-29
Izsak, D. 4-230
Izumi, J. **10-731**
Izumi, T. 10-1889, 14-339
Izumi, Y. 4-1,4-111, 11-201,15-291, 16-591, 16-734
Izutsu, M. 18-286

Jablonski, R.J. 10-140
Jabri, N. 10-1545,15-654
Jachiet, D. 10-1676
Jackman, L.M. 2-77, 2-224, 2-239, **5-111**, **5-162**, 5-163, 8-173, 8-174, 10-151, 10-333, 10-468, 12-296, 15-283, 18-526, 19-20
Jackson, A.C. 16-844, 16-845
Jackson, A.E. 19-602
Jackson, C.L. 13-4
Jackson, H.L. 10-1868
Jackson, J.E. **5-311**
Jackson, L.L. **10-917**
Jackson, P.M. 11-80
Jackson, R.A. 10-1368, 14-28, 14-33, 14-37, 14-57, 14-521
Jackson, R.F.W. 10-663, 15-1055
Jackson, T.C. 16-271
Jackson, W.M. 7-35
Jackson, W.R. 15-787, 15-793, 15-794, 15-808, 15-809, 15-812, 15-1005, 16-819
Jacobin, P. 15-729,16-431
Jacob, L. 10-889
Jacob, P. **1-91**
Jacobi, P.A. 15-264
Jacobs, T.L. 10-288, 15-104, 15-107, 15-901, 15-1048, 15-1327
Jacobsen, E.N. **10-557**, 15-1009, 15-1019, 15-1020, 15-1068, 15-1069, 15-1209, 16-546, 19-457
Jacobsen, W.N. 13-199
Jacobson, A.E. 16-76
Jacobson, B.M. 10-88, 15-1268
Jacobson, N. **14-421**
Jacobson, R.A. 4-103
Jacobson, R.R. 18-549
Jacobus, J. 4-167, 4-177, 10-1289, 14-17, 15-308, 15-476

Jacobus, J. 18-602
Jacox, M.E. 5-175, 5-230, 5-268
Jacquault, P. 16-73, 18-270
Jacques, J. 4-8, 4-85, 4-128, 4-149
Jacquesy, J. 11-208, 11-392, 11-395, 11-490
Jacquesy, J.-C. 15-497
Jacquier, R. 10-1026, 11-317
Jacquier, Y. 15-1132
Jacquot, L. 10-1071
Jacquot, R. 11-363
Jaculi, D. **19-**136
Jadhav, P.K. 15-451, 15-452, 15-453, 15-456, 16-327
Jaeger, CD. 14-488
Jaeger, D.A. **15-**1230
Jaffe, A. **2-**194
Jaffe, H.H. 9-20
Jaffe, R.L. 4-243
Jaffé, H.H. 1-25, 2-13, 7-10, 9-17, 11-66, 18-699, 18-701, 18-704
Jaffé, M.H. 18-27
Jafri, J.A. **2-**176
Jager, W.F. 7-52
Jagner, S. 15-709
Jagodziński, T. 11-355
Jagodziński, T.S. 15-587
Jagoe, C.T. 18-470
Jagow, R.H. 6-82
Jahagirdar, D.V. **8-**159
Jiihme, J. 10-68,15-211
Jahn, R. 4-371
Jahngen Jr., E.G.E. 10-2013, 17-354
Jain, A.K. 13-14
Jain, A.L. **14-**218
Jakovac, I.J. 19-385
Jalali-Araghi, K. 19-191
James, B. 10-1560, 15-658
James, B.G. 10-791
James, B.R. 15-277
James, D.E. 15-786
James, D.R. 18-523
James, J.C. 10-971
James, K.B. 15-591
James, L.L 11-10
James, R.A. 10-790, 10-1083
Jamil, Z. 19-95
Jamison, J.A. 18-479
Jammot, J. 16-69
Jan, G. 17-24
Jan, S. 15-1068
Jana, U. **11-**290, **18-**119
Janda, K.D. 13-99
Jandu, K.S. 14-20, 14-384
Jang, D.O. **10-**1322, **10-**1323, **10-**1324, **10-**1325, 10-1369
Jang, E.G. 5-282, **15-**1385
Jani, A. 10-1938
Janik, D.S. 15-1085
Janke, N. 12-449
Janke, R.H. 4-63
Janosi, A. **17-**213
Janoski, E.J. **18-**101
Janousek, Z. 5-209, **5-**211, **15-**1302, **15-**1330, 19-475
Janowski, W.K. 5-72
Jänsch, H. 16-806
Jansen, B.J.M. 17-241
Jansen, M.P. **10-**291, 17-35
Janssen, C.G.M. 10-1296
Janssen, E. 15-618, 19-743
Janssen, J. 16-326
Janssen, J.P. 10-1731
Janssen, M.J. 15-230, 16-45
Janssen, S.J. 15-941
Janssens, F. 15-982
Januszkiewicz, K. 19-396
Januszkiewicz, K.R. 15-395
Janzen, E.G. **5-**181, **5-**184, **5-**218
Jaouen, G. 16-281, 16-869
Jaques, D. 10-501
Jarczewski, A. 17-50
Jardine, F.H. 14-514, 15-278, 15-279, 15-281, 15-282, 15-287, 15-329, 15-787
Jardine, F.R 12-72
Jardine, I. 10-1318, 19-604
Jardine, P.D. 15-1011
Jarvis, B.B. 10-302, 15-140, 17-304, 17-309
Jasinski, J.M. 16-176
Jaskot, K. 10-637
Jasne, S.J. 10-202
Jason, M.E. 4-450
Jasor, Y. 16-189
Jaspars, M. 15-179, 16-479
Jasperse, C.P. 10-1259, 15-595, 15-737
Jasserand, D. 15-1005
Jaszay, Z.M. **10-**1019, 17-406
Jaszberenyi, J.Cs. 10-1320, 10-1324, 10-1325, 10-1369
Jatczak, M. **10-**1190, **10-**1798, 16-890
Javaid, K. 12-38
Jawdosiuk, M. 4-429
Jayaraman, H. 10-222, 10-626
Jayasinghe, L.Y. 16-314
Jayasree, J. 10-644
Jayatilake, G.S. 16-819
Jean, A. 15-520

Jean, T.-S. 15-840
Jebaratnam, D.J. 16-659
Jedrzejczak, M. 10-982
Jedziniak, E.J. **14-**112, **14-**163
Jefcoate, C.R.E. 14-206
Jefferson, A. 18-537
Jefferson, E.A. 2-323, 15-1385
Jeffery, E.A. **10-**765, 11-386, 13-149, 16-456
Jeffery, T. 10-1853, 14-343, 14-351, 14-356, 14-359, 14-435
Jeffery-Luong, T. 10-1613
Jefford. C.W. 4-357, 10-204, 10-312, 10-1250, 14-254, 14-255, 15-1260, 15-1398, 15-1429, 18-402, 18-428, 19-385
Jeffrey, G.A. 3-20, 3-25, 3-129, 18-522
Jeffs, P.W. 14-390
Jeganathan, A. **19-**316
Jeganathan, S. **16-**771
Jeger, O. 15-505, 17-422, 18-97
Jellal, A. 15-607
Jellison, K.M. 17-156
Jemison, R.W. 18-318, 18-319, 18-593
Jen, M. 1-60
Jenck, J. 15-786
Jencks, W.P. 2-315, 3-16, 6-36, 6-42, 6-58, 8-57, **8-**91, **8-**116, 8-121, 8-122, **8-**124, **9pt2-**4, **10-**60, 10-68, 10-69, 10-73, 10-216, 10-219, 10-221, 10-222, 10-233, 10-278, 10-347, 10-348, 10-355, 10-507, 10-512, 10-560, 10-566, 10-992, 10-1048, 10-1049, 10-1050, 10-1051, 12-120, 12-506, 13-10, 16-1, 16-10, 16-21, 16-22, 16-42, 16-135, 16-198, 16-215, 16-217, **17-**43, **17-**47
Jenkins Jr., R.H. 4-26
Jenkins, I.D. 4-42, 10-679, 10-739, 10-740
Jenkins. I.L. 13-127
Jenkins, J.A. 15-1250, 18-488
Jenkins, P.R. 5-126, 12-34
Jenner, E.L. 15-519
Jenner, G. 12-603, 15-546, 15-584, 15-1246, 15-1250, 15-1251, 16-842, 16-843, 18-390
Jenner, P.J. 18-22, 18-94
Jenneskens, L.W. 2-52, 2-53, 17-180
Jennings, C.A. 12-283
Jennings, H.J. 12-571
Jennings, W.B. 4-206, 19-457
Jenny, E.F. 18-324
Jensen, F. 15-1251,17-5,18-559
Jensen, F.R. 4-103, 4-255, 4-261, 4-263, 4-267, **4-**269, **4-**270, **11-**186, **11-**288, **12-**2, **12-**6, **12-**10, **12-**11, 12-13, 12-16, 12-18, 12-21, 12-40, 12-316, 12-370, 12-371, 12-372, 12-424, 15-132, 17-136, 17-396, 18-86
Jensen, H.B. 15-332
Jensen, H.P 14-171,19-403
Jensen, J.L. 2-25, 10-509, 10-513, 15-175
Jensen, K.A. 10-654
Jensen, L. 16-700
Jensen, R.M. 5-134,10-131
Jentzsch, J. 14-308, 16-129, 19-534
Jeon, D.J. 10-661
Jeon, S. 19-305
Jeon, S.-J. 15-1406
Jeong, K.-S. 15-987, **15-**1011
Jeong, N. 12-468, 15-1473
Jeoung, M.K. 10-1430, 16-363
Jeremić, D. 14-224, 14-225, 14-226
Jerina, D.M. 4-36
Jerkunica, J.M. 10-156
Jernberg, N. 10-1029
Jerussi, R.A. 14-169,19-31
Jeuell, C.L. 5-36
Jew, S. 16-649
Jew, S. 18-237
Jewett , R. 10-957
Jewett, J.G. **6-**71, 6-75, **10-**188, **10-**311
Jeyaraj, D.A. 16-8
Jeyaraman, R. 5-328, 10-913, 14-189, 16-137, 19-650
Jhurry, D. 13-64
Ji, J. 15-595, 15-710
Jia, J.H. 2-201
Jia, Y. 16-444
Jiaang, W.-T. 15-833
Jiang, G.J. 4-316
Jiang, Q. 16-326
Jiang, W. 10-1863
Jiang, X. 5-214, 14-147
Jiang, Y. 16-326, 16-502, **18-**411
Jiang, Y.-L. 10-930
Jiang, Z. 13-52, **14-**271
Jiao, H. 2-76, 2-209, 2-257, **18-**511
Jiao, X. 10-1857
Jie, C. 18-515, 18-559
Jigajinni, V.B. 12-355
Jimenez-Vazquez, H.A. 5-2
Jiminez, J.L. 18-510
Jin, B.W. 15-1076
Jin, J. 15-521
Jin, L. 10-1626, 17-233
Jin, Q.-H. 16-442, 19-618
Jin, S.-J. 16-539
Jin, T.-S. 10-532
Jin, Z. 14-367
Jindal, S.P. 18-18
Jinguji, M. 7-20
Jintoku, T. 11-352
Jira, R. 12-72, 14-269, 15-515, 19-389, 19-391

Jiricny, J. 10-1086, 16-35, 16-824
Jirovetz, L. 16-102
Jitsukawa, K. 19-82
Jnaneshwara, G.K. 10-687
Joannetaud, M. 11-395
Job, R.C. 4-208
Jochims, J.C. 16-205
Jochum, C. 15-413
Jodhan, A. 5-292, 10-627
Jödicke, K. **16-911**, **16-916**
Jödicke, T. 16-159
Joerg, S. **3-15**
Joesten, M.D. 3-1
Joffee, I. **10-951**
Joh, T. 15-766
Johannsen, M. **15-1209**, 15-1282
Johansen, J.E. 15-504
Johanson, R.G. 10-188
Johansson, F. 16-532
Johansson, R. **10-1166**
John, K.C. 10-2015
John, L. 18-419
John, L.S. 19-113
Johns, J.W.C. 5-289
Johnsen, U. 5-187
Johnson Jr., C.S. 4-218, 5-200, 6-55
Johnson Jr., H.W. 4-66
Johnson, A. P. 4-90
Johnson, A.W. 2-66, **2-251**, 16-722, 16-745, 16-888
Johnson, CD. 5-304, 6-16, 8-24, 8-55, 9-16, 9-38, 11-64
Johnson, C.R. 19-357
Johnson, C.R. **4-45**, **10-1615**, **10-1675**, **10-1682**, 10-1939, 14-379, 15-118, 15-670, 15-1022, 15-1454, 16-671, 16-710, 16-895, 16-896, 19-356, 19-449
Johnson, D.E. 15-1353
Johnson, D.L. **10-971**
Johnson, E.S. 15-549
Johnson, F. 4-286, **10-1186**, 16-696, 16-866
Johnson, G. 15-923
Johnson, G.L. 14-128
Johnson, G.S. 16-357, 17-384
Johnson, J.R. 15-795, **15-1298**, **16-701**, 16-908
Johnson, K. 19-682
Johnson, L.K. 4-75
Johnson, M.D. 9-35, 14-37
Johnson, M.R. 15-165, 16-263
Johnson, M.W. **14-180**
Johnson, N.A. 19-447
Johnson, N.B. 15-295
Johnson, P.L. 14-343
Johnson, R.A. **10-817**
Johnson, R.D. 2-295
Johnson, R.E. 19-572
Johnson, R.G. 14-496
Johnson, R.L. **15-1135**
Johnson, R.P. 4-394, **4-412**, **4-413**, **4-417**. **4-419**, 7-46
Johnson, S.A. **10-161**, **10-186**
Johnson, S.L. 10-216, 10-222, 10-233
Johnson, S.M. 2-272
Johnson, T.A. 18-546,19-615
Johnson, T.J. 15-1469
Johnson, T.R. 14-319
Johnson, W.S. 4-259, 10-666, 15-506, 5-0507, 15-508, 16-646, 18-560, 19-233
Johnsson, B. 3-46
Johnston, B.H. 10-722
Johnston, D.E. 18-102
Johnston, F. 15-29
Johnston, G.F. 12-19
Johnston, J.F. 11-95
Johnston, J.N. 18-111
Johnston, K.M. 11-443, 14-304
Johnston, L.J. 5-239, 5-253, 7-1
Johnston, R.D. 15-202
Johnstone, R.A.W. 10-636, 10-1421, 10-1697, 15-365, 15-1178, 18-316, 18-330, 19-602, **19-615**, 19-622
John, K.K. 14-506
Jokinen, S. 10-324
Jolidon, S. 18-568
Jolley, K.W. 17-63
Jolly, P.W. 10-1597, 15-1483, 15-1485
Joly, D. 19-20
Joly-Goudket, M. 10-1638
Jon, S.Y. 10-1900, 16-865
Jonas, K. 15-516
Jonas, L. **11-196**
Jonassen, H.B. 15-803
Jonathan, N. **2-100**
Jones II, G. 5-239,16-911
Jones III, F.M 8-177, 8-178
Jones Jr., M. 5-267, 5-277, 5-284, 5-293, 5-297, 5-302, 5-306, 12-257, 15-1398, 15-1417, 15-1420, 18-185, 18-524, 18-530
Jones, A. 14-78
Jones, A.J. 2-74, 2-76
Jones, B.A. 4-134,16-117
Jones, B.E. 10-48
Jones, C.W. **13-112**, **13-145**, **13-146**
Jones, D. 15-921
Jones, D.A.K. 17-131
Jones, D.M. 10-547
Jones, D.N. 17-124, 17-237

Jones, D.S. 10-990
Jones, D.W. 2-171, 14-236, **15-**1199, 15-1267
Jones, E.R.H. 15-314, 19-55
Jones, F.N. 10-1490, 13-281
Jones, G. 16-650
Jones, G.A. 16-357
Jones, G.C. 13-278
Jones, G.I.L. 4-245
Jones, G.T. 11-425
Jones, J. 10-546
Jones, J.B 4-124, 10-1793, 10-1794, 19-385
Jones, J.H. 10-1085
Jones, J.I. 11-347
Jones, J.K.N. 10-1209
Jones, J.M. 6-70, 10-992
Jones, J.R. 5-89, 8-14, 11-107, 14-421
Jones, J.W. 9-78
Jones, K. 15-834, 15-842
Jones, L.D. 13-221
Jones, M.B. 11-284
Jones, M.E. **10-**475, **17-**118
Jones, M.F. 12-518
Jones, M.G. 10-142
Jones, M.R. 10-2029
Jones, M.T. 15-407
Jones, N. 15-979
Jones, N.D. 12-177
Jones, N.R. 10-1789
Jones, P.G. 1-63, 4-136, 4-237
Jones, P.R. 10-1790, 15-478, 16-430
Jones, R. 3-59,10-1147
Jones, R.A. 10-437, 10-1987
Jones, R.A.Y. 1-86, 2-150, 8-3, 8-24, 8-97, **8-**116, 9-16, 9-24, 9pt2-2, 15-1258, 18-402
Jones, R.J. 18-432
Jones, S.R. 4-29, 14-276
Jones, W.A. 12-100, 12-512
Jones, W.D. 16-944
Jones, W.H. 16-214
Jones, W.J. 10-410, 19-352, 19-353
Jones, W.M. 5-309, 5-315, 17-421
Jong, Y. 8-94
Jonsäll, G. 18-9
Jonsson, L. 13-91
Joos. R. 17-359
Jordan Jr., A.D. 16-772
Jordan, E.A. 17-131
Jordan, K.D. 15-85
Jordan, M.R. 2-300
Jorge, J.A.L. 10-306
Jorgensen, W.L. 10-16, 10-19, 10-20, 10-56, **15-**119, 15-1251
Jørgensen, C.K. 1-20, 1-22
J0rgensen, K.A. 10-1093, 15-988, 15-1014, 15-1057, 15-1067, 15-1165, 15-1209, 15-1282, 15-1410, 16-545, 19-148
Jorgenson, M.J. 4-355, 8-101, 16-257, 16-507, 16-913, 18-456
Joris, L. 3-49
Josan, J.S. 17-280
José, S.M. 10-9, 10-604
Joseph, N. 15-275
Joseph, R. 10-1150
Joseph, S.P. 15-850
Josey, A.D. 16-806
Josey, J.A. 15-1271
Joshi , B.V. **10-**1393
Joshi, G.C. 15-357
Joshi, N.N. 10-1211,10-1585
Josien, H. 10-1070
Joslin, C.G. 5-189
Jost, R. 8-15
Jost, R. 18-35
Jouannetaud, M. 11-208, 11-392, 11-490
Joukhadar, L. 10-1364
Joule, J.A. 10-797
Joung, M.J. 16-432
Journet, M. 18-452
Jousseaume, B. 10-1984, 15-614
Joussot-Dubien, J. 4-400
Jovanovic, M.V. 13-67
Jovanovich, A.P. 10-127
Joy, D.R. 15-1492
Joyner, B.L. 1-42
Jozefowicz, M. 19-407
Jozwiak, A. **16-**156
Jończyk, A. 10-937, 16-717
Jroundi, R. **14-**231
Juan, B. 2-193, 8-75
Juaristi, E. 4-235, 4-289, 4-296, 4-299, 8-14, 10-928, 16-470
Juchnovski, I.N. 9-23, 9-25
Judd, K.R. 11-68
Judy, W.A. 18-623, 18-640, 18-650
Juers, D.F. 18-663
Jug, K. 2-6, 2-74, 2-85, 2-86
Jugie, G. 11-322
Juhlke, T. 10-64
Jukes, A.E. 10-1937
Jula, T.F. 5-306
Julia, M. 10-390, 10-889, 10-1626, 10-1779, 13-183, 13-184, 14-191, 15-49, 15-51, 17-233, 19-476
Julia, S. 18-73, 18-600
Julienne, K. 16-893
Julin, S. 16-758

Julius, M. 15-817
Juliusburger, F. **10**-14
Jullien, F.R. **4**-103
Jumbam, D.N. 19-744
Jumonville, S. **14**-15
Jun, C.-H. 15-804
Jun, P. 10-638
Jun, W.S. 10-1423
Jun, Y.M. 10-1505,12-285
Junchai, B. 18-359
Juneja, P.S. 14-29
Jung, A. **15**-1143
Jung, A. 16-604
Jung, C.W. 10-957
Jung, D.-S. 19-291
Jung, F. **16**-671
Jung, K. **19**-105
Jung, M.E. 10-525, 10-572, **10**-1164, **10**-1189, **15**-1155, 16-616, 18-500, 19-41, 19-82
Jung, M.J. 15-331
Jung, S. **15**-1120
Jung, Y.S. 15-586
Junga, H. 15-844, 18-635, **11**-241, 11-277, 11-454
Junjappa, H. 11-246
Jurayj, J. 18-549, 18-559
Jurczak, J. **3**-76, **4**-110
Jurewicz, A.T. 10-183
Jurgeleit, W. 19-680
Juristi, E. 4-303
Jurka, J. 10-1463
Jurlina, J.L. **12**-129, 14-500, 14-501, 15-962
Juršić, B. 10-651, **10**-1181, 17-364, 19-140
Jursic, B.S. **2**-117, 10-1003
Jurss, CD. 13-115
Just, G. **10**-2044, 11-473, 15-23, 19-388
Just, T. 18-282
Jutand, A. **10**-1570, **10**-1917, **10**-1573, **13**-221
Juteau, H. 15-1440
Jutz, C. 11-318
Jutz, J.C. 18-397
Jutzi, P. 1-9, 3-59
Juve Jr., H.D. **14**-179, **14**-263

Kaandorp, A.W. 11-176
Kaba, R.A. 5-202
Kabachnik, M.I. 8-181
Kabakoff, D.S. 5-45
Kabalka, G.W. 10-805, 10-874, 10-1237, 10-1833, 10-1841, 10-1848, 11-229, 12-338, 12-339, 12-357, **12**-358, 12-361, 12-362, 12-376, 12-381, 12-384, 15-308, 15-385, 15-464, 15-470, 15-476, 15-725, 15-726, 15-731, 15-734, 15-899, 15-900, 15-1238, 16-63, 16-227, 16-258, 16-317, 16-651, 18-361, 19-539, 19-658, 19-686
Kabasakalian, P. 18-685
Kabbara, J. 15-381,15-604
Kabbe, H. 17-245
Kabengele, G.nT. 15-1398
Kaberia, F. 19-270
Kablaoui, N.M. 15-764, 15-780
Kabus, S.S. 5-47
Kabuto, C. 4-434, 4-449
Kabuto, K. 4-96, 16-265
Kad, G.-L. **10**-458, **10**-1151, **10**-1152
Kad, G.L. 14-170
Kadaba, P.K. 10-745, **15**-1162
Kádas, I. **15**-1156
Kader, A.T. 10-262
Kaderli, S. 14-202
Kadib-Elban, A. 15-41
Kadoma, Y. 10-353, 10-359
Kadorkina, G.K. 4-34
Kadota, I. 15-1459
Kadri, M. 15-1160
Kadzyauskas, P.P. 15-948
Kaeding, W.W. 11-48, 14-278, 19-257
Kaeseberg, C. 15-613
Kafafi, S.A. **8**-181, **19**-10
Kaftory, M. 2-328, 2-329
Kagan, H. 4-1
Kagan, H.B. 4-91, **4**-111, 4-121, 4-157, 4-222, 10-1259, 10-1983, 14-120, 15-287, 15-1208, 16-295, 16-447, 16-659, 17-291, 18-124, 19-456, 19-457, 19-703
Kagan, J. **12**-500, **18**-110
Kagan, J.F. 4-127
Kagarise, R.E. 4-238
Kagawa, M. 10-932
Kagayama, A. 2-125
Kagel, J.R. 15-1245
Kagen, B.S. 11-235, 14-96
Kageyama, T. **19**-401
Kagoshima, H. 16-448, 16-497, 16-499
Kagramanov, N.D. 5-194
Kahle, G.G. 10-1955
Kahlert, E. 12-459
Kahn, B.E. 19-730
Kahn, M. 15-1007
Kahn, S.D. **15**-1194, 15-1205, 15-1346
Kahne, D. 10-612,12-213
Kahr, B. **2**-59, 4-435, 5-197
Kahr, K. 19-409
Kai, A. 16-534
Kai, H. 15-765

Kai, Y. 2-54, 2-57, 10-1733
Kaida, Y. 4-143
Kaiho, T. 4-108
Kaim, W. 2-198
Kainz, S. 10-1732
Kaiser , R. 2-146
Kaiser, A. 1-42
Kaiser. C. 4-288
Kaiser, E.M. 5-84, 10-466, 10-702, 10-1705, 12-272, 12-546, 15-399, 15-415, 19-475
Kaiser, E.T. 5-257, 10-577, 10-1026, 10-2030, 14-489
Kaiser, K.L. 15-1375
Kaiser. S. 19-672
Kaiwar, V. 16-318
Kajfež, F. 10-936
Kaji, A. 6-80, 10-307, 10-779, 10-856, 10-1387, 10-1389, 13-153, **15-**1195, 17-67, 19-785
Kaji, K. 10-877
Kaji, M. 15-369
Kajigaeshi, S. 10-863, **11-**211, 11-227, 12-96, **12-**113, 12-119, 12-595, 12-596
Kajimoto, T. 19-247
Kajioka, T. 15-537
Kajita, S. **10-**1461
Kakihana, M. 10-1733
Kakikawa, T. 16-347
Kakinami, T. **11-**211, 11-227, 12-96, **12-**113, **12-**119, 12-596
Kakiuchi, F. 15-822
Kakiuchi, K. 2-52, 2-54
Kakiya, H. 10-1680
Kakui, T. 10-698
Kalafer, M. 19-520
Kalatzis, E. 14-15
Kalbalka, G.W. 12-341
Kalberg, C. 16-326
Kalberg, C.S. 16-326
Kalchschmid, F. 11-270
Kalck, P. 15-786
Kaldor, S.W. 15-1007
Kalechits, I.V. 18-621
Kaleya, R. 19-47
Kalinin, A.V. 12-247
Kalinkin, M.I. **10-**1310, 15-272, 15-337
Kalinovskii, I.O. **13-**171, 14-463
Kalinowski, H. 4-371, 10-1808, 18-536
Kalinowski, M.K. 8-187
Kalir, A. 10-1111
Kalir, R. 11-411
Kalivretenos, A.G. **15-**1276
Kalkote, U.R. 19-608
Kallel, E.A. 18-390, 18-407
Kallen, R.G. 16-817
Kallenberg, H. 10-1755
Kallfass, D. 18-415
Kallio, R.E. 15-1027, 15-1028
Kallmerten, J. 18-599
Kallury, R.K.M.R. **1-**11
Kalman, J.R. 14-386
Kalmus, C.E. 11-420
Kaloustian, M.K. 4-206, 4-297, 10-228
Kaloustian, S.A. 4-206
Kalt, W. 11-494
Kalvoda, J. **14-**221, **18-**81
Kalyanam, N. 19-723
Kamada, T. 17-369
Kamai, G. 4-42
Kamal, A. 10-1002, 16-36, 16-229, 16-927, 19-639
Kamal, M. 18-180
Kamalova, F.R. 11-154
Kamat , R.J. 10-98
Kamata, K. 10-1828
Kamata, S. 10-730
Kambara, H. 2-28, 04-256
Kambe, N. **10-**1919, **12-**195, **15-**234
Kamego, A.A. 10-322, 14-219
Kamenka, J. 15-455
Kametani, H. 4-70
Kametani, T. 10-364, 10-871, 15-1272, 19-142
Kameyama, A. **10-**1215
Kameyama, H. 10-1479
Kameyama, M. 11-204
Kamigata, N. 11-204, **14-**131, 14-323
Kamikawa, T. 10-1533
Kamikawaji, Y. 15-47
Kamimura, A. 10-622, 10-1387, 10-1395, **10-**1389, 10-1718, 10-1722, 15-1195, 17-136
Kamimura, J. 10-1277, 19-529
Kamitori, Y. 16-265
Kamiya, N. 15-158
Kamiya, Y. 16-404
Kamkha, M.A. 10-1524
Kamlet, M.J. 3-12, 3-13, 10-413, 10-416, 10-427, 10-432
Kammann Jr., K.P. **10-**1965
Kamo, O. **3-**145
Kamochi, Y. 15-410, 15-411, 19-550, 19-551, 19-552
Kampar, E. 3-73
Kampar, V.E. 3-68
Kämper, F. 14-117
Kamphuis, J. **16-**112, **19-**579
Kampmeier, J.A. **14-**516, 14-523, 14-526, 14-527, 17-136

Kamshii, L.P. 11-13
Kamyshova, A.A. 10-1480
Kan, R.O. 11-356,19-715
Kan-Fan, C. 16-188
Kanagasabapathy, V.M. 10-28, 10-68, 10-291, 16-79
Kanai, F. 15-1208
Kanai, M. 15-713
Kanamathareddy, S. 3-100
Kanamori, M. **15-**918, 15-930
Kanatani, R. 10-698
Kanavarioti, A. 15-178
Kanda, T. 15-819
Kandall, L.C. 10-788
Kandasamy, D. **4-**297, **10-**1253, **10-**1281, **16-**265
Kandetzki, P.E. 13-245
Kane, V.V. **12-**201
Kaneda, K. 15-863, 15-1054, 19-73, 19-82
Kaneda, T. 2-52
Kaneko, C. 14-370, 15-1477
Kaneko, H. 5-96
Kaneko, T. 15-783, 16-471
Kaneko, Y. 16-609, 16-637
Kanellias, L. 10-188
Kanemasa, S. 10-1704, 10-1609, **15-**1153, 15-1155
Kanematsu, K. 15-47, 18-500
Kanemoto, K. 16-892
Kanerva, L.T. 10-595
Kaneti, J. 9-23, 9-25
Kang, C.-J. 16-664
Kang, C.H. 14-14
Kang, H.-Y. 10-1329
Kang, H.J. 16-265
Kang, H.K. 10-57,10-2031
Kang, J. 15-416, 15-613, 15-1225, 16-470
Kang, J.W. 15-1468
Kang, S.-K. **10-**943, **10-**1453, **10-**1574, **10-**1857, **10-**1862, 14-467
Kang, S.B. 19-706
Kang, S.I. 3-82
Kanishchev, M.I. 15-860, 18-2
Kankaanperä, A. **10-**513, 10-550, **10-**641, 10-685, 10-733, 10-824
Kanner, B. 8-158
Kano, D. 15-1129
Kano, S. 15-841, **19-**651
Kano, T. 11-187
Kanofsky, J.R. 19-305
Kanoh, S. 4-145
Kantam, M.L. 19-95
Kanter, J.P. 8-44,17-51
Kanters, J.A. 3-20, 3-38
Kanth, J.V.B. 10-942, 19-556
Kantlehner, W. 11-321
Kantner, S. S. **4-**119, **10-**196, **10-**1641, 10-1642
Kantor, E.A. 5-48, 10-508
Kantor, S.W. 13-282, 18-342, 19-471
Kanyonyo, M.R. 19-796
Kao, J. 4-197
Kapecki, J.A. 15-1318,15-1325
Kaplan, E.D. 6-73
Kaplan, E.P. 10-1973
Kaplan, F. 12-441, 18-193
Kaplan, J. **10-**80, **10-**1401
Kaplan, L. 4-132, 4-373, 5-174, **5-**226, **10-**1166, 10-1485, 14-25, 16-9, 16-94, 18-414
Kaplan, L.A. 19-607
Kaplan, M.L. 3-7, 10-406, 14-243, 18-454
Kapnang, H. 10-1659,16-182
Kapoor, K.K. **15-**1041, **15-**1043
Kapp, D.L. 15-1098
Kappos, J.C. 15-1000, 17-263
Kapps, M. 18-591
Kaprinidis, N.A. 15-1346
Kaptein, B. 10-960, 15-633, 19-579
Kaptein, R. 5-188, 14-383
Kapur, J.C. 10-1937
Kapur, N. **15-**1152
Kara-Murza, C.G. 15-982
Karabatsos, G.J. 4-245, 6-75, 11-500, **18-**21, 18-23, 18-25, 18-26, 18-45, 18-48
Karabelas, K. 14-342
Karafiat, U. 16-226
Karakhanov, E.A. 14-200, 15-392
Karam, P.A. 10-183
Karaman, R. 10-416, 10-2045, 19-759
Karapinka, G.L. 15-799
Karelson, M. 2-86, 2-88, 2-91, 2-338, 2-346
Karge, R. 15-1202
Karger, B.L. 4-137,4-139
Karger, M.H. 10-802, 10-833, 10-839
Karim, A. 13-129
Karimipour, M. 13-222
Kariv, E. 19-520
Karjalainen, J.K. 15-1012, 15-1064
Karkowski, F.M. 1-86
Karl, R. 14-308
Karlin, K.D. 14-202
Karlström, A.S.E. 10-1512
Karmanova, I.B. 11-369
Karney, W.L. 5-319
Kami, M. 15-1053
Karo, W. 10-826
Karodia, N. 17-213

Karpaty, M. 16-834
Karpeles, R. 19-658
Karpitskaya, L.G. 19-436
Karplus, M. 15-1257
Karpyuk, A.D. **5**-113, **5**-114
Karrick, G.L. 15-402
Kartashov, A.V. 10-831, 14-102, 15-877
Kartashov, V.R. 15-221
Kasahara, A. 10-1889, 14-339, 15-271
Kasai, K. 15-652, 18-634
Kasai, N. 2-54, 2-57
Kasai, PH. 1-80
Kasai, Y. 17-26
Kascheres, C. 18-46
Kasei, N. 3-133
Kaselj, M. 16-319
Kashdan, D.S. 10-2013
Kashefi-Naini, N. 10-609
Kashima, C. 10-1968
Kashimura, K. 10-46, 10-59
Kashimura, S. 16-436, 16-852
Kashimura, T. 13-209
Kashin, A.N. 12-33, 12-36, 14-450, 16-455
Kashinatham, A. 15-390
Kashiwagi, H. 10-684
Kashiwagi, M. 15-726
Kashiwagi, T. 14-508
Kashiwagi, Y. 19-386
Kashmiri, M.A. 10-1725,10-1726
Kaska, W.C. 10-1522,15-348,15-491
Kasmai, H.S. 2-210
Kasner, M.L. 14-219
Kaspar, J. 16-288
Kasperek, G.J. 10-2038
Kass, S.R. **5**-119, 10-475, 15-129, 15-139
Kassab, D.J. 10-660
Kasturi, T.R. 19-566, 19-568
Kasukhin, L.F. 10-1527,10-1528
Kaszynski, P. 4-429
Katagiri, T. 16-417, 16-419
Katamura, M. 4-160
Kataoka, F. 19-745
Kataoka, M. 10-555
Kataoka, T. 17-437
Kataoka, Y. 16-462, 16-800
Katayama, A. 14-438
Katayama, R. 19-350
Katayama, S. 19-359
Kates, M.R. 10-161
Kather, K. 16-911
Kato, A. 2-322, 18-596
Kato, H. 2-243, **2**-281, 12-420, **15**-814
Kato, J. 15-1056, 16-83
Kato, K. 10-1075, 15-172, 15-177, 17-408, 18-573
Kato, M. 7-49, 10-1639
Kato, S. 10-1685, 15-819, 16-122
Kato, T. 2-244, 2-252, 13-188, 15-903, 15-991
Kato, Y. **13**-107
Katoh, A. 19-401
Katoh, M. 19-703
Katoh, S. 4-145, 14-298
Katritzky, A.R. 1-86, 2-74, 2-86, 2-88, 2-91, 2-338, 2-346, 2-346, 2-346, 4-289, 8-24, 8-101, 8-105, 9-39, 10-1, 10-64, 10-66, 10-69, 10-373, 10-374, 10-796, **10**-911, **10**-1172, 10-1226, **10**-1380, **10**-1725, **10**-1726, **11**-1, 11-61, 11-62, 11-64, 11-65, 12-278, 13-60, 13-212, **13**-248, 15-1272, 15-1277, 16-150, 16-156, 16-192, 16-204, 16-526, 17-424, 19-442, 19-659
Katsoulos, G. 12-265
Katsuki, T. 4-160, 10-730, 12-67, 12-179, 15-1068, 15-1069, **15**-1134, 15-1209, 15-1407, 15-1408, 15-1440, 16-470, 19-317, 19-318, 19-319, 19-339, 19-457
Katsumura, N. 16-458
Katsuro, Y. 10-1667
Kattenberg, J. 12-154
Katz, A.H. 12-304, 12-368, 12-415, 19-802
Katz, J. **10**-1838, 18-356, 18-378, 18-380
Katz, R.B. 14-395
Katz, S. 2-43
Katz, T.J. 2-149, 2-211, 2-212, 4-373, 7-33, 15-1251, **15**-13712, 18-433, 18-621, 18-629, 18-650
Katzenellenbogen, J.A. **10**-1611, **15**-223, **16**-669
Katzin, M.I. 19-265
Kauer, J.C. 10-656
Kauffmann, T. 12-436, 12-491, 13-38, 13-249, 14-445, 14-456, 15-1291, 15-1292, 16-408, 16-427
Kaufman, G. 17-216, 17-220
Kaufman, M.J. 5-134
Kaufmann, D. 15-1208, 18-515
Kaupp, G. 1-65, 7-45, 7-46, 10-436, **12**-591, 15-1263, 18-88
Kaur, D. 15-383
Kaur, G. **15**-515
Kaur, J. 10-1152
Kaur, K.P. 10-1151
Kavarno, G.J. 7-28
Kawa, H. 4-137
Kawabata, A. 10-753
Kawabata, N. 15-1430, 15-1442, 16-430
Kawada, A. 11-294
Kawada, K. 12-102

Kawada, M. 10-150
Kawafuji, Y. 16-421
Kawaguchi, K. 5-229
Kawaguchi, K. 16-815
Kawaguchi, M. 10-993
Kawahama, R. 10-1265
Kawahara, Y. 3-97
Kawai, K. 10-1044
Kawai, T. 10-448, 13-69
Kawai, Y. 15-388, **16-**313, **16-**314
Kawakami, J.H. **15-**113, **15-**114
Kawakami, T. 15-992, 18-279
Kawaki, T. 13-96
Kawakita, T. 16-469
Kawamura, N. 15-288
Kawamura, S. **15-**911, 16-226, 19-790
Kawamura, T. 10-1461
Kawamura, Y. 10-741, 15-1009
Kawanishi, M. 13-82
Kawanishi, Y. 19-73, 19-82
Kawanisi, M. 17-161
Kawano, H. 15-288
Kawano, N. 19-787
Kawaragi, S. 11-252
Kawasaki, A. 11-334,16-817
Kawasaki, H. 15-707, 16-603
Kawasaki, I. 19-703
Kawasaki, K. **12-**179, **19-**318
Kawasaki, N. 10-1932
Kawasaki, T. **10-**911
Kawase, M. **16-**351
Kawase, T. **1-**11, **15-**1425, 18-396
Kawasoe, S. 10-1538
Kawasuji, T. 16-637
Kawata, I. 11-342
Kawate, T. **10-**1867, **10-**2018, 16-347
Kawauchi, T. 11-342
Kawazoe, Y. 10-342
Kay, A.J. 2-64
Kay, P.S. 10-63
Kayama, M. **15-**1149
Kayano, A. 15-55
Kaye, R.L. 15-1250
Kayser, F. 10-1540
Kayser, M.M. 16-335, **16-**785, 18-296, 19-571, 19-574
Kazan, J. 10-823
Kazankov, M.V. 13-113
Kazanskii, B.A. 15-1397
Kazemi, F. 16-900
Kazimirchik, I.V. 4-303
Kazitsyna, L..A. 9-34
Kazlauskas, R.J. 4-163
Kazmaier, P.M. 12-183, 19-794
Kazmaier, U. 18-542
Kazubski, A. 16-318
Keaffaber, J.J. 18-406
Kean, N.B. 12-509
Kearley Jr., F.J. 13-35
Kearney, P.A. 6-63
Kearns, D.R. 14-239, 14-251, 15-1093, 15-1096
Keating, J.T. 10-380,10-381
Keating, N. 15-1235
Keaveney, W.P. 19-190
Keay, B.A. 8-125
Keay, J.G. 15-417
Kebarle, P. 3-42, **8-**180, **8-**181, **8-**182, **8-**183, 8-184, **8-**185, 8-190, 10-158, 10-164, 10-270, 10-400
Keck, G.E. 10-737, 10-1602, 16-381, 16-441, 16-473, 16-537, 18-666
Keck, R. 10-1221
Keefer, L..K. 19-10,19-622
Keefer, R.M. 11-215
Keeffe, J.R. 2-316, 2-317, 2-318, 2-323, 6-36, 12-81, **12-**83, 15-24, 17-43
Keegstra, K. 10-379
Keegstra, M.A. 13-52
Keehn, P.M. **2-**51, **11-**210, **19-**380
Kees, F. 12-345
Kees, K.L. 19-729, 19-739, 19-745, 19-746
Keese, R. 4-422, 4-446
Keii, T. 15-517
Keiko, V.V. 4-245
Keil, R. 15-487
Keillor, J.W. 18-232, 18-238
Keinan, E. 10-951, 10-1236, 10-1651, 14-155, 15-371, 15-376, **16-**51, 16-256, 19-417
Keirs, D. 19-146
Keith, T.A. **4-**249
Kelkar, S.V. 16-128
Keller, C.E. 2-288
Keller, E. 15-567
Keller, M. 4-380
Keller, T.H. 4-320
Kellie, G.M. 4-258
Kellogg, M.S. 18-409
Kellogg, R.E. 7-27
Kellogg, R.M. 4-170, 4-409, 10-781, 10-782, 10-1516, 14-252, 17-2
Kellom, D.B. 17-125
Kelly, B.J. 15-1127
Kelly, C.A. 16-158
Kelly, C.F. 17-90
Kelly, D.P. 5-80, 10-162, 11-14, 18-591, 18-613
Kelly, E.G. 12-402

Kelly, F.W. 12-507, 17-120, 18-491, 18-537
Kelly, J.F. 16-930, 16-932
Kelly, J.W. 10-680, 10-947
Kelly, R.C. 15-991
Kelly, R.P. 11-149
Kelly, R.V. 12-254
Kelly, W.J. 10-139, 10-1719, 12-215, 14-291
Kelly, W.L. 10-1745, 12-296
Kelsey. D.R. 10-249, 10-254, 13-221
Kelso, P.A. 7-40
Kemernitskii, A.V. 15-1346
Kemmer, R. 10-366
Kemnitz, C.R. 5-319
Kemp, M.I. 15-534
Kemp, N.R. 1-16
Kemp, R.H. 4-233
Kemp, T.J. 5-59, 13-22
Kemp-Jones, A.V. 2-206
Kempe, U.M. 15-1151
Kendall, J.T. 15-1037
Kendall, P.E. 15-722
Kende, A.S. 19-466, 19-616
Kendrick Jr., L.W. 18-147
Kendrick, R.D. 5-67
Kenkre, S.L. 12-298
Kennard, O. 1-52, 2-29, 3-18, 3-20, 3-25, 3-36
Kennedy, E.M. 11-112
Kennedy, G.J. 5-272
Kennedy, J.P. 10-1587
Kennedy, J.W.J. 2-56
Kennedy, K. 19-388
Kennedy, R.M. 15-197,15-592
Kennerly, R.E. 15-57
Kennewell, P.D. 15-1453, 15-1454
Kenny. C. 19-709
Kenny. D.H. 10-796
Kent, A.G. 15-787
Kent, B.A. 13-293
Kenyon, J. 10-7, 18-10
Keogh, B.P 15-660
Keogh, J. 10-1253, 10-1295, 15-958, 15-960
Kepler, K.D. 15-152
Keppens, M. 19-27
Kerber. R.C. 10-74,10-283,10-1710
Kercher, T. 16-811
Kerdesky, F.A.J. 16-592
Kerek, F. 16-884
Kerekes, I. **10-**1160, **10-**1162, **10-**1220, **10-**1240, 15-153, 15-878, 16-244
Kergomard, A. 10-802, 15-931
Kerlinger, H.O. 14-278
Kernag, C.A. 19-81
Kerr, J.A. 1-87, 5-221, 14-45, **14-**127, 16-9
Kershner, L. 10-626
Kershner, L.D. 10-222
Kervennal, J. 12-610
Kessar, S.V. 13-188
Kesseler, K. 16-604
Kesselmayer, M.A. 15-1193
Kessick, M.A. 10-414, 15-23
Kessler, H. 4-218, 4-223, 10-43, 15-1405, 15-1426, 18-199, **18-**513
Kesten, S. 16-867
Kester, F.L. 1-89
Kester, J. 2-193
Kestner, M.M. 10-283, 10-1719
Ketcham, R. **15-**1339
Ketley, A.D. 10-658, 18-475
Kettle, S.F.A 1-1
Keul, H. **19-**193, **19-**215
Keum, G. 19-706
Keum, S. 18-700
Keumi, T. 11-95, 11-296, 11-461, 16-222
Keung, E.C. 15-539
Keuper, R. 4-180
Keusenkothen, P.F. 10-456, 10-1069, 15-848
Kevan, L. 5-178, 5-257
Kevill, D.N. 10-46, 10-62, 10-134, 10-196, 10-217, 10-222, 10-342, 10-407, 10-409, 10-415, 10-416, 10-420, 10-423, 10-701
Keyes, M. 10-1286
Keyton, D.J. 10-1272
Kézdy, F.J. 10-577
Khac, T.B. 16-189
Khachatrian, A.G. 19-125
Khadilkar, B. 19-76
Khaimova, T.G. 16-827
Khairudinov, I.R. 16-835
Khalaf, A.A. 11-240, 11-267
Khalfina, I.L. 19-436
Khalil, M.M. 15-1038
Khamsi, J. 12-390
Khan, A.M. 10-1318
Khan, FA. 16-7
Khan, I.U. 3-102
Khan, K.M. 18-563
Khan, M.A. 10-1212,12-312,15-203
Khan, M.I. 15-1427
Khan, M.M.T. 12-72, 15-185, 15-515, 15-786, 15-1458, 15-1483, 19-389
Khan, M.N. 10-623, 10-1077, 16-398
Khan, N.A. 19-435
Khan, S.A. 19-463
Khan, W.A. 10-1804
Khananashvili, L.M. 15-484
Khanapure, S.P. 13-67, 13-188

Khanbabaee, K. 19-133
Khand, I.U. 15-1472
Khanna, I.K. 10-1229
Khanna, P.L. 19-47
Khanna, R.K. 12-561, 14-426
Khanolkar, A.D. 15-622, 15-625
Kharasch, M.S. 10-1476, 10-1531, 10-1620, 10-1661, 10-1669, 10-1954, **10**-1964, **12**-431, 12-445, 14-81, 14-272, 14-306, 14-307, 15-61, 15-225, 16-366, 16-511, 16-521, 16-529, 16-547, 17-441
Kharasch, N. 14-389, 14-390
Khare, A. 19-76
Kharrat, A. 10-1390
Khatri, H.N. 18-569
Khatri, N.A. 16-232
Khattak, J. 10-68, 10-278
Khawaled, K. 10-778
Khedhair, K.A. 4-301
Kheifets, G.M. 2-312
Kheifets, V.I. 16-835
Khelevin, R.N. 11-170
Khiar, N. **15**-1209
Khidekel', M.L. 18-420, 18-621
Khidekel, M.L. **15**-1364, **16**-165
Khire, U.R. 15-449
Khlebnikov, A.F. 15-1384
Khmel'nitskii, L.I. 12-557
Khodakov, Yu.S. 15-276
Khokhlov, P.S. 15-982
Kholodov, L.E. 2-281
Khor, T. 9-60
Khorana, H.G. 10-734, 10-810
Khorlina, I.M. 10-1344, 10-1434, 10-1443
Khosrowshahi, J.S. **15**-1122
Khouri, F.F. 10-228
Khristov, V.Kh. 15-59
Khrizolitova, M.A. 14-490
Khuddus, M.A. 19-357
Khudyakov, I.V. 5-254, 5-256, **14**-11
Khurana, J.M. **10**-1284, 19-465, 19-474, 19-670
Khusid, A.Kh. 16-134
Khusnutdinov, R.I. 15-1361
Khuthier, A. 18-332
Khutoryanskii, V.A. 12-33
Kiau, S. 18-411
Kice, J.L. 5-215, 10-192, 10-357, 10-902, 10-2034, 10-2038, 17-434
Kido, F. **18**-591
Kido, Y. 16-637
Kidwell, H. 4-70
Kidwell, R.L. 17-334
Kiedaisch, W. 15-1426
Kiefer, E.F. 15-1326, 15-1327, 18-446
Kiefer, H.R. 10-609
Kielbania Jr., A.J. 18-656, 18-658
Kiely, D.E. 19-70
Kiely, J.S. 10-1571
Kienitz, H. 11-476
Kienzle, F. 12-304, 12-368, 13-238, 14-391
Kiesgen de Richter, R. 15-455
Kiesman, W.F. 15-295
Kiess, A.A. 19-192
Kiessling, A.J. 10-772
Kiełbasiński, P. **10**-906, **16**-880, **19**-448, 19-453, 19-456, 19-458
Kiffer, D. 10-356
Kigasawa, T. 10-871
Kiggen, W. 3-94
Kiji, J. **10**-1916, **11**-48, **15**-369, **15**-1363, **16**-295
Kiji, S. 12-115
Kikuchi, H. 19-393
Kikuchi, K. **15**-147
Kikuchi, O. 10-19
Kikuchi, T. 13-267
Kikugawa, Y. 10-1409, 14-477, 16-95, **16**-133, 16-351, 19-586
Kikukawa, K. 14-339, 14-432, 14-438, 14-440, 14-442
Kilbourn, M.R. 14-506
Kilby, D.C. 11-231
Kilia, H. 2-205
Killion Jr., R.B. 10-240
Killough, J.M. 10-1940
Killpack, M.O. 12-295
Kilpatrick, J.E. 4-313
Kilpatrick, M. 11-18
Kilway, K.V. 2-298
Kim, B.-K. 15-159
Kim, B.H. 19-609
Kim, B.M. 10-482, 15-457, 15-1016, 16-466, 16-598
Kim, B.T. 17-446
Kim, C. 10-217,16-507
Kim, C.-K. **16**-21
Kim, C.J. 10-137,10-146
Kim, C.K. 10-18,10-36
Kim, C.S. 15-1276
Kim, C.U. **10**-1176, **15**-716, **18**-411, 19-359
Kim, D. 6-27
Kim, E.G. 16-172
Kim, E.J. 10-1430
Kim, H.-R. 5-282
Kim, H.-S. 15-1406
Kim, H.R. 12-149
Kim, H.Y. 9-21, 10-57

Kim, I.C. 10-57
Kim, J. 10-1322,12-39
Kim, J.-S. 10-943,10-1574
Kim, J.B. 11-68
Kim, J.E. 3-97, 10-1423, 10-1428
Kim, J.I. 14-356, 16-470
Kim, J.K. 13-39,15-1105
Kim, J.M. 10-1430, 16-363
Kim, J.N. 17-365
Kim, K 12-165, 12-383, 10-614, 12-570, 15-431, 18-352
Kim, K.C. 19-25
Kim, K.M. 10-661
Kim, K.S. 19-90
Kim, M. 4-424, 10-1233
Kim, N.D. 10-36
Kim, S. 2-335, 4-103, 10-48, 10-143, 10-150, 10-878, 10-1195, 10-1257, 10-1279, 10-1969, 15-758, 16-265, 16-865, 17-405, 18-60, 18-233, 18-279
Kim, S.-H. 10-388, 10-424, 10-425, 10-914, 10-1950, 18-638, 19-705
Kim, S.-J. 5-271
Kim, S.-Y. 16-664
Kim, S.C. 16-340, 19-499, 19-509, 19-561
Kim, S.S. 11-399, 14-14, 14-44, 16-464, 16-598, 16-609
Kim, S.W. 15-196
Kim, S.Y. 14-44
Kim, T.-H. 14-467
Kim, T.-J. 15-1406
Kim, T.H. 10-1453
Kim, W.-Y. 10-1857, 10-1862
Kim, Y. 19-706
Kim, Y.-J. 3-23
Kim, Y.-M. 16-664
Kim, Y.H. 10-614, 12-149, 12-165, 12-570, 14-424, 15-1076, 16-99, 16-349, 16-496, 19-494
Kim, Y.S. 10-1423, 15-196
Kim., J.K. 15-1138
Kimball, D.B. 2-250
Kimbrough, D.R. 18-559
Kimling, H. 4-404, 4-405, 4-406
Kimoto, H. 10-342
Kimoto, K. 17-161
Kimura, A. 16-837
Kimura, F. 15-819
Kimura, J. 16-719
Kimura, K. 16-126, 16-408, 16-582, 16-591
Kimura, M. 1-82, 2-28, 10-1998, 16-912, 18-454, 18-689
Kimura, O. 13-140
Kimura, S. 18-161
Kimura, T. 17-191
Kimura, Y 3-84, 10-782, 10-1890, 13-143, 15-895, 16-470, 17-249
Kinart, W.J. 15-551
Kinbara, K. 15-144
Kindler, K. 19-653
Kindon, N.D. 12-34
King II, R.M. 11-196
King, G.S.D. 2-272
King, G.W. 7-13
King, J.A. 19-803
King, J.C. 15-1447
King, J.F. 4-185, 10-15, 10-287, 10-2034, 10-2035, 17-259, 18-580, 19-477
King, J.L. 17-280
King, K. 2-65, 10-2022
King, K. 15-1242
King, R.B. 3-59, 15-802
King, R.W. 13-245, 15-45, 17-138, 17-180, 17-186, 17-207
King, S.M. 15-487
King, S.W. 19-191, 19-192
Kingsbury, C.A. 4-229, 4-314, 10-141, 10-150
Kingsbury, C.L. 15-719
Kingsland, M. 11-65
Kingston, J.F. 10-2005
Kinner, L. 10-1522
Kinney, W.A. 15-1185
Kinoshita, A. 15-523, 18-636
Kinoshita, H. 10-730, 10-1650, 15-770, 19-341
Kinoshita, K. 16-819
Kinoshita, T. 5-96, 5-101, 10-46, 10-58, 10-59, 15-401
Kinoshita, Y 10-1053
Kinstle, T.H. 17-15
Kinter, K.S. 15-596
Kintner, R.R. 11-463,14-515,19-259
Kinzelmann, H. 12-449
Kipphardt, H. 10-1758,15-747
Kiprianova, L.A. 10-549, 14-415
Kira, M. 5-211,16-477
Kirby, A.J. 1-63, 4-136, 4-237, 4-280, 4-298, 4-386, 10-232, 10-234, 10-512, 10-516, 10-517, 10-587, 10-609, 13-10
Kirby, G.W. 12-375
Kirby, R.E. 1-16
Kirchhoff, R.A. 16-671
Kirchner, J.J. 18-565
Kirin, V.N. 10-835, 15-9
Kirino, K. 13-160
Kiritani, R. 10-2030, 13-89
Kirk, D.N. 4-222
Kirk, J.M. 10-663

Kirk, K.L. **18**-414
Kirkland, T.A. 18-633
Kirkor, E. **3**-130
Kirkpatrick, D. 10-1210 , 10-1250, 12-554
Kirkpatrick, E. 19-388
Kirms, M.A. 2-267
Kirmse, W. 5-267, 5-293, 5-294, 5-309, **5**-311, 10-103, 10-105, 10-153, 10-158, 10-204, **10**-311, 10-376, 10-380, 10-494, 12-236, 12-239, **12**-251, **15**-1379, **15**-1387, **18**-2, **18**-11, 18-19, 18-27, 18-28, 18-42, 18-46, 18-139, **18**-178, **18**-186, **18**-187, **18**-406, **18**-515, **18**-591
Kirn, W.N. 16-236
Kirner, W.R. 10-300
Kirollos, K.S. 12-59
Kirova, M. 15-1489
Kirpichenko, S.V. 15-233
Kirpichenok, M.A. 1-29, 4-327
Kirrmann, A. 5-142
Kirsanov, A.V. 10-1022,16-240
Kirsch, G. 2-271
Kirsch, J.F 10-224
Kirschberg, T. 14-52
Kirschke, K. 19-38, 19-38
Kirschleger, B. 12-487
Kirschner, S. . 18-85
Kirschning, A. **15**-1143
Kirss, R.U. 5-191
Kirst, H.A. **10**-1611, **19**-626
Kirste, B. **5**-178
Kirtane, J.G. 10-478
Kirwan, J.N. **10**-1257, **10**-1369
Kise, M. 13-82
Kise, N. 10-1459,10-1806,19-728
Kiselev, V.D. 15-1212
Kiselyov, A.S. 14-401
Kishi, I. 19-778
Kishi, J. 10-1916
Kishi, K. 17-369
Kishi, Y. 15-1007, 16-506
Kishikawa, K. 18-194, **18**-371
Kishioka, Y. 16-313
Kiso, S 19-674
Kispert, L.D. 2-167, 5-234
Kiss, J. 9-13
Kissel, W.J. 19-278
Kita, I. 10-1968
Kita, T. 10-305
Kita, Y 10-912, 14-136, 19-787, 19-789
Kitaev, Yu.P. **16**-416
Kitagawa, A. 11-383
Kitagawa, O. 12-144, 15-908
Kitagawa, S. 19-778
Kitagawa, T. 5-101, 10-296, 10-298, 15-1425, 18-396, 18-489, 18-527
Kitagawa, Y 10-1604
Kitaguchi, H. 12-105,14-105
Kitahara, N. 16-440
Kitahara, Y 15-1330
Kitahonoki, K. 19-632
Kitajima, H. 11-95, 11-296, 11-461, 15-1440
Kitamura, M. 4-121, 16-322, 16-378
Kitamura, T. 10-610, 10-1213, 11-274, 12-336
Kitano, Y 4-160
Kitao, T. 9-64, 13-189, 19-790
Kitaoka, Y 19-790
Kitatani, K. 10-1547
Kitayama, K. 10-700
Kitazawa, E. 16-640
Kitazume, T. 18-209
Kitching, W. 4-268, 4-278, 5-81, 5-88, 8-61, 8-62, 12-2, 12-13, 12-34, 12-35, 12-36, 12-45, 12-348, 15-164
Kite, G.F. 14-497
Kito, T. 11-348
Kitschke, B. 2-145
Kittredge, K.W. 5-106
Kivelevich, D. 2-182
Kivinen, A. 10-559, 10-992
Kiwiet, N.J. 15-1268
Kiyan, N.Z. **10**-306, 10-2027
Kiyooka, S. 16-609, 16-637, 16-815
Kiyoshige, K. 16-254
Kiyota, M. **10**-1215
Kizaki, H. **12**-414
Kizirian, M. 18-52
Kizner, T.A. 13-84
Klaassen, A.A.K. **2**-211
Klaboe, P. 4-233
Klabunde, K.J. 12-465
Klabunovskii, E.I. **4**-111, 10-1301, 15-287, **15**-1192
Klaeboe, P. 4-272
Klages, U. 4-265
Klahre, G. 16-747
Klamann, D. 10-832, 10-2043
Klamer, J.C. 2-53
Klamt, A. 10-397
Klang, J.A. 14-493, 19-266, 19-738, 19-745
Klärner, F. **17**-245, 18-448, 18-464, 18-465, 18-472
Klärner, F.-G. 2-45
Klasinc, L. 5-136
Klauck, G. 2-201
Klaunzer, N. 12-61
Klausner, A.E. 8-38

Klausner, Y.S. 10-1008
Klebe. *I.* **15-**1420
Kleeman, A. **4-**111
Kleeman, M. 15-1310
Kleijn. H. 15-645
Kleimann, H. 16-940
Klein, D.J. 2-94
Klein, G. **10-**132
Klein, H. 15-1294, 19-244
Klein, H.P. 14-171
Klein, H.S. 1-49
Klein, J. 10-1544, 12-267, 15-165, 15-436, 15-439, 15-718, 15-904, 16-602
Klein, R.F.X. 19-366
Klein, W.R. 12-434
Kleinfelter, DC. 10-168, 18-92
Kleinschmidt, R.F. 15-246
KleinstUck, R. 17-386, 17-403
Klem, R. 19-276
Klemmensen, P. 10-944
Klender, G.J. 15-429
Klenke, K. 15-494
Klessinger, M. 4-220, 11-73
Klester, A.M. 18-103
Klibanov, A.M. 4-124, 10-760
Kliewer, M.A. 15-347
Kliimann, H. 16-936
Klimisch, R.L. 17-88
Klimov, E.M. 10-746
Klimova, E.I. 16-841
Kline, M. 5-308
Kline, M.W. 18-317
Klinedinst Jr., P.E. 10-51
Kling, R. 10-1732
Klingberg, D. 18-412
Klinger, F. 18-404
Klingler, F.D. 19-388
Klingsberg, E. 18-165
Klingstedt, T. **10-**1588
Klink, J.R. 11-431,11-432
Klivenyi, P. 5-182
Klobukowski, M. 15-11
Klochkov, V.V. 6-55
Kloetzel, M.C. 15-1179
Kloosterziel, H. 10-472, 18-454, 18-471
Klopfenstein, C.E. 2-279
Klopman, G. 5-27, 15-1256
Klopper, W. 2-209
Klosa, J. **10-**1015
Klose, G. 18-668
Klose. T.R. 12-602
Klucik, J. 19-181
Klug, W. 2-277
Kluge, H. 17-397
Kluge, R. **14-**187
Kluger, R. 6-75, 10-220, 10-236, 10-994
Klumpp, G.W. 6-6, 6-19, **8-**117, 9-1, 10-64, 10-321, 10-387, 10-784, 10-1217, 12-454, 15-42, 15-1258, 18-489, 18-524
Klunder, J.M. 13-276, 15-922, 15-1063
Klusacek, H. 16-940, 18-524
Klusener, P.A.A. 12-297
Klutsch, G. 19-197
Klyashchitskii, B.A. 4-131
Klym, A. 8-57
Klyne, W. 4-85, 4-91, 4-222
Klyuev, M.V. 16-165
Knapp, F.F. **12-**361
Knapp, S. 15-910
Knauer, K.H. 2-145
Knaup, G.L. 2-141
Knaus, E.E. 10-1005, 10-1658
Knauss, D.C. 10-701
Knauss, E. **15-**1192
Knecht, M. 16-804
Kneen, G. 15-1267
Kneib-Cordonier, N. **10-**1026
Kneipp, K.G. 6-63
Kniel, P. 13-153
Knier, B.L. 10-73
Kniežo, L. 17-15
Knifton, J.F. 15-770, 19-608
Knight, C. 19-310
Knight, D.W. 18-561,18-562,18-563
Knight, G.T. 12-589
Knight, J.C. 19-568
Knight, J.D. 18-35
Knight, J.G. 15-1133
Knight, J.W. 17-204
Knight, K.S. 15-534
Knights, E.E 15-438, 18-368
Knipe, A.C. 3-76, 10-390, 10-658, 10-722, 10-1707, 17-52
Knist, J. 18-11,18-46
Knobelsdorf, J. 16-867
Knobler, C.B. 3-95,3-136
Knoche, H. 18-624
Knoche, W. **11-**13
Knochel, P. 6-15, 10-1540, 10-1557, 10-1561, 10-1514, 10-1897, 10-1941, 12-330, 12-443, 12-468, 15-647, 15-653, 15-702, 15-704, 16-372, 16-389, 16-436, 16-470, 19-390
Knoeber, M.C. 4-292
Knoll, F. 1-9
Knoll, F.M. 18-505
Knopp, M. 18-544

Knossow, M. **4-**132, **4-**133
Knowles, J.R. 4-29, 18-540
Knowles, W.S. 4-123, **15-**287, 15-292, 19-188
Knox, B.E. 1-89
Knox, D.E. 10-93
Knox, G.R. 15-1472, 17-210, 19-517
Knox, L.H. 2-124, 5-306, 10-30, 10-37, 12-241, 15-1422
Knox, S.A.R. 2-142
Knözinger, H. **17-**160, **17-**162
Knudsen Jr., G.A. 18-67
Knudsen, R.D. 13-78
Knunyants, I.L. 2-332, 15-71, 15-939, 15-954, 16-18, 16-722
Knupfer, H. 17-399
Knutov, V.I. 3-89
Knutson, D. 6-34
Knutson, F.J. 10-372
Knutson, P.L.A. 10-466, 10-1705
Knutson, R.S. **10-**115
Knutsson, L. **18-**169, **18-**172, **18-**176
Ko, E.C.F. 10-1230, 17-70, 18-24
Ko, H.C. 9-26
Ko, J.S. 10-1279
Ko, M. 19-261
Ko, S.-B. 10-1070, 15-77
Ko, S.-L. 15-815
Ko, S.Y. 10-695, 15-1063
Kobayashi, H. 10-449, 13-18, 18-301, 19-262
Kobayashi, K. 15-528, 16-806, 18-644
Kobayashi, M. 10-486, 10-947, **10-**1319, 10-1888, 13-163, 14-323, 14-333, 19-459
Kobayashi, N. 15-298, 16-534
Kobayashi, S. 8-188, 10-251, 10-272, 10-273, 10-963, 10-1099, 10-1646, 10-1738, 11-274, 11-294, 11-407, 12-603, 15-600, 15-606, 15-994, 15-1209, 15-1215, 15-1440, 16-195, 16-440, 16-469, 16-478, 16-496, 16-537, 16-545, 16-583, 16-610, 16-626, 16-628, 16-630, 16-631, 16-637, 16-639, **16-**813a, 16-819, 18-121
Kobayashi, T. 5-74, 10-877, 10-1875, 10-1929, 10-1931, 10-1933, 12-244, 12-555, 13-189, 15-1474, 16-206, 19-49
Kobayashi, Y. 4-160, **10-**492, 10-886, 15-517, 15-1378, 18-533, 19-483
Kober, H. 5-324, 15-1425, 18-396, 18-527
Kobori, N. 14-333
Kobori, T. 11-183
Kobori, T. 15-943
Koboyashi, K. **3-**114
Köbrich, G. 4-422, 2-486, 12-489, 17-3, 17-253
Kobrina, L.S. 13-63, 13-72, 14-18, 18-213
Kobsa, H. **11-**412, 11-415
Kobuke, Y. **15-**1268
Koch Jr., F.W. 11-285
Koch Jr., S.D. **14-**129
Koch, D. 10-1732
Koch, E. 5-58, 10-180
Koch, G.K. 10-2012
Koch, H. 5-207
Koch, H.F. 17-37, 17-54
Koch, J. 16-926
Koch, J.G. 17-62
Koch, J.R. **15-**1027, 15-1028
Koch, K.R. 18-350
Koch, M. 13-70
Koch, S. 16-159
Koch, V.R. 14-72
Koch, W. 2-266, **10-**114, 10-165, 10-166, 10-181, 10-186, 10-188, 15-138, 15-1438, 18-74
Kochanewycz, M.J. 19-457
Kochetkov, K.A. 4-111
Kochetkov, N.K. 10-243, 10-746, 15-982
Kochetkova, N.S. 2-131
Kochhar, K.S. 16-872
Kochi, J.K. 3-70, 5-174, 5-180, 5-215, 5-235, **10-**1136, 10-1506, 10-1508, 10-1509, 10-1530, 10-1597, 10-1634, **11-**95, 11-113, 11-138, 12-24, 12-41, 12-306, 13-221, 14-28, 14-198, 14-228, 14-272, 14-275, 14-281, 14-394, 14-421, 14-448, 14-502, 15-21, 15-225, 15-611, 15-984, 15-1056, 15-1074, 15-1467, **16-**911, 17-136, 18-69, 18-77, 19-137, 19-138, 19-263, 19-265, 19-266, 19-268, 19-269, 19-389
Kocián, O. 17-26
Kocienski, P. 10-1666
Kocsis, K. 17-422
Kodama, H. 10-1587
Kodera, M. 10-895
Kodoi, K. 15-782
Kodomari, M. 11-204, 11-253
Kodukulla, K. 15-1154
Koeberg-Telder, A. 8-28, 8-29, 11-178, 11-480, 11-481
Koehl Jr., W.J. **15-**1145
Koehn, W. 15-1317
Koelliker, V. **15-**904
Koelling, J.G. 6-73
Koelsch, C.F. 10-1869
Koeng, F.R. 10-127
Koenig, K.E. 10-2019, 15-287, 15-289, 15-290
Koenig, M. 15-575
Koenig, T.M. 10-1877
Koenigsberger, R.U. 12-39

Koening, P.E. 10-991
Koepp, E. 16-702
Koeppl, G.W. 6-88
Koerner, M. 12-442
Koga, G. 18-604
Koga, K. 4-118, 4-134, 10-1731, 10-1738, 10-1753, 12-91, 12-552, 12-564, 15-577, 15-707, 15-708, 15-713, 15-1011, 15-1207, 16-533, 16-603
Koga. N. 7-21, **15-**113, 15-330, 18-604
Koga, T. **13-**213
Koga, Y. 15-1474
Kogami, K. 16-574
Kogan, G.A. 2-30, 2-34
Kogan, L.M. 19-662
Kogure, K. 19-393
Kogure, T. 16-262
Koh, H.Y. 10-1329
Koharski, D. 10-1253, 10-1295
Kohda, K. 10-342
Kohl, D.A. 1-61, 5-290, 15-57
Kohler, B. **7-**15
Kohler, B.A.B. 16-623
Kohll. C.F. 10-785
Kohlmiller, C.K. 19-201
Kohmoto, S. 18-194
Kohmura, Y. 12-179
Kohn, H. 15-1120
Kohne, J. 10-1272
Kohnke, EH. 2-259
Kohno, M. **12-**611
Kohno, S. 10-1261
Kohno, Y 15-387
Kohnstam, G. 10-64, 10-69, 10-408, 11-34, 13-287
Kohra, S. 10-1970
Koide, T. 10-1306
Koike, N. 10-790
Kojima, A. 14-369
Kojima, M. 15-1353
Kojima, R. 15-242
Kojima, T. 15-1194
Kojima, T. 19-149
Kok, D.M. 15-1342
Kok, G.B. 1-42
Kokel, B. 11-155
Kokes, R.J. 15-276
Kokhlova, V.M. 13-85
Kokil, P.B. 15-17
Kokin, A.A. 14-111
Kokko, B. 12-378
Kokko, B.J. 12-375, 12-377
Kokubo, C. 19-457
Kokubo, K. 15-761
Kokubo, T. 15-1021
Kol'tsov, A.I. 2-312
Kol, M. 15-935
Kolar, L.W. 10-795
Kolasa, T. 10-1082
Kolb, H.C. 15-987, 15-1010, 15-1014
Kolb, M. 10-1219, 10-1763
Kolb, V.M. 17-300
Kolbah, D. 10-936
Kolbasenko, S.I. 15-1102
Koldobskii, G.I. 18-251, 18-253, 18-263
Kolesar, T.F. 15-1318
Kolesnichenko, G.A. 14-205
Kollár, L. 15-797
Kollman, P.A. 3-1, 4-292, 4-332
Kollmar, H. 2-176
Kollonitsch, 1. **10-**1159, **10-**1374
Kolomiets, A.F. 10-478, 10-884
Kolomitsyn, I.V. **14-**111
Kolomnikov, I.S. 15-277, 16-521
Kolomnikova, G.D. 2-123, 15-272
Kolos, W. 1-3
Kolsaker, P. 2-355, 19-213
Kolshorn, H. 4-402, 4-403, **15-**1197
Kolthoff, I.M. 8-7, 8-39
Kolyaskina, Z.N. 15-968
Komarov, I.V. 4-386
Komatsu, K. 2-125, 2-159, 5-101, 10-46, 10-59
Komatsu, M. 10-1896, 10-1919, 10-1920, 15-657, 15-1129, **19-**304, 19-340
Komatsuzaki, T. 9-76
Komin, J.B. 15-1050
Komiya, N. 19-291,19-321
Komiya, Y. 14-296
Komiyama, M. 3-137, 10-569, 11-48
Kommandeur, J. **7-**19
Komornicki, A. 10-159, 18-559
Komoto, R.G. 10-1911, 10-1912
Kompa, K. 11-160
Komura, K. 10-1479
Komura, M. 16-609
Konasewich, D.E. **8-**118
Koncos, R. 11-240, 12-243
Kondakov, D.Y 15-628
Kondo, A. 13-145
Kondo, H. 15-311
Kondo, I. 14-447
Kondo, K. 10-947, 10-1055, 10-1501, 12-603, 12-605, 14-369, 15-1090, 18-579, 19-235
Kondo, M. 16-326
Kondo, S. 2-270, 10-1538

Kondo, T. 10-931, 15-258, 15-782, 15-1014, 16-143
Kondo, Y. 10-1582
Kondrat'eva, L.A. 16-657
Kondrat'eva, L.V. 15-46, 15-245
Kondratov, S.A. 13-127
Konen, D.A. **14-112, 16-700**
Kong, F. 10-868, 12-107
Kong, N. 15-1408
Kong, S. 10-1736, 15-143
König, C. **15-1135**
Konig, E. 14-416,14-418
König, H. **13-122**
Konig, J. 18-447, 18-456, 18-457
Konig, W.A. 4-141,4-143
Konigshofen, H. 2-138, 2-226, 2-267
Konijn, M. 10-311
Konishi, H. 2-163, 11-48, 16-295
Konishi, K. 15-1070
Konishi, M. 10-1514
Kono, D.H. **10-1246**
Kono, H. 10-1849
Kono, K. 14-432, 14-438, 14-442, 16-447, 18-596
Konoike, T. 19-478, 19-483
Konovalov, A.I. 15-1153, 15-1172, 5-1212
Konrad, G. 4-143
Konradi, A.W. 19-707, 19-710, **19-711**
Koo, I.S. 10-217,10-560
Koock, S.U. 10-118
Kooistra, D.A. 16-92, 19-531
Kool, E. 16-857
Koola, J.J. 14-249
Koolhaas, W.E. 2-52
Koosha, K. 15-720
Kooyman, E.C. 2-97, 11-220, 11-491, 14-71, 14-94, 17-130, 17-135
Kop, J.M.M. 10-2012
Kopecky, D.J. 19-578
Kopecky, J. 10-1022
Kopecky, K.R. 5-273, 12-27, **15-11**
Kopf, J. 4-448
Kopf, J. 15-1466
Kopinke, F. 14-47
Kopinski, R.P. 13-197
Kopka, I.E. 4-443
Koplick, A.J. 18-48
Kopp, J. 6-60
Kopp, R. 10-249
Koppel, I. 8-181
Koppel, I.A. 8-138, 10-427
Koppenhoefer, B. 4-143
Koppes, W.M 10-1246
Kopping, B. 10-1258, 15-736, 15-821
Koptyug, V.A. 11-12, 11-13, 11-26, 11-82, 11-459, 11-490, 18-6, 18-30, 18-35, 18-213
Korber, H. **19-210**
Korcek, S. 14-230
Korchagina, D.V. 18-35,18-213
Kore, A.R. 19-173
Koreeda, M. 16-273, 18-565, 18-595
Koren, R. 10-63
Koreshkov, Yu.D. 2-163, 15-1414
Kornblum, N. 10-74, 10-283, 10-410, 10-470, 10-472, 10-473, 10-852, 10-1094, 10-1388, 10-1710, 10-1712, 10-1718, 10-1719, 10-1720, 10-1721, 10-1722, 10-1723, 12-215, 12-562, 14-291, 14-415, 16-56, 19-352, 19-353
Kornegay, R.L. 4-261,10-112
Korneva, L.M. 2-116
Korobitsyna, I.K. 10-377, 18-178, 18-185
Korolev, B.A. 8-175
Koroniak, H. 18-390, 18-397, 18-406, 18-488
Korostova, S.E. 10-1652
Korostylev, A.P. 13-73
Korshak, V.V. 13-171
Korshunov, S.P. 19-10
Kort, C.W.F. 11-174,11-177
Korte, S. 4-398
Korte, W.D. 10-1522
Korth, H. 5-209, **5-211**, 10-1389
Korth, H.-G. 1-88
Kortüm, G. 8-18
Korver, G.L. 18-538
Korytnyk, W. 16-302
Korytnyk, W. 19-548
Korytsky, O.L. 10-935, 10-1230
Korzeniowski, S.H. 3-76, 12-561, 14-322, 14-409
Korzhenevskaya, N.G. 9-48
Kos, A.J. 10-114
Kos, N.J. 1-86
Kosak, J.R. 11-446
Kosbahn, W. 18-549
Kosel, C. 13-249
Koser, G.F. **18-236**
Köser, H.G. 2-193
Koshchii, V.A. 11-262
Koshino, J. 18-365
Koshiro, Y. 19-780
Koshtaleva, T.M. 18-263
Koshy, K.M. 17-35
Koski, W.S. 5-177
Koskikallio, E.A. 10-764
Koskikallio, J. 10-324, 10-343
Koskimies, J.K. 4-114, 10-1763, 10-1792

Koskinen, A.M.P. 12-167
Kosower, E.M. 3-56, 4-355, 10-428, 14-417, 14-418
Kosswig, K. 19-162
Kost. A.N. 11-345, 15-236, 15-250
Kost. D. 1-10
Koster, D.F. 15-545
Koster, G.F. 10-99
Köster, A.M. 2-6, 2-74, 2-85
Köster, H. 5-131
Köster, R. 12-340, 15-461, 15-725
Kostermans, G.B.M. 2-52
Kostikov, R.R. 2-156, 2-165, 15-1384, 15-1393
Kostova, K. 16-377
Kostyanovsky, R.G. 4-34, 4-37, 4-40
Kostyk, M.D. 5-45
Kostyukovskii, Ya.L. 12-572
Kosuge, T. 14-414
Kosugi, M. 10-1602, 10-1749, 10-1894, 10-1948, 13-107, 13-166
Kosugi, Y. 14-29
Kotake, H. 10-730, 10-1650
Kotal, A. 13-212
Kotani, Y. 10-307
Kotcher, P.G. 13-28
Koteel, C. 19-67
Kotera, K. 19-632
Koth. H.F. 17-62
Kotha, S. 10-1704
Kotian, K. 16-515
Kotian, K.D. 16-95
Koto, H. 16-393
Kotora, M. 10-1536, 15-652, 18-634
Kotsuki, H. 10-555, 10-1060, 10-1208, 10-1345, 11-251, 15-567
Koubek, E. 13-274
Koudelka, J. 1-35, 5-239
Kouge, K. 15-1440
Kouwenhoven, A.P. 12-5 2, 15-1362
Kovacević, M. 4-132
Kovacic, M.K. 10-929
Kovacic, P. 4-429, 10-976, 11-157, 11-158, 11-165, 11-166, 11-284, 11-285, 12-593, 14-279, 17-373, 18-289
Kovacs, C.A. 18-334, 18-347
Kovacs, J. 10-192
Kovács, I. 15-801
Kovalenko, S.V. 13-154
Kovalev, B.G. 16-375
Kovelesky, A.C. 10-1820
Köver, A. 12-78
Kovrizhnykh, E.A. 5-132
Kovtonyuk, V.N. 18-213
Kovtunenko, V.A. 15-1244
Kowalak, S. 15-302
Kowalski, C.J. 10-1980, 10-1981, 12-272, 18-194
Kowalski, M.H. 10-1623
Kowalski, T. 10-189
Koyama, I. 10-251
Koyama, K. 15-972, 19-302
Koyanagi, M. 10-2017
Koyano, M. 16-408
Koyano, T. 15-895
Koyunau, D. 19-489
Koz'min, A.S. 4-371, 10-8, 15-9, 15-927, 15-933
Kozaki, T. 10-19
Kozhevnikov, I.V. 10-408, 14-345
Kozhushko, B.N. 16-750
Kozhushkov, S.I. 10-1706
Koziar, J.C. 7-5
Koziara, A. 10-951, 10-1110, 19-643
Kozikowski, A.P. 10-1164
Kozima, K. 3-41
Koziski, K.A. 12-326
Kozlikovskii, Ya.B. 11-262
Kozlov, V.A. 11-485
Kozlov, V.V. 13-134
Kozlowski, J. 10-1673, 15-666
Kozlowski, J.A. 10-1539, 10-1552, 12-433, 15-667
Kozlowski, M.A. 16-29
Kozmin, A.S. 10-835
Kozuka, S. 14-29, 14-508, 19-667
Kozyrod, R.P. 13-197
Kraakman, PA. 2-52, 15-1398
Kraeutler, B. 12-521, 14-488
Krafft, M.E. 10-1310, 15-778, 15-1478, 19-94
Krafft, T.E. 14-494
Kraft, L. 19-174
Kraka, E. 4-337, 4-349, 4-353
Krakauer, H. 19-1
Krakowiak, K.E. 3-76
Kramar, J. 12-269
Kramer, B.D. 15-1357
Kramer, G.M. 5-13, 10-162, 15-130
Kramer, G.W. 10-1030
Kramer, K.E. 18-300
Kramer, PA. 12-52
Kramer, U. 10-1058
Kramer, T. 16-682
Kramps, L. 15-1044
Krane, J. 3-81, 4-268
Krantz, A. 2-173
Krapcho, A.P. 10-188, 10-2013, 12-518, 15-1401, 17-354, 18-20

Krasik, P. 10-756
Krasna, A.I. 15-324
Krasnaya, Zh.A. 10-1715
Krass, N. 11-394
Kratzer, O. 16-745
Kraus, G.A. 10-31, 10-315, 10-1576, 15-759, 15-846, 15-1149, 15-1195, 19-37, 19-567
Kraus, K.W. 10-1962, 16-552
Kraus, M. 17-162
Kraus, M.A. 10-1027
Kraus, W. 10-1283
Krause, N. 10-1854, 5-720
Krause, P. 10-130
Krause, R.A. 4-367
Krause, V. 12-510
Krauss, H. 12-77
Krauss, H.J. 12-77
Krauss, S.R. 15-720
Krayushkin, M.M. 11-244
Krebs, A. 4-402, 4-404, 4-405, 4-406, 4-408, 4-432, 4-448, 15-85, 18-171, 18-542
Krebs, A.W. 2-156
Krebs, P.J. 14-2
Kreevoy, M.M. 6-6, 6-21, 6-23, 6-25, 6-27, 8-89, 8-101, 8-118, 10-344, 10-504, 10-511, 10-513, 10-514, 10-547, 10-668, 19-555
Kreft III, A.F. 10-206
Kreh, R.P 19-331
Kreider, E.M. 13-289, 13-291
Kreil, D.J. 18-477
Kreile, J. 2-175
Kreimerman, S. 10-1919
Kreiser, W. 16-305
Kreiter, C.G. 2-288
Kremer, K.A.M. 4-116
Krepski, L. 16-813
Krepski, L.R. 15-1300, 119-729, 9-0739, 19-745, 19-746
Kresge, A.J. 2-315, 2-317, 2-318, 2-320, 2-321, 2-323, 2-325, 2-326, 6-36, 6-61, 6-75, 6-86, 6-88, 8-57, 8-87, 8-91, 8-92, 8-101, 8-117, 8-118, 10-509, 10-512, 10-515, 10-547, 10-548, 10-550, 11-104, 12-80, 12-81, 12-83, 12-123, 15-24, 15-78, 15-187, 15-190, 15-200
Kresge, A.R. 2-316
Kresin, V.Z. 7-35
Krespan, C.G. 15-1190
Kress, A. 2-167
Kress, J. 16-802, 18-650
Kress, R.B. 4-154
Kresze, G. 12-176, 15-1272, 16-890, 18-549
Kretchmer, R.A. 14-463
Kretzschmar, G. 17-146
Kreutzer, K.A. 10-1446
Krichevtsova, T.I. 10-2050
Kricka, L.J. 15-1343, 15-1361
Krief, A. 10-843, 10-879, 10-1164, 10-1803, 12-486, 15-688, 16-376, 17-288, 17-289, 17-295, 18-116, 18-200, 19-10, 19-283, 19-676
Krieg, H. 2-233, 2-235
Krieger, C. 2-54, 2-256, 3-25, 4-65, 8-154, 8-155, 8-157
Krieger, J.K. 11-68, 14-457
Krieger, K.A. 16-300
Krieger, RE. 15-202
Krimen, L.I. 16-866
Krimer, M.Z. 15-20, 15-1137
Krimm, H. 11-359
Krimmer, H. 18-192
Krishnamurthy, D. 16-441
Krishnamurthy, R. 14-8
Krishnamurthy, S. 8-151, 10-1250, 10-1251, 10-1298, 10-1332, 10-1360, 16-280, 16-303, 16-340, 19-496, 19-499, 19-503, 19-507, 19-509, 19-510, 19-557
Krishnamurthy, V. 14-302, 15-864
Krishnamurthy, V.V. 5-73, 11-116, 16-760, 18-70
Krishnamurti, R. 10-1188
Krishtalik, L.I. 15-404
Kristián, P. 10-986
Kristiansen, P.O. 3-81
Kritchevsky, J. 15-61
Krivokapic, A. 4-322
Kriz Jr., G.S. 6-72
Krizhechkovskaya, N.I. 11-182
Krogh, E.T. 2-321
Krogh, J.A. 16-55, 16-223
Krogh-Jespersen, K. 2-159, 2-167, 5-311
Krohn, K. 19-133
Krois, D. 16-19
Krolikiewicz, K. 10-730
Kroll, W.R. 18-630
Kromhout, R.A. 3-7
Kron, T.E. 3-108
Kronenberg, W.J. 4-251
Kroner, J. 2-181
Krongauz, E.S. 19-283
Kronja, O. 10-115
Kroon, J. 3-20, 3-38
Kropp, P.J. 7-46, 12-77, 15-152, 18-445, 18-673, 18-676
Kroto, H.W. 2-294
Krow, G. 4-13, 4-89
Krow, G.R. 18-202, 18-254, 18-275, 18-295, 18-521

Krstulović, A.M. **4-**139
Krubiner, A. 19-672
Kruck, P. 19-175
Krueger, A.C. 15-1489
Krueger, S.M. 18-404
Kriierke, U. 4-433
Kruger, A.W. **4-**314
Kruger, J.E. 18-23, 18-26
Kruger, T.L. 8-59, 8-64, 18-537
Krüger, C. 2-273, 1485
Krüger, H. **6-**51
Kruizinga, W.H. 10-781, 10-782
Kruk, C. 8-28
Krull, K.L. 8-145
Krumpe, K.E. 12-239
Krupicka, J. 17-26
Kruppa, G.H. 5-73
Kruse, C.G. 4-81
Kruse, C.W. 15-246
Kruse, L.I. **6-**14, 6-17, 11-56
Kruse, R.B. 15-47
Krusic, P.J. 5-235
Kryger, L. 10-4
Krygowski, T.M. 2-86, 8-146
Krylov, E.N. 11-484
Kryshtal, G.V. 15-559, 15-563
Kryuchkova, L.V. 13-145
Krzhizhevskii, A.M. 18-46
Ku, A.T. 5-28
Ku, A.Y. 18-665
Ku, B. 16-89
Kuar, K.P. 10-458
Kubánek, V. **19-**10, 19-496
Kubler, D.G. 10-509
Kubo, A. 4-162
Kubo, M. 2-226, 2-273
Kubo, T. 11-483
Kubo, Y. 10-1361
Kubota, H. 4-162, 10-1731, 11-390, 15-1425, 18-396
Kubota, K. 11-150,16-210
Kubota, S. 5-238, 15-544
Kubota, Y. 13-202, 13-208
Kucerovy, A. 12-440
Kuchar, E.J. 15-888
Kucher, R.V. 15-1038
Kucherov, V.F. 10-1715, 15-104, 15-563, 17-3
Kuchitsu, K. 1-73, 2-28, 4-256
Kuck, D. 4-367
Kuck, V.J. 2-194,5-288
Kuczkowski, R.L. **1-**52, **19-**186, **19-**199, 19-209, 19-214, 19-215, 19-216, 19-217, 19-220
Kudian, A.K. 1-39
Kudo, H. 19-604
Kudo, K. **13-**209, **18-**112
Kudo, T. 15-410, **15-**411,**9-**550, 19-551, 19-552
Kudo, Y. 10-1319
Kudryavtsev, R.V. 18-701
Kuebart, F. 2-229
Kuebrich, J.P. 16-855
Kuehne, M.E. 4-106, 12-223, 12-227, 14-267, 15-1447, 19-555
Kugatova-Shemyakina, G.P. 4-218
Kuhla, D.E. 15-1267
Kühle, E. 14-283
Kühle, E. 15-939
Kühling, K. 16-470
Kuhlmann, D. 14-456
Kuhlmann, H 16-858, 15-746
Kuhlmann, K.F. 11-136
Kuhn, H.J. 14-238,14-251
Kuhn, S.J. 10-1242, 10-1243, 11-13, 11-22, 11-23, 11-24, 11-120, 11-242, 11-258, 11-313, 11-339
Kühnau, D. 10-1093
Kühne, H. 19-224
Kuhnen, F. 14-503
Kuhnert, N. 15-607
Kuipers, H.P.C.E. 15-1058
Kuivila, H.G. 10-1265, 10-1291, 10-1420, 12-497, 16-272
Kükenhöhner, T. 16-463
Kukes, S. 6-25
Kuki, A. **10-**1704
Kukolja, S. 10-1078
Kukui, Y 10-1916
Kukushkin, V.Yu. 19-666
Kul'bovskaya, N.K. 15-48, 15-227
Kulawiec, R.J. 12-78
Kulczycki Jr., A. 15-1417
Kulenovic, S.T. 12-142
Kulganek, V.V. 15-559, 15-563
Kulik, N.I. 10-21,10-394
Kulinkovich, O.G. 11-332
Kulkarni, M.G. 19-89
Kulkarni, S.U. **10-**1180, 10-1427, 15-433, **15-**440, **15-**441, **15-**445, **15-**453, **18-**374, **18-**378
Kulp, S.S. 19-280
Kumada, M. 10-698, 10-1514, 10-1515, 10-1516, 10-1592, 10-1596, 10-1667, 12-34
Kumadaki, I. 10-492, 15-1378, 18-533
Kumagai, T. 7-49
Kumai, S. 18-11
Kumar, A. 13-14, 18-288
Kumar, B.A. 10-2041
Kumar, C.V. **14-**454, **15-**1360

Kumar, D. 19-26
Kumar, G. 12-580
Kumar, G.A. 3-33
Kumar, H.M.S. 16-664, 17-370, 18-258
Kumar, J.S.D. 15-585
Kumar, K.S.R. **15**-174
Kumar, M.S. 10-1436, 17-370
Kumar, R. 13-263, 14-426
Kumar, R.K. 15-995
Kumar, S. 16-145
Kumar, V. 16-88
Kumar, V.A. 16-7
Kumaran, G. 17-147
Kumarev, V.P. 11-437
Kumata, Y. 4-10
Kume, K. 16-637
Kümin, A. 12-34
Kumli, K.F. 16-769
Kümmerlin, M. 4-317
Kumobayashi, H. 14-256, 15-369, 16-322
Kunai, A. 14-202, 14-206, 19-350
Kunda, S.A. 12-362
Kundu, M.K. 16-486
Kundu, N.G. 10-1858, 14-363, 18-40
Kunerth, D.C. 10-775, **12**-518
Kunesch, N. 10-1656
Kiing, W. 18-51
Kunii, H. **15**-120
Kunin, A.J. 12-610
Kunisada, H. 10-1538
Kunishige, H. 10-1398
Kunishima, M. 10-909, 16-447, 18-596
Kunitake, K. 12-420
Kuniyasu, H. 15-234, 15-235
Kunng, F. 13-150
Kunshenko, B.V. **16**-242
Kuntz, I.D. 4-332
Kunwar, A.C. 15-1358
Kunz, H. 15-694, 16-940
Künzer, H. **15**-1193
Kuo, H. 12-363
Kuo, M. 10-291
Kuo, S.C. 16-157
Kuo, Y. 10-2011
Kuok, M. 4-242
Kupchan, S.M. 14-390
Kupczyk-Subotkowska, L. 18-538, 18-540
Kurabayashi, K. 18-524
Kurabayashi, S. 10-307
Kuramitsu, T. 15-1468
Kurashima, F. 19-386
Kurata, K. 10-1395
Kurata, T. 15-832
Kurata, Y 13-129
Kurek, J.T. 15-165, 15-208, 16-870
Kurihara, A. 10-1898
Kurihara, H. 15-1213
Kurihara, K. 13-163
Kurihara, T. 10-730, 14-323, 16-813, 16-824
Kurimoto, M. 10-1884
Kurita, K. 10-989
Kurita, Y. 4-67, 16-542
Kuriyama, Y. 7-21
Kurland, R.J. 5-77
Kuroboshi, M. 10-1454, 10-1462, 15-876
Kuroda, K. **15**-1090
Kuroda, S. 2-244, 2-251, 2-252, 15-537
Kuroda, T. 10-753, 16-408
Kuroda, Y 3-137,11-483
Kurosawa, K. 11-336
Kurosawa, S. 15-160
Kurozumi, S. 12-200, 14-428
Kurreck, H. 5-178, 7-4
Kursanov, D.N. **2**-126, **2**-163, **10**-1310, **10**-1589, 15-272, 15-337, 15-361, 15-496, 15-1414, 16-93, 19-531, 19-532
Kürshner, U. 2-273
Kurt, R. 15-1238
Kurth, M. 15-1207
Kurth, M.J. 10-1701, 14-314
Kurts, A.L. 10-462, 10-468, 10-472, 10-473, 10-474, 10-841, 10-1163
Kurumizawa, S. 15-908, **15**-1157
Kurusu, T. 10-2037
Kurusu, Y. 10-932, 16-384
Kurz, J.L. 5-304, 8-93, 10-64, 10-483
Kurz, L.C. 10-483
Kurzawa, J. 17-44
Kurzer, F. 16-880
Kusabayashi, S. 10-199, 10-1284, 10-1523, 19-209
Kusakabe, M. 4-160
Kusakin, M.S. 10-1056
Kusano, K. **13**-211
Kusche, A. 18-599
Kushino, Y 10-1918
Kustanovich, Z. 4-138
Kusuda, K. **10**-1309, **10**-1372
Kusumoto, H. 3-49
Kusumoto, T. **10**-1164
Kutateladze, A.G. 15-825,15-1102
Kutchan, T.M. 18-474
Kutepow, N.v. 15-770, 15-1458
Kutney, G.W. 1-9
Kutyrev, A.A. 15-38
Kutyrev, G.A. 16-115

Kutzelnigg, W. 2-13
Kuwabara, T. **14-256**
Kuwajima, I. **10-1700**, **10-1773**, **13-167**, 14-179, 15-547, 15-558, 15-657, 16-371, 16-387, 16-590, 16-653, 16-671
Kuwamura, T. 10-273
Kuyper, L.F. 5-114
Kuz'min, S.V. 19-662
Kuz'min, V.A. 5-254, 5-256, 7-7
Kuz'mina, N.A. 10-1263, 10-1266
Kuzmanova, R.B. 9-23, 9-25
Kuznetsov, D.V. 14-95
Kuznetsov, L.L. 12-582
Kuznetsov, M.A. 5-317
Kuznetsova, T.S. 10-1706
Kveseth, K. 4-233
Kwa, T.L. 10-1468
Kwak, K.H. 10-1118
Kwan, T. 4-142
Kwart, H. 2-65, 6-42, 6-58, 6-63, 8-191, 10-46, 10-59, 10-2022, 12-134, 14-54, 15-415, 15-1036, 15-1242, 16-842, 16-843, 16-846, 17-14, 17-31, 17-62, 17-70, 17-72, 17-413, 18-577, 18-578, **18-611**, 18-615, 19-119
Kwart. L.D. 14-54, 15-1030
Kwast, A. 16-717
Kwiatek, J. 15-283
Kwiatkowski, G.T. **10-114**, **15-1362**
Kwok, F.C. 2-334
Kwok, W.K. 17-54
Kwon, H.B. 10-1623
Kwon, K.M. 3-97
Kwon, O.O. 10-1430, 16-363
Kwon. P.-S. 16-664
Kwon, S.S. 10-1433
Kwon, T.-W. 16-664, 16-727
Kwong, H. 15-1009
Kwong, H.-L. **15-1011**, 15-1014
Kyba, E.B. 4-134
Kyba, E.P. 5-326, 18-244
Kyler, K.S. 10-1736, **14-464**, 19-679
Kyong, J.B. 10-46
Kyrtopoulos, S.A. 12-575
Kyung, S. 16-457, 16-459
Kyung, S.H. 16-405
Kyushin, S. 5-211

L'Abbé, G. 5-324
L'Ecuyer, P. 13-275
L'Hermine, G. 15-109
La Belle, B.E. 10-1357
La Londe, R.T. 14-489
La Rosa, C. 10-1085
La Torre, F. 16-61
La, B. 16-317
Laali, K. 8-19, 10-378, 11-336, 12-219, 18-35
Laan, J.A.M. 11-262, 19-39, 19-193
Laane, J. 4-287
Laarhoven, W.H. 4-62, 18-397, **18-431**, 18-434, 18-437
Laba, V.I. 15-48, 15-227
Labadie, J.W. 10-1948
Labadie, S.S. 10-1893, 10-2056, 16-590
Labande, A. 10-926
Labar, D. 18-116
Labaudiniere, R. 10-858
Labeish, N.N. 15-946
Labelle, M. 10-1039
Labertrande, J. 10-207
Labiad, B. **10-723**, **10-811**
Labinger, J.A. 15-485
Labo, A.M. **15-1126**
Laborde, E. **10-1571**, **15-1156**
Laboue, B. 10-1950
Laboureur, J.L. 18-116,18-200
Labrouillere, M. **10-1168**
Labunskaya, V.I. 15-1364, 18-420
Lacey, R.N. 10-630
Lachance, A. 12-517
Lacher, B. 14-504
Lachhein, S. 15-90, 15-829
Lachkar, A. 8-79
Lack, R.E. 15-122
Lacombe, S. 10-1162
LaCount, R.B. 16-745
Lacourt, A. 15-931
Ladenheim, H. **10-616**
Ladjama, D. 12-311

Laemmle, J. 16-409, 16-410, **16-411**, 16-412
Laemmle, J.T. 16-5
Lafferty, W.J. 1-52
Laffitte, J. 17-305
Laganis, E.D. 2-121, 10-573, 15-1085
Lago, J.M. 10-736
Lagow, R. 12-455
Lagow, R.J. **14-97**
Lagow, R.L. 5-136
Lagowski, J.M. 13-60, 19-442, 19-659
Lahav, M. 4-91,4-155
Lahousse, F. 15-1302, 15-1330, **17-314**, 19-475
Lahti, M. 10-513
Lahti, M.O. 10-515
Lai, C. 14-206
Lai, G. 18-574
Lai, Y. 2-99, **10-1628**, **12-451**, 12-466, **12-471**, 19-708, 19-730

Lai, Y.H. 2-232
Lai, Z. 6-84, 10-398
Laidig, K. 15-141
Laidig, K.E. 4-228,8-161,10-181
Laidlaw, G.M. 4-439
Laidler, D.A. 3-76
Laidler, K.J. 1-92, 6-5, 6-46
Laila, A.H. 12-38
Laine, R.M. 15-305, 19-149
Laing, M. 1-85
Laity, J.L. 2-77
Lajis, N. Hj. 16-398
LaJohn, L.A. 5-104
Lajunen, M. 10-158, 10-664
Lakminarayana, B. 19-639
Lakritz, J. 18-245
Lakshimaiah, G. 10-1467
Lakshmi, A.B. 15-1358
Lal, G.S. 12-335
Lal, J. 18-641
LaLancette, E.A. 2-212
Lalancette, J.M. 12-517
Lallemand, J.Y. 10-1781
Lalloz, L. 13-67
Laloi, M. 10-356
Laloi-Diard, M. 10-354
LaLonde, R.T. 4-212, 10-1090, **15**-132
Lalonde, J.J. 10-760
Lalonde, M. 10-827
Lam, B. 10-171
Lam, C. 10-236
Lam, C.H. 10-1402, 14-475
Lam, J.N. 12-278
Lam, L.K.M. 10-44, 10-278, 10-279
LaMaire, *S.I.* 15-487
Lamarque, L. **15**-1147
LaMattina, J.L. 19-608
Lamaty, G. 6-79, 10-69, 10-128, 10-516, 12-81, 16-84, **16**-281, **19**-117
Lamb, J.D. 3-80
Lamb, J.T. 10-119
Lambert, C. 8-96
Lambert, D.M. 19-796
Lambert, G.J. 14-457
Lambert, J.B. 1-86, 2-166, 2-308, 4-31, 4-286, **4**-288, **4**-289, **5**-25, **5**-52, **5**-278, **10**-114, **10**-117, 10-122, 10-127, 10-159, 10-278, 15-137, 15-1398, 15-1420, 18-500
Lambert, J.L. **5**-110
Lamberti, V. 10-726
Lambrechts, H.J.A. 8-29, 11-175
Lamidey, A.-M. 10-970
Lamm, B. 10-1702
Lammer, O. 17-353
Lammert, S.R. 10-1078
Lammertsma, K. **2**-351, 5-2, **11**-179
Lammiman, S.A. 16-99
Lamoreaux, M.J. 15-1073
Lamothe, S. 10-1708
Lamoureux, C. 19-614
Lampe, J. 16-588
Lampman, G.M. 4-369, 10-1482
Lämsä, M. 3-135
Lamson, D.W. 10-1525,19-766
Lamy-Pitara, E. 15-286
Lana, J.C.A. 10-1001
Lancelot, C.J. 10-44, 10-137, 10-138, 10-142, 10-144, 10-278, 10-279
Lancelot, L.A. **10**-133
Land, D.P. 19-15
Landau, R.L. 5-187, 10-1524, 12-493, 12-494
Landau, R.N. 15-303
Landell, R.G.M. 13-28, 13-29
Lander Jr., S.W. 15-1153
Landers, J.P. 14-86
Landesberg, J.M. 3-65
Landesman, H. 12-223, 12-226
Landgrebe, J.A. 10-311, 12-16
Landgrebe, K. **15**-1149
Landini, D. 10-302, 10-339, 10-437, 10-440, 10-1074, 10-1148, **10**-1182, 15-157, 17-320, 19-69, 19-683
Landino, J.P. 15-21
Landis, M.E. 15-1097, 15-1375
Landis, P.S. 17-123, 18-687, 18-691
Landmesser, N.G. 18-204
Landon, S.J. 16-750
Landor, P.D. **17**-328
Landor, S.R. 15-104, 15-1400, 19-632
Landré, P.D. **15**-651
Lane, A.G. 19-195
Lane, C.A. 10-594
Lane, C.F. 12-12, 12-354, 15-424, 15-464, **16**-168, **16**-182, **16**-303, **18**-359, **19**-503, **19**-510
Lane, J.F. 18-229
Lang, D. **15**-1211, **15**-1250
Lang, E.S. 19-681
Lang, F. 10-660
Lang, R.W. 12-98
Láng, K.L 10-363
Lang-Anderson, M.M.S. 15-626
Langa, F. 16-664, 18-271, 18-671
Lange, B.C. **5**-111, 5-162, 5-163, 10-333, 10-468, 12-296
Lange, G. 5-135
Lange, G.L. 19-225

Lange, H. **4**-421, **18**-516
Lange, U.E.W. 16-342
Langemann, A. 12-27
Langemann, K. 18-631
Langensee, P. **2**-211
Langer Jr., A.W. 12-266
Langer, F. 15-702
Langer, T. 16-326
Langer, V. 4-50
Langhals, E. **10**-1743, **15**-1164
Langhals, H. 10-1743
Langkopf, E. 18-478
Langlet, J. 15-1257
Langlois, B.R. 11-333
Langlois, D.P. 10-384
Langlois, N. 14-179
Langlois, Y. 14-179,15-1282
Langshaw, J. 14-65
Lankamp, H. 5-198
Lankin, D.C. 19-132
Lanneau, G.F. **10**-1419, **10**-1423
Lansbury, P.T. 5-328, 16-274, 18-272, 18-341, 18-344
Lansinger, J.M. 16-238
Lanter, J.C. 18-111
Lanz, K. **2**-129
Lapachev, V.V. 2-349
Lapenue, M. 10-1869
Lapeva, T. 18-636
Lapidus, A.L. 15-767, 16-521
Lapin, Yu.A. 15-1102
Laporterie, A. 15-541, 16-635
Lapouyade, R. 10-1869
Lappert, M.F. 16-857, 18-651
Lapworth, A. 16-818,16-856
Laramay, S. 10-315
Larchar, A.W. 16-130
Larcheveque, M. 12-554, 14-178, 10-1675, 10-2040, 15-333, 15-707, 17-376, 18-573
Lardelli, G. 10-726
Lardicci, L. 10-1440, 10-1958, 15-255, 17-325, 17-326
Large, R 14-306
Larhead, M. 14-349
Larkin, D.R. 14-214
Larkworthy, L.F. 12-566
Laroche, P. 18-428
LaRochelle, R. 18-591
Larock, R.C. 10-568, 10-634, 10-675, 10-710, 10-718, 10-724, **10**-751, 10-769, 10-809, 10-775, 10-1012, 10-1033, 10-1054, **10**-1124, **10**-1140, **10**-1143, 10-1238, 10-1241, 10-1248, 10-1257, 10-1293, 10-1304, 10-1334, 10-1345, 10-1347, 10-1419, 10-1442, 10-1469, 10-1484, 10-1497, 10-1498, 10-1510, 10-1542, 10-1592, 10-1653, 10-1681, 10-1694, 10-1705, 10-1707, 10-1736, 10-1737, 10-1739, 10-1746, 10-1754, 10-1763, 10-1783, 10-1787, 10-1819, 10-1901, 10-1914, 10-1936, 10-1944, 10-1967, 10-1985, 11-190, 11-285, 11-289, 11-299, 11-313, 11-391, 11-405, 11-475, 12-55, 12-93, 12-138, 12-189, 12-300, 12-308, 12-344, 12-351, 12-352, 12-393, 12-396, 12-407, 12-408, 12-432, 12-516, 12-551, 13-138, 13-148, 13-157, 13-223, 14-92, 14-208, 14-221, 14-258, 14-261, 14-343, 14-344, 14-352, 14-356, 14-366, 14-367, 14-407, 14-443, 14-460, **14**-461, 14-463, 14-468, 14-474, 14-499, 15-150, 15-164, 15-167, 15-185, 15-206, 15-207, 15-209, 15-218, 15-223, 15-260, **15**-265,**15**-270, **15**-291, **15**-311, **15**-351, **15**-367, 15-372, 15-428, 15-569, 15-600, 15-641, 15-655, 15-657, 15-668, 15-678, 15-722, 15-735, 15-737, 15-763, 15-865, 15-902, 15-914, 15-926, 15-934, 15-966, 15-984, 15-1031, 15-1106, 15-1171,15-1295, 15-1379, 15-1387, 15-1388, 15-1458, 15-1459, 16-58, 16-60, 16-80, 16-167, 16-233, 16-252, 16-279, 16-315, 16-352, 16-360, 16-369, 16-385, 16-428, 16-433, 16-536, 16-616, 16-622, 16-658, 16-684, 16-722, 16-735, 16-740, 16-827, 16-849, 16-887, 16-918, 17-150, 17-169, 17-188, 17-239, 17-244, 17-254, 17-267, 17-285, 17-321, 17-336, 17-362, 17-391, 17-394, 18-120, 18-127, 18-181, 18-293, 18-375, 18-496, 18-594, 19-21, 19-28, 19-37, 19-50, 19-73, 19-165, 19-168, 19-225, 19-279, 19-292, 19-351, 19-364, 19-376, 19-378, 19-385, 19-388, 19-434, 19-524, 19-545, 19-554, 19-577, 19-582, 19-600, 19-624, 19-635, 19-666, 19-702, 19-731, 19-747, 19-779
Larouche, D. 15-631
Larrahondo, J. 17-412
Larsen, D.S. 15-72, 15-942
Larsen, D.T. 17-92
Larsen, D.W. 15-56
Larsen, J. 19-148
Larsen, J.W. 5-81, 10-70, 10-428, 11-105
Larsen, S. 14-176
Larson, C.A. 10-964
Larson, E.G. 5-278
Larson, G.L. 6-15,10-1766
Larson, H.O. 10-1094, 14-288, 19-415
Larson, J.K. 10-1701, 10-2007
Larson, J.W. 8-127

Larson, K.D. 19-144
Larson, S. 11-229
Larsson, E.M. 14-262
LaRue, M. 17-280
Lashley, L.K. 14-446
Laskovics, F.M. **16-17**
Lasne, M. 2-343,15-1242
Lasne, M.C. 16-139
Lasperas, M. 16-413
Lassaletta, J.-M. 19-159
Lassau, C. 12-603
Last, L.A. 18-425
Lastomirsky, R.R. 18-300
Laszlo, P. 1-33, 6-68, 8-127, 10-1027, 11-123, 11-124, 11-259,15-1056, 18-151
Lathan, W.A. 1-52
Latif, N. 17-297
Latimore, M.C. 6-63
Latouche, R. 16-194
Latourette, H.K. 11-300
Lattes, A. 10-1096, 15-236, 15-250
Latxague, L. 13-64
Latypov, S.K. 4-97, 4-99
Latypov, Sh.K. 4-98
Latypova, F.M. 10-1589
Lau, C.D.H. 4-340, 4-342, 4-353
Lau, C.J. 4-156
Lau, J.C. 16-685
Lau, K.S.Y. 17-265
Lau, P.W.K. 16-671
Lau, T.-C. 19-306
Lau, W. 12-306
Lau, Y.K. 8-180,8-181
Laube, T. 2-307, 5-7, 5-73, **5-165**, **10-113**, 10-167, 16-6
Laue, P. 12-349
Lauentstein, O. **14-111**
Lauer, R.F. 12-197, 17-236, 17-239
Lauer, W. 12-510
Lauer, W.M. 18-546
Laufer, A.H. 5-274
Laugal, J.A. 15-416
Laughlin, R.G. 5-303
Laughton, P.M. 6-86
Launay, J. **4-111**
Lauransan, J. 3-12
Laureillard, J. 10-68
Laurence, C. **1-51**, **3-12**, **8-79**, 8-80, **8-81**, 8-82, 8-83, 8-84, 9-16, 10-414
Laurent, A. 10-1162, 12-176, 12-374, **15-113**, 15-878, 16-550, 18-33, 18-270, 19-632
Laurent, E. 12-104
Laurent, P. 10-1890
Laurent-Robert, H. 16-635
Laurenzo, K.S. 13-248
Laurie, V.W. 1-38, 1-52, 4-396, 8-191
Lautens, M. **10-1339**, **10-1730**, **15-610**, **15-1496**, 17-184
Lauterbach, H. 15-13
Lavallée, P. 10-1164
Lavanish, J.M. 4-369
Lavenot, L. 10-1569
Lavieri, F.P. 18-673
Lavigne, A. 19-142
LaVilla, J.A. 5-311
Lavrik, P.B. 15-1056
Lavrov, V.I. 10-688, **15-199**
Law, F.C.P. 18-73
Lawesson, S. 10-944, 10-1018, 12-333, 16-114, **16-115**, 16-116,16-118, 16-700, 18-577
Lawesson, S.-O. **16-118**
Lawler, R.G. 5-187, 5-188, 5-190, 5-191, 10-1524, 10-1528, 10-1530, 12-473, 12-493, 12-494, 12-494
Lawlor, J.M. 15-283
Lawrence, J.P. 18-621
Lawrence, K.E. 12-479
Lawrence, L.M. 12-475
Lawrence, N.J. 10-1643, 16-789
Lawrence, R.M. 4-163
Lawrie, C.J. 15-1466
Lawrie, C.W. 10-609
Lawrynowicz, W. 15-1392
Laws, A.P. **11-106**
Lawson, A.J. 11-143
Lawson, D.D. 2-108
Lawson, J. 2-243
Lawson, R.C. 5-182
Lawton, B.T. 18-699
Lawton, R.G. 2-297, 10-106
Laxman, E. 10-1002
Laxman, N. 10-1002
Laxmi, Y.R.S. 10-1349
Laye, P.G. 4-198
Laynez, J. 8-107,8-113
Layton, R.B. 15-692, 15-693
Lazareva, M.I. 14-123, 19-303
Lazaridis, N.V. 12-103
Lazaris, A.Ya. 16-70
Lazarus, M. 19-312
Lazdins, I. 10-47
Lazny, R. 16-600
Lazzaroni, R. 15-787
Iborz, M. 10-609
Le Berre, A. 15-244
Le Bigot, Y 16-771

Le Borgne, J.F. 17-376
Le Bris, A. **16-**166
Le Carpentier, J. 5-56, 5-65, 11-293, **11-**311
Le Corre, M. 19-557, 19-592
Le Deit, H. 19-592
Le Drian, C. 18-37
Le Fave, G.M. 10-490
Le Fevre, R.J.W. 3-74, 4-230
Le Gall, T. 16-894
Le Gras, J. 15-1429
Le Guen, J. 11-45
Le Hénaff, P. 16-13
Le Maistre, J.W. 17-372
Le Marrec, N. 16-539
Le Merrer, Y. 16-612
Le Ny, G. 10-188
Le Perchec, P. 15-539
Le Questel, J.-Y. 8-79
le Noble, W.J. 5-84, 6-50, 10-48, 10-66, 10-158, 10-460, 10-472, 10-474, 10-495, 10-1284, 15-117, 15-1227, 16-6, 16-319, 17-65
Le, N.A. 15-1398
Le, V.T. 10-533
Leach, D.R. 14-468
Leader. H. 10-2045, 15-339
Leahy, J.W. 16-481,16-482,16-485
Leake, W.W. 13-186
Leal, J.M. 8-101
Leanna, M.R. 19-80
Leardini, R. 18-70
Learn, K. 10-1336,10-1371,19-560
Learn, K.S. 16-382
Lease, M.F. 15-344
Leathers, T. 19-388
Leavell, K.H. 18-488
Leaver. D. 2-265
Lebedev, B.L. 15-492
Lebedev, S.A. 15-739
LeBel, N.A. 10-114, 15-53, 15-124, 16-559, 16-834, 17-3, 17-199, 17-208
Lebel, H. 15-1440
Leber, W. 18-526
LeBlanc, B.F. 17-361
Leblanc, J.C. 10-1419
Leblanc, Y **10-**1164, 15-262, 16-773
LeBlond, C. 15-303
Lebrilla, C.B. 15-319
Lecadet, D. 16-902
Lecce, L. 15-123
Lecea, B. **15-**1161, **16-**503
Lechevallier, A. 10-519
Lechtken, P. 7-33, 18-415
Lécolier, S. 16-206
Lecomte, L. 15-288
Leconte, M. 18-621,18-639
Lectka, T. 3-50, 3-51, 12-48, 15-1209, 19-729
Ledaal, T. 17-441
Lededev, B.A. 12-583
Lederer, M. 15-932
Ledlie, D.B. 15-665, 18-52
Lednicer, D. **4-**61, 16-44
Ledon, H. 12-168
Ledon, H.J. 15-1056
Ledoux, M.J. 15-323
Ledwith, A. 5-260, 5-306, 15-1343, 15-1361, 17-414
Lee, A.S-Y 10-527
Lee, A.W.M. 17-185
Lee, B. 17-442
Lee, B.-S. 10-18, 10-40
Lee, B.C. 10-307
Lee, C. 12-286
Lee, C. 19-67
Lee, C.-S. 19-291
Lee, C.C. 2-114, 10-136, 10-190, 10-190, 11-283, 15-135, 18-2, 18-22, 18-23, 18-24, 18-26
Lee, C.S. 10-1741,14-44
Lee, D. 15-4, 18-566
Lee, D.-H. 15-1202
Lee, D.C. 15-528
Lee, D.F. 10-861
Lee, D.G. 8-27, 8-36, 14-154, 14-207, 15-1000, **19-**10, **19-**30, **19-**51, **19-**54, **19-**67, **19-**68, **19-**74, **19-**119, 19-120, 19-226, 19-229, 19-236, 19-242, 19-250, 19-257, 19-339, 19-377, 19-400, 19-435, 19-461, 19-486
Lee, E. 15-758
Lee, E.J. 19-435
Lee, E.K.C. 7-36
Lee, F.L. 4-433
Lee, G. 4-422
Lee, G.A. 19-367
Lee, G.H. 17-446
Lee, G.K. 19-425
Lee, G.M. 15-971
Lee, H. 8-133,15-804,19-288
Lee, H.-C. 16-600, 16-601
Lee, H.-W. 10-943
Lee, H.D. 18-378
Lee, H.J. 10-1256
Lee, H.K. 17-446
Lee, H.S. 16-363
Lee, H.W. 9-21, 10-40, 10-57, 10-301, 10-2031
Lee, I. 6-24, 9-21, 10-18, 10-36, 10-40, 10-57, 10-301, 10-307, 10-561, 10-2031

Lee, I.H. 6-27
Lee, I.S. 16-349, 16-496
Lee, J. **2**-347, **10**-483, **10**-1164, **10**-1311, 18-208
Lee, J.B. 10-1239, 10-1262, 18-294, 18-308, 18-650
Lee, J.C. 10-635, 10-747, 10-748, 14-160, 16-363, 19-314
Lee, J.G. **10**-1118, 14-425, 17-15, 19-25, 19-401
Lee, J.I. 10-747, 10-1969
Lee, J.K. 3-1,16-67
Lee, J.R. 16-326
Lee, J.W. 16-470
Lee, K.C. 15-1076, 19-609
Lee, K.W. 10-1428, 18-699, 18-701
Lee, L. 15-68
Lee, L.C. 15-899
Lee, L.F. 16-371
Lee, L.Y. 19-249
Lee, M.K.T. 3-41
Lee, M.W. 6-58
Lee, N.E. 15-297
Lee, N.H. 15-1069, 19-90, 19-291, 19-609
Lee, P.G. 15-1434
Lee, P.H. 18-208
Lee, R.E. **5**-110
Lee, S. 10-1503
Lee, S.-g. 15-1076
Lee, S.-Y. 15-181
Lee, S.B. 13-106
Lee, S.E. 16-363
Lee, S.J. 15-589
Lee, S.K. 18-587
Lee, S.L. 19-575
Lee, S.P. **10**-1022
Lee, S.W. 14-367, **16**-119, 16-318
Lee, S.Y. **2**-335, **17**-316
Lee, T.J. 2-52
Lee, T.S. 19-58
Lee, TV. 16-314
Lee, T.W.S. 8-49, 10-2034
Lee, W. **10**-1810, **15**-1418, 16-625, 19-180
Lcc, W.-M. 10-643
Lee, W.G 5-119,17-54
Lee, W.K. 10-1504,12-496
Lee, W.Y. **3**-112
Lee, Y. 15-1473,19-645
Lee, Y.B. 16-67
Lee, Y.S. 10-40
Lee, Y.T. 12-51
Lee, Y.Y. 16-67
Lee-Ruff, E. 8-77, 10-293, 10-298, 17-429
Leeds, J.P. 19-626
Leeming, S.W. 13-156
Leenson, LA. 15-162
Leermakers, PA. 5-273, 17-445
Lees, W.A. 3-32
Lefebvre, C. 10-390
Lefebvre, D. 8-159
Lefebvre, F. 18-639
Lefebvre, G. 16-166
Lefeuvre, M. 10-807
Lefeuvre, S. 15-1221
Leffek, K.T. 6-69, 6-73, 6-85, 8-89, 10-1230, 13-185, 17-44, 17-50
Leffingwell, J.C. 14-306, 19-22
Leffler, J.E. 6-42
Lefour, J. 2-6, 2-37
Lefranąois, J.-M. 10-661
Legan, E. 10-357, 10-2038
Legault, R. 18-124
Leggett, T.L. 5-290, 15-57
Leginus, J.M. **15**-1153
LeGoff, E. 2-143,15-1432
Legon, A.C. **3**-21, 3-30, 4-308, **4**-311
Legrand, M. 4-222
Legros, J. 10-1649
Lchd, M. 15-1251
Lehmann, C.W. 10-1448
Lehmkuhl, H. **5**-146, **15**-618
Lehn, J. 4-202
Lehn, J.M. 3-76, 3-91, 3-93, 3-94, **3**-0118, 4-31, 4-34, 4-134, **4**-201, 4-203, 5-105, 18-656
Lehner, H. **16**-19
Lehnert, E.K. 15-1450
Lehnert, W. 16-661, 19-276
Lehnig, M. 5-212
Lehr, R.E. **15**-1256, **15**-1261
Lei, X. 10-1564
Leibfritz, D. **14**-418
Leigh, G.J. 18-621
Leigh, S.J. 4-134
Leigh, W.J. 7-46, 18-400, 18-405
Leimer, K.E. 17-90
Lein, G.M. 3-107
Leinhard, G.E. 10-222
Leipert, T.K. 15-622
Leis, J.R. 11-125, 12-162, 12-573
Leiserowitz, L. **4**-91, **4**-155
Leisten, J.A. 10-501,10-632
Leister, M.C. 4-319
Leitch, L.C. 11-110
Leite, S.L.S. 19-490
Leitereg, T.J. **4**-112
Leitich, J. **4**-177
Leitner, W. **10**-1732

Lekhok, K.C. 16-665
LeLagadec, R. **10**-1495
Leleu, G. 19-380
Lem, G. **15**-1346
LeMahieu, R. 19-535
LeMaire, M. **10**-648, **10**-1071, **10**-1109, 10-1569
LeMaire, S.J. 15-813
Lemaire, J. 14-214
Lemaire, M. 11-205, 12-217
Lemaire-Audoire, S. 14-368, 19-689
Lemal, D.M. 2-121, 4-369, 15-1085, 15-1373, 17-307, 18-413
Lemay, G. 16-403, 16-549
LeMénez, P. 10-1656
Lemenovskii, D.A. **2**-131
Lemière, G.L. 4-15
Lemieux, R.U. 4-298, 4-301, 15-995, 19-228, 19-233
Lemin, A.J. 19-55
Lemini, C. 18-197
Lemor. A. 10-1109
Lemoult, S.C. 18-296
Lempert, K. 10-735
Lengel, R.K. 5-272
Lengyel, I. 10-1087, 11-200
Lenmartz, H.-W. 5-242
Lennartz, H. 10-155, **15**-1340, 18-489
Lennox, D.M. 18-495
Lenoir. D. **1**-43, **10**-157, **10**-158, **10**-161, **15**-887, 19-730, 19-733
Lentz, CM. 10-1564, 15-679
LeNy, G. **10**-115
Lenz, F. 15-86
Lenz, G. 15-1343,16-911
Lenz, G.R. 15-1346
Lenz, P.A. 10-509,10-513
Lenz, R. 19-78
Leo, A. 9-20,9-63,19-120
Leonard, J.E. 4-194, 10-333
Leonard, N.J. 4-389, 16-161, 19-29, 19-449
Leonarduzzi, G.D. 15-175
Leone, R.E. 18-9
Leone-Bay, A. 10-1313,13-142
Leonel, E. **10**-1172, **15**-597, **15**-1390
Leong, A.Y.W, 10-1765
Leonov, A.A. 16-750
Leonova, E.V. 2-131
Leonova, T.V. 10-1056
Leopold, A. 12-561
Leopold, D.G. 5-272
LePage, T.J. 2-37 , 05-232
Lepeska, B. 15-30, 15-478
Lepley, A.R. **5**-187, **5**-188, **10**-1524, **10**-1804, 12-493, 12-494, 13-122, 13-276, 18-312, 18-319, 18-320
LePoire, D.M. 10-829
LeQuestel, J.-Y. 8-81
Leray, E. 5-227
Leriverend, P. 18-458
Lerman, O. 11-214, 11-237, 12-100, 15-935
Lerner, L.R. 19-392
Leroi, G.E. 4-226, 13-37
LeRoux, C. 10-1168,16-635
Leroux, Y. 16-386
Leroy, F. 10-968
Lesage, M. 10-1258
Lesar, A. 11-73
Leseul, J. 10-1049
Lesheski, L. 10-1647
Lesheski, L.E. 10-1571
Leshina, T.V. 10-1524
Lesieur, D. 19-796
Lesko, P.M. 4-426
Lessard, J. 15-946
Lester Jr., W.A. 7-15,7-35
LeTadic-Biadatti, M.-H. 5-255
Letendre, L.J. 10-1684
Lethbridge, A. 19-394
Letort, M. 14-214
LeTourneau, M.E. 12-155
Letsinger, R.L. 17-168, 9-613, 19-717, 13-162
Leuck, D.J. 16-168,16-182
Leung, C. 1-42
Leung, C.W. 16-461
Leung, K.P. 16-833
Leung, M.-k. 4-71
Leung, T. 4-355
Leung, W. 14-352
Leuschner, G. 14-305
Leusink, A.J. 18-273
Leusink, J. 3-59
Leussing, D.L. 16-79
Levanda, O.G. 19-391
Levart, M. **15**-1056
Levchenko, T.S. 10-1715
Levek, T.J. 15-1327
Levene, R. **10**-1544, **15**-165
Lever Jr., O.W. 10-1763, 12-282, 15-749, 16-678
Leveson, L.L. 10-499
Levi, G.I. 1-92
Levi, N. 7-42
Levin, C. 10-151
Levin, C.C. 4-66
Levin, J.I. **10**-1040, 14-378, 15-1272

Levin, P.P. 5-254
Levin, R.D. **8-**181
Levin, R.H. 13-32
Levina, A. 19-325
Levina, I.S. 15-1346
Levina, I.Yu. 18-35, 18-46
Levina, R.Ya. 18-503
Levine. R. 12-537,13-186
Levine, R.A. 4-319
Levine, S.G. 16-339
Levinson , M.I. **16-**115
Levisalles, J. 12-72, 15-665, 18-650
Levisky, J.A. 11-166
Levit, A.F. **14-**331, **14-**415, **19-**412
Levitin, I. 10-1253
Levitin, I.Ya. 12-12
Levitina, E.S. 4-111
Levitt, B.W. 13-247
Levitt, L.S. 1-46, 9-5, 13-247
Levitt, T.E. 10-1023,19-548
Levitz, M. 10-12
Levkovskaya, G.G. 15-944
Levy, A.B. 10-1851, 0365, 12-385, 15-19, 15-965, 18-359, 18-365
Levy, A.J. 15-43, 15-44
Levy, G.C. 8-23
Levy. H. 18-493
Levy, J.F. 10-54
Levy. M. 15-895
Lew, G. 18-379
Lewarchik, R.J. **14-**431
Lewars, E.G. 15-1084
Lewars, Y. 18-188
Lewellyn, M.E. 17-280
Lewin. A,H. 10-784, 11-337, 13-218
Lewis, D.C. 14-29, 18-77
Lewis, D.E. 6-62
Lewis, D.F.V. 2-17
Lewis, E.J. 15-1435
Lewis, E.S. 6-25, 6-58, **6-**61, 8-123, 8-139, 9-16, 9-35, 10-74, 10-88, 10-191, 10-192, 10-207, 10-301, 13-24, 13-28, 14-29, 14-414, 18-488
Lewis, F.D. 15-1343, 15-1353, 18-227, 18-243
Lewis, G.N. 10-2
Lewis, H.B. 14-390
Lewis, H.L. 5-133
Lewis, I.C. 9-50, 9-52, 9-54
Lewis, J.D. 10-1348
Lewis, J.W. 10-1383
Lewis, M.D. 15-1034
Lewis, N.G. 10-2044
Lewis, N.J. 12-325
Lewis, R.G. 10-268, 18-89
Lewis, R.J. 11-126
Lewis, R.S. 7-36
Lewis, S.N. 18-73, 18-294
Lewis, T.A. 15-577
Lewis, T.B. 10-1426
Lex, J. 2-233, 2-235, 2-243, 2-273, 2-277
Ley, S.V. **2-**212, **10-**454, **10-**534, **10-**581, **10-**647, 12-131, 12-196, 15-1030, 16-687, 19-10, 19-40, 19-78, 19-133
Leybach, H. 10-1087
Leydet, A. 18-180
Leyrer, U. 4-35
Leyva, E. 5-327
Leznoff, C.C. 10-1032
Lhermitte, F. 19-390
Lhoste, P. 10-869
Li, A.-H. 16-773
Li, C. 3-36, 10-10
Li, C.-J. 3-3, 3-4, 10-1705, 16-367, 16-450, 19-712
Li, C.S. 13-147
Li, D.-P. 10-930
Li, G. 12-376
Li, G.S. 19-559, 19-588
Li, H.-Z. 10-521
Li, J. 14-362, 19-379
Li, J.-T. 10-521
Li, J.C. 4-396
Li, J.D. 12-280
Li, J.P. 17-123
Li, K. 16-273
Li, L. **10-**1435
Li, N.-S. 15-470
Li, P. 16-741
Li, P.T. 12-468
Li, R. **7-**21
Li, S. 10-517, 10-808, 10-1805, 16-505
Li, S.-H. 10-521
Li, S.J. 10-1505
Li, T. 15-304, 16-28, 18-560
Li, T.-S. **10-**521, 10-529, 10-532
Li, X. 5-214, 10-1161, **11-**113, 15-153, 15-959
Li, X.-R. 16-451
Li, Y. 1-42, 12-285, 15-1244, **15-**1253, 16-28, 16-595
Li, Y.-Q. 16-442
Li, Z. 4-332
Li, Z.-Y. 16-314
Liang, C.D. 4-138
Liang, G. **2-**137, **5-**47, 5-73, **5-**79, **10-**32, **10-**100, 10-148, 10-161, 10-171, 10-168, 11-15
Liang, K.S.Y. 14-385
Liang, P.H. 19-281

Liang, Y. 12-384
Liao, H.-Y. 15-223
Liao, Q. 16-515
Liao, W. 16-290
Liao, Y 16-75
Lias, S.G. 8-181
Libbey, W.J. 18-39
Liberatore, F. 16-176
Liberek, B. 10-1217
Liberles, A. 1-1
Libertini, E. 19-734
Libman, J. 16-875
Lichtenthaler, F.W. 19-388
Lichtin, N.N. 10-326
Licini, G. 19-456
Lick, C. 10-821
Lide Jr., D.R. **1**-37, **1**-60, **1**-75, **1**-83, **1**-84, **4**-226
Lidert, Z. 2-220
Liebe, J. 2-54
Liebeskind, L.S. 14-372
Liebman, J.F. 1-79, 2-41, **2**-118, 2-164, 2-292, **4**-337, **4**-344, **4**-357, **4**-393, 5-267, **8**-181, **18**-98, 18-530
Liebscher, J. 15-587
Lieder, C.A. 10-9
Liedhegener, A. 10-2049
Liedholm, B. 13-145
Lien, A.P. 11-452
Lienard, P. 16-601
Lienert, J. 17-407
Lienhard, G. 10-547
Lienhard, G.E. 12-85
Liesemer, R.N. 16-834
Liesen, P.J. 19-771
Liesenfelt, H. 15-332
Lieske, C.N. 16-831
Lifson, S. **4**-145
Liggero, S.H. 18-104
Light, J. **10**-1267
Lightner, D.A. 4-77, 17-297
Likhomanova, T.I. 15-874
Likhotvovik, I.R. 5-297
Lilburn, J. 13-97
Liler 8-105
Liler, M. **8**-10, **8**-24, 8-99, **8**-137, **15**-170
Liljefors, T. 4-271,4-436
Lilla, G. 17-93
Lillford, P.J. 15-224, 15-248
Lillocci, C. 10-365
Lim, C. 10-914
Lim, E.C. 7-21
Lim, G. 17-72
Lim, H.J. 19-706
Lim, K.-H. **10**-1862
Lim, L.N. 18-392
Lim, S. 15-629
Lim, S.C. 12-149
Lim, W.Y. 15-134
Lim, YY 16-937
Lima, C.F. 12-535
Lin'kova, M.G. 15-939
Lin, C. 10-1854
Lin, C.-C. 19-703
Lin, C.Y 2-173
Lin, D.K. **14**-218
Lin, G.-Q. 16-314
Lin, H. 4-77, 10-1708, 16-382
Lin, H.C. 10-639, 11-26, 11-87, 11-131, 11-312, 14-290
Lin, I.J.B. 15-770
Lin, J. 15-486
Lin, J.-M. 12-314
Lin, J.J. 15-389
Lin, L.K. 15-288
Lin, L.W. 7-44
Lin, M. 15-1233, 16-6
Lin, S. 10-1435, 11-503, 19-565
Lin, S.-W. 19-187
Lin, S.H. 7-19
Lin, Y 10-169,15-1245
Lin, Y.-S. 10-424
Linck, C.F. 19-64
Lincoln, D.N. 5-44
Linda, P. 2-346, **11**-323
Lindbeck, A.C. 12-437
Linden, S. 12-57
Linder, L. 18-444
Linder, S.M. 12-525
Linderman, R.J. 15-657
Lindert, A. 10-1741, 12-141, 19-476
Lindlar, H. 15-304, 15-305
Lindley, J. 10-454
Lindley, J. 13-93
Lindner, E. 5-53, 18-649
Lindner, H.J. 2-139, 2-141, 2-145, 2-184, 5-127
Lindow, D.F. 15-408
Lindsay Smith, J.R. 4-443, 11-206, **14**-114, 14-206, 15-1199
Lindsay, C.M. 12-276
Lindsay, D.A. 18-78
Lindsay, D.G. 12-243
Lindsay, L.M. 10-1918
Lindsey Jr., R.V. 14-490, **15**-519, 15-1363
Lindsey, A.S. 11-347
Lindsley, C. 15-356
Lindsley, C.W. 12-309
Lindstrom, M.J. 14-144
Lindy, L.B. 10-1779

Lineberger, W.C. **5-116**, 5-272
Linevsky, M.J. 1-89
Ling, R. 10-804
Link, J.O. 16-323
Linke, S. 18-242
Linker, T. 15-1069
Linn, W.J. 15-1175
Linnett, J.W. 2-2
Linquist, A. 13-177
Linsay, E.C. 10-196
Linss, J. 4-36
Linstead, R.P. 16-200, 19-20
Linstrumelle, G. 10-1500, 10-1508, 10-1510, 10-1613, 10-1669, 12-563
Lintanf, V. 12-235
Lion, C. 10-188, 10-580, 10-1562, 10-1564, 10-1747, 10-1838, 10-1959, 10-2013, 12-204, 14-504
Lions, F. 15-591
Liotta, C. 1-42, 3-77, 10-205, 10-326, 10-437, 10-437, 10-438, 10-445, 10-446, 10-650, 10-776, 10-1131, 10-1744, 10-1866, 15-1391, **16-717**, 16-722
Liotta, C.L. 10-230, 10-1772
Liotta, D. 10-843, 10-868, 10-879, 12-194, 16-416, **16-597**, **17-236**
Liotta, D.C. 9pt2-6
Liotta, R. 19-244
Lipinski, C.A. 10-1612
Lipkowitz, K.B. 4-326, 4-329, 8-146
Lipnick, R.L. 4-312,4-313
Lipp, H.I. 10-917
Lippard, S.J. 15-1066
Lipshutz, B.H. **10-526**, 10-1539, 10-1540, 10-1542, 10-1543, 10-1552, 10-1553, 10-1560, 10-1567, 10-1572 , 10-1619, **10-1673**, **10-1786**, 10-1936, 12-309, 12-433, 12-442, 14-177, 14-469, 15-356, 15-487, 15-658, 15-662, 15-666, 15-667, 15-669, 15-744, 15-1092, 19-270
Lipsky, S. 7-20
Lipsky, S.D. 16-425
Lipton, M. 10-1040
Lipton, M.F. 17-221
Liras, S. **10-315**, **15-1195**
Liss, T. 3-10
Lisle, J.B. 1-52
Liso, G. 16-176
Lissel, M. 10-439, 10-789, 10-1767, 10-1795, 19-180
Lissi, E.A. 7-39
Listemann, M.L. 18-645
Lister, M.A. 16-592
Lister-James, J. 14-100, 14-101, 15-882
Liston, T.V. 12-288
Littell, R. 19-32
Litterer, W.E. 15-721
Little, D.A. **2-211**
Little, E.L. 15-237
Little, J. 12-578
Little, R.D. 10-1543, 15-1288, 18-666
Little, W.T. 16-703
Littler, J.S. 9pt2-5, 11-403, 11-411, 19-5, 19-123, 19-126, 19-127
Litvinenko, L.M. 10-217, 10-2050, 13-73
Litvinenko, M. 10-2042
Litvinov, V.P. 15-1456
Liu , M.T.H. 5-299
Liu, B. 10-165, 10-166, 10-181, 15-138
Liu, B.-S. 12-314
Liu, C.Z. 2-298
Liu, G.-B. 10-489
Liu, H-J. 16-645
Liu, H. 4-222, 10-1022, 10-1070, 11-264, 15-843, 15-940, 18-479
Liu, H.J. 18-205
Liu, J. 10-725, 15-1039, 17-354
Liu, J.-M. 10-930
Liu, J.S. 5-43, 5-44, 5-45
Liu, K. 6-76, 10-159, 10-291, 10-421, 15-113, 15-114, 15-115,17-15, 18-674
Liu, K.-T. 10-271,10-424,10-274
Liu, L. **18-433**, **19-112**
Liu, L.F. 3-152
Liu, L.H. 4-403
Liu, L.K. 10-2035, 17-259
Liu, M. **4-290**
Liu, M.M. 15-1365
Liu, M.T.H. 5-248, 5-299, 5-310, 5-311, 12-242, 15-1251, 18-83
Liu, P. 15-759, 15-992, 16-807
Liu, P.C. 8-115
Liu, Q. 14-315, **19-377**
Liu, Q.Y. 5-161
Liu, R.S.H. **15-1190**, 15-1347, 15-1357
Liu, S. 11-275,11-276,19-181
Liu, T. 14-527
Liu, W. 18-84
Liu, W.-Z. 1-99
Liu, Y. 13-185,15-1407,19-103
Liu, Z. **10-1164**
Livant, P. 12-473
Livett, M.K. 2-340
Livinghouse, T. 10-1675, 15-1476, **16-811**, 18-636
Livingstone, D. 3-54
Ljunggren, S.O. 19-391
Llebaria, A. 15-634, 18-635

Llera, J.-M. 19-159
Llewellyn, G. 10-366, 10-389, 10-414, 10-419, 10-701
Llewellyn, J.A. 6-69, 6-85
Lloyd. D. 2-70, 2-72, 2-106
Lloyd, D.J. 17-70, **17-75**, 17-96
Lloyd, G.J. 10-609
Lloyd, J.R. 5-18
Lloyd, R.V. 14-24
Lloyd, W.G. 14-1, 14-228
Lloyd-Jones, G.C. 15-475, 16-450
Lo, D.H. 2-18
Lo, H.-C. 16-600
Loader, C.E. 11-64
Loan, L.D. 19-207
Lobo, A.M. 4-90, 10-229
Locati, L. 15-1059
Lock, CJ.L. 5-45
Locke. A.W. 16-56
Lockley, W.J.S. 11-109
Lodder, G. 18-669
Loening, K. 4-87
Loening, K.L. 5-6, 6-46
Loeppky, R.N. 10-302, 12-578
Loeschorn, C.A. 18-203
Loftfield, R.B. 18-166
Logan, T.J. 12-274,18-216
Logue, M.W. 10-1994
Loh, T.-P. 15-582, 15-602, **15-1209**, 15-1233, 16-193, 16-451, 16-626
Lohmer, G. 14-357
Lohmer, R. 14-357
Lohray, B.B. 4-161, **10-1108**, 15-985, 15-995, 15-1008,15-1012
Lohri, B. 4-114
Loim, L.M. 16-93
Loim, N.M. 15-337,9-531,19-532
Loken, H.Y. 12-494
Lokensgard, J.P. 15-1373
Lokshin, B.V. 2-211
Loktev, A.S. 15-392
Loktev, V.F. 18-213
Lomas, D. 15-1297
Lomas, J.S. 5-233, 12-524, 12-529, 16-400, 17-152
Lombardo, D.A. 12-77
Lombardo, L. 16-389
Lommes, P. **5-211**
Lomölder, R. 17-432
Loncar, M. 11-141
Loncharich, R.J. 15-546, **15-1251**, 16-770, 18-456
Long, D.A. 11-370, 11-104
Long, F.A. 3-52, 10-600, 11-467, 12-84
Long, M.A. 11-110,11-111,11-112
Long, Q. 16-156
Long, R.A.J. 14-20, 14-384
Longas, M.O. 10-189
Longford, D. **10-1623**
Longmire, J.M. 19-36
Longone, D.T. 12-334
Longoria, M.A. 15-1408
Longuet-Higgins, H.C. 2-261, 18-401
Lonsdale, K. 1-55
Loo, D. 12-378
Look, G.C. 16-76
Loomis, G.L. 16-741
Loop, C.K. 12-276
Loosen, K. 18-27
Lopata, A. 15-50
Lopatin, B.V. 15-46
Lopatina, VS. 15-739
Lopez, L. 10-886, 10-1664, 5-1074, **15-1100**, 18-108
Lopez, R.C.G. 16-113
Lopez, R.M. **10-1326**
Lopez, V.O, 9-47, 9-55
Lopez, X. 16-503
López, C.J. 15-992
López, M.C. 16-488
López, P. **15-1207**
López-Alvarado, P. **10-1081**
López-Calahorra, F. 16-857
Lopez-Rodriguez, G. **10-1380**
Lorand, J.P. 3-70, **4-9**, 5-233, **13-21**, 18-329
Lord, E. 17-54
Lord, R.C. 4-309
Loren, S. 15-1208, 15-1210
Lorenc, Lj. 14-224
Lorenz, O. 19-207
Lorenz, R. 16-191
Lorenzo, A. 10-1223
Lorenzo, E. 16-508
Lorenzo, F.M. 12-576
Loreta, M.A. 15-1125
Lorette, N.B. 18-560
Lorimer, J.P. 10-454, 10-164
Lorne, R. 10-1500, 18-73, 18-600
Los, J.M. 11-467
Losensky, H. **3-117**
Lossing, F.P. 2-196, 2-334, 5-221, 5-64
Lothrop, W.C. 13-220
Lotsch, W. **5-198**
Lotsch, G. 14-402
Lotter, H. 16-660
Lotto, G.I. **15-1011**

Lou, B. **15-**481
Lou, J. 19-74
Lou, J.-D. 19-75
Loubinoux, B. 10-953
Loudon, A.G. 17-198
Loudon, G.M. **12-**180, 15-24, 18-235
Loudon, J.D. 13-71,14-197
Lough, A.J. 5-281, 15-610, **15-**1496
Lough, W.J. 4-139
Louie, J. 13-119
Loupy, A. 10-583, 10-636, 10-723, 10-778, **10-**811, 10-1068, **10-**1131, **10-**1133, 10-1866, 15-575, 16-175, 16-334, 16-664, 17-71, **17-**110, 17-249, 18-271, 19-290
Lourak, M. 13-221
Louvet, A. 10-1467
Louw, R. **11-**491, **17-**130, **17-**135
Lovas, F.J. 1-52, 19-201, 19-221
Lovato, G. 10-613
Love, B.E. 16-144, 16-163
Love, J.A. 18-478
Love, M.E. 10-483
Lovel, C.G. 15-808,15-812
Lovell, H. 16-314
Lovely, C.J. 19-457
Lovering, E.G. 1-92
Lovey, A.J. 10-2013
Lovtsova, A.N. 18-26
Low, C.M.R. 10-454
Lowe, G. 4-28, 4-29, 19-20
Lowe, J.P. 4-227, 17-88
Lowe, K.L. 5-244
Lowe, P.A. 2-66, 10-888, 16-722
Lowell, S. 10-300
Lowenthal, R.E. **15-**1407
Lower, S.K. 7-23
Lowery, M.K. 18-289
Lown, J.W. **15-**1168, **15-**1169
Lowry, N. 10-128
Lowry, T.H. 2-8, 05-122, 16-21
Loza, R. 18-477
Lozanova, A.V. 15-1224
Lozinskii, M.O. **10-**1121, 10-1693, 12-159
Lu, C.V. 11-196
Lu, L.-H. 19-75
Lu, L.D. 4-160, 19-445
Lu, M.D. 4-154
Lu, P. 18-107
Lu, S. 8-88, 16-649, 18-527
Lu, S.-P. 16-794
Lu, T. 15-1399
Lu, W. 16-539
Lu, X. 17-159
Lu, X.-R. 3-97
Lu, Y. 4-158
Lu, Y.-F. 18-408
Lu, Y.-Q. 10-1705, 6-450
Lübben, D. **15-**1009
Lubin, C.E. 15-1155
Lubin, N. 15-1280, 16-485
Lubineau, A. 15-570, 15-1280, 16-485, 16-624
Lubitz, W. **5-**178
Luborsky, F.E. 11-18
Lucarini, M. **1-**0100, 14-6, 14-7
Lucas, G.B. 18-298
Lucas, H. 19-672
Lucas, H.J. 10-90
Lucchese, R.R. 5-272
Lucchetti, J. 15-688
Lucchini, V. 8-9, 15-20, 15-1087, **15-**1137, **15-**1186
Luchaco, C.A. 15-637
Luche, J. 10-457, 10-1201, 10-1644, 12-326, 12-477, 16-258, 16-273, 16-368, 16-370, 16-370, **19-**711
Luche, J.-L. 11-194, 15-168, 15-700, 15-701, 15-739
Luche, J.L. 10-1277, 14-120, 16-436, 16-509, 16-559
Luche, M. 16-189
Lucherini, A. 18-641
Luchinat, C. **4-**170
Lucht, B.L. 5-168, 8-168, 8-169, 8-170
Lucien, J. 10-849
Lucken, E.A.C. 5-137
Luqon, M. 1-51, 3-12, 8-83, 8-84, 10-414
Lüdke, G. 16-939, 16-940
Ludwieg, A. 10-1714
Ludwig, U. 18-317, **18-**319, 18-321, 18-322
Lue, P. 16-156
Luef, W. 4-446
Luengo, J.I. 18-565
Luft, R. 9-75
Luftmann, H. 14-117
Lugad, A.G. 19-608
Luger, P. 4-310,18-522
Luh,T. **2-**283, **10-**1401, **10-**1402, **14-**474, **14-**475
Lührs, K. 19-653
Lui, C.Y. 10-167
Luibrand, R.T. 18-40
Luidhart, T. 11-229
Luis, S.V. 13-36, 16-741
Luk'yanenko, N.G. 10-453
Luk'yanets, E.A. 19-472
Luka, G.Ya. 14-334
Lukacs, G. 4-171

Lukanich, J.M. 13-194
Lukas, J. **5-16**, 5-26, 5-28, **12-52**
Lukas, J.H. 15-1362
Lukashevich, V.O. 18-604
Lukasiewicz, A. 16-175
Luke, G.P. 14-464
Luke, M.O. 12-54, 15-331, 15-332
Lukehart, C.M. 2-131
Lukin, K. 11-137
Lukins, P.B. **2-112**
Luknitskii, F.I. 15-1304, 16-16, 17-258
Lum, R.C. 17-118
Lumb, J.T. 12-542
Luna, D. 15-323, 15-373
Luna, H. 15-1030
Lunazzi, L. 4-54,4-55,4-241,4-254
Lund, H. 10-76, 10-76, 16-285, 19-620
Lund, T. 10-77, 14-509
Lundberg, S. 10-774
Lundeen, A.J. 17-153
Lundquist, J.T. **19-331**
Lundstedt, T. 19-796
Luneau, D. 5-243
Lunetta, S.E. 15-1435
Lungle, M.L. 16-39
Lüning, U. 5-8, 14-147
Lunn, G. 19-10, 19-622
Luo, F. 14-446
Luo, F.-T. 15-266, 15-640, 15-815, 16-62
Luo, X.-L. 15-284
Luong-Thi, N. 10-1937, 14-356
Lupes, M.E. 16-855
Lusch, M.J. **6-14**, **6-18**, 15-677
Lusk, D.I. 12-487, 19-471
Luskus, L.J. 15-1268
Lustgarten, R.K. **10-112**, **10-113**
Lusztyk, E. 10-1420
Lusztyk, J. 5-236, 5-248, **10-1420**, **14-50**, 14-84, 14-86, 14-87, 14-90, 14-124, 15-828, 15-835, 18-75
Lusztyk, J.L. 18-78
Luthe, H. 15-99
Lüthi, H.P. 2-209
Luthra , N.P. 6-9
Lutomski, K.A. 10-1830
Lutskii, A.E. 3-34
Lutter, H. 16-857
Lüttke, W. 1-78
Lutz, B. 3-29
Lutz, C. 15-702, 16-470
Lutz, G. **15-1228**
Lutz, R.P. 18-505, 18-553
Lutz, S. 4-143
Lutz, W. 16-603
Luukkonen, E. 10-324
Lux, R. 19-648
Luz, Z. 4-313,18-506,18-522
Luzikova, E.V. 10-1860
Luzzio, F.A 19-426, 19-60, 19-289, 19-599
Lwowski , W. 5-317, 5-323, 5-325, **10-1114**, 12-182, 12-184, **15-1135**, 18-227, 18-228, 18-242, 18-243
Lyerla, J.R. **11-16**
Lyford, L. 16-377
Lygo, B. 10-1689, 15-1046
Lyle, G.G. **4-11**
Lyle, R.E. **4-11**, **19-608**
Lynch, G.J. **15-165**
Lynch, J. 15-1287
Lynch, K.M. 4-364
Lynch, P.P. 10-1383
Lynch, T. **5-211**
Lynch, T.-Y. **5-212**
Lynch, T.J. 19-777
Lynd, R.A. **10-1592**
Lynn, D.M. 18-633
Lyons, A. 7-33
Lyons, J.E. 15-277, **19-571**
Lysenko, V.P. 15-1452
Lyster, M.A. **10-572**, **10-1189**
Lythgoe, D.J. **10-1448**
Lyushin, M.M. 11-372

Ma, J. 10-1474, 18-400
Ma, S. **10-1339**, **10-1502**, **15-1074**
Ma, V. **10-812**
Ma, Y. 13-199
Ma, Y.-R. 10-532
Maag, H. **16-188**, **16-190**
Maahs, G. 2-287
Maas, G. 4-410, 5-298, 10-377, 12-167, 12-563. 15-1207, 15-1405, 17-228, 17-414, 18-182, 18-416,18-527,19-155
Maas, L.W. 19-251
Maas, M. 13-230, 14-392
Maas, W. 16-45
Maass, G. 3-109
Mabry, T.J. 15-1029
Mabuchi, T. 10-1806
MacAlpine, G.A. 17-356
Macaulay, J.B. 15-1202
Macaulay, S.R. 12-66
Maccarone, E. 10-2031
Macchia, B. 10-554
Macchia, F. 10-554, 10-690, 10-881, 10-967, 10-969, 10-973, 10-974, 10-1201, 10-1687

Macciantelli, D. 4-54, 4-241, 10-1464
MacClellan, A.L. 1-36
Maccoll, A. **5**-221, 17-3, **17**-120, **17**-127, 17-128, 17-141
MacDonald, D.J. 2-284
MacDonald, I.D. 2-319
Macdonald, D. 18-498
Macdonald, T.L. 10-1813, 12-440, 15-1450
MacGarvey, U. 5-182
MacGibbon, A.K.H. 17-63
MacGillavry, C.H. 5-77
Mach, G.W. **8**-101
Mach, M.H. 11-221,11-494
Macheleid, J. 10-383
Machida, H. 17-320
Machida, Y. 10-818
Machigashira, N. 15-847
Machiguchi, T. 2-174
Machii, Y. 16-226
Machleder, W.H. 15-1050, 15-1051, 18-172
Macho, V. **10**-163
Macielag, M. 18-673
MacIntyre, D.W. 09-52
Mack, A.G. 13-219
Mack, H.-G. 4-243
Mack, J.P.G. 12-59
Mackay, G.I. 8-51,8-195,10-329
Mackenzie, D.R. 11-238
Mackenzie, K. 10-193, 12-56, 17-420, 18-706, 18-709
Mackenzie, P.B. 16-603
Mackie, R.K. **10**-1167, 17-274
Mackiernan, J. 15-132
Macklen, E.D. 8-78, 8-196
Mackor, E.L. 5-13,11-4
Maclaren, J.A. 19-428
MacLean, C. 2-52, 5-198, 4-233, 11-4
Macleod, L.C. 19-536
MacNicol, D.D. 3-76, 3-120, 3-121, 3-127
MacNulty, B.J. 17-34, **17**-116, **17**-119
Macomber, D.W. 2-131
Macomber, R. **10**-118
Macomber, R.S. 19-108
MacPeek, D.L. 15-1047
MacPhee, J.A. 9-59, 9-74, 10-580, 10-1962, 10-1963
MacQuarrie, R.A. 8-59
Macquarrie, D.J. **10**-1131, 15-564
Mac Weeny, R.M. 1-1
Madan, K. 4-132
Madan, P. 4-163
Madan, V. 12-12
Madaule-Aubry, F. 10-399
Maddocks, P.J. 18-358
Maddox, M.L. 10-740
Madesclaire, M. **19**-448, **19**-453, **19**-456, **19**-666
Madhavan, S. 19-545
Madhusudhan, P. 15-390
Madjdabadi, F.A. 11-370
Madler, M.M. 19-181
Mador, J.L. 15-283
Madrigal, D. 10-928
Madroñero, R. 16-866
Madsen, J.O. **16**-314
Madurro, J.M. 19-294
Maeda, H. **10**-1306, **10**-1956
Maeda, K. 10-1457
Maeda, M. 15-1440
Maeda, Y 19-383
Maekawa, H. 11-401
Maekawa, N. 2-125
Maercker, A. **5**-154, **12**-271, 12-439, 16-722, 17-165
Maerker, C. 5-68
Magdassi, S. 10-442
Magdesieva, T.V. 12-42
MaGee, D.I. 15-240
Magennis, S.A. 14-353
Mager, S. 4-68, 4-297
Mageswaran, R. **3**-116
Mageswaran, S. **3**-116, 17-354, **18**-318, **18**-319, 18-593
Maggi, R. 11-285
Maggini, M. **4**-451
Magid, R.M. 10-197, 10-204, **10**-1173, 10-1594
Magin, A. 15-1458
Magnane, R. 17-288, 17-289
Magnera, T.F. 10-270, 10-400
Magnotta, F.A. 10-2050
Magnus, P. 16-684, 16-690
Magnus, P.D. 10-1778, **15**-1186, 16-869
Magnuso, R.H. 12-12
Magoon, E.F. 18-61
Magrath, J. 10-522
Maguire, A.R. **15**-891
Maguire, J.A. 19-43
Magyar, E.S. 10-122
Man, R. 15-741
Mahadevan, R. 2-232
Mahaffy, P.G. 19-64
Mahajan, S.W 10-1177
Mahanty, J.S. 14-363
Mahé, R. 15-222
Mahendran, K. 10-326
Mahendran, M. 5-45
Maher, J.P. 18-706

Mahindroo, V.K. 18-386
Mahiou, B. 15-99
Mahler, G.S. 4-143
Mahler. J.E. 2-288
Mahler, U. 16-659
Mahmud, K.A.M. 11-26
Mahrwald, R. 16-565, 16-580, **19**-782
Mahuteau, J. 15-588
Mahy, J. 15-1127
Mahy, J.P. **12**-177
Mai, K. 16-822
Maia, A. 10-339, 10-440, 10-1726
Maia, A.M. 10-302
Maier, A.H. 11-305
Maier, G. 2-129, 2-164, 2-168, 2-173, 2-179, 4.371, **4**-432, **15**-1425, **17**-430, **18**-395, **18**-396, 18-416, 18-529, 18-530, 18-536
Maier. M.E. 18-627, 18-636
Maier, W.F. 4-423, 10-1396, 10-1417, 12-519, 15-305, 15-319, 15-327, 15-348, 19-654
Maigrot, N. 16-660
Maikap, G.C. 19-474
Maillard, B. 10-816, 10-1420
Maimind, V.I. 2-126, 12-592, 18-698, 18-701
Mains, H.E. 14-272
Maiolo, F. 13-105
Maione, A.M. 19-87
Maiti, S.N. 15-149, 19-638, 19-700
Maitlis, P.M. 2-186, 5, **15**-1458, **15**-1468, **19**-391
Maitra, K. 2-300
Maitra. U. 11-495
Maiz, J. 16-503
Majchrzak, M.W. **15**-1160
Majdoub, M. 10-723, 10-778
Majee. A. 10-1951, 16-173, 16-342, 16-446
Majerski, Z. 2-345, **10**-179, **10**-188, 18-29, 18-104, 18-189
Majetich, G. 10-1338, 11-275, 11-276, 15-703, 15-1075, 15-1221
Majewski, M. 12-299, 16-599, 16-600
Majo, V.J. 18-267
Majumdar, S.P. **18**-205
Mak, A.N.S. 11-469
Mak, C.-K. 19-306
Mak, K.T. 17-280
Mak, T.C.W. 2-201, **3**-120
Makani, S. 11-208
Makarova, L.G. **12**-321, **12**-351, **12**-422, **12**-432, 13-269
Makhija, R.C. **19**-334
Makhon'kov, D.I. 11-224, 11-228
Makhova, I.V. 12-540
Maki, A.G. 1-52
Maki, S. 19-234
Maki, T. 10-1306,18-239
Maki, Y. 13-169
Makin, S.M. 15-684
Makinouchi, S. 13-213
Makisumi, Y. 18-578, 18-594
Makovetskii, K.L. 15-1458
Maksimovic, L. 16-434
Mçkosza, M. 10-437, 10-442, 10-937, 10-1695, 10-1744, 13-240, 13-241, 13-242, 13-243, 15-599, 16-717, 19-758
Maksimović, Z. 14-224
Maksić, M. 11-73
Maksić, Z.B. 2-266, 11-73
Maksić, Z. 4-350
Maksyutin, Yu.K. 3-56
Mal, D. 10-779, 10-907
Malacria, M. 15-837, 15-1290, 18-452
Malament, D.S. **15**-1417
Malana, M.A. **10**-619
Malanga, C. 10-1440, 10-1958, 17-325, 17-326
Malarski, Z. 3-10
Malatesta, V. 14-65
Malcolm, S.C. 12-245
Maldonado, L. 10-1759, 15-751
Maleczka Jr., R.E. 18-339
Malek, F. 10-1368, 14-521
Málek, J. 15-755, 16-338, 16-362, 19-10, 19-502, 19-591
Maleki, M. 10-298
Malfroot , T. **10**-1229
Malherbe, R. 15-1250, 18-488
Malhotra, N. 2-91
Malhotra, R. 10-676, **10**-1164, **10**-1190, 10-1219, 11-113, 11-125, 11-136, 14-284, 19-123
Mali, R.S. 12-262, 12-279
Mali, S.I. 11-217
Malik, K.M.A. 16-814
Malinowski, M. 19-734, 19-738, 19-746
Malkin, Yu.N. 7-7
Malkus, H. 10-128
Mallan, J.M. 12-262, 12-279, 15-415
Mallart, S. 12-374
Mallet, J.J. **15**-1246
Mallion, R.B. 2-8, 2-76
Mallison, PR. 18-362
Mallory, C.W. 2-258, 18-431
Mallory, F.B. 2-258, 18-431
Malmvik, A. 16-336, 16-337
Malone, G.R. **10**-1820, **10**-1822
Maloney, J.R. 13-239
Malpass, D.B. 16-389

Malpass, J.R. **16-931**, 18-288, **18-521**
Malpezzi, L. 4-36
Malrieu, J. 15-1257
Malsch, K. 4-371
Malsch, K.D. 2-178
Malte, A. **10-1942**
Maltsev, A.K. **5-194**, 5-268, **15-1419**
Malvestiti, I. 16-498
Malykhin, E.V. 14-205
Mamaev, V.P. 2-349, 9-20
Mamalis, P. 18-568
Mamedova, Yu.G. 5-216
Mamposo, T. 13-125
Mamuzić, R.I. 14-224
Man, T.-O. 4-71
Manabe, O. 7-49, 13-287, 14-419
Manage, A.C. 10-1627
Manas, A.R.B. 11-336
Manatt, S.L. 2-100,2-182
Mancini, G.J. 18-513
Mancuso, A.J. 19-99
Mancuso, N.R. 18-272
Mandai, T. 16-585
Mandal, A.K. **10-1177**, **10-118**, 15-452, 16-327
Mandal, S.B. 19-555
Mandel, F. 6-58
Mandelbaum, A. **10-1935**
Mander, L.N 4-1, 4-87, 4-128, 4-224, 4-255, 4-307, 4-357, 10-2004, 18-593
Mandolini, L. 6-9, **6-10**, **6-11**, 10-335, 10-782, 11-95
Manescalchi, F. 15-993, 19-229
Mangeney, P. **4-100**, **10-1655**, **10-1665**, **10-1671**, 15-654, **15-699**, 15-707, 19-722
Mangini, A. 5-104,5-105,10-843
Manglik, A.K. 11-90
Mango, F.D. 15-1364, 18-79, 18-420, 18-641, 18-650
Mangoni, L. 15-1005, 17-288
Mangroo, D. 10-744
Mangru, N.N. 17-35
Manhas, M.S. 10-1707
Manimaran, T. **10-1119**
Manitto, P. 15-298
Manju, K. 15-515, **16-813a**
Mann, D.E. 1-37, 1-84, 5-268
Mann, G. 13-88
Mann, J. **10-1128**, **15-1491**
Mann, K. 2-166
Mann, M. 2-226
Manna, S. 10-1874
Mannen, S. **19-154**
Mannhardt, H. 7-8
Männig, D. 15-472
Mannion, M.R. 2-56
Mannschreck, A. 4-36, 4-37, **4-189**, 4-439
Mannucci, S. 10-1440, 17-326
Mano, H. 17-31
Manoharan, M. 4-275, 4-281
Manor, PC. 3-139
Manor, S. 10-1198
Manoury, E. 15-1009
Mansfield, K.T. 15-1367,15-1370
Manske, R.H.F. 10-1076
Manson, D.L. 10-1185
Mansuy, D. **12-177**, **15-1127**
Manthey, J.W. 10-283
Manuel, G. 10-1322
Manuilov, A.V. 10-380
Manyik, R.M. 10-949, 15-250
Manz, B. 11-119
Manzo, PG. 13-50
Manzocchi, A. 19-66, 19-270
Mao, C. 18-419
Maple, S.R. 16-568
Maquestiau, A. 4-417
Mar, E.K. 10-1675
Maradyn, D.J. 15-1354
Marais, D.J. 2-32
Maran, U. 2-338
Marans, N.S. 12-323
Marbet, R. 18-560
Marcaccioli, S. 2-48
Marcantoni, E. **10-524**, 10-738, 10-908, 15-682, 16-377
March, J. **11-169**, 12-499, 12-523, 12-543, 12-544, 16-400
Marchalin, S. 16-659
Marchand, A.P. 4-374, 5-280, 5-297, 15-1256, 15-1261, 15-1379, 17-154, 17-156, 18-655
Marchand, C. 15-1221
Marchand-Brynaert, J. 15-1320
Marchelli, R. **12-111**
Marchese, G. 10-1496, 10-1510, 10-1957, 10-1962, 17-13, 17-31, 17-54
Marchese, L. 10-886
Marchesini, A. **2-115**
Marchini, P. 16-176
Marchot, E.G. 5-173
Marcin, L.R. 10-946
Marcinkiewicz, S. 18-568
Marcinow, Z. 2-299
Marco, J.A. 2-229, 16-741
Marco-Contelles, J. 15-838, 15-1479
Marcotullio, M.C. 10-541,19-375
Marcoux, J.-F. 13-86, 13-117

Marcum, J.D. 5-257
Marcus, N.L. 15-944, **18-681**
Marcus, R. 16-741
Marcus, R.A. **6-26**, **8-118**
Marcuzzi, F. 15-33
Marder, T.B. 15-471
Marecot, P. 15-286
Mareda, J. **10-11**, **10-319**, **15-1398**
Marek, I. 10-661,10-1665
Marets, J. 15-718
Marfat. A. 15-643
Margaretha, P. **7-1**, **15-1346**
Margarita, R. **19-114**, **19-781**
Margerison, D. 6-52, 6-53
Margolin, Z. **6-76**, 6-77, 8-51
Margot, C. **17-172**
Margrave, J.L. 1-25, 4-259, 5-279, 14-97
Margulis, T.N. 4-309
Maria, P. 3-13,8-76,8-127
Marianelli, R.S. 16-834
Mariano, PS. 7-28, 7-36, 15-585, 15-586, 8-662
Marianucci, E. **16-146**
Marinas, J.M. 15-169, 15-323, 15-373, 19-774
Marinelli, F. 15-531
Marinelli, G.P 13-160
Marino, G. 10-26, 11-63, 11-76, 11-77, 11-323
Marino, J.P. 11-375, 19-792
Marioni, F. 15-13,15-21
Marisco, W.E. 15-309
Mark, H.W. **10-117**, **10-122**, **10-159**
Mark, V. 10-207
Markby, R. 15-769
Markgraf, J.H. **19-345**
Markiewicz, M.K. 3-88
Markiewicz, W. 10-868
Märkl, R. 10-253
Marko, D.E. 4-286
Marko, I. **15-1009**, **15-1019**, **15-1020**
Marko, I.E. 15-706, 15-891, 15-892, 15-581, 15-1255, **10-1952**, **14-153**, **14-292**, 16-461, 16-484, 19-78, 19-383
Markó, L. 15-800,15-801,15-802
Markov, P. 10-899
Marković, D. 8-105
Markovski, L.N. 1-9, 10-1245
Marks, M.J.; 16-942
Marks, T.J. 15-474
Marktscheffel, F. 10-1331, 175
Markwell, R.E. 14-100, 14-101
Marie, I. **4-143**
Marlier, J.F. 10-220
Maroni, R. 10-257, 15-969
Marquais, S. 10-1561, 10-1579, 10-1580
Marquarding, D. 16-936, 16-939, 16-940, 17-399
Marques, C.A. 19-182
Marques, M.M. 10-229
Marquet, A. **4-117**, 05-122, 16-189
Marquet, B. **12-104**
Marquet, J. 13-52, 13-54
Marquez, V.E. 19-580
Márquez, T. **13-125**
Marquis, E.T. 4-414
Marren, T.J. 15-670
Marriott, PR. 14-65
Marriott, S. 1-42, 9-49, 9-52, 9-55
Marrocco, M. 19-331
Marsch, M. **5-120**, **5-127**
Marschner, C. **10-1759**
Marsella, J.A. 10-950, 10-1682, 10-1683
Marsh, F.D. 12-186
Marshall, C. 4-90
Marshall, D.R. 17-47
Marshall, J.A. 4-399, 4-401, 4-424, 15-205, **15-554**, 16-364, **16-440**, 17-280, 18-599
Marshall, J.L. 4-218, 10-745, **10-1271**, 19-16
Marshall, PA. 15-436, 15-439
Marshall, P.J. **10-231**
Marshall, R.L. 16-434
Marshall, T.B. 15-1298, 16-908
Marshall, W.J. 5-281
Marshall, W.S. 18-273
Marsi, M. **17-177**
Marson, CM. 10-373, **10-1172**, **10-1726**, 15-261, 16-204
Marstokk, K. 3-44
Marston, C.R. 15-202
Martel, J.P. 16-894
Martell, A.E. 12-72, 15-185, 15-515, 15-786, 15-1458, 15-1483, **19-389**
Marten, D.F. 10-1646
Martens, D. **2-214**, 18-425
Martens, H. 15-982
Martens, J. **4-111**, **16-470**
Marth, C.F. 16-759
Marti, M.J. 10-1096
Martin, A. 12-201
Martin, B. 12-501
Martin, D. 10-395, 10-655, 16-879
Martin, G.J. 11-322
Martin, H. 15-1371,18-531
Martin, H.-D. 18-526
Martin, I. **17-129**
Martin, J. 4-298, 16-696

Martin, J.C. 5-45, 5-200, 10-178, 12-276, 14-14, 14-33, 14-82, 14-142, 14-143, 15-1305, 15-1310, 15-1320, 16-930, 19-73, 19-109
Martin, J.S. 3-42
Martin, K.J. 10-1375
Martin, M.G. 10-1079
Martin, M.M. 4-388, 18-50, 18-71, 18-81
Martin, P. **15-**972, **15-**1300
Martin, P.L. 10-64
Martin, P.S. 15-586
Martin, R. 11-409
Martin, R.A. 19-755
Martin, R.B. 6-30, 10-594, 16-45, 16-216, 19-717
Martin, R.H. 4-61, 4-62, **4-**153, **15-**1113, 16-329
Martin, S.F. **10-**486, **10-**1762, **10-**1815, **15-**1271, 16-671
Martin, S.J. 15-1139
Martin, V.S. 4-160, 19-339, 19-241
Martin, W.B. 16-162
Martin, J.D. 18-638
Martín, R. 10-1968
Martín, Y. 16-502
Martinelli, G. 16-758
Martinengo, T. **4-**163
Martinez, A.G. **10-**253, **10-**860, **10-**1555, **16-**868
Martinez, C.A. 18-296
Martinez, F.N. **14-**51, **14-**91
Martinez, G. 17-354
Martinez, LA. 19-53
Martinez, R.I. 19-10, 19-224
Martinez, A.G. 11-324
Martinez-Davila, C. 18-485
Martinez-Gallo, J.M. 12-114
Martinon, S. **15-**1342
Marton, D. 16-436
Márton, J. 11-10
Martorell, G. 10-1575, 12-263, 13-173
Marty, R.A. 2-146
Marty, W. **4-**170
Martynov, A.V. 15-229
Martynov, V.F. 16-707
Martynow, J. 19-209
Martz, J.T. 10-1229
Maruo, M. 15-590
Maruoka, H. **16-**456
Maruoka, K. 12-247, 12-388, 15-483, 15-486, 15-547, 15-1443, 16-278, 16-294, 16-848, 17-224, 18-124, 18-126, 18-283, 18-284, 18-285, 18-543, 19-631
Marusawa, H. 14-73
Maruyama, K. 10-1567, 10-1608, 10-1636, 11-301, 14-454, 15-1180, 15-1375, 16-380, **16-**417, **16-**419, 16-435, 16-591, 17-31. 19-128, 19-348
Marayama, O. 14-345
Marayama, T. 16-606, 16-609, 16-809
Marayama, Y. 11-252, 18-156
Marvel, C.S. 4-1, 4-12
Marvell, E.N. **10-**115, 11-482, 15-304, 17-409, 18-134, 18-397, 18-417, 18-495, 18-500, 18-545, 18-546
Marx, J.N. 15-161,8-34
Marx, M. 19-103
Marx, R. 5-203
Maryanoff, B. 19-766
Maryanoff, B E. 4-24, **10-**1281, **16-**722. 16-764, 16-768, 16-770, 16-771, 16-772
Maryanoff, C.A. 4-24, 10-1253, 10-1281, **16-**169, 16-597
Maryott, A.A. 1-37
Marzi, M. 10-959
Marziano, N.C. **8-**111
Marzilli, T.A. 10-1528
Marzin, C. 2-346
Marzorati, L. 19-788
Mas, J.-M. 10-1146
Mas, R.H. 4-355
Masada, H. 10-639, 10-640, 10-645, 10-1912
Masaki, M. 2-350
Masaki, Y. 10-684, 10-877, 10-909
Masamichi, T. 7-12
Masamune, H. **15-**1063
Masamune, S. **1-**11, **2-**168, 2-174, 2-179, 2-206, 2-208, 4-108, 4-120, **10-**114, 10-128, 10-727, 10-730, 10-1252, 15-457, 15-1407, 16-466, 16-588, 16-592, 16-598, 16-605, 16-608, 16-752, **18-**411, 18-654, 18-657, 19-275
Masaracchia, J. 15-1317
Masaya, K. 15-547
Mascal, M. 3-103
Masci, B. 11-120
Mascolo, G. 10-1510
Masdeu, A.M. 12-613
Mashyanov, M.N. 15-162
Masias, A. 10-472, 10-473
Masilamani, D. 10-1281
Maskell, R.K. 16-857
Maskill, H. 8-134, 10-46, 10-59, 10-68, 10-382, 10-2028
Maslak, P. **12-**183
Masler, W.F. 15-287
Maslin, D.N. 10-1434
Maslov, S.A. 14-214
Maslowsky Jr., E. 12-1
Mason, D. 10-442

Mason. R. **2-**218, 3-59
Mason, S.F. 4-102
Mason, T.J 10-454
Massa, W. 10-1747, 12-29, 15-93
Massad, M.K. 10-971
Massat, A. 4-245
Masse, J.P. 10-1515
Massey, A.G. 12-444
Massoui, M. 19-388
Massy, D.J.R. 16-183
Massy-Westropp, R.A. 10-1294, 10-1653, 16-785
Mastantuono, A. 16-502
Masterman, S. 10-2, 10-14, 10-600, 17-103
Masters, A.P. 17-335
Mastrorilli, E. 15-35, 16-237
Masuda, H. 15-919, 19-762
Masuda, M. 13-190
Masuda, R. 16-265
Masuda, S. 1-29, 11-279, 18-294
Masuda, Y. **12-**419, 15-734
Masui, A. 3-133
Masui, M. 14-186
Masumi, N. 13-211
Masure, D. 11-201, 15-1255
Masuyama, Y. 10-932, 16-384, 19-83, **19-**280
Mata, P. 4-90
Matacz, Z. 10-1695,12-215,14-291
Mataka, S. 10-489
Matallana, A. 4-314
Matano, Y. **10-**1456
Matasa, C. 14-285
Matassa, V.G. 12-34
Mateescu, G.D. 5-73, 10-161, 11-14, 11-15
Mateo, S. 6-61
Matheny, N.P. 14-221
Matheson, A.F. 6-73
Mathew T.S. 19-89
Mathew, J. 14-190
Mathew, L. 10-543
Mathew, T. 4-380
Mathias, J.P. 2-259
Mathias, L.J. **10-**451
Mathieu, J. **4-**111, **15-**1257
Mathre, D.J. 18-259
Mathur. N.K. 10-1027
Mathur, S.N. 10-443
Mathvink, R.J. 15-752
Mathy, A. 18-151
Matias, P. 18-522
Matice, J.J. 11-412
Matin, S.B. 10-1450
Matínez, R. 4-296
Matinopoulos-Scordou, A.E. 13-185
Matić, R. 14-226
Matlack, G.M. 19-473
Matos, C.R. 15-1299
Matshshita, Y. 15-183
Matsson, O. **10-**914, **12-**63
Matsubara, S. 15-583, 16-496, 16-803, 17-252
Matsubara, Y. **11-**401, **15-**1145
Matsuda, A. 16-731, 18-412
Matsuda, F. 16-447
Matsuda, H. 10-894, 10-969, 12-313, 12-617, 16-272, 16-345, 17-252
Matsuda, I. 15-601, 16-591
Matsuda, K. 5-242, **10-**150, 19-48, 19-573
Matsuda, M. 14-88, 14-345
Matsuda, S. 14-447
Matsuda, T. 14-339, 14-432, 14-438, 14-440, 14-442
Matsuda, Y 2-265, 16-471
Matsugi, M. 14-136
Matsuhashi, H. 10-1454, 10-1455, 10-1462
Matsui, H. 10-224
Matsui, T. 9-26, **15-**182, **15-**183, 16-496
Matsukawa, K. 13-189, 15-1056
Matsukawa, M. **17-**291
Matsukawa, S. 16-637
Matsukawa, Y. 15-639
Matsumasa, K. **15-**761
Matsumoto, A. **5-**231
Matsumoto, H. 3-99, 10-493, 10-1476, 13-224, 15-725, 15-971
Matsumoto, K. 6-50, 10-459, 10-1035, 10-1037, 15-1274, 16-591, 16-651, 18-122, 19-787
Matsumoto, M. 2-252, 4-177, 15-283, 15-1090, 19-262
Matsumoto, T. 4-160, 10-486, **10-**1164, 16-858
Matsumoto, Y 10-700, 12-34, 15-475, 15-481
Matsumura, K. 15-369
Matsumura, S. 10-1288
Matsumura, Y 14-298, 14-408, 17-369, 18-239, 18-284
Matsunaga, S. 10-699, 15-977, 19-183
Matsuno, T. 19-703
Matsuo, G. 15-820
Matsuo, H. 16-609
Matsuo, J.-i. **10-**1738
Matsuo, K. 12-594
Matsuo, T. 16-637
Matsuoka, K. 16-3, 16-382
Matsuoka, M. 16-295
Matsuoka, T. 15-544
Matsushita, H. 10-1592, 13-163, 15-839, 19-655
Matsushita, M. 5-238

Matsushita, T. 10-272
Matsushita, Y. **15-**182
Matsuura, A. 19-632
Matsuura, H. 16-437
Matsuura, T. 15-1092, 18-693, 19-144
Matsuura, Y. 4-282
Matsuya, Y. 10-1376
Matsuyama, H. 11-204
Matsuyama, K. 5-248, 10-1777
Matsuyama, T. 16-420
Matsuza, S. 15-657
Matsuzaki, S. 10-803
Matsuzawa, S. 16-371
Matt, C. 10-1899
Matt, J.W. 18-74
Matta, K.L. 10-759
Mattay, J. 4-80, 14-52, 15-1207
Matte, D. 12-598
Matter, Y.M. 15-99
Mattern, D.L. 15-545
Mattern, R.-H. 17-148
Mattes, H. **10-**1194
Mattes, K. 13-37
Mattes, S.L. 7-46, 15-1358
Matteson, D.S. 10-1583, 10-1585, 12-2, 12-337, 15-425, 15-443, 15-451, 15-991, 16-898
Matteson, D.S. 18-350, 18-364
Matthews, B.R. 16-819
Matthews, C.N. 16-767
Matthews, G.J. 15-964
Matthews, P.S.C. 1-1
Matthews, R.T. 5-182
Matthews, W.S. 5-90, 17-300
Matthey, G. 11-338
Matts, T.C. 10-64
Mattson, R.J. **16-**168, **16-**182
Matturo, M.G. 4-450
Matturro, M. 18-510
Matusbara, S. 15-526
Matusch, R. **2-**143, **4-**371, 17-430
Matuszewski, B. 17-433
Matveev, A.A. **10-**182, **10-**409
Matveeva, E.D. 10-1163
Matveeva, M.K. 13-269
Matvienko, V.N. 10-262
Matyusha, A.A. 11-262
Matz, J.R. 14-485, 14-486
Matzner, E. 15-1267
Mau, A.W.-H. 14-362
Mauder, H. 16-915
Mauger, E. 15-86
Maughan, W. 10-1085
Maulitz, A.H. 2-64
Maumy, M. 11-398, 19-142, 19-266
Maurel, R. 10-849
Mauret, P. **15-**1470
Mauriello, G. 11-230
Maurin, J. 8-146
Maus, S. 16-407
Mauzé, B. **10-**1659, **16-**715
Maverick, A. 10-379
Mävers, U. 16-743
Mavropoulos, I. 15-210
Mavrov, M.V. 15-104
Maw, G.A. 17-105,17-106,17-119
Mawson, S.D. 12-162
Maxwel, J.I. 8-49
Maxwell, B.E. **18-**611
Maxwell, B.J. 15-858, **14-**112, 18-47
May, G.L. 14-386
May, H. 10-670
May, L.M. 19-57
May, P.J. 9-15
May, S.A. 11-257
Mayadunne, R.T.A 15-850
Mayahi, M.F. **10-**1048, **14-**71
Mayants, A.G. 12-581
Maye, J.P. 15-534
Mayeda, E.A. 19-387
Mayer, A. 19-804
Mayer, E. 11-270
Mayer, J. 2-224
Mayer, R. **10-**891, **16-**2, **16-**129, **19-**534, **19-**796, 19-806
Mayer, R.P. 18-35
Mayer, U. 14-273
Mayers, D.A. 18-110
Maynard, G.D. 12-528, 18-497
Maynes, G.G. 15-140
Mayo, F.R. 14-10, 14-228, 15-61, 15-156
Mayo, J.D. 10-291
Mayon, P. 15-838
Mayoral, J.A. 15-1203, 15-1207, 15-1236
Mayr, H. 5-62, 15-28, 15-495, 15-966, 15-967, **15-**1151, **15-**1166, 15-1294, 15-1320, **15-**1398, 16-594, 16-810
Mazaleyrat, J. 16-379, 16-660
Mazhar-Ul-Haque 16-767
Mazid, M. 15-707
Mazume, T. 10-893
Mazur, R.H. 10-173
Mazur, S. 2-196
Mazur, U. 19-217
Mazur, Y. 10-802, 10-833, 10-839, 14-155, 14-155, 16-51, 16-875, 19-417
Mazzanti, A. 4-55, 4-254

Mazzeo, C. 18-108
Mazzocchi, P.H. 15-1343, 18-397, 18-489
Mazzone, L. 10-1535,13-177
Mbiya, K. 15-1282
McAdams, L.V. 17-313
McAlister, D.R. 15-1468
McAlister, J.A. 10-701
McAllister, M.A. 3-1,3-33,16-929
McAlonan, H. 18-179
McAnda, A.F. 15-387
McBay. H.C. 14-304, 14-306
McBee, E.T. 11-190, 14-46
McBride, J. 5-198
McBride, J.M. 2-194,-153,18-56
McCabe, J.F. 3-54
McCabe, J.R. 15-1250
McCague, R. 2-220, 2-223, 16-326
McCall, J.M. 18-663
McCall. M.J. 18-32
McCallum, J.S. 13-150
McCann, S. 18-558
McCapra, F. 9-15
McCarney, C.C. 17-335
McCarrick, M.A. 15-1269
McCarry, B.E. 15-508
McCarthy Jr., J.R. 18-44
McCarthy, D.G. 6-44, 7-398
McCarthy, J.R. 10-946, 12-155, 16-168, 16-182
McCarty, C.G. 17-377, 18-264, 18-687
McCasland, G.E. 4-16
McCaulay, D.A. 11-452
McCauley, M.D. 19-537
McCay, P.B. 5-218
McCleland, C.W. 11-225, 15-870
McClellan, A.L. 1-34, 3-1, 3-22
McClelland, R.A. 5-9, 5-318, 8-100, 9-67, 10-28, 10-225, 10-229, 10-322, 10-507, 10-509, 10-515, 10-627, 13-288, 16-79
McCloskey, C.J. 10-1632, 19-740
McCloskey, P.J. 11-505
McClung, R.E.D. 15-11
McClure, C.K. 10-772, 15-1007, 15-1177, 16-592
McClure, J.D. 18-299
McCluskey, J.G. 10-1228
McCollum, G.J. 9-60
McCombie, S.W. 10-1321
McCombs, D.A. 15-414
McConaghy Jr., J.S. 5-323
McConnell, H.M. 5-227
McCormick, G.J. 15-1069
McCormick, J.P. 14-180, 19-359
McCormick, J.R.D. 16-737
McCortney, B.A. 10-88
McCoull, W. 15-1236
McCown, J.D. 10-368
McCoy, L.L. 14-137, 14-140
McCrary Jr., T.J. 10-278
McCrindle, R. 10-1283
McCubbin, Q.J. 15-793
McCullough, J.J. 15-111, 15-1494
McCullough, K.J. 4-75
McCullough, L.G. 18-644, 18-645
McDaniel, C.W. 3-76,4-145
McDaniel, D.H. 3-42, 3-45, 8-40, 9-33
McDermott, J.X. 19-397
McDermott, M. 10-446
McDermott, P.J. 14-494
McDonagh, P.M. 4-265
McDonald, C. 19-388
McDonald, D.Q. 15-121
McDonald, F.E. 15-197
McDonald, G.J. 6-73
McDonald, J.H. 4-114
McDonald, K. 12-260
McDonald, R.L. 8-109
McDonald, R.N. 15-1086, 18-214
McDonald, S. 14-57
McDonald, S.R. 10-420
McDonald, W.S. 15-1307
McDonough, C.S. 18-567
McDougal, P.G. 4-171, 15-1102
McDougall, A.O. 16-14
McElvain, S.M. 10-686
McElvany, S.W. 2-295
McEnroe, F.J. 16-425
McEwen, A.B. 15-305
McEwen, I. 3-46, 17-48, 17-131, 17-178
McEwen, W.E. 16-760, 16-769, 18-462
McFarland, P.E. 10-1937
McFarlane, F.E. 10-142
McGaffin, G. 18-489
McGahan, T.J. 10-780
McGahey, L.F. 12-13
McGarraghy, M. 12-293
McGarrity, J.F. 2-334, 5-135, 10-378, 10-668, 19-201
McGarrity, M.J. 10-15
McGarry, D.G. 16-528
McGarvey, B.R. 15-282
McGarvey, G. 12-485
McGarvey, G.J. 12-440
McGee Jr., H.A. 15-1399
McGee, L.R. 16-581
McGee, M.J. 19-280
McGee, T.W. 15-872

McGhie, J.F. 10-1364, 10-1365
McGill, C.K. 13-244
McGill, P. 15-1075
McGillivray, G. 12-331
McGinnis, J. 18-629
McGirk, R.H. 10-37
McGlinchey, M.J. 2-291
McGlinchey, M.J. 12-465
McGrath, B.P. 14-145
McGrath, D.V. 15-1014, 19-81
McGreer, D.E. 17-422
McGregor, S.D. 17-307
McGuchan, D.C. 12-302
McGuiness, J.A. 14-125
McGuire, M.A. 10-1734, 16-922
McGuirk, PR. 15-643
McHenry, B.M. 14-485
McInnis, E.L. 18-393
McIntosh, C.L. 2-173, 13-37
McIntosh, J.M. 10-437
Mclntosh, M.C. 10-946
McIntyre, J.S. 5-13
McIsaac Jr., J.E. 10-359
McIver Jr., R.T. 2-305, 8-181, 8-189, **8-**193, 8-194, 10-606,12-524, 19-15
Mclver, E.G. 10-643
McKean, D.R. **10-**1132, **12-**312, **13-**166, **17-**177
McKee, B.H. 10-1623
McKee, D.W. 15-323
McKeer, L.C. 11-206
McKellin, W.H. 19-673
McKelvey Jr., J.M. 11-231
McKelvey, D.R. 1-2, 6-86
McKelvey, R.D. 14-65, 18-667
McKelvie, N. 16-725, 16-741
McKendrick, J.J. 3-121
McKenna, C.E. 14-416
McKenna, J. 17-82
McKennis, J.S. 18-422, 18-523
McKennon, M.J. 19-553
McKenzie, A. 15-5
McKenzie, C.J. 16-65
McKenzie, J.R. 15-657
McKeon, J.E. 19-347
McKeown, E. 14-244
McKervery, M.A. 10-552, 12-238
McKervey, M.A 4-47, **4-**111, 4-388, 12-549, **15-**1402, **15-**1408, **18-**50, **18-**98, **18-**102, **19-**786
McKie, J.A. 16-387
McKillop, A. **10-**521, **10-**704, **10-**1027, **10-**1988, 10-2015, 11-192, 11-370, 12-304, **12-**331, 12-332, 12-368, 12-368, 12-415, 13-189, 14-155, 14-391, 14-444, 14-445, 14-500, 14-501, 16-805, 18-196, 19-10, 19-65, 19-238, 19-422, 19-489, 19-802
McKinney, M.A. 10-1286
McKinney, R.J. **15-**812
McKinnie, B.G. 11-184
McKinnis, B.R. 16-243
McKinnon, D.M. 3-44
McKittrick, B.A. **10-**481
McKnight, C. 18-67
McKown, J.W. 14-202
McKusick, B.C. **10-**1868, 15-72, **15-**1312, 15-1395, 16-130
McLafferty, F.W. 14-129
McLain, S.J. 18-650
McLane, R.C. **16-**541
McLauchlan, K.A. 5-189
McLaughlin, M.L. 6-25
McLaughlin, T.G. 14-219
McLay, G.W. 10-704, 15-591
McLean, S. 18-448
McLeish, M.J. 14-418
McLennan, D.J. 6-61, 6-68, 10-46, 10-59, 10-64, 10-68, 10-301, 17-36, 17-37, 17-59, 17-62, 17-66, 17-67, 17-71, 17-72
McLeod Jr., W.D. 16-552
McMahon, R.J. 5-313, 18-192
McMahon, T.B. 8-127,8-181,10-10
McManus, S. 10-87, 10-404
McManus, S.P **5-**1· 05-2, 10-46, 10-59, 10-103, 10-304, 10-321, 10-416, 10-964, 15-15. 16-100
McMeeking, J. 15-1365
McMichael, K.D. 18-538
McMillan, F.H. 19-803
McMillan, W.D. 2-58
McMillen, D.F. 5-221
McMillen, D.W. 15-867
McMillen, H.A. **18-**411, **18-**412
McMorran, D.A. 15-805
McMullan, R.K. 18-522
McMurdie, N. 10-317
McMurry, J.E. 3-50, **3-**51, 4-204, **10-**391, 10-1617, 10-1618, 10-1630, 10-1886, 12-48, 13-168, 14-373, 16-617, 17-268, **17-**341, 19-709, 19-729, 19-730, 19-734, 19-736, 19-739, 19-741, 19-745, 19-746
McMurry, M.E. 8-142
McNaught, A.D. 5-6, 6-46
McNees, R.S. 12-274
McNelis, E. 11-476
McNesby, J.R. 5-303, 12-254
McNulty, J. 16-663
McOmie, J.F.W. 10-1185
McOsker, C.C. 10-1260, 5-337

McParland, M. 18-235
McPhee, D.J. 10-1390
McPhee, W.D. 18-165
McPherson, C.A. 15-29
McQuilkin, R.M. 2-248, 2-249, 2-253
McQuillin, F.J. **10-**1318, 15-282, 19-604
McRowe, A.W. 18-92
McShane Jr., H.F. 16-882
McSweeney, J.V. 13-235
McTigue, P. 8-38
McTigue.P.T. 8-34
Meagley, R.P. 12-246
Meah, M.Y. 10-689
Mebane, R.C. 15-906
Mecca. T.G. 10-62, 10-196, 10-200
Mechoulam, H. 18-603
Medary, R. 18-428
Medici. A. **19-**116
Medina, M.A. 5-125,5-159
Medina. R. 13-28
Medson, C. 16-314
Meehan, G.V. 4-263, 18-456
Meek, A.G. 10-183
Meek, J.S. 10-906,17-11
Meekel, A.A.P. 15-1218
Meerbeek, T.G. 18-273
Meerwein, H. 10-814, 12-236, 18-14
Mcgarity, E.D. 7-46
Meguriya, N. 16-436
Meguro, M. 10-966, 10-975, 10-1677, 15-254
Mehler. K. **5-**146
Mehmandoust, M. 18-573
Mehmedbasich, E. 16-834
Mehrotra, A. 10-875
Mehrotra, A.K. 10-537, 10-572, **10-**1164, 15-1305, 16-873, 18-597, 19-668
Mehrsheikh-Mohammadi, M.E. **5-**211, 10-303, 14-57
Mehta, A.S. 17-198
Mehta, G. 2-157, 2-299, 10-168, 10-775, 16-7
Mehta, S. 19-474
Meidar, D. **10-**1199, 11-489, 11-492, 15-186
Meidine, M.E 10-1086
Meienhofer, J. 10-1010
Meier, G.P. 16-766
Meier, H. 2-55, 4-402, 4-403, 12-510, **15-**1197, 17-420, 18-178
Meier, M. 18-336
Meijer, A. 15-1229
Meijer, E.W. 7-52, 1-329
Meijer, J. 10-208, 12-365, 15-645, 18-579
Meijide. F. 12-576
Meinecke, A. 10-1669
Meinema, H.A. 15-393
Meintzer, C.P. **14-**119, **14-**147
Meinwald, J. 4-196, 4-369, **12-**188, 15-950, 17-216, 17-220, 18-525, 18-526
Meinwald, Y.C. 4-69, 4-369, 15-950
Meisenheimer, J. 13-4
Meisinger, R.H. 2-212
Meislich, H. 10-202
Meister, A. 16-943
Meister, H. 17-202
Meisters, A. **10-**1633, 15-694, 16-456, **16-**513
Meixner, J. 15-829
Mekhalfia, A. 14-153, 14-292, 19-383
Mekhtiev, S.D. 11-372
Melamed, D.B. 12-572
Melamed, U. **5-**119
Melander, L. 6-58, 11-6
Melby, L.R. 3-72
Mele, G. **18-**108
Melega, W.P. 2-137
Melera, A. 2-225
Meli, A. 15-220,15-1469
Melikyan, G.G. 15-980
Melikyan, V.R. 16-827
Mello, R. **15-**1074, **19-**311, 19-320
Melloni, G. 10-257, 11-280, 15-33, 15-78, 15-81, 15-969
Mellor, D.P. 4-6
Mellor, J.H. 14-276
Mellor, J.M. **15-**1103, **15-**1141, **15-**1268, **19-**268
Melpolder, J.P. 14-353
Melville, M.G. 11-330
Melvin Jr., L.S. 2-69, 10-728, 15-1451, 16-888
Menapace, H.R. 18-622
Menapace, L.W. 10-1291
Menashe, N. **15-**192
Mencarelli, P. 5-207
Mende, U. **2-**173
Mendenhall, G.D. 14-243, 19-144
Mendez, R. 4-303
Méndez, F. 8-136
Mendoza, J.S. 19-616
Menegheli, P. 11-344
Menendez, M. 16-66
Menéndez, J.C. 10-1081,15-1281
Menezes, R.F. 15-1205
Meng, X.-J. 16-317
Menge, W.M.P.B. 16-697
Mengenhauser, J.V. 16-883
Menger, F.M. 3-108, 4-252, 4-369, 6-9, 10-156, 10-230, 10-608, 10-625, 19-67
Mengler, H. 10-2020
Menichetti, S. 15-943, 15-1088

Menon, B. 5-95, **5-114**, 8-65, **8-66**
Menon, B.C. 12-503
Menoret, G. 18-124
Menyailo, A.T. 19-186
Meot-Ner, M. 3-1,5-23,8-159,8-181
Méou, A. **15-1147**
Mercer, G.D. 16-39
Meredith, C.C. 2-107
Merényi, R. 4-373, 5-209, **5-211**, 15-1302, 15-1330, 15-1463, 17-314, 18-519, 18-520, 18-593, 19-475, 19-800
Merer, A.J. 7-14
Meresz, O. 16-833
Mergelsberg, I. 14-523
Merger, F 10-725
Merk, W. 18-420, **18-421**
Merkel, A. 10-336
Merkert, J. 15-586
Merkley, J.H. 15-613,15-614
Merkushev, E.B. 11-222, 12-367, 19-436
Merlic, C.A. 10-1724, 14-342
Merlin, A. 12-598
Mermoud, F. 19-20
Merola, J.S. 4-355
Merrer, D.C. 18-83
Merrifield, J.H. 10-1893
Merrifield, R.B. 10-1025, 10-1026, 10-1028, 10-1029
Merrill, R.E. 13-165
Merritt, J.E. 15-636
Merritt, M.V. 10-817
Merritt, R.F. 15-882
Mertes, J. 15-1207
Mertes, K.B. 3-118
Mertes, M.P. 3-118
Merz Jr., K.M. 2-178
Merz, E. 14-329
Mesaros, E. 4-68
Meshcheryakov, A.P. 14-303
Meshram, H.M. 10-708, 10-983, 10-540, 16-24, 17-368, 19-449
Mesić, M. 10-104
Meske-Schüller, J. 4-406, **4-415**
Meskens, F.A.J. 16-71,16-74
Meskin, A.J. 17-136
Meslem, J.M. 10-1284
Mesnard, D. 10-1659,10-1852,17-145
Messeguer, A. 19-222
Messer, L.A. 14-163, 19-244
Messina, G. 11-13
Messmer, G.G. 13-7
Mestdagh, H. 10-1926
Mestres, R. 15-691,18-266,19-475
Mészáros, L. **10-1982**
Metais, E. **10-1950**
Metcalf, B.W. 2-248, 2-252, 2-274
Metelitsa, D.I. 14-197, 15-1032
Metesich, M.A. 12-513
Meth-Cohn, O. 5-317, 10-763, 11-319, 15-1055, 19-10
Metivier, P. **10-1146**
Metts, L. 7-46
Metz, P. 18-570
Metz, T.E. **15-1193**
Metzger, J. 14-321, 14-328, **14-381**, 14-382
Metzger, J.O. 15-494
Metzner, P. 16-4, 16-123, 16-893, 18-579
Meul, T. 2-233, 2-268
Meunier, B. 14-157
Meunier, F. 15-1074
Meurer, K.P. 4-60
Meurling, P. **16-107**
Meyer, A.Y. 9-68, 9-72
Meyer, C.J. 14-202
Meyer, D.T. 2-297
Meyer, E. **10-1006**, **16-624**
Meyer, F.E. 14-347
Meyer, F.J. 5-135
Meyer, G. **13-110**, 13-227, 13-263
Meyer, G.R. 15-30, 15-366
Meyer, J. 19-636
Meyer, J.W. 11-417
Meyer, K.H. 2-339, 19-536
Meyer, M.D. 14-163, 19-244
Meyer, M.W. 11-458, 11-460
Meyer, N. 10-1818
Meyer, R.G. 18-660
Meyer, S.D. 19-111
Meyer, T.J. **6-61**
Meyer, W.C. 16-931
Meyer, W.L. 4-319
Meyers, A.I. 4-118, 4-138, 10-1758, 10-1811, **10-1812**, **10-1820**, 10-1822, 10-1823, 10-1825, **10-1826**, **10-1827**, **10-1828**, **10-1829**, **10-1830**, 10-1831, 12-214, 12-279, 12-284, 12-400, 13-164, 13-215, 13-228, 14-498, 16-318, 16-603, 19-34, 19-553
Meyers, C.Y. 17-300, 18-578
Meyers, M. 15-15,18-132
Meyers, M.B. **18-11**
Meyerson, S. 13-32, 14-329, **15-1190**, **18-21**, 18-23, 18-25, 18-26
Meystre, C. 16-339
Mez, H.C. 2-187
Mi, A. 16-502
Miano, J.D. 7-25

Miao, G. **10**-1541, **10**-1558, **15**-719
Mibae, J. 19-763
Micetich, R.G. 19-700
Micha-Screttas, M. 14-483, 14-485, 18-159
Michael, A. **15**-6, **17**-13
Michael, U. 10-1977
Michaelis, W. 15-99
Michaels, R.J. 10-1697
Michaelson, R.C. 15-1056
Michaely, W.J. **10**-1910
Michailenko, I.E. 17-146
Michalczyk, M.J. **1**-11, **1**-12
Michejda, C.J. 15-869, **15**-1120
Michel, R.E. 10-74, 10-1710
Michelot, D. 18-600
Michelotti, E.L. **10**-1666
Michels, H.P. 2-247
Michie. J.K. 16-874
Michl, J. 1-9, **1**-11, 1-12, 2-35, 2-178, 3-130, 4-365, 4-400, 4-429, 7-1, 15-1256, 18-391
Michno, D.M. 18-393
Michos, D. 15-284
Middleton, W.J. **10**-1158
Midgley, G. **15**-1145
Midland, M.M. **10**-1846, **10**-1851, 12-327, 12-338, 12-342, 12-356, 12-385, 15-725, **16**-311, **16**-318, 16-327, 16-655, 18-359, 18-365, 18-383, 18-385
Midorikawa, H. **10**-1790
Miekka, R.G. 17-40
Mielert. A. 15-1211
Mierop. A.J.C. 15-42
Miftakhov, M.S. 14-462
Migaichuk, I.V. 15-861
Migdal. C.A. 17-71
Miginiac, L. **10**-1659, **10**-1852, 12-32, **15**-717, 17-145
Miginiac, P. 12-523,15-41,15-674
Migita. T. 10-1602, 10-1749, **10**-1894, 10-1948, 13-107, 13-166
Migliorese, K.G. 15-920
Mignani, G. 12-533
Mignani, S. 15-1285, 19-475
Mignard, M. 15-1056
Mihailović, M.Lj. 14-220, 14-224, 14-225, 14-226, 19-6, 19-139
Mihara, J. 19-317
Mihara, M. 16-799
Mihelich, E.D. 4-138, 10-1827, 10-1828, 15-1056
Mihovilovic, M.D. 10-1499
Miiller. D.E. 19-16
Mijlhoff, F.C. 4-233, 4-256
Mijs, W.J. 19-10
Mikaelyan, R.G. 5-268
Mikami, K. 10-1340, 15-555, 15-1208, 15-1209, 16-637, 16-848, 18-594, 18-599
Mikawa, H. 15-1314
Mikhail, G. 15-1343
Mikhail, G.K. 18-200
Mikhailov, B.M. 1-74, 2-34, 10-1849
Mikhailov, I.E. 18-449
Mikhaleshvili, I.L. 15-48
Miki, K. 3-133,10-1055
Miki, T. 10-1020
Mikol, G.J. 19-794
Mikołajczyk, M. 4-45, 15-826, 16-880, 19-448, 19-453, 19-456, 19-458, 19-488, 19-666
Mil'tsov, S.A. 14-48, **14**-119
Mil'vitskaya, E.M. 18-474, 18-501
Milakofsky, L. **10**-414
Milano, D. 15-1103
Miłas, N.A. 15-989
Milaszewski, R.F. **10**-201
Milburn, R.M. 15-82
Mile, B. 5-175,19-201,19-218
Milenkov, B. 12-532
Miles, D.E. 3-26
Miles, J.H. 11-465
Miles, M.L. 10-2009
Miles, W 14-54
Milesi, L. 17-320
Milewski, C. 19-766
Milewski, C.A. 17-251
Militzer, H. 10-1713,10-1714
Mill, T. 14-42
Millar, I.T. 13-262
Millar, R.W. 3-125,10-836
Millard, A. A. **10**-1748
Millbanks, C. 15-834
Millen, D.J. 3-21
Millen, D.J. 11-134
Miller Jr., W.T. **14**-129, **15**-73
Miller, A.E.G. 16-364
Miller, A.H. 12-334
Miller, B. 5-110,18-152
Miller, C.E. 15-341
Miller, D. 16-423
Miller, D.B. 10-1587,10-1812
Miller, D.D. 19-741
Miller, D.J. 17-62, 17-71
Miller, E.B. 13-24
Miller, E.G. 18-602
Miller, F.A. 4-309
Miller, G. 15-665
Miller, G.I. 15-830

Miller, I.J. 5-46
Miller, J. **8**-200, **10**-306, **10**-1095, **10**-2027, **13**-2, 13-23, 13-56, 13-57, 13-68, 13-74, 15-268, 15-956
Miller, J.A. **10**-1110, **10**-1125, 16-874, **17**-179, 18-382
Miller, J.J. 18-73
Miller, J.L. 15-13
Miller, J.M. 10-777, **13**-112, **13**-145
Miller, J.S. 8-189, 12-524
Miller, K.D. 11-25
Miller, L.L. 18-462, 19-387
Miller, L.S. 18-526
Miller, M.J. 10-1082, 10-1717, 12-180
Miller, N.C. 12-511
Miller, R.B. 12-485, 15-614
Miller, R.D. **12**-312, **17**-177
Miller, R.E. 19-192
Miller, R.F. 12-173
Miller, R.G. **15**-1190
Miller, R.J. 5-188
Miller, R.L. 14-459
Miller, S.I. 1-0105, **5**-119, 10-264, 10-284, 15-78, 15-1256, 17-54
Miller, S.J. 15-1209, 18-630, 18-638
Milligan, B. 10-898, 10-903
Milligan, D.E. 5-230, 5-268
Milligan, G.L. 18-256
Millon, J. 10-1500
Mills, I.M. 4-309
Mills, *OS.* 2-128, 2-187
Mills, S.G. 2-338
Mills, W.H. 11-71
Milne, G.M. **10**-1174, 10-1609
Milowiz, L. 11-371
Milstein, D. 10-1889, 13-207, 18-124
Milstein, S.R. 18-292
Mimero, P. **10**-1183
Mimoun, H. **15**-1056, 19-395
Mimun, A. 2-236
Mimura, H. **10**-1491
Minachev, Kh.M. 15-276
Minakata, S. **15**-1129, 19-340
Minami, I. 10-1728, 17-264, 19-42
Minami, K. 14-293
Minami, S. 18-255
Minami, T. 15-563
Minami, Y. 19-341
Minamida, I. 12-503
Minamide, N. 11-95
Minamikawa, H. 16-819
Minasyan, XT. 19-225
Minasz, R.J. 10-322
Minato, A. 10-1510
Minato, H. 12-39, 14-323, 14-333
Minato, M. 15-992, 16-436, 19-399
Mincione, E. 16-304, 19-38
Mineo, S. 16-226
Mineur, C. 15-1223
Mingardi, A. **15**-712
Mingos, M.P. 10-455
Minidis, A.B.E. 19-326
Minieri, P.P. 16-866
Minisci, F. 11-162, 11-164, 11-206. 14-18, 14-62, 14-88, 14-110, **14**-114, **14**-116, 14-392, 14-393, 14-395, 14-396, 14-397, 14-398, 14-399, 14-402, 14-403, 15-49, 15-944, **15**-1122, 19-125, 19-308, **19**-310
Minkin, V.I. **2**-169, 3-34, 5-267, 18-449, 18-706
Minkoff, G.J. 15-1053
Minniear, A.B. 10-1348
Minns, R.A. 15-1317,15-1329
Mino, T. 18-294
Minoshima, T. 14-428
Minoshima, Y. 5-248
Minot, C. 1-48, 10-352
Minowa, N. 16-462
Minsky, A. 2-245, 2-246
Mintcheva, I. **4**-251
Minton, M. 4-218
Mintz, M.J. **14**-152
Minyaev, R.M. 18-449
Mio, S. 15-707
Miocque, M. 11-373, 16-57, 16-103. 16-199
Mioduski, J. 18-526
Mioskowski, C. **10**-1172, **10**-1874, **10**-1899, 15-201, 16-667, 16-894, **17**-170, 17-392
Miotti, U. 19-784
Mir, M. 13-54
Miranda, E1. 10-848
Mirbach, M.F. 15-799
Mirkind, L.A. 14-490
Mironov, V.A. 18-439, 18-461
Mirowicz, M. 4-90
Mirrington, R.N. 10-866
Mirskova, A.N. 2-349, 10-260, 15-229, 15-944
Mirviss, S.B. 10-1508, 12-342
Mirza, A.R. **14**-361
Mirza-Aghayan, M. 15-575
Misawa, H. 6-78, 19-361
Misbach, P. 15-516
Miscione, G.P. 15-1439
Miser, J.R. 13-254
Mishima, M. 10-149, 10-150, 10-272, 10-273
Mishra, A. 5-323
Mishra, S. 3-93

Mishriky, N. 17-297
Misiti, D. 4-54, 15-697, 16-61, 19-593
Mislow, K. 2-207, 4-1, 4-17, 4-31, 4-32, 4-76, **4**-165, **4**-167, **4**-206, **4**-435, **4**-436, **5**-197, **15**-60, 18-601, 18-602
Mison. P. 10-161, 12-176, 19-632
Misra, S.C. 10-1364
Missfeldt, M. 8-157
Mistry, J. 14-395
Misumi, A. 10-1751
Misumi, S. 2-244
Mita, N. **10**-1501
Mitamura, S. 11-294
Mitani. M. 15-972
Mitani. M. 19-302
Mitchell, A.L. 15-660
Mitchell, D. 10-1877
Mitchell, D.J. 4-300, 2-168, 2-182, 10-19, 10-352, 10-355
Mitchell, D.L. 19-192
Mitchell, H.L. 12-474
Mitchell, J.A. 10-1003
Mitchell, J.C. 14-253
Mitchell, M.B. 14-395
Mitchell, M.L. 18-193
Mitchell, R.D. 2-193
Mitchell, R.H. 2-228, 2-232, 2-233, 2-246, 2-279, 16-519
Mitchell, R.H. 17-314
Mitchell, T.R.B. 10-947, 18-505, 19-388
Mitra, A. **18**-397
Mitra, J. 3-25
Mitsch, R.A. 5-268, 15-1415
Mitsky. J. 8-184
Mitsuda, N. 10-1394
Mitsudo, T. 10-931, 10-1438, 10-1913, 15-221, 15-222, 16-143, 19-783
Mitsudo, T.-a. 15-782
Mitsuhashi, T. 10-389, 18-306, 18-575, 19-447
Mitsui, S. 10-1318, 10-1319, 15-271
Mitsunobu, O. **10**-679, **10**-730, **10**-739, **10**-1082, 17-408
Mittelmeijer, M.C. 18-643
Mitton. C.G. 6-87
Miura, K. 10-732, 0375, **15**-534, **15**-818, 16-624
Miura, M. 10-1918, 10-1921, 14-339, 15-761
Miwata, H. 4-160
Mixan, C.E. 10-278
Miyabo, A. 5-101
Miyadera, H. 18-306
Miyafuji, A. 19-319
Miyagawa, N. 14-400
Miyagi, Y. 10-1672
Miyaguchi, N. **19**-691
Miyahara, Y. 10-1490, 19-49
Miyaji, Y. 19-555
Miyake, A. **15**-250, **15**-311
Miyake, H. 10-856, 15-486, **15**-1195
Miyamoto, I. 2-243
Miyamoto, K. 14-339
Miyamoto, M. 19-341
Miyano, N. **16**-416, **16**-421
Miyano, S. 4-143, 4-160, 15-1442, 16-734, 19-445
Miyasaka, T. 2-228
Miyashi, T. 15-147,15-1264,18-497
Miyashita, A. 15-1365,18-124
Miyashita, M. 10-731, 10-758, 10-1357, 12-195, 15-202, 15-560, 15-601, 16-447, 17-239
Miyata, K. 10-1307
Miyata, M. 3-133,4-147
Miyata, O. 15-852
Miyata, Y 10-306
Miyatake, R. 15-537
Miyaura, N. **10**-1583, **10**-1584, **10**-1585, **12**-406, 12-414, 13-175, 13-177, 13-179, 15-475, 15-726, 16-454, 18-383, 18-387
Miyazaki, S. 10-894
Miyazaki, T. **2**-34, **18**-284, **19**-631
Miyoshi, H. 15-1024
Miyoshi, K. 12-401
Miyoshi, N. 12-195, 16-384, 16-445, **16**-813a
Miyoshi, S. 10-731
Miyoshi, T. 11-253
Mizhiritskii, M.D. 12-308, 19-662
Mizoguchi, T. 12-564
Mizokami, T. 13-256
Mizoroki, T. 14-343
Mizsak, S.A. 15-368, 16-926
Mizuguchi, Y 12-555
Mizumura, M. 10-622
Mizuno, A. 10-1874
Mizuno, H. 17-235
Mizuno, K. 5-241, 15-537, 15-1358
Mizuno, M. 10-1912,16-751
Mizuno, T. **11**-401
Mizushima, K. 10-1913
Mizuta, M. 10-893
Mizutani, T. 16-76
Mladenova, M. 10-1781
Mlekuz, M. 12-611
Młochowski, J. 16-226, 19-82
Mloston, G. **15**-1164
Mndzhoyan, O.L 16-183,16-184
Mo, YK. 5-50, 5-54, 10-101, **10**-370, 11-14, 12-218, 14-130, 15-71, 18-613

Mo, Y.M. 5-47
Mobbs, D.B. 19-156
Mobbs, R.H. 15-69, 15-71, 15-198, 15-238
Moberg, C.' 10-690
Möbius, K. 5-178
Mobley, T.A. 15-702
Mochalin, V.B. 2-147
Mochalina, E.P. 15-71
Mochalkin, A.I. 15-982
Mochida, K. 16-584, 19-576
Mochizuki, H. 15-349
Mochizuki, K. 15-997
Mock, W.L. 15-345, 17-307, 17-308, 17-310, 18-204
Modena, G. 5-59, 10-237, 10-247, 10-257, 13-22, 15-20, 15-33, 15-34, 15-78, 15-81, 15-104, 15-969, 15-1137, 15-1186, 17-13, 19-273, 19-429, 19-456, 19-462, 19-464, 19-484, 19-784
Modi, D.P. 18-257, 19-36
Modro, A. 15-15,15-86
Modro, T.A. 8-38
Moelwyn-Hughes, E.A. 10-642
Moerck, R.E. 15-1186
Moerikofer, A.W. 15-439
Moersch, G.W. 12-328
Moffatt, F. 15-1207
Moffatt, J.G. 10-734, 11-375, 19-98, 19-351, 19-356, 19-358
Mofid, M.-R. 16-470
Moggi, L. 7-11
Moghaddam, P.M. 12-68, 16-73
Mohacsi, E. 10-746
Mohamed, N.M. 16-242
Mohamed, S.K. 11-156
Mohan, G.H. 10-1337
Mohan, J.M. 15-1411
Mohan, L. 19-416
Mohanazadch, F. 10-1144
Mohanraj, S. 13-168
Mohanty, P.K. 17-370
Mohler, D.L. 2-64
Mohr, B. 11-291
Mohr, P. Rösslein, L. 4-163
Mohrig, J.R. 10-379, 15-45, 15-280, 15-373, 19-64
Moinet, C. 12-590, 19-614
Moir, R.Y. 18-213
Moisak, I.E. 10-1137
Moise, C. 10-1419, 15-772, 19-714
Moiseenkov, A.M. 10-478, 15-1224, 19-63
Moiseev, I.I. 19-391
Moiseikina, N.F. 11-345
Mojé, S. 10-1942
Mok, K. 15-1257
Mokhtar, R. 14-506
Mokrosz, J.L. 10-1091
Mokrushin, V.S. 16-820
Mol, J.C. 18-621,18-642
Molander, G.A. 10-1259, 10-1357, 10-1381, 10-1509, 10-1583, 12-14, 15-259, 15-535, 15-729, 15-730, 15-816, 15-817, 15-1444, 16-387, 16-496, 19-709
Molchanov, A.P. 2-165, 15-1384, 15-1393
Moldoványi, L. 19-120
Mole, T. 10-1633, 12-432, 15-694, 16-456, 16-513
Molina, G.A. 14-413
Molina, P. 10-1223, 16-205, 16-226, 17-364
Molinari, F. 16-603
Molinari, H. 10-453
Molinaro, C. 15-1440
Molitor, E. 16-63
Molle, G. 16-369, 16-400
M0llendal, H. 3-44
Möller, F. 17-245, 17-246, 17-247
Mollère, PD. 1-13
Molnár, A. 17-158, 18-109
Molosnova, V.P. 16-240
Molter, K.E. 5-173,10-39
Molz, T. 4-402
Momany, F.A. 1-60
Momeni, A.R. 10-1144
Momongan, M. 10-760
Momose, D. 10-1476
Monack, L.C. 13-58
Monaco, K.L. 10-938
Monagle, J.J. 16-881 , 16-882, 16-883. 16-884, 19-352
Monahan, M.W. 15-30
Monahan, R. 10-879
Monasterios, J.R. 4-234,15-15
Mondal, M.A.S. 10-767
Mondon, M. 10-1563
Mongelli, N. 10-911
Monkovic, I. 19-371
Monnier, M. 18-190
Monroe, B.M. 7-29, 7-36, 15-1094
Monson, R.S. 17-152, 17-251, 17-387
Montaigne, R. 15-1320
Montanari, F. 4-36, 4-45, 10-437, 10-440, 10-453, 10-1148, 10-1182, 13-160, 14-212, 19-69, 19-73
Montanucci, M. 13-83, 13-102
Montaudon, E. 10-816
Montavecchi, P.C. 15-1136

Monteiro, A.L. 15-521
Monteith, M. 15-779
Montel, G. 3-123
Montelatici, S. 15-330
Montero, J.-L. 18-180
Monteux, D. 16-175
Montgomery, F.C. 18-244
Montgomery, J. 11-119
Montgomery, L.K. 5-235, 10-169, 10-261, 15-1302, 15-1330, 18-74, 18-77
Montgomery, S.H. 16-588
Monthéard, J. 10-611
Monti, D. 15-298
Monti, L. 15-123
Montierth, J.M. 14-314
Montillier, J.P. 12-346, 19-658
Montserrat, J.M. 13-13
Montury, M. 15-358
Moodie. R.B. 1-32, 10-629, 11-26, 11-30, 11-37, 11-46. 11-50, 11-51, 11-78, 11-88, 11-90, 11-91, 11-113, 11-125, 11-126, 11-139, 11-142, 16-46, 18-279, 18-280, 19-123
Moody, C.J. 2-220, 2-223, 15-409, 18-537, 18-584, 19-597
Moody, E.M. 4-321
Moody, H.M. 19-579
Mooij, J.J. 2-211
Mooiweer, H.H. 10-1556
Moon, R. 12-280
Moon, S. 10-582, 14-226, 15-128, 15-165, 15-1318
Moonga, B.S. 11-461,11-462
Moore, C. 12-527
Moore, D.E. 7-40
Moore, D.R. 15-75
Moore, G.G. 10-780
Moore, G.J. 12-483
Moore, G.R. 14-218
Moore, H.W. 15-1327, 15-1334, 16-925
Moore, J.A. 10-603
Moore, J.S. 13-261,17-375
Moore, J.W 6-6, 6-52
Moore, K. 10-188
Moore, P.T. 4-187, 17-199
Moore, R.E. 19-767
Moore, W.J. 19-289
Moore, W.M. 7-22, 19-717
Moore, W.R. 4-187, 4-418, 15-1326, 17-199
Moorehead, A.W. 2-156
Moorhoff, CM. 19-184
Moorman, A.E. 19-416
Moors, R.G. 17-51
Moosmayer, A. 5-201
Mootoo, D.R. 10-516
Moracci, F.M. 12-616,16-176
Morales, J. 17-367
Morales, O. 17-312, 17-313
Moran, K.D. 11-125
Moran, M. 15-1411
Morand, P. 19-571, 19-574
Morandi, J.R. 15-332
Morandini, F. 10-1638
Morao, I. 15-1161
Moravcová, J. 10-608
Morchat, R. 17-425, 17-427
Mordas, D.M. 15-603
Mordini, A. 12-269, 15-659, 16-125, 17-172
More O'Ferrall, R.A. 5-60, 6-64, 6-86, 6-88,, 8-110, 8-111, 10-377, 17-3, 17-7, 17-44, 17-50
More, P.G. 13-174, 14-343
Moreau, C. 10-516, 19-117
Moreau, J. 10-1994
Moreau, J.J.E. 4-24, 14-378
Moreau, P. 4-132
Morel, D. 12-533
Morel, Y. 13-64
Moreland Jr., W.T. 1-40, 9-50
Moreland, M. 16-686
Morera, E. 10-1915, 13-150, 13-208
Morère, A. 10-1038
Moretø, J.M. 10-645, 15-634, 18-635
Moretti, I. 4-36
Moretti, R. 12-181,12-442
Morey, J. 19-91
Morgan, B. 10-760
Morgan, C.R. 19-775
Morgan, D.H. 14-228
Morgan, J. 13-197
Morgan, J.W. 18-570
Morgan, M.M 19-209
Morgan, T.D.B. 11-437
Mori, A. 10-1454, 10-1455, 10-1859, 10-1860, 10-1877, 14-358, 15-391, 16-819
Mori, A.L. 10-513
Mori, I. 10-1657
Mori, K. 4-95, 4-109, 10-1795, 14-343
Mori, M. 10-993, 14-369, 15-523 15-1459, 15-1462, 15-1482, 16-470, 18-636, 19-209
Mori, N. 16-496, 16-637
Mori, O. 16-226
Mori, S. 12-379,13-209,14-419
Mori, T. 10-1429, 10-1704, 11-114. 11-129, 13-250, 19-546
Mori, Y. 14-458, 16-852
Moriarty, R. 19-479

Moriarty, R.M. 4-308, 5-326, **10-**34, 12-593, **14-**180, **14-**181, **14-**182, **14-**183, 14-184, 14-185, 14-226, 14-377, 15-1023, 15-1122, **18-**419, **19-**113, **19-**119, **19-**239, 9-0264, **19-**481
Moriconi, E.J. 16-930, 16-931, 16-932
Morigaki, M. 2-273
Morihashi, K. 10-19
Morii, N. 15-766
Morikawa, A. 19-387
Morikawa, K. **15-**1011
Morikawa, M. 10-1916
Morimoto, T. 10-536, 10-1659, 12-106, 15-890, 16-147, 19-385
Morin, F.G. 4-134
Morin, L. 18-579
Morini, G. 14-88
Morioka, M. 16-445
Morisaki, H. 10-48, 10-182
Morisaki, Y. 10-931
Morita, H. **16-**916
Morita, J. **10-**1768
Morita, N. **2-**160, 5-40, 5-41
Morita, T. **10-**1190, **10-**1317, **11-**461
Morita,. D.K. 15-1077
Moritani, I. 10-952, 14-338, 14-345, 14-365, 15-1313, 17-86
Moritani, T. 5-283
Moritz, K.L. 11-59
Moriuchi-Kawakami, T. 16-345
Moriwake, T. 16-438
Moriwaki, M. **11-**211, **11-**294, **11-**407
Moriyama, K. **9-**12
Moriyasu, M. 2-322
Moriyoshi, T. 18-122
Morizawa, Y. 10-1609
Morizur, J. 14-465
Morken, J.P. 15-485, 17-175
Morkovnik, A.S. 11-95, 11-96
Morokuma, K. 7-21, 10-182, **15-**113, 15-330, 18-515
Moroz, A.A. 13-94
Morozova, I.D. 5-239
Morrell, C.E. 10-239
Morrill, T.C. 4-173,15-113
Morris Jr., P.E. 19-70
Morris, A.R. 10-459
Morris, D.G. **1-**51, 2-66, 8-84, 10-79, 12-201, 18-40, 18-319
Morris, G.A. 1-86
Morris, G.E. **12-**611
Morris, G.F. 17-8
Morris, G.M. 19-218
Morris, G.W. **19-**201
Morris, J.J. 3-12
Morris, K.P. 8-19, 14-206
Morris-Natschke, S. 16-382
Morrisoin, J.J. 17-214
Morrison III, W.H. 16-942
Morrison, A. 15-982, **15-**1267
Morrison, G.A. **4-**215, **4-**217
Morrison, G.F. 10-1850
Morrison, H. 7-46, 18-287
Morrison, H.A. 7-45
Morrison, J.D. 4-109, 4-111, 4-118, 4-121, 15-287, **16-**311, 16-423
Morrison, J.J. 16-605
Morrison, M.A. 15-110
Morrison, R.T. 14-73, 14-337
Morriss, F.V. 12-606
Morrissey, M.M. 14-194
Morse, B.K. 18-15
Morse, C.S. 11-54
Morten, D.H. 10-67
Mortensen, J.Z. 18-577
Mortier, J. 15-691
Mortimer, C.T. 1-94
Mortimer, R. 18-388
Morton, B.M. 7-36
Morton, D. 7-36
Morton, H.E. **10-**653, **10-**1184, **19-**80
Morton, R.C. 10-744
Mortreux, A. 15-291, 15-520, 15-797, 16-326, 19-738
Morzycki, J.W. **12-**196, 19-40
Moscalenko, M. 16-813a
Moseley, K. **15-**1468
Moses, L.M. 15-612
Mosettig, E. 15-306
Mosher, H.S. 4-94, **4-**111, **4-**171, 4-430, 5-142, 10-268, **10-**1141, 16-418, 16-423, 18-17, 18-89
Mosher, M.W. 14-270
Mosher, W.A. 15-714
Moskal, J. 16-675, 16-736
Moskau, D. 5-132,18-526
Moskowitz, J.W. 4-332
Moskva, V.V. 15-38
Mosleh, A. 10-1570, 10-1573
Moss, J.C. 15-1318
Moss, R.A. 2-159, 5-267, 5-282, **5-**311, 10-356, 10-376, 10-380, **10-**1122, 15-1384, 15-1385, 15-1392, 15-1416, 15-1421, 18-83, 18-84
Moss, R.E. 4-203, 8-157
Moss, R.J. 17-144
Mosset, P. 12-235, 16-539
Mossman, C.J. 18-256
Mostafavipoor, Z. 19-161

Motallebi, S. 15-11
Motell. E.L. 6-63, 14-126
Motes, J.M. 5-120
Motherwell, W.B. 10-1392, 12-196, 12-519, 13-199, 19-40, 19-266, 19-633, 19-737
Motie, R.E. 10-563, 10-982
Motohashi, S. 18-161
Motoi, M. 4-145
Motoki. S. 16-126
Motoyama, Y. 15-1209
Motoyoshiya, J. 15-537
Mott, L. 17-407
Mott, R.C. 12-128,14-263
Mottadelli, S. 10-1275
Motyka, L. 18-397
Moughamir, K. **10-**1926
Mouk, R.W. 18-163
Moule, D.C. 7-15
Moulijn, J.A. 18-621
Moulik.PS. 8-159
Moulineau, C. 10-1562
Moulines, F. 12-312
Moulines, J. 10-970
Moulton, W.N. 16-299
Mounier, C.E. 4-252
Mouri, M. 16-606, 16-809
Mouries, V. **13-**177
Mourino, A. 15-700
Mourning, M.C. **10-**142, 17-23
Moutet. J. 16-285
Moutou, J.-L. 16-526
Mouvier, G. 15-67
Movahedi, Z. 10-690
Movassaghi, M. 10-1305
Mowat. R. 11-209
Moyano, A **15-**1319, **17-**355
Moyer Jr., C.E. 11-493
Moynihan, H.A. 6-44
Mozdzen, E.C. 12-523, 19-559, 19-590
Mozingo, R. 15-306
Mraz, T.J. 19-594
Mrozack, S.R. 17-71
Mu, L. 10-388
Mucci, A. **8-**177
Muchowski, J.M. 10-774, 13-253
Muci, A.R. 15-473, 15-1068, 16-296
MuCullough, K.J. **15-**1157
Mudryk, B. 13-242
Muedas, C.A. 14-301,-530
Muehlbacher, M. 10-1200
Mueller, A.M. 15-836
Mueller. B. 15-510
Mueller, M.E. 5-212
Mueller, R.A. 15-1447
Mueller, R.H. **18-**561, **18-**562
Mueller, W.H. **15-**20, **15-**1137
Mueller, P.H. **15-**1160
Mueller-Westerhoff, U.T. 10-1975
Muenster, L.J. 8-24
Muenter, J.S. 1-38,8-191
Mues, C. 18-570
Muetterties, E.L. 15-315, 15-394, 19-14
Mügge, K. 18-449
Mugnoli, A. 2-236, 2-267, 17-54
Mühlstadt, M. 15-194
Muhsin, M. 17-65
Mui, J.Y. 5-306
Muir, D.M. 17-70, 17-95, 17-96
Mujsce, A.M. 10-1529
Mukai, T. 14-254, 15-1425, 18-396, 18-454, 18-497, 18-524
Mukaiyama, T. **4-**111, 10-729, 10-731, 10-758, 10-810, 10-896, 10-1085, 10-1099, 10-1164, 10-1240, 10-1278, 10-1430, 10-1444, 10-1447, 10-1638, 10-1646, 10-1653, 10-1797, 10-1875, 10-1965, 12-217, 14-180, 15-171, 15-172, 15-177, 15-578, 15-600, **15-**601, 15-606, 15-1069, 15-1071, 16-83, 16-132, 16-205, 16-379, 16-384, 16-462, 16-573, 16-575, 16-590, 16-610, **16-**611, 16-623, 16-637, 16-639, 16-640, **16-**813a, 16-819, 17-405, 18-108, 18-370, 19-38, 19-387, 19-493, 19-733
Mukerjee, A.K. 16-918
Mukhametshin, F.M. 10-1809, 12-572, 19-652
Mukherjee, D. 16-282
Mukherjee, S. 3-44
Mukherjee, S.B. 16-486
Mukherjee, S.K. 19-121
Mukhopadhyay, C. 19-598
Mukhopadhyay, T. 18-685
Mukkanti, K. 11-496
Mulder, J.J.C. 15-1257
Muldowney, M.P. **15-**1133
Mulhausen, H.A. 10-359
Mulholland, D.L. 2-288
Mulholland, K.R. 18-331
Mullane, M. 10-232
Mullay, J. 1-24, 1-29
Müller, P. 15-1199
Mullen, A. 15-767, 15-792
Mullen, D.G. 10-1026
Müllen, K. 2-138, **2-**211, 2-224, 2-226, 2-233, 2-253, 2-255, 2-268, 2-279, 2-267, 15-74, 18-522
Muller, B.L. 12-525

Muller, L.L. **15-**1123, 16-899, 16-905, **6-**0911, 16-918
Muller, M. 12-219
Muller, N. 2-309
Müller, E. 5-201, 10-962, 14-283, 15-1405, 15-1426, 15-1468, 18-199
Müller, E.P. **10-**1107
Müller, G. 1-11,4-205
Müller, H. 15-348, 15-491, 19-38
Müller, H.R. **15-**341
Müller, J. 5-48,5-127,10-500
Müller, K. 2-55, 4-39, 18-506
Müller, M. **4-**408, 14-188
Müller, P. 4-398, **10-**11, **10-**319, **10-**326, **10-**372, 10-602, 10-1300, 10-1333, 10-1878, 12-247, 15-1132, 15-1411, 16-814, 16-816, 19-20, 19-24, 19-50, **19-**117, 19-119, 19-120, 19-145
Müller, R.K. 17-359
Müller, S. 4-432
Müller, T.E. 15-253
Müller, T.J.J. 15-630
Müller, U. 2-125
Müller, W. 5-242, **10-**1120, 14-162
Müller, W.M. **3-**87, **3-**117, **4-**203
Müllhofer, G. 17-57, 17-60
Mulligan, P.J. 18-162
Mulliken, R.S. 1-25, 2-309, 3-56, 3-75, 7-14
Mullin, A. 10-266
Mulvey, R.E. 13-231
Mulzer, J. 16-579, **17-**351, 17-353, 17-355
Munavilli, S. 11-411
Munchausen, L.L. **15-**1160
Mundy, B.P. 16-616
Munechika, T. 10-187
Munekata, T. 17-260
Muneyuki, R. 10-151
Mungall, W.S. **4-**160, **15-**1020
Munger, P. 12-379
Munjal, R.C. 2-159
Munn, N.M. 2-62
Muñoz, E. 15-691
Muñoz, L. **12-**167
Munro, M.H.G. 15-384
Munson, M.S.B. 8-182
Münsterer, H. **12-**176
Munyemana, F. **10-**1164
Miinzel, N. 2-175
Mura, L.A. 10-1835
Murabayashi, A. 18-578
Muraglia, E. 15-976
Muraglia, V. **10-**149
Murahashi, S. **2-**185, 10-947, 10-952, **10-**1102, 10-1280, 10-1353, 10-1501, 10-1614, 10-1636, 10-1870, 12-614, 14-256, 14-257, 14-454, 14-520, 16-203, 19-147, 19-149, 19-321, 19-383
Murahashi, S.-I. 12-604, **15-**992, **19-**291, **19-**691
Murahashi, T. 10-1099
Murai, A. 10-1618
Murai, S. 12-195, 12-395, 13-213, 15-822, 15-972, 19-42, 19-441
Murai, T. 10-1685,15-819
Murakami, C. 16-308
Murakami, H. 16-942
Murakami, M. 10-1653, 10-1861, 16-639, 16-941
Murakami, Y. 10-1055
Murakata, M. 10-1753
Murakawa, K. 12-596
Muraki, M. 10-1430,10-1444
Muraki, T. 10-783
Muralidhar, B. **10-**1436
Muralidharan, V.P. 16-912
Muralimohan, K. 13-192
Muramatsu, H. 15-288
Muramatsu, I. 10-715
Muramatsu, T. 19-604
Muramatsu, Y. 15-930
Muraoka, K. **10-**1284, **10-**1523
Muraoka, M. **16-**112, 16-603
Murari, M.P. 10-1707
Murashima, T. 11-128
Murata, I. 2-104,2-273,7-20
Murata, N. 10-1582
Murata, S. **15-**1105, 16-639, 17-171
Murata, Y. **8-**144, 18-597
Murati, M.P. 10-1632
Muratov, N.N. 16-242
Murawski, D. 18-679
Murayama, D.R. **2-**185
Murchie, M.P. 3-88
Murcko, M.A. 4-229
Murdoch, J.R. 12-374
Murov, S. 16-913
Murphy, D.K. 10-481
Murphy, P.J. 10-1627, 16-596, 16-786
Murphy, R.B. 11-464
Murphy, T.J. 15-1370
Murphy, W.S. 10-1696,12-382,18-105
Murr, B.L. 6-79,15-1101
Murray, C.D. 14-330
Murray, C.J. 8-122,15-241
Murray, K.J. **12-**319, **15-**308
Murray, K.K. 5-272
Murray, N.G. 14-508, 18-704
Murray, R.E. 12-418

Murray, R.W. **5-268, 10-979, 14-189, 14-238, 14-239, 14-240, 14-243, 15-1075, 15-1079, 15-1092, 15-1093, 0454, 19-10, 19-199, 19-207,** 19-208, **19-209, 19-211, 19-212, 19-214, 19-216, 19-217, 19-322, 19-413, 19-416, 19-419**
Murrell, J.N. 1-1
Mursakulov, I.G. 4-327
Muscio Jr., O.J. 13-17,15-1327
Musco, A. 4-74
Musgrave, O.C. 10-1185
Musharraf, M.A. 10-1422
Musker, **W.K. 2-68, 17-197, 19-29,** 19-485
Musser, M.T. 10-283
Musso, H. 4-142, 4-143, 4-326, 4-377, 4-379, **14-416, 14-418, 18-524**
Musson, A. 11-122, 11-191
Musumarra, G. 2-74, 10-64, 10-373
Muszkat, **K.A.** 15-1262
Mutai, **K.** 6-10
Mutch, A. 18-639
Muth, C.L. 19-590
Muthard, J.L. 2-292
Mutter, L. 17-142
Mutter, M. 10-1027
Mutter, M.S. 16-768, 16-772
Mutti, S. 4-100
Muzart, J. **16-570, 19-292, 19-293, 19-325**
Myers, A.G. **10-1305, 12-68, 19-578**
Myers, J.D. **17-318**
Myers, M. 15-684, 15-1457
Myers, M.M. 15-619
Myers, R.J. 1-80
Myhre, **P.C. 5-18, 5-67, 10-163, 10-180, 10-188, 10-497, 11-10, 11-52, 11-54, 11-95,** 15-97
Myles, D.C. 10-803
Mynett, D.M. 10-581
Myoung, Y.C. **15-518**
Myshenkova, T.N. 10-1902

N'Guessan, T.Y. 18-190
Naab, P. **15-4, 15-29, 15-33**
Naae, D.G. 15-16
Naan, M.P. 17-54
Nababsing, P. **14-18**
Nabeya, A. 10-1820
Nace, H.R. 17-121, 17-186, 17-192, 19-352
Nachtigall, G.W. **10-51, 10-114**
Nadelson, J. 10-1938
Nadi, S. 14-111
Nadir, U.K. 10-1690
Nadjo, L. 19-388
Nadler, E.B. 2-327, 2-329
Naegele, W. 15-108
Naemura, K. 4-59, 4-399, **4-424, 10-1638**
Näf, F. **10-1776,** 15-722
Nafti, A. 12-176
Nagahara, K. **10-1919, 10-1920, 15-854**
Nagahara, S. 18-124
Nagai , T. 12-184
Nagai, K. 10-1602
Nagai, M. 5-101
Nagai, T. **5-198, 10-2035, 14-85, 17-259**
Nagai, Y. **10-493, 15-971, 15-1149, 19-10**
Nagaku, M. **10-741**
Nagao, K. 18-603
Nagao, S. 14-149
Nagao, Y. **4-111, 4-282, 10-1731**
Nagarajan, K. 12-81
Nagareda, K. 16-421, 16-760
Nagarkatti, **J.P.** 19-172
Nagasawa, K. 10-703
Nagase, H. **10-667**
Nagase, S. **10-182, 10-1523, 16-760**
Nagashima, H. **14-339, 15-656, 15-971,** 19-382
Nagata, J. 15-1314
Nagata, K. 10-1376
Nagata, R. 19-46
Nagata, T. 14-222, 14-227, 15-1069
Nagata, W. 11-362, **19-559, 19-567**
Nagayama, S. 15-994, **16-440, 16-537, 16-545,** 16-626, **16-628, 16-631**
Nagayoshi, M. 10-732
Nagino, C. 10-741
Nagira, K. **14-440, 14-442**
Nagorski, R.W. 15-886
Nagraba, K. 15-1095
Nagubandi, S. 11-366
Naguib, YM.A. 14-146
Nagy, J.B. 10-1049
Nagy, O.B. 10-1049
Nahabedian, K.V. 11-465
Nahm, S. 10-1979
Nahm, S.H. 15-545
Naicker, **K.P. 10-1098, 15-999, 19-771**
Naidenov, S.V. 11-26
Naik, R.G. 15-460
Naik, S.N. 12-586
Nair, K.B. 15-981
Nair, L.G. 14-190
Nair, V. 14-190
Nairn, M.R. 15-1002
Naito, T. **7-34, 15-852, 15-1343, 16-911**
Najem, T.S. 10-609
Najera, C. 12-114

Najime, R. 10-970
Nakabayashi, T. 19-542
Nakada, S. 13-208
Nakadaira, Y. 4-449,5-211
Nakagaki. R. 6-10
Nakagawa, J. 17-26
Nakagawa, K. 14-293, **16-226, 19-246**
Nakagawa, M. 2-224, 2-237, 2-249, 2-252, 2-273, 2-274, 2-275, 4-59, 4-402, **14-311,** 16-347, **17-86, 18-636**
Nakagawa, T. 12-595
Nakahara, M. 3-2
Nakahara, S. 4-424
Nakahara, S.-i. 16-326
Nakahara, Y. 10-1161,15-877
Nakahigashi, J. 15-883
Nakai, E. 18-599
Nakai, K. 10-212
Nakai, K. 18-212
Nakai, M. 18-224, 19-674
Nakai, S. 9pt2-6, 15-486, 18-284
Nakai, T. **15-555, 15-1208, 16-470,** 16-678, 16-848, **18-594, 18-596,** 18-597, 18-599
Nakai, Y. 3-36
Nakaji, T. 7-49
Nakajim, T. 11-279
Nakajima,T. 2-154
Nakajima, K. 11-476, 15-522
Nakajima, M. 10-1731,15-1011,18-203
Nakajima, N. **10-1753, 14-520,** 16-347, 17-390
Nakajima, S. 10-1044
Nakajima, T. 11-280
Nakajima, Y. **10-730, 10-1096**
Nakama, T. 15-183
Nakamaye, K.L. 12-18
Nakamoto, K. 10-388, 10-424
Nakamura, A. 3-59, **14-180, 15-1421,** 16-246
Nakamura, D. **10-542**
Nakamura, E. **10-1566, 10-1773, 13-167,** 14-179, 15-657, 15-1289, **16-210, 16-371,** 16-590
Nakamura, H. 10-273, **10-1677, 16-537**
Nakamura, K. 4-134, 4-163, 11-167, 16-313, 16-314, **16-404, 16-537**
Nakamura, M. 2-244
Nakamura, N. 2-179, **9-12, 13-294**
Nakamura, T. 3-111, 8-164, 10-1733, 10-1947, 15-974, 15-975
Nakamura, Y. 11-188
Nakanishi, H. 18-522
Nakanishi, S. 10-1630, **10-1890**
Nakano, H. 16-470
Nakano, M. 13-279, 16-609
Nakano, S. 15-120
Nakano, T. 10-493, **10-894, 15-971, 15-1149,** 19-92
Nakao, J. 15-635
Nakao, R. 10-742
Nakao, T. 2-57
Nakashima, H. 16-441
Nakashima, K. 19-48
Nakashita, Y. 10-1058
Nakata, K. **10-272, 10-273**
Nakata, M. 15-820
Nakata, T. 10-1041, **16-330, 17-191,** 19-691
Nakatsuji, S. 2-273, 2-274, **2-275, 19-48**
Nakatsuji, Y. **3-111**
Nakatsuka, N. 10-114
Nakatsuka, T. 19-38
Nakatsuka, Y. 16-582
Nakayama, H. 7-49
Nakayama, J. 14-410, 17-320, 19-477
Nakayama, M. 5-283, **15-183,** 15-972
Nakayama, T. 18-328
Nakazaki, M. 2-57, 4-18, 4-70, 4-145, 4-399, 4-401, 4-424
Nakazawa, M. 18-194
Nakazawa, T. 2-273, 7-20, 14-447
Nakazono, Y. 12-401
Nakazumi, H. 9-64
Nakhapetyan, L.A. 15-1397
Nakhshunov, V.S. 15-276
Nakova, E.P. 19-805
Nalbandyan, A.B. 14-214
Nalepa, C.J. 17-426
Nam, H. 13-37
Nam, W. 14-164
Namanworth, E. 5-45, 5-14, 10-145, 10-361
Namavari, M. 10-1139
Nambu, H. **10-1834, 10-1837, 10-1838, 10-1842,** 10-1843
Nambu, M. 15-1210
Nambu, N. 11-13
Nametkin, N.S. 1-9, 18-624
Namy, J. 10-1983
Namy, J.-L. 16-447
Namy, J.L. 16-295, 17-291, 18-124, 19-703
Nanda, B. 10-1103,10-1203
Nandanan, E. 15-1012
Nandy, S.K. 16-839
Nangia, A. 10-812, 16-757
Nanke, T. 10-1895
Nanni, D. 18-70
Nantz, M.H. 10-1030
Naoi, Y. 13-172
Naot, T. 19-147

Naota, T. 14-256, 14-257, 14-520, 16-203, 19-321, 19-383, 19-691
Naples, J.O. 10-730
Napolitano, E. 16-237
Naqvi, S.M. 18-474
Narang, C.K. 10-1027
Narang, S.C. 10-537, 10-572, 10-753, 10-830, 10-1164, 10-1190, 10-1219, 11-113, 11-116, 14-284, 19-658
Naranjo, S.B. 10-583
Narasaka, K. 10-1797, 15-578, 15-601, 15-991, 15-1015, 15-1208, 15-1474, 16-329, 16-623, 16-819
Narashimhan, K.M. 18-118
Narashimhan, S. 19-545
Narasimhan, C.S. 16-288
Narasimhan, M.S. 12-262, 12-279
Narasimhan, N.S. 12-279
Narasimhan, S. 16-353, 19-557, 19-583, 19-586
Narayana, A. 15-900
Narayana, C. 12-392, 15-478, 18-365, 19-658
Narayana, M. 15-357
Narayanan, B.A. 16-243
Narayanan, K.V. 10-210
Narender Reddy, A.V. 19-638, 19-700
Narender, R. 10-2041
Narin, S.Yu. 14-200
Narisada, M. 11-503
Narisano, E. 12-181
Narisawa, S. 15-555
Narita, N. 14-19, 14-73
Naritomi, M. 14-339
Narsaiah, A.V. 17-371
Narula, A.P.S. 15-305
Naruta, Y. 11-301, 15-1180, 16-435, 19-128, 19-348, 19-348
Nascimento, M.de G. 10-719
Nash, E.G. 17-382
Nash, J.J. 17-190
Nasibov, S.S. 4-40
Nasielski, I. 12-39
Nasipuri, D. 15-405, 16-297
Naskar, D. 14-496
Naso, F. 10-1496, 10-1510, 10-1535, 10-1962, 13-177, 17-13, 17-31, 17-54
Nass, D. 10-210
Nassetta, M. 11-448
Nassimbeni, L.R. 3-134
Nata, A. 16-84
Natale, N.R. 16-168, 16-182, 19-69, 19-539
Natarajan, R. 10-509, 10-510
Natero, R. 5-182
Nathan III, E.C. 2-162
Nathan, W.S. 2-303, 10-307
Natsume, H. 10-1458
Natt, F. 11-317
Natta, G. 4-1
Naudet, M. 14-23, 14-138
Naumann, F. 16-613
Naumov, Yu.A. 11-345
Nauta, W.T. 5-198, 11-450
Navangul, H.V. 2-84
Navarrini, V. 11-164
Nave, P.M. 14-223
Naven, R.T. 3-103
Nawa, S. 11-253
Nay, B. 11-124
Nayak, A. 10-1103, 10-1203
Nayak, B. 10-628
Naylor, C.G. 17-15
Naylor, M. 18-302
Nayyar, N.K. 14-68
Nazareno, M.A. 10-82
Nazarov, I.N. 15-537
Nazarov, V.N. 10-1164
Nazarova, N.E. 11454
Nazarova, T.A. 15-982
Nazer, B. 10-1428, 19-699
Nazer, M.Z. 10-1270
Nazran, A.S. 5-291, 14-33
Ncube, S. 18-365
Ndakala, A.J. 15-1080
Ndibwami, A. 10-232
Neale, R.S. 15-944, 18-681
Neamati-Mazreah, N. 10-416
Neary, A.P. 11-106
Nebenzahl, L. 8-14, 8-53
Neber, P.W. 18-222
Nebzydoski, J.W. 10-132
Nechvatal, A. 14-132
Nechvatal, A. 18-65
Neckers, D.C. 10-1027, 15-1343, 16-911, 17-2, 17-445, 19-715, 19-717
Necsoiu, I. 19-337
Nédélec, J. 10-1518
Nédélec, J.-Y. 10-1172, 10-1477, 10-1581, 10-1888, 13-181, 15-597
Nédélec, Y.-Y. 15-1390
Nedugov, A.N. 10-873
Née, G. 10-469
Neeland, E.G. 4-320
Neeman, M. 10-666
Nefedov, B.K. 10-813, 12-603, 15-767
Nefedov, O.M. 5-194, 5-268, 5-301, 13-32, 15-1419, 15-1456
Nefedov, V.A. 13-145

Nefkens, S.C.A. 15-797
Negele, S. 19-302
Negishi, E. **10-1536, 10-1592, 10-1593, 10-1749, 10-1836,** 12-1, 12-347, **12-444, 12-484, 12-486, 13-163, 13-165, 14-367, 15-430, 15-459, 15-460, 15-461, 15-482, 15-484, 15-485, 15-534, 15-616, 15-628, 15-650, 15-680, 15-727, 18-350, 18-351, 18-353, 18-354, 18-370, 18-378, 18-379, 18-380**
Negoro, N. 10-576, 17-324
Negoro, T. 15-873
Negri, J.T. 12-277
Négri, S. 10-1570, 10-1917
Neh, H. **15-381, 15-604**
Neibecker, D. 15-774
Neidigh, **K.A.** 16-171, 16-470
Neidle, S. 4-86
Neidlein, R. 4-398, 18-527
Neilands, **O.** 3-73
Neilson, D.G. 16-103
Neiman, L.A. 2-126
Neiman, M.B. 5-216
Neises, B. 10-737
Neiteler, G. 16-427
Nekhoroshev, M.V. 10-705
Nelke, J.M. **19-747, 19-755**
Nelson, B.W. 14-16
Nelson, C.H. 14-171
Nelson, D.J. 12-354, 12-355, 15-88, 15-342, 15-477, 15-986
Nelson, D.P. 3-83
Nelson, D.W. 15-1014
Nelson, E.C. 16-742, 19-181
Nelson, E.D. 13-19
Nelson, G.C. 18-130
Nelson, G.L. 18-463
Nelson, J.A. 17-179
Nelson, J.V. **16-576, 16-587, 16-592, 18-497**
Nelson, **K.L.** 11-47, 11-171
Nelson, N.T. 17-136
Nelson, P. 10-1023
Nelson, P.G. 1-2
Nelson, R.B. 11-504
Nelson, **S.F. 5-215, 15-945, 15-1098, 15-1099**
Nelson, S.G. 16-296
Nelson, T.D. 13-228
Nelson, W.M. 15-1101
Nemo, T.E. 14-165
Nemoto, H. 10-212, 10-1677, 16-331
Nenitzescu, CD. 11-284, 12-203, 15-978, 19-8, **19-333, 19-337**
Neplyuev, V.M. **10-1693, 12-159**
Neri, G. 16-288
Neri, **O.** 17-288
Neri, P. 3-97, 3-100, 3-101, 3-0104, 4-81
Neri, S. 15-1088
Nerz-Stormes, M. **16-589, 16-596**
Nesloney, C.L. 15-486
Nesmayanov, N.A. 16-766
Nesmeyanov, A.N. 2-131, **5-119,** 10-243, 15-1452
Nesterov, O.V. 16-97
Nestrick, T.J. 15-365
Neth, J.M. 4-280
Netscher, T. 10-2036
Neubauer, D. 15-770
Neuberg, M.K. 15-287
Neuberger, **K.R.** 7-46
Neuenschwander, K. 19-567
Neuenschwander, M. 2-181
Neugebauer, F.A. 5-201,5-262,5-266
Neuman, P.N. 18-391
Neumann, A. **6-81**
Neumann, B. **2-277, 5-156, 10-1767**
Neumann, C 15-1418
Neumann, F.W. 13-79
Neumann, G. 2-233
Neumann, H. 10-678, 12-485
Neumann, H.M. 16-409, **16-410, 16-411,** 16-412, 16-557
Neumann, P. 2-51
Neumann, R. **11-331**
Neumann, R.A. **16-765**
Neumann, S. 4-124
Neumann, W.P. 5-203, 5-204, **5-212, 10-1265, 10-2054, 16-560**
Neumeister, J. 19-193
Neumüller, O. 14-245
Neunhoeffer, H. 16-226
Neunhoeffer, **O.** 13-123
Neureiter, N.P. **17-294, 17-302**
Neuvonen, H. 10-595
Neville, A.G. 5-259
Nevitt, T.D. 15-4, 15-30
Newall, A.R. 10-669
Newbold, B.T. 19-153, **19-646, 19-660, 19-693**
Newcomb, M. 3-92, 4-132, **5-255, 10-80, 10-1284, 10-1401, 10-1829, 12-234, 14-51, 14-91, 15-835, 15-859, 18-72, 18-425, 18-500**
Newcomb, M.E. 12-463
Newcomb, R.C. **10-621, 10-625**
Newham, J. 15-419
Newirth, T.L. 12-402
Newkirk, D.D. 14-89
Newkome, G.R. **10-1989, 16-213**
Newlands, S.F. 15-15

Newman, C. **15-550, 15-556**
Newman, D.A. 12-21
Newman, H. **16-431**
Newman, L.M. 16-326
Newman, M.S. **4-61**, 5-55, 5-65, 6-40, 10-720, 10-1869, **10-1965**, **12-545**, **16-221**, **16-236**, **16-239**, **19-435**
Newman, P.A. 9-27
Newman-Evans, R.H. 18-467
Newsom, I. 8-157
Newton Jr., R.J. 15-308, 15-476
Newton, B.N. 10-1721
Newton, C.G. 2-281, 10-1448
Newton, J. 11-13
Newton, M.D. **2-176**, 4-363
Newton, R.F. 7-36, 10-206
Newton, T.A. 15-97
Nezu, J. 10-1394
Ng Lim, L.S. 18-282
Ng, C. **14-216**, **14-217**
Ng, J.S. 12-442
Ng, K.D. 13-182
Ng, K.M. 11-72
Ng, L. 15-85
Ng, W.W. 15-92
Ngoviwatchai, P. 14-22
Nguefack, J.-F. 10-1858
Nguyen, M.T. 18-264, 18-277
Nguyen, N. 18-400
Ni, J.X. 8-67
Ni, Z. 10-1401, 14-474
Niat, M. 13-54
Nibbering, N.M.M. 10-229
Nibler, J.W. 15-347
Nicaise, O. 16-540
Nicaise, O. J.-C. 16-347
Nicholas, A.M. de P. 5-220
Nicholas, K.M. 10-1312, 12-178, 15-257
Nicholas, R.D. 18-18
Nicholls, B. 3-64, 19-343
Nicholls, D. 18-302
Nichols, M.A. 5-155, 8-173, 16-577
Nicholson, G. 4-143
Nicholson, L.W. 15-448
Nickel, W. 4-448
Nickell, E.C. 19-206
Nickisch, K. **15-381**, 15-604
Nickle, J.H. 19-119
Nickon, A. 3-138, **5-110**, **5-216**, **10-159**, **10-169**, 10-73, **10-1377**, **14-238**, **15-133**, **15-1089**, **17-227**, **18-31**, 18-82, 18-685, **18-686**, **19-644**
Niclas, H. 10-395
Niclause, M. 14-214
Nicolaides, N. 19-120
Nicolaou, K.C. 10-727, 10-728, 10-730, **10-818**, 16-528
Nicolas, E.C. 12-88
Nicolet, P. 3-12, 10-414
Nicoletti, R. 10-948, 10-957
Nicolopoulou, M. 14-20, 14-384
Nicoud, J.F. 4-127
Nidy, E.G. 10-817
Nie, X. 16-324
Niederer, P. **13-255**, 14-418
Niederhauser, A. 2-181
Niedermann, H. 15-1197
Nieger, M. 2-247
Nieh, M.T. 19-738
Nieh, T. 17-266
Niel, G. 16-453
Nielsen, A.T. 16-564, 19-421
Nielsen, J.K. 16-314
Nielsen, J.R. 4-233
Nielsen, K.E. **2-44**
Nielsen, R.B. 15-487, 15-527
Nielsen, S.A. 3-80
Niemczyk, M. 7-36
Niemeyer, H.M. 8-59, 8-69, 8-74
Nienhuis, D.M. 19-64
Nier, A.O. 4-209
Nierengarten, J.-F. 3-151,3-150
Niess, R. 11-354
Niestroj, M. 16-560
Niethammer, K. 15-1192
Nifant'ev, E.Ye. 15-982
Nigam, A. **10-1284**, **10-15** 28
Nigh, W.G. **12-110**, **14-211**, 14-310, 14-320, 14-445
Nigmatullin, N.G. 16-828, 16-831
Niizuma, S. **16-731**
Nikat, S.M. 19-526
Nikeryasova, S.V. 11-345
Nikiforov, G.A. 2-342, 2-344
Nikishin, G.I. 4-295, 12-540, 14-123, 14-515, 19-265, 19-303
Nikitin, K.V. 13-204
Nikitin, V.I. 16-657
Nikitin, Yu.E. 16-183
Nikitina, T.V. 2-131
Nikoforov, A. 16-102
Nikolaev, V. 5-300
Nikolaev, V.A. 10-2003
Nikolenko, L.N. 11-182, 16-235
Nikolić, S. 2-80
Nikonova, L.A. **13-291**
Nikrad, P.V. 19-608

Nikulicheva, T.I. 11-438
Nill, G. 4-138
Nilsson, A. 11-10, 15-340, 16-157, 16-158
Nilsson, M. 2-312, 2-342, 11-472, 13-145, 13-219
Nilsson, N.H. 16-116
Nimitz, J.S. 10-728, 10-730
Nimmo, K. 10-513
Ninomiya, I. **7-34**, **15-852**, **15-1343**, **16-911**
Ninomiya, S. 10-342
Nir, M. 10-439
Nir, Z. **12-180**, 18-640
Nisar, M. 17-264
Nisato, N. 13-221
Nishi, M. 10-1085
Nishi, S. 14-510
Nishi, T. 10-251
Nishibayashi, Y. 16-326
Nishibuchi, T. **10-1630**
Nishida, A. 18-636
Nishida, K. 15-1070
Nishida, M. **15-1462**, **15-1482**
Nishida, S. 4-355, 10-1480, 15-1313, 15-1379, 19-745
Nishida, T. 18-328
Nishida, Y. 7-49
Nishide, K. 10-542, 10-865, 10-867, 10-1398
Nishigaki, Y. 18-693
Nishiguchi, I. 11-401, **15-1145**, **16-799**
Nishiguchi, T. 10-762, 19-73
Nishihama, S. 16-799
Nishihara, Y. 10-1454, 10-1859, 10-1860, **14-358**, **15-391**, **15-651**
Nishii, S. 15-707
Nishikawa, Y. **13-16**
Nishikori, H. 15-1134
Nishikubo, T. 10-1215
Nishimata, T. 15-1459
Nishimoto, K. 10-272, 17-26
Nishimoto, M. 15-544
Nishimura, J. 5-81, 11-247, **15-1442**
Nishimura, K. 12-604, 12-614
Nishimura, S. 15-397, 19-726
Nishimura, T. 10-1999, 12-96
Nishina, H. 16-226
Nishinaga, A. 19-144
Nishinaga, T. 2-125
Nishino, H. 11-336
Nishio, K. **16-478**
Nishio, M. 15-919, 18-294
Nishio, T. 10-850
Nishioka, T. 9-78
Nishiwaki, N. 15-1155
Nishiyama, H. 10-667, 16-326
Nishiyama, K. 10-1327, 10-1370, 16-230
Nishiyama, T. 10-1479
Nishiyama, Y. 10-882, 15-919
Nishizawa, H. 10-555
Nishizawa, K. 8-181
Nisimura, T. 13-237
Nitsche, R. 2-233, 2-235
Nitta, A. 15-370
Nitta, I. 10-59
Nitta, M. 15-243
Nittala, S.S. 15-1091
Nitzschke, M. 16-129, 19-534
Niu, J. 2-287
Niu, Q.J. 10-1951
Niu, Y. 7-38
Nivard, R.J.F. 16-124
Niwa, H. 10-1185, 16-126, 19-234
Niwa, J. 1-33
Niwa, S. **16-382**, **16-660**
Niwayama, S. 18-121, 18-390
Nixdorf, M. 4-371
Nixon, I.G. 11-71
Niyazymbetov, M.E. 5-293
Nizar, M. **10-1359**
Niznik, G.E. 10-1393, 16-942, 17-401
No, K. 3-97
Noack, K. 15-328
Noall, W.I. 15-916
Nobili, F. 10-524
Noble, D.R. 11-139, 11-142
Noda,K. 15-1068,15-1134
Noda, T. 16-599
Nodari, N. 4-374
Node, M. 10-542, 10-865, 10-867, 10-1398
Noe, E.A. 4-321, 4-356
Noe, M.C. 15-992, 15-1014
Noels, A.F. 10-669
Nogami, T. 15-1314
Nogi, T. 11-350
Nogi, T. 11-351
Nógrádi, M. **4-1**, **4-111**, 10-1752, 12-234, 15-287, **16-311**, **16-330**, **16-378**, **16-587**
Noguchi, H. 18-121
Nogue, D. 15-1270
Noheda, P. 15-762
Nohira, H. 18-124
Noirot, M.D. 12-610
Noji, S. 19-291
Nojima, M. **10-199**, **10-1160**, **10-1162**, 10-1220, 10-1240, 10-1284, 10-1523, 10-1902, 15-153, 15-878, 15-955, 15-1157, 16-244, 18-619, 19-209

Nokami, J. **15-1440, 16-437, 16-585**
Nokkeo, S. 10-1987
Nolan, G.S. 8-192
Nolen, R.L. **10-1820, 10-1828**
Noll, K. **15-249, 18-398**
Noller, H. **17-162, 17-255**
Nolley Jr., J.P. **14-355, 14-364**
Nolte, R.J.M. 10-1000
Noltes, J.G. **3-59, 12-429, 18-273**
Nome, F. **10-1063, 12-535**
Nomoto, T. 2-249
Nomura, H. **10-272**
Nomura, K. 19-48
Nomura, M. **10-1918, 10-1921, 14-339, 15-761**
Nomura, N. **10-1625, 15-521**
Nomura, R. **10-894, 12-617, 19-703**
Nonhebel, D.C. **5-174, 14-1, 14-18, 14-49, 15-49, 15-51, 18-54**
Nonoyama, N. **11-114, 11-199**
Noorani, V.R. 16-294
Noordik, J.H. 2-211
Noori, G.F.M. 11-387
Norberto, F. 12-581
Norcross, R.D. **16-592**
Nordahl, Å. 15-1237
Nordberg, R.E. 15-862
Nordeen, C. **10-895**
Nordlander, J.E. **10-139, 10-278, 10-1086, 15-21, 15-62, 18-18**
Noreen, A.L. 10-51
Norikate, Y. **10-1607**
Norin,T. **10-1592**
Norinder,U. 2-255,2-273
Norisue, Y. 10-863
Norman, N.C. 1-9
Norman, R.O.C. 5-178, **6-49, 10-1530, 13-221, 14-114, 14-206, 15-1199, 19-394**
Norman, S.J. 10-560
Normant , J.F. 15-707
Normant, H. **10-396, 10-1754, 12-459, 12-486, 12-554, 14-178, 15-333, 17-376, 19-471**
Normant, J. **10-1510, 19-722**
Normant, J.F. **6-15, 10-661, 10-1493, 10-1542, 10-1545, 10-1655, 10-1660, 10-1663, 10-1664, 10-1665, 10-1676, 10-1853, 10-1936, 10-1950, 12-364, 15-641, 15-643, 15-646, 15-648, 15-649, 15-653, 15-654, 15-704, 16-389, 18-196**
Normark, J.R. 12-110
Norrby, P.-O. **15-985, 15-1014**
Norris,A.R. 13-2
Norris, D.J. **16-632**
Norris, R.K. **5-257, 13-40**
Norris, W.P. **19-421**
Nortey, S.O. **16-772**
North, M. **16-813a, 16-814**
Northrop, J.H. **18-106**
Norton, H.M. 10-593
Norton, J.R. 3-59, **10-1539, 14-511, 15-277, 15-786, 15-788, 15-1405, 15-1467, 18-649**
Norton, S.H. **5-11**, 5-20, 5-26
Nosek, J. 10-1470
Nöth, H. 15-472
Notzumoto, S. **18-594**
Nour, A.R.O.A. 12-59
Noureldin, N.A. **19-67, 19-377, 19-486**
Nourse, J.G. 4-105
Novak, I. 1-19
Novi, M. **8-143, 17-54**
Novikov, S.S. **5-267, 10-1809, 10-2020, 12-572,** 15-949, **15-1176, 19-595, 19-652**
Novoselov, E.F. **18-276**
Nowak, K. **13-245**
Nowak, P. **12-299, 16-600**
Nowak-Wydra, B. 10-1172
Nowicka-Scheibe, J. 3-10
Nowlan, V.J. 15-26
Nowotny, H. 4-141,4-143
Nowotny, S. **16-470**
Noyce, D.S. **4-261, 10-611, 12-513, 15-24, 15-176, 15-191, 17-354**
Noyd, D.A. 10-74
Noyori, R. **4-121, 4-160, 10-1273, 10-1345, 10-1451, 10-1471, 10-1768, 15-288, 15-294,** 15-1294, **15-1363, 15-1491, 16-83, 16-321, 16-322, 16-326, 16-327, 16-378, 16-639, 17-171, 18-125, 18-301**
Nozaki, H. **5-283, 10-748, 10-753, 10-877, 10-1471, 10-1547, 10-1604, 10-1609, 10-1648, 10-1800, 13-237, 15-690, 15-726, 16-76, 16-389, 16-394, 16-408, 16-618, 16-641, 16-686, 17-280, 17-349, 18-601, 19-84 , 19-86**
Nozaki, K. **10-1369, 10-1657, 15-369, 15-789, 15-798, 15-798, 16-575**
Nozaki, Y. 12-261
Nozawa, K. 10-1044
Nozawa, S. **12-356, 15-731**
Nozawa, Y. 2-252
Nozoe, T. 2-127
Nshimyumkiza, P. 15-1282
Nucciarelli, L. **19-401**
Nudelman, N.S. **12-398, 12-403, 13-13, 16-522**
Nuding, G. **14-487**
Nugent, S.T. 10-1543
Nugent, W.A. **12-41, 15-528, 15-529**
Nugiel, D.A. **2-328, 2-329, 4-437**
Nuhrich, A. 10-970

Numata, T. **19-666**, **19-784**, **19-789**, **19-791**, 19-794
Nunami, K. 4-162
Nunes, J.J. **15-1223**
Nuñez, M.T. 19-241
Nuñez, **O.** 10-232
Nunn, M.J. 10-1125
Nurgatin, V.V. 13-55
Nuridzhanyan, **K.A.** **10-1121**
Nurmi, XT. 12-493, 12-494, 15-620, 15-621, 15-622
Nurok, D. **4-137**
Nuss, J.M. **15-1494**, **15-1495**
Nussim, M. 6-74, **16-913**
Nutaitis, C.F. 10-1303, 15-340, 16-170, 16-176, 16-259, **16-266**, **19-528**
Nuzzo, **R.G.** 12-476
Nwaukwa, S. 18-287
Nwaukwa, S.O. **11-210**, **19-380**
Nyangulu, J.M. 15-940
Nyberg, **K.** 14-280
Nyburg, S.C. 1-11,15-92
Nyce, J.L. 17-14
Nye, M.J. 15-1257, 18-171
Nyerges, M. 15-1156
Nyman, C.J. 14-512
Nyns, C. 17-314
Nystrom, R.F. 15-368

O'Brien, C. 11-107
O'Brien, D.F. 5-87
O'Brien, D.H. **5-114**, 8-8, 10-361, 10-501
O'Brien, J.L. 19-191, 19-192
O'Brien, M.J. 10-1701
O'Brien, P. 8-172
O'Brien, S.C. 2-294
O'Connell, E. 18-329
O'Connor, B. 14-367, 19-388
O'Connor, C. 10-620, 10-628
O'Connor, C.J. 10-632, 15-934
O'Connor, G.L. 17-121
O'Connor, **K.J.** 15-1134
O'Connor, S. 11-64, 13-230
O'Donnell, M.J. 13-199, 15-1303, 15-1304
O'Donoghue, D.A. 18-265
O'Dowd, M.L. 12-272
O'Hagan, D. 3-9
O'Hara, **R.K.** 2-149
O'Leary, B. 2-8
O'Leary, D.J. 4-273
O'Leary, M.H. 10-220
O'Loane, **J.K.** 4-3
O'Mahony, D.J.R. 18-636
O'Murchu, C. 19-198
O'Neal, H.E. **12-502**, **17-120**
O'Neal, H.R. 15-1305, 15-1324
O'Neil, LA. 17-402
O'Neill, J. 2-194
O'Neill, P. 2-329, **5-205**, **10-476**
O'Neill, T.H. 14-108
O'Shea, K.E. 15-1094
O'Shea, P.D. 14-327
O'Sullivan, B. 11-139, 11-142
O'Sullivan, M. 18-607, 18-608, 18-609
Oae, S. 5-103, **10-353**, **10-359**, **10-448**, 10-843, **10-1170**, 10-2030, 10-2037, 11-182, 12-503, 12-592, 13-69, 13-82, 13-89, 14-424, 14-508, **15-1127**, 16-226, 17-63, 17-133, 18-224, 18-695, 18-697, **19-464**, **19-487**, 19-494, 19-657, **19-658**, **19-666**, **19-667**, 19-674, **19-676**, **19-784**, **19-789**, **19-790**, **19-791**, **19-794**
Oakley, J.E. . 10-366
Oare, D.A. **15-562**, **15-565**, **15-571**, **15-572**
Oba, H. 16-175
Oba, M. 10-1327, 10-1370, 16-230
Obara, Y. 10-1894
Obata, **K.** 10-1398
Obayashi, R. 15-1107
Obenius, U. **16-336**, **16-337**
Oberender, H. 19-38
Oberhammer, H. 4-243
Oberhauser, T. 11-195
Oberliner, A. **14-135**
Oberlinner, A. **5-233**
Obeshchalova, N.V. 15-513
Obraztsov, **P.** A. **15-170**, **17-160**
Obrecht, R. 17-400
Obushak, N.D. 14-334, 15-860
Oaafrain, M. 10-1888
Occhiato, E.G. 16-314
Occolowitz, J.L. 5-110
Ochal, Z. 10-937
Ochi, M. **10-1345**
Ochiai, H. **10-1892**, **10-1947**
Ochiai, **K.** 15-930
Ochiai, M. 4-282, **10-867**, 10-909, **15-1102**
Ochiai, **O.** 15-908
Oda, D. 10-1733
Oda, J. **10-1096**, **18-597**
Oda, **K.** 15-1070
Oda, M. 2-163, **10-759**, **10-1476**, **12-521**, 13-221, **15-537**, **15-1425**, **18-396**
Oda, R. 11-377
Oda, T. 15-819
Oda, Y. 19-321
Odaira, M. 11-342

Odaira, Y. 2-52, 2-54, 11-352
Ode, R.H. 19-368
Odenkirk, W. 16-838
Odinokov, V.N. **19**-186
Odioso, R.C. 18-609
Oediger, H. 17-245, 17-246, 17-247
Oehl, R. 11-322
Oehlschlager, A.C. 10-760
Oehme, G. 15-1481
Oelderik, J.M. 18-27
Oepen. G. 4-223
Oertle, K. 10-728, 15-486
Oesch, U. 4-134
Oeser, T. 4-360
Oestreich, T.M. 13-245
Offerhaus, R. 5-242
Offermann, K. 17-399
Offermanns, H. 19-797
Ofori-Okai, G. 12-276
Of stead, E.A. 18-621, 18-623, 18-640, 18-650
Ogasawara, K. 10-1335, 10-1344, 15-1067, 19-106, 19-688
Ogasawara, M. 15-369, 15-732
Ogata, Y. 11-232, 11-334, 11-371, 11-399, 11-410, 11-445, 11-476, 12-135, 12-136, 12-588, 14-284, 15-1005, 15-1037, 15-1086, 16-817, 18-307, 19-10, **19**-171, **19**-444, 19-763, 19-778
Ogawa, A. **10**-1259, **10**-1412, **10**-1895, **10**-1898, **13**-211, 15-234, 15-235, **15**-1107, 19-725
Ogawa, H. 2-226, 2-243, **2**-273, **10**-662, 10-667, 10-949, 12-14, 12-420, **15**-211
Ogawa, K. **19**-125
Ogawa, M. 10-1402, 11-13, 14-475, 15-1054, 19-92
Ogawa, S. 10-448, **13**-69
Ogawa, T. 7-49, 10-859, **10**-1127, 13-145
Ogg Jr., R.A. 4-346
Ogi, K. 18-189
Ogibin, Yu.N. 19-265
Ogina. Y 15-1009
Ogino. H. 3-146
Ogino. T. 15-997, 15-1000
Ogino, Y. 15-1009
Ogiyama, H. **10**-1461
Ogle, C.A. 5-84,5-135
Ogliaruso, M.A. 2-130, 10-724, 10-809, 17-362, 18-460
Ogoshi, H. **2**-163
Ogston, A.G. 4-209
Oguchi, T. 15-1054
Oguni, N. 4-160, 10-1672, 10-1872, 16-471
Ogura. H. 4-320
Ogura, H. 16-206
Ogura, K. 3-145, 10-1789, 10-1790, 10-1955, 12-147, 12-556, 15-55, 19-669
Oguro, D. 16-499
Oguro, K. 12-400
Oh, D.Y. 16-89
Oh, T. 14-367
Oh, YJ. 10-307
Oh, YS. 10-747
Ohanessian, G. 2-6, 2-37
Ohannesian, L. 11-207, 11-313, 12-127, 19-531
Ohara, M. 4-142
Ohara, S. 10-1013
Ohashi, H. 10-882
Ohe, K. 16-326, 19-762
Óhegyi , G. 9-13
Ohga,Y. 10-296
Ohhara, H. 17-280
Ohhashi, K. 13-166
Ohira, M. 10-1538
Ohira, R. 15-242
Ohira, S. 5-283
Ohishi, M. 16-858
Ohkata, K. 10-132,10-1257,16-719
Ohkatsu, J. 14-135
Ohkawa, K. 10-493
Ohki, H. 16-436
Ohkubo, H. 19-459
Ohkuma, T. 4-160, 16-322
Ohlberg, D.A.A. 17-50
Ohlmeyer, M.J. 15-472, 15-475, 15-480
Ohloff, G. 14-239, 14-245, 15-1093, 17-357, 18-456, **19**-166
Ohlsson, L. 12-62
Ohme, R. 4-37
Ohmori, H. 10-1306, 10-1956, 15-839
Ohnari, H. 10-1257
Ohno, A. 4-163, 11-167, 13-158, 15-388, 15-1459,16-2, 16-313,16-314
Ohno, H. 10-1877
Ohno, K. 10-667, **14**-511, **14**-512, **14**-518, 14-524, 17-264
Ohno, M. 10-570, 10-1532, 16-469, 18-121
Ohno, Y. 16-734
Ohnuki, M. 15-369
Ohsaku, M. 7-21
Ohsawa, A. 10-1376
Ohsawa, T. 10-1282, 10-1394, 12-555, 19-142
Ohshima, M. 16-384, 19-38
Ohshima, Y 19-340
Ohshiro, Y **10**-1261, **10**-1465, **14**-150, **14**-343, 15-778, 15-786, 19-340

Ohshita, J. 14-298
Ohta, A. 13-99, 16-495
Ohta, H. 10-1636, 14-73, 14-296, 15-298
Ohta, K. 4-142
Ohta, M. 2-281, 2-350, 14-70, 15-925, 17-346
Ohta, S. 10-1994, 19-703
Ohta, T. 11-168, 15-288, 15-369, 15-798, 16-322, 16-326
Ohtake, H. **14-**159
Ohtake, Y. 12-247
Ohto, M. 19-47
Ohtsu, M. 15-1127
Ohtsuka, N. 11-183
Ohtsuka, Y. 17-153
Ohwada, T. 4-420, 11-326
Ohya, S. 10-1259, 10-1412, 10-1895
Ohya-Nishiguchi, H. 5-178
Ohyama, H. 16-585
Ohyama, T. 11-85
6i, S. 4-143
Oida, T. 17-280
Oikawa, T. 15-694
Oishi, A. 16-933
Oishi, M. 17-224
Oishi, T. 10-1282, 10-1394, 12-555, 15-1015, 15-1018, 16-330, 17-153
Oishi, Y. 10-645
Ojanperä, I. 10-876
Ojha, N.D. 4-356
Ojima, I. 15-287, 15-484, 15-770, 15-797, 16-262, 16-604, 18-579, 19-482
Ojima, J. 2-244, 2-251, 2-252, 2-254, 2-270
Oka, K. 10-742
Oka, M. 6-39,14-136,18-150
Oka, S. 11-167,13-158
Okabe, H. 7-35
Okabe, N. **10-**1916
Okada, H. 14-202
Okada, I. 10-950
Okada, K. 3-128, 11-362, 12-521, 14-254, **15-**615
Okada, M. 14-510
Okada, N. 16-447
Okada, S. 10-362
Okahara, M. 3-111,16-226
Okai, K. 5-283
Okajima, T. 10-1999
Okamoto, H. **10-**1932
Okamoto, J. **10-**1956
Okamoto, K. **2-**159, **5-**101, **10-**21, 10-46, 10-57, 10-58, 10-59, 10-69, 10-298, 10-305, 15-1425, 18-396, 18-527
Okamoto, M. 10-1994
Okamoto, T. 10-1035, 10-1037, 11-168, 11-211, 11-227, 12-96, **12-**113, **12-**119, **13-**158, 13-292, 16-808
Okamoto, Y 2-57, 4-76, 4-141, 4-143, 4-145, 9-20, **10-**1190, **10-**1317
Okamura, H. 16-470
Okamura, M.Y 15-1326
Okamura, W.H. 2-244
Okano, K. 18-212, 18-484
Okano, M. 4-390, **11-**117, 11-371, 12-305, 14-172, 15-895, 15-941, 15-1021, 15-1024, 15-1026, 17-280
Okano, T. 10-1916, 11-48, 15-369, 16-295
Okano, V. **16-**817
Okarma, P.J. 4-450
Okawara, M. 10-1297, 19-280, 19-401
Okazaki, H. 15-690, 15-895
Okazaki, M. 2-273, 18-568
Okazaki, N. 11-423
Okazaki, R. **16-**112, **16-**126
Okazoe, T. 16-389, 16-800
Okhlobystin, O.Yu. **5-**257, **10-**705, **11-**95. **12-**483
Ōki, M. 3-36
Ōki, M. 4-49, 4-53, 4-216, 4-218, **4-**262. 4-318, 4-389, 4-438, 4-440, 6-55, 9-12
Okimoto, M. 16-824
Okraglik, R. 18-570
Oku, A. 12-261
Oku, M. 2-212
Okubo, K. 12-521
Ōkubo, M. 12-594, 16-416
Okuda, F. 10-947, 13-160
Okuda, T. **15-**1267, 19-304
Okuhara, K. 16-423
Okukado, N. 10-1593, 13-213
Okulova, V.F. **4-**117
Okuma, K. 14-296
Okumoto, H. 14-428, 16-83, 16-934
Okumura, A. 11-423
Okuno, H. 18-193
Okura, I. **15-**517
Okuro, K. 10-1921,15-765,15-781
Okusako, Y **10-**134
Okuyama, K. 19-703
Okuyama, T. 10-547, 10-551, 15-105, 15-938
Okwuiwe, R. 10-2031
Olagbemiro, T.O. 10-623
Olah, G.A. 2-137, 2-166, 2-290, 5-2, 5-5. **5-**11, 5-12, 5-13, 5-14, 5-15, 5-16, 5-19, 5-20. 5-21, 5-26, 5-27, 5-28, **5-**31, 5-34, 5-36, 5-42. 5-44, 5-47, 5-50, 5-51, 5-53, 5-54, 5-56, 5-65, 5-67, 5-73, 5-74, 5-79, 5-80, 5-81, 5-34, 5-50, 8-8, 8-15, 10-11, 10-32, 10-99, 10-100, 10-101,

Olah, G.A. *(Continued)*
10-103, 10-120, 10-145, 10-146, 10-147, 10-148, 10-152, **10**-153, **10**-162, 10-167, 10-168, 10-171, 10-172, 10-180, 10-185, 10-161, **10**-361, 10-367, 10-370, 10-378, 10-501, 10-508, 10-537, 10-572, 10-639, 10-676, 10-753, **10**-1160, **10**-1161, **10**-1162, **10**-1164, 10-1188, 10-1190, 10-1199, 10-1219, 10-1220, 10-1221, 10-1222, 10-1240, 10-1242, 10-1243, 10-1277, 10-1476, 10-1984, 10-2016, 10-1968, 11-3, 11-13, 11-14, 11-15, 11-22, **11**-23, **11**-24, **11**-26, **11**-44, **11**-65, **11**-85, **11**-87, 11-93, **11**-113, **11**-116, 11-120, **11**-131, **11**-159, 11-207, 11-240, 11-242, 11-243, 11-247, 11-248, 11-256, 11-258, 11-265, 11-288, 11-312, 11-313, 11-315, 11-336, 11-339, 11-343, 11-369, 11-371, 11-388, 11-394, **11**-451, **11**-458, 11-460, **11**-489, **11**-492, **12**-47, 12-49, 12-127, **12**-218, **12**-219, **12**-366, 14-130, 14-284, 14-290, 14-441, 15-7, 15-71, 15-153, **15**-186, 15-202, 15-878, 15-955, 15-959, 16-38, 16-52, 16-54, 16-95, 16-222, 16-244, 16-249, 16-306, 16-515, 16-760, 16-866, 16-873, 17-155, 17-378, 18-7, 18-70, 18-102, 18-276, **18**-310, **18**-613, **19**-49, **19**-354, **19**-387, 19-425, 19-527, 19-531, 19-658, 19-668, 19-768

Olah, J.A. 5-11, 5-20, 5-26, 10-361, **10**-1162, 10-1220, 11-65, **11**-85, **11**-343, **11**-489, 11-492, 12-218, 15-153, 18-7

Oldenziel, O.H. 16-674, 16-675, 19-238

Olejnik, Z. 3-10

Olekhnovich, L.P. 18-706

Olesker, A. **4**-171

Oliva, A. 15-1212, 16-603

Olivella, S. 15-1245

Oliver. J.E. 16-413

Oliver, J.P. 5-129

Oliver, P.A. 15-1037

Oliver. S.S. 10-127

Oliver. T.F. 14-271

Oliver. W.H. 15-82

Olivero, A. 15-1494

Olivero, S. 10-1337, 15-839

Olivieri, A.C. 2-336

Olivo, H.F. 15-1030

Olivucci, M. 15-1257

Öiler, M. 17-206

Ollis, W.D. **2**-281, **18**-318, **18**-319, **18**-321, 18-591, 18-593, 19-383

Ollivier, J. 10-1299,12-318

Olmstead, H.D. 10-1772, 10-1775, 12-296, 16-578

Olmstead, M.M. 2-300, 5-97, 8-51, 10-329, 10-346

Olofson, R.A. 10-1229, **11**-375, 16-768

Olomucki, M. 10-1084

OlRaabe, G. 16-470

Olsen, A.R. 10-2

Olsen, F.P. **8**-109

Olsen, R.K. 10-1785, 16-87, 18-327

Olsen, R.S. 16-697

Olson, A.H. 18-96

Olson, J.M. 15-133

Olson, L.P. 18-488, 18-490

Olsson, K. 10-1795

Olsson, L. 10-1272, 10-1663

Olsson, L.F. 15-251

Olsson, T. 15-720

Olszowy, H.A. 4-278, 12-13

Oltay, E. 15-800

Ölund, J. 10-1282

Ölwegård, M. 17-48, 17-144

Omae, I. 3-59

Omata, T. 4-134

Omkaram, N. 4-115

Omura, H. 12-395,13-213

Omura, K. 19-102, 19-103

Ona, H. 2-179

Onaka, M. **11**-201, **15**-1236

Onami, T. 12-177

Onan, K.D. 15-778

Ong, B.S. 15-1049

Onishi, H. **15**-819

Onishi, T. 19-361

Onistschenko, A. 10-1686

Ono, A. 10-1277, 19-529, 19-604, 19-608

Ono, M. 11-188

Ono, N. 10-779, 10-856, 10-1387, 10-1389, 10-1395, 10-1718, 10-1722, 10-1723, 13-153, 15-1195, 17-67, 17-95, 17-111, 17-136

Onoe, A. 15-895

Onopchenko, A. 19-253

Onoue, H. 14-293, 19-246

Onsager, O. 10-1471,15-504,15-516

Onuki, H. 15-148

Onuma, K. 10-1508

Onyiriuka, S.O. 11-124

Ooi, T. 15-547, 18-124, 18-126

Ookawa, A. 10-1075, 19-586

Oomkes, P.G. 16-677

Ooms, P.H.J. 16-124

Oosterbeek, W. 9-64

Oosterhoff, L.J. 4-227, 15-1257

Oosterwijk, R. 16-675

Oota, O. 16-652

Opgenorth, H. 14-426
Opitz, G. 10-2034, 10-2035, 15-1310, 16-903, 16-926, 17-259
Oppenheimer, E. **14-**516, **14-**519
Oppenlaender, T. **4-**118
Oppenländer, T. 7-37, 7-46, 18-392
Oppolzer, W. **4-**111, 12-181, 12-448, 15-539, 15-542, 15-618, 15-1171, 15-1187, 15-1202, 15-1207, 15-1209, 15-1239, 15-1349, 16-601, 16-890
Or, A. 15-895
Or, Y.S. 4-376
Orahovats, A. 17-15
Orange, C. 10-778
Orban, J. 12-311
Orchin, M. 2-38, 7-10, 15-799, 15-1397, 19-17
Ordoñez, M. 18-197
Orena, M. 15-902, 19-62 , 19-66
Orendt, A.M. 2-178
Orere, D.M. 16-35, 16-824
Orfanopoulos, M. 10-1308, 14-247, 14-248, 14-250, 14-251, 14-254, 16-846, 19-531
Orfanos, V. **2-**143
Organopoulos, M. 15-1079
Oritani, T. 10-206, 18-258
Orito, K. 19-47
Oriyama, T. 10-1278
Orizu, C. **16-**813a, 16-814
Orlović, M. 10-115
Ormiston, R.A. 2-70
Ornstein, P.L. 10-525
Orpen, A.G. 1-52, 2-29, 4-203, 8-157
Orr, B.J. 4-230
Orr, G. 13-37
Orr, G.W. 3-48
Orsky, A.R. 8-130
Ortaggi, G. 19-38
Ortar, G. 10-1915, 13-150, 13-208
Ortega, F. 10-218, 13-16
Ortiz, M. 16-100
Ortiz-Marciales, M. 17-367
Ortoleva, E. 2-267
Ortuño, R.M. 15-1212,15-1253
Orvedal, A.W. 2-204, 15-1486
Orville-Thomas, W.J. 3-30, 4-232
Orwig, B.A. 19-494
Orzech Jr., C.E. 18-21,18-23
Osa, T. 19-386
Osakada, K. 19-574
Osaki, M. 15-601
Osako, K. 10-1041
Osanai, Y. 12-520
Osawa, E. 4-225, 4-326, 18-99, 18-100
Osawa, S. 19-574
Osborn, C.L. 15-1317
Osborn, J.A. 15-278, 15-330, 15-1366, 16-801, 16-802, 18-650
Osborne, R. **10-**512
Osby, J.O. 10-1079, 15-275, 15-389, 19-604
Oshima, K. 10-909, 10-1369, 10-1457, 10-1604, 10-1609, 10-1648, 10-1680, 10-1800, 12-177, 15-615, 15-635, 15-818, 15-974, **15-**975, 15-977, **15-**1110, **15-**1111, 15-1118,16-389, 6-0446, 16-575, 16-686, 16-800, 19-84, 19-86
Oshima, M. 10-1359
Oshisi, T. 11-251
Oshima, T. **4-**134
Oshry, L. **12-**515
Osipov, O.A. **8-**128
Osman, M.A. 10-767
Osokin, Yu.G. 4-430
Osowska-Pacewicka, K. **10-**951, **15-**1120, **19-**179, 19-643
Ostercamp, D.L. 16-150
Osterhout, M.H. 16-350
Ostermann, G. **18-**317, **18-**319, 18-322, 18-328, 18-329
Ostermayer, F. 17-343
Ostrogovich, G. 16-884
Ostrovskii, V.A. 18-251, 18-263
Osuka, A. 10-1391, **13-**105, 13-189, **19-**658, 19-761
Oswald, A.A. 15-108, 15-229, 19-443
Oswald, J. 12-479
Ota, H. 15-1056
Ota, K. 11-349
Otani, N. 17-405
Otani, S. 10-1035,10-1037,13-16
Otera, J. 10-748, 10-750, 10-753, 10-787, 10-803, 10-877, 15-690, **16-**76, **16-**618, 16-641, 16-808, 18-601, 19-361
Oth, J.F.M. 2-138, 2-226, 2-239, 2-242, 2-246, 2-262, 2-263, 2-267, **2-**271, 2-274, 4-373, 15-1377, 15-1463, 18-415, 18-519, 18-520, 18-522
Otonnaa, D. 15-998
Otroshchenko, O.S. 13-214
Otsubo, K. 10-1357
Otsubo, T. 2-243
Otsuji, Y. 5-241, 10-1630, 10-1890
Otsuka, H. 3-99, 10-1476, **13-**221
Otsuka, M. 10-570
Otsuka, S. 4-111,12-72
Ott, J. 16-75
Ott, K.C. 18-650

Ott, K.H. 18-501
Ott, W. 18-513
Ottenbrite, R.M. **15-**1194, 15-1214, 17-131
Ottenheym, J.H. 8-24
Otterbach, A. 4-377
Otteson, D. 15-1256
Otto, C. 15-1228
Otto, P. 15-1305,15-1324,15-1333
Otto, S. 15-1229, 15-1234, 15-1228, 19-361
Ottolina, G. 19-457
Otvos, J.W. 15-318
Ouchi. A. 10-1478
Oudenes, J. 10-1768,16-575
Ouellette, R.J. **10-**151
Ouimet, N. 12-244
Oulevey, G. 11-307
Oullette, R.J. 15-164
Ounsworth, J.P. 4-318,4-320
Ourisson, G. 10-188,18-81
Oussaid, A. **10-**1168, 19-290
Outram, J.R. 12-578
Ovaska, T.V. 15-621, 15-622, 15-624, 19-580
0verås, A.T. 4-322
Overberger, C.G. 15-1441,18-482
Overchuk, N.A. 11-65, 11-458
Overman, J.D. 19-696
Overman, L.E. **10-**1772, 14-367, **15-**1194, 15-1205, 18-505, 18-570, 19-696
Overton, K. 19-146
Overton, K.H. 10-206, 12-33
Owczarczyk, Z. 13-243
Owen, N.L. 4-245
Owen, W.S. 12-224
Owens, K.A. **18-**515
Owens, P.H. 8-59
Owens, P.J. 10-1414, **14-**481
Owens, W.H. 10-1437
Owsley, D.C. 19-747, 19-757
Owton, M.W. 15-1141
Owton, W.M. 15-1103
Owuor, P.O. 15-62
Oxley, P.W. **19-**617
Oya, S. 16-935
Oyamada, H. 16-628, 19-586
Ozaki, A. 14-343
Ozaki, E. **13-**172
Ozaki, F. 10-741
Ozaki, K. 15-298
Ozaki, N. 15-656
Ozaki, S. **10-**987, **15-**839
Ozaki, Y. 5-306
Ozanne, N. 16-693
Ozawa, F. 10-1929, 10-1930, 10-1932, 12-554, 13-163
Ozawa, K. 11-376
Ozawa, M. 10-1461
Ozawa, S. 14-203
Ozawa, T. **15-**113
Ozawa, Y. 11-461
Ozbalik, N. 14-466
Ozbalik, N. 19-308, 19-309, **19-**310
Ozier, I 1-39
Ozorio, A.A. 10-1765
Ozretich, T.M. 15-1326

Paatz, R. 10-1904
Pabon, H.J.J. 10-1741
Pac, C. 15-1358
Pacansky, J. 2-173, 13-37, 16-925
Pace, E.D. 19-686
Pacifici, J.G. 18-170
Packer, J. 8-30
Packer, J.E. 13-263
Paczkowski, M.A. 7-32
Paddon-Row, M.N. 5-227, 16-595, 19-58
Padegimas, S.J. 11-169
Padias, A.B. 15-1253
Padilla, A.J. 18-495
Padiya, K.J. 10-1274
Padmakumar, R. **15-**568, **15-**1140, **16-**261, **16-**486
Padmanabhan, S. 19-658
Padmapriya, A.A. 10-2044
Padmukumar, R. 11-295
Padwa, A. 2-66, 12-239, **15-**1153, **15-**1156, 15-1293, 15-1317, 18-477, 18-515
Paetzold, P.I. 18-350
Pagani, G. **2-**115
Pagani, G.A. 5-99
Pagano, A.S. 15-1033
Pagano, S. 18-639
Page, I.D. 10-392
Page, M.I. 10-89, **10-**236, **11-**145
Page, P.C.B. 10-1785, **15-**707, **15-**1076, 16-382, 16-806
Pagenkopf, B.L. 15-1476
Paget, W.E. 12-355
Pagington, J.S. 3-140
Pagni, R.M. 5-2, 10-874, 10-1237, 11-229, **15-**899, **15-**1238, 16-63
Pagnoni, U.M. **12-**107, **12-**108, **12-**112, 15-889, 15-940
Pai, C.-C. 15-789
Pai, C.K. 15-1231
Pai, F. 16-329
Pai, G.G. 15-460

Paiaro, G. 4-73, 4-74
Paige, J.N. 17-299
Paik, C.H. 10-46, 10-59, 14-414
Paike, N. 5-310
Pain, G.N. 12-522
Paine, A.J. 13-127, 13-156, 17-418
Painter, M.K. 19-216
Paisley, S.D. 10-1647
Pak, C.S. 16-318, 17-446
Paknikar, S.K. 10-478
Pakrashi, S.C. 19-555
Pakusch, J. 18-335
Pal, M. 10-1858, 14-363
Palacios, F. 16-211
Palacios, J.C. 8-101
Palacios, S.M. 10-75, 13-40, 13-50, 13-53
Palani, N. 18-470
Palano, D. **10-771**
Pale-Grosdemange, C. 10-1017
Palenik, G.J. 13-7
Palermo, R.E. 15-990, **15-1110**
Paleta, O. 15-973
Paley, B.A. 12-350
Paley, R.S. 10-1492
Palit, S.K. 10-474
Palit, S.R. 3-44
Palke, W.E. 1-6, 4-330
Palkowitz, A.D. 16-464
Pallan, P.S. 10-1150
Palm, D. 6-58
Palm, V.A. 10-427
Palma, P. 17-364
Palmer, B.W. 18-306
Palmer, D.A. 17-70
Palmer, H.B. 1-89
Palmer, J.D. 18-34
Palmer, K.W. 4-57
Palmer, M.H. 15-216
Palmere, R.M. 18-281
Palmieri, G. 15-697, 15-739
Palmieri, P. 18-70
Palomo, C. 10-736, 10-1193, 10-1362, 16-175, 16-231, 16-488, 17-364
Palovich, M.R. 16-440
Palrisi, M.F. 4-81
Paluchowska, M.H. 10-1091
Palucki, M. 13-87, 15-1069, 19-457
Palumbo, G. 10-1202, 16-75, 17-288
Palumbo, PS. 17-306
Palumbo, R. 4-74
Pamment, M.G. 19-326
Pan, H.-Q. 15-828
Pan, S.-F. 15-355, 15-377
Pan, W. 5-284
Pan, X. 19-604
Pan, X.-W. **19-618**
Pan, Y. 10-158, 19-41
Panaye, A. 9-74
Panda, A.K. 19-465
Panda, G. 2-299
Panda, M. 15-178
Pandell, A.J. 14-168
Pandey, B. 15-1219
Pandey, G. **10-1467, 15-832**
Pandhi, S.B. 16-924
Pandiarajan, K. 10-815
Pandiarajan, P.K. 16-576
Pandit, U.K. 10-236, 15-1218
Panek, E.J. 14-456
Panek, J.S. 16-807
Panetta, J.A. 16-176
Pankayatselvan, R. 10-1224
Pánková, M. 17-15, 17-24, 17-26, 17-31, 17-94, 17-209
Pankratov, V.A. 16-879
Pankratova, K.G. 18-28
Pannell, D.K. 5-169
Panov, V.B. 11-95
Panova, Y.B. 18-11
Panshin, S.Y. 4-393
Panteleeva, I.Yu. 16-243
Panunzi, A. 4-74
Panyachotipun, C. 10-167
Panzeri, A. 10-1221
Paolucci, C. 4-401,18-591
Paolucci, G. 10-1450, 16-824
Papa, I. 10-69
Papa, R. 10-151
Papadopoulos, M. 15-1251, 16-843
Papageorgiou, G. 16-192
Papahatjis, D. 16-313
Papaioannou, C.G. 6-75
Papay, J.J. 10-117
Pape, M. 12-166
Pape, P.G. 10-1270
Papoula, M.T.B. 13-199
Pappalardo, J.A. 10-912, 16-179, 16-514
Pappalardo, S. 3-104, 4-81
Pappas, B.C. 15-1348
Pappas, J.J. 19-190
Pappas, S.P. 15-1348, 18-414
Pappo, R. 15-559, 19-233
Paquer, D. 16-525, 16-902, 18-579
Paquette, L.A. 2-137, 2-138, 2-198, 2-200, 2-212, 2-289, 2-290, 2-292, 4-75, 4-77, 4-156, 4-160, 4-263, 4-375, 5-74, 10-132, 10-203,

Paquette, L.A. *(Continued)*
10-268, 10-2057, 10-1640, 12-153, 12-244, 12-528, 12-546, 12-547, 14-254, 15-1094, **15-**1185, **15-**1186, **15-**1193, 15-1200, 15-1202, 15-1266, 15-1267, 15-1340, 16-382, 16-451, 17-300, **17-**302, **17-**436, **18-**89, **18-**111, **18-**494, 18-495, 18-497, 18-508, 18-519, 18-521, 18-523, 18-651, 18-654, 18-656, 18-658, 18-659, 18-665, 18-668, 19-49, 19-184
Paradisi, C. 10-48
Paradkar, V.M. 10-1082
Parady, T.E. 17-300
Paraskewas, S. 16-65
Parcell, R.F. 18-222
Parchment, O.G. 2-348
Pardini, V.L. 19-490
Pardo, C. 10-1133
Pardo, S.N. 11-361
Parekh, S.I. 10-1323
Parfenova, M.N. 10-453
Parham, W.E. 12-243, 12-482, 15-1381, 18-428
Parikh, J.R. 19-101
Parini, V.P. 3-68
Paris, J. 17-319,17-331
Pariser, R. 2-9
Parish, E.J. 15-444
Parish. S. 15-444
Parisi, M.F. 3-104
Park, B. 10-86
Park, C. 14-160
Park, C.H. **3-**112, 4-201, 4-204, 14-226
Park, C.Y. 15-1016
Park, H. 15-521, 18-237
Park, H.G. 18-237
Park, H.S. 16-99, 16-349, 16-496
Park, J. 2-335
Park, J.C. 16-468
Park, J.H. 10-878,10-1195
Park, K.H. 18-611,18-614
Park, K.P. 10-245
Park, M. 18-237
Park, S. 10-1284
Park, S.Z. 12-173
Park, W. 10-657, 10-1999
Park, W.S. 10-74, **10-844,** 16-316
Park, Y. 4-143
Park, Y.C. 15-758
Park, Y.J. 10-614, 12-165
Park, YS. 16-524
Párkányi, C. 2-4
Parker, A.J. 8-198, 8-200, 10-325, 10-330, 10-399, 10-775, 13-57, 17-66, 17-68, 17-70, 17-75, 17-95, 17-96
Parker, D. 3-94, 4-93, 15-272, 16-286
Parker, D.G. 18-310
Parker, J.K. 4-136,4-237
Parker, K.A. 12-326
Parker, R.E. 10-479, 13-73
Parker, R.J. 3-24
Parker, S.R. 11-337
Parker, V.D. 5-260, 6-32, 18-552
Parker, W.L. 15-1471
Parks, C.R. 19-207
Parlanti, L. **19-**114, **19-**781
Parlman, R.M. 10-1386, 10-1885
Parmerter, S.M. 12-156
Parnes, Z.N. **2-**123, **10-**1260, **10-**1310, **10-**1589, 15-272, 15-337, **15-**361, **15-**496, **16-**93, 16-473, **19-**531, 19-532
Parola, A. **19-**716
Parquette, J.R. 19-35
Parr, J. 15-300
Parr, J.E. 10-1779
Parr, R.G. 2-9, 2-74, 2-84, 8-133, 11-81
Parratt, M.J. 4-28
Parrilli, M. 15-1005
Parrinello, G. 13-166, 15-797
Parris, G. 5-142, 5-150, 5-152
Parrish, D.R. 15-593, 16-620
Parrott, M.J. 14-1
Parrott, S.J. 16-847
Parry III, F.H. 15-1321
Parry, K.A.W. 18-137
Pars, H.G. 12-578
Parshall, G.W. 11-110,16-791
Parsonage, N.G. 3-80
Parsons Jr., G.H. 19-716
Parsons, A.F. 15-847, **15-**1152, 19-692
Parsons, J.A. 15-344
Parsons, J.L. 15-280, 15-373
Partch, R. 14-220
Partington, S.M. 12-526
Prvulescu, L. 15-1318
Paryzek, Z. 19-209
Parziale, P.A. 18-456
Pascal Jr., R.A. 2-58, 2-60, 2-61, 2-78
Pascal, R. 16-69
Pascal, R.A. 6-65
Pascali, V. 16-390, 6-0391
Pascard, C. 3-151, 4-203
Paschal, J.W. 16-770
Paschalis, P. 15-178
Paschmann, V. 18-516
Pascone, J.M. 10-280
Pashinnik, V.E. **10-**1245
Pasquato, L. **15-**1186

Pasquet, M.J. 13-259
Pasquier, M.L. 4-170
Passacantilli, P. 19-585
Passarotti, C. 15-335
Pasta, P. 19-457
Pasteris, R.J. 18-674
Pasto, D.J. 5-210, 5-213, 5-252, 10-1613, 10-1614, 10-1774, 10-1847, 15-4, 15-30, 15-104, 15-109, **15-**110, 15-341, 15-345, 15-478, 15-1327, 18-394, 18-444
Pastor, S.D. 16-660
Pastori, N. 16-72
Pastukhova, I.V. 18-352
Pastushok, V.N. 10-453
Patai, S. 1-9, 2-36, 4-184, 10-1, 10-921, 12-1, 12-557, 12-563, 15-36, 15-37, 5-0076, 15-78, 15-830, 15-1053, 16-365, **16-**662, **17-**45, 18-91, 18-604
Patat, F. 10-360
Patchornik, A. 10-1027, **11-**411
Patel, B.A. 14-356
Patel, B.P. 10-95
Patel, J.J.B. 19-627
Patel, K.M. 18-163
Patel, M. 15-1255
Patel, P.K. 10-792
Patel, R.C. 6-42, 6-48, 6-51, 6-52, 10-1226
Patel, S.V. 13-163
Patel, V. 12-504
Pater, R.H. 15-1086
Paterson, E.S. 10-1678, 12-324, 12-343, 15-609, 16-3
Paterson, I. 10-1747, 16-592, 16-603, 16-609
Pathiaseril, A. 4-334, 4-335
Pati, S.C. 19-330
Patil, G. 16-822
Patil, G.S. 10-86
Patil, S.R. 15-1026
Patil, V.D. 15-445
Patil, V.J. 16-743
Patinkin, S.H. 11-240
Patiño, R. 19-53
Paton, R.M. 15-1153
Patra, P.K. 11-246
Patricia, J.J. 12-492, 12-493, 12-494, 15-620, 15-621, 15-622
Patrick, D.W. 17-236
Patrick, J.B. 19-563
Patrick, T.B. 11-235, 14-96, 14-327, 14-506, 15-1375
Patrie, W.J. 19-88
Patro, B. 11-246
Patsch, M. 18-317, 18-319, 18-322, 18-429
Pattenden, G. 10-791, **11-**119, **15-**511, 15-855, 16-694
Patterson Jr., D.G. 4-335
Patterson, D. 10-2038
Patterson, D.B. 15-132
Patterson, J.M. 19-415
Patterson, S. 19-717
Patterson, W.I. 4-51
Pattison, F.L.M. 15-877
Pattison, J.B. 10-1147
Pattison, V. 18-344
Pattison, V.A. **18-**341
Patton, D.S. 10-1271
Patwardhan, B.H. 15-20,15-1137
Patz, M. 16-594
Pau, C. 8-193
Pau, C.F. 15-1194
Pauer, F. 5-157
Paugam, J.P. **10-**1172, 15-1390
Paugam, R. 15-1270
Paukstelis, J.V. 4-197, 10-1233, 16-161, 16-346
Paul, D.B. 10-1095, 15-268, 15-956
Paul, D.F. 11-219
Paul, I.C. 2-215, 2-226, 2-272, 4-149, 4-154
Paul, K. 17-438, 17-440
Paul, N.C. 10-836
Paul, R. **15-**275
Paul, V. 11-191, 11-197, 11-295
Pauling, L. 1-6, 1-23, 5-234
Paull, E.W. 14-219
Paulmier, C. 12-193, 17-236
Paulsen, H. 10-984
Paulson, J.F. 10-337
Paulson, K.L. 16-519
Pauluth, D. 12-78
Pauson, PL. 2-0131,15-1472
Paust, J. 10-312
Pautex, N. 19-24
Paventi, M. 11-215, 11-216
Pavlenko, N.V. 16-341
Pavlides, V.H. 18-235
Pavlis, R.R. 14-29, 15-869, 18-77
Pavlov, S. 10-1971
Pavlova, L.A. 10-502
Pavlova, N.N. **10-**873
Pawar, D.M. 4-321
Pawełka, Z. 3-10
Payne, D. 4-447
Payne, D.A. **12-**110
Payne, G.B. 10-695, 15-1052
Payne, M.T. 15-4
Payne, N.C. 10-287
Payzant, J.D. 10-329

Pazhenchevsky, B. 10-1082
Pazos, J.F. 18-170
Pchelka, B.K. 18-296
Peach, M.E. 10-853, 13-100
Peachey, S.J. 4-26
Peacock, J.L. 15-857
Peacock, S.C. 4-132
Peagram, M.J. 17-280
Pearce, G.T. 4-95
Pearson, A.J. 3-60, 19-293
Pearson, D.E. 9-36, 10-1227, 11-42, 11-190, 11-203, 11-297, 12-446
Pearson, D.P.J. 4-134
Pearson, M.M. 12-244
Pearson, R. 14-14, 14-142, 14-143
Pearson, R.G. 6-6, 6-52, 8-41, 8-128, 8-129, 8-130, 8-132, 8-177, 10-331, 10-340, **10-**385, 10-1539, 15-1256,15-1257
Pearson, S.C. 17-384
Pearson, W.H. 12-380, 12-437
Pease, J.E. 16-383
Pecchi. S. 17-172
Pecher, J. **15-**1113, **16-**329
Pechet, M.M. 12-602, 14-100, 14-101, 15-882, 18-683, 18-685
Pechhold, E. 5-154
Pecoraro, J.M. 10-78
Peddada, L. 18-296
Pedersen, B.S. 16-116
Pedersen, C.J. 3-76, 3-78
Pedersen, J.A. 10-77
Pedersen, K.J. 12-513
Pedersen, K.J. 16-79
Pedersen, PR. 16-79
Pedersen, S.F. **15-**1066, **19-**707, **19-**709, **19-**710, **19-**711, 19-727
Pedersen, U. 10-1018
Pedersen, U.S. 16-118
Pedireddi, V.R. 8-11
Pedley, M.D. 8-159
Pedoussaut, M. 10-583, 10-1866
Pedragosa-Moreau, S. 10-556
Pedregal, C. 19-562
Pedrielli, P. 1-0100
Pedrini, P. 19-116
Pedro, J.R. 10-574
Pedrosa, R. 16-502
Pedulli, G.F. 1-0100, 15-484, **18-**70
Pee, N.P. 12-155
Peel, J.B. 2-340
Peel, T.E. 8-15
Peeling, E.R.A. 11-135
Peeling, J. 3-44
Peerdeman, A.F. 4-86
Pees, K.J. 15-694
Peet, N.P. 10-1990
Peeters, H. 2-233
Peeters, H.L. 10-63
Pegg, G.G. 18-456
Pegg, N.A. 18-497
Pegolotti, J.A. 10-207
Pei, J. 15-1233, 16-626
Peiffer, G. 14-139, 15-291
Peiris, S. 5-110
Pel'kis, PS. 10-1121
Peled, P. 10-241
Pellacani, L. **15-**1124, **15-**1125
Pellerite, M.J. 8-14, 10-19, 10-345
Pellet, M. **10-**519, 10-1966
Pelletier, J.D. 10-1155
Pelletier, W.M 10-472
Pellicone, J.T. 16-176
Pellón, R.F. 13-125
Pelter, A. 4-70, 10-1023, 10-1803, 10-1844, 12-212, 12-319, 12-337, 14-451, 14-455, **15-**425, **15-**468, **15-**725, **16-**453, **16-**575,**16-**592, 18-350, 18-357, 18-358, 18-359, 18-362, 18-365, 18-387, 18-389, 19-499, 19-503, 19-510, 19-548
Peltzer III, E.T. 17-318
Peña, M.E. 11-125, 12-162, 12-573
Peña, M.R. 14-356
Peña-Cabrera, E. 14-372
Penalva, V. 10-1569
Penco, S. 13-150
Pendalwar, S.L. 15-336
Penenory, A. **5-**204, **5-**212
Peñéñory, A.B. 10-857
Penmasta, R. 10-34, **14-**181, **14-**184, 19-239, 19-481
Penn, J.H. 10-1437
Pennella, F. **18-**644
Penner, G.H. 3-44, 15-1205
Penner-Hahn, J.E. 10-1540
Pennetreau, P. 11-124
Penninger, J.L.M. 15-800
Pennington, L. 18-235
Pensak, D. 14-17
Penso, M. 10-1275, 19-683
Penton Jr., H.R. 10-951
Penton, J.R. 11-30, 11-37, 11-46, **11-**113, 11-148, 11-149
Penzien, K. **4-**115
Peoples, PR. 5-118
Pepermans, H. 15-1470
Percač, K. 10-100

Perchinunno, M. 14-402
Perchonock, C. 2-194
Percy, J.M. **4-136**, **4-237**
Perdih, M. 4-90
Perdoncin, G. **16-291**
Perelman, M. 16-926
Perepelkova, T.I. 3-1
Peres, Y. 15-786
Perevalova, E.G. 2-131
Pereyre, M. 12-13
Perez, D. 15-376
Perez, F. 14-212
Pérez, J.A. 15-1131
Pérez, J.M. 15-1281
Perez-Benito, J.F. 15-1000
Pérez-Bianco, D. **16-707**
Pérez-Encabo, A. 16-502
Pérez-Flores, J. 18-197
Perez-Prieto, J. 15-260
Perez-Rubalcaba, A. 16-413
Pérez-Torrente, J.J. 4-56
Periasamy, M. 10-162, **10-942**, **10-1921**, 12-392, 14-457, 15-478, 15-644, 15-776, 18-365, 19-349, 19-556
Periasamy, M.P 10-977, 16-936
Pericás, M.A. 2-286, 15-1319, 17-355
Perichon, J. 13-227, 13-181, 13-210, 10-1477, 10-1518, 10-1581, 10-1891, 10-1921, 15-597, 15-775
Périé, J.J. 15-236, 15-250
Peringer, P 10-1107
Perinis, M. 10-156
Pério, B. 16-73
Perjéssy, A. 2-353
Perkampus, H. 11-4
Perkins, M.J. **4-198**, 5-100, 5-181, 14-18, 14-20, 14-328, 14-333, 14-384, 14-385, 15-49, 15-1379, 18-152, 19-310
Perkins, N.A, 11-273
Perlberger, J. 19-119
Perlin, A.S. 19-164
Perlmutter, P. 15-210, 15-787, 15-794, 15-809, 15-812, 16-483
Perlmutter-Hayman, B. 4-154
Perraud, R. 16-422
Perret, R. **10-1961**
Perreten, J. 18-672
Perrin, C.L. 3-23, 4-305, 4-306, 8-24, 10-232, 11-25, 11-49, 11-94, 11-97, 11-99, 15-1257
Perrin, D.D. 8-18,8-45,8-137,8-145
Perrio, S. 18-579
Perriot, P 18-196
Perron, R. 10-444
Perrot, M. 10-1419, 10-1423
Perry, D.A. 16-113
Perry, N.B. 18-22, 18-94
Perry, R.A. 12-504
Perry, S.S. 2-178
Person, W.B. **3-56**, **3-75**, **4-316**
Persson, E.S.M. 10-1507,10-1648
Persson, I. 8-127
Persson, J. 10-914
Persson, P. 8-127
Perst, H. 10-95, 10-367, 10-814
Persy, G. 5-327, 07-20
Pertici, P 15-1011
Pertsikov, B.Z. 14-65
Perumal, P.T. 15-452, 15-1279, 18-267. 18-372
Perumal, S. 11-400
Perutz, R.N. **2-136**
Peruzzini, M. 15-220, 15-1469
Pervez, H. 11-124
Pesce, G. 10-886,10-1664
Pesce, L. 13-200
Pesce, M. 16-288
Pesiri, D.R. 15-1077
Petasis, N.A. 12-366, 16-792, 16-794, 16-795, 16-796, 16-797
Petch, W.A. 13-287
Pete, J. 10-730, **10-1366**
Pete, J.P. 16-9, 16-853
Pète, J. 17-225
Peter, D. 18-137
Peter, R. 10-1588, 16-382
Peter-Katalinić, J. 4-203
Peters, D. 2-152, 4-352, 15-510
Peters, D.A.V. 15-877
Peters, E.N. 5-81, 9-9, **10-114**, 10-178
Peters, G.A. 16-104
Peters, J.A. 10-1418
Peters, K. 2-201, 4-244, 5-198, **8-157**, 10-1759
Peters, K.S. 10-52, 16-915
Peters, N.K. 15-408
Petersen, B.L. 5-67
Petersen, C.J. 3-78
Petersen, H.E. 18-220
Petersen, J.M. 18-225
Petersen, J.S. 4-120, 15-, 16-608
Petersen, M.R. 18-560
Petersen, N.O. 10-734
Petersen, W.C. 19-613
Peterson , J.R. 4-77
Peterson Jr., M.R. 1-48
Peterson, B. 17-184
Peterson, D. 10-1675
Peterson, D.J. 12-437, 12-458, 16-684

Peterson, G.A. 13-150
Peterson, H.J. 5-61, 8-103, 15-500
Peterson, J.O. 16-274
Peterson, J.R. 2-292, 15-1025, **15**-1122, 19-487
Peterson, K.B. 15-1245, 15-265
Peterson, K.P. 15-763
Peterson, M.A. 4-329
Peterson, M.L. 14-490
Peterson, P.E. 5-19, 10-97, 10-98, 10-100, 10-117, 10-370, 15-15, 15-214, 18-213
Peterson. R.T. 15-577
Pethrick, R.A. 4-227
Petiniot. N. 10-669
Petit, A. 10-723, 10-762, 10-778, 16-175
Petit, F. 15-291, 15-520, 15-797, 19-738
Petit, J. 10-46
Petit, M. 19-738
Petit, Y. 10-1675, 15-707, 18-573
Petnecházy, I. **10**-1019
Petneházy, I. 17-406
Peto, A.G. 11-288, 11-303
Petragnani, N. 10-1737, 12-194
Petrarca, A.E. 19-631
Petrašinas, G.L.R. 16-126
Pétrier, C. 12-477, 15-701, 16-368, 16-436
Petrillo, G. 8-143, 17-54
Petringa, A. 3-104
Petrini, M. 10-738, 10-908, **10**-1407, **16**-31, 16-377, 19-373, 19-604
Petro, C. 5-65, 10-39, 10-158, 10-164
Petrosyan, V.E. 5-293
Petrosyan, VS. 12-46
Petrov, A.A. 15-59, 15-80, 15-194, 15-946, 15-968, 15-1153, 16-750
Petrov, A.D. 10-1973
Petrov, E.S. 8-137, 15-739
Petrov, M.L. 15-1153
Petrovich, J.P. 19-719
Petrzilka, M. **15**-1188, 18-560
Pettcrson, R.C. 10-1089, 18-81, 18-668, **18**-681
Pettersson, C. 4-143
Pettersson, G. 4-143
Pettiette-Hall, C.L. 19-15
Pettit, G.H. 11-377
Pettit, G.R. 10-1398, 11-488, 14-471, 19-566, 19-568
Pettit, L.D. 3-59
Pettit, R. 2-105, 2-171, 2-186, 2-188, 2-288, **4**-374, **15**-1364, **18**-420, **18**-421, **18**-422, **18**-523
Pettit, R.J. 16-791
Pettitt, D.J. 17-298
Pettus, T. 15-1030
Petty, J.D. 10-466,10-1705
Petty, R. 1-41
Peverley, J. 15-607
Pevzner, M.S. 14-427
Pews, R.G. 4-356
Peyerimhoff, S.D. 7-15
Peyman, A. 5-198
Peynircioglu, N.B. 5-100
Peyrat, J.-F. 10-1135
Pfab, J. 12-578
Pfaltz, A. 4-121, 15-1409, 19-326
Pfau, M. 15-547, 15-579
Pfeffer, M. 10-925
Pfeffer, P.E. 10-765, 10-775, 10-1782, 10-2012, 14-289, 16-700
Pfeifer, W.D. 10-255
Pfeiffer, P. Z. 17-9
Pfennig, D.R. 10-1472
Pfenninger, A. 15-1061
Pfister, J.R 10-950, 18-241
Pfitzner, K.E. 19-98, 19-356
Pfohl, W.F. 10-1481
Pfordte, K. 14-305
Pfrengle, W. 16-940
Pfriem, S. 4-371, 17-430
Pfyffer, J. 15-1199
Pham, K.M. 16-168, **16**-182
Pham, T.N. 10-76, 10-80, 10-1284, 12-493, 12-494, 12-497, 18-579
Phanstiel IV, O. 18-468
Phanstiel, O. 18-428
Phelan, N.F. 2-38
Phelps, J.C. **15**-971
Phelps, M.E. 10-1139
Philip Jr., J.B. 14-516
Philip, H. 18-56
Philippi, K. 15-1038
Philips, J.C. **8**-49, **10**-268, **17**-312, **17**-313, **18**-89
Phillips, B. 15-1047
Phillips, B.A. 11-368
Phillips, B.T. 17-388
Phillips, C.J. 16-541
Phillips, D.D. 5-122
Phillips, D.R. 3-130
Phillips, G.W. 16-671
Phillips, H. 10-6, 10-7
Phillips, J.B. 2-228
Phillips, J.N. 5-38
Phillips, L. 4-235
Phillips, N.H. 12-495
Phillips, O.A. 15-149
Phillips, R. 11-78
Phillips, R.B. **18**-510
Phillips, R.E. 1-41

Phillips, R.R. 12-158
Phillips, W.G. **19-356, 19-357**
Phillips. N.H. 5-159
Philp, D. 3-149
Photis, J.M. 17-436
Pi, R. 12-297
Piacenti, F. **10-1906, 15-767, 15-786**
Piancatelli, G 19-781, **19-60, 19-114, 19-401, 19-404, 15-917**
Piantini, U. 16-463
Piatak, D.M. 11-488, 19-241
Piatelli, M. 3-97,3-100,3-101,3-104,4-81
Piccirilli, J.A. 4-208
Piccolo, **O. 10-1638, 11-280, 11-354**
Picher, M.T. 15-1201
Pick, R.M. 10-795
Pickard, P.L. **16-551**
Pickardt, J. 15-1298
Pickering, D. 5-124
Pickering, D.A. 11-257
Pickering, R.A. 10-829
Pickles, G.M. 13-80
Picq, D. 10-1130
Picquet, M. 18-636
Pidgeon, C. 10-854
Pielartzik, H. 4-408
Pielichowski, J. 10-637
Pienta, N. 10-164
Pienta, N.J. **5-65, 10-39**
Pierini, A.B. **10-75, 10-857, 13-40, 13-49, 13-180, 13-192**
Pierre, J. **4-202, 16-334, 16-422**
Pierre, J.-L. 19-79
Pierri, F. 14-23
Pierrot, M. 19-209
Piers, E. 10-1873, 12-421, 18-408
Pierson, C. 14-115
Pierson, G.O. 18-170
Pieter, R. 19-649
Pietra, F. 2-123, 2-127, **4-127, 13-10, 13-45**
Pietra, S. 13-60, **19-442, 19-659**
Pietrasanta, F. 10-159
Pietraszkiewicz, M. 3-76
Pietroni, B. 15-531,15-705
Pietroni, B.R. 11-245
Pietropaolo, R. 16-288
Pietsek, D.J.J. 17-71
Piette, L.H. 14-206, 15-57
Piettre. S. **15-1302, 15-1330**
Pigeon, P. 10-1131,17-249
Pigou, P.E. 10-33
Pihlaja, **K. 10-641, 10-685, 10-733, 10-824**
Pike, D.C. **10-217, 10-561**
Pikul, S. 4-110
Pikulin, S. **18-466, 18-467**
Pilard, S. 10-970
Pilati, T. 2-221, 2-229
Pilcher, G. **1-90, 1-91**
Pilichowska, S. 10-1085
Pilipauskas, D.R. 10-1229
Pilkiewicz, F.G. 15-1392
Pilkington, J.W. 18-35
Pillai, C.N. 15-609
Pillai, S. 10-927
Pillai, S.M. 15-515
Pillai, T.P. 12-579, 12-580
Pillai, V.N.R. 10-1027
Pilling, M.J. 5-254
Pilot, **J.F. 16-725, 16-767**
Pimentel, G.C. **3-1, 3-22,** 5-229, 5-230
Pincock, J.A. **15-4, 15-14, 15-15, 15-86, 17-425,** 17-427, 18-661
Pincock, R.E. **4-83, 4-154, 4-381, 5-233, 10-126, 10-129, 10-130, 10-131, 10-1483**
Pinder, A.R. **10-1248, 10-1257**
Pindun, U. 19-746
Pindur, U. **5-48, 10-500,** 15-1228
Pine, R.D. **16-791**
Pine, S.H. **13-276, 13-281, 13-283, 16-29, 16-180, 16-791, 16-793, 18-312, 18-315, 18-323**
Pinel, C. 10-647
Piñero, L. 17-367
Pines, H. 12-56, **12-64, 15-236, 15-250, 15-498, 15-499, 15-500, 15-514, 17-137, 17-162, 19-23,** 19-255
Pineschi, M. **10-881, 10-967, 10-973,** 10-1687
Pinetti, A. 12-108, **15-889, 15-940**
Ping, Y.Y. **16-521**
Pinhas, A.R. 18-422, 19-475
Pinhey, J.T. **11-508, 12-369, 13-197, 14-386**
Pinho e **Melo,** T.M.V.D. 15-1273
Pinho, P. **16-326**
Pini, D. 16-502
Pinkerton, A.A. 2-334
Pinkus, A.G. 12-120, 16-424
Pinnick, H.W. **10-283, 14-179, 14-212, 16-47,** 16-872
Pino, P. **15-288, 15-767, 15-786, 15-787, 15-796,** 15-797
Pinschmidt Jr., **R.K.** 15-1262,18-418
Pinson, J. 13-42, 13-98
Pinsonnault, J. 10-1747
Pinzani, D. 17-172
Pioch, R.P. 12-323
Piotrowska, H. **12-215, 14-291**
Piotrowski, A.M. 16-389

Piqué, C. 15-1409
Piqueur, J. 10-923
Piras, P.P. 10-1299
Pires, E. 15-1236
Pirkle, W.H. 4-138, 4-141, 4-143, 4-144, 4-164, **4-175**, **4-176**, **4-211**, 15-344
Pirogowa, G.N. 17-146
Pirozhkov, S.D. 10-1902, 15-767, 18-352
Pirrung, F.O.H. 15-633
Pirrung, M.C. 16-588
Pisanenko, D.A. 15-23
Pisano, D. 2-74
Pischel, U. 2-125
Píska1a, A. 16-768
Piskunova, Z. 10-262
Pistarà, V. **16-127**
Pistorius, R. **14-491**
Piszkiewicz, L. 14-42
Pitacco, G. **16-155**
Pitcher, R.G. 4-168
Piteau, M. 10-1229
Pitman, I.H. 12-599
Pitteloud, R. 18-560
Pittman Jr., C.U. 2-167, 5-2, 5-30, 5-33, 5-34, 5.44, 5-54, 10-103, 15-106
Pitts Jr., J.N. 7-1, **07-11**, **7-26**, 7-31, 7-36, 7-54, 19-715, 19-717
Pitts, M.R. 15-409, 19-597
Pitzer, K.S. 4-313
Pitzer, R.M. 4-228
Piveteau, E. 12-374
Pizey, J.S. 10-665, **10-1144**, 10-1249, 11-222, 11-320, 14-133, 15-274, 19-10, 19-150, 19-501
Pizzo, F. 15-1001, 15-1060
Pizzolatti, M.G. 12-590
Pizzotti, M. 12-613, 19-765
Plachky, M. 17-288
Plackett. J.D. 18-591
Planas, A. 18-153
Planinsek, Z. 19-384
Plankl, W. 12-543, 12-544
Plante, R. 11-448
Plaquevent , J. **4-111**
Plaquevent, J.C. 17-256
Plat, M. 10-1113
Plate, A.F. 18-474, 18-501
Plath, P. 18-19
Plato, M. 5-178
Platone, E. 11-206
Platz, M.S. 5-291, 5-300, **5-311**, 5-327
Plaut, H. 10-698
Plavsic, D. 2-80, 5-136
Plé, G. 4-68, 17-256
Pleiss, M.A. 10-1082
Plénat, F. 10-159
Plepys, R.A. 16-257
Pleskov, Y.V. 15-404
Plesničar, B. 15-1032, 15-1035, 18-294
Plessi, L. 15-993, 19-229
Plesske, K. 2-133
Pletcher, D. 19-69
Pletcher, W.A. 4-424
Plieninger, H. **15-1191**, **19-276**
Plinke, G. 2-246
Plourde, G.L. 15-1205
Plum, H. 15-1211
Plumb, J.B. 19-112
Plumeré, P. **4-134**
Plummer, B.F. 16-66
Plummer, E.L. 4-95
Plummer, M. 18-673
Plunian, B. **15-691**
Plusquellec, D. 10-807
Plzak, K. 5-124
Pobiner, H. 19-179
Pochapsky, T.C. 4-141, 4-143
Pochini, A. 11-360
Pöchlauer, P. **10-1107**
Pock, R. 15-28, 15-967, **15-1151**
Pocker, Y. 10-69, 12-289, 12-536, 15-29, 16-21, 18-122, 18-123
Podlogar, B.L. 4-335
Podoplelov, A.V. 10-1524
Podraza, K.F. **10-1769**
Poeth, T. 10-1489
Pogorelyi, V.K. 3-11,3-35
Pohl, D.G. 14-113,14-114,14-119
Pohmakotr, M. 14-177
Poignée, V. 4-398
Poindexter, M.K. 18-433
Poirier, D. 10-1155
Poirier, J. 10-1500, **11-124**, 12-307, 16-684
Poirier, R.A. 15-1206
Pojer, P.M. 10-1385, 15-274
Pokrovskaya, S.V. 16-827
Pola, J. 19-202, **19-219**
Polanyi, J .C. 6-12
Polanyi, M. 10-590, **15-321**
Poleshchuk, O.Kh. 3-56
Polezhaeva, N.A. 2-69, 15-1451
Poli, M. 10-465
Poli, S. 19-116
Polichnowski, S.W. 18-650
Poling, B. 15-1405
Polishchuk, O.P. 15-860
Politanskii, S.F. 10-1156

Politzer, I.R. **10-1820**, **10-1823**
Politzer, P. 2-33
Polivkova, J. 4-99
Polizzi, C. 15-255
Polk, D.E. 12-401
Polla, E. 10-115
Pollack, R.M. 5-98, **10-611**, 10-625, 12-58, 12-59, **12-81**
Pollart, D.F. 17-168
Pollart, K.A. 19-192
Polleux, P. 12-247
Pollicino, S. 4-401, 18-591
Pollini, G.P. 15-1301
Pollock, CM. 16-559
Pollock, L. **4-315**
Polston, N.L. 18-377
Polt, R.L. 12-285
Poltarzewski, Z. 16-288
Pomarès, O. 19-117
Pomerantz, M. 1-79
Pommelet, J. 17-314
Pommer, H. 16-722, 16-782
Pommier, J. 2-350
Pomponi, A.M. 10-971
Ponaras, A.A. 10-689
Ponde, D.E. 10-755
Ponec, R. **9-61**, **15-1257**, 19-200
Ponomarchuk, M.P. 10-1528, 19-336
Ponomarev, A.B. 13-166, 13-171, 13-213
Ponomareva, E.A. 10-21, 10-394
Pons, J. 19-708, 19-730
Pons, J.-F. 15-847
Ponsold, K. 9-43
Ponti, F. 19-66, 19-270
Ponticello, G.S. 4-171
Pook, L.M. 14-8
Poole Jr., C.P. 5-178
Poole, H.G. 11-134
Poon, C. 2-201
Poon, NX. 15-184, **15-211**, 16-99
Poon, Y.C. 1-11
Poonia, N.S. 3-76
Poonian, M.S. 18-39
Popa, C. 18-532
Popa, V. 3-59
Pope, W, J. 4-26
Popik, V.V. 10-2003
Pople, J.A. 1-52, 2-9, 2-14, 2-16, 2-167, 2-261, 2-305, 4-235
Popov, A.F. 10-262
Popov, E.M. 2-30, 2-34
Popov, S.I. 16-235
Popp, F.D. 10-1448
Poppinger, D. 5-22
Porai-Koshits, B.A. 11-437
Poranski Jr., C.F. 13-5
Pore, V.S. 15-894
Poretti, M. 15-319
Porri, L. 18-641
Porshnev, Yu.N. 2-147
Porta, F. 12-613, 19-765
Porta, O. 14-18, 14-62, 14-396, **14-399**, 16-9, 16-72, 19-708, 19-711, 19-713
Portella, C. 16-9, 16-853
Porter, C.R. 18-150
Porter, G. **19-718**
Porter, G.B. 7-11
Porter, H.K. 19-603
Porter, H.Q. **1-13**
Porter, N.A. 14-2, 14-59, 15-64, 15-595. 15-710, 15-738
Porter, R.D. 5-36, 5-80, 11-14
Porter, T.A. 12-257
Portnoy, M. 10-1889, 13-207
Portnoy, R.C. 10-1820
Portoghese, PS. 16-834
Porzi, G. 10-947, 10-957
Posey, I.Y. 10-1745, 12-296
Poshkus, A.C. 10-2050
Posner, B.A. 17-280
Posner, G.H. 10-691, 10-759, 10-870, 10-1541, 10-1542, 10-1544, 10-1546, 10-1548, 10-1550, 10-1551, 10-1563, 10-1564, 10-1615, 10-1641, 10-1646, 10-1673, 10-1936, 10-1937, 10-1938, 15-577, 15-655, 15-663, 15-664, 15-675, 15-679, 15-681, 15-708, 15-722, **15-1101**, **15-1170**, 16-649, 16-741, 17-190
Posner, J. 18-171
Pospelov, M.V. 19-186
Poss, K.M. 18-557
Possel, O. 10-1765
Post, A.J. 18-287
Posteher, F. 4-367
Postigo, J.A. 18-405
Postovskii, I.Ya. 13-131,13-229
Potapov, V.M. **4-117**
Potapova, I.M. 16-657
Potenza, J.A. 2-159
Potier, P. 16-188
Potter, A. 14-84
Potter, G.A. 16-326
Potter, G.J. 15-916
Potter, N.H. 19-387
Potter, S.E. 18-318, 18-319
Pötter, B. 1-93
Pottier, Y 15-797

Potts, A.W. 1-16, 1-19
Potts, K.T. 2-156, 15-591
Potvin, P.G. 3-94
Pouilhès, A. 15-1282
Poulter, C.D. 5-45, 10-1200, 18-241, 18-446
Poulter, S.R. 4-355, 15-331
Poulton, D.J. 18-48
Poupaert, J.H. 19-796
Poupart, M. 12-244
Poupart, M.A. 10-730
Poupko, R. 4-313, 18-506, 18-522
Pourcin, J. 18-190
Pousse, A. 10-1185
Poutsma, M.X. 14-12, 14-45, 14-93, 15-106, 15-140, 15-896, 19-542
Poux, M. 16-59
Powell, A.L. 19-775, 19-777
Powell, D.L. 2-282, 3-41
Powell, H.K.J. 9-30
Powell, J.W. 17-227
Powell, M.F. 6-61, 6-86, 8-91, 8-92
Powell, N.A. 10-1860
Powell, P. 3-59
Powell, R.E. 1-2
Power, P.P. 5-97, 5-157
Powers, D.B. 16-464
Powers, J.P. 4-26, 4-292, 5-232
Poyer. J.L. 5-218
Poynton, A.J. 18-570
Pozharskii, A.F. 13-244
Pozsgay, V. 12-571
Pozzi, G. 10-1732
Prabhakar, S. 10-229, 15-1126
Prabhu, A.V. 16-371
Prabhu, K.P. 16-142
Pracejus, H. 4-111
Pracejus, H. 15-211
Pradhan, S.K. 16-290
Prados, P. 16-356
Praeger, D. 4-268
Prager, R.H. 10-1845, 15-436, 15-439
Prajapati, D. 10-1578, 10-1946, 15-566, 16-26, 6-0037, 16-665, 16-668, 19-639, 19-724
Prakash, G.K.S. 5-2, 5-12, 5-39, 5-50, 5-73, 5-74, 5-79, 8-15, 10-103, 10-120, 10-153, 10-161, 10-162, 10-171, 10-180, 10-1188, 10-1221, 10-1222, 10-1968, 10-2016, 11-113, 11-256, 11-394, 12-47, 12-49, 12-127, 12-218, 12-366, 14-441, 15-959, 16-52, 16-95, 16-249, 16-515, 16-866, 18-102, 19-425, 19-527
Prakash, I. 12-593, 19-239, 19-481
Prakash, O. 10-773, 14-180, 14-182, 14-183, 19-113, 19-479
Praly, J. 4-301
Prandi, J. 18-124
Prasad, A.S.B. 19-556
Prasad, B.V. 2-351
Prasad, C.S.N. 10-1916
Prasad, K. 10-1034
Prasad, K.G. 19-545
Prasad, R. 15-1154
Prasuna, G. 16-757
Prather, J. 10-1343
Prato, M. 10-538
Pratt, A.C. 18-665
Pratt, B.C. 15-811
Pratt, D.V. 2-327, 18-565
Pratt, D.W. 4-245
Pratt, E.F. 10-682
Pratt, R.J. 12-31
Pratt, W.E. 4-365
Precedo, L. 15-1156
Prechtl, F. 14-188, 15-1081
Pregel, M.J. 10-2034
Prelog, V. 4-41, 4-87, 4-106, 4-107, 4-132, 18-51
Presnell, M. 10-740
Press, J.B. 10-1185
Presser, N. 18-419
Pressman, D. 17-10
Preston, S.B. 10-1846
Preto, R.J. 6-75
Pretty, A.J. 18-318, 18-319
Pretzer, W. 2-218, 2-219
Preuss, H. 15-47
Prevost, C. 12-474, 15-1452
Prévost, C. 10-207
Prewitt, M.X. 14-57
Prewo, R. 4-391
Pri-Bar, I. 10-1889, 12-607, 13-203, 19-368
Pribytkova, L.G. 15-860
Pric, J.M. 12-51
Price, A. 13-215
Price, C.C. 13-258
Price, J.D. 4-413, 15-1028, 15-1030, 15-1398
Price, M.J. 15-46
Price, R. 13-156, 13-159
Price, R.C. 17-62, 19-543
Price, W.C. 1-16
Priebe, H. 10-1097
Priesner, C. 10-383
Priest, D.N. 17-152, 17-387
Priest, W.J. 4-346
Priester. W. 12-273
Prieto, J.A. 10-1766
Prieto, P. 14-362
Prieto, R. 15-510

Prikazchikova, L.P. 15-44
Prilezhaeva, E.N. 15-48, **15-**116
Prince, A.A.M. 18-267
Prince, R.H. 14-525
Pring, M. 15-4
Prins, T.J. 10-1350
Prins, W.L. 17-2
Prinsen, W.J.C. 4-62
Prinzbach, H 10-2036, 4-380, 12-250, 15-1340, 15-1349, **15-**1371, 19-49
Prior, D.V. 3-12
Prior, M.J. 16-687
Pritchard, D.E. 5-227
Pritchard, G.J. 12-276
Pritchard, J.G. 10-997
Pritt, J.R. 10-279, 10-392
Pritzkow, W. 15-23, 15-1038
Privett, O.S. 19-206
Probasco, E.K. 15-133
Procházka, M. 10-1871
Procopiou, P.A. 10-790, 10-801, 10-1083
Procter, G. 16-596, 18-709
Prodger, J.C. 10-1785, 15-707
Prodolliet, J. 19-201
Proenaa, M.F.J.R.P. 11-387
Profeta Jr., S. 4-335
Prokes, I. 11-194
Prokof'ev, A.K. 5-301, 13-32
Prokopiou, P.A. 10-1364, 10-1365
Prolingheuer, E. 18-27
Proskow, S. 4-16,15-1335,15-1336
Pross, A. 5-304, 8-123, 9-1, 10-63, 10-75, 10-301, 10-914
Pross, E. 10-442
Protopopova, M.N. 12-248
Protschuk, G. 10-1991
Proverb, R.J. 17-412, 18-495
Prudent, N. **4-**113
Pruett, R.L. 15-786
Pruitt, J.R. 15-212
Pruitt, K.M. 13-9, 13-73
Prunier, L. 10-188
Pruss, G.M. 17-90
Pryor, W.A. 5-174, 6-63, 14-1, 14-15, 14-45, 14-61, 18-54, 19-194, 19-196
Przemetchi, V. 19-337
Przheval'skii, N.M. 18-572
Przystas, T.J. 10-509, 10-515
Psarras, T. 5-88, 8-61, 8-62
Ptock, A. 19-743
Puar, M.S. 10-326
Pucher, R. 10-1994
Puckett, C.L. 15-1212
Puckette, T.A. 16-671
Pudjaatmaka, H. 8-59, 8-64
Pudovik, A.N. 16-115
Puerta, J.E. 10-472
Pugh, R.L. 14-525
Pugia, M.J. 10-453
Puglia, G. 11-340, 11-358, 11-360
Puglis, J. **10-**1253
Pugnaud, S. 15-1255
Pujol, M.D. 19-388
Pulay, A. 17-56
Pullman, A. 2-3
Pullman, B. 2-72, 3-105
Pumphrey, N.W.J. 1-86
Puniani, E. 16-483
Punzalan, E.R. 12-484
Punzi, A. 10-1957
Pupowicz, D. **15-**1446
Pupyshev, V.I. 15-162
Purcell, J. 14-420
Purcell, K.F. 10-427
Purchase, M. 10-600
Purdham, J.T. **10-**128
Purdon, J.G. 15-344
Purmort, J.I. 12-290
Purnell, H. 10-957, 15-213
Purohit, V.G. 10-1756
Purrington, S.T. **11-**235, **11-**236, **12-**100, **12-**103, 12-143, 14-96
Pursiainen, J. 3-135
Puterbaugh, W.H. 13-281,16-648
Putinas, J.M. 16-944
Pütter, R. 10-654, 10-655
Putz, G.J. 10-278
Puza, M. 11-110
Puzitskii, K.V. 10-1902, 15-767, 18-352
Pyatin, B.M. 10-367, 10-696
Pyatnitskii, Yu.I. 19-245
Pye, C.C. 15-1206
Pyne, S.G. 16-659, 16-851
Pyor, W.A. 15-49
Pyreseva, K.G. 12-581
Pyron, R.S. **15-**1250, **15-**1251
Pyryalova, PS. 16-361
Pyun, C. 10-1585
Pyun, S.-J. 10-1453, 14-467
Pyykko, P. 1-2

Qabar, M.N. 15-849
Qi, H. 15-64
Qian, C. 10-1214
Qian, Z. 13-144
Qiao, X. 2-61

Qing, E-L. 16-245
Qiu, J. 16-470
Quack, M 4-3
Quadbeck, G. 15-211
Quadrelli, P. 15-578
Quadri, ML. 17-320
Quallich, G.J. 16-324
Quan, P.M. 13-127, 13-226, 15-1178
Quang, Y.V. 15-1167
Quartieri, S. **15**-1163
Quast, H. 10-1087, 12-345, 18-526
Quayle, O.R. 10-593
Quayle, P. 11-341
Queen, A. 10-64, **10**-69
Querci, C. 14-162, 15-1082, 15-1083
Quesnelle, C.A. 10-1573
Quest, D.E. 12-550
Qui, N.T. 12-405
Quian, Y 16-463
Quici, S. 10-452, 10-453, 19-73
Quiclet-Sire, B. 15-263
Quignard, F. 10-1732
Quiles, F. 18-688
Quillinan, A.J. 10-1856
Quiniou, H. **16**-112
Quinkert, G. **4**-111, 18-676
Quinn, H.W. 3-59
Quiñoá, E. 4-97, 4-98
Quintard, J. 10-1948, 10-1984
Quintero-Cortés, L. 16-470
Quintily,U. 10-538
Quiram, E.R. 15-108
Quirk, R.P 8-33,8-101
Quiroga-Feijoo, M.L. 16-413
Qureshi, M.I. 4-425

Ra, C.S. 12-547
Raab, W. 10-1759
Raabe, D. 11-244
Raabe, G. 1-9, 15-1044
Raaen, V.F. 10-64, 18-40, 18-56
Rabalais, J.W. 1-13
Raban, M. 4-30, 4-165, 4-167, 4-206
Rabenstein, D.L. 2-208
Raber, D.J. 4-335, 10-41, 10-44, 10-46, 10-59, 10-64, 10-150, 10-278, 10-798
Rabideau, P.W. 2-298, 2-299, 4-286, 15-399, 15-402, 15-408, 15-412
Rabinovich, D. 2-240
Rabinovich, E.A. 12-60
Rabinovitch, B.S. 5-278, 12-255
Rabinovitz, M. 2-137, 2-149, 2-203, 2-224, **2**-226, 2-245, 2-246, 2-278, 4-64, 5-47, 10-439, **10**-441, **15**-398, **15**-545, **16**-352, **16**-360, **17**-249
Rabinowitz, J.L. 15-868, 18-281
Rabinowitz, R. 16-741
Rabjohn, N. 4-447, 14-169, 19-283
Rablen, PR. 1-0104, 2-35, 4-249, 4-250
Racela, W. 8-23
Racherla, U.S. 12-430, 15-442, 15-449, 16-465, 18-215
Rachlin, A.I. 15-306
Rachon, J. 12-480,18-19
Rachoń, J. 5-285
Rack, E.P. 14-35, 15-869
Radeglia, R. 4-37
Radell, J. **3**-124
Rademacher, L.E. 17-337
Rademacher, P. 4-220, 4-389
Radford, D.V. 3-74
Radhakrishna Murti, PS. 19-330
Radhakrishna, A. 12-180
Radhakrishna, A.S. 18-235
Radhakrishnan, U. 15-776
Radics, L. **4**-189
Radinov, R. 15-595
Radke, CM. 18-527
Radlick, P. 2-212,18-231,19-276
Radner, F. 11-95, **11**-118, 11-141
Radom, L. 2-14,2-137,4-235,5-22,8-192,15-402
Radtke, R. 19-20
Radzik, D.M. 17-190
Radziszewski, J.G. 2-178, 4-429
Raecke, B. 11-476
Raevskii, O.A. 3-115,3-85
Rafel, S. 16-481, 16-482, 16-485
Raffaelli, A. 15-787
Rafferty, P. 16-516
Rafikov, S.R. 16-828
Ragain, R.M. 10-188
Ragauskas, A.J. **5**-110
Raghavachari, K. 10-186
Raghavan, M. 19-404
Ragi, A. 19-465
Ragnarsson, U. **10**-1085
Ragoussis, N. **16**-313
Ragunathan, K.G. 3-93
Rahim, Md.A. 16-797
Rahimizadeh, M. **15**-1461
Rahm, A. **12**-13
Rahman, A. 19-555
Rahman, M. 4-334, 19-121
Rahn, B.J. 10-1509
Rai, R. 14-376
Rai, R.S. 10-1417
Raimondi, L. 15-1015, **15**-1155

Raimondi, M. 2-6, 2-95
Raines, R.T. 6-47
Rainsford, A.E. 17-372
Rainville, D.P. 12-14, 15-476
Rairama, R. 16-430
Raithby, P.R. 3-14
Raj. C.P. 15-1222
Rajadhyaksha, S.N. 16-872, 19-416
Rajagopal, S. 10-433, 10-435, 19-461
Rajagopalan, R. 19-299
Rajagopalan, S. 15-728
Rajan, S. 13-192, 14-290
RajanBabu, T.V. 15-51, 15-521, 15-529, 15-608, 15-798
Rajappa, S. 18-542
Rajaram, J. 15-305
Rajasekaran, K. 19-461
Raje, P.S. 16-163
Rajkumar, A.B. 15-374
Rajput, A.S. 1-76
Rajzmann, M. 5-257, 10-427
Rakhmankulov, D.L. 5-48, 10-508, 16-835
Rakitin, O.A. 12-557
Rákos, L. 10-690
Rakshit, A.B. 8-195
Raksis, J.W. 18-230
Raksit, A.B. 10-337, 10-338
Raley, J.H. 18-79
Ralph, E.K. 8-178
Ram, R.N. 16-27
Ram, S. 16-174, 19-530, 19-610
Rama Rao, A.V. **16-318**, 18-274
Ramachander, T. 10-713
Ramachandran, J. 16-525
Ramachandran, P.V. 15-434, 15-451, 16-316, 16-318
Ramadas, S.R. 16-525
Ramaiah , M. 14-1
Ramaiah, P. 19-425
Ramakers, J.E. **4-416**
Ramakrishnan, V.T. 12-579
Ramamurthy, V. 7-18, 7-32, 7-36, 11-414, 14-240, 15-1093, 15-1343
Raman, J.V. 2-44
Ramart-Lucas, P. **18-113**
Ramaseshan, M. 15-240
Ramaswamy, S. 18-468
Rambaud, D. 15-497
Rambaud, M. 12-487
Rambo, E. 15-1051
Ramchandani, R.K. 14-360
Ramdan, M. 10-723, 14-466
Rameshkumar, C. 15-776
Ramirez, F. 16-725, 16-741, 16-767
Rammler, D.H. **10-810**
Ramnarayan, K. 16-288
Ramnauth, J. 17-429
Ramos, A. 18-671
Ramos, B. 17-329
Rampi, R.C. 13-115
Rampoldi, A. 10-339
Ramsay, D.A. 1-52
Ramsay, O.B. 4-1, 17-41
Ramsby, S. 10-1036
Ramsch, R.Y. 16-858
Ramsden, C.A. 2-10,2-281,2-281
Ramsey, B. 5-47, 10-145, 10-146
Ramsey, B.G. 1-13
Rana, S.S. 10-759
Ranaivosata, J.-L. 5-250
Rancourt, J. 5-208, 15-52
Rand, C.L. 13-163
Rand, M.H. 16-21
Randad, R.S. 16-382, 16-464, 16-465
Randall, L.H. 2-44
Rander, K.D. **11-169**
Randić, M. 2-83, 4-350
Randolph, C.L. 15-486
Rane, A.M. 10-848, 15-992
Raner, K.D. 14-84, 14-87, 14-90, 14-124
Ranes, E. 11-127
Rang, H. 4-371
Rangaishenvi, M.V. 10-1384, 15-447
Ranganathan, D. 15-1305, 18-597, 19-231
Ranganathan, S. 15-1305, 18-597, 19-231
Ranganayakulu, K. 5-46
Rangappa, K.S. 6-83
Rangarajan, R. 19-286
Rani, K.S. 10-1467
Rank, B. 19-174
Ranken, PR 11-184
Rankin, K.N. 19-377
Ranu, B. 16-260, 16-269
Ranu, B.C. 10-571, 10-754, 10-1330, 10-1351, 10-1473, 10-1951, 11-290, 15-169, 15-382, 15-605, 16-23, 16-173, **16-268**, **16-276**, 16-342, 16-446, 17-323,18-119
Rao, A.S. 10-478
Rao, B.N. 11-414
Rao, C.G. 9-9, 10-159, 10-313, 10-1427, 15-445
Rao, C.N.R. 2-311,3-52
Rao, C.T. 10-1177,10-1187
Rao, D.P. **13-189**
Rao, D.V. 11-448, 19-284
Rao, G.V. 19-723

Rao, J.M. 10-644, 15-1358, 18-359, 18-365
Rao, N.V. 10-1002, 16-36, 16-229
Rao, P.B. 16-757
Rao, P.D. 16-480
Rao, R. **11**-196
Rao, S.A. 14-457, 15-644, 15-647, 16-436
Rao, S.N. 10-443
Rao, T.S. 11-217
Rao, V.V.R. 14-454, 15-444
Rao, Y.S. 19-74
Raphael, R.A. 4-383
Rapoport, H. 10-1027, 10-1294, 10-1998, 14-171, 14-326, 19-585
Rapp, M.W. 10-414
Rappa, A. 13-244, **15**-416
Rappe, C. 12-117, 12-118, 17-300, 18-161, 18-169, 18-172, 18-176
Rappé, A.K. 18-650
Rappoport, H. 1-9,2-314
Rappoport, Z. 2-36, 2-326, 2-327, 2-328, 2-329, 2-331, 4-343, 4-437, 5-59, 5-207, **10**-117, 10-237, 10-240, 10-241, 10-242, 10-244, 10-245, 10-246, 10-247, 10-248, 10-254, 10-265, 10-388, 10-424, **11**-274, **13**-22, 15-34, 15-36, **15**-37, **15**-76, 15-104, 15-1053, 15-1379, 16-662, 17-45, 17-53, 17-54
Rapport, Z. 3-98
Raptis, M. 19-120
Rashchupkina, Z.A. 10-1706
Rashid, S.M.K. 15-1100
Rasmussen, J.K. 10-1759, 10-1773, 12-164, 12-307, 16-684, 16-813, 16-927
Rasmussen, J.R. 12-12
Rasmussen, K.G. 15-1410, 16-545
Rasmussen, S.E. 10-4, 11-293
Raspin, K.A. 14-525
Raspoet, G. 18-264
Rassat, A. 5-178, 16-290
Rassias, G.A. 15-1076
Rasteikiene, L. 15-939
Rastelli, A. 15-1163
Rastetter, W.H. 15-1034
Raston, C.L. 10-1531, 12-445, 12-450, 12-452, 15-641
Ratajczak, F. 19-79
Ratajczak, H. 3-30, 18-28, 18-46
Ratcliffe, A.J. **10**-516
Ratcliffe, R. 19-59
Rathjen, H. 12-236
Rathke, M.W. 4-443, 10-1741, 10-1832, 10-1833, 10-1838, 10-1841, **10**-1848, 10-1986, 10-1992, 10-1994, 10-1748, 12-141, 12-353, 15-725, 16-487, 16-490, 16-644, 16-686, 16-697, 18-352, -0355, 18-360, 18-361, 19-41, 19-476
Rathmell, R.E. 15-626
Rathore, R. 19-137, 19-287
Ratnam, K.R. 10-1187
Ratovelomanana, V. **10**-1510
Ratovelomanana-Vidal, V. 16-326
Ratts, K.W. 15-268
Ratusky, J. 11-476, 11-477, 11-478, 11-479
Rau, A. 18-503
Rau, H. 7-9
Rau, M. 15-35
Raucher, D.J. 15-1469
Raucher, S. 10-990
Rauchfuss, T.B. 16-116
Raudenbusch, W. 17-343, 17-383
Rauhut, M.M. 6-34, 6-35, 13-272
Rauk, A. 1-97, 4-31, 4-34, 4-235, 5-68, 8-125, 10-279, **12**-183, **18**-134
Rauleder, G. 18-28
Raulins, N.R. 18-491, 18-537
Raunio, E.K. 15-46
Rausch, M.D. 2-131, 12-266
Raut, S.V. 17-213
Rautenstrauch, V. 14-247, 16-290, 16-292, 18-337, 18-593, 18-594, 18-603
Ravard, A. 17-256
Ravenek, W. 15-799
Ravenscroft, M.D. **13**-31
Ravidrananthan, T. 16-128
Ravidranathan, T. 15-1411
Ravikumar, K.S. 16-270
Ravindran, N. 12-358, 12-360, 15-441, **18**-377
Ravindran, T. 19-650
Ravindranath, B. 10-996, 17-286
Ravindranathan, M. **9**-9, **10**-114, 10-313, 15-515
Ravindranathan, T. **10**-1150, 15-1305, 18-380
Raw, A.S. 19-709
Rawal, V.H. **10**-1115, 14-302, 15-864, 18-432
Rawalay, S.S. 19-371
Rawdah, T.N. 5-2
Rawlinson, D.J. **11**-162, **14**-110, **14**-198, **14**-256, 14-259, 14-261, 15-944, 18-678
Rawson, R.J. 15-1433
Ray, A. 19-670
Ray, G.C. 18-641
Ray, R. 15-991
Ray, S. 10-707
Ray, T. 19-293
Rayanakorn, M. 10-957, 15-213
RayMahasay, S. 11-50
Raymo, F.M. 2-259
Raymond, K.N. 2-211

Raymond, M.G. 11-503
Razdan, R.K. 14-457
Razinger, M. 4-90
Razumovskii, S.D. 19-186, **19-197**, 19-199
Razuvaev, G.A. 9-20, 12-333, 14-309
Razzuk, A. 13-67
Rea, D.G. 4-309
Read, G. 15-525
Read, R.A. 17-92
Read, R.W. 10-1116
Read, T.O. 13-73
Reader, J.C. 15-1241
Readio, P.D. 14-24, 14-142, 15-122
Readman, J.M. 11-53
Readshaw, S.A. 4-301, 4-302
Reagan, J. 19-193
Reagan, M.T. 8-104, 19-644
Reale, A. **19-734**
Reamer, R.A. 10-740
Reardon Jr., E.J. 12-77, 15-1447
Reardon, R.C. 5-326
Rebbert, R.E. 7-41
Rebek Jr., J. **3-115**, **15-1225**
Rebek, J. **10-1011**, 10-1027, 18-502
Rebeller, M. 19-678
Reber, G. 1-11
Rebiere, F. 15-1208, 19-456
Rebière, F. 15-706
Reboul, E. 16-624
Recca, A. 19-734
Rechsteiner, B. 16-160
Recktenwald, G. 19-717
Recupero, F. 19-308
Reddy, A.C. 10-914
Reddy, B.S.N. 19-639
Reddy, B.S.P. 19-639
Reddy, B.V.S. 18-258
Reddy, C.K. 15-702
Reddy, D.R. 14-182
Reddy, D.S. 3-55
Reddy, G.D. 15-832
Reddy, G.S. 10-540, 10-706, 10-708, 10-983, 10-1949, 16-24, 16-791
Reddy, J.P. 16-350
Reddy, K.V. 18-542
Reddy, M.M. 10-983
Reddy, N.K. 15-900
Reddy, N.P. 10-939, **12-613**, 19-95
Reddy, P.N. 15-215
Reddy, P.P. 16-226
Reddy, P.S. 10-1393
Reddy, P.S.N. 16-226
Reddy, R.S. 15-370
Reddy, R.T. 19-457
Reddy, S. **11-441**
Reddy, T.I. 16-666
Reddy, V.P. **11-113**, 15-1198, 18-453
Reddy, V.V. 4-335
Redecker, T. 5-156
Redgrave, A.J. 15-1030
Redlich, O. 3-125
Redman, R.P. 17-50, 17-100
Redmond, W. 13-266
Redmore, D. 17-428, 18-127, 18-142, **18-161**, 18-184, 8-0202, 18-474
Redvanly, C.S. 18-189
Redwine, O.D. 5-188
Ree, B. 5-45, 10-178
Reece, P.A. **10-1845**
Reed, D. 13-231
Reed, D.W. 14-147
Reed, J.N. 12-379
Reed, K.W. 18-296
Reed, L.L. 2-128
Reed, R. 12-460
Reed, S.A. 4-319
Reedich, D.E. 17-426
Reents Jr., W.D. 11-95
Rees, C.W. 2-220, 2-223, 5-267, **15-1128**, 15-1428
Rees, J.H. 1-42
Rees, L. 11-124
Rees, T.C. 15-619
Reese, C.B. **10-1449**, 11-412, 12-243, 16-35, 16-824, 18-428
Reetz, M.T. 10-1588, 10-1590, 10-1591, 10-1635, 10-1740, 10-1747, 10-1872. 14-33, 14-357, 16-370, 16-381, 16-382, 16-405, 16-406, 16-407, 16-438, **16-457**, 16-459, 16-463, 16-467, 16-604, 16-623, 16-633, 16-634, 16-679, 17-288, 18-705, 18-706, 19-23
Reeve, W. 8-50, 17-337
Reeves, R.L. 16-41,16-141,16-561
Reeves, W.P. 10-1096, 11-196
Refvik, M.D. 10-1382
Rege, S.D. 15-1489
Regen, S.L. 10-452, 10-453, 10-782, 10-875, 17-249, 19-67
Reger, D.L. 15-283
Reggel, L. 15-415
Reginato, G. 15-659, 16-125, 17-172
Regis, R.R. 12-152
Regitz, M. 1-9, 4-410, 5-298, 5-307, 10-377, 10-2049, 12-167, 12-563, 15-1464, 17-228, **17-414**, 18-182, 18-415, 18-416, 18-527, 19-155

Regulski, T.W. **15-15**
Rehan, A.H. 16-768
Reho, A. 16-176
Rei, M. 15-207, 15-208
Reich, C.J. 10-497
Reich, H.J. 5-103, **5-125**, **5-159**, **10-98**, **10-1780**, 12-194, 12-495, 17-236, 17-238, 7-0239, 18-597, 19-459
Reich, I.J. 12-194
Reich, I.L. 10-98, 17-239
Reich, S.D. 10-128
Reichard, D.W. 5-110
Reichardt, C 10-427, 10-387, 10-412, 10-414, 10-429, 10-430, 10-431, 10-1217, 14-82
Reichel, C.J. 16-191
Reichenbach, T. 15-614
Reichenbacher, P.H. 18-43
Reichle, R. 18-24
Reichle, W.T. 12-1
Reichlin, D. 15-1207
Reichmanis, E. 2-214, 2-226
Reid, C.G. 14-279
Reid, D.H. 2-104, 19-124
Reid, D.J. 10-64
Reid, E.E. **10-1003**
Reid, G. 3-89
Reid, I. 12-70
Reider, P.J. 4-164, 15-574, 19-379
Reiding, D.J. 11-450
Reif, L. 11-457
Reiff, H. 16-611
Reiffers, S. 19-755
Reihs, S. 15-1072
Reijnders, P.J.M. 10-1598
Reikhsfel'd, V.O. 15-1458
Reimlinger, H. 12-56
Rein, B.M. 10-1166,13-141
Rein, T. 14-262, 16-773
Reinecke, M.G. 13-38
Reinehr, D. 15-618
Reineke, C.E. **18-44**
Reinheimer, J.D. 13-73
Reinhold, U. 16-531
Reinhoudt, D.N. 3-76, 3-88, 15-1295
Reinke, L.A. 5-218
Reinmuth, O. 10-1531, 10-1620, 10-1661, **10-1669**, 10-1954, **10-1964**, **12-431**, **12-445**, 16-366, **16-511**, **16-521**, 16-529, 16-547
Reis, H. 15-770
Reisch, J. 15-247
Reisdorf, D. 19-471
Reisenauer, H.P. 2-129
Reiser, O. 16-773
Reisinger, C.-P. 13-117
Reisse, J. 16-446
Reissig, H. 15-126
Reist, E.J. 17-293
Reitsma, B.H. 4-103
Reitz, A.B. **16-722**, 16-764, 16-768, 16-770, 16-771, 16-772
Reitz, D.B. 5-108, 10-1807
Reitz, O. 6-60
Reitz, R.R. 18-658
Reitz, T.J. 10-1082
Rekasheva, A.F. **10-500**, 10-549
Rekker, R.F. 11-467
Rekowski, V. 5-242
Reller, A. 15-328
Remanick, A. 18-92
Remar, J.F. 10-870
Rembaum, A. 2-26
Remenar, J.F. 12-298
Remington, R.B. 2-52
Remion, J. 10-1239
Remizova, T.B. 18-150
Remuson, R. 10-1467
Ren, J. 16-144
Ren, P.-D. 10-1276, 15-355, 15-377, 16-439, **16-442**
Ren, P.D-D. 19-618
Renaldo, A.F. 13-166, 18-505
Renard, G. 10-159
Renaud, R.N. 11-110
Renaut,P. 15-1287
Rendenbach, B.E.M. 15-577
Render, D. 10-236
Rendleman, J. 14-20, 14-384
Renes, G. 4-233
Renga, J.M. 12-194, 17-239
Renger, B. 10-1808, 13-124, 19-649
Renk, E. 14-70, 14-97, 17-379
Renko, Z.D. 15-1026
Renneboog, R. **8-190**
Renneke, R.F. 14-297, 19-43
Rennels, R.A. 11-161
Renner, R. 14-130
Rennick, L.E. 15-277
Rennie, R.A.C. 15-272, 19-495
Reno, D.S. 4-143, 4-164
Renslo, A.R. 15-1235
Rentea, C.N. 19-337
Renugopalakrishnan, V. 4-249
Repie, O. 15-1434, 10-1034
Reppe, W. 15-1458
Requin, F. 4-103
Reřicha, R. 17-26
Rerick, M.N. 10-1341, 10-1342, 19-496, 19-631

Resek, J.E. 19-34
Reshef, D. **15-192**
Reshotova, I.G. **15-399**
Resmini, M. 15-1218
Resnick, P. 12-157
Respess, W.L. **15-655**, **15-722**
Respondek, J. 16-775
Resta, S. **15-627**, **15-1107**
Rétey, J. 10-1221
Rettig, S. 4-320
Réty, J. 4-124
Reuben, D.M.E. 16-335
Reucroft, J. 16-770
Reuliaux,V. 10-1049
Reum, M.E. 15-1393
Reuman, M. 12-279, 13-164
Reusch, W. **18-163**, **19-512**, 19-535
Reuss, R.H. **12-126**, **14-179**
Reutov, O.A. **4-23**, **5-84**, **5-85**, **5-113**, **8-13**, **8-14**, **10-242**, **10-333**, **10-462**, **10-468**, **10-472**, **10-473**, **10-474**, **10-841**, **10-1520**, **12-2**, **12-16**, **12-33**, **12-36**, **12-42**, **12-44**, **12-372**, **12-492**, **12-533**, **13-154**, **15-29**, **15-209**, **16-766**, **16-870**, **18-26**, **18-28**, **18-35**, **18-44**, **18-46**, 18-213, 18-338
Reutov, V.M. 5-114
Reuvers, J.T.A. 17-241
Reuwer Jr., J.F. 12-85
Revial, G. 15-579
Revis, A. 16-622
Rewicki, D. 5-85, 8-14
Rey, M. **15-1321**, **18-321**
Rey, P. 5-243
Reye, C. **12-462**, **15-224**
Reynolds, D.D. **10-971**
Reynolds, G.F. 12-39
Reynolds, J. 12-591
Reynolds, J.D. 9-49
Reynolds, W.F. 1-42, 2-34, 9-41, 9-52, 9-64
Reynolds-Warnhoff, P. 16-298
Rezende, M.C. **10-719**, **10-796**, **10-911**, **10-1063**, **10-1063**, **11-344**, **12-535**
Reznikov, V.A. 5-219
Rhee, C.K. **16-275**, **16-277**, **16-279**
Rhee, E.S. **18-605**, **18-617**, **18-618**
Rhee, I. **12-395**, **12-401**, **13-213**
Rhee, S. 15-491, 18-347
Rho, M.M. 9-9
Rhoads, S.J. **18-491**, **18-537**
Rhode, O. **14-180**
Rhodes, C.J. 5-211,5-264
Rhodes, R.A. 10-1229
Rhodes, S. 10-483
Rhodes, Y.E. 10-128, 10-130, 10-178, 19-482
Rhom, D. 10-239
Riant, O. 15-1208
Riazi-Kermani, F. **16-446**
Ribbons, D.A. 15-1027
Ribeiro, A.A. 16-577
Ribeiro, C.M.R. 15-219
Ribo, J. 18-187
Ricci, A. **1-42**, **12-326**, **15-659**, **16-125**, **17-172**
Ricci, M. 14-157, 14-162, **15-1082**, **15-1083**
Rice, G. 2-300
Rice, J.E. 2-52
Rice, K. 15-1494
Rice, K.C. 11-390,16-76
Rice, S.A. 6-7
Rice, S.N. 5-323
Rich, J.D. 14-494
Rich, N. 4-309
Richard, C.S. 19-683
Richard, J.P. 5-9, 5-17, 5-82, 5-83, 8-63, 10-1, **10-68**, **10-69**, **10-291**, **12-43**, **18-262**
Richard, T.J. 15-1034
Richards Jr., C.A. 5-271
Richards, A.C. 1-86
Richards, D.H. 10-836
Richards, K.E. **11-78**, **11-101**
Richards, R.M. 4-79
Richards, S.N. 19-123
Richards, W.G. 2-14
Richardson, D.B. 5-303, 12-258
Richardson, D.E. 10-388
Richardson, K.S. **2-8**, **16-21**
Richardson, P.F. **15-892**, **18-296**
Richardson, PR. 15-891
Richardson, W.H. 12-502, **17-120**, **19-736**
Richarz, W. 10-947
Riche, C. 15-1342
Richert, S.A. 19-305
Richey Jr., H.G. 5-29, 5-30, 5-43, 5-45, **5-59**, 5-93, **5-102**, **10-110**, **10-113**, **10-168**, **10-172**, 13-22, 13-23, 15-34, 15-104, **15-612**, **15-613**, **15-614**, **15-619**, **16-402**, 16-541, 18-489
Richey, J.M. **5-59**, **13-22**, **13-23**, **15-34**, 15-104
Richheimer, S.L. 10-1824
Richman, J.E. 10-1741,10-1790,15-748
Richmond, G.D. 10-1700
Richter, L.S. 10-740
Richter, M.J. 15-1081
Richter, R. **10-986**, **10-1164**
Richter, W.J. 12-92
Rickborn, B. **10-205**, **10-481**, **10-1675**, 12-2, 12-316, **12-370**, **12-424**, **15-165**, **16-263**, **17-144**, **17-396**, **18-86**, **18-218**
Rickter, D.O. 18-25

Rico, I. 10-1096
Rico, J.G. **19-709**, **19-729**
Ridd, J.H. **1-42**, **11-26**, **11-27**, **11-37**, 11-38, **11-39**, **11-60**, **11-78**, **11-89**, **11-95**, **11-98**, **11-113**, **11-125**, **11-130**, **11-138**, **11-217**, **11-431**, **11-492**
Ridd, J.H. **12-566**, **12-567**, **12-568**, **12-572**
Riddell, F.G. **4-258**, **4-289**, 4-292, 4-313
Rideout, D.C. 15-1228
Rider, H.D. 10-1120
Rieche, A. **11-337**, **11-338**, **13-132**, **13-133**, 13-135
Ried, W. 10-2020, **16-654**, **17-431**
Riede, J. 1-11
Riedel, M. 16-159
Riedel, O. 11-476
Riediker, M. 16-463
Riefling, B. 14-461
Rieger, A.L. **14-142**, **14-143**
Rieger, D.L. **16-589**
Rieger, H. 19-133
Rieger, M. 4-325
Rieger, R. 15-1205
Riego, J.M. **10-759**, **18-266**
Riehl,J.J. 12-311
Rieke, R.D. **10-1476**, **10-1943**, **10-1950**, **10-1951**, **12-434**, **12-464**, **12-466**, **12-467**, **12-468**, **12-469**, **12-470**, **12-471**, **13-224**, **16-490**, **19-705**, **19-730**
Rieker, A. 5-197, **5-201**, **13-255**, **14-418**
Riemenschneider, J.L. 10-161
Riemenschneider, K. 15-99
Riera, J. 5-217
Riermeier, T.H. 13-117
Ries, M. 15-1143
Riesen, A. **18-404**
Riesz, P. 15-27
Rietz, E.G. 10-507
Riezebos, G. **19-206**
Rifi, M.R. 2-122,10-1488
Rigamonti, J. 13-266
Rigaudy, J. **14-231**, **15-1092**
Rigby, J.H. **10-653**, **15-849**, **15-856**, **15-1489**, 19-23
Rigby, R.D.G. 11-508
Righetti, P.P. **15-539**, **15-578**, **18-549**
Righi, G. **10-1201**, **10-1204**, **10-1216**, **19-585**
Riguera, R. 4-97, 4-98, 4-99
Rihs, G. **4-380**, **16-463**
Riley, C.M. 17-389
Riley, D.P. 19-452
Riley, T. 12-84
Rimbault, C.G. 14-254
Rimmelin, J. 15-1246
Rimmelin, P. 8-19
Rinaldi,C. 18-578
Rinaldi, PL. 4-171
Rinaudo, J. 14-333
Rinderknecht, H. **10-812**
Rinehart Jr., K.L. **2-131**, **11-59**, **12-435**, **16-506**, 17-419
Ring, D.F. 12-255
Ring, R.N. 15-75
Rintoul, G.B. 16-434
Riordan, J.C. 10-629
Riordan, J.D. 8-105
Riordan, RD. 19-665
Ripka, W.C. **10-1159**, **16-241**
Ripoll, J. 2-343
Ripoll, J.L. **15-1242**, **16-139**
Riquet, E. **10-1579**
Risbood, P.A. 16-265
Risch, N. **4-117**
Rische, T. 15-258
Rise, F. 4-322
Rispens, M.T. 19-324
Rissanen, K. **3-135**
Rist, 0. 14-509
Ritchie, C.D. 5-304, 6-52, 8-88, **9-60**, **10-322**, 10-342
Ritchie, E. 10-1385
Ritchie, G.L.D. 2-112
Ritieni, A. 10-1085
Rittberg, B.R. 17-373
Ritter, J.J. 16-866
Ritter, R.H. 12-261
Ritter, W. **4-240**
Rittner, R. 4-288
Rivard, D.E. 12-554
Rivera, I. 10-1583
Rivera-Fortin, M.A. **16-910**, **16-916**
Riveros, J.M. **8-182**, 8-189, **8-192**, **10-9**, **10-604**
Rivers, G.T. 17-218
Rivers, P. 4-47
Riviere, H. **14-356**, **10-1937**, **15-718**, **15-720**, 15-1074
Rivière-Baudet, M. **10-1038**
Rizk, M. 18-594
Rizzo, C.J. **15-1228**, **15-1229**
Ro, R.S. **17-67**, **17-332**, **17-340**
Roach, S.L. **10-522**, **15-509**, **15-512**
Roark, W.H. 18-56
Robangh,D.A. 5-192
Robb, M.A. 15-1257,15-1319
Robbins, CR. 13-291
Robbins, H.M. 10-63, 10-64

Robbins, J.D. 18-667
Robbins, M.D. **10**-617, **17**-90
Roberts, B.P. **10**-816, **10**-1257, **10**-1369
Roberts, B.P. **12**-329, **12**-342, **14**-38, **14**-42, **14**-43, **14**-66, **15**-502, **15**-753, **15**-806
Roberts, D.D. **10**-173, **10**-174
Roberts, D.K. **17**-91, **17**-92
Roberts, D.W. 15-1328
Roberts, F.E. **10**-46, **10**-59, **16**-86
Roberts, J.D. **1**-40, 2-182, 4-236, **4**-350, 4-441, 5-154, 6-55, **9**-50, **10**-180, **10**-310, **10**-666, **13**-33, **13**-66, **13**-79, **14**-71, **15**-1295, **15**-1330
Roberts, J.L. **15**-1006, **16**-575
Roberts, J.T. **10**-1413, **14**-480, **17**-373
Roberts, K. **10**-318, **10**-319, **10**-422, **10**-423
Roberts, K.A. 10-610
Roberts, L. 15-855
Roberts, R. 10-379, 18-546
Roberts, R.M. **11**-240, **11**-267, **11**-282, **11**-452, 18-547
Roberts, R.M.G. **11**-452, **11**-453, **15**-4
Roberts, S. 15-1321
Roberts, S.M. **10**-206, **15**-1321, **18**-296
Roberts, T.D. 10-2046
Roberts, V.A. **15**-1490
Roberts, W.J. 15-760
Robertson, G.B. **1**-64, **4**-411
Robertson, J. **15**-607, **18**-127, **18**-143
Robertson, J.D. 4-178
Robertson, J.M. 2-50
Robertson, P.W. **15**-82, **15**-871
Robertson, R.E. 6-56, 6-69, 6-85, **6**-86, **10**-21, **10**-22, **10**-63, **10**-188, **10**-497, **10**-2031, **19**-757
Robertson, W.G.P. 16-98
Robey, R.L. 19-238
Robiette, A.G. 4-374
Robin, M.B. **1**-15, **1**-16
Robin, Y. 10-1921
Robins, M.J. 10-1321
Robinson, B. 18-582
Robinson, C.N. 9-78
Robinson, D.A. 18-413
Robinson, D.L. 4-255
Robinson, E.A. **11**-333
Robinson, G.C. **10**-42, **10**-51
Robinson, G.M. 18-586
Robinson, G.W. 7-15
Robinson, J.A. 4-124
Robinson, J.K. **6**-61
Robinson, J.W. 1-18
Robinson, K.D. 3-48
Robinson, L. 10-406
Robinson, M.J.T. 1-86, **4**-292, **18**-101
Robinson, P.J. 18-137
Robinson, R. **2**-75, **16**-647, **18**-586
Robinson, R.A. 8-52
Robinson, W.T. **11**-53, **16**-785
Robson, J.H. 16-870
Robson, M.J. 18-127
Robson, R. 16-65
Robveille, S. 13-76
Robyr, C. 16-659
Roček, J. **14**-215, **14**-216, **14**-217, **19**-20, 19-119, **19**-120, **19**-121, **19**-237
Rocco, C. 3-100
Rochester, C.H. 3-1, **8**-10, **8**-46, 8-99, 8-108, 8-108
Rochow, E.G. 12-444
Rockett, J. 12-323
Rockstuhl, A. 15-928
Rodeheaver, G.T. 19-398
Rodehorst, R. **14**-516, **19**-59
Rodewald, H. 4-371
Rodewald, L.B. 18-101
Rodewald, P.G. 15-1145
Rodger, A. **4**-104, **15**-287
Rodger, P.M. **4**-104, **15**-287
Rodgers, A.S. 15-1415
Rodgers, L.R. **6**-65
Rodgers, M.A.J. **14**-239, 15-1093
Rodin, J.O. 15-1249
Rodin, W.A. 4-397
Rodina, L.L. **18**-178, **18**-185
Rodkin, M.A. 11-228
Rodler, M. **2**-334, **13**-37
Rodrigo-Chiner, J. 15-739
Rodrigue, A. 3-88
Rodrigues, O.E.D. 15-188
Rodrigues, R. 12-194
Rodriguez, A. 17-329
Rodriguez, A.L. 10-1572
Rodriguez, D. 15-1199
Rodriguez, H.R. **12**-262, **12**-279
Rodriguez, J. **12**-72, **15**-1074
Rodriguez, M.L. 19-298
Rodríguez, M.A. 15-880
Rodriques, K.E. 15-910
Roduner, E. 5-211
Roe Jr., R. **15**-1321, **15**-1322
Roe, D.C. 15-812
Roe, S.P. 5-128
Roecker, L. 6-61
Roelens, S. 4-170
Roelofsen, D.P. **16**-149, **16**-158
Roengsumran, S. 11-452
Roeterdink, F. 13-38

Rogers, D. 4-86
Rogers, D.W. 2-41, 2-292, 2-293, 4-393
Rogers, D.Z. 10-691
Rogers, G.A. 10-228
Rogers, H.R. 12-474, 12-496, 19-397
Rogers, M.T. 5-133, 5-234
Rogers, P. 10-513
Rogers, R.D. 18-497
Rogers, R.J. 12-474, 13-270
Rogers, W.J. 17-386
Rogers-Evans, M. 10-1504
Roginskii, V.A. 5-221
Rogić, M.M. 10-1832, 10-1833, 10-1834, 10-1836, 10-1837, 10-1838, 10-1840, 10-1841, 10-1848, 12-353, 15-725, 19-184
Rogne, O. 10-2031, 10-2038, 10-2042
Rogozhin, S.V. 4-141, 10-502, 10-1026
Rogozhnikova, O.Yu. 11-26
Rohatgi-Mukherjee. K.K. 7-1
Rohde, J.J. 15-1209
Rohr, W. 10-744
Rohrbangh, P.E. 13-73
Rohrer, C. 19-701
Röhrig, P. 2-243
Rohwer, M.B. 16-481, 16-485
Roitman, J.N. 12-28
Rojo, J. 16-356
Rokhlin, E.M. 16-18, 16-722
Roland, J.R. 11-470
Rolando, C. 10-1926, 19-476
Rölfing, K. 16-370
Roling, P.V. 16-413
Rolla, F. 10-437, 10-1074, 10-1148, 10-1182, 15-157, 17-320, 9-69, 19-635
Rollin, P. 10-1100
Rollin, Y. 10-1891, 13-227
Roloff, A. 10-1212
Rolston, J.H. 15-12
Rom, R. 18-515
Roman, F. 18-688,18-689
Roman, S.A. 10-117
Romanelli, M.G. 2-130, 17-362
Romanenko, V.D. 1-9
Romano, L.J. 14-121
Romanova, V.S. 10-1260
Romanovich, A.Ya. 19-63
Romea, P. 10-1007, 10-1968, 19-642
Romeo, A. 19-87
Romero, J.R. 19-294
Romero, R.H. 15-1478
Romers, C. 4-289, 4-300
Romesberg, F.E. 5-161, 8-166, 8-167, 8469, 12-298
Romine, J.L. 16-382
R0mming, C. 12-559, 16-114
Romney-Alexander, T.M. 13-155
Ron, E. 15-552
Ron, M. 6-74
Rona, P. 10-1641, 15-1484
Rona, R.J. 10-1675
Ronald, B.P. 18-122
Ronald, R.C. 16-238
Ronan, B. 16-659
Roncin, J. 5-227
Ronco, G. 10-46
Rondan, N.G. 2-292, 5-108, 15-1490, 18-406, 18-559, 18-665
Rondestvedt Jr., C.S. 10-493, 14-335, 19-615
Rongsi, C. 2-94
Ronman, P. 16-942
Rönn, M. 10-1512, 15-196
Rönnqvist, M. 3-46
Ronzini, L. 10-1510, 10-1962
Roobeek, C.F. 12-220, 15-132, 15-787
Rooney, J.J. 15-320, 18-98, 18-102, 18-505, 18-650
Rooney, J.R. 11-124
Roos, B.O. 5-272
Roos, E.C. 10-960
Roos, G.H.P. 16-480
Root, K.S. 12-475
Roothaan, C.C.J. 1-3, 2-9
Rop, D. 10-465
Roper, T.D. 16-607
Ropp, G.A. 11-474
Roque, J. 10-128
Roque, J.-P. 18-180
Roque,J.P. 16-84, 19-117
Ros, F. 10-1710
Rosa, E. 12-581
Rosado, I. 10-848
Rosado, O. 10-997, 18-689
Rosas, N. 10-1495
Rosati, O. 10-541, 19-375
Rosaner, K.G. 16-571
Roscher, N.M. 14-221
Rose, J. 3-56
Rose, J.B. 17-12
Rose, M.E. 10-636, 10-1697
Rosen, P. 10-1776
Rosen, W. 2-212
Rosenberg, A. 1-39
Rosenberg, A.M. 10-602
Rosenberg, D.E. 14-322
Rosenberg, J.L. 2-288
Rosenberg, R.E. 2-35

Rosenberger, M. 2-149
Rosenblatt, D.H. **15**-945, **19**-407
Rosenblum, L.D. 10-1969
Rosenblum, M. **2**-131, **2**-136, **10**-1749, **13**-273
Rosencrantz, D.R. **16**-831
Rosenfeld, 5-18
Rosenfeld, J. 18-22
Rosenfeld, J.C. 18-430
Rosenfeld, M.N. **13**-267, **19**-133
Rosenfeld, S.M **2**-51, **12**-515
Rosenman, H. 14-517
Rosenmund, K.W. 15-306
Rosenquist, N.R. 9-62, 9-63
Rosenstein, I J. 14-59
Roshchin, A.I. 10-1575
Rosini, C. 15-1011,19-457
Rosini, G. **10**-738, **10**-1389, **16**-651, **19**-604
Roskamp, E.J. **10**-523, **10**-1014, **10**-1042, **10**-1043, **12**-211, **19**-727
Roskos, P.D. 18-289
Rösier, K. 19-20
Rosnati, V. **19**-513, **19**-542
Ross Jr., B. 19-305
Ross, C.B. 16-836
Ross, D.A. 13-253
Ross, D.S. **11**-125, **19**-123
Ross, M.M. 2-295
Ross, P. 10-10
Ross, S.D. **13**-2, **13**-73
Rossa, L. 17-434
Rossall, B. 10-2031
Rossetti, Z.L. 4-271
Rossi, I. 16-474
Rossi, J.C. 15-1005
Rossi, L. **10**-1204
Rossi, L. 12-616
Rossi, M.H. 16-216
Rossi, R. **4**-58, **10**-859, **10**-1510, **18**-641
Rossi, R.A. **10**-75, **10**-79, **10**-82, **10**-857, **11**-499, **13**-40, **13**-49, **13**-53, **13**-136, **13**-152, **13**-180, **13**-191, **13**-192
Rossiter, B.E. 15-719, 15-1061
Rossky, P.J. 10-56
Rössler, K. 13-263
Rossy, PA. 10-1252
Rostovshchikova, T.N. **15**-22, **15**-154
Rotem, M. 15-221
Rotermund, G.W. 15-461
Roth , W.R. 18-508
Roth, A.S. 15-414
Roth, B.D. 19-567
Roth, E.A. 1-73
Roth,G.P **13**-170, **14**-372
Roth, H.D. **2**-217, **5**-260, 5-316, **7**-1, **12**-259, **12**-260, **15**-1425, **18**-396
Roth, J.A. 11-503
Roth, M. 15-65
Roth, W. **4**-61, **12**-519
Roth, W.R. **5**-242, **10**-155, **15**-1340, **18**-439, **18**-447, **18**-456 **18**-457, **18**-459, **18**-464, **18**-489, **18**-516, **18**-518
Rothbard, J. 19-298
Rothenberg, G. **14**-53
Rothenberg, M.E. 10-69
Rother, H. 15-1327
Rothgery, E.F. 15-1399
Rothman, E.S. 10-765
Rothrock, T.S. 18-147
Rothwell, I.P. 15-549
Rotinov, A. 17-129
Rotstein, D. 10-1253
Röttele, H. 2-226,2-262
Rouessac, A. 15-1242
Rouessac, F. 15-1242
Rouget, E. 16-417
Rouillard, M. 19-632
Roulleau, F. 10-807
Roumestant, M. 10-1645
Roumian, C. 10-899
Rounds, W.D. **10**-999, **16**-68
Roush, W.R. **15**-1171, **16**-382, **16**-464, **16**-468
Rousseau, A.D. 7-46
Rousseau, G. **15**-905, **15**-909, **15**-1109, **16**-729
Roussel, A. 15-1321
Roussel, C. **3**-12, **4**-436, **9**-65, **10**-1162
Roussel, M. 19-395
Rousset, C.J. **12**-484, **15**-522, **15**-616
Ronvray, D.H. 4-214
Roux, M.C. 15-686
Roux-Schmitt, M. 16-705
Rovira, C. 5-217
Rovis, T. 10-1339
Rowe Jr., C.A. 12-62
Rowe, B.A. 13-197
Rowe, K. 18-362
Rowland, B.I. 18-689
Rowland, C. 5-239
Rowland, F.S. **18**-67, **18**-189
Rowland, R.E. 2-226
Rowland, S.P 2-330
Rowlands, D.A. 11-302
Rowlands, M. 12-212
Rowley, A.G. **16**-770, **19**-661, **19**-671, **19**-677, 19-680
Rowley, D.H. **18**-665
Roy, D.A. 14-422

Roy, F. 11-37
Roy, G. 16-690
Roy, J. 18-609
Roy, P. 12-163
Roy, S. 14-496, 19-277
Roy, U.V. 15-1326
Royer, A.C. 15-906
Royo, A.J. 15-1236
Rozantsev, E.G. 5-195, 5-216, 5-267
Rozas, I. 8-12
Rozema, M. 16-470
Rozen, S. **10-1128, 11-214,** 11-226, 11-237, 11-396, 12-94, **12-100, 12-101, 14-96, 14-100, 14-101, 14-103, 15-878, 15-882, 15-935**
Rozhkov, I.N. **14-97, 15-684, 15-954**
Rozsondai, B. 5-194
Rozwadowska, M.D. 16-860
Ruane, M. 17-68, **17-70, 17-75**
Ruasse, M. 5-304, **9-21, 10-2028, 15-11, 15-13,** 15-15
Ruban, S.G. **14-84**
Rubenstein, P.A. 8-59
Rubin, A.E. 15-1014
Rubin, M.B. **7-36, 15-1423**
Rubin, R.M. 18-524
Rubinshtein, B.I. 14-125
Rubinstein, H. **15-1114**
Rubio, V. 16-806
Ruble, J.C. 16-470
Ruble, J.R. 18-522
Rubottom, G.M. 12-128, **14-179,** 14-263, 16-507, 19-10, 19-164
Rubow, M. **15-966, 15-967**
Ruch, R.R. 16-299
Rüchardt, C. **1-0103, 4-244, 4-317, 4-341, 5-198, 5-199, 5-212, 5-233, 5-249, 10-68, 13-28, 14-45, 14-135, 14-329, 14-407, 14-426, 15-211, 18-35,** 18-71, **18-309, 18-335, 18-336, 19-20**
Ruck, R.T. 5-302
Rücker, C. **4-359, 4-372, 15-1250**
Rücker, G. 4-359
Ruckle Jr., R.E. 12-170, 12-244
Rudakov, E.S. 10-182, 10-408, 10-409
Rudas, M. 15-1156
Rudchenko, V.F. 4-40
Rudd, E. 15-979
Ruden, R.A. **15-721**
Ruderman, W. 14-122
Rudiger, V. 3-85
Rudler, H. 12-553, 16-228, 18-650
Rudloff, E. von 19-228
Rudolf, **K.** 18-408
Rudolph, J. 10-589,15-1111
Rudorf, W. **15-1159, 16-106, 16-204, 16-698**
Rudorf, W.-D. 15-598
Rudy, T.P. **14-81**
Rufa, L. 19-766
Ruff, **J.K.** 12-602
Rufińska, A. **5-146**
Ruge, B. 7-37
Rüger, C. 12-610
Rüger, W. 15-85
Rugmini, P. 15-568, **15-1140, 16-261**
Rühl, T. 5-123
Ruhlandt-Senge, K. 5-157
Rühlmann, K. 19-753
Ruholl, H. **19-169**
Ruiz-Hitzky, E. 10-778
Ruiz-López, M.F. 15-1203
Ruiz-Pérez, C. 4-398
Rule, H.G. 13-216
Rulin, F. 15-1030
Rull, M. **10-615**
Rummens, F.H.A. 17-135
Rundel, W. 10-962
Rundle, R.E. 5-143
Runge, W. 4-58
Ruo, T.C.S. **14-29**
Ruostesuo, J. 10-324
Rupilius, W. 15-791
Ruprecht, H. 19-224
Rusch, G.M. 18-132
Rush, D.J. **4-249**
Rusiniak, L. **15-1408**
Ruske, W. **11-382, 11-386**
Russ, M. 10-1247
Russel, G.A. 18-65
Russell, A.T. 16-596, 16-730
Russell, C.R. **5-114**
Russell, G.A. **5-178,** 5-257, 5-259, 10-74, **10-1525, 10-1710, 10-2006, 10-2007, 11-250, 12-591, 13-40, 13-236, 13-237, 14-22, 14-45, 14-56, 14-58, 14-83, 14-85, 14-89, 14-142,** 14-236, **14-460, 15-360, 19-794**
Russell, J.A. 10-78
Russell, **K.E.** 13-2
Russell, R.A. 19-58
Russell, **R.K.** 2-212
Russell, R.L. 11-158, 18-189
Russell, S.W. 19-39
Russell, T. 16-450
Russell-King, J. 18-22, 18-94
Russell-Maynard, J.K.L. 10-1138
Russo, T.J. 10-474
Ruszkay, S.J. **14-210**
Ruther, F. 14-171

Rutherford, D.R. 13-17
Rutherford, K.G. **13-266**
Ruthven, D.M. 16-265
Rutjes, P.J.T. 14-375
Rutledge, P.S. **12-129**, **14-500**, **14-501**, **15-907**, **15-916**, **15-941**, **15-942**, **15-957**, **15-962**, 15-1006
Rutman, O.G. 15-525
Rüttimann, A. 17-350
Ruwet, M. 17-162
Ruzicka, L. **10-2024**, **15-505**, **18-97**
Ruzsicska, B.P. 5-292
Ruzzicom, R. **17-31**, **17-49**, **17-50**, **17-108**, **17-33**, **19-480**
Ryabokobylko, Yu.S. 13-145
Ryabov, A.D. 14-338
Ryabova, K.G. **10-1902**, **18-352**
Ryabstev, M.N. 15-29
Ryan, P.W. 15-415
Ryang, H.S. 14-85
Ryang, M. **12-395**, **12-401**, **12-402**, **13-213**, 15-743
Rybakova, N.A. 11-385
Rybinskaya, ML **2-116**, **2-131**, **10-243**
Rychnovsky, S.D. **4-266**, **4-292**, 5-124, 5-232, 10-1860
Rychtman, A.C. **8-1**
Rycroft, D.S. 2-334
Rydon, H.N. 10-1165
Rylander, P.N. **10-1268**, **10-1301**, **10-1356**, **10-1417**, **14-269**, **14-513**, **15-272**, **15-273**, **15-277**, **15-419**, **15-515**, **15-989**, **16-165**, **16-286**, **16-344**, **19-13**, **19-497**, **19-547**, **19-596**, 19-628
Rynbrandt, R.H. 17-313
Ryou, S.S. 14-44
Rys, P. **11-25**, **11-90**
Rytting, J.H. 3-83
Ryu, E.K. **10-661**, **17-365**
Ryu, I. **10-1896**, **10-1898**, **10-1919**, **12-395**, **13-211**, **15-234**, **15-235**, **15-854**, **15-1129**, **19-42**, **19-304**, **19-340**
Ryu, Y. 10-1920
Ryu, Z.H. **10-389**, **10-561**
Ryzhkov, L.R. 5-248
Rzepa, H. 10-159
Rzepa, H.S. 10-229

Saa, J.M. **19-91**, **10-1575**, **12-263**, **13-173**
Saalfrank, R.W. 15-1072
Saavedra, J.E. 12-572
Sabacky, M.J. 4-123, **5-200**, **15-292**
Sabek, O. 11-98
Sabesan, A. 16-424
Sabesan, S.I. 10-895
Sabharwal, A. 14-172
Sabin, J.R. 3-45
Sabol, M.A. **4-27**, **10-2029**
Sabol, M.R. 14-173
Saboureau, C. 13-210
Sabourin, E.T. 10-2006
Saburi, M. **15-288**, **15-369**, **19-574**
Sacha, H. 16-587
Sachdev, H.S. 17-358
Sacher, E. 1-43
Sachs, D.H. 10-1270
Sacks, C.E. 16-34
Sackur, O. 18-174
Sadakane, M. 16-934
Sadakari, N. 2-243
Sadana, A. 10-773
Sadavarte, V.S. 16-293
Sadayori, N. 10-1677
Sadd, J.S. 5-287
Sadeghi, M.M. 10-945
Sadek, P.C. 11-257
Sadekov, I.D. 3-34
Sadhu, K.M. **10-1585**, **16-898**
Sadighi, J.P. 10-939, 13-120
Sadowski, J.S. 13-97
Sadri, A.R. 11-452
Sadykov, A.S. 13-214
Sadykov, R.A. 15-949
Saednya, A. 16-224
Saeed, M.A. 17-124
Saegusa, T. **10-963**, **10-1876**, **12-603**, 14-510, **15-814**, **15-1448**, **19-478**, **19-483**, **19-778**
Saeki, H. 10-730
Saeki, Y. 10-134, 10-272, 10-273, 10-388, **10-424**, **10-425**
Saeman, M.C. 18-629
Saengchantara, S.T. 18-406
Saenger, W. 3-137, 3-139, **3-141**, **10-569**
Sthre, L.J. 15-95
Safarov, M.G. **16-828**, **16-831**
Safavi, A. 10-692
Safavy, K.K. 10-46, 10-59
Saferstein, R. 10-94
Saffert, A. **19-312**
Safonova, IX. 15-1397
Safont, V.S. 15-1201
Sagal, J.F. 18-636
Sagar, A.D. 19-173
Sagatys, D.S. 17-152
Sagawa, Y. 15-600
Sagdeev, R.Z. 10-1524

Saha, C. 12-276
Saha, J.G. 11-64, 14-329
Saha, M. **15**-169, **15**-605
Saha-Möller, C.R. 19-312
Sahai, M. 10-1236
Sahali, Y. 15-1355
Sahli, A. 19-469
Sahli, M.S. 17-124
Sahm, W. 14-456
Sahyun, M.R.V. **17**-79, 17-210, 19-517
Said, S.B. 16-226
Saigo, K. 15-144, 15-601, **16**-132, **16**-448, **16**-497, **16**-499, **16**-534, **16**-640, **18**-112, **19**-387
Saikachi , H. 2-226
Saimoto, H. 10-1402, **14**-475
Sain, B. 16-918
Saindane, M. 12-199, 16-416
Saini, R.K. **16**-25, **16**-255, **19**-53, **19**-77, **19**-115, **19**-449
Sainsbury, D.M. 10-159
Sainsbury, M. 13-215, **14**-299
Saishō 11-351
Saito, A. 18-258
Saito, E. 16-203
Saito, H. 15-534
Saito, I. **15**-1091, **15**-1092, **19**-46
Saito, K. 10-297, 16-823, **18**-112, 18-258
Saito, M. 16-226
Saito, N. 15-1223
Saito, S. **2**-334, **4**-226, **4**-248, **16**-294, **17**-231, 18-543
Saito, T. 10-779, **10**-856, **14**-256, **15**-992
Saito, Y. 10-151
Sait, S. 10-69
Saitoh, T. **12**-555
Saitou, K. 15-388
Saiz, J.L. 8-113
Sajus, L. **14**-214
Sakabe, M. 13-7
Sakabe, Y. 12-485
Sakai, H. 15-883
Sakai, K. 15-555
Sakai, M. 10-132, **10**-1871, **11**-483, **12**-420, 13-160, 15-349, 16-454, 18-654, 18-657
Sakai, N. 15-789, 15-798
Sakai, S. 16-205, **16**-258, **17**-405
Sakai, T. **10**-1307, **14**-339, **16**-313, **16**-447
Sakaitani, M. 10-1476
Sakajiri, T. 10-640
Sakaki, K. 19-676
Sakaki,T. 3-97
Sakakibara, K. 9-76
Sakakibara, N. **15**-523, **18**-636
Sakakibara, T. 11-342, 11-352
Sakakibara, Y. **10**-1871, **12**-420, **13**-158, **13**-160, **13**-161, **15**-349
Sakakura, T. 10-1931, **10**-1933, **11**-353, **14**-439, 19-43
Sakamoto, K. 15-1440
Sakamoto, T. **10**-1582 , 11-252, 15-183
Sakane, S. **18**-284
Sakat, S. 10-1965
Sakata, G. **16**-210
Sakata, S. 16-501
Sakata, Y. **2**-226, **2**-244, **15**-925, **15**-1054, **19**-83
Sakdarat, S. 10-653
Sakizadeh, K. 10-64, 10-66, 10-373
Sakuma, K. 8-167
Sakuraba, H. **16**-660
Sakuraba, S. 15-294
Sakuragi, H. **6**-10, 7-21
Sakurai, H. **4**-434, **4**-449, **5**-211, **5**-215, **10**-1190, 10-1317, **10**-1607, **12**-603, **15**-607, **15**-1358, **16**-477, **16**-591
Sala, R. 15-335
Salakhov, M.S. 15-1171
Salakhutdinov, N.F. 11-82
Salaman, A.M. **16**-200
Salaun, J. 16-81
Salaun, J.R. 18-176
Salaün, J. **10**-1299, **18**-127, 19-756
Salazar, J.A. 14-222
Salbaum, H. 16-788
Sale, A.A. 10-683
Salehi, P. 10-690
Salem, G. **10**-1531, **12**-445, 12-452, 15-641
Salem, G.F. 10-753
Salem, L. **4**-112, **4**-400, 5-239, **7**-32, **15**-1257
Salem, M.R. **16**-648
Salem, R.B. 15-546
Salemnick, G. 12-180
Salfeld, J.C. 13-220
Salim, J.R. 10-1063
Salinger, R. 5-88, 8-61, 8-62
Salinger, R.M. **5**-142, **12**-441, **16**-423
Salisbury, K. **18**-668
Sall, D.J. 10-1082
Sailer, H. 2-47
Salmón, M. 10-1495
Salmon-Legagneur, F. **18**-113
Salmond, W.G. 1-21
Salomaa, P. **10**-488, **10**-500, **10**-550, 10-641, **10**-685, **10**-733, **10**-824, 16-40
Salomon, C. 15-794
Salomon, C.J. 18-248
Salomon, M.F. 10-819, 10-1638

Salomon, R.G. **10-819, 10-1634, 11-361, 19-277**
Salomone, R.A. 16-932
Salov, B.V. 13-85
Saltiel, J. 7-46, 18-392
Saluja, P.P.S. 10-164
Salunkhe, A.M. 12-386
Salunkhe, M.M. 10-1274, 19-173
Saluzzo, C. 10-1183
Salvador, J. 19-574
Salvadori, P. 15-787,15-1011,16-502
Salvatella, L. 15-1203
Salvino, J.M. 8-163
Salzer, A. 5-129
Salzmann, T.N. **12-190, 17-240**
Salzner, U. 4-303, 4-304, 4-306
Sam, D.J. 10-446, 19-226
Samanich, D. 15-998
Samanta, A. 7-21
Samanta, T. 19-117,19-119
Sambri, L. **10-524,** 15-682
Samii, Z.K.M.A.E. 15-1103
Samitov, Yu.Yu. 6-55
Samizu, K. 19-106
Samkoff, N. 14-73, 14-337
Sammakia, T. 10-518
Sammes, M.P. 3-36, 17-424
Sammes, P.G. **10-1082,** 13-99, **15-1343,** 16-770, 18-685
Samoilova, N.A. 10-1026
Samoilova, Z.E. 4-34
Samokhvalov, G.I. 15-63
Samoshin, V.V. 4-272, 4-295, 4-327
Sample Jr., T.E. 15-1243
Sampoli, M. 8-111
Samsel, E.G. **15-362, 15-1074**
Samuel, C.J. 18-667
Samuel, D. 13-275
Samuel, **O. 16-659, 19-456**
Samuel, PA. 18-329
Samuelsson, B. 10-1164, 10-1166, **10-1702,** 19-426
Samuilov, Ya.D. 15-1153
Samuni, U. 19-200, 19-219
San Filippo Jr., J. 10-818, 10-1549, 11-433, **12-497, 14-121, 14-456, 18-614, 18-616, 19-66**
Sancassan, F. 4-253, 4-315, 8-143
Sanchez, A.M. 11-414
Sanchez, B.L. **13-281, 16-180**
Sanchez, M. de N. de. M. 10-229
Sanchez, M.G. 18-560
Sanchez, R. 10-1024, 16-147
Sanchez, **R.A. 15-113, 16-825**
Sánchez, B. 15-838
Sánchez, F. 10-799
Sánchez-Baeza, F. 19-222
Sanda, J.C. 4-433
Sandall, J.P.B. 11-95, 11-431
Sandanayaka, V.P 15-1489
Sandefur, L.O. 15-679
Sander, G.E. 10-1089
Sander, M.R. 11-416
Sander, W. 4-408,19-203
Sanderfer, P.O. 17-421
Sanders, **L.A.** 15-133
Sanderson, J.R. **17-438, 17-440, 17-441,** 17-442
Sanderson, R.T. 1-27
Sanderson, W.A. 18-17
Sandford, G. 16-248
Sandhu, J.S. **10-1946, 15-566, 16-26, 16-37,** 16-665, **16-668, 16-918, 19-639**
Sandifer, R.M. 16-612
Sandier, S.R. 10-826, 18-135, 18-428
Sandorfy, C. 3-1
Sandri, E. 4-401, 18-591
Sandri, J. 10-1166
Sandri, S. **19-62, 19-66**
Sandrock, G. 10-53
Sands, R.D. 9-11
Sandström, J. **4-191,** 4-192, 4-224, 4-436, 4-446
Sandström, M. 8-127
Sandu, J.S. 10-1578, 19-724
Sanematsu, F. 10-48
SanFilippo, L.J. 17-434, 17-444
Sangani, P.K. 19-345
Sangster, **D.F.** 14-197
Sankararaman, S. **10-543, 11-95, 18-118**
Sannicolo, F. 18-582
Sano, A. 14-136
Sano, H. **10-1894, 13-166, 15-486**
Sano, S. 10-1731
Sano, T. 10-1082
Sanseverino, A.M. 15-930
Sansom, P.J. 16-46
Sansone, E.B. 19-622
Sansoulet, J. **10-583, 10-636, 10-778, 10-1068,** 17-249
Santa, L.E. 16-372
Santaballa, J.A. 12-80
Santagostino, M. 19-110
Santamaria, J. 14-231
Santana, M. 19-522
Santaniello, E. 19-66, 19-270, 19-586
Santarsiero, B.D. **15-11**
Santelli, M. 15-607, 19-209, **19-708, 19-730**
Santi, R. 13-200
Santiago, A.N. 10-79

Santiago, B. 10-1584,12-214
Santiago, C. 11-25
Santiago, M.V. 18-688
Santiesteban, H. 10-868
Santinelli, F. 15-1060
Santini, S. 11-323
Santo, K. **16-813**
Santosusso, T.M. 19-355
Santra, M. 10-1929
Santry, D.P. 2-16
Santry, L.J. **10-229, 10-515**
Saporovskaya, M.B. 4-137, 4-174
Sapse, A.M. 16-429
Saraf, S.D. 11-365
Sarancha, V.N. 10-1156
Sarandeses, L.A. 15-700
Sarangi, C. 10-1103,10-1203
Saraswathy, V.G. **18-118**
Sard, H. 18-485
Sarda, P. 10-1311
Sarel, S. **10-172, 15-142**
Sarel-Imber, M. **10-172**
Sargent, G.D. **10-128, 10-130, 10-153,** 15-25, 15-27
Sargent, M.V. 2-72, 2-224, **2-246,** 8-303
Sarkar, A. 10-754, **10-1473, 10-1585, 15-169, 15-382, 16-173, 16-342,** 17-323
Sarkar, A.K. 12-34
Sarkar, D.C. **10-571, 16-23, 16-276**
Sarkar, T.K. 16-839
Sarkice, A.Y. 8-102
Sarkis, G. 10-188
Sarma, D.N. 17-290
Sarma, J.C. 15-739, 17-269
Sarma, K.D. 11-495
Sarmah, P. 10-1178
Sarner, S.F. 17-413
Sarshar, S. 15-1202
Sartamaria, J. 15-1225
Sarthou, P. **10-473, 10-474**
Sartore, G. 10-608
Sartori, G. 11-285, **11-340, 11-346,** 11-358, 11-360
Sartoris, N. 15-1318
Sarussi, S.J. 19-602
Sasahara, T. 12-485
Sasai, H. 10-693, 15-1045, 16-584
Sasaki, H. **10-1584,** 15-1069, 19-604
Sasaki, K. 11-483, 12-420, 13-158, 13-225, 14-202, 14-206, 15-349, 16-591, 19-350
Sasaki, R. 16-246, 16-798
Sasaki, S. **10-1240, 10-1648**
Sasaki, T. 10-1532
Sasaki, Y. 15-222
Sasakura, K. 11-362, 11-383, **11-384,** 16-612
Sasaoka, M. **2-326,** 14-149
Sasaoka, S. 10-1650, **19-631**
Sashima, M. 18-286
Sashiwa, H. 10-1402, 14-475
Sasidharan, M. **17-147, 19-342**
Sassaman, M.B. **10-1328, 16-95**
Sasse, M.J. 19-617
Sasson, S. 15-1264
Sasson, Y. **10-442, 10-650, 10-778, 10-1107,** 10-1154, 11-204, 11-331, 14-53, 17-249
Sastry, K.A.R. 12-361
Sastry, V.V.S.K. 16-525
Satchell, D.P.N. **8-127, 10-216, 10-503,** 10-533, 10-535, 10-562, 10-563, 10-564, 10-565, **10-765, 10-890, 10-982, 10-1046, 11-309, 11-386, 12-203, 12-207, 12-289, 15-163,** 15-184, **15-211, 15-224, 15-248, 16-46, 16-97, 16-98, 16-99, 16-196**
Satchell, R.S. **8-127, 10-216,** 10-503, 10-535, **10-1046, 12-203, 12-207, 15-163, 15-184, 15-211, 15-248, 16-46, 16-97, 16-98, 16-99,** 16-196
Satgé, J. 1-9
Sathe, S.S. 15-1447
Sathyanarayana, B.K. 4-103
Satish, S. 16-30
Sato, A. 18-454, 18-542
Sato, F. **4-160, 10-1587, 12-400, 14-458, 15-489, 15-524, 15-694**
Sato, H. **15-1194, 16-624**
Sato, K. **11-376, 13-221, 15-971, 18-593, 19-382**
Sato, K.-I. **15-234, 15-235**
Sato, M. 10-1583, 10-1587, 10-1955, 12-400, **13-129, 14-458, 15-475, 15-694, 15-729**
Sato, R. 16-226
Sato, S. **7-49, 10-1344,** 11-188
Sato, T. **10-748, 10-787, 10-877, 10-1429, 10-1638, 10-1962, 12-247, 15-457, 15-690, 15-822, 15-847, 16-379, 16-542,** 16-598, 16-618, **16-641, 18-301, 18-436, 18-601,** 19-546, 19-733
Sato, Y. **11-104, 13-279, 13-281, 15-1459, 15-1482, 16-935**
Satoh, A. 11-381
Satoh, H. 14-428
Satoh, J.Y. 10-205, 11-228, 12-130, 12-140, 15-1005
Satoh, M. 10-1584
Satoh, T. 10-1918, **-204, 14-131, 16-354, 16-712,** 18-161, 19-555
Satoh, Y. **16-452,** 16-923, 18-239

Satoh,Y. 15-729
Satti, A.M. 12-59
Sattur, P.B. 16-927
Satyamurthy, N. 10-1139
Satyanarayana, N. 10-1921
Saucy, G. **18**-560, **16**-620
Sauer, J. **10**-1522, **13**-75, **13**-139, **15**-1153, **15**-1171, **15**-1211, **15**-1223, **15**-1244, **15**-1250, **15**-1254, **15**-1275, **15**-1295, **15**-1379
Sauennann, D. 15-898
Sauermann, G. 5-131, 5-137
Sauerwald, M. 10-1747
Saumtally, I. 12-204
Saunders Jr., W.H. **6**-58, **10**-380, **12**-84, **17**-3, **17**-6, **17**-7, **17**-22, **17**-26, **17**-27, **17**-28, **17**-31, **17**-32, **17**-55, **17**-58, **17**-60, **17**-62, **17**-63, **17**-71, **17**-81, **17**-82, **17**-88, **17**-90, **17**-94, **17**-95, **17**-99, **17**-160, **17**-195, **17**-331, **18**-35, **18**-227, **18**-243, **18**-244, **18**-538, **18**-540, **18**-685, **19**-470
Saunders, D.G. 5-233
Saunders, M. 2-194, **4**-332, **4**-393, 5-2, 5-18, **10**-161, **10**-180, **10**-181, **10**-979, **18**-2, **18**-8, **18**-22, **18**-27, **18**-42, **18**-49, **18**-430, **18**-524
Saupe, T. 8-154, 8-155, 8-156
Saus, A. 19-804
Saussine, L. 15-1056
Sauter, F. 11-494
Sauvage, J. 19-760
Sauvage, J.-P. 3-150, 3-151
Sauvage, J.P. **4**-201
Sauve, D.M. 15-334
Sauve, G. 10-1337
Savage, G.P. 15-1155
Saveant, J. **10**-75, **13**-40, **13**-42, **13**-46, **13**-76, 13-98
Savéant, J.-M. 13-44
Savedoff, L.G. 10-327
Savel'yanov, V.P. 10-1164
Savel'yanova, R.T. 10-1164
Savelli, G. **11**-323, **15**-1001, **15**-1060
Savelova, V.A. **10**-2042, **10**-2050
Savenko, T.V. 15-1038
Savenkov, N.F. 15-982
Savige, W.E. **19**-428
Savignac, M. **13**-177, **14**-368, **15**-533, **19**-689
Savignac, P. 16-326
Saville, B. **10**-903, **12**-589
Savin, V.I. **4**-42, **16**-416
Savimykh, Yu.V. 10-309
Savle, P.S. 15-1073
Savoia, D. 12-554
Sawa, Y. **12**-402, **15**-743
Sawada, M. **5**-304, **10**-48, **10**-150, **10**-322
Sawada, S. **4**-390
Sawada, T. 10-489
Sawaguchi, M. **15**-883
Sawaki, Y **15**-1086, **18**-307, **19**-171, **19**-221
Sawamura, M. 16-660
Sawaya, H.S. 16-741
Sawistowska, M.H. 15-343
Sawyer, D.T. 19-305
Sawyer, J.S. 10-941, **12**-440, **15**-1450
Saxena, M.P 19-193
Saxena, N. 19-287
Saxton, R.G. 2-198
Sayal, P.K. **14**-172
Sayce, I.G. 19-5
Sayer, J.M. **16**-41, **16**-217, **16**-218
Sayigh, A. 10-12
Sayigh, A.A.R. 16-884
Sayles, D.C. 10-1476
Sayo, N. **15**-369, **16**-322
Sayrac, T. **2**-164, **14**-268
Sayre, L.M. 12-40
Sbai, A. 15-1212
Sbarbati, N.E. 12-402
Scaiano, J. 7-1
Scaiano, J.C. 5-239, 7-1, **7**-39, **14**-65, **14**-86, 18-70
Scalzi, F.V. 12-134
Scamehorn, R.G. **13**-194, **18**-165
Scamuzzi, B. 10-859
Scanlan, T.S 10-869
Scannon, P.J. 8-69, 8-74
Scarborough Jr., R.M. 10-868, 19-339
Scarpati, R. 15-1157
Scarpi, D. 16-314
Scartozzi, M. 15-262
Scerer Jr., K.V. 18-392
Scettri, A. **15**-917, **15**-1059, **19**-60, **19**-401, 19-404
Schaad, L.J. 2-74, 2-81, 2-182, **3**-1, **12**-85
Schaaf, T.K. 15-904
Schaafsma, S.E. 16-20
Schaap, A. **10**-1669, **15**-1095
Schaap, A.R 15-1100
Schaap, L.A. 15-498
Schaart, B.J. 12-473
Schaasberg-Nienhuis, Z.R.H. 11-175
Schachtschneider, J.H. **15**-1364, **18**-420
Schade, C. 5-62, **5**-115, **5**-130, **12**-270, **12**-423, 15-966
Schade, G. 16-739
Schade, P. 2-268
Schädler, H.D. 17-397
Schadt, F.L. **10**-138, **10**-142, **10**-405, **10**-417

Schaefer ffl, H.F. **1**-11,2-52, **2**-137, 2-209, 4-229, **5**-271, **5**-272, 5-309, **7**-15, **15**-10
Schaefer, A.D. 10-1053
Schaefer, F.C. **16**-12, **16**-104
Schaefer, J.P. **2**-128, **10**-1166, **10**-1996, **13**-141, 14-171, **16**-805, **19**-296
Schaefer, T. 3-44
Schaefer, W. 4-435
Schaeffer, W.D. **4**-20, **10**-384
Schäfer, B. 15-1290
Schäfer, G. **10**-414, **10**-430
Schäfer, H. **14**-491, **18**-341, **18**-343, **19**-120
Schäfer, H.J. **14**-117, **14**-487, **15**-1186, **17**-432, **19**-169, **19**-344
Schäfer, L. 3-27
Schäfer, U. **4**-371, **17**-430
Schäfer, W. 4-421, **15**-1373, **15**-1374, **15**-1378
Schaffers, T. **18**-516
Schaffner, K. **11**-416, **18**-669, **18**-673, **18**-676
Schaffrodt, H. 18-19
Schakel, M. **10**-784, **15**-42, 18-489
Schaleger, L.L. 10-513
Schaller, C. **12**-244
Schaller, J. 15-1199
Schaller, R. 10-2014
Schallner, O. 5-75
Schaltegger, A. 18-157
Schambach, R.A. 11-469
Schamp, N. 16-716
Schank, K. **10**-821, **10**-904, **10**-2007, **12**-557, 19-454
Scharf, D.J. 15-1447
Scharf, G. 11-487
Scharf, H. 15-1211,15-1343
Schat, G. **12**-438, **12**-455
Schatz, B. 18-546
Schatz, J. 15-1275
Schaub, B. **16**-724, **16**-771, **16**-775
Schaub, F. 15-716
Schauble, J.H. **15**-876, **16**-272, **19**-402
Schauder, J.R. 17-295
Schaumann, E. 15-1339, **6**-2, **16**-4, **16**-919, **16**-920, **18**-579
Schaus, S.E. **10**-557, **15**-1209
Scheer, J.C. 17-130
Scheeren, J.W. **11**-315, **15**-1311, **16**-124, **16**-909
Scheffer, J.R. 4-115,5-239
Scheffler, K. 5-201
Scheffold, R. 17-173
Scheibye, S. **16**-114, **16**-115, **16**-116, **16**-118
Scheidt, F. 10-204
Scheinbaum, M.L. 18-464
Scheiner, P. 17-423
Scheiner, S. 3-17
Scheinmann, F. **10**-1856, **18**-537
Scheithauer, S. 10-891
Schell,F.M. 18-288
Schellenberg, K.A. 16-170
Schellenberger, H. 19-175
Schellman, J.A. **4**-222
Schemenaur, J.E. 16-272
Schenck, G.Or **14**-245, **15**-1089
Schenck, T.G. **18**-571
Schenk, W.N. 10-579
Schenkluhn, H. **15**-1483
Schepers, R.G. **18**-681
Schepp, N.P. **02**-315, 2-317, **2**-318, **12**-83, 12-123
Scheppele, S.E. **6**-75, **10**-150
Scheraga, H.A. 4-332
Scherer, P. **12**-34, **12**-35
Scherrer, R.A. 13-137
Schertler, P. 4-369
Schetty, G. 18-115
Scheuermann, H. 4-265
Scheuplein, S.W. 18-599
Scheurer, P.G. 10-490
Schiano, A.-M. **16**-863
Schiavelli, M.D. **10**-210, **10**-252, **10**-1623, 15-191
Schick, H. 10-472
Schick, U. 14-347
Schieb, T. 2-235
Schiemenz, G.P. **16**-723, **16**-744
Schiess, M. **10**-753, **16**-192
Schiess, P.W. 17-342
Schiesser, C.H. **4**-293, **5**-70, **5**-72, **14**-254, 15-101
Schiffers, R. 18-544
Schijf, R. 11-315
Schildknegt, K. 18-256
Schill, G. 3-142, **3**-146, **3**-147, 4-82, 10-1790
Schilling, M.B. 15-1076
Schilling, P. **14**-130
Schilling, W. 10-730
Schimperna, G. 16-623
Schindbauer, H. **10**-1021
Schindler, S.R. 16-786
Schinke, U. 18-615
Schinz, H. 10-2024
Schinzer, D. 15-607
Schipper, P. 10-132
Schippers, PH. 4-181
Schissler, D.O. 15-317
Schlag, E.W. 5-278, 7-21

Schlapbach, A. 16-453
Schläpfer-Dähler, M. 4-391
Schlatter, M.J. 4-396
Schlegel, H.B. 1-96, 4-251, 5-105, 10-19, 10-352, 14-51
Schleker, W. 15-1211
Schlemper, H. 17-248
Schlenk Jr., W. 4-91, **4**-133, 5-141
Schlenk, W. 5-141
Schlessinger, R.H. **10**-1741, **10**-1790, **15**-748
Schleyer, P.v.R. **1**-10, **1**-33, 1-48, 1-54, 2-14, 2-76, 2-167, 2-209, 2-257, 2-290, 2-305, 3-41, **3**-42, **3**-47, **3**-49, **4**-303, **4**-304, **4**-423, **5**-2, **5**-42, 5-45, 5-66, 5-68, 5-73, 5-86, 5-108, 5-115, 5-130, 5-132, 5-138, 5-158, 5-167, 6-79, 8-96, **8**-191, **10**-11, **10**-39, **10**-41, **10**-44, **10**-46, **10**-59, **10**-64, **10**-67, **10**-103, **10**-104, **10**-109, **10**-110, 10-114, **10**-133, **10**-137, **10**-138, **10**-142, 10-144, **10**-150, **10**-157, **10**-158, **10**-161, 10-164, **10**-168, **10**-172, **10**-176, 10-179, **10**-181, **10**-186, **10**-188, **10**-253, 10-255, **10**-256, **10**-278, **10**-279, **10**-280, 10-312, **10**-313, **10**-319, **10**-367, **10**-405, 10-417, **10**-1179, **10**-1217, **10**-1670, **12**-8, **12**-270, **12**-281, **12**-297, **12**-423, **12**-519, **12**-549, **14**-69, 15-138, 15-420, **15**-1371, **16**-429, **18**-2, **18**-9, **18**-18, **18**-29, **18**-92, **18**-98, 18-99, 18-100, **18**-101, **18**-103, 18-104, **18**-428, **18**-429, 18-430, 18-511, 19-654
Schlicher, J.W. 16-364
Schlingloff, G. **16**-470, **18**-297
Schlitt, R. 18-549
Schlögl, K. 4-69, 4-72, 4-143
Schlögl, R. 15-328
Schlosberg, R.H. 5-21, 5-27, 11-14
Schlosser, M. 10-1522, 12-265, 12-268, 12-269, **12**-316, **12**-424, **16**-724, **16**-734, **16**-763, **16**-768, **16**-770, **16**-771, **16**-775, **16**-776, 16-777, 16-778, 17-24, 17-26, 17-172, 17-252, 18-348
Schlubach, H.H. 15-952
Schlund, R. 12-61
Schlüter, A. 4-364
Schlüter, K. 15-93
Schmalstieg, L. 2-233
Schmalz, D. 2-269, 5-132
Schmalzing, D. 4-143
Schmelzer, A. 4-349
Schmerling, L. **15**-492, **15**-501, **15**-966
Schmickler, H. **2**-79, **2**-235, **2**-243, **2**-268, **2**-273, 2-277
Schmid, B. 16-75
Schmid, C.R. 19-73
Schmid, G.H. **10**-106, **10**-115, **15**-1, **15**-15, **15**-20, **15**-21, **15**-25, **15**-78, **15**-86, **15**-1137
Schmid, H. **10**-1058, **15**-1263, **18**-439, **18**-508, **18**-537, **18**-54, **18**-568, **18**-572
Schmid, J. 19-205
Schmid, M. 18-568
Schmid, P. 13-10,13-11
Schmidbaur, H. **4**-444
Schmidlin, J. 15-714
Schmidlin, R. 5-265
Schmidt, A. 12-489
Schmidt, A.H. 2-287, **10**-1247, **18**-415, **19**-668
Schmidt, B. 19-722
Schmidt, C. 15-1251
Schmidt, D. 18-525
Schmidt, E.K.G. 18-489
Schmidt, E.W. 14-283
Schmidt, G. **4**-319, **19**-61
Schmidt, G.M.J. 2-240, **4**-115
Schmidt, H. **4**-404, **19**-344
Schmidt, J. 10-1483
Schmidt, K. 2-235
Schmidt, K.E. 4-332
Schmidt, M.W. 1-10
Schmidt, R. 10-1286
Schmidt, R.E. 10-1747
Schmidt, R.R. 2-198, **5**-119, **10**-1821, 15-1272, 15-1277
Schmidt, S. 10-1767
Schmidt, S.P. 10-1164
Schmidt, T. 12-75, 16-310
Schmidt, U. **10**-728, **10**-730
Schmidt, W. **2**-183, **15**-1189, **15**-1262
Schmidtchen, F.P. 4-202, 4-205
Schmiedel, R. 2-166
Schmitt, E. 19-542
Schmitt, H.J. 15-525
Schmitt, R.J. 12-581
Schmittberger, T. 10-584
Schmittel, M. 5-249, **18**-411
Schmitter, J. 10-1647
Schmittou, E.R. 10-497
Schmitz, C. 17-235
Schmitz, E. 4-36, 16-71, 18-679
Schmitz, PH. 10-1761
Schmitz, R. **13**-153, **15**-715, **19**-606
Schmitz, R.F. 10-784
Schmolke, B. 18-489
Schmuff, N.R. 5-127, 10-1717
Schnabel, W. 2-125
Schnack, L.G. 10-312, 18-426
Schneemeyer, L.F. 3-43
Schneider, A. 18-101

Schneider, D.R. 18-425
Schneider, F. 5-178
Schneider, G. 8-67
Schneider, H. **1**-42, **4**-279, **9**-10, **10**-172, **14**-162, **15**-12, **15**-1038
Schneider, H.-J. 3-85, 4-319
Schneider, J.A. **4**-114
Schneider, K. **4**-432, **18**-416
Schneider, M. 19-64
Schneider, M.F. 18-635
Schneider, M.P. **18**-502, **18**-503
Schneider, P. **12**-448
Schneider, R. 15-966
Schneider, S. 7-21
Schnell, H. **5**-198, **11**-359
Schnell, H.W. 5-37
Schnering, H.G. von 8-157
Schnöckel, H. 4-408
Schnorrenberg, G. **10**-1030
Schnurpfeil, D. 15-928
Schöbel, G. 16-721
Schoch, J. 18-704
Schoeller, W.W. 11-13
Schoemaker, H.E. 15-633
Schoenberg, A. **10**-1916, **10**-1918
Schoeneck, W. 13-249
Schoffstall, A.M. 15-1153
Schofield, K. **11**-26, **11**-30, **11**-37, **11**-46, **11**-50, **11**-51, **11**-78, **11**-88, **11**-90, **11**-91, 11-113
Schofield, K. **18**-279, **18**-280
Scholes, G. 19-268
Scholl, M. 18-647
Scholl, P.C. 19-300
Schöllkopf, U. **4**-111, **10**-312, **12**-8, **15**-1380, **16**-672, **16**-673, **16**-738, **18**-317, **18**-319, **18**-321, **18**-322, **18**-328, **18**-329, **18**-340, **18**-341, **18**-343, **18**-423, **18**-429, **18**-594
Scholz, D. 12-192
Scholz, M. 5-261
Schomäcker, R. 11-13
Schomaker, V. 2-187
Schönberg, A. **7**-34, **12**-71, **15**-49, **15**-1089, **15**-1343, **16**-901, **19**-715
Schönberger, A. 19-130
Schönleber, D. 18-503
Schoofs, A.R. 4-179,10-205
Schoolenberg, J. **15**-280, **15**-373
Schore, N.E. **14**-314, **15**-1458
Schossig, J. 18-328
Schotte, L. 12-118
Schoustra, B. 17-2
Schowen, K.B. 16-830
Schowen, R.L. 6-86, **6**-87, **10**-222, **10**-625, **10**-626, **16**-830, **16**-855
Schrage, K. 15-322
Schrapler, U. **19**-753
Schreader, L. 10-1318
Schreck, J.O. 9-71, 9-81
Schrecken, H. 14-456
Schreckenberg, M. 10-1761
Schreer, M. **16**-427
Schreiber, J. **10**-794, **10**-1218, **12**-34, **16**-188, **16**-190, **17**-359, **19**-120
Schreiber, M.R. 17-88
Schreiber, S.L. **15**-1343, **19**-111, **19**-193
Schreibmann, A.A.P. **19**-701
Schreier, P. 19-312
Schreiner, PR. **10**-1179, **14**-111
Schriesheim, A. **5**-38, **11**-240, **11**-357, **12**-62, **13**-237, **17**-232, **17**-234, **19**-179, **19**-431, **19**-492
Schriver, G.W. **5**-2, **10**-157
Schrock, R.R. **16**-802, **18**-621, **18**-625, **18**-644, **18**-645, **18**-650
Schröder, B. **18**-663
Schröder, F. 15-542
Schröder, G. 2-226, 2-246, 2-262, 2-271, 4-160, **15**-1020, **18**-519, **18**-520, **18**-522, **19**-21, 19-201
Schröder, M. **3**-89, **15**-985
Schröder, U. 16-673
Schr0der, S. 17-5
Schroeck, C.W. **16**-895, **16**-896
Schroeder, H.E. 3-78
Schroeter, S. 14-245
Schroll, G. **10**-944, **15**-334
Schroth, W. **2**-92, **17**-397, **19**-799
Schrott, W. **12**-375
Schrumpf, G. **4**-231, **10**-1669
Schubert, H. 4-116
Schubert, R.M. 10-1360
Schubert, U. **4**-444, **15**-507
Schubert, W.M. **2**-304, **11**-41, **11**-300, **11**-463, **11**-464, **14**-515, **15**-24, **19**-259
Schug, R. 15-1331
Schugar, H.J. 2-159
Schuijl, P.J.W. 18-579
Schuld, C.L. 15-1028
Schulenberg, J.W. **2**-333, **18**-687
Schuler, R.H. 5-227, 5-234
Schulman, D.R. 16-17
Schulman, E.M. **16**-17
Schulman, J.M. 4-363
Schulman, M.F. 15-421
Schulmeier, B. 11-196
Schult,K.E. 15-247
Schulte-Elte, K.H. **12**-525, **14**-247

Schulte-Frohlinde, D. 7-46
Schultz, A.G. **5-263, 18-397, 18-673**
Schultz, F. 11-464
Schultz, **H.P.** 10-2023
Schultz, J.C. 5-63
Schultz, M. 19-38
Schultz, R.A. 3-76
Schultz, S.C. 15-280, 15-373
Schultze, L.M. 16-922
Schulz, H. 14-196
Schulz, J.G.D. 19-253
Schulz, L. 10-1713
Schulz, M. **14-187**
Schulz, W.H. 2-235
Schulz-von Itter, N. 10-545
Schulze, P.D. 5-290
Schumacher, R. 16-810
Schumann, H. 15-535
Schumann, R.C. 16-592
Schummer, A. 4-202
Schummer, D. 18-198
Schurig, V. 4-35, 4-141, 4-143, 4-176
Schurz, K. 1-11
Schüssler, H. 10-810, **10-1011**
Schiiler, M. 14-187
Schuster, A. 4-367
Schuster, D.I. **7-53, 15-1346, 15-1360, 18-669,** 18-674
Schuster, G.B. **1-42, 5-280, 5-297, 5-322, 14-254**
Schuster, **H.F.** 4-110, **4-412, 10-209, 15-104,** 15-312, 15-1303, 16-917, 17-328, 18-139, 18-576
Schuster, I.I. 5-77
Schuster, P. 3-1
Schut, J. **10-1408,** 14-476
Schütte, H. 10-311
Schiiürmann, G. 10-397
Schwab, J.W. 10-603
Schwab, PA. 15-1086
Schwab, W. 18-391
Schwan, A.L. 10-1382
Schwarm, M. 19-553
Schwartz, A. 4-163
Schwartz, H.S. 10-795
Schwartz, J. 12-194, **15-485, 15-692, 15-693, 16-791, 16-802, 17-352, 19-713**
Schwartz, J.L. 18-577
Schwartz, L.H. 18-46
Schwartz, L.M. 8-141
Schwartz, M. 4-232
Schwartz, M.A. 19-621
Schwartz, R.A. 12-272
Schwartz, S. 8-19
Schwartz, S.J. 18-359
Schwartzman, L.H. 16-364
Schwarz, H. 5-2, 5-58, **10-114,** 10-472, 18-74, 19-46
Schwarz, J. 8-75, 19-299
Schwarz, M.J. 16-831
Schwarz, R 15-598
Schwarz, S. 10-472
Schwarz, W. 13-255, 16-925
Schwarzenbach, D. 2-334
Schwarzenbach, **K.** 15-1426
Schweig, A. 2-164,2-175,4-404
Schweikert, N. 3-146
Schweinsberg, F. 14-27
Schweiter, M.J. 15-1065
Schweitzer, D. 2-256
Schweizer, E.E. 15-1381, 17-208
Schweizer, T. 1-42
Schweizer, W.B. 4-245, 4-435, 5-164, 5-165, 12-35, 16-192
Schwellnus, K. 16-679
Schwellnus. K. 10-1747
Schwemlein, H.P. 3-59
Schwendeman, R.H. 1-52, 1-77
Schwenker, R.P 7-27
Schwenkreis, T. 15-1069
Schwesinger, R. 8-157, 17-248
Schwetlic, K. 14-234
Schwetlick, K. 12-610, 14-308
Sciacovelli, O. **17-31**
Scilly, N.F. 10-1977
Sclove, D.B. 18-170
Scola, PM. 10-946, 15-1272
Scopes, D.I.C. 15-256
Scopes, **P.M. 4-91**
Scorrano, G. 5-60, 8-9, 8-97, **8-111,** 10-538, 10-613
Scott, A.D. 10-2, 10-600
Scott, A.I. 10-1575
Scott, C.B. 10-341, 17-283
Scott, F.L. 5-49
Scott, I.L. 15-1478
Scott, J.A. 8-181, 8-189, 8-194
Scott, J.M.W. **6-56, 10-21, 10-22, 10-63, 11-441**
Scott, J.W. **4-109, 4-111**
Scott, K.J. 17-92
Scott, K.W. **18-622, 18-623, 18-625**
Scott, L.T. 2-267, 2-293, **2-297, 2-299, 10-730,** 18-530
Scott, M.D. 17-374
Scott, M.K. 12-552
Scott, R.M. 18-328
Scott, S.L. 15-237, 19-55

Scott, W.B. 4-381, 10-1483
Scott, W.J. **10-1517, 10-1617, 10-1618, 14-356, 14-372, 14-373**
Scouten, C.G. 10-162
Scremin, M. **10-719**
Screttas, C.G. **9-59, 10-1918, 12-266, 12-412, 14-483, 14-485, 16-297, 16-558, 18-159**
Scribner, R.M. **10-1159, 16-241**
Scriven, C.E. 19-745
Scriven, E.F.V. **5-317, 10-711, 10-1095,** 10-1101, 11-130, 12-187, **15-1153, 18-227, 18-243, 19-635**
Scully Jr., F.E. 19-369
Seabury, M. 15-1327
Seabury, N.J. 13-62
Seapy, D.G. 10-1164
Searle, C.E. 17-416
Searle, R. 2-49
Sears, P.G. 8-199
Sebastian, J.F. 1-47
Sebastian, R. **3-44**
Sebastiani, G.V. **17-31, 17-33, 17-49, 17-108**
Sebban, M. 12-468
Sechrest, R.C. 4-297
Seco, J.M. 4-97, 4-98
Seconi, G. 12-44
Secor, R.M. 4-152
Secundo, F. 19-457
Sedaghat-Herati, M.R. 10-304, 11-26
Sedelmeier, G. 15-1371
Sederholm, C.H. 4-261
Sedlmeier, J. 19-391
Sedrani, R. 10-1655, 15-707
See Ross, D.S. 11-136
Seebach, D. **4-106,** 4-107, 4-111, 4-357, 5-132, 5-164, **5-165, 10-534, 10-753, 10-1763, 10-1764, 10-1785, 10-1789, 10-1793, 10-1795,** 10-1799, 10-1808, 10-1818, **10-1854, 10-1991, 10-2008, 12-190, 12-485, 15-577, 15-688, 15-1256, 16-192, 16-406, 16-588, 16-651,** 19-437, 19-649, **19-722, 19-730**
Seeboth, H. **13-81, 13-132,** 13-133, 13-135
Seekircher, R. 19-253
Seeley, D.A. 15-1263
Seely, F.L. 14-8
Seeman, J.I. 4-221, **9-12, 18-409**
Seetz, J.W.F.L. **12-438, 12-453**
Sefcik, M.D. 12-50
Seferin, M. 15-521
Segal, G.A. 2-16
Segall, Y. 15-339
Segawa, K. 16-326
Seger, A. 16-470
Segmuller, B. 4-450
Segoe, K. 10-1876
Seguineau, P. 16-749
Segura, P. **9-78, 11-468**
Sehgal, A. 18-558
Sehmi, P. 5-6,6-46
Seib, R.C. **10-150, 17-35**
Seibel, W.L. **10-1082, 17-263**
Seibl, J. 10-15
Seid, M. 18-238
Seidel, B. **15-1302, 15-1330**
Seidel, **C.F.** 10-2024
Seidel, G. 13-176
Seidel, W.C. 15-812
Seidl, P. 10-128
Seiji, Y. 13-287
Seijo, E. 16-647
Seikaly, H.R. **15-163, 15-184, 15-211, 15-248**
Seiler, P. 3-36
Seiler, S.T. 4-364
Seip, H.M. 2-28, 4-215, 4-256
Seip, R. 3-40
Seites, P.G. 10-1225
Seitz Jr., **E.P.** 10-1642
Seitz, G. 2-166
Seitz, W. 4-36
Sekar, G. **15-1407, 19-323**
Seki, H. 3-145
Seki, Y. 10-150
Sekiguchi, A. **4-434, 10-856**
Sekiguchi, S. **10-625, 11-150, 13-12, 13-114**
Sekine, Y. 13-108
Sekiya, A. **12-368, 13-158, 13-163, 13-260,** 15-160
Sekiya, K. 10-1566
Sekiya, M. **10-1659, 16-147, 16-175, 18-212**
Selby, D.W. 10-206
Seletsky, B.M. 15-1209
Seliger, H.H. 15-1101
Selikson, S.J. 19-679
Selimov, F.A. 15-525
Sella, A. 10-314
Sellén, M. **10-1647**
Sellers, C. 13-266
Sellers, S.F. 18-488
Selman, CM. 12-12
Selman, S. 18-155
Seltzer, R. **10-472, 10-473**
Seltzer, S. **15-1244, 15-1248**
Selva, A. 14-396
Selva, M. 19-182
Selve, C. 10-952
Selwood, T. 10-597

Semenov, A.O. 14-86
Semenow, D. 10-381
Semenow, D.A. **13**-33, **13**-66
Semigran, M.J. 19-739
Semmelhack, M.E. 2-43
Semmelhack, M.F. **10**-1490, **10**-1597, **10**-1599, **10**-1601, **13**-195, **13**-221, **14**-342, **15**-196, 15-1483, **17**-277, **19**-73
Semmingsen, D. 2-286
Semones, A.M. 13-222
Sen Gupta, K.K. 14-216
Sen Gupta, S. 14-216
Sen Sharma, D.K. 10-158
Sen, A. **14**-271
Sen, D. 3-80
Sen, K.D. 1-22
Sen, S.E. **10**-522, **15**-509, **15**-512
Senanayake, C.B.W. 14-379
Senatore, L. **10**-2032, **10**-2033
Senda, Y. 15-120
Senders, J.R. **4**-373, **15**-1463
Sendijarevič, V. 17-35
Sendijarević, V **10**-46, **10**-59
Senet, J. 10-1229
Seneviratne, V. **19**-420
Seng, F. 15-1455, 16-787
Senglet, N. 19-310
Sengupta, D. 12-550
Sengupta, K.K. **19**-117, **19**-119
Sengupta, S. **12**-278, **14**-433
Senn, M. **12**-92, **14**-91
Sennhenn, P.C. 15-1111
Senthilnathan, V.P. 5-291
Senzaki, Y. **15**-1425, **18**-396, **18**-527
Seo, S. 4-171
Seoane, G. **15**-103, **15**-1398
Seoane, P. **15**-1285
Seong, C.M. 15-977
Seppelt, K. 1-93
Seppo, E. 18-52
Sera, A. **6**-50, **10**-459, **17**-31, 19-686
Sereda, G.A. 15-874
Sérée de Roch 14-214
Seregina, V.F. 13-85
Serelis, A.K 15-102
Sergeev , N.M. 4-272
Sergeev, G.B. **12**-477, **15**-22, **15**-154, **15**-162
Sergeeva, N.S. 12-603
Sergeeva, Z.I. 19-647
Sergi, V. 10-513
Serguchev, Yu.A. 19-263
Serizawa, H. 15-729
Serizawa, Y. 10-877
Serjeant, E.P. 8-18, 8-137
Serra-Zanetti, F. 17-364
Serratosa, F. 2-286, 2-287, 10-615
Serravalle, M. **11**-164, **14**-88, **14**-395, 14-437
Servi, S. 15-298
Servis, K.L. 10-158, **15**-1256, **18**-397
Sesana, G. 14-399
Seshadri, S. 14-147
Seshita, T. 10-1479
Sessions, R.B. 4-203
Sestanj, K. 11-363
Seter, J. 10-131
Seth, S. 17-213
Seth-Paul, W.A. 9-47
Sethi, K. 16-705
Sethi, P. 10-2004
Sethna, S. **11**-288, **11**-299
Setiarahardjo, I.U. 13-9
Seto, H. 13-144
Seto, K. 13-190
Setsune, J. 13-189
Setzer, W.N. 5-132
Seubert, J. 18-417
Seubold Jr., F.H. 18-55, 18-62
Severin, T. **13**-153, **15**-715, **19**-302, **19**-606
Sevin, A. **14**-316, **15**-1342, 18-52, 18-103
Sevlapalam, N. 10-761
Sevrin, M. 10-1164
Sewald, N. 15-698
Sexsmith, S.R. 15-1467
Sexton, A. **12**-451, **12**-466
Seybold, G. 2-181, **2**-183, **18**-42
Seydel, R. 11-262
Seyden-Penne, J. **8**-128, **10**-1249, 15-561, 15-686, 16-253, **16**-334, 16-491, 16-705, 17-110, 19-10,19-496
Seyferth, D. 5-306, 10-1264, 12-243, **12**-251, 12-394, 12-440, **15**-744, **15**-745, **15**-1386, **15**-1388, **15**-1389, **16**-396, **16**-397, 16-734
Seyler, J.K. 15-283
Sfulcini, A. 15-539
Sha, C. 16-425
Sha, C.-K. 15-840
Shaapuni, D.Kh. **10**-1310
Shabana, R. **16**-114, 19-796
Shackleton, T.A. 15-362
Shaefer, C.G. 10-1418
Shäfer, W. 2-164
Shaffer, D.K. 14-221
Shafran, Yu.M. 16-820
Shah, A.C. 10-1020
Shah, R.D. 16-169
Shah, S.K. 10-1780

Shahak, I. **10-1107, 10-1198**
Shaik, S. 10-914, 15-1257
Shaik, S.S. 2-6, 2-37, 8-123, 10-74, 10-85, 10-349, 10-224
Shainyan, B.A. 2-349, 10-237, 10-244, 10-260
Shair, M.D. 18-539
Shakespeare, W.C. 4-417
Shakhidayatov, Kh. 12-56
Shakirov, M. **11-13**
Shakirov, M.M. 18-6,18-11
Shalaev, V.K. **15-1192, 19-472**
Shamma, M. 10-870, 15-904
Shamsuddin, K.M. 10-1422
Shandala, M.Y. 19-632
Shang, X. 16-645
Shani, A. 2-218
Shank, R.S. 15-1432
Shankar, B.K.R. **4-376**
Shanklin, J.R. 16-671, **16-895, 16-896**
Shanklin, M.S. 15-789
Shannon, I.J. 17-213
Shannon, **P.J.** 19-555
Shannon, P.T. 7-46
Shao, D. 16-439
Shao, J.-G. 15-1212
Shao, L. 18-558
Shapiro, B.L. 2-78
Shapiro, G. 10-959
Shapiro, **I.O.** 5-39
Shapiro, R.H. 17-215, **17-216, 17-220,** 17-221
Shapley, J.R. 15-1366
Sharanin, Yu.A. 15-1456
Sharf, B. **7-21**
Sharf, V.Z. 16-835
Sharghi, H. 11-408
Sharifi, A. 16-73
Sharifi, T. 11-26
Sharma, A.K. 19-793
Sharma, D.K. 7-45
Sharma, G.T. 9-74
Sharma, J.P. 19-60,19-119
Sharma, M. **14-170, 18-469**
Sharma, N.K. 16-671
Sharma, P. 10-1495
Sharma, PA. 16-318
Sharma, R. 16-519, 19-580
Sharma, R.B. 10-158, 10-1103, 10-1203
Sharma, **R.K.** 14-389
Sharma, R.P. 16-265, **17-269, 17-287, 17-290**
Sharma, R.R. 10-1503
Sharma, S. **10-988, 10-1552,** 10-1560
Sharma, S.D. **10-1937, 16-924**
Sharma, S.N. 14-164
Sharma, V. 10-773
Sharma, V.K. 19-608
Sharma, V.L. 19-558
Sharnin, **G.P.** 13-55
Sharp, D.W.A. 5-77
Sharp, J.T. 14-330
Sharp, J.T. 15-755
Sharp, **K.G.** 5-279
Sharp, R.L. **15-436, 15-439, 15-446**
Sharpe, L.R. 13-194
Sharpless, **K.B.** **4-160, 10-478, 10-480, 10-482,** 10-695, 10-886, **10-1108, 10-1358, 10-1629, 10-1631, 10-1675, 12-176, 12-177, 12-197, 14-148, 14-171,** 14-172, **14-174, 14-175,** 15-922, **15-987, 15-990, 15-1009, 15-1010, 15-1011, 15-1014, 15-1016, 15-1017,** 15-1019, **15-1020, 15-1035, 15-1056, 15-1061, 15-1062, 15-1063, 15-1065, 15-1066, 15-1067, 15-1110, 15-1111, 15-1112, 15-1114, 15-1118, 6-895, 17-236, 17-239, 17-266, 19-59, 19-297, 19-339, 19-401, 19-403, 19-445,** 19-738
Sharts, C.M. **10-491, 10-1128, 10-1129, 10-1197,** 12-600
Sharts, CM. 15-151, **15-875, 15-953, 15-1295,** 15-1317, 15-1389
Shastin, A.V. 15-1142
Shatavsky, M. 10-111
Shatenshtein, A.I. 5-89, 5-13, 11-108, 12-60
Shatkina, T.N. 18-26
Shatskaya, V.A. 10-2042
Shaw, A. 18-428
Shaw, C. 10-1044
Shaw, J.E. **10-775, 13-83,** 13-104
Shaw, M.J. 11-238
Shchegolev, A.A. 18-2
Shchukina, M.V. 10-2031
Shea, K.J. **4-422, 14-25, 14-26, 14-29, 15-140,** 18-77, 18-507, **18-510, 18-534**
Shearer, G.O. 15-1036
Shearer, H.M.M. 2-187
Shearing, D.J. 17-54
Sheats, G.F. 11-92
Sheats, J.E. **13-23, 13-25, 13-268**
Shebaldova, A.D. **15-1364, 18-420, 18-621**
Shechter, H. **5-312, 10-1865, 10-2046, 15-951, 15-1432, 17-216, 17-220, 17-227,** 18-261, 19-252, 19-371
Sheehan, J.C **10-1009, 10-1074, 10-1087**
Sheikh, H. 10-796
Sheikh, M.Y. 19-93
Shein, S.M. **10-1524, 13-127**
Shekharam, T. 10-1352
Shekhtman, N.M. 4-298

Sheldon, R.A. 14-198, 14-228, 14-229, 14-256, **14-502, 15-984, 18-311, 19-138, 19-263, 19-389**
Sheldrick, G.M. 5-127
Sheldrick, W.S. 4-223
Shell, B. 19-260
Shellhamer, D.F. 15-3, 15-32
Shelly, D.P. 14-327
Shelly, K.P. 12-81
Shelton, J.R. 15-68, 16-186
Shelton, K.W. 18-411
Shemyakin, M.M. 2-126, 12-592, 16-722, 18-698, 18-701
Shen, C. 19-97
Shen, C.-X. 16-245
Shen, C.-Y. 15-840
Shen, **C.C.C.** 5-114
Shen, G.-J. 16-326
Shen, G.S. 16-793
Shen, J. 12-219
Shen, K. 15-1257, 18-462
Shen, S. 2-159,5-311
Shen, W. 10-1586
Shen, Y. **11-264**
Shen, Y 16-488, 16-489, 16-505
Shene, **A.L.** 17-164
Sheng, R. 2-94
Sheng, S.J. 18-70
Shenhav, H. 15-76
Shepelavy, J.N. 12-186
Shepherd, B.D. 1-11
Shepherd, J.P. 15-997
Shepherd, R. 18-32
Shepherd, R.G. 13-59
Sheppard, A.C. 14-180, 14-194, 19-405
Sheppard, H.C. 11-107
Sheppard, N. 2-32, 5-77
Sheppard, P.J. 11-67
Sheppard, R.C. 10-1027
Sheppard, W.A. **10-491, 10-1128, 10-1129,** 10-1197, 11-470, 12-561, **13-219, 15-151,** 15-875, 15-953, 15-1389, 19-775
Sheradsky, T. **12-175, 12-180**
Sherbine, J.P. 14-485
Sheridan, R.S. 2-173, 4-259, 4-428, 5-268, 5-311, 5-321, **6-32, 17-361, 17-426**
Sherman, J.C. 3-136
Sherman, V.W. 14-522
Sherrington, D.C. 10-1027, 15-1012, 15-1064
Sherrod, S.A. 6-73
Sherwin, M.A. 18-525
Shestopalov, A.M. 15-1456
Sheu, C. 18-390, 19-305
Sheu, H. 10-421
Sheu, J. 15-1205,15-1274
Sheu, R.G. 18-708
Shevchuk, V.U. 10-1156
Shevelev, S.A. 10-467
Shevlin, P.B. 5-284, 14-30, 17-136, 18-70
Shi, J. 10-1576
Shi, **L.** 16-436, 16-505, 16-746
Shi, Y **10-1007, 15-1076,** 15-1079
Shi, Z. 10-1439, 16-21
Shibagaki, M. 19-655
Shibahara, F. 15-798
Shibakami, **M.** 3-133, 13-260, 15-160
Shibakana, M. 4-147
Shibanuma, T. 16-205, 17-405
Shibasaki, M. 10-693, **10-818, 14-369,** 15-1045, 16-584
Shibata, I. 16-272, 16-345
Shibata, K. 15-628, 15-1009, **15-1138, 15-1139**
Shibata, N. 19-787, 19-789
Shibata, T. 4-355, 10-423, 13-209
Shibutani, M. 2-244, **2-251**
Shibuya, T. 16-933
Shibuya, S. 15-841, 19-651
Shida, J. 10-957
Shida, S. 12-237
Shida, T. 5-238
Shieh, C.H. 16-925
Shields, G.P 3-14
Shiga, H. 15-1462
Shiga, Y **10-1265**
Shigemasa, T. **18-114**
Shigemasa, Y 10-1402, 14-475
Shigemura, K. 11-13
Shigemura, M. 8-144
Shigemura, Y 16-326
Shigeta, Y 10-1398
Shigetani, T. 2-34
Shih, C. 10-381
Shih, J. 10-1222
Shih, J.G. 5-73
Shih, N.C. 15-347
Shih, T.L. 16-592
Shih, Y 11-304, 11-461
Shiina, I. **10-731, 10-758,** 16-637
Shijo, M. 4-143
Shillaker, B. 10-69
Shim, C.S. 9-21, **10-301, 10-558**
Shim, S.B. 12-570
Shima, K. 15-242
Shimabayashi, A. 10-1994
Shimada, M. 11-296
Shimada, S. 18-436
Shimada, T. 18-124

Shimagaki, M. 17-191
Shimamura, Y. 12-556
Shimanouchi, T. 10-1208
Shimanskaya, M.V. 15-1391
Shimao, I. **18**-695, **18**-703
Shimasaki, C. 17-235
Shimazaki, M. 18-126
Shimizu, A. **10**-1257
Shimizu, H. **16**-379, **19**-761
Shimizu, I. **10**-1359, **11**-252, **17**-264, **18**-156, 19-42
Shimizu, K. 10-1532
Shimizu, M. **10**-1161, **10**-1200, **10**-1205, **15**-877, **15**-1408, **19**-401
Shimizu, N. 10-143
Shimizu, T. **10**-963, **10**-1041, **13**-107, **19**-459
Shimizu, Y. 10-1948
Shimobayashi, A. 13-160
Shimoji, K. **10**-1800, **16**-686
Shin, C. 2-350
Shin, D. 15-201
Shin, D.-S. 16-894
Shin, J. **5**-81
Shin, K.K. 7-12
Shindo, M. **16**-533, **16**-935
Shine, H.J. **5**-260, **11**-349, **11**-402, **11**-405, **11**-418, **11**-424, **11**-433, **11**-435, **11**-439, **11**-440, **11**-444, **11**-456, **11**-492, **13**-271, **13**-276, **13**-286, **13**-289, **18**-152, **18**-537, **18**-538, **18**-540, **18**-582, **18**-604, **18**-605, **18**-606, **18**-607, **18**-608, **18**-611, **18**-614, **18**-615, **18**-616, **18**-617, **18**-618, **18**-694, **18**-704
Shiner Jr., V.J. **6**-68, **6**-71, **6**-72, **6**-79, **6**-81, **6**-87, **10**-45, **10**-46, **10**-55, **10**-59, **10**-115, **10**-150, **10**-188, **10**-320, **10**-369, **10**-414, **12**-501, **16**-298, **16**-300, **17**-6, **17**-35, **17**-62, **18**-18
Shiner, C.S. **5**-110, **10**-818
Shiner, V.J. **10**-182, **10**-188
Shingaki, T. 12-184
Shingare, M.S. 10-687
Shingu, H. **10**-58, **10**-59, **10**-69, **10**-305
Shing, K. 4-59
Shinhama, K. **14**-424
Shinkai, S. **3**-96, **3**-97, **3**-99, **7**-49, **13**-287, 14-419
Shinkarenko, N.V. **14**-239, **15**-1093
Shinmyozu, T. 3-102
Shinoda, H. 2-34
Shinoda, K. **15**-486, **19**-201
Shinohara, Y. 16-719
Shinokubo, H. **10**-1457, **10**-1680, **15**-615, **15**-635, **15**-974, **15**-975
Shinozaki, H. 17-366
Shiobara, J. 13-107
Shioiri, T. **10**-1874, **12**-379, **14**-186, **16**-603, **16**-713, **16**-751, **18**-183, **18**-196
Shiono, M. **16**-205, **17**-405, **18**-370
Shippey, M.A. 17-288
Shiragami, T. 15-242
Shirai, N. **13**-279, **13**-281
Shirai, R. 12-91
Shiraishi, H. 19-711
Shiraishi, T. **10**-1490, **15**-573
Shiraishi, Y. 18-567
Shirakawa, E. **14**-371, **15**-798
Shiraki, H. **10**-1398, **10**-1479
Shirasaka, T. 16-848
Shirley, D.A. 12-274
Shirley, R.L. 17-435
Shiro, M. **4**-282, **12**-247
Shirokova, N.P. 18-263
Shirota, Y. 15-1314
Shiroyama, M. 19-171
Shirwaiker, G.S. 18-528
Shishido, K. 16-935
Shine, J.-S. 19-703
Shivaramayya, K. 15-585
Shizuka, H. 11-448
Shkurko, O.P. 9-20
Shlyapintokh, V.Ya. **14**-239, **15**-1093
Shner, V.F. 13-85
Shoaf, C.J. 16-362
Shobe, D. 18-130
Shoemaker, MJ. 18-322
Shohamy, E. 17-54
Shokol, V.A. 16-750
Sholle, V.D. 5-195,5-216
Shonberg, A. 15-1487
Shone, R.L. **6**-75, **11**-500
Shono, T. **10**-1806, **14**-298, **14**-408, **16**-436, **16**-852, **17**-322, **17**-369, **18**-11, **19**-169, **19**-490, **19**-719, **19**-728
Shook, C.A. 18-479
Shook, D.A. 12-171
Shoosmith, J. 5-229
Shoppee,C.W. **10**-114, **15**-122
Shore, N. 7-36
Shore, P.A. 14-204
Short, E.L. 11-461
Short, K.M. 15-1489
Short, R.P. tt-605
Shorter, J. 9-16, 9-19, **9**-41, **9**-58, **9**-61, **9**-78, **10**-427, **16**-198
Shortridge, R.W. 4-347
Shostakovskii, M.F. **10**-688, **15**-46, **15**-48, **15**-199, **15**-227

Shoup, T.M. **12-339**, **16-383**
Shpan'ko, **I.V.** 10-217
Shpan'ko, L.V. 13-73
Shriner, R.H. 9pt2-6
Shriner, R.L. 4-1,4-12, 9pt2-6
Shtamburg, V.G. 4-40
Shteingarts, V.D. 11-12, 13-84, 14-205, 18-213
Shtern, M.M. 10-242
Shtern, V.Ya. 14-284
Shu, C. 10-291
Shu, L. 15-543
Shubert, D.C. 10-1509
Shubin, V.G. 11-13, 18-2, 18-6, 18-11, 18-30, **18-35**, **18-213**
Shudo, K. 11-168, 11-326
Shue, R.S. 14-364
Shuekhgeimer, G.A. 15-1176
Shuford, R.J. 15-331
Shuikin, N.I. 13-149, 15-492
Shukla, R. 3-93
Shul'pin, G.B. 2-131
Shulman, E.M. 16-649
Shulman, G.P. 17-140
Shulman, J.I. **16-776**, **18-579**
Shulnian, N. 13-71
Shults, R.H. **10-1613**, **10-1614**
Shumaker, S.H. 18-273
Shumate, K.M. 18-391
Shundo, R. **15-1145**
Shundo, T. 10-1630
Shunmugasundaram, A. 5-304
Shusherina, N.P. 15-1188
Shushunov, V.A. 12-324, 12-333
Shustov, G.V. 4-34, **4-37**, **10-355**
Shuto, S. 16-731
Shutt, G.R. 10-7
Shvartsberg, M.S. 13-94, 14-320
Shvekhgeimer, G.A. 15-949
Shvets, V.F. 14-84, 14-86
Shvets, V.I. 4-131
Shvo, Y. **15-192**, **15-221**, **15-305**, **19-381**
Siahaan, T.J. 15-669
Siam, K. 3-27
Sibelle, **E.C.** 11-298
Sibi, M.P. 10-760, **15-595**, **15-710**, 16-519
Sibille, S. 10-1581
Sicher, J. 4-383, **10-188**, **17-7**, **17-15**, **17-18**, 17-21, 17-22, 17-24, 17-25, 17-94, 17-333
Sicken, M. 2-243
Sicking, W. 1-88,15-1204
Sicre, J.E. 10-282
Siddall, J.B. 10-1641, 15-716
Siddhanta, A.K. 2-334, 12-83
Siddiquei, A.S. 11-68
Siddons, D.C. 18-349
Sidhu, H. 17-36
Sidhu, R.S. 18-597
Sidler, J.D. 18-341
Sidot, C. 13-209
Sieber, A. 17-384
Sieber, S. 5-68, 10-104, 10-188
Sieber, W. 15-1263,16-826
Siebert, W. 2-135
Sieburth, **S.M.** 18-497
Sieck, R. 10-1120
Sieczkowski, J. 3-65
Siedle, A.R. 15-1471
Siedlecka, R. 19-82
Siegbahn, P.M. 5-272
Siegel, A. 12-280
Siegel, C. 16-589, 16-603
Siegel, E. 10-822
Siegel, H. 12-486
Siegel, J. 4-17, 4-435, 10-1312
Siegel, **J.J.** 11-74
Siegel, J.S. 1-67, 2-59, 2-298, 8-144, 11-75
Siegel, M.G. 4-134
Siegel, S. 15-320
Siegfried, B. 10-326, 10-602, 10-1878, 14-336, 14-412, 14-423, 15-860, 19-372
Siegfried, R. **10-158**
Siegl, W.O. 10-1881
Siegmann, **K.** 10-1540, 14-469
Siehl, H. 5-58,6-71,10-180
Sieler, J. 4-50
Siemeling, U. 5-156
Siemers, N.O. 19-709
Sierakowski, C. 18-84
Sies, C.W. 11-53
Siesel, D. 11-275
Sieskind, **O.** 11-254
Sifniades, S. 14-287
Siggel, L. 15-1494
Siggel, L. 15-1495
Siggel, M.R. 8-145
Sigman, M.E. 5-322
Sigman, M.S. 15-1459
Sih, C.J. 4-148,16-312
Siklosi, M.P. 12-523
Sikora, D.J. **2-131**
Sikorski, J.A. 18-383
Silber, E. 15-1256
Silber, J.J. 13-10
Silber, P. 15-1351
Silberman, L. 6-14
Silberman, R.G. 2-157

Silbermann, J. **12-497**
Silbert, L.S. **10-765**, **10-775**, **10-822**, **10-1782**, **10-2012**, **14-112**, **14-289**, **16-700**
Silbey, R 7-21
Sild, S. 2-86
Silks ffl, L.A. 18-684
Silla, E. 10-210
Sillion, B. **15-924**, **19-380**
Silva Jr., J.F. 18-177
Silveira Jr., A. 18-370
Silveira, **C.C.** **15-188**
Silver, D.M. 15-1257
Silver, M.S. 10-183, 17-79
Silverberg, L.J. 16-322
Silverman, S.B. 19-531
Silversmith, E.F. 3-138, 15-1330, 16-649
Silverstein, R.M. 4-95, 4-212
Silverthorn, W.E. 3-59, 3-64
Silverton, J.V. 2-223
Silverwood, H.A. 19-17
Silvester, M.J. 11-235
Silvestri, M.G. 10-1630
Sim, T.B. 15-378
Simamura, O. **14-410**, 18-306, **19-447**
Simandan, T. 10-1069
Simándi, L.I. **14-310**, **19-232**, **19-433**
Simandoux, J. 15-23
Simchen, G. **10-1659**, **16-544**
Sime, J.M. 8-34
Simkin, B.Ya. 2-169, 5-267
Simmons, H.E. **2-30**, **2-212**, **4-194**, **4-201**, **4-204**, **10-446**, **12-186**, **13-33**, **15-1335**, **15-1336**, 15-1430, **15-1431**, **15-1436**, **15-1439**, 19-226
Simmons, M.C. **5-303**, **12-258**
Simms, J.A. 15-46
Simms, N. 10-1749
Simon, E.S. 19-633
Simon, H. 4-124, **6-58**, **17-57**, **17-60**, **17-204**
Simon, J.A. 16-870
Simon, J.D. 10-52
Simon, W. 4-134
Simonelli, F. **19-681**
Simonet, B. 15-905
Simonetta, M. **1-7**, **1-71**, **2-221**, 2-229, 2-236, 2-267, **13-7**, **15-1256**
Simonot, B. 15-909
Simonov, A.M. 13-244
Simons, H.E. 2-42
Simons, J. 5-267
Simons, J.H. 16-240
Simons, R.W. 15-912
Simova, S. 16-377
Simpkins, N.S. **10-1753**, **12-89**, **12-91**, **15-39**, 16-529, 16-687
Simpson, *C.C.* 11-68
Simpson, C.F. 11-67
Simpson, G.R. 8-152
Simpson, G.W. 15-1155,17-35
Simpson, J.H. 10-1571
Simpson, J.M. 18-489
Sims, J.J. 19-276
Sims, L.B. **6-62**, **17-56**, **17-126**
Sims, L.L. 15-122
Simson, J.M. **12-184**
Sinclair, J.A. **14-455**, **15-730**, **18-383**, 18-385
Sinegovskaya, L.M. 4-245
Sineokov, A.P. 15-1169
Singaram, B. 10-1384, **10-1445**, **10-1585**, 12-383, 12-386, 15-447, 15-448, 15-451, **15-452**, **15-729**, **16-271**, **16-283**, **16-347**, **16-576**, **18-363**, **18-372**, **18-373**, **18-386**, **19-103**, **19-249**, **19-509**, **19-641**
Singaram, S. 15-468, 19-509
Singer, H. 15-525
Singer, L.A. 16-912
Singer, M.S. 16-423
Singer, R.A. 2-308, 13-120
Singer, S.P 15-1118,12-177,17-236
Singh, A. 10-875
Singh, B.P. **10-148**, **10-572**, **10-1164**, **15-202**, 18-70, 19-668
Singh, G. 16-734
Singh, G.P. 15-1056
Singh, **H.K.** **10-1291**, **14-291**
Singh, J. **10-458**, **10-1152**, **14-170**, **14-172**, **15-469**, **16-619**
Singh, J.O. 13-10
Singh, **K.** 10-646
Singh, L. 16-27
Singh, M. 14-189,19-413
Singh, M.P. 19-700
Singh, **N.K.** 12-215
Singh, P. 12-103
Singh, P.R. **10-1284**, **10-1528**, **13-263**, **14-426**
Singh, R. 11-473
Singh, R.P. 15-383
Singh, S. 3-52, **10-1987**, **11-239**, **15-1494**, 19-670
Singh, **S.K.** **19-231**, **19-323**
Singh, S.P. **12-500**, **18-110**
Singh, V. **10-458**, **10-1151**, **12-201**
Singh, **V.K.** 15-1407, **16-311**
Singh. J. 10-1151
Singhal, G.H. 17-157
Singleton Jr., V.D. 10-1641

Singleton, D.A. **15-1244, 15-1266**
Singleton, D.M. 17-136
Sinha, S.C. 18-591
Sinisterra, J.V. 19-774
Sinke, G.C. 1-90
Sinn, H. 15-898
Sinnige, H.J. 15-124
Sinnott, M.L 10-231, 10-232, 10-392
Sinnreich, J. 15-937
Sinou, D 10-869, 10-1732, 10-1858, 15-288, 18-624
Sinoway, L. 10-1550
Sinya, J. 15-401
Sipe Jr., H.J. 11-187
Sipos, G. **5-73, 16-721**
Sirisoma. N.S. 10-926
Sirlin, C. **4-132**
Sirna, A. 19-38
Sirokmán, F. 16-721
Siroky, M. 10-1871
Sironi, M. 2-95
Sisti, A.J. **10-300, 15-15, 15-921, 18-131,** 18-132, 18-133, 18-292
Sita, L.R. 4-120, 16-608
Sitzmann, M.E. 19-421
Sivakamasundari, S. 16-98
Sivanand, P.S. 16-142
Sivaram, S. 10-1587, 15-515
Sivasankaran, **K.** 15-301
Sixma, F.L.J. 11-281, 11-459, 17-130, 19-197
Sjöberg, B. 16-107
Sjöberg, **K.** 10-437, 16-107
Sjöholm, R. 16-430
Sjöström, M. **9-29**
Skarnulis, A.J. **12-451,** 12-466
Skarżewski, J. 16-226,10-1989,19-82
Skatteb0l, L. 15-1397
Skell, P.S. 5-269, 5-288, 9-47, **9-50, 10-183,** 10-380, 10-381, 14-24, 14-25, 14-26, 14-29, 14-86, 14-124, 14-142, 14-144, 14-147, 15-54, 15-56, **15-122, 15-140, 15-869, 15-1396,** 15-1415, 15-1417, 15-1420, **17-42,** 17-114, 17-125, **18-20, 18-43,** 18-47, 18-77, 18-135, 19-471
Skell, P.S. Havel, J.J. 12-465
Skelton, B.W. 10-679
Sket, B. **12-115, 19-348**
Skinner, G.A. 11-49, 11-99
Skinner, LA. 12-77
Skinner, J.F. 15-293
Sklarz, B. 19-10, 19-164
Skobel, H. 15-746
Skobeleva, S.E. 3-30
Skoglund, M.J. 12-57
Skonieczny, S. 10-2034
Skorcz, J.A. 13-188
Skorobogatova, E.V. 15-221
Skovronek, H. 10-1089
Skowronska, A. 15-1088
Skrabal, P. 11-25,13-31
Skrypnik, Yu.G. 10-2034
Skvarchenko, V.R. 15-1192
Sky, A.F. **5-211**
Slack, D.A. 12-5
Slade, J. 4-138
Sladkov, A.M. 13-171
Slae, S. 17-44
Slagle, J.D. 10-1171
Slama, F.J. 10-370
Slater, CD. 6-25, 9-78, 18-549
Slaugh, L.H. 10-1530, 14-522, 18-61, 18-72, 18-79
Slawin, A.M.Z. 2-259, 16-382
Slayden, S.W. 12-341, 18-384
Ślebocka-Tilk, H. **10-627, 10-628,** 15-7, **15-11,** 15-21, 15-886, 16-614
Slee, T.S. 4-349
Sleezer, P.D. 12-33
Slegeir, W. 18-422
Sleiter, G. 11-10
Slinckx, G. 18-428
Slingenfelter, D.S. 4-134
Sliwinski, W.F. 10-313, 18-428
Slocum, D.W. 5-84, 12-280, 12-283
Slocum, M.G. 12-280
Slopianka, M. **10-450, 15-1298**
Slotin, L. 4-209
Ślusarska, E. 10-1082
Slutsky, J. 17-413
Smadja, S. 18-579
Smadja, W. 15-104
Small Jr., V.M. 10-800
Small, A. 18-476
Small, L.E. **8-189, 12-524**
Small, **P.A.** 11-103
Smalley, R.E. 2-294, 2-295
Smalley, R.K. 18-242
Smallridge, A.J. **15-387, 15-794, 15-812, 16-314**
Smat, R.J. 17-8
Smejkal, J. 10-1022
Smentowski, F.J. 12-591
Smerz, A. K. 14-189, 15-1081
Smid, J. 5-114
Smidt, J. **8-24, 19-391**
Smiles, S. 13-293
Smiley, R.A. **10-470, 10-1865**

Smirnov, V.V. 15-22, **15**-154, 15-162
Smirnyagin, V.A. 15-949
Smissman, E.E. 16-830, **16**-834, 17-123, 18-173
Smit, P.J. 14-422
Smit, W.A. 15-1, 15-20, **15**-1137, 15-1224
Smith , R.A.J. 15-658
Smith ffl, A.B **10**-499, **10**-868, **15**-707, 19-339
Smith ffl, M.R. 14-417
Smith ffl, W.J. 10-941, 10-1308
Smith Jr., W.N. 12-461
Smith, A.L. 10-1812
Smith, A.S. 10-1965
Smith, B. 19-134
Smith, B.H. 4-69
Smith, C. 18-591
Smith, C.D. 12-329, 18-345, 18-346
Smith, C.P. **16**-725, **16**-767
Smith, C.R. 8-24
Smith, C.V. 14-118
Smith, D.A. **15**-348, 15-537
Smith, D.C. 16-119
Smith, D.F. 12-523
Smith, D.F. 16-400
Smith, D.G. **10**-1419
Smith, D.H. 4-105
Smith, D.J.H. **10**-1419, **10**-1924, **12**-611, 15-770, 19-396
Smith, D.K. **13**-140
Smith, D.M. 2-246, 14-422
Smith, D.R. 2-259
Smith, D.T. 16-383
Smith, E.M. 10-1826
Smith, F.C. 17-213
Smith, F.R. 13-216
Smith, G. 18-603
Smith, G.D. 4-243, 17-17
Smith, G.G. **12**-507, 17-120, 17-131, 17-142, **17**-410, **17**-411, **18**-491, **18**-537
Smith, G.M. 15-1227
Smith, G.T. 3-9
Smith, G.V. 15-325, 15-331
Smith, H.D. 12-171
Smith, H.E. 4-222
Smith, H.L. 18-234
Smith, J.A.S. 11-322
Smith, J.G. 10-363, **17**-80, **17**-169
Smith, J.S. 17-8
Smith, J.W. **3**-40, 8-147, 8-176
Smith, K. 10-446, 10-1803, **10**-1844, **11**-122, 11-124, 11-191, 12-212, 12-276, 12-319, 12-337, **12**-355, **14**-451, 14-455, 15-425, 15-725, **16**-453, **16**-575, 16-592, **16**-813a, **18**-350, **18**-357, **18**-358, **18**-362, **18**-365, 18-367, **19**-499, **19**-503, **19**-510, **19**-548
Smith, L.A. **10**-1042, **13**-12
Smith, L.C. 18-685
Smith, L.R. 10-1092
Smith, M. **10**-734, **15**-399
Smith, M.A. 6-12
Smith, M.B. 4-87, 4-99, **4**-224, 4-255, 4-269, 4-422, 5-145, 5-147, 5-153, 6-13, 10-214, **10**-456, **10**-916, **10**-1069, **10**-1175, **10**-1403, 15-271, **15**-823, **15**-831, **15**-848, **15**-1010, **15**-1030, **15**-1061, **15**-1173, **15**-1188, **15**-1196, **15**-1201, **15**-1205, **15**-1220, **15**-1231, 15-1239, **15**-1274, **15**-1284, **16**-251, 16-320,16-510, **16**-556, **16**-562, **16**-600, **16**-621, **16**-727, **17**-230
Smith, M.L. **17**-6, **17**-62
Smith, M.R. 10-102, 19-452
Smith, P. 5-173
Smith, P.A.S. 11-356, 12-578, 17-414, 18-128, 18-226, 18-227, 18-243, 18-245, 18-252, 18-261, 18-278, 18-305
Smith, P.H.G. 13-108
Smith, P.J. **6**-83, **10**-1835, **17**-57, 17-60, 17-63
Smith, P.M. 10-643
Smith, R.A. 12-139
Smith, R.A.J. 11-336, **15**-657, **15**-719, **15**-719, 15-724
Smith, R.D. 15-1431, 15-1439
Smith, R.F. 17-374, 18-203
Smith, R.G. 5-200, 10-1388, 10-1721
Smith, R.K. 4-138
Smith, R.N.M. **12**-44
Smith, R.R. 18-641
Smith, R.S. 10-518, **10**-1509, **15**-642, **16**-456
Smith, S. **10**-46, **10**-55, **10**-59
Smith, S.C. **8**-159, **14**-176, 18-349
Smith, S.F. **10**-16
Smith, S.G. 10-327, **10**-328, **10**-403, 10-474, **15**-720, **16**-413, **16**-421, **17**-35
Smith, S.M. 15-509
Smith, S.V. 4-321
Smith, T.D. 15-342
Smith, XL. 12-362
Smith, T.N. 15-250
Smith, W.B. 14-491
Smith, W.E. 11-335, 18-148
Smith, W.N. 10-1855
Smith-Palmer, T. 15-957
Smithen, C.E. 15-1428
Smithers, R. **12**-320, **15**-607, **16**-473
Smithers, R.H. 16-734
Smithies, A.J. 15-855
Smolina, T.A. **18**-44, **18**-213

Smolinsky, G. 5-320, **5-321, 12-185, 17-409,** 17-411, 18-458
Smonou, I. 10-1308, **14-254, 16-309**
Smoot, J. 19-696
Smushkevich, Yu.I. 19-271
Smyth, R.L. 10-2031
Smyth, T. 10-668
Smyth, T.A. 19-260, 19-261
Snagovskii, Yu.S. 10-1056
Snaith, R. 13-231
Snatzke, G. 4-222
Sneeden, R.P.A. **16-521**
Sneen, R.A. **10-61, 10-62, 10-63, 10-64, 10-70,** 10-71, **10-196, 10-602, 14-221, 17-36**
Snell, R.L. 15-1350
Snider, B.B. **15-548, 15-552,** 15-636, 15-1304, **16-844,** 16-845, 19-47
Snieckus, V. **10-1504, 10-1573, 12-279,** 12-281, **12-379, 13-175, 15-539, 18-627**
Snoble, K.A.J. **15-721, 16-766**
Snook, M.E. 19-125
Snow, D.H. 10-283
Snow, J.T. 18-376
Snow, R.A. 2-292
Snowden, D.J. 15-626
Snowden, R.L. 12-525
Snyckers, F. 11-9
Snyder Jr., R.C. 10-174
Snyder, C. 12-337
Snyder, C.H. 14-452
Snyder, D.C. 10-1169
Snyder, E.I. 10-140, **10-1166, 10-1174, 15-384,** 17-31
Snyder, E.S. 10-1829
Snyder, G.A. 4-439
Snyder, H.R. 13-78
Snyder, J.K. **4-167, 15-1015, 15-1255,** 15-1489
Snyder, J.P. 2-72, 2-73, **10-1541, 10-1558,** 15-719, 19-494
Snyder, L.C. 10-112
Soai, K. **10-1075, 10-1099, 15-601, 16-379, 16-382, 16-408, 16-469, 16-470,** 16-501, **16-660, 19-576, 19-586**
Sobczyk, L. 3-10
Sobery, W. 12-252
Sobkowiak, A. **19-305**
Soccolini, F. 16-717
Sock, O. 13-210
Sodeoka, M. 14-369
Södergren, M.J. **15-1132, 19-324**
Soderquist, J. 10-848
Soderquist, J.A. **10-848, 10-1259, 10-1583, 10-1584, 15-438, 15-452, 15-992**
Soejima, T. 16-852
Soell, P.S. 19-181
Sofia, M.J. **15-223, 15-740**
Sōfuku, S. 10-715
Soga, T. 10-1875
Sohn, E. 11-296
Sohn, S.C. 10-307
Soja, P. 12-191
Sojka, S.A. 15-1051
Sokolov, V.I. 4-1, 4-23, 4-394, **12-15, 15-209,** 16-870
Sokolova, T.N. 15-221
Solash, J. **10-192, 10-382**
Solastiouk, B. 12-598
Solé, D. 15-634
Soler, A. 16-226
Solladié, G. **10-1141, 10-1699, 15-768,** 16-378, 16-642
Solladié-Cavallo, A. 16-164
Sollenberger, P.Y. **16-45, 16-216**
Solly, R.K. **14-29, 18-456**
Solodova, K.V. 11-154
Solomon, J.J. 10-164
Solomon, M.D. 19-632
Solotnov, A.F. 3-85
Solov'ev, V.P. 3-85
Solov'yanov, A.A. 5-84, **5-113, 5-114,** 10-242, **10-333, 12-533,** -338
Soloveichik, S. 19-1
Solsky, R.L. 17-54
Solter, L.E. 12-272
Solv'yanov, A.A. 16-409
Soman, R. 15-981,19-189
Somasunderam, A. 15-773
Somayaji, V. 12-358
Somayajulu, G.R. 2-34
Sombroek, J. 2-230
Somers, P.K. 16-528
Somerville, R.F. 15-907
Somfai, P. **5-71, 18-349, 18-451**
Sommazzi, A. 10-1373
Sommer, H.Z. 10-917
Sommer, J. 5-12, 5-14, 8-15, **8-19, 10-361, 11-315, 12-47, 12-48, 12-218, 12-219, 18-35**
Sommer, L.H. 10-46, **10-59, 10-1522,** 2-323
Sommers, A.H. 10-1697
Somorjai, G.A. 15-326
Son, B. 3-82
Son, H.S. 16-172
Son, T. 10-1930
Son,Y.C. 4-99,15-1231
Sonawane, H.R. 14-164
Sondengam, B.L. **16-181, 16-182**

Sondheimer, F 2-274, 2-72, 2-201, 2-218, 2-224, 2-225, 2-226, 2-238, 2-239, 2-241, 2-244, 2-246, 2-248, 2-249, 2-252, 2-253, 2-271, 2-273, 2-274, 2-275, 14-312
Sone, T. 13-287
Song, B.D. 10-560, 10-992
Song, C.-S. 10-1537, 10-1918, 12-413
Song, C.E. 15-1013, 15-1076
Song, H. 14-367
Song, I.H. 19-270
Song, W.M. 16-290
Song, Y.H. 19-90
Song, Z. 16-846, 19-379
Songstad, J. 8-128, 10-299, 10-471
Songster, M. 16-66
Soni, N.R. 10-1187
Sonnenberg, F.M. 17-15
Sonnet, P.E. 7-46, 17-274, 17-281, 17-293, 17-315
Sonnichsen, G. 6-75, 8-64
Sono, M. 14-162
Sono, S. 12-385
Sonoda, A. 10-1280, 10-1353, 10-1636, 14-454
Sonoda, N. 3-122, 10-882, 10-1412, 10-1685, 10-1895, 10-1896, 10-1898, 10-1919, 10-1920, 12-195, 12-395, 12-603, 12-605, 13-211, 13-213, 15-234, 15-235, 15-854, 15-1107, 19-42, 19-304, 19-441
Sonoda, T. 10-449, 13-18
Sonola, O.O. 19-632
Soong, L.T. 15-384
Sopchik, A. 14-147
Sorato, C. 15-1009
S0rbye, K. 10-837
Sordo, J.A. 16-929
Sordo, T.L. 16-929
Sorensen, CM. 10-774
Sorensen, T.S. 3-50, 4-195, 5-32, 5-46, 5-68, 10-279, 10-428, 17-335, 18-7, 18-134
Sørensen, P.E. 10-509, 16-21, 16-79
Sorger, K. 5-158
Sorm, F. 11-476
Sorokin, V.D. 15-927, 15-933
Sorokin, V.I. 15-29, 18-582
Sorokina, L.P. 10-1431, 19-778
Sorrenti, P. 16-651
Sorriso, S. 12-558, 12-559
Sosnovsky, G. 11-162, 14-110, 14-198, 14-235, 14-256, 14-259, 14-261, 14-272, 14-307, 15-944, 16-55, 16-223, 17-441, 18-678
Sosounk, S.E. 15-874
Sotiriou, C. 19-180
Sotomatsu, T. 8-144
Souček, J. 15-484
Soucy, C. 19-574
Soufi, J. 15-1298
Soula, G. 10-447
Soulen, R.L. 2-200
Souma, Y. 10-1104
Soumillion, J.P. 14-84
Soundararajan, N. 5-310, 5-311
Soundararajan, R. 12-354, 12-355, 15-88, 15-443
Souppe, J. 10-1983, 16-295, 19-703
Sousa, J.A. 19-191
Sousa, L.R. 4-132, 4-134, 18-667
South, J.A. 13-103
Southern, J.M. 10-1952
Southwick, P.L. 2-330, 18-212, 18-587
Souto-Bachiller, F.A. 2-174
Sowerby, R.L. 10-1776
Sowin, T.J. 19-80
Sowinski, A.F. 14-121
Sozzani, P. 19-586
Sonicki, J.G. 15-587
Spaar, R. 10-250
Spackman, I.H. 17-59
Spada, G.P. 4-154
Spaeth, E.C. 11-264
Spagnolo, P. 12-379, 15-1136
Spanget-Larsen, J. 2-145
Spangler, C.W. 18-404, 18-439, 18-461
Spangler, D.P. 10-1558
Spanka, G. 4-389
Sparacino, M.L. 10-774
Sparapany, J.J. 17-60
Sparfel, D. 19-142
Spatola, A.F. 11-497
Spawn, C. 10-1201
Spear, R.J. 5-31, 5-34, 10-147, 10-180, 11-13
Specht, H. 2-175
Speck, D.H. 3-77
Speckamp, W.N. 10-960, 14-375, 15-633
Spector, M.L. 12-608
Speer, H. 5-119
Spehar, A. 10-1253
Speier, J.L. 15-484
Speizman, D. 10-342
Spek, A.L. 16-504
Spellmeyer, D.C. 15-101, 18-390, 18-407, 18-408
Spencer, A. 14-340
Spencer, CM. 2-259
Spencer, J.L. 15-1485
Spencer, N. 3-148
Spencer, T.A. 17-50

Spenser, I.D. 17-384
Sperandio, D. 18-632
Speranza, G. 15-298
Speranza, M. **10-9**, **10-258**, **10-259**, **10-12**, **17-93**
Spero, D.M. 12-247, 15-1405
Speth, D.R. 14-171
Spevak, P. **19-638**, **19-700**
Speziale, A.J. **10-1092**, **16-714**
Spialter, L. 10-912, 16-179, 16-514
Spicer, L.D. 19-530
Spietschka, E. **18-186**
Spiewak, J.W. 17-313
Spiliotis, V. **16-313**
Spillane, W.J. 10-1068
Spillett, R.E. 11-68
Spilling, C.D. **16-659**, **19-611**
Spillner, C.J. 5-45
Spina, E. 10-2031
Spina, K.P. 10-1132
Spinelli, D. 8-143
Spinetti, L.M. 16-314
Spinicelli, L.F. **14-289**, **16-49**
Spirikhin, L.V 14-462
Spirin, Yu.L. 14-78
Spitzer, R. **4-313**
Spitzer, U.A. 14-168, 19-74, 19-236, 19-242
Spitzin, V.I. 17-146
Spitznagel, G.W. 5-86
Spletzer, E. 15-977
Spletzer, E.G. 19-475
Spogliarich, R. 16-288
Spohn, R.J. 12-394
Spokes, G.N. 13-37
Spotnitz, R.M. 19-331
Spracklin, D.K. 4-320
Spratt, R. 4-36
Sprecher, M. 16-875
Spring, F.S. 18-97
Springer, D.M 10-578
Springer, J.P. 4-171
Springer, W.R. 18-165
Sprügel, W. 19-359
Sprules, T.J. 18-498
Spryskov, A.A. **10-2031**, **11-40**, **11-173**
Spurlock, S. 19-276
Squillacote, M. 4-259, 4-400
Squillacote, M.E. **4-280**, **10-180**
Squire, R.H. 18-704
Squires, R.R. 2-24, 5-86, 5-92, **5-110**, 12-505
Sraidi, K. 3-12
Srebnik, M. 10-1211, **12-383**, **15-431**, **15-432**, **15-434**, **15-451**, **18-352**
Sreekumar, R. 11-295, 15-568, **15-1140**, **16-261**
Sridhar, M. 10-2041, 19-698
Sridharan, S. 10-306, 17-35
Sridharan, V. 15-779
Srikrishna, A. 10-1346
Srinivas, D. 10-1352, 10-1949, 16-24
Srinivasan, C. **5-304**, **11-400**, 19-461
Srinivasan, K. 15-1074
Srinivasan, K.V. **11-191**, **11-197**, **11-295**, **12-586**
Srinivasan, M. 19-214
Srinivasan, N.S. 19-400
Srinivasan, P.S. 16-525
Srinivasan, R. 4-362, 07-46, **8-121**, **15-1340**
Srivastava, P.C. 12-361
Srivastava, R.C. 16-918
Srivastava, R.G. 14-208
Srivastava, R.R. 10-805, 10-1212, 15-203
Srivastava, R.S. 12-178, 15-257, 15-774
Srivastava, S. **10-1284**, **15-117**, 16-6
Srivastava, S.K. 11-198
Srivastava, V. 10-707
Srzić, D. 5-136
Staab, E. 15-1087
Staab, H.A. 2-256, 3-25, 4-65, 5-198, 5-262, 5-266, 8-154, 8-155, 8-156, **8-157**, **10-744**, 11-314,15-4,15-29,15-33
Stabba, R. 15-516
Stabinsky, Y. 18-603
Stabler, S.R. 10-774
Stacey, F.W. 15-229, 15-881
Stach, H. 10-1059, 18-127
Stachel, S.J. 19-541
Stachissini, A.S. 16-212, 16-216
Stack, D.E. 10-1943, 12-434, 12-470
Stackhouse, J. 4-32
Stadmüller, S. 16-914, 16-915
Staemmler, V. 2-176
Stahl, D. 5-58
Stahl, M. 19-746
Stahl, N. 3-16
Stahl, R.E. 4-69
Stahl-Larivière, H. 4-103
Stable, M. 12-269
Stahly, B.C. 13-239
Stahly, G.P. 13-239
Staib, R.R. 15-1272
Stairs, R.A. 19-334, 19-335
Stakem, F.G.; 14-340
Staklis, A. 18-234
Staley, R.H. 5-65, 8-181, 10-164
Staley, S.W 4-356, 2-204, 5-84, **5-110**, **15-422**, 15-1486
Stalick, W.M. **12-56**, **12-64**, **15-236**, 15-250, **15-498**, **15-500**, **19-23**, **19-255**

Stalke, D. 5-158
Stallman, J.B. 15-621
Stals, J. 1-53
Stam, C.H. **2-53**, **10-311**, **11-469**
Stamhuis, E.J. 16-45
Stamm, H. 10-1686
Stammann, G. 15-29
Stammler, H.-G. 5-156
Stamp, L. 15-1466
Stanbury, P. **15-1321**, **15-1325**
Stanchev, S. 16-438
Standen, S.T. 10-521
Stanetty, P. 10-1499
Stanforth, S.P. 13-199
Stang, P.J. 4-397, **5-59**, 5-280, 5-297, **10-247**, **10-248**, **10-255**, **10-368**, **10-610**, **10-1623**, **11-247**, **12-336**, **13-22**, **15-34**, **15-104**
Stangeland, E.L. 16-271
Stangeland, L.J. **10-471**
Stanger, A. 2-6
Staninets, V.I. 15-91
Stanković, S. **19-158**, **19-313**
Stanley, J.H. **14-522**
Stanley, J.P. 14-45,18-605
Stanovnik, B. 15-1153
Stanton, M.G. 10-752
Staral, J. 10-100
Staral, J.S. 2-137,2-166,10-180,11-15
Starcher, PS. 15-1047
Starer, I. **10-183**, 18-20, 18-47
Starikov, E.B. 3-54
Staring, E.G.J. **16-906**, **16-907**
Stark, B.P. 17-360, 17-417, 17-420, 17-428, 17-434
Stark, H. 4-111
Stark, T.J. 17-136
Starks, **C.M.** **10-437**, **10-438**, 10-650, 10-776, **10-1131**, **10-1744**, **10-1866**, **15-1391**, **16-717**, 16-722
Staraer, W.E. 16-543
Staraes Jr., W.H. 19-268
Staraes, S.D. 8-142
Staros, J.V. 18-413
Staroscik, J. 10-205
Staude, E. 10-360
Staudinger, H. 19-636
Stauffer, R.D. 17-277
Stavber, S. 11-236, 12-95, 19-384
Stavchansky, S. 10-1040
Staveley, **L.A.K.** 3-80
Stavenger, R. 10-1206
Stears, N.D. 11-26
Stec, W.J. 16-748
Steckel, T.F. 17-337
Steckhan, E. **10-545**, **10-1490**, **14-487**, **19-329**
Steel, A.J. **14-42**, **14-66**
Steel, P.J. **15-132**, **15-136**, **16-384**, **16-436**, **17-35**
Steele, B.R. **10-1918**, **12-412**, **16-558**
Steele, F. 2-347
Steele, R.B. 16-389
Steele, **W.V.** **4-198**
Steenken, S. 5-9, **9-67**, **10-28**, **10-322**
Steenwinkel, P. **4-81**
Steeve, J.A. 16-663
Stefanelli, S. 15-1015
Stefani, A. **14-63**, **15-787**
Stefinovic, M. 18-627
Stegel, F. **11-10**, **13-5**
Stegemann, J. 2-139
Stegemeyer, H. 4-61
Steglich, W. **10-711**, **10-737**
Stéhelin, L. 10-188
Stein, A.R. **10-46**, **10-59**, **10-63**, **10-64**, **10-69**, 16-937
Stein, **K.** 18-447
Stein, M. 5-197
Stein, R.L. 12-477
Stein, S.E. 5-192
Stein, Z. 1-68
Steinbach, R. **10-1588**, **10-1590**, **10-1591**, **10-1635**, **16-382**
Steinbeck, **K.** **12-243**, **12-490**
Steinberg, H. **10-311**, **11-459**, **16-20**, **19-770**
Steiner, E. 15-972
Steiner, G. **15-1331**, **15-1336**
Steiner, PR. 12-521
Steiner, R.P. 18-391
Steiner, T. **3-10**, **3-29**, 3-54
Steinman, D.H. 15-1287
Steinmetz, A. 19-244
Steinmetz, M.G. **7-46**
Steinmetz, R. 15-1343
Steliou, **K.** 10-730
Stella, L. 5-209, **5-211**, **18-678**
Stelter, E.D. 11-25
Stemerick, D.M. 10-946
Stemke, J.E. 17-217, 17-222
Stemmler, T.L. 10-1540
Stenberg, **V.I.** **11-413**, **11-448**
Stengel, PJ. 10-1381
Stenkula, M. **15-218**
Stensiö, K. 19-59
Stensland, P. 17-117
Stepanov, N.F. 15-162
Stephan, E. 10-64
Stephani, R. 11-200

Stephens, J.R. 12-537
Stephens, R.D. 13-171
Stephenson, B. 10-268, 10-1141, 18-89
Stephenson, D.S. 4-265
Stephenson, L.M. **14-171,** 14-238, 14-247, **14-251, 15-545, 15-1485, 16-846**
Stephenson, P.T. 16-864
Stepukhovich, A.D. 18-54
Stercho, Y.P. 19-560
Sterk, H. 15-1324
Sterling, J.J. **10-1551, 10-1564, 10-1938, 15-664**
Stermitz, L.F. 18-431
Stern, A.G. 18-82
Stern, E.W. 12-608
Sternbach, D.D. 10-1085, 10-1778
Sternberg, H.W. 15-769
Sternfeld, F. 15-1030
Sternhell, S. 4-441, 14-386
Sternson, L.A. 12-590, 13-287
Stetter, H. 10-1761, 12-490, 15-746, 16-858, 16-859
Stévenart-De Mesmaeker, N. 18-593
Stevens, A.E. 18-650
Stevens, C.L. **10-192, 15-249, 17-157, 17-333,** 19-61
Stevens, E.S, 4-103
Stevens, I.D.R. **5-310, 10-327, 15-1340, 17-70**
Stevens, I.W. 5-17
Stevens, J.A. 13-16
Stevens, J.B. **8-105, 10-629**
Stevens, K.D. 15-29
Stevens, M.F.G. 12-584
Stevens, R.M. 10-1086
Stevens, R.R. **17-197, 17-226**
Stevens, R.V. **6-40,** 19-64, **19-85**
Stevens, R.W. 16-590
Stevens, T.S. 11-422, **13-276, 13-289, 18-1,** 18-227, 18-243, **18-312, 18-316,** 18-342
Stevens, W. 10-714, **10-715, 11-315, 11-316**
Stevens, W.R. 15-812
Stevenson, A. **15-184**
Stevenson, D.P. 15-318
Stevenson, G.R. 2-72, 2-280
Stevenson, P. 10-1490
Stevenson, P.J. 18-179
Stevenson, R. 18-97
Stevenson, S. 2-300
Stevenson, T.A. 4-337
Stewart, A.T. 19-776
Stewart, E.T. 1-3
Stewart, J.D. **18-296**
Stewart, J.J.P. **2-18, 2-178, 15-1245**
Stewart, J.M. 10-1029
Stewart, L.E. 3-82
Stewart, L.J. 11-229
Stewart, R. 1-32, 3-19, 8-1, 8-24, 8-25, 8-26, 8-48, 8-116, 8-121, 12-81, 14-168, 19-2, 19-11, 19-117, 19-119, 19-120, 19-174
Stewart, S.K. 12-359
Stewart, T.E. 4-95
Stewen, U. 5-204, 5-212
Stick, R.V. 10-1164
Stickley, K.R. 5-262
Stigliani, W.M. 4-396
Stiles, A.W. 10-1449
Stiles, M. **13-37, 15-1190, 16-694, 16-695, 18-35**
Stiles, P.J. 3-74, 4-102
Still, I.W.J. 19-675, 19-676
Still, W.C. 4-114, 10-612, 10-181, 15-479
Stille, J.K. **10-1571, 10-1607, 10-1623, 10-1624,** 10-1649, 10-1889, 10-1893, 10-1948, 13-166, **13-170, 13-213, 14-356, 14-372, 15-786, 15-797, 16-590, 17-15,** 17-265
Stille, J.R. **16-580, 18-498**
Stillings, M.R. 15-1199
Stilz, H.U. 16-6
Stimson, V.R. 12-69
Stinson, S.R. 19-499
Stirling, C.J.M. **4-27, 4-45, 4-46, 6-11,** 9-5, **10-203, 10-262, 10-365, 10-1707, 10-1750, 10-1779, 17-3, 17-44, 17-47,** 17-50, 17-100, **17-113, 18-603**
Stivers, E.C. 12-85
Stock, L.M. 1-42, 8-191, 10-308, 11-21, 11-27, 11-41, 11-43, 11-76, 11-83, 11-84, 11-86
Stöckel, K. 2-275
Stöckigt, J. 16-723
Stöcklin, G. 13-263
Stockmann, H. 15-1199
Stockton, J.D. 15-1321
Stocky, T.P. 19-548
Stoddard, G.J. 18-507
Stoddart, J.F. 2-259, 3-76, 3-143, 3-148, 3-149, 4-132
Stodola, F.H. 10-631
Stoessel, S.J. **14-356**
Stofer, E. 14-504
Stoffer, J.O. 10-188
Stofko Jr., **J.J. 18-49, 18-502**
Stohrer, W. 10-206
Stoicheff, B.P. 1-70, 2-32
Stojiljković, A. **19-139**
Stokes, S. 17-174
Stokes, T.M. 10-760
Stoll, M. 10-2024
Stolle, A. 10-1299

Stolle, W.T. 16-683
Stolow, A. 5-104, 6-12
Stolow, R.D. 4-265
Stolz, L.A. 18-539
Stolz-Dunn, S. 14-352
Stone, **F.G.A.** **2-142, 15-1485**
Stone, J.M.R. 4-309
Stone, R.M. 9-36
Stoneberg, R.L. 10-1420
Stoos, F. 19-20
Starch, D.M. 2-19
Starch, **E.C.** 16-498
Storer, J.W. 17-50
Storesund, H.J. **18-22, 18-94**
Stork, G. **5-161, 10-204, 10-205, 10-206, 10-544, 10-1142, 10-1571, 10-1606, 10-1750, 10-1759, 10-1765, 10-1770, 10-1773, 10-1776, 12-223,** 12-226, **12-231, 12-232, 12-285, 12-296,** 15-505, **15-740, 15-741, 15-751, 15-1007, 15-1240, 16-619, 16-734**
Stork, P.J. 10-728
Storr, R.C. **15-1256, 15-1295, 18-397**
Story, P.R. 2-290, **10-110, 10-112,** 14-275, **17-438, 17-439, 17-440, 17-442,** 19-207, 19-214, 19-217
Stothers, J.B. 5-109, **5-110, 6-66, 18-86,** 18-161
Stotskii, A.A. 11-125
Stott, P.E. 3-76
Stotter, P.L. **12-125**
Stotz, D.S. 10-474
Stoughton, R.W. 4-52
Stout, C.W. 15-1276
Stoute, V. 18-306
Stoutland, P.O. 10-350
Stowell, **J.C.** **5-84, 10-1451, 15-559, 16-366,** 16-561
Stoye, D. **10-984**
Strachan, A.N. **11-92, 11-132**
Strachan, W.M.J. **18-700, 19-191**
Strachan, W.S. 18-97
Strand, J.W. **10-929, 10-976, 11-165**
Strange, J.H. 4-313
Straszewski, **J.P.** 16-797
Stratakis, M. 12-296, **14-248, 14-250**
Strating, J. **15-7, 19-755**
Stratton, B. 5-304
Straub, T.S. 15-1042
Strauss, C.R. 11-169
Strauss, **H.L.** 4-261
Strauss, M.J. **13-5, 13-6**
Strauss, **U.** 1-91
Strausz, **O.P.** 5-292, **15-1085, 15-1321, 18-187, 8-0189, 18-191**
Strawn, **K.G.** 19-417
Strazzari, S. **5-185**
Strazzolini, P. **10-806, 12-574**
Streck, R. 18-621
Streeter, D.L. **18-106**
Streib, H. 13-280
Streib, W.E. 15-1469
Streicher, H. **5-81**
Streicher, W. **13-70, 13-140**
Streiner, T. 3-38
Streith, J. **15-972, 16-225, 18-404**
Streitwieser Jr., A. **1-49,** 2-2, **2-26,** 2-89, 4-20, 5-84, 5-114, 5-118, 5-134, 6-82, 7-15, 8-13, 8-14, **8-53,** 8-58, 8-59, 8-60, 8-64, 8-67, 8-68, 8-69, 8-70, 8-71, **8-73, 8-145, 10-8, 10-46, 10-59, 10-73, 10-269, 10-276, 10-281, 10-285, 10-384, 10-404, 11-457**
Streitwieser, A. **2-23, 5-166,** 5-167, 8-60, 8-74, 12-296
Strekowski, L. **14-401, 16-686**
Strelenko, Y.A. 4-295
Strickland, J.B. 16-453
Strickland, S.M.S. 18-684
Striepe, W. 15-966
Strijtveen, B. 4-170
Stringer, O.D. 19-459
Stroh, R. **11-261, 11-262**
Strohmeier, W. 15-277
Strologo, S. 13-200
Ström, P. **10-1036**
Stromquist, P. 19-673
Strömqvist, M. 16-158
Stroud, **M.A.** 11-67
Stroud, S.G. **14-163, 19-244**
Štrouf, **O.** **19-10, 19-496**
Strozier, R.W. **2-292, 15-79, 15-1214**
Struass, C.R. 14-362
Strub, H. 2-178
Strukelj, M. **15-20, 15-1137**
Strunk, S. 18-348
Strzalko, T. 15-561
Stuart, **R.S.** 12-54
Stubbs, C.A. 19-85
Stubbs, M.E. 18-529
Stuber, F.A. 19-284
Stucchi, E. 15-659
Stuchal, F.W. 10-283
Stuckwisch, C.G. 15-1153
Stucky, G. 5-143
Studabaker, W.B. 15-1403
Studer, A. 19-703
Studzinskii, O.P. 10-377
Stull, D.R. 1-90

Stupp, S.I. 17-375
Sturaro, A. 10-538
Sturino, C.F. 18-637
Stunner, D. **10-115**
Stürmer, R. **15-473, 16-464**
Stutchbury, J.E. **16-98**
Su, A.C.L. **15-519**
Su, B.M. 5-134
Su, H. **15-797, 17-173**
Su, J. 15-1150
Su, J. 19-216
Su, M.-D. 18-490
Su, M.D. 4-136, 4-237
Su, Q. 10-1576
Su, Q. 15-64
Su, T.M. 10-313, 18-428, **18-429, 18-430**
Su, W. 10-657, **10-844, 12-497, 19-467**
Suarez, J. 10-1766
Suárez, E. 14-222, 17-151
Subba Rao, B.C. 12-337, 16-302, 19-694
Subba Rao, G. 15-399
Subba Rao, G.S.R. 11-269
Subba Rao, **O.** 5-325
Subba Rao, Y.V. 11-496
Subbaraj, A. 5-325
Subbaraman, J. **10-359**
Subbaraman, L.R. 10-359
Subbareddy, B.V. 16-664
Subbotin, O.A. 4-272, 9-34
Subong, A.P. 19-410
Subotkowski, W. **11-418, 18-540, 18-616, 18-704**
Subrahmanyam, C. 12-358
Subramanian, L.R. 5-59, 10-247, 10-248, **10-368, 10-860, 10-1555, 11-324, 13-22, 15-34,** 15-104, 16-868
Subramanian, R. **5-311, 10-1164, 10-1756**
Suchan, S.D. 10-1472
Suchanek, P. 16-611
Suchkov, V.V. 10-1164
Suckling, C.J. 11-124
Suda, H. 4-145
Suda, **K.** **10-545, 18-286**
Suda, M. 2-144, **2-179, 16-741**
Sudalai, A. **10-687, 10-755, 10-1150, 11-191, 11-197, 11-295, 14-360, 15-1411, 19-342**
Sudha, R. 18-118
Sudo, R. 10-950
Sue, R.E. **12-450**
Suehiro, T. 14-64
Suemitsu, R. **10-1777, 10-1884, 10-1887, 12-398, 12-401,** 12-410
Suenaga, M. 3-102
Suenaga, T. **15-1207**
Suenram, R.D. 19-201, 19-221
Suga, S. 10-1912, 11-279, 11-280
Suga, T. 17-173
Sugahara, H. 18-420
Sugamoto, K. **15-182, 15-183**
Sugasawa, S. **9pt2-6, 17-386**
Sugasawa, T. 11-362, 11-383, 11-384, 11-389, 16-612
Sugathapala, P.M. 15-1489
Sugawara, A. 18-124
Sugawara, M. **10-1459, 15-1445**
Sugden, **J.K.** 19-627
Sugden, S. 10-307
Suggs, J.W. **14-523, 19-60**
Sugi, Y. 13-202, 13-208
Sugihara, H. 19-785
Sugihara, T. 14-370, 15-1473, 15-1477
Sugihara, Y. 7-20
Sugimoto, A. 16-712
Sugimoto, T. **10-1929, 15-1021, 15-1157,** 15-1268
Sugimura, T. 18-297
Sugino, E. **19-651**
Suginome, H. 10-924, **10-1583, 10-1605, 15-243, 18-282, 19-47, 10-699**
Sugita, N. 13-209, 19-762
Sugita, T. **11-280, 12-485, 17-26**
Sugiura, F. 11-334
Sugiura, M. 15-777
Sugiura, T. 5-248
Sugiyama, E. 16-345
Sugiyama, J. 14-278
Sugiyama, T. **15-918**
Suh, D.J. 10-916
Suh, G. 15-787
Suhr, H. **13-71**
Sukata, **K.** 10-1066, **10-2019, 16-813**
Sukhanov, N.N. 10-1698
Sukhmolinova, L.I. 10-1860
Sukumar, R. 10-687
Sukumaran, **K.B.** 18-397
Sulbaran de Carrasco, **M.C.** 19-737
Sulfab, Y. 11-26
Sulikowski, G.A. 12-246, 15-707
Sulikowski, M.M. 12-246
Sullins, D.W. 16-569
Sullivan, A.B. 19-494
Sullivan, D.F. 16-644, 16-686, 19-41
Sullivan, E.L. 10-2052
Sullivan, G.R. 2-78, 4-173
Sullivan, P.J. 5-177
Sullivan, R.J. 11-231

Sulmon, P. 16-716
Sultanbawa, M.U.S. 17-354
Sulzbach, H.M. 2-209
Sulzbach, R.A. 12-427
Sumarta, L. 15-1000
Sumi, S. **19**-71
Sumida, S.-i. 16-437
Sumihara, H. 10-2002
Sumino, M. 10-1994
Sumino, Y. **10**-1412, **10**-1895
Suminov, S.I. 15-236, 15-250
Sumitani, K. 10-1515
Sumitani, N. 15-55
Sumiya, T. 10-542, 10-1894, 13-166
Summerhays, K.D. 8-184
Summers, B. 14-74, **14**-76
Summerville, R.H. 10-253, 10-256
Sumonja, M. 2-197
Sumrell, G. 15-868
Sun, C. 12-363
Sun, F. 4-195
Sun, G.-F. 16-444
Sun, G.-r. 15-1075
Sun, S.-S. 15-1489
Sun, S.F. 16-48
Sun, X. 10-83, 10-2055, 12-298
Sun, Y. 15-303
Sunagawa, M. 10-1999
Sunay, U. 10-868
Sundaralingam, M. 5-76
Sundararaman, P. 19-388
Sundberg, J.E. 13-192
Sundberg, R.J. 18-582
Sung, D.D. 10-561
Šunjić, V. 15-287
Sunko, D.E. 6-68, 6-71, **6**-75, **10**-100, **10**-104, **10**-165, **10**-188
Śunjić, V. 10-936
Sunner, J. 10-400
Suorsa, T. **3**-135
Superchi, S. 19-457
Suppan, P. **19**-718
Suresh, S. 19-342
Suri, S.C. 12-581
Suriano, J.A. 15-1473, 15-1475
Surman, P.W.J. 2-161
Surmina, L.S. 10-1706
Surridg, J.H. 12-409
Surridge, J.H. 11-228, 15-895
Surville, R. De 19-407
Surzur, J. 10-1476,15-51,18-73,19-125
Suschitzky, H. **13**-219, **13**-264, **13**-266, **16**-205, 19-10, 19-156
Sushko, T.P. **18**-185
Suslick, K.S. 10-454, 19-315
Suslova, E.N. 15-233
Süss, H.U. **2**-144, 2-145
Siisse, M. 10-1058
Sussman, S. 15-989
Sustmann, R. 5-209, 5-211, 5-242, 10-1389, 15-1194, **15**-1204, **15**-1244, 15-1250, 15-1301
Susuki, S. 5-231
Susuki, T. 10-425
Susz, P.B. 11-307
Suter, A.K. 15-1492
Suter, C. **18**-446
Sutherland, A.G. 17-303
Sutherland, I.O. 3-76, **3**-116, **4**-134, **18**-318, **18**-319, **18**-321, 8-0591, **18**-593, **19**-566
Sutherland, J.K. 15-506
Sutherland, R.G. 5-317
Sutthivaiyakit, S. 10-947, 19-388
Suttle, N.A. 10-2031
Sutton, L.E. 1-86
Suvorov, N.N. **19**-271
Suwa, T. **16**-345
Suzui, A. 19-211
Suzuki, A. **10**-1583, **10**-1583, **10**-1584, **10**-1585, **10**-1905, **11**-264, **12**-356, **12**-385, **12**-406, **12**-414, **13**-175, **13**-177, 13-179, **13**-256, **13**-267, **14**-64, **15**-153, **15**-425, **15**-469, 15-475, 15-725, **15**-726, **15**-729, **15**-731, **15**-733, **15**-734, **16**-452, **18**-350, **18**-359, **18**-365, **18**-371, **18**-377, **18**-383, **18**-383, 18-387
Suzuki, H. **10**-859, **10**-950, **10**-1127, **10**-1391, **10**-1402, **10**-1456, **11**-113, **11**-114, **11**-128, **1**-129, **11**-199, **11**-480, **13**-105, 13-111, **13**-140, 13-143, **13**-145, **13**-189, **13**-250, **14**-475, **16**-469, **19**-658, **19**-761
Suzuki, K. **10**-1510, **14**-204, **14**-356, **15**-1069, **16**-379, **18**-13, **18**-126, **18**-209, **18**-212
Suzuki, M. **10**-1345, **10**-1768, **10**-1789, **10**-1894, **16**-83, **16**-639, **17**-171, **18**-125
Suzuki, N. **10**-1277, **15**-522, **15**-616, **15**-652, 19-529
Suzuki, S. **6**-82, **10**-1685, **16**-354, **16**-671, **19**-361, **19**-555
Suzuki, T. **10**-528, **10**-1357, **10**-1997, **13**-114
Suzuki, Y. 19-555
Svanholm, U. **18**-552
Svedas, V. 4-124
Svendsen, J.S. **15**-1009, **15**-1019, **15**-1114
Svensson, S. 15-95
Svensson, T. 18-40
Sveshnikova, E.B. 7-27

Svetlakov, N.V. 10-1137
Svinivas, D. 10-706
Svoboda, J.J. 5-28, **5-51,** 5-54
S voboda, M. **17-18, 17-30, 17-31, 17-94, 17-209,** 17-333
Svyatkin, V.A. 4-272, 4-327
Swafford, A.M. 15-906
Swafford, R.L. 18-668
Swain, C.G. 6-87, 9-62, 9-63, **9-64,** 10-341, 10-658, **11-218, 12-85, 12-512, 13-23,** 13-25, 13-268, 13-270, 19-775, 19-777
Swain, C.J. 5-126
Swain, M.S. 9-62, 9-63
Swallow, S. 16-476
Swamer, F.W. 10-1993
Swami, S.S. **16-293**
Swaminathan, S. **10-210,** 12-545, 16-318
Swan, G.A. 12-542
Swan, J.M. **10-898, 10-903**
Swann, B.P. 19-238
Swann, E. **18-584**
Swansborough, **K.F.** 19-10
Swanson, D.R. 12-484
Swanson, J.C. 17-31
Swanson, S.B. 13-83
Swanwick, M.G. 19-607
Swapna, G.V.T. 15-1358
Swarbrick, M.E. 18-349
Swart, E.R. 10-69
Swartz, J.E. 13-47
Swartz, T.D. 10-159
Swartzendruber, **J.K.** 12-177
Swarup, S. 10-356
Sweany, R.L. 15-362
Sweat, F.W. **19-351**
Swedlund, B.E. **10-1, 11-215,** 15-957, 15-962
Swedo, R.J. 19-121
Sweeney, A. 10-204
Sweeney, W.A. 2-304, 11-300
Sweeting, L.M. 4-173
Sweetman, B.J. 16-85
Swensen, W.E. 16-737
Swerdloff, M.D. 19-184
Swern, D. 10-822, 14-213, 15-26, 15-1032, **19-99, 19-102, 19-103, 19-355, 19-357, 19-468,** 19-793
Swett, L.R. **10-895, 10-1697**
Swierczewski, G. 10-1638
Swiger, R.T. 10-283
Swinborne-Sheldrake, R. 2-103
Swinbourne, E.S. 17-120
Swindell, C.S. 10-95, 10-1666
Swindell, R.T. 10-115
Swisher, J.V. 17-312
Swiss, **K.A.** 16-597
Switzer, C. 15-577
Swoboda, W. 19-209
Sy, A.O. 18-230
Syamala, M.S. 11-414
Syatkovskii, A.I. 15-1403
Sygula, A. 2-299
Sygula, R. 2-299
Sylvander, L. 5-211
Symons, M.C.R. 2-310, 3-30, **5-126,** 5-227, 5-238, 5-260, 10-22
Synerholm, M.E. 10-13, 18-570
Syper, L. **18-303, 19-332**
Syriopoulos, G.T. 10-1632
Szabo, AX. 10-590
Szabo, H. **14-281**
Szabo, W.A. 16-927
Szabó, Z.G. 6-45
Szafran, M. 2-74
Szajáni, B. 17-406
Szarek, W.A. 4-298
Szczygielska-Nowosielska, A. 10-730
Szeimies, G. 4-422, 10-179, 14-216
Szeja, W. 10-681
Szejtle, J. 3-138,3-140
Szele, I. 6-75, 11-146, 11-151, 13-30, 13-252
Szeto, W.T.A. 10-1244
Szeverenyi, N.M. **5-162, 12-296**
Szeverenyi, Z. 19-232
Szilagyi, P. 5-54
Szilagyi, S. 10-547
Szmant, H.H. 15-1104, 19-541
Szmuszkovicz, J. 10-793, **12-223, 12-226**
SzSllosy, A 16-704
Szucs, S.S. 15-613
Szulejko, J.E. **8-127, 10-10**
Szwarc, H. 18-346
Szwarc, M. **5-10,** 5-257
Szymoniak, J. 15-772, 16-842, 16-843, **19-714**

Taagepera, M. 8-177,8-181,8-184,8-193
Taba, **K.M.** 4-286
Tabanella, S. 15-1124
Tabata, A. 15-895, 15-1024
Tabata, M. 14-455
Tabata, T. **18-282**
Taber, D.F. 10-1736, 12-170, 12-244, 12-245, 12-246, 12-518, 15-529, 15-539, 15-1171, 15-1461, **16-322, 19-105, 19-541**
Taber, T.R. **16-576, 16-587,** 16-592
Tabuchi, H. **11-410,** 11-445
Tabuchi, T. **10-1372, 17-291**

Tabushi, I. 2-273, **3-76**, 3-137, 12-105, 14-105, 15-1037, 19-444
Tacconi, G. **15-1272, 15-1301**, 18-549
Tada, M. **12-14, 13-151**
Tada, N. **14-149**
Tadanier, J. 18-28
Taddei, M. 12-326
Tadjer, A. 2-203
Tae, J.S. 15-758
Taeger, E. 12-459
Taffer, I.M. 10-484
Taft, R.W. **3-12, 3-12**, 3-13, 5-47, 5-81, 8-81, **8-114, 8-137, 8-138, 8-148, 8-175, 8-177, 8-181, 8-184, 8-193, 9-20**, 9-37, **9-47, 9-50, 9-51, 9-52**, 9-54, 9-55, 9-59, 9-63, **10-413, 10-416, 10-427**, 10-432, 10-504, 10-623, 15-27
Taga, T. 10-212, 19-762
Tagaki, W. **10-2037, 12-503, 14-204**
Tagliavini, E. 12-554, 16-474
Tagliavini, G. 16-436
Taguchi, H. 16-394, 16-686, 16-797, 17-349
Taguchi, **K.** 16-158
Taguchi, T. **8-164, 10-1085, 12-144**, 15-908, 18-542, 19-483
Taguchi, Y. 16-933
Tai, A. 4-1, 4-111, 15-145, 15-148, 18-297
Tai, J.C. 4-335
Tai, J.J. 10-182
Tai, W.T. 18-176
Taillefer, M. 11-507
Taillefer, R.J. 10-232
Taira, S. 15-517
Tait, B.D. 15-118
Tait, S.J.D. 19-69
Tajima, **K.** 10-810
Tajima, M. 17-366
Takabe, **K.** 19-368
Takacs, J.M. 15-518
Takada, E. 15-733
Takada, H. 16-326
Takada, S. 10-114,18-411
Takagaki, T. 10-1282
Takagi, **K.** **10-1126, 10-1491, 13-108**, 13-158, **13-160, 13-161, 13-225**
Takagi, M. **10-1284, 16-90**
Takagi, R. 16-719
Takagi, Y. **10-1466, 12-588**
Takagishi, S. **12-265, 16-83**
Takahara, J.P. 16-384
Takahara, P.M. 19-711
Takahashi, E. **12-115, 15-930**
Takahashi, H. **10-1800, 15-1440, 16-469, 16-496, 19-247**
Takahashi, J. 17-70
Takahashi, **K.** **10-1968, 15-250, 19-142, 19-493**, 19-655
Takahashi, M. **10-1592**
Takahashi, N. 15-517
Takahashi, **O.** 15-146
Takahashi, S. 11-204, **13-190, 15-766, 15-783**, 19-584
Takahashi, T. 10-1593, 10-1659, 15-369, **15-485, 15-522, 15-616, 15-650**,15-651, **15-652, 15-1127, 16-445, 16-813a**, 18-412, 18-634
Takahashi, **T.T.** 10-205, 15-918
Takahashi, Y. **10-1903, 10-1905, 11-264, 15-147**
Takahori, T. **15-1215, 16-583**
Takai, **K.** **16-389, 16-408, 16-438, 16-800, 16-803, 19-86**
Takai, T. **14-180, 15-172, 15-1071, 16-496**
Takai, Y **10-48, 10-150, 15-349, 16-462**
Takaishi, N. 14-162
Takaki, **K.** 15-590
Takakis, I.M. **10-128, 15-165**
Takaku, M. 11-272
Takamatsu, K. 11-35
Takamine, K. **19-704, 19-711**
Takamori, M. 10-1460
Takamoto, Y 10-1127
Takamura, N. 12-564
Takanami, T. 10-545
Takano, H. 10-1466
Takano, **K.** 11-167
Takano, S. **10-1344, 15-1067, 16-314, 19-106**
Takano, Y 19-632
Takanobe, **K.** **16-314**
Takanohashi, Y 19-555
Takaoka, **K.** 10-1391
Takaoka, T. 17-393
Takasaki, **K.** 10-486
Takase, **K.** 15-919, 15-971, 17-280
Takase, M. 19-586
Takashima, K. 10-9, 10-604
Takasugi, J.J. 16-733
Takasuka, M. 16-837
Takata, T. 19-464
Takaya, A. 4-103
Takaya, H. 15-288, 15-369, 15-789, 15-798, **15-1363, 16-321, 16-322**
Takaya, Y 15-732
Takayanag, H.i 19-248
Takazawa, **O.** 16-574
Takeda, A. **10-1307, 15-1459, 16-313**
Takeda, **K.** **11-503, 16-206**
Takeda, M. 10-1176,15-716,19-573

Takeda, T. **10-896, 10-1460, 10-1466, 15-524, 16-246, 16-797, 16-798, 19-148**
Takegami, Y. **10-1438, 10-1912,** 10-1913, 19-783
Takei, H. **10-1646, 10-1965**
Takeishi, S. 16-599
Takemoto, K. 3-122,3-133,4-147
Takemoto, Y. **14-180**
Takemura, H. 3-102
Takenaka, Y **10-1795**
Takenoshita, H. 10-1875
Takeoka, Y. 3-41
Takeshima, T. **16-112**
Takeshita, M. 15-387
Takeshita, T. **8-191, 14-100, 14-101, 17-14**
Takeuchi, H. 5-198, 11-167
Takeuchi, K-i. 5-96
Takeuchi, K. 2-125, **5-101, 10-296, 10-298,** 10-423, **13-202, 15-1425, 16-770, 18-396,** 18-527
Takeuchi, N. 15-1054
Takeuchi, R. 10-949, 10-957, **10-1889, 15-777**
Takeuchi, S. **10-1402, 14-475**
Takeuchi, T. 15-925
Takeuchi, Y **1-86, 15-331**
Takeyama, T. **16-393, 16-395**
Takezawa, E. 18-636
Takhi, M. 10-713
Taki, H. **19-147, 19-383**
Takido, T. 10-886
Takigawa, T. 10-1795
Takinami, S. 18-377
Takino, T. **10-130**
Takiyama, N. 15-1444, 16-404
Takizawa, Y 14-278
Takken, H.J. 17-222
Takumi, H. 10-672
Talbert, J. **10-1941**
Talbot, R.J.E. **10-216, 10-559, 10-565, 10-620**
Talbott, R. 11-464
Talley, J.J. 10-297
Talley, P. 12-365
Talukdar, S. 19-540, 19-690
Tam, J.P. 10-1028
Tam, K. 4-342
Tam, W. 15-1496
Tam, W.W. 19-85
Tamada, M. 19-302
Tamagaki, S. 14-204
Tamagawa, K. 2-28
Tamagnan, G. 15-707
Tamaki, K. 16-624
Tamamura, H. 10-212
Tamao, K. **10-698, 10-698, 10-1510, 10-1515, 10-1592, 10-1596, 10-1688, 15-528,** 16-395, 18-644
Tamaru, Y 10-1892, **10-1947, 14-295, 15-911,** 18-603
Tamborra, P. **6-11**
Tamborski, C. 12-483, 13-163
Tamburin, H.J. 18-489
Tamiaki, H. **15-1375**
Tamm, C. **4-163, 14-176**
Tamm, M. 3-29, 3-54
Tamura, H. 15-1362
Tamura, K. **18-122**
Tamura, M. **10-1508, 10-1530, 10-1872, 13-260, 14-448, 15-160, 15-600, 15-606**
Tamura, R. 5-231, 10-1718, 10-1722, 10-1733, 13-153
Tamura, S. 6-66
Tamura, Y 10-911,11-380
Tan, B. 4-242
Tan, C.-W. 16-600, 16-601
Tan, J. 11-367
Tan, L.C. 10-874, 10-1237
Tan, L.K. **11-308, 15-982**
Tan, L.Y 5-229
Tan, S.L. 14-147
Tanabe, M. 10-1777, 17-357
Tanabe, Y 10-1995, 10-2002
Tanaka, A. 18-258
Tanaka, C. 10-1297
Tanaka, H. **14-149, 14-161, 15-992, 15-1107,** 15-1208, **16-436, 16-934,** 18-412
Tanaka, I. 11-448
Tanaka, J. 13-7, 17-197
Tanaka, K. **1-68, 4-134, 10-329, 10-779, 15-911,** 16-286, **16-307, 16-469,** 16-678
Tanaka, M. **2-57, 10-939, 10-1104, 10-1624, 10-1896, 10-1929, 10-1931, 10-1933, 10-2017, 11-325, 11-353, 12-91, 12-397, 13-213, 14-439,** 16-652, **19-43, 19-304**
Tanaka, N. 6-80, 10-307
Tanaka, R. 7-21,15-78
Tanaka, S. **4-70, 10-1213,** 10-1872, **15-1157,** 16-857
Tanaka, T. **10-1240, 11-211, 15-726**
Tanaka, W. 16-495
Tanaka, Y **15-822, 19-651**
Tandon, A. 10-707
Tanemura, K. 10-528
Tang, D. 10-1320
Tang, D.Y.H. 5-235, 18-77
Tang, F.Y 14-61
Tang, J. **10-1680, 15-615**

Tang, K. 12-276
Tang, **K.-H.** 15-833
Tang, M.-H. **10-693, 10-965**
Tang, P.W. 15-720
Tang, Q. 13-180
Tang, R. 18-601
Tang, R.H. 14-61
Tang, S. 4-242, 15-197
Tang, Y.S. 2-315, 8-57, 8-92
Tangari, N. 16-390, 16-392
Tange, H. 16-307
Tanguy, G. **10-1890,** 10-1913
Tani, H. 10-950, 10-1402, 14-475, 19-658
Tani, **K.** 11-137, 12-72
Tani, S. **10-909, 16-447, 18-596**
Tanida, H. 10-126, 10-141, 10-150, 10-151, 17-67
Tanigaki, **K.** 18-190
Tanigawa, Y. **10-952, 10-1099, 10-1102, 10-1614, 10-1636, 14-264**
Taniguchi, H. 10-251, 11-274, 11-342, 11-352, 14-345,17-260,19-711
Taniguchi, **K.** 19-704
Taniguchi, M. 11-272, 16-446
Taniguchi, N. 10-730
Taniguchi, S. 10-362
Taniguchi, T. 19-688
Taniguchi, Y. **2-243, 10-1099, 10-1102, 10-1213,** 15-590
Tanikaga, R. 19-785
Tanikawa, S. 10-46, 10-59, 15-1021, 17-280
Tanimoto, Y. 16-327
Tanino, **K.** 15-547, 15-558
Tanio, M. 10-911
Tanizawa, D. 16-345
Tank, R.T. ***14-281***
Tankguchi, T. 10-1335
Tanko, J. **4-345, 15-126, 18-129, 18-474, 18-481,** 18-501
Tanko, J.M. 4-355, 5-186,, **14-42, 14-86, 14-95,** 14-124
Tanna, C.H. 18-446
Tanner, D. 2-255, 2-273, **5-71, 16-532, 18-451**
Tanner, D.D. **10-1291, 10-1390, 14-29, 14-119, 14-142, 14-147,** 18-73
Tanner, M.E. 2-172
Tanturli, R. **15-1011**
Tanuma, M. 19-477
Tanzawa, T. 17-352
Tanzella, D.J. 18-560
Tao, E.V.P. 15-214
Tao, F. 15-1074
Tapi, **O.** 10-210
Tapia, J. 4-303
Tapolczay, D. 15-855
Tapuhi, E. 2-315, **8-57, 12-120**
Tapuhi, Y. 4-154
Tarakanova, A.V. 18-474, 18-501
Tarama, K. 15-283
Tararov, V. **16-813a**
Tararov, V.I. 16-814
Tarbell, D.S. 11-36, 19-491
Tarbin, J.A. 19-422
Tardella, P.A. **15-1124, 15-1125**
Tardivel, R. 12-104
Tardy-Delassus, A. 11-317
Tarhouni, R. 12-487
Tarino, J.Z. 14-431
Tarr, A.W. 6-12
Tarrant, P. 15-1297
Tarratt, **H.J.F.** 18-101
Tarrian, T. 10-690
Tartakovskii, V.A. 19-595
Tartakovsky, E. 4-301
Tarygina, **L.K.** 13-145
Taschner, E. 10-1217
Taschner, MJ. **15-1202, 18-296, 19-567**
Tashika, H. 10-1887
Tashiro, M. 10-489, 11-449
Tashtoush, H. **5-53, 11-312**
Tasinazzo, M. 16-813a
Tatchell, A.R. 19-632
Tateishi, A. 14-278
Tateiwa, J.-i. 16-837
Tatemitsu, H. 2-252
Taticchi, A. **15-1174, 15-1188**
Tatlock, J.H. 19-435
Tatlow, J.C. 15-881
Tato, J.V. 12-573
Tatsami, K. 15-812
Tatsukawa, A. 10-1704
Tatsuki, S. 18-567
Tatsumi, A. 11-129
Tatsumi, T. 15-195
Tatsuzawa, M. 16-500
Taube, H. 15-396
Taurins, A. 16-201
Tautermann, C. 10-837
Tautou, H. 10-802
Taveras, A.G. 5-263
Tavernier, D. 4-106
Tawaka, S. **16-447**
Tawara, Y. 2-163
Taya, F. 13-172
Taya, H. 10-762
Taya, K. 10-662, 10-667, 16-136

Tayal, S.R. 10-1528
Tayano, T. 16-452
Taylor, **B.F.** 4-303
Taylor, C.K. 14-86
Taylor, D.K. 4-366
Taylor, D.R. 8-73, 10-209, 15-104, 15-1327, 17-328
Taylor, E.A. **10-951**
Taylor, E.C. 10-704, 10-1988, 10-2015, 11-192, 12-304, 12-331, 12-332, 12-368, 12-415, 14-391, **14-444**, **14-500**, **14-501**, **16-805**, 18-196, **19-238**, **19-802**
Taylor, E.J. 19-539
Taylor, G.A. 18-707
Taylor, H.T. 15-979
Taylor, J.A. 14-317
Taylor, J.B. 15-1453, 15-1454
Taylor, J.E. 14-415, **15-996**, **15-998**
Taylor, J.M. 11-206
Taylor, J.W. 10-63
Taylor, K.F. 16-572
Taylor, **K.G.** 5-280, 5-297
Taylor, M.J. 2-161
Taylor, P.C. 16-893
Taylor, P.G. **11-91**, **16-685**, 16-688
Taylor, P.J. 3-12, 9-47
Taylor, P.W. 4-319
Taylor, R. 1-52, 2-29, 2-294, 2-305, 3-14, 3-18, 3-20, 3-25, 3-36, 9-28, 11-1, 11-26, 11-41, 11-45, 11-61, 11-67, 11-68, 11-70, 11-102, 11-106, 11-174, 11-186, 11-215, 11-268, **11-306**, **11-463**, **11-466**, **11-480**, **11-484**, **11-510**, 12-302, 12-509, 17-120, **17-131**, **17-132**, **17-142**, **17-178**, **17-411**, **19-235**, **19-717**
Taylor, R.B. 4-447
Taylor, R.C. 13-73
Taylor, R.E.R. 13-263
Taylor, R.J.K. 10-521, 15-646, 15-678, 16-732, **17-280**, **17-303**
Taylor, R.L. 10-130
Taylor, R.T. **15-341**
Taylor, S. 15-1030
Taylor, S.K. 11-257, 14-446
Taylor, W.C. 10-1385, **15-1094**, **19-733**
Taylor. P.G. 1-45
Tazaki, M 11-376, 16-90
Tchoubar, B. 15-333, 16-334, 18-174
Teach, E.G. 15-912
Teasley, M.F. 15-1098
Tebbe, F.N. 16-791
Tedder, J.M. **1-1**, **5-174**, **11-153**, **11-154**, **11-471**, **14-1**, **14-34**, **14-45**, **14-84**, **14-145**, **15-89**, **15-98**, 18-65
Tedford, M.C. 10-570
Tedjo, E.M. 17-241
Tee, **O.** 11-100
Tee, O.S. **11-215**, **11-216**, **15-413**
Teeter, J.S. 15-961
Teissier, P. 18-73
Tejero, T. 19-722
Tekawa, M. 18-156
Tel, L.M. 4-235
Teleman, O. 16-706
Telford, R.P. **10-1421**, **19-602**, 19-615
Teller, R.G. 15-315
Telschow, J.E. **14-176**
Temme, H. 13-153
Temme, O. 16-326
Temnikova, T.I. 14-65
Tempesta, M.S. 4-447
Temple Jr., D.L. **10-1828**, **10-1831**
Temple, R.D. 15-1053
Templeton, D.H. 2-211
Templeton, J.L. **15-1131**
Ten Hoeve, W. 4-22
Tenaglia, A. 14-158
TenBrink, R. 10-465
Tencer, M. 16-614, 16-848
Tenud, L. 10-15
Teo, K.E. 12-117
ter Borg, A.P. 18-454
terWiel, J. 15-1052
Terada, M. 15-555, 15-1208
Terada, T. 19-92
Teraji, T. 15-1313
Teranishi, A.Y. 12-197, 16-578, 17-239, 19-401
Teranishi, S. 10-785, **14-365**, **15-863**, **19-73**, **19-82**, **19-738**
Terao, T. 12-237
Terao, Y. 15-1153,18-212
Terasaki, S. 19-608
Terashima, S. **15-1305**, **17-189**
Teratani, S. **10-662**, **10-667**
Teratini, S. **15-211**
Terekhova, L.N. 15-537
Terenghi, G. 11-340
Terent'ev, A.B. **18-66**, **18-76**, **18-80**
Terent'ev, A.P. 15-860
Terent'eva, G.A. 10-309
Tereschenko, **G.F.** 18-253, 18-263
Ternansky, R. **15-1494**
Ternansky, R.J. 18-497
Ternovskoi, L.A. 15-877
Terpko, M.O. 19-602
Terpstra, J.W. 10-829, 18-207
Terranova, E. 14-158

Terrell, R. 10-1053, **12-223**, 12-226
Terrett, N.K. 16-864
Terrier, C. 15-779
Terrier, F. 8-93, 10-354, **10-356**, **13-5**, 13-6
Teschner, M. 12-190
Tesoro, G.C. 15-75
Testa, B. 4-1
Testaferri, L. 13-83, 13-102, **13-105**, **13-163**, 14-382, 19-295
Tester, J.W. 15-1235
Teston-Henry, M. 8-127
Tewson, T.J. 11-26
Texier, F. **10-264**, **15-1167**
Texier-Boullet, F. **16-160**, **16-194**
Tey, C. 10-1968
Teyssié, P. 10-669
Tezuka, H. 4-390
Tezuka, T. **14-19**, **14-73**, **15-1074**, **18-454**
Tezuka, Y. **19-447**
Thacher, A.F. 18-456
Thadani, A. 5-281
Thaler, W.A. **14-23**, **14-93**, **14-134**, **15-155**
Thalmann, A. 10-728
Thamattoor, D.M. 5-284
Than, C. 11-112
Thanh, **B.T.** 16-595
Thanos, J. 4-124
Thavonekham, B. 10-1616
Thea, S. 10-609, 10-2034
Theaker, G. **11-154**, **11-471**
Thebtaranonth, C. 15-51,6-564
Thebtaranonth, Y. 15-51, 16-564, 18-318, **18-319**, **18-593**, **18-593**
Theis, M. 12-271
Thelan, P.J. 18-680
Theobald, D.W. 4-255
Theophanides, T. 11-310
Therien, M. 10-1184
Therien, M.J. 12-374
Therisod, M. 10-760
Théron, F. 12-64, **15-46**, **18-504**, 18-576
Thetford, D. 10-1082, 13-99
Thewissen, D.H.M.W. 15-393
Thi, H.C.G. 4-398
Thi, M.P.N. 10-372
Thibblin, A. 6-58, 6-61, 10-65, 10-196, 17-4, 17-35, **17-36**, **17-48**, **17-50**, **17-54**, **17-60**, 17-144
Thiébault, A. **13-42**, **13-46**, **13-76**, **13-98**, **13-180**
Thiebes, C. 12-366
Thiede, R.J. 16-48
Thiel, W. 2-15, 2-18
Thiele, G.F. 2-268
Thielecke, W. 10-1713,15-1151
Thieme, P.C. 16-722
Thier, W. **15-341**
Thies, I. 12-519
Thies, O. 16-560
Thies, R.W. 4-412, 18-483
Thieser, R. **10-442**
Thijs, L. 6-31
Thilmont, N. 10-1890
ThimmaReddy, R. 19-456
Thirase, G. 5-137
Thirot, G. 8-137
Thiruvazhi, M. 18-479
Thobe, J. **16-744**
Thoer, A. 11-330
Thomas IV, B.E. **15-540**, **15-546**, 15-547
Thomas, A. 15-1012
Thomas, A.F. 18-560
Thomas, A.P. **10-1643**
Thomas, B. 7-46
Thomas, B.R. 19-523
Thomas, C.B. 13-221, **15-1145**, 18-75, 19-394, 19-801
Thomas, C.R. 15-881
Thomas, C.W. **10-499**, **16-612**
Thomas, F. 9-10
Thomas, G. 10-1417
Thomas, J.A. 11-426, 11-429
Thomas, J.M. **10-957**, **15-213**
Thomas, M.J. 15-362
Thomas, P.J. **10-315**, **17-47**, **17-50**, **17-100**
Thomas, P.N. 11-88
Thomas, R. **2-172**, **16-748**
Thomas, R.C. 6-14
Thomas, R.D. 5-134,5-135,5-169
Thomas, R.J. **10-223**, **10-224**, **10-628**
Thomas, R.M. 10-1337
Thomas, S.D. 15-1027
Thomas, SJ. 10-668
Thomas, T.D. 8-145, **8-192**, **15-95**
Thomas, W.A. 4-284
Thomassin, R. 10-2025, 11-308
Thomm, E.W.C.W. 12-599
Thommen, W. 14-247
Thompson, A.S. 18-259
Thompson, CM. 5-84,10-466,10-1705
Thompson, D. 10-1270
Thompson, D.F. 14-361
Thompson, D.H.P 10-1600
Thompson, D.J. 10-1901, 12-72, 15-272
Thompson, H.W. 15-718
Thompson, J. **12-280**, **17-354**
Thompson, J.A. **10-141**, **19-201**, **19-215**

Thompson, J.E. 19-773
Thompson, J.T. **10-46, 10-59, 10-382**
Thompson, **K.L. 15-208**
Thompson, M. **1-13**
Thompson, M.M. 19-14
Thompson, N. **15-1082, 15-1083, 18-179**
Thompson, Q.E. **19-188**
Thompson, R.D. 10-1087
Thompson, S.R. **15-1122**
Thomsen, I. **10-1093, 16-115, 16-118**
Thomson, R.H. 5-193, 11-301, 19-128, 19-348
Thomson, **S.J.** 15-326
Thorarensen, A. **10-1512**
Thorburn, S. 11-68
Thorn, D.L. 15-528
Thorn, M.G. 15-549
Thorne, M.P. 17-131
Thornton, D.E. 18-189
Thornton, E.R. 6-73, 6-87, **14-182**, 15-1205, 16-586, 16-589, 16-596, 16-603
Thornton, S.D. 16-506
Thorpe, D.H. **11-447**
Thorpe, EG. 13-80
Thorsen, **M.** 10-1018
Thorsen, P.T. 19-555
Threadgill, M.D. **14-411**
Thudium, F. 9-15
Thuillier, A. 16-902
Thulin, B. 2-255
Thurkauf, A. **16-76**
Thurmaier, R.J. **15-13**
Thweatt, J.G. **12-110, 15-1309**
Thyagarajan, B.S. 14-390, 18-537
Thyagarajan, G. 16-750, **18-255**
Tian, Q. 15-1459
Tichenor, G.J.W. 15-46
Tichy, M. **3-30, 3-31, 10-188**
Tidwell, T.T. **2-197**, 4-354, **4-430, 4-442**, 5-50, **5-57, 9-7, 10-68, 10-189, 10-291, 10-610, 15-23**, 15-26, 15-78, **15-115, 15-163**, 15-184, 15-194, **15-211, 15-248, 16-400, 16-614, 16-929, 17-35**, 17-257, **19-103, 19-351**
Tiecco, M. **10-865, 10-1180, 13-83, 13-102**, 13-105, 13-163, **14-77, 14-382, 19-295**
Tiekink, E.R.T. 15-1155
Tietz, H. 12-610
Tijerina, T. 16-791
Tikwe, L. 4-448
Tille, A. **15-211**
Tillett, J.G. 10-597
Tillyer, R.D. 15-574
Timberlake, J.W. 5-186
Timko, J.M. 4-132
Timm, D. 19-38
Timmer, K. 15-393
Timmers, D.A. 15-1407
Timmins, G. **5-110**, 6-85, 10-159, 12-53
Timmons, C.J. **18-431**
Timmons, R.J. 15-346
Timms, A.W. 14-420, 14-421
Timms, P.L. 12-465
Timokhina, L.V. **16-111**
Timony, P.E. 13-142
Tin, **K.** 12-148
Tinant, B. 16-716
Ting, J. 10-870,10-1548
Tingoli, **M.** 10-1666, **13-83, 13-102, 13-105**, 13-163,19-295
Tinnemans, A.H.A. **15-1343**
Tinucci, **L.** 11-354
Tipper, C.F.H. **6-51, 19-2, 19-11**
Tipper, C.H.F. 14-45, 14-228
Tipping, A.E. 18-665
Tipsword, G.E. 10-1558
Tipton, T.J. 5-233
Tirouflet, J. 10-1419
Tirpak, R.E. 10-1992, 16-697
Tishbee, A. 4-138,4-143
Tissue, G.T. 18-242
Titov, A.I. 14-286
Titov, E.V. 9-48
Titov, M.I. 16-707
Titov, Yu.A. 15-399, 18-161
Titova, S.R 11-436
Tiwari, H.P. 10-37, **19-60, 19-119**
Tkachuk, R. **2-114**
Tkatchenko, I. 15-1485
Tobe, M.L. **10-75, 10-77, 13-40**
Tobe, Y. 2-52, 2-54
Tobey, **S.W.** 10-224
Tobias, **M.A.** 15-132
Tobiason, F.L. 1-77
Tobito, Y. 19-401
Tobler, **H.J.** 2-148
Toblert, T.L. 16-551
Tocher, D.A. 4-447
Tochtermann, W. 2-54, **4-318**
Toczko, A.G. 17-54
Toda, F. 1-68, 3-128, 3-131, 4-132, 4-134, 10-672, **10-1997, 16-254**, 16-307, 16-892, 18-114
Toda, M. **19-518**
Toda, S. 15-770
Toda, T. **15-1425, 18-396**
Todd, D. **19-515**
Todd, G.P. 17-142

Todd, H.E. 14-63
Todd, M.J. 10-37
Todda, F. **5-231**
Todeschini, R. 2-267
Todesco, P.E. 13-65,16-146,19-462
Todres, Z.V. **2-211,** 5-257,, 6-33
Toekelt, W.G. 15-501
Togni, A. **16-463, 16-660**
Togo, H. **10-783, 14-400, 19-657, 19-658,** 19-666
Toh, H.T. 14-100, 14-101
Tohda, Y. 15-1155
Tohjo, T. 19-787
Tohyama, Y. 15-558
Toi, H. **10-1280, 10-1353**
Tõke, L. **10-1019, 15-577, 15-1156**
Tóke, L. 17-406, 16-704
Token, **K. 10-150**
Tõkes, L. 10-1641
Toki, T. 10-1685
Tokiyama, H. 12-119
Tokles, M. **4-167, 15-1015**
Tokuda, M. **10-924, 10-1605, 15-243**
Tokuda, Y. 11-401
Tokue, R. 16-206
Tokumaru, K. 7-21, 14-73
Tokumoto, T. 16-226
Tokunaga, M. **4-160**
Tokunaga, Y. 19-374
Tokuno, E. 19-483
Tokura, N. **5-198, 10-1288, 10-1902, 10-2035, 14-85, 17-259, 18-619**
Tokutake, N. 18-161
Tolbert, L.M. **15-1250**
Toldy, L. 4-189
Tolgyesi, W.S. **5-13, 11-26, 11-369, 11-489,** 11-492
Tolkachev, O.N. 19-805
Tollenaere, J.P. 9-47
Tolman, C.A. 15-812
Tolson, T.J. 10-1632
Tolstaya, T.P. 10-1860
Tolstikov, G.A. **10-1648, 10-2031, 14-462, 15-483, 15-485, 15-1361, 15-1483, 19-186**
Tolstikova, L.L. 15-233
torn Dieck, H. 4-143, 15-1466
Toma, L. 18-549
Toma, S. 11-194
Tomalia, D.A. 5-47
Tomari, M. 17-408
Tomaru, J.-i. 11-128
Tomás, J. 18-153
Tomasik, P. 9-38
Tomasik, W. 12-578, **14-180**
Tomasini, C. 15-712
Tomaszewski, J.E. 16-423
Tombo, G.M.R. 16-75
Tomezsko, E.S. 14-163
Tomi, K. 10-1438
Tomilov, A.P. 19-10
Tomilov, Y.V. 15-1419
Tominaga, Y. 10-1970
Tomino, I. 16-327
Tomioka, A. 4-248
Tomioka, H. **5-276, 5-306, 18-193, 19-84,** 19-86
Tomioka, **K.** 2-159, **4-121, 12-552,** 15-577, **15-707, 15-708, 15-713, 15-820, 15-1011, 15-1207, 16-533, 16-751**
Tomita, M. 18-255
Tomita, S. 19-106
Tomita, Y. **10-1890**
Tomizawa, G. 12-155
Tomkins, R.P.T. 2-164
Tomlinson, I.A. 15-1278
Tomo, Y. **16-671**
Tomoda, S. 4-193, 11-35
Tomoika, H. 18-187
Tomooka, **K. 18-13**
Tonachini, G. 5-104
Tonellato, U. **5-59, 10-247, 13-22, 14-15, 15-34, 15-78, 15-81, 15-86,** 15-104
Toneva, R. 16-284
Tongco, E.C. 16-866
Tongpenyai, N. 10-947
Toniolo, L. 11-327
Tonks, L. **14-361**
Tonsbeeck, C.H.T. 11-467
Toops, D. 18-497
Top, S. 16-869
Topley, B. 10-14
Toploski, M. **12-318, 12-478,** 5-285
Toppet, S. 15-1321
Topsom, R.D. 1-42, 1-52, 8-138, 8-193, 9-2, 9-39, 9-49, **9-51,** 9-52, **9-55, 9-64**
Torchy, S. **16-178, 16-294**
Torck, B. 15-23
Tordeux, M. 16-247
Toreki, R. 18-625
Torgov, I.B. 15-537
Tori, M. **14-162**
Tori-i, A. 10-489
Torigoe, M. **10-1400, 14-473**
Torii, S. **10-1875, 14-149, 14-428, 15-992, 16-83, 16-436, 16-934, 19-235,** 19-440
Torisawa, Y. 11-381

Toriumi, Y. 4-248
Tormo, J. 16-861
Toromanoff, E. **15-360**, 16-5, **16-11**
Torossian, G. 10-1755
Torre, G. 4-36
Torres, L.E. 6-15
Torres, M. **15-1085**, **18-187**
Torres, T. 10-799
Torssell, K. **19-269**, **19-356**, 19-357, 19-358
Torssell, K.B.G. **10-840**, **15-1153**, **19-663**
Tortajada, A. 19-475
Tortorelli, V.J. 15-1420
Torupka, E.J. 10-1483
Tosaka, E. 18-209
Toscano, J.P. 5-300
Toscano, R.A. 4-296
Toscano, V.G. 18-515
Toshimitsu, A. **4-390**, **10-1688**, **11-117**, **12-305**, 14-172
Tosi, G. 15-1447
Toteva, M.M. 5-83
Toth, A. **17-51**
Toth, B.R. 10-159
Toth, I. **12-109**, **15-288**
Tóth, G. 15-1156,19-270
Tóth, I. 15-797
Totleben, MJ. 16-447
Toto, S.D. 10-1164
Totten, G.E. 19-482
Tottie, L. 10-690
Tottleben, MJ. 10-1259
Toullec, J 2-312, 2-315, 2-316, 2-337, 4-85, 8-9, **10-510**, **12-81**, **12-85**, 15-15, 15-200
Tour, J.M. **15-336**, **16-389**
Toussaint, O. 19-266
Towne, T.B. 15-197
Townley, E.R. 18-685
Towns, D.L. 5-122
Townsend, J.M. **16-895**, **18-32**
Townson, M. 14-37
Toy, P.H. **14-51**
Toyoda, M. 19-393
Toyoda, T. 11-362, 11-383, 11-384, 16-612
Toyosaki, T. 12-617
Toyoshima, T. 13-163
Traas, P.C. 17-222
Trachtenberg, E.N. 14-169, 14-171, 19-31, 19-283
Trtteberg, M. 2-40, **2-41**
Trahanovsky, W.S. **10-115**, 14-223, 19-2, **19-11**, **19-178**, **19-266**, **19-330**
Trainor, R. 15-1005
Tramontano, A. 16-327
Tramontini, M. 4-111, 10-263, 10-375, 16-183, 16-281
Tramper, H.S. 10-1290
Tranter, G.E. 4-4
Trappel', L.N. 10-1698
Trattner, R.B 10-217
Trautwein, H. **18-71**
Traylor, T.G. **12-7**, **12-8**, **12-39**, **14-416**, **15-112**, 15-115
Traynelis, V.J. 13-235, 19-368
Traynham, J.G. 5-4, 11-49, 11-99, 14-23, 14-25, 14-27, 14-77, 18-81
Traynor, L. 11-461
Treacy, A.B. 18-179
Treager, J.C. 2-196
Trecker, D.J. **11-416**, **15-1317**, **15-1343**, **18-513**, 19-10, 19-11,19-347,19-347
Treffers, H.P. 10-596
Trehan, S. 15-515, **16-813a**
Tremaine, P.H. 16-56
Tremblay, J.P. 14-29
Tremble, J. 10-1641
Tremelling, M.J. 13-196
Trémillon, B. 12-218
Tremmel, J. 5-194
Treptow, B. 4-360, 15-630
Trevillyan, E.A. 12-287, 12-288,
Trewhella, M.A. 15-387, 16-314
Trimble, L.A. **12-181**
Trimitsis, G.B. 10-465
Trinajstic, N. 2-80, 2-89, 2-345
Trindle, C. 15-1257
Tripathy, P.B. 10-1585
Tripathy, R. 15-1205
Tripolone, M. **10-2031**
Tripoulas, N.A. 10-1086
Tristram, E.W. 16-214
Tritle, G.L. 10-150
Trivedi, G.K. 15-1154
Trofimov, B.A. 4-245, 10-688, 10-846, 10-1652, 15-199
Trofimov, M.I. 1-29
Trogolo, C. **15-627**, **15-1107**, **15-1146**, 15-1148
Troisi, L. 15-1074,15-1100
Trombetti, A. 15-347
Trombini, C. 12-554
Tromelin, A. 11-409
Trometer, J.D. **10-1682**, **17-50**
Tromp, J. 11-469
Tranche, C. 14-91
Tröndlin, F. **13-28**, **14-407**
Troost, J.J. 17-395
Tropitzsch, R. 17-309

Trost, B.M. 2-69, 2-276, 4-171, **4-342**, 5-127, 6-15, 10-766, **10-869**, **10-951**, **10-1651**, 10-1699, **10-1717**, **10-1724**, **10-1728**, **10-1730**, **10-1771**, **12-75**, **12-78**, **12-190**, **12-200**, **12-380**, 13-237, 14-264, **15-267**, **15-523**, **15-526**, 15-528, **15-630**, **15-822**, **15-1102**, 15-1138, 15-1139, **15-1194**, **15-1285**, **15-1286**, **15-1287**, 15-1451, **15-1454**, **16-659**, **16-888**, **16-890**, **17-184**, **17-240**, **18-200**, **18-591**, **18-646**, **19-20**, 19-23, 19-35, 19-83, 19-274
Trost, **M.K.** 18-646
Trotman-Dickenson, A.F. 8-177, **14-78**, **14-80**
Trotter, J. 1-74, **4-115**, 4-320, 4-382, 5-239
Trottier, C.H. **19-631**
Troung, A. 19-323
Troupel, M. **10-1888**, **13-110**
Troyansky, E.I. 4-295, 14-123, 19-303
Trozzolo, A.M. 5-268, 5-291, 14-21
Trshiska, Ya. 18-276
Truax, **D.R.** 4-215
Truce, W.E. 10-238, 10-260, 10-1779, 10-1835, 10-2035, 11-325, 13-289, 13-291, 14-289, **15-43**, **15-44**, **15-46**, **15-47**, **15-48**, 15-677, **15-937**, **15-938**, **15-1452**, **16-86**, **17-259**, **18-313**
Trudell, MX. 18-207
Truesdale, **L.K.** 12-176, 16-91
Truhlar, D.G. 6-6, 6-21
Trujillo, J.I. 10-740
Trumbull, E.R. 17-193, 17-200, 17-207
Trumper, **P.K.** 15-707
Truong, A. 16-917
Truong, P.N. 1-10
Trupp, B. 4-372
Truscheit, E. 17-245
Trusty, S. 10-513
Trzupek, **L.S.** 12-402
Ts, C.e 4-345
Tsai, C. 12-363
Tsai, J.H. 3-59
Tsai, M. 4-19, 19-14
Tsai, Y. 10-1621
Tsai, Y.-M. 15-833, 15-841
Tsanaktsidis, J. **10-33**, **12-519**, 14-504, 15-858
Tsang, **G.T.Y.** 10-287
Tsang, R. 16-9
Tsang, W. 5-221
Tsangaris, M.N. 15-920
Tsao, **K.-L.** **10-271**
Tsao, **M.-L.** 10-274, 10-424
Tsarev, D.A. 10-1586
Tsaroom, S. 10-1107
Tschaen, D.M. 15-574, 19-379
Tschamber, T. 18-404
Tscheschlok, **K.** 15-1151
Tschuikow-Roux, E. 5-278
Tse, A. 8-181
Tse, C. 15-126, 18-129, 18-474, **18-481**, **18-501**
Tse, **C.-L.** 10-1323
Tsel'eva, M.A. 15-619
Tselinskii, **I.V.** **10-1122**, **12-583**, **19-446**
Tseng, C.C. **4-119**, **10-1636**, **10-1647**, 10-1754
Tseng, **C.K.** 15-912
Tseng, **L.T.** 16-6
Tseng, W.-H. 15-840
Tsir, Ya. 10-1973
Tso, H. 15-1243
Tsou, T.T. **13-221**
Tsoucaris, G. 4-132,4-133
Tsubata, **K.** 14-408, 17-369
Tsuboi, S. 16-313
Tsubouchi, H. 10-998
Tsuchida, M. 12-588
Tsuchida, Y. 14-64, 19-674
Tsuchihashi, G. **10-1789**, **10-1790**, **11-183**, 12-146, 12-147, 12-151, 18-13, **18-126**, **19-669**
Tsuchimoto, T. 15-632, 18-210
Tsuchiya, S. 1-82
Tsuchiya, T. 12-521, 14-505, 16-933
Tsuchiya, Y. 16-813a, 16-819
Tsuda, T. 14-510,15-537
Tsuge, **O.** 10-1121,15-1153
Tsuge, S. 10-1429
Tsugeno, A. 10-296, 10-423
Tsugoshi, T. 11-380
Tsui, **S.K.** 17-63
Tsuji, J. 4-135, **10-1265**, **10-1359**, 10-1727, **10-1728**, **10-1776**, **10-1916**, **12-405**, **12-603**, **14-269**, **14-339**, **14-511**, 14-512, 14-518, 14-524, 15-515, 15-971, 15-992, 16-436, 16-585, **17-264**, **19-42**, **19-247**, **19-248**, **19-382**, 19-389, 19-399
Tsuji, **K.** 10-48, 10-998
Tsuji, M. 10-1733
Tsuji, T. 4-355, **10-126**, **10-141**, **10-1085**, 10-1480, 12-102, 14-418, **15-1379**, **19-355**
Tsuji, Y. **10-424**, **10-425**, 10-426, 10-947, **10-949**, **10-957**, **10-1461**, **10-1872**, **10-1889**, 19-634
Tsujimoto, M. 14-203, **16-314**
Tsukada, N. 10-1677
Tsukahara, J. 9-12
Tsukamoto, A. 10-1447
Tsukazaki, M. 19-78
Tsukube, H. **10-570**, **10-856**, 10-985
Tsukuda, M. 12-485
Tsukurimichi, E. 17-235

Tsumiyama, T. 19-149
Tsumura, S. 19-318
Tsunawaki, S. 13-258
Tsuneishi, H. 15-148
Tsuno, Y. 9-61, 10-48, 10-134, 10-143, 10-149, 10-150, 10-272, 10-273, 10-388, 10-424, 10-425, 10-426, 10-914, 11-152, 18-233
Tsunoda, K. 11-336
Tsunoda, T. 10-741, 10-1345, 16-83, 18-567
Tsunoi, S. 10-1896, 10-1898, 15-854, 19-304
Tsurugi, J. 19-559, 19-567
Tsuruoka, Y. 19-608
Tsuruta, H. 18-524
Tsuruta, T. 14-135
Tsushima, K. 10-1618
Tsushima, S. 12-177
Tsushima, T. 12-102
Tsutsumi, S. 12-401, 12-402, 12-605, 15-743, 15-972, 19-441
Tsvetkov, E.N. 3-108
Tsyganov, D. 15-539
Tu, Y. 15-1076
Tuaillon, J. 15-946
Tubergen, M.W. 15-152
Tuccarbasu, S. **14-497**
Tucker, B. **10-1164**, **16-884**
Tucker, C.E. 10-1540
Tucker, G.P. 11-175
Tucker, J.A. 15-603
Tucker, J.R. 15-1404
Tucker, O. 14-304
Tucker, R.B. 19-338
Tuddenham, D. 2-220
Tueting, D. 10-1948
Tufariello, J.J. 4-196, 19-278
Tufon, C. 13-9
Tuinstra, H.E. 18-629
Tuji, H. 10-474
Tuladhar, S.M. 10-34,15-1106
Tulchinsky, M.L. 16-455
Tuleen, D.L. 14-24, 14-33, 14-142
Tuli, D. 10-1697
Tullman , G.M. 14-497
Tullock, C.W. 10-1159, 16-241
Tumas, W. 5-91, 12-527, 15-1077, 17-62
Tumi, S.O. 14-507
Tümmler, B. 3-109
Tuncay, A. **19-315**
Tuncay, C.I. 19-315
Tüncher, W. 19-151
Tundo, A. 18-70
Tundo, P. 10-453, 10-1698, 19-182
Tung, C. 17-433
Tung, C.C. 16-714
Tung, H. 19-305
Tung, J.S. 14-326
Tuong, H.B. 16-775
Tuong, T.D. 13-127
Turk, A. 10-1603
Turkenburg, L.A.M. **2-52**, **10-311**
Turkevich, J. 15-317
Turley, P.C. 16-20, 18-168
Turnbull, K. **1-9**, **10-1095**, **10-1101**, **9-635**, 19-676
Turner, A.B. 19-18, 19-19
Turner, D.W. 1-13
Turner, J.O. 5-44, 8-35
Turner, J.V. 10-743, **12-311**, 18-593
Turner, L.M. 5-119,12-31
Turner, R.B. 4-426
Turos, E. 10-1040
Turro, N.J. 5-239, 5-241, 5-275, 7-1, 7-18, 7-24, 7-28,07-32, 7-33, 7-36, 7-38, 10-1564, 14-122, **14-240**, 15-1093, 15-1097, 15-1343, 15-1347, 15-1350, 15-1360, 15-1399, 15-1416, 16-20, **16-91**, **17-433**, **17-445**, **18-168**, **18-169**, **18-172**, 18-201, 18-415, 19-715
Tuszynski, W.J. 10-158
Tuulmets, A. 16-413
Tweddle, N.J. 16-931
Tweedie, V.L. **10-1335**, **10-1336**
Twigg, M.V. 10-1901, 12-72, 15-272
Twigger, H.L. 16-516
Twitchett, H.J. 10-987
Twitchin, B. 12-311
Tyltin, A.K. 15-1244
Tyobeka, T.E. 11-188
Tyrlik, S. 19-732
Tyuleneva, V.V. 16-722
Tyurina, L.A. 15-162
Tyutyulkov, N. 2-203

Uang, S. 16-453
Ubukata, M. 17-390
Uccello-Barretta, G. 16-502
Ucciani, E. 14-23, **14-138**
Uchibori, Y 13-144
Uchic, J.T. 10-312, 18-427
Uchida, A. 14-447
Uchida, M. 10-1887, 16-671
Uchida, N. 10-69
Uchida, T 6-50, 10-459, 10-1035, 10-1037, 15-1021
Uchida, Y 5-103, 15-288
Uchinda, Y 15-369
Uchino, N. 10-1871, 13-160

Uchiro, H. 16-610, 16-637
Uchiyama, K. 11-187
Uchiyama, M. 15-922
Uchiyama, T. 15-863
Uda, H. 16-591
Udenfriend, S. 14-204
Uebel, J.J. 10-201
Uebelhart, P. 5-261
Ueda, A. 18-527
Ueda, H. 13-7
Ueda, K. 2-54
Ueda, M. **10-542**, 11-187, 16-454
Ueda, T. 16-438
Ueda, W. 13-190
Uehara, S. 19-302
Uehara,T. 15-1155
Uehling, D.E. 15-606
Uematsu, N. 16-326
Uemura, M. 3-64
Uemura, S. 4-390, 11-117, 12-303, 12-304, **12-305**, **12-368**, **12-416**, 14-172, 15-895, 15-941, 15-1024, 15-1026, **16-326**, 16-837, 19-762
Uemura, T. 15-369
Uenishi, J. 10-1265, 10-1361
Ueno, K **12-401**
Ueno, T. 10-59
Ueno, Y. 10-1297, 19-280, 19-401
Ueshima, T. 19-778
Uff, B.C. **10-1448**, **18-294**, 18-308
Uffer, P.M. 4-393
Ufret, L. 17-367
Ugai, T. 16-857
Ugalde, J.M. 16-503
Uggerrud, E. 3-44
Ugi, I. 10-978, 15-413, **16-936**, **16-939**, **16-940**, **17-399**, **17-400**
Uglova, E.V. 12-16
Ugo, R. 11-352
Uguen, D. 10-584, 14-191, 18-366
Uh, H. 10-795
Uhm, S.J. 16-490
Uhm, S.T. 12-468
Uhm, T.S. 10-561
Ujikawa, O. 16-849, 16-850
Ukaji, Y. 19-341
Ukawa, K. 10-536
Ukhin, L.Yu. 13-171
Ukita, T. 4-282, 15-1009
Ulan, J.G. 15-348
Ullenius, C. 13-219, 15-709, 15-720, 18-514
Ullman, E.F. 13-275
Ulmen, J. 18-522
Ulmer II, C.W. 15-537
Ulrich, G. 5-243
Ulrich, H. **10-986**, **15-1304**, 16-884, 16-905, 16-918, 19-284
Ulrich, P. 10-652, 16-775
Ulrich, W. 18-517
Um, I. 10-349, 10-356
Um, I.H. 10-217
Umani-Ronchi, A. 12-554, **16-390**, 16-391, 16-392
Umbreit, M.A. 14-172, 17-266, 19-738
Umemoto, T. 12-155, 12-215
Umen, M.J. 12-433, 15-662, 15-676
Umeno, M. 13-144, 18-693
Umhoefer, S.G. 16-223
Umpleby, J.D. 15-619
Underiner, T.L. 10-1647
Undheim, K. 15-594
Uneyama, K. 12-503
Ungaro, R. 11-360
Unger, D. **10-136**
Unger, S.H. 9-62, 9-63, 9-65
Ungvary, F. 12-479, 15-800, 15-801, 15-802
Unibertsitatea, E.H. 16-503
Unni, M.K. 15-446
Uno, F. **17-216**, **17-220**
Uno, M. 13-190
Untch, K.G. **2-261**, 2-264, **10-1874**
Unterberg, H. 2-255
Untiedt, S. 5-283
Unverferth, K. 12-610, 12-610
Uozumi, Y. 10-700, 15-181, 16-325, 18-573
Uphade, B.S. 14-360
Uphade, T.S.S. 15-1411
Upton, C.J. 15-140
Upton, T.H. 18-650
Urabe, H. 15-524
Urasaki, I. 11-232
Urata, H. 10-1921
Urban, F.J. 18-598
Urban, R.S. 18-158
Urbanek, L. **14-71**
Urbanowicz, J.H. 10-999, 16-68
Urbanski, T. 14-291
Urbas, L. 15-560, **16-183**, 16-651
Urch, C.J. 19-78
Urey, H.C. 16-15
Uriarte, A.K. 7-46
Urpí, F. **10-1007**, **10-1968**, **16-50**, **16-589**, **19-642**
Urry, G.W. 10-74
Urry, W.H. **14-306**
Ursprung, J J. 18-95
Usacheva, G.M. 4-42

Ushida, S. 16-435
Ushiki, S. 16-660
Ushio, H. 16-469
Ushio, Y. 10-1345
Uskoković, M. 4-168
Usorov, M.I. 19-271
Usov, V.A. 16-111
Ustynyuk, T.K. 18-161
Ustynyuk, Yu.A. 9-34, 15-221, 15-619
Usui, H. 10-1639
Usyatinskii, A.Ya. 12-304, 12-368
Utaka, M. 10-1307, 16-313
Uteniyazov, K. 18-213
Uthe, J.F. 11-283
Utimoto, K. 10-1369, 15-583, 15-726, 15-818, 15-977, 16-389, 16-446, 16-462, 16-496, 16-575, 16-800, 16-803
Utley, J.H.P. 11-39, 11-41, 14-487
Uyeda, R.T. 4-201, 12-62
Uyehara, T. 15-673, 15-720
Uyeo, S. 18-255
Uzan, R. 11-10, 19-388
Uzick, W. 5-203

V'yunov, K.A. 15-1
Vadivel, S.K. 19-698
Vågberg, J.O. 10-204
Vahrenholt, F. 15-1301
Vaichunaite, B.K. 12-592, 18-698
Vaid, B.K. 12-593, 12-593
Vaidya, R.A. 10-451
Vaidyanathaswamy, R. 15-357
Vail, O.R. 10-116
Vairamani, M. 18-685
Vaish, S.P. 16-219
Vajda, E. 5-194
Valange, P. 4-373, 15-1463
Valenta, Z. 19-12
Valentí, E. 15-1319,17-355
Valentin, E. 16-155
Valentine Jr., D. 4-111
Valentine Jr., D.J. 4-43
Valentine, J.S. 10-818, 14-164
Valenzuela, J. 5-266
Valette, G. 14-178
Valicenti, J.A. 17-333
Valle, G. 19-456
Vallecchi, M.E. 16-314
Valleé, R.E. 3-42
Valls, J. 4-111
Valoti, E. 11-280, 11-354
Valters, R. 6-10
Valters, R.E. 2-352
Valverde, S. 10-1664
Van Albada, M.P. 11-489, 11-492
Van Alsenoy, C. 3-27
Van Atta, R.E. 16-299
Van Auken, T.V. 4-66, 17-419
Van Buren II, W.D. 14-289
Van Cleave, W.C. 11-37
Van de Weghe, P. 10-1105, 16-627
Van Der Mensbrugghe, A. 10-1049
Van der Kelen, G.P. 12-372
Van Dine, G.W. 10-176, 10-312, 18-429
Van Doren, J.M. 10-336
Van Duyne, G. 2-293
Van Eenam, D.N. 13-281
Van Eenoo, M. 17-288, 17-289
Van Engen, D. 2-58, 2-78
Van Hoozer, R. 17-153
Van Horn, D.E. 10-1593, 15-650
Van Horn, W.F. 19-658
Van Lente, M.A. 11-209
Van Mele, B. 15-1246
Van Nieuwenhze, M.S. 15-1010
Van Peppen, J.F. 15-327
Van Santen, R.A. 15-1058
Van Sickle, D.E. 15-1249
Van Tamelen, E.E. 12-553
van Albada, M.P. 11-181
van Bac, N. 11-506
van Bekkum, H. 9-18, 10-1418, 15-278, 16-149, 16-158, 19-80
van Bergen, T.J. 11-379
van Bommel, A.J. 4-86
van Dam, P.B. 18-643
van de Putte, T. 15-278
van de Ven, L.J.M. 18-471
van den Aardweg, G.C.N. 18-642
van den Berg, J. 4-233
van den Engh, M. 19-54, 19-229, 19-257, 19-339
van den Hark, T.E.M. 2-211
van der Donk, W. A. 15-180, 15-471
van der Ent, A. 15-330
van der Gen, A. 4-81, 10-1755, 16-755
van der Heiden, R. 15-349
van der Kerk, G.J.M. 3-59, 16-504
van der Kerk, S.M. 6-11
van der Kerk-van Hoof 13-189
van der Lugt, W.T.A.M. 15-1364, 18-420
van der Maas, J. 3-29
van der Maeden, F.P.B. 19-770
van der Meer, R. 10-767
van der Plas, H.C. 1-86, 13-38, 13-130, 13-229, 13-245
van der Vecht, J.R. 10-311

van der Veen, J.M. 11-333
van der **Wel,** H. 10-229
van der Zeeuw, A.J. 12-210
van **Doorn,** J.A. **8-19,** 8-23, **18-48, 18-311**
van Dorp, D.A. 19-206
van Duijneveldt, F.B. 3-20
van **Duijneveldt-van** de Rijdt, J.G.C.M. 3-20
van Echten, E. 16-675
van Eerden, J. 3-88
van **Eikkema** Homines, N.J.R. **10-1670, 12-454**
van Elburg, P. 16-755
van **Eldik,** R. 17-65
van **Emster, K.** 18-14
van Es, A. 10-714, 10-715, 11-315, 11-316
van Eyk, S.J. 16-384, 16-436
van **Gorkom,** M. 4-212
van Halteren, B.W. 11-237
van Helden, R. 10-785
van Houwelingen, H.C. 9-57
van **Klaveren,** M. 10-1648
van **Koten,** G. 10-925, **10-1648, 11-469,** 12-432, 13-189
van **Kruchten,** E.M.G.A. 18-90
van **Leeuwen,** PW.N.M. 15-787
van **Lenthe,** J.H. 10-1670
van **Leusen,** A.M. 10-1765, 16-674, 16-675, **16-677, 16-736**
van Leusen, D. 16-674, 16-675
van Melick, J.E.W. 10-1045
van **Niel,** M.B. 10-1785, 16-806
van Raayen, W. 8-24
van **Rantwijk,** F. 15-278
van Schaick, E.J.M. 4-233
van Soolingen, J. 15-398
van Staveren, C.J. 3-88
van **Tamelen,** E.E. **2-206,** 2-208, **10-1174, 10-1398, 10-1609, 10-1629, 10-1631, 14-471,** 15-344, **15-346, 15-506, 15-904,** 15-1378, 16-48, 18-414, **19-276, 19-533**
van Veggel, F.C.J.M. 3-88
van Veldhuizen, B. 1-86
van **Zijl,** P.C.M. 2-52
van Zoeren, C. 19-64
Vanajatha, G. 19-424
Vančik, H. **10-100, 10-104, 10-165, 10-188**
Vance, R.L. 18-559
Vander **Jagt,** D.L. 10-159
Vanderesse, R. **10-1401, 10-1490,** 13-221, 14-474
Vanderpool, S. 18-488
Vanderslice, C.W. 10-1253
VanDerveer, D. **12-550, 16-605, 18-106,** 18-107
VanderWerf, C.A. 16-769
Vandormael, J. 11-124
Vanemon, P. 19-388
VanHorn, **W.F.** 19-494
Vanier, N.R. 5-90
Vankar, Y.D. **10-1162, 10-1177, 10-1187,** 10-1220, **10-1277, 11-315, 15-153, 15-386, 16-52, 17-378,** 19-354
Vanlierde, H. 15-1321
Vanquickenborne, L.G. 18-264, 18-277
VanRheenen, V. 15-991
Vara Prasad, J.V.N. **15-425, 15-435, 15-450, 15-452, 15-454, 15-609, 18-374**
Varadarajan, A. 2-288, 2-291
Varalakshmy, N.R. 16-294
Varasi, M. 10-740
Vardanyan, I.A. 14-214
Vardapetyan, S.K. 19-225
Varea, T. 15-739
Varescon, F. 15-1056
Varga, S.L. **4-171**
Vargaftik, M.N. **19-391**
Vargas, J.R. 18-539
Varick, T.R. 15-835
Varkony, T.H. 14-155
Varma, M. 10-530,10-575,10-581,17-113
Varma, R.K. 15-904
Varma, R.S. 10-530, 10-575, 10-581, 10-1098, **10-1432, 15-385, 15-999, 16-25,** 16-145, **16-177, 16-255, 16-258, 16-651, 16-666, 19-26,** 19-53, 19-77, **19-115,** 19-449, 19-771
Vartanyan, S.A. 12-64
Varughese, P. 10-328
Varvak, A. 17-292
Vasapollo, G. 10-1922, -611, 12-612, 15-773, 15-781
Vasconcellos, **M.L.** 16-638
Vasella, A. **14-171**
Vasil'ev, G.S. 15-48
Vasil'eva, S.P. 16-93
Vasil'eva, VP. 19-436
Vasil'tsov, A.M. 10-846
Vasíšková, S. 17-26
Vaskan, R.N. 16-375
Vassie, S. **10-136, 18-24**
Vastra, J. 15-699
Vasu, J. 15-1154
Vasudevan, A. 18-236
Vasudevan, S. 16-916
Vatèle, J.-M. 15-193
Vater, H. 10-204
Vathke-Ernst, H. **15-1294**
Vaughan, C.W. 13-66
Vaughan, H.L. **10-617**

Vaughan, J. 8-30, 11-78
Vaughan, K. 12-584
Vaughan, L.G. 12-440
Vaughan, T.A. 11-41
Vaughn, W.L. 15-211
Vaultier, M. 10-970, 12-385, 13-177, 15-691
Vayjooee, M.H.B. 15-224
Vaziri-Zand, F. 10-636
Vázquez, E. 14-362
Vázquez, J. 19-159
Vázquez, S. 4-421
Vdovin, V.M. 18-624
Veal, K.T. 15-842
Veale, C.A. 16-528
Večeřa, M. 10-608
Vecchiani, S. 15-893
Veciana, J. 5-217
Vedejs, E. 14-176, 5-1007, 15-1037, **15-**1153, **16-**113, **16-683**, **16-759**, **16-762**, **16-766**, 17-277, 17-284, 18-591, 19-514, 19-565
Vederas, J.C. **12-**181, 19-103
Veenland, J.U. 11-489, 11-492
Veenstra, J.S. 15-457
Veeravagu, P. 16-841, 17-115
Veerkamp, T.A. 8-24
Veglia, A.V. 11-414
Vegter, G.C. 14-71
Vel'der, Ya.L. 14-462
Velasco, L. 10-1495, 16-228
Veldkamp, A. 15-1014
Velichko, F.K. 15-970
Vellekoop, A.S. 15-719
Velluz, L. 4-111,4-222
Velu, S.E. 15-671
Venanzi, L.M. 16-75
Venier, C.G. 12-145
Venier, C.G. 19-455
Venimadhavan, S. 12-81
Venkatachalam, C.S. 11-509
Venkatachalam, T.K. 12-503
Venkataraman, K. 10-730, 10-1239
Venkataramani, P.S. 14-208
Venkatasubramanian, N. 19-117
Venkatesan, **K.** 4-385, 15-1343, 16-7
Venkateswarlu, A. **10-**1196, **16-775**
Venkatraman, M.S. 19-598
Vennall, G.P. 15-550, 15-556, 16-473
Vennesland, B. 4-209
Ventura, S. 11-164, 14-395
Venturello, C. 15-989
Venturello, P. 10-1698
Venturini, A. 5-105,15-1319
Venugopal, M. 18-267
Veracini, S. 8-14
Verardo, G. 12-574
Verbicky Jr., J.W. 14-520
Verbit, L. 4-19
Verbrugge, C. 14-452
Verchere, J. 10-354
Verdaguer, X. 16-342, 19-538
Verdonck, L. 12-372
Verducci,;. 2-352
Veregin, **R.P.** 3-44
Vereshchagin, A.N. 4-286
Vereshchagin, L.I. 19-10
Verevkin, **S.P.** 4-317
Verhé, R. 10-290, 10-1480, 12-93, 15-1379
Verhelst, W.F. 15-190
Verhoeven, J.W. **6-**11, 15-101
Verkade, J.G. 4-103, 15-1465
Verkade, P.E. 9-18
Verkruijsse, H.D. 10-1813, 10-1942, 12-270, 12-297, 12-352
Verlhac, J. 10-1948, 10-1984
Verma, M. 15-1040
Vermeer, P. 10-208, 10-1556, 10-1622, 12-365, 12-417, 15-645, 18-579
Vermeeren, H.P.W. 17-130
Vermehren, J. 10-258
Vermeulen, T. 4-128
Vermont, G.B. 14-73, 14-337
Verna, F. 15-286
Vernigor, E.M. 19-472
Vernin, G. 14-321, **14-328**, 14-381, 14-382
Vernon, C.A. 10-200, 17-67
Vernon, J.M. 13-32,15-1184
Vernon, N.M. 17-50
Verny, M. 12-64, 18-504, 18-576
Verpeaux, J. 13-98, 19-476
Verpeaux, J.-N. 13-183, 17-233
Verpeaux, J.N. 10-1626, 13-46, 13-180
Verrinder, D.J. 10-192
Versichel, W. 3-20, 3-25
Versluis, L. 15-799
Verter, *U.S.* 19-178
Verzele, M. 16-93
Vescovi, A. **19-**114, **19-781**
Veselov, V.Ya. **10-351**
Veselovskaia, **I.K.** 13-134
Veselovskii, A.B. 19-63
Veselovskii, V.V. **19-63**, 15-1224
Vesley, G.F. 17-445
Vessiere, R. 12-64, 15-46, 16-226, 18-504, 18-576
Vest, G. 10-1024
Vestling, M.M. 17-46, 17-50

Vettel, S. 16-470
Vetter, A.H. 16-342
Vetter, W. 3-147
Veyron, B. 10-1130
Viala,J. 10-1166
Vialle, J. 16-4, 16-131, 18-579
Vianna, J.F. 12-535
Viau, R. 5-103
Viaud, M.C. 10-1100
Vibet, A. 16-4
Vicens, J. 3-97,3-105
Vickery, B. 19-270
Vickery, B.D. 16-476
Vida, J.A. 18-587
Vidal, M. 15-384
Vidal, S. 14-73
Vidrine, D.W. 5-19,10-117
Viehe, H. 1-7
Viehe, H.G. 4-373, 5-209, **5-211,** 11-155, 12-352, **15-1167, 15-1181,** 15-1302, 15-1330, 15-1341, 15-1378, 15-1412, **15-145, 15-1463,** 17-235, 17-314, 18-593, 19-475, 19-800
Vierfond, J. 11-373
Vierhapper, F.W. 1-86, 4-285
Viertler, H. 19-490
Vieta, R.S. 18-500
Vietmeyer, N.D. 18-409
Vig, O.P. 10-1937
Viggiano, A.A. 10-337
Vijayakumaran, K. 19-61
Vijh, A.K. 14-487
Vilaplana, M.J. 10-1223, 17-364
Vilar, E.T. **11-324, 16-868**
Vilarrasa, J. 10-615, 10-1007, 10-1057, 10-1968, 16-50, 19-642
Villa, M. 11-461
Villa, P. 10-46
Villa, V. **10-1221**
Villacampa, M. 15-1281
Villacorta, G.M. 10-1554
Villani, C. 4-54
Villani, R. **15-971**
Villanova, **L.** 11-468
Ville, G. 10-202
Villemin, D. 10-723, **10-811,** 18-644, 18-650, 19-352
Villieras, J. 10-1663, 10-1664, 12-364, 12-486, 12-487, 12-488, 15-648, 16-749, 18-196
Villiers, C. 19-746
Vilsmaier, E. 10-311, 17-309, 19-359
Vimara, E. 14-437
Vincens, M. 15-384
Vincent Jr., B.F. 16-351, 19-619
Vincent, B.R. 5-128
Vincent, M.A. 2-348, 18-558
Vincent, **R.L.** 3-48
Vines, S.M. 12-346
Vineyard, B.D. 4-123, 15-292
Vingiello, F.A. 11-365
Vink, J.A.J. 19-613
Vinnik, M.I. 8-99, 15-170, 7-160, 18-275
Vinod, M.P. 14-360
Vinograd, L.Kh. 16-488
Vinogradov, A.N. 14-232
Vinogradov, M.G. 14-515
Viola, A. 17-412, 18-495, 18-504, 18-576
Viout, P. 10-196, 10-625, 10-626, 10-1755
Virgil, S. 15-1011
Virtanen, J. 10-324
Vishnyakova, T.B. **3-11**
Vishnyakova, T.P. 16-197
Vishwakarma, L.C. 14-192, 14-193, 15-477
Visigalli, M. 10-771
Viski, P. 14-166, 19-232
Vismara, E. **11-206, 14-88,** 14-392, 14-393, 14-397, 14-398, 14-403, 15-739
Visnick, M. 16-686
Visser, G.W.M. 11-237
Visser, J.P. 4-416
Visser, M.S. 18-636
Viswajanani, R. 10-1346
Vitale, A.A. 10-919, 12-398
Vitale, A.C. **18-131**
Vitale, D.E. 17-50
Vitale, M.A. 10-461
Vitali, D. **13-10**
Vite, G.D. 16-9
Vřtek, A. 17-26
Vřtek, J. 19-202
Viti, S.M. **4-160, 19-445**
Vitins, P. 17-413
Vitrone, J. 19-184
Vitt, S.V. 4-137,4-174
Vittimberga, B.M. 18-56
Vitulli, G. 15-787
Vitullo, V.P. 10-306, 17-35, 18-153
Vivarelli, P. 2-48
Vizza, F. 15-1469
Vlaar, C.P. 15-1111
Vladuchick, S.A. 15-1430
Vladuchick, **W.C. 15-1194**
Vlasov, V.M. 13-63
Vliegenthart, J.A. 3-20
Vlietstra, E.J. 10-1000
Vo-Quang, Y. 15-1393
Vodichka, L. 18-276

Vofsi, D. 15-895, 15-937, 15-972
Vogel, A. 2-229
Vogel, D.E. 10-697, 15-244
Vogel, E. 2-138, 2-140, 2-206, 2-216, 2-217, 2-218, 02-219, **2-226**, 2-227, 2-229, 2-230, **2-233**, **2-235**, **2-243**, **2-267**, **2-268**, **2-273**, **2-277**, 2-279, **4-398**, **15-1425**, **16-576**, **16-592**, **17-245**, 18-395, 18-396, 8-0398, **18-501**, **18-529**
Vogel, G. 5-133
Vogel, G.C. 3-44
Vogel, H. 15-753
Vogel, P. 5-2, 15-1346, 18-2, 18-22, 18-27, 18-37, 18-42
Vogel, P.C. 10-55
Vogel, S. 11-13
Vogel, W. **8-18**
Vogelfanger, E. 10-155
Vogelzang, M.W. 17-130
Vogler, E.A. 12-477
Vogt, C.E. 14-341
Vögtle, E. 3-76, 3-87, 3-94, 3-109, **3-110**, **3-117**
Vögtle, F. 2-51, 2-247, 4-60, 4-132, 4-203, **4-440**, 10-875, 14-487, 16-702, 17-434
Voigt, K. 14-347
Voisey, M.A. 5-306
Voitenko, Z.V. 15-1244
Voitsekhovskaya, **I.Yu**. 10-1022
Vol'kenshtein, **Yu.B**. 11-369
Vol'pin, M.E. 2-126, 2-163, 10-1253, 10-1260, **12-12**, 12-391, 15-277, 15-1414
Vold, **R.L**. 3-126
Vold, R.R. 3-126
Volger, H.C. 10-785, 12-9, 15-132, 15-1372, 15-1375
Vollhardt, J. 5-127
Vollhardt, K.P.C. 2-6, 2-23, **2-64**, **2-168**, **15-297**, 15-1458, 15-1466, 15-1467, 16-780, 17-299
Vollmar, A. 11-54
Vollmer, J.J. 15-1256, 18-397
Volmer, M. 9pt2-6
Volod'kin, A.A. 11-13, 18-154
Volodarsky, L.B. 5-219
Volovik, S.V 15-91
Volpe, T. 15-579
Volpin, M.E. **16-521**
Volpp, W. 19-205
Volter, H. **4-189**
Volz, H. 2-195, 5-81, 5-198, 5-37
Von Lehman, T. **10-118**
Von Rein, F.W. **15-614**
von Brachel, H. 15-539
von Felten, W.C. 10-151
von Gross, B. 2-184
von **Nagy-Felsobuki**, E. 09-52
von **Puttkamer**, H. 2-267, 4-244
von Schnering, H.G. 2-201, 5-198, 10-1759
Vonderheid, C. 10-1759
Vontor, T. 10-68
Voorhees, **K.J**. 17-410
Vorbriiggen, H. **10-711**, **10-730**, **10-794**, 13-230, 13-244, 14-392
Voronenkov, V.V 4-430, **14-232**
Voronkov, M.G. 3-89, 15-229, 15-233, 15-944, 16-111
Vorozhtsov Jr., N.N. 11-459
Vossius, D. 18-246
Vostell, M. **16-671**
Vostrikova, O.S. 15-483, 15-485
Vostrowsky, **O**. 16-722, 16-781, 17-309
Voter, A.F. 2-176
Vött, V 10-117
Vottero, C. 11-124
Vottero, **G.P**. 12-468
Vovsi, B.A. 15-1304, 17-258
Vowinkel, E. 10-677, **10-1671**
Voyle, M. 13-99
Voynov, G.H. 19-580
Vreeke, M. 10-88
Vreugdenhil, A.D. 5-145
Vrielink, A. 10-63
Vrielink, J.J. 10-784, 15-42
Vrieze, K. **13-189**
Vu, B.T. 15-1155
Vukov, R. 10-114, 10-128, 19-275
Vul'fson, N.S. 16-488
Vyas, R. 15-1130
Vyas, V.A. 17-57
Vypel, H. 14-96
Vysotskaya, N.A. 14-197

Waack, R. 12-290
Wada, E. 10-1704
Wada, F. **14-339**, **14-432**, **14-438**, **14-440**, **14-442**
Wada, K. **19-571**
Wada, M. 10-1082, **16-436**, 16-445, 16-813a
Waddell, S.T. **4-364**, 15-141
Wade Jr., L.E. 18-515
Wade, A.M. 18-570
Wade, K. **2-136**, **5-129**, **12-1**, **12-49**, **12-218**
Wade, P.A. 10-1722, 15-338
Wade, R.C. 19-503, **19-510**
Wadgaonkar, P.P. 19-526, 19-686
Wadman, S. 10-1666
Wadsworth Jr., W.S. 16-747, 16-748
Waegell, B. 4-318, 10-1284, 10-1286, 12-72, 14-158, 15-1429, 17-219, 18-164

Wagatsuma, N. 10-871
Wagaw, S. 13-117
Wagemann, W. 2-230
Wagenknecht, J.H. **10-1419**
Wagle, D.R. 10-730, 10-1239
Wagner, A. **10-1172**, 10-1899, 17-392
Wagner, CD. 15-318
Wagner, **C.K.** 6-65
Wagner, D.P. 15-306
Wagner, G. 1-11
Wagner, G.W. 16-695
Wagner, H. **2-180**, **2-181**, 10-468, 18-425
Wagner, J. 4-34
Wagner, J.M. 10-934
Wagner, **K.** 10-383, **17-431**
Wagner, P.J. 5-241, 7-23, 7-30, 7-36, 7-38, 7-39, 7-40,7-41,7-44
Wagner, R.S. 1-57
Wagner, WM. 5-296
Wagner-Jauregg, T. **15-1189**
Wagnon, J. 15-665
Wähälä, K. 10-876
Waheed, N. 19-555
Wahl Jr., G.H. 1-48, 13-23, **13-28**, **13-29**
Wai, J.S.M. 15-1009
Wai, W 17-422
Waight, E.S. 19-632
Wainschel, L.A. 11-86
Wainwright, P.G. 15-1046
Wait, A.R. 9-47
Waite, B.A. 8-37
Wakabayashi, S. 7-20
Wakabayashi, T. 16-136, 16-628
Wakahara, Y. **16-618**
Wakai, C. 3-2
Wakamatsu, K. 15-147
Wakamatsu, T. 13-246
Wakasa, N. 10-1647
Wakatsuki, Y. 15-1468
Wakefield, B.J. 5-132, **5-140**, **10-1292**, **10-1974**, 12-291, 12-343, 12-425, **12-431**, **12-463**, 13-219, **13-233**, **16-429**
Wakemoto, **K.** 13-189
Wakharkar, R.D. 10-687, 14-360
Wakisaka, **K.** **10-871**
Wakita, A. 15-47
Wakselman, C. 10-1563, 16-247
Wakselman, M. **17-143**
Walba, D.M. 3-144,4-78,4-79,10-954
Walborsky, H.M. 5-119, 5-120, 5-170, 5-224, 5-285, **10-977**, **10-1393**, **10-1509**, 10-1632, **10-1707**, **12-17**, **12-31**, **12-318**, **12-474**, **12-478**, **12-480**, **12-547**, **14-457**, 14-524, **14-525**, **15-421**, **15-1207**, 16-936, 16-942, 17-401, 18-19
Wälchli, R. 12-532
Walde, A. 12-269
Waldeck, D.H. 7-47
Walden, F.A. 10-46, 10-59
Walden, P. 6-41, 10-3
Walder, **L.** 17-173
Wale, P.D. 10-629
Wali, A. 16-30
Waligorska, M. 17-50
Walker, **B.J.** 16-748
Walker, D. 11-36, 19-19
Walker, E.C. 19-388
Walker, E.R.H. 19-496
Walker, F. 5-150, 5-151
Walker, F.H. 4-365
Walker, **F.J.** 10-695
Walker, F.W 16-410
Walker, H. 15-247
Walker, **K.A.M.** 10-740, 10-862, 10-1447, 15-285, 15-332
Walker, **L.E.** 17-374
Walker, M.A. 10-741, 16-592, 17-292
Walker, M.P. 18-288
Walker, W.E. 10-949, 15-250
Walkowiak, W 3-82
Walkup, R.D. 15-196
Wall, A. **11-141**, **17-305**
Wall, **D.K.** 10-2021
Wall, J.S. 15-75
Wallace, B. 16-847
Wallace, E.M. 11-286
Wallace, O.B. 10-578
Wallace, R.G. 18-249
Wallace, R.H. 16-290
Wallace, R.W 5-233
Wallace, T.J. **10-2035**, **17-232**, **17-259**, **19-179**, 19-431, 19-492
Wallace, T.L. 17-234
Wallace, T.W 18-406
Wallbaum, S. 16-470
Wallenfels, **K.** **10-1864**, **15-807**, **16-812**, **17-363**, 17-385
Waller, F.D. 17-198
Waller, FJ. 10-370
Wallin, A.P. 12-285
Walling, C. **10-157**, **10-158**, 11-399, 12-329, **14-4**, **14-71**, **14-86**, **14-88**, **14-125**, **14-134**, 14-142, 14-143, 14-147, **14-152**, **14-199**, 16-415, 19-125, 19-138
Wallis, E.S. 18-229
Wallis, S.R. 17-413

Wallon, A. 4-203
Wallraff, G.M. 4-400
Walsh Jr., E.J. 10-1420, 18-203, 18-495
Walsh, A.D. 1-28, 7-15, 15-84
Walsh, C.T. 18-296
Walsh, H.G. 14-226, 19-264
Walsh, P.A. 2-320
Walsh, P.J. 15-1017
Walsh, R. 5-283, 5-306, 15-162, 18-489, 18-531
Walsh, T.D. 10-46, 10-59, 10-73
Walsh, W.L. 18-212
Walter, D. 18-341
Walter, D.S. 15-855
Walter, D.W. 18-56
Walter, H. **6-71**, 12-459
Walter, R. 13-215
Walter, W. 4-189, 16-4, 16-96
Walter, WE **10-1398**, 14-471
Walters, M.A. **18-480**, 18-567
Walters, M.E. 13-152
Walters, M.J. 18-110
Walton, D.R.M. 11-29, 12-345, 12-399, **14-318**, 14-319
Walton, H.F. 2-284
Walton, J.C 5-174, 5-180, 14-1, 14-18, 15-49, 15-51, 15-89, 15-98, 18-54
Wambsgans, A. 18-681
Wan, J.K.S. 5-178, 5-258, 7-36
Wan, K. 18-23
Wan, P. 8-38, 15-204
Wan, W.B. 2-250
Wan, Z.-K. 15-1255
Wang, C. 8-140, 12-363
Wang, C.J. 10-1159,16-241
Wang, C.S. 10-2047
Wang, D.-K. 16-529, 16-537
Wang, F. 13-151
Wang, G. 16-75
Wang, G.L. 12-531
Wang, G.P. 8-60
Wang, G.Y. 10-155
Wang, H. **15-516**
Wang, I. 15-1040
Wang, J. 5-239, 10-807, 10-1405, 10-1406, 10-1575, 15-303, 15-1230, 16-463, 16-538, 16-584, 18-622
Wang, J.-X. 10-808
Wang, J.C. 3-152
Wang, J.Y.C. 14-109
Wang, K. 5-214
Wang, K.K. **15-477**, **16-332**, **18-383**, **18-388**
Wang, L. 3-17, 10-1502, 10-2055, **15-1011**
Wang, L.L. 2-201
Wang, M. 16-855
Wang, M.D. 12-615
Wang, M.F. 15-1076
Wang, P.A. 15-402, 15-403
Wang, PS. 5-288
Wang, Q. **11-113**, 11-394, 15-959, 16-249, 19-527
Wang, R.-P. 10-938
Wang, R.-T. 15-266
Wang, S. 19-604
Wang, S.L.B. 15-1150
Wang, T. 2-200, **3-113**, 12-85
Wang, T.C. 10-547
Wang, T.S. 10-1697
Wang, W. 8-87, 8-92, 8-94, 12-493, 12-494, 15-620, 15-621, **15-622**, **16-396**, 16-397, 16-436, 16-746
Wang, W.-B. 10-1042, 10-1043
Wang, W.-h. 8-95
Wang, X. 8-161, 11-413, 15-762, 15-1319, 16-567, 17-329, 18-599
Wang, X.-j. 11-367
Wang, X.-Z. 13-178
Wang, Y. 10-760, 15-1014, 16-746, 18-407, 18-407, 19-385, 19-640
Wang, Y.-X. 10-26
Wang, Z. 12-381, 15-1063, 16-317, 16-502, 16-814
Wang, Z.-M. 15-987, **15-1011**
Wang, Z.-X. 15-1076, 15-1079
Wann, S.R. **10-511**, **19-555**
Waratuke, S.A. 15-549
Warawa, E.J. 19-56
Warburton, M.R. 15-1327
Warburton, W.K. 11-185
Ward Jr., W.J. 16-760
Ward, D.E. 15-1234, 16-275, 16-277, 16-279
Ward, D.G. 8-38
Ward, E.L.M. 11-341
Ward, H.R. **4-418**, **5-187**, **5-188**, **5-190**, **10-1524**, 10-1528, 12-493, 12-494, 18-413
Ward, J.F. 12-437
Ward, J.P. 11-262, 18-623, **19-39**, **19-193**
Ward, J.S. 18-523
Ward, P. 18-152
Ward, R.S. 4-111, 4-157, 17-335
Ward, T.J. **18-313**
Ward, T.R. 16-75
Wardell, J.L. 10-845, 10-851, 10-1678, 12-262, **12-279**, **12-291**, **12-300**, **12-324**, **12-343**, 12-432, 12-436, 12-463, 12-482, 12-422, 15-226, 15-609, 15-617, **16-3**, **16-436**, **19-656**, 19-695

Ware, J.C. 12-39
Waring, A.J. **8-101, 18-34, 18-35, 18-152**
Waring, C. 19-264, 19-268
Warkentin, J. **15-851, 15-1160, 17-356,** 17-418
Warmuth, R. 3-103
Warner, CD. 12-546
Warner, C.R. 18-203
Warner, P.M. 2-296, **4-422, 18-527**
Warnet, R. 15-45
Warnet, R.J. 15-132
Warnhoff, E.W. **5-109, 12-117, 15-1382, 16-298, 18-86, 18-161, 18-176, 18-206**
Warpehoski, M.A. 14-174
Warren, C.T. 10-594
Warren, H.B. 2-297
Warren, J.A. 4-221
Warren, R.W. 18-101
Warren, S. **16-774, 18-32, 18-213, 19-784**
Warren, S.E. 15-110
Warrener, R.N. **15-1343, 19-58**
Warrick, P. **6-61**
Warshawsky, A. 11-411
Wartenberg, F.-H. 15-844
Wartini, A.R. 5-266
Wartski, L. 15-561, 15-686, 15-687, 15-688, 15-1270
Waseda, T. 10-1976
Washiyama, M. 15-656
Wassef, W.N. **10-563, 10-564**
Wassen,J. 2-138,2-226
Wasserman, A. 15-1171
Wasserman, B. 10-326
Wasserman, E. 2-194, 2-195, 5-241, 5-268, 5-288, 5-291, 5-320, **5-321, 18-640, 18-641**
Wasserman, H.H. 12-509, 14-177, 14-238, **14-239, 15-1089, 15-1092,** -1093, **15-1399, 16-20, 18-168, 18-291, 18-291, 19-270, 19-284**
Wassmundt, F.W. 11-169
Waszczylo, Z. 6-83, 10-307
Wat, **E.K.W.** 10-1598
Watanabe, A. **16-230, 18-125**
Watanabe, F. **11-227, 11-503**
Watanabe, H. **12-400, 16-585**
Watanabe, J. 10-545
Watanabe, **K.** 16-65
Watanabe, M. **16-408, 16-470, 16-797**
Watanabe, N. 12-247, **15-941**
Watanabe, S. **12-135, 15-1045**
Watanabe, T. **10-1055, 13-179, 13-213, 19-359**
Watanabe, W.H. 10-688
Watanabe, Y. **10-931, 10-947, 10-949, 10-957, 10-1085, 10-1438, 10-1889, 10-1912, 10-1913, 13-281, 15-221, 15-222, 15-258, 15-782, 16-143, 19-634, 19-783**
Waterhouse, A. **10-1613, 10-1614**
Waterman, E.L. 15-250
Waters, **D.L.** 18-464
Waters, D.N. 11-462
Waters, W.A. **10-1530, 14-244, 14-320, 19-2, 19-11, 19-117, 19-126, 19-174, 19-607, 19-765**
Watkin, D.J. **2-128**
Watkins, C.J. 7-25
Watson, **A.J.** 11-112
Watson, B.T. 15-487
Watson, D.G. 1-52, 2-29
Watson, J.M. 18-547
Watson, S.W. 17-164
Watson, T.W. 2-334
Watson, WH. 3-87
Watt, A.N. 10-775
Watt, C.I.F. **12-526, 12-527, 19-7, 19-775**
Watt, D.S. **10-1736, 10-1742, 14-173, 14-268,** 16-916, **19-369, 19-679**
Watts, D.W. 16-198
Watts, I.M. 5-306
Watts, **L.** 2-171,2-188,4-374
Watts, MX. 10-1185
Watts, **P.C.** 16-696
Watts, WE. 5-58, **5-73, 10-722, 11-422, 13-276, 13-289, 15-1472, 18-1, 18-227, 18-243, 18-312**
Waugh, J.S. 2-78
Wawzonek, S. 18-680
Waxman, B.H. 15-165
Wayda, A.L. 2-211
Waykole, **L.** **10-879, 10-2057, 16-416**
Wayman, M. **12-599**
Waymouth, R. 15-288
Waymouth, R.M. **4-121, 10-1729, 15-534**
Wayne, R.P. **14-239, 15-1093**
Wayner, D.D.M. 1-87, 1-97, 10-1390
Wearing, J.T. 19-419
Weaver, **S.L.** **15-1327**
Weaver, W.M 11-113,10-326
Webb, C.F. 15-1268
Webb, D. 11-482
Webb, G. 15-320, 15-326
Webb, G.G. **10-163, 10-180**
Webb, H.M. 8-159, 8-177, 8-182
Webb, **K.S.** **14-210, 16-649, 19-420**
Webb, T.R. 16-53
Webb, **V.L.** 4-274
Weber, A. 10-2007
Weber, E. **3-76, 3-87, 3-109, 3-110, 3-120, 3-121**
Weber, E.J. **16-383, 16-473**
Weber, H. 2-214

Weber, J. 19-64
Weber, J.C. 19-49
Weber, J.L. 2-164
Weber, P. 14-46
Weber, S. 10-311
Weber, T 4-111,11-279
Weber, WP. **10-437**, **10-650**, **10-776**, **10-855**, **10-978**, **10-1131**, **10-1744**, **10-1866**, **10-2019**, **15-997**, **15-1391**, **16-684**, **16-722**, **19-673**
Webster, B. 15-1298
Webster, B. 16-908
Webster, J.R. 18-74
Webster, O.W. **2-116**, **15-1175**
Wedegaertner, D.K 14-526, 12-16
Weedon, A.C. **12-77**, **15-1346**, **15-1354**, **16-126**, 16-272
Weedon, B.C.L. 19-55
Weeks, D.P. 10-512, 10-515
Weerasooriya, U. 12-244
Weetman, J. 15-1202
Wege, D. 18-39
Weglein, R.C. 18-31
Wegner, G. **11-291**
Wehle, D. 4-260, 4-265
Wehmeyer, R.M. 10-1943, 12-468
Wehmschulte, R.J. 5-157
Wehner, G. 16-680, 17-206
Wehner, W **3-109**
Wei, D. 10-1378
Wei, J. 12-335
Wei, L.-L. **15-582**, **15-602**
Wei, L.L. **16-193**
Wei, X. 16-732
Wei, Z.-L. 16-314
Wei, Z.-Y. 10-1005
Wei, Z.Y. **10-1658**
Weiberth, F.J. 16-548
Weickhardt, K. 18-297
Weidert, P.J. **4-160**
Weidmann, B. 16-406
Weidmann, H. 16-491, **16-763**, **19-701**, 19-735
Weidmann, R. 4-179
Weidner, J. 10-311
Weidner-Wells, M.A. 15-1155
Weigel, H. 11-188
Weigel, L.O. 10-1418
Weigert, F.J. 4-350
Weil, T.A. 13-201
Weiler, L. **4-318**, **4-320**, **16-653**, **18-631**
Weill-Raynal, J. 4-111, 10-1836, 18-350
Weinberg, D.S. 10-1166
Weinberg, H.R. 19-10
Weinberg, N. 16-21
Weinberg, NX. 19-10
Weinberger, B. 10-1913
Weiner, H. 10-71
Weiner, M.A. 5-133
Weiner, P.K. 5-272
Weiner, S.A. 13-236, 13-237
Weingarten, H. 10-1016, **13-95**, **16-148**, 16-157
Weinheimer, A.J. 15-309
Weinhold, F. 2-23
Weinig, P. 16-463
Weinkauff, D.J. 4-123, 15-292
Weinlich, J. 4-409
Weinman, S.A. 4-29
Weinreb, S.M. 10-896, 10-946, 10-1040, **10-1979**, **15-265**, **15-971**, **15-1272**, 16-232, 19-230
Weinshenker, N.M. 19-97
Weinstein, R.D. 15-1235
Weinstein, R.M. 16-396, 16-397
Weinstein, S. 4-138, 4-140, 4-155, 17-45
Weinstock, L.M. 12-169
Weintraub, L. 10-1053
Weinwurzel, D.H. 10-189
Weirich, R. 13-215
Weise, A. 10-395
Weiser, J. 4-264
Weisgerber, G. **10-1904**
Weisman, G.R. 5-198
Weisman, R.B. 5-249
Weismiller, M.C. 14-194, 19-456
Weiss, A. 14-70
Weiss, A.W. 1-3
Weiss, B. 13-31
Weiss, D.S. 7-24, 7-36, 15-1343
Weiss, E. 5-115,5-131,5-137,5-144
Weiss, J. 2-54, **10-14**, **10-813**
Weiss, K. **14-421**
Weiss, R. 5-56, **5-65**, **10-383**, **11-293**, **11-311**
Weiss, R.C. 15-302
Weiss, R.G. **10-1166**, **11-413**
Weiss, S. 4-226, 10-921
Weissbuch, I. 4-91, 4-155
Weissenbach, P. **11-31**
Weisser, H.R. 18-590
Weissermel, K. 15-932
Weissman, P.M. 10-1434
Weissman, S.A. 15-452,16-318
Weitl, F.L. 10-46
Weitz, I.S. 15-398
Weitzberg, M. 15-1101
Welch, C.J. **4-144**
Welch, J. 10-1162,10-1220
Welch, J.T. 15-153

Welch, M.J. 14-506
Welch, S.C. 13-152
Welder, C. 10-1284
Welker, C.H. 18-570
Welker, M.E. 15-297
Well, P.R. 9-37
Weller, A. 7-17
Weller, H.N. 19-64
Weller, T. 10-1991
Weller, W.T. 10-726
Wellmann, J. 10-1490
Wells, A.P. 2-88
Wells, J.I. 10-130
Wells, P.R. 1-29, 9-16, 9-18, 9-46, **9-47**, **10-343**, **11-68**, **14-27**
Wells, S. 10-379
Wells, W.E. 10-369
Welsh, K.M. 14-122
Welsher, T.L. **2-170**
Welter, T.R. 18-665
Welvart, Z. 6-68, 12-556, 16-423, 16-660, **18-343**, **18-346**
Wen, J.Q. 12-86
Wen, X. 16-505
Wenchen, H. 2-94
Wendel, K. 2-182
Wender, I. 15-415
Wender, **P.** A. **10-1684**, **10-1776**, **15-620**, **15-769**, **15-1343**, **15-1494**, **15-1495**, **16-824**, 18-478, **18-497**, **18-632**
Wenderoth, B. 10-1588, 10-1591, 16-382
Wendisch, V. 15-698
Wendschuh, P.H. 18-409
Wengenroth, H. **12-510**
Wenjie, H. **2-94**
Wenke, G. 19-482
Wenkert, E. **10-1638**, **10-1656**, **10-1666**, **13-163**, 15-619, **15-1174**, **15-1447**, **19-346**, **19-520**
Wennerbeck, I. 4-192
Wennerström, **O.** **2-243**, **2-253**, **2-255**, **2-273**
Wensing, M. **12-491**
Went, C.W 12-224
Wentrup, C. **4-407**, 4-417, **4-429**, 5-309, 6-37, 10-463
Wenz, G. 4-143
Wenzel, T.T. **2-211**
Wenzinger, G.R. 10-130
Wepster, B.M. 2-48, 9-18, 9-64, 11-47, 11-140
Werkman, C.H. 4-209
Wermeckes, B. 14-196
Wermer, M. 5-182
Werner, E.A. **10-915**
Werner, H. **2-134**, 12-236
Werner, N.D. **10-609**, **14-31**
Werner, U. 3-117,4-203
Werner, W. **10-721**
Wernett, **P.C.** **16-761**
Wersel, O.A. 15-1263
Werstiuk, N.H. **5-109**, **5-110**, **6-85**, **10-159**, **12-53**, **17-227**, **18-400**
Werth, R.G. 18-92
Werthemann, L. **18-560**
Wertz, D.W. 4-313
Wertz, J.E. 5-178
Wescott, S.A. 15-471
West, C.T. 10-1260, 19-531
West, D.E. 10-1185
West, F.G. 15-538
West, J.C. 11-111
West, P. 12-290
West, PR. 4-410
West, R. 1-9, **1-11**, 1-12, 2-282, **2-286**, **2-287**, 3-41,5-133,12-273,15-1362
Westaway, K.C. 6-68, 6-80, 6-83, 6-84, 10-307, **10-320**, **10-398**
Westberg, H.H. 18-654, 18-657, 19-276
Westcott, S.A. 15-471
Westdorp, I. 19-746
Westerkamp, J.F. 16-878
Westerlund, C. 13-165
Westerman, P.W. 5-34, 5-56, 5-65, **5-81**, **11-13**
Westermann, E. 14-357
Westermann, J. 10-1588, 10-1590, 10-1635, 15-381, **15-604**, **16-382**, **16-457**
Westheimer, F.H. **4-325**, **10-506**, **12-512**, **16-158**, **19-118**, **19-120**
Westlake, **P.J.** 10-1390
Westley,J.W 4-137,4-174
Westman, F. **15-210**
Westman, G. 16-483
Westmijze, H. **12-365**, **12-417**, 15-645
Weston, J.B. 11-91
Westphal, J. 15-1191
Westrum Jr., **E.F.** 1-90
Westwood, D. **16-382**, **16-806**
Westwood, **N.P.C.** 1-13
Westwood, S.W 14-65
Wette, M. 18-472
Wetter, H. **12-34**, **12-35**, **15-486**
Wetterich, F. 5-208, 14-41, 14-60
Wetzel, D.M. 5-107
Wetzel, W.H. 17-131
Wexler, S. **14-241**, **14-244**, 15-1094
Wey, S.-J. 15-1134
Weyerstahl, P. **10-242**, **10-832**
Weygand, F. 17-204

Weyler Jr., W. 15-1327
Whaite, K. 10-629
Whalen, D.L. 5-98
Whalen,E.J. 15-133
Whalen, R. 14-115
Whalley, E. 15-23
Whalley, W. **17-409**, **18-495**, 18-545
Whangbo, M. 1-1, 1-9, 4-300, 5-105
Wharton, P.S. 18-172
Whatley, L.S. 3-41
Wheatley, P.J. 3-63
Wheeler, D.M.S. 15-132
Wheeler, O.H. 10-997, 10-1415, 16-253, 17-85, 17-98, **18-688**, **18-689**, **19-334**, **19-577**
Wheeler, R.A. 15-1067
Whelan Jr., W.P. 10-12
Whelan, H.M. 16-516
Whelan, J. 15-762
Wheland, G.W. 2-1, 4-1, 4-102, 18-12, 18-30
Wheless, K. 10-1338
Whetten, R.L. 2-295
Whiffen, D.H. 1-53
Whimp, P.O. 4-411
Whipple, L.D. 12-16
Whitby, R.J. 15-534
Whitcombe, G.P. 19-78
White, A.D. 19-78
White, A.H. 10-679
White, A.M. 5-36, 5-53, 5-79, 8-8, 10-167, 10-508
White, A.W. 11-189, 15-620
White, C.T. 4-125
White, C.T. 16-605
White, D.H. 14-506
White, D.N.J. 18-362
White, D.R. 16-711
White, E.H. 7-25, 10-37, 10-380, 10-382 , **10-951**, **17-193**,, 18-91
White, E.P. 15-871
White, F. **10-1812**
White, H.S. 11-430, 11-434
White, J.B. 15-349
White, J.D. 4-424, 10-688
White, J.M. 1-64, 8-157, 17-228
White, K.B. 19-113
White, K.S. 18-564
White, **M.A.** 15-1120
White, P.S. 4-296
White, R. 15-1366
White, R.F.M. 11-13
White, R.W. 19-191, 19-192
White, S. 10-1758
White, S.B. 11-187
White, V.A. 11-441
White, W. 5-311
White, W.A. 16-148, 16-157
White, W.N. 10-204, 11-424, 11-428, 11-430, **11-431**, **11-432**, **11-434**, **18-537**, **18-549**, **18-551**
Whitehead, M. 18-235
Whitehead, M.A. 8-130
Whiteling, S.C. 17-35
Whitesell, J.K. 4-111, 4-163, 4-218, 10-1754, 12-223, **12-234**
Whitesell, M.A. 10-1754, 12-223
Whitesides, G.M. 4-124, 4-173, 5-154, 10-570, 10-1541, **10-1549**, **12-12**, 12-402, 12-474, **12-475**, **12-479**, **13-97**, **14-449**, **14-456**, 14-457, 15-333, 15-655, 15-722, 19-397
Whitesides, T. 19-276
Whitham, G.H. 15-165, 16-687, 17-280
Whiting, A. 12-359
Whiting, M.C. **3-64**, **10-196**, **10-279**, **10-392**, **10-1134**, **15-314**, 16-207, 17-227, 18-22, 18-94
Whitlock Jr., **H.W.** **10-1772**, 18-96
Whitman, D.W. 2-177
Whitman, G.M. **15-237**, **15-811**
Whitmire, K.H. 16-916
Whitmore, F.C. 10-384, 15-29, 16-399, 18-3, 18-13
Whitney, C.C. 18-376, 18-377
Whitney, D.B. 10-1028
Whitney, G.C. 10-1750
Whitney, S. 12-433
Whitney, T.A. 19-673
Whittaker, D. 5-2, 10-669, 16-298, 16-300, 18-90, 18-178
Whitten, C.E. 10-1551, 10-1564, 10-1937, 10-1938, **15-663**, **15-664**
Whittington, B.I. 15-132, 15-136
Whittle, **A.J.** 12-131
Whittle, R.R. 16-768
Whitworth, S.M. 3-50, 10-279
Whyman, R. 15-799
Wibaut, **J.P.** 19-197
Wibbeling, B. 16-916
Wiberg, A. 2-355
Wiberg, K.B. 1-87, 1-0104, 2-35, 2-37, 2-46, **4-228**, **4-229**, **4-249**, **4-250**, **4-337**, **4-339**, **4-340**, **4-344**, **4-351**, **4-353**, **4-357**, **4-364**, **4-365**, **4-368**, 4-369, 4-396, 4-450, 5-42, 8-161, 10-130, 10-172, 10-175, 10-177, 10-179, 10-181, 10-317, **10-1482**, **14-126**, **14-167**, 14-168, **14-216**, **15-129**, **15-139**, **15-141**, **17-361**, **18-42**, 18-130, **18-510**, **18-689**, **19-2**, 19-3, 19-11, **19-117**, **19-120**, **19-121**, **19-256**, **19-336**
Wiberg, N. 1-11,15-347

Wicenec, C. 10-2054
Wicha, J. 19-241
Wick, A. 17-350
Wickberg, B. 16-520
Wickham, G. 12-34, 12-36
Wicks, G.E. 19-423
Widdison, WC. 14-525
Widdowson, D.A. 10-1918, 12-277, 13-161, 13-172, **13-267, 15-1027**
Wideman, L.G. **19-471**
Widener, **R.K.** 15-623
Widhalm, M. 4-143
Widing, H.F. 1-46, 9-59
Widmer, J. 10-852, 10-1388, 10-1721
Wiechert, R. 16-620
Wiedemann, W **15-1425, 18-426**, 18-396
Wiegand, N.H. 18-530
Wiegers, K.E. **17-31**
Wieghardt, **K.** 3-90
Wieland, D.M. 10-1675, 10-1682
Wieland, G. 16-544
Wieland, H. 2-233
Wieland, P. 4-41, 16-339
Wiemer, D.F. 10-1201, 10-1423
Wierda, D.A. 16-470
Wierenga, W. 16-38
Wieringa, J.H. 15-7
Wiersum, U.E. 17-180
Wiesboeck, R. 12-602, 17-41
Wieser, H. 4-215
Wieser, J.D. 1-62
Wieser, K. 19-302
Wiest, H. 15-1211,15-1254
Wieting, RD. 5-65, 10-164
Wife, R.L. 2-226,15-1199
Wigal, C.T. **15-721**
Wigfield, D.C. **10-599, 16-281**, 16-335
Wiglesworth, C. 14-173
Wijers, H.E. 10-879
Wijkens, P. 10-1556
Wijnen, J.W **15-1232**
Wilbur, D.S. 15-1334
Wilby, A.H. **15-365, 19-622**
Wilby, J. 17-82
Wilcox Jr., C.F. 2-274, 2-293
Wilcox, C.F. **1-42, 10-158**, 10-1750
Wilcox, C.S. 18-561, 18-562
Wild, D. 15-1191
Wilder Jr., P. 18-93
Wildsmith, E. 10-1085
Wilen, S.H. 4-1, 4-8, 4-87, 4-128, 4-130, 4-224, 4-255, 4-307, **4-357, 10-94**
Wiley, D.W 15-72, 15-1312
Wiley, G.A. **10-150, 10-1166**, 13-141
Wiley, **P.F.** 10-62, 10-196
Wilhelm, E. 15-967
Wilhelm, R.S. **10-1543, 10-1552, 10-1553**, 10-1673, **15-666, 15-667**
Wilk, B.K. 10-567, 10-1877, 16-650
Wilk, K.A. 17-31, 17-62, 17-70
Wilke, G. **10-1597, 15-348, 15-491, 15-516, 15-1483, 15-1485**
Wilke, J. 4-402
Wilkins, C.L. 15-15, 16-834
Wilkins, J.M. 12-433, 16-371
Wilkins, **R.F.** 16-192
Wilkinson, A.L. 11-78
Wilkinson, F. **7-11**
Wilkinson, G. **14-512**, **15-278, 15-281, 15-282**, 15-330, 15-787
Will, B. 15-1087
Willamson, J.S. 16-171
Willard, A.K **18-561, 18-562, 18-569**
Willard, G.F. 17-163, 17-164
Willard, J.E. 14-104
Willaredt, R.P. 14-327
Willcott ffl, M.R. 18-490
Willcott, M.R. 18-489
Willem, R. 15-1470
Willett, G.D. 2-340
Willetts, A.J. 18-296
Willey, PR. 14-485
Willi, A.V. 6-67, 6-81, **8-116, 11-466, 11-467**, 17-3, 17-60
Williams **II**, T.C. 16-163
Williams Jr., J.M. **5-122, 10-514, 17-304, 17-309**
Williams Jr., **L.P.** 18-105
Williams Jr., V.Z. 18-99, 18-101
Williams, A. **9-83, 10-217, 10-607**, 10-608, **10-609, 10-2031, 10-2034, 16-198, 16-880**, 17-404
Williams, A.D. 15-592
Williams, A.J.S. 19-631
Williams, D. 15-998
Williams, D.A. 12-12, 12-14
Williams, D.J. 2-223, **2-259, 16-382, 18-357, 18-362, 19-40**
Williams, D.L.H. 2-324, **10-498, 10-825, 10-828, 10-829, 11-34, 11-139, 11-142, 11-402**, 11-424, 11-426, 11-429, 11-435, 11-437, **11-438, 12-160, 12-161, 12-162, 12-163, 12-568, 12-569, 12-572, 13-27, 13-62**, 13-287, **18-604, 18-696**
Williams, D.R. **10-653, 10-1758, 16-350, 19-388**
Williams, E.D. 16-300
Williams, F.J. 10-131,18-660

Williams, F.V. 8-177
Williams, G.D. 15-1407
Williams, G.H. **11-443**, **14-15**, **14-18**, **14-304**, 14-321, 14-381
Williams, G.J. **19-208**, **19-212**
Williams, **G.R.** 2-152
Williams, **I.D.** 15-1066
Williams, J.K. 15-1312
Williams, J.L.R. 15-1358
Williams, J.M. **3-43** , 15-315
Williams, J.M.J. 14-361, **16-326**, **17-1**
Williams, K. 15-594
Williams, **K.B.** 5-82
Williams, K.J. 10-957, 14-520
Williams, L.M. 16-527
Williams, N.H. 4-280
Williams, P.H. **15-1052**, **18-299**
Williams, R.E. **10-153**, **10-1027**, 10-1734, 12-49, 12-218
Williams, **R.H.** 18-379
Williams, R.J. 17-122, 17-141
Williams, **R.M.** 4-109, 16-821
Williams, R.O. 15-785, 17-15
Williams, **R.V.** 2-232, **15-1185**, **18-526**
Williams, T. 4-168
Williams, W.G. 18-72
Williamson, D.G. **19-197**
Williamson, D.H. 15-277
Williamson, J.S. 16-470
Williamson, K.L. 1-33
Williard, P.G. **4-199**, **4-204**, **5-155**, **5-161**, **5-164**, 8-163, **8-173**, **10-334**, 10-865
Willis Jr., J.N. 4-316
Willis Jr., W.W 17-238
Willis, A.C. 2-200
Willis, B.J. 17-443
Willis, C. 15-344
Willis, C.R. 10-1257,10-1369
Willis, J.B. 10-307
Willner, I. **2-137**, **2-149**, 2-226, 2-245
Willoughby, C.A. 16-347
Willson, T.M. 16-473
Willy, WE. 4-312,10-1132
Wilshire, C. **16-819**
Wilson Jr., E.B. 4-246
Wilson Jr., R.B. 19-149
Wilson, A.A. 10-46, 10-59, 10-382
Wilson, A.C. 12-375
Wilson, B. 8-196
Wilson, C.C. 3-55
Wilson, C.L. 12-25, 12-26
Wilson, C.V. 14-496
Wilson, D.R. 3-121
Wilson, E.B. 2-33,3-41,4-219
Wilson, E.R. 10-1487
Wilson, G.E. 15-1310
Wilson, H. 5-304, **10-359**, **10-395**
Wilson, H.R. 17-445
Wilson, J.D. 2-77, 10-1016
Wilson, J.G. 10-1677
Wilson, J.M. 12-527
Wilson, J.N. 15-318
Wilson, J.S. 10-1321
Wilson, J.Z. 10-653
Wilson, K.R. 4-83, 4-154
Wilson, **L.J.** 15-778
Wilson, M. **15-847**, **19-692**
Wilson, M.A. 15-934
Wilson, N.D.V. 10-797
Wilson, N.H. 15-1425, 18-396
Wilson, P.W. 5-279
Wilson, R.M. 5-239, 7-39, 7-40
Wilson, S.E. 18-654, 18-659
Wilson, S.L. 14-254
Wilson, S.R. 4-332, 15-1437
Wilson, T. 16-473
Wilson, V.P. 15-152
Wilt, J.K. 18-56
Wilt, J.W. 14-55, 15-51, **15-100**, **18-54**, **18-312**
Wilterdink, R.J. 17-442
Wilzbach, K.E. **4-373**, **18-414**
Wimmer, E. 18-559
Wims, A.I. 19-254
Winand, R. 16-446
Winans, C.G. 2-78
Winchester, W.R. 5-138, 5-139, 12-248
Wineman, R.J. 10-971
Winer, A.M. 5-229
Wingard, A.K. 17-190
Wingert, H. 12-336, 15-1464, 18-415, 18-416
Wingrove, A.S. 5-122
Winiarski, J. **13-240**, **13-243**
Winikov, E.H. 9-37
Wink, D. 15-330
Wink, D.J. **2-211**
Winkler, A. 10-1707
Winkler, H.J.S. 3-63, 4-66
Winkler, J.D. 4-199, **4-204**, **15-1236**
Winkler, T. **10-1164**, **15-972**, **16-898**, **18-540**
Winnik, M.A. 6-10, 10-434, 18-306
Winotai, C. 14-177
Winstein, S. 2-288, 2-290, 4-285, **5-110**, 10-42, **10-46**, **10-47**, **10-51**, **10-55**, **10-59**, **10-90**, **10-91**, **10-92**, **10-107**, **10-111**, **10-112**, **10-113**, **10-115**, **10-128**, **10-132**, **10-136**, **10-138**, **10-150**, **10-151**, **10-154**, **10-195**, **10-327**, **10-403**,

Winstein, S. *(Continued)*
10-411, 10-414, 10-1270, 12-7, 12-8, 12-33, 17-10, 17-35, 17-67, 17-68, 17-70, 17-75, 17-114, 18-15, 18-28, 18-55, 18-73
Winter, J.E. 15-1035
Winter, J.G. 11-441
Winter, J.N. 5-247
Winter, M.J. 15-1458
Winter, **R.A.E.** 17-275, 17-279
Winter, R.E.K 18-398
Winter, R.L. 14-32
Winter, S.B.D. 10-701
Winter, S.R. 10-1883, 10-1911, 10-1912
Winter, W 5-197
Winterfeldt, E. 15-47, 15-78, 15-87, 18-572, 19-10
Wintermute, R.D. 18-110
Winters, M.P. 10-938
Winum, J.-Y. 18-180
Wipf, P. 10-213, **15-629,** 15-1217, **18-562**
Wipff, G. 5-105
Wipke, W.T. 18-100, 18-445
Wippel, H.G. 16-747
Wireko, F. 4-115
Wirthwein, R. 13-38
Wirz, J. 2-315, 2-318, 2-343, 5-327, 7-20, 8-57, **12-80,** 12-83, 12-123, 15-187
Wischmeyer, U. 15-534
Wise, L.D. 4-263, 10-1308
Wiseman, J.R. 4-424, 4-425, 4-427, 10-32, 10-548
Wishnok, J.S. 18-413
Wiskott, E. 15-1371
Wisotsky, M.J. **5-43,** 5-45, 5-54, **8-22**
Wistrand, L. 13-91
Wistrand, L.G. 14-280
Wistuba, E. 18-35, 18-309
Witanowski, M. 5-154
Witkop, B. 19-563
Witt, K.E. 19-740
Witt, O.N. 11-32
Witte, K. 10-192, 10-207
Wittig, CM. 15-29
Wittig, G. 4-406, 4-409, 4-415, **5-135,** 8-126, 13-32, 13-276, 13-280, **14-430, 15-1192, 15-1426, 16-611,** 16-722, 16-738, 16-763, 16-782, **17-205, 17-282,** 18-338
Wittman, M.D. 19-413
Wittmann, D.K. 10-1725
Witz, M. 11-239
Witzel, H. 5-48, 10-500
Wladislaw, B. 19-788
Wligus, C.P. 16-63
Włostowska, J. 15-1385
Wlostowski, M. 10-1877
Wo, S. 10-1872
Woell, J.B. 10-1923, 10-1924, 10-1925, 15-770
Woerpel, K.A. 15-1407
Woggon, W 14-171
Wohl, J. 15-714
Woh], R.A. 17-345
Wojciechowski, B.J. 19-209
Wojciechowski, K. 10-1695, 13-241
Wojciechowski, M. 10-50
Wojnarowski, W. 10-312, 18-428
Wojtkowiak, B. 9-16
Wojtkowski, **P.W. 10-1774, 10-1847**
Wolber, G.J. 10-206, 18-261
Wold, S. **9-29, 10-158**
Wold, S. 12-62
Woldhuis, A.F. 11-172
Wolf, A.D. 10-168
Wolf, **A.P.** 11-236, 13-140, 14-35, 18-29, 18-104, 18-462
Wolf, C. 5-283
Wolf, D.C. **18-225**
Wolf, G.C. 15-938
Wolf, J.F. 5-81, 8-181, **8-193, 19-387**
Wolf, M.A. 16-383
Wolf, P. 15-74
Wolf, S. 16-663
Wolf, S.A. 15-83
Wolf, W 14-389, 14-390
Wolfarth, E.F. **18-551**
Wolfe Jr., J.R. 10-73
Wolfe, J.F. 10-724, 10-809, 13-40, 13-192
Wolfe, J.P. 10-939, 13-87, **13-116, 13-117,** 13-119, 13-120
Wolfe, S. 4-235, 4-300, 5-103, 5-104, 5-105, 10-19, 10-349, 10-352, 10-355, 10-1080, **10-1209, 15-995, 16-21, 16-705, 19-241, 19-794**
Wölfel, G. 10-920
Wolfenden, J.H. 11-103
Wolff, C. **2-54,** 4-80
Wolff, M.A. 15-436, 15-439
Wolfinger, M.D. 17-302
Wolford, L.T. 10-1119
Wolford, R.K. **8-199**
Wolfrom, M.L. 19-185
Wolfsberg, M. 2-178, 6-58
Wolinsky, J. 10-1403, 12-132, 16-830
Wolkoff, P. 17-246
Wollenberg, R.H. 10-728, 10-730
Wollmann, T.A. 16-598
Wollweber, D. 5-242

Wolman, Y. **8-134**
Wolner, D. 19-47
Wolochowicz, I. 19-732
Wolovsky, R. **2-224**, **2-225**, **2-239**, **14-312**, **18-640**, **18-641**
Wolter, D. 14-308
Wolters, E.T.M. 10-1045
Wolthius, E. 19-542
Won, CM. 11-467
Wong, C. 10-570, 10-760
Wong, C.-H. 16-326
Wong, C.K. **10-1410**, **14-478**
Wong, CM. **10-1314**, **12-233**, **18-176**
Wong, H. 19-371
Wong, H.C 17-185
Wong, H.N.C. **2-201**, 2-283, **3-120**, 4-342, 4-345, **5-265**, **15-126**, **17-281**, **18-129**, **18-474**, 18-481, 18-501
Wong, J.CY. 18-637
Wong, **K.-T.** 10-1206
Wong, M.-K. 15-1079
Wong, M.S. 17-185
Wong, M.Y.H. 16-298
Wong, **R.J.** 17-71
Wong, S.C 8-105
Wong, S.M. 12-29
Wong, T. 17-281
Wong-Ng, W. 1-11
Woo, E.P. 2-239, 2-274
Wood Jr., B.F. 15-1245
Wood, CD. 18-650
Wood, D.E. 14-24
Wood, H.G. **4-209**
Wood, J. 13-90
Wood, J.L. **3-52**, **16-232**
Wood, J.T. 11-470
Wood, **L.S.** 5-288
Wood, M.L. 18-249
Wood, M.R. 12-309
Wood, N.F. 10-547
Wood, S.A. 11-119
Wood, S.E. 18-218
Woodall, T.M. 16-324
Woodard, D.L. **11-236**, **12-143**
Woodard, R.A. 15-221
Woodard, R.W. 4-19
Woodard, S.S. **4-160**, **15-1062**, **15-1067**
Woodbury, R.P. **19-41**
Woodcock, **D.J.** 10-380, **17-193**, **18-91**
Woodgate, P.D. **12-129**, **14-500**, **14-501**, **15-907**, 15-916, **15-934**, **15-941**, **15-942**, **15-957**, **15-962**, **19-519**
Woodgate, S.D. 15-941
Woodling, R.E. **16-318**
Woodnutt, D.J. 18-709
Woodruff, R.A. 10-702
Woods, **K.W.** 15-1037
Woodward, R.B. 15-1003, 15-1251, 15-1256, **15-1258**, **15-1265**, **15-1267**, **15-1376**, **17-311**, **18-325**, **18-399**, 18-401, **8-0438**, **18-439**, **18-442**, 18-509
Woodworth, **C.W.** **1-48**, **15-420**
Woodworth, R.C 5-269, **15-1396**, **15-1417**
Woolf, L.I. 17-106,17-116
Woolley, G.T. 10-206
Woosley, J. 10-874
Worakun, T. 10-1490
Worden, L.R. 10-1426
Worley, J.W. 16-4
Wormser, H.C. 14-390
Worrall, J.M. 4-303
Worsch, D. 4-132
Worthley, S. 19-755
Woster, P.M. 10-926
Wothers, P.D. 4-386
Wotiz, J.H. 12-64, 13-67
Wovkulich, P.M. 10-1638
Woźniak, M. 13-245
Wray, V. 4-235, 10-479
Wright, B.B. 5-268
Wright, D.B. 15-1327
Wright, D.G. 17-114
Wright, D.R. **17-126**
Wright, G.F. 2-107, 16-870
Wright, G.J. **9-53**, **11-53**, 11-78, 11-101
Wright, M. 17-280
Wright, M.E. 10-1893
Wright, S.C. **2-6**, **15-362**
Wright, S.W. 16-121
Wrighton, M. 7-46
Wrighton, M.S. 15-486
Wristers, J. **15-1364**, **18-420**
Wroble, R.R. 19-679
Wroblewski, A.E. 4-103
Wu, A. **10-1984**, **14-130**, 14-441, 17-154, 17-155, 17-156, 18-102
Wu, C 11-285
Wu, **C.Y.** 8-29, 8-31
Wu, **D.K.** 16-711
Wu, E.S.C. 17-277
Wu, G. 10-428
Wu, J. 10-693, 10-965
Wu, J.-S. 10-930
Wu, J.H. **15-595**, **15-710**
Wu, P. 18-569
Wu, R. 16-389

Wu, S. **4-148, 10-1503, 10-1505, 10-1519,** 15-543, 17-58
Wu, S.-H. 15-355, 15-377, 16-444
Wu, T. 12-467
Wu, W.-X. 15-64
Wu, X.-M. 15-555
Wu, Y. 10-1577, 15-846, **16-282, 18-599**
Wu, Y.-D. 15-1014, 15-1155, 15-1269
Wu, Y.-W 18-59
Wu, Y.W 6-76
Wu, Z. **13-261, 15-1076**
Wu, Z.-W. 10-930
Wudl, F. 2-295
Wiiest, H. 18-337, 19-281
Wulff, W.D. 10-131, 13-150, 15-1150
Wulfman, D.S. 12-560, 12-563, 13-251, 14-404, **15-1405, 17-228**
Wüllner, R. 18-530
Wunderli, A. 18-540
Wunderlich, D. 15-499
Wunderlich, K. **10-814**
Wiirthwein, E.-U. 4-63, 16-159
Wustrow, D.J. 10-1308
Wuts, P.G.M. 10-652
Wyatt, J.L. 5-238
Wyatt, P.A.H. 7-16
Wyatt, R.J. 1-86
Wyckoff, J.C. 12-597, 14-48, **14-115**
Wylie, W.A. 13-15
Wyman, B.M. 15-868
Wyman, D.P. 14-109
Wyman, WE. 18-241
Wyn-Jones, E. 4-227, 4-232
Wynberg, H. 4-9, 4-22, 4-0111, 4-121, 4-153, **10-1408, 11-329,** 14-476, 15-7, **16-45, 16-472,** 16-906, **16-907, 19-755**
Wynne-Jones, K.M.A. 16-21
Wysocki, D.C. 2-264
Wysong, R.D. 11-203

Xi, C. 15-522
Xi, Z. 15-522
Xia, J.-J. 10-693
Xia, L. 2-324
Xia, L.-J. 10-965
Xia, X. 10-17
Xiang, J. 10-1863
Xiao, C. 12-330
Xiao, D. 16-326
Xiaoding, X. 18-642
Xiaofeng, G. 2-94
Xiaohui, Z. 10-638
Xidos, J.D. 15-1206
Xie, G. 15-1074
Xie, L. 12-84, 12-295
Xie, Y. 2-209
Xin, Y. **10-451, 16-505**
Xiong, H. 12-467
Xiong, Y. 10-34, 12-286
Xodo, L.E. 4-272
Xu, C. 10-1536
Xu, D. 10-1034,15-987,15-1011
Xu, F. 15-574
Xu, L. 15-1074
Xu, R. 16-436
Xu, W **10-1953, 15-1217**
Xu, Y. 12-137
Xu, Z. 15-489
Xue, L. 4-286
Xuong, N.D. 11-506

Yabe, A. 10-1478
Yablokov, V.A. 18-308
Yadani, N. **10-1871**
Yadav, J.S. 10-540, 10-706, 10-708, 10-983, **10-1352, 10-1393, 10-1949, 16-24,** 16-664, 17-370, 18-258
Yadav, V.K. 15-1041, 15-1043, 16-8
Yadav-Bhatnagar, N. 12-390
Yaeger, D.B. 15-3, 15-32
Yager, W.A. 5-268, 05-288, **5-291,** 5-320, **5-321**
Yaghmaie, F. 15-327
Yagi, K. 15-148
Yagi, M. 16-254
Yagi, T. 10-1731
Yagihashi, F. 18-282
Yaginuma, F. 19-604
Yagodin, V.G. 18-554
Yaguchi, Y 15-903
Yagupol'skii, L.M. 16-242
Yahner, J.A. 10-2011
Yajima, H. 4-177
Yakabe, S. **10-536, 12-106, 15-890,** 19-385
Yakebayashi, M. 14-370
Yakobson, G.G. 11-249, **-63, 13-72, 17-250**
Yakovleva, OP. 4-303
Yakushina, L.M. 15-227
Yalovskaya, A.I. **10-1163**
Yamabe, S. **10-362, 15-1362, 18-68**
Yamabe, T. 5-96
Yamada, C. 5-229
Yamada, H. 18-412, 19-686
Yamada, J. **10-969, 10-1948, 15-720**
Yamada, K. 10-1185,10-1583
Yamada, M. **10-739, 10-1875, 15-1477, 16-493**
Yamada, N. 10-1872

Yamada, S. **4-118**, **10-759**, **12-552**, **12-556**, 12-564
Yamada, T. 10-779, 12-419, 14-180, 15-172, **15-1015**, **15-1069**, **16-819**, 19-368
Yamada, Y. **4-160**, 10-1476, 10-1892, 10-1998, **12-177**, **14-295**
Yamagami, M. 12-592, 18-697
Yamagishi, EG. 18-323
Yamago, S. 15-1289
Yamaguchi, F. 4-137,13-16
Yamaguchi, H. 17-320, 18-654, 18-657
Yamaguchi, J. 19-148
Yamaguchi, K. 15-1163
Yamaguchi, M. 10-730, 10-1259, 10-1309, 10-1357, **10-1372**, **10-1976**, **12-67**, **15-370**, **15-563**, **15-573**, **15-1473**, **15-1477**, **16-849**, 16-850, 17-291
Yamaguchi, R. 17-161
Yamaguchi, S. 4-96, 4-167, 16-265, 16-326, 16-496
Yamaguchi, T. 14-136
Yamaguchi, Y. 5-271, 16-852
Yamaichi, A. 15-688
Yamaji, M. 10-785
Yamakawa, K. **16-712**, 18-161
Yamakawa, Y. 15-221, 15-222
Yamamiya, Y. 10-741
Yamamoto H. 16-436
Yamamoto, A. 10-1929, **10-1930**, 10-1932, **11-252**, **12-5**, 13-163, 16-470, 18-156, 19-780
Yamamoto, D. 4-232
Yamamoto, G. 2-270, 3-36, 4-438, 10-389, **12-221**
Yamamoto, H. 10-1013, 10-1127, 10-1604, **10-1607**, **10-1625**, **10-1648**, **10-1657**, **10-1679**, 10-1751, **10-1800**, **12-247**, **12-388**, 14-222, **14-227**, **15-483**, **15-486**, **15-547**, 15-1207, **15-1213**, **16-278**, **16-294**, **16-394**, **16-441**, **16-443**, **16-456**, **16-523**, **16-582**, **16-606**, 16-609, 16-686, **16-775**, **16-776**, **16-809**, 16-848, 17-224, **17-349**, **18-124**, 18-126, 18-283, **18-284**, **18-285**, 18-456, 19-631
Yamamoto, J. 16-143, **18-543**, **18-693**
Yamamoto, K. 2-57, **2-251**, 2-275, 4-70, **4-145**, **4-399**, **4-401**, **12-405**, **15-288**, 15-992, 16-671
Yamamoto, M. 16-265, 18-194
Yamamoto, N. 10-693
Yamamoto, O. 18-522
Yamamoto, S. **10-1567**, **18-370**
Yamamoto, T. **4-193**, **10-1650**, **10-1929**, **10-1932**, **12-195**, **13-108**, **13-129**, **16-112**
Yamamoto, Y. **10-212**, **10-966**, 10-969, 10-975, **10-1280**, **10-1353**, **10-1567**, **10-1608**, 10-1636, **10-1677**, **10-1948**, **13-237**, **14-454**, **15-254**, **15-532**, **15-638**, **15-669**, **15-673**, 15-707, 15-720, **15-1459**, **16-331**, **16-380**, 16-382, 16-435, **16-537**, **16-591**, **16-603**, 18-359, 18-597, 19-441
Yamamura, H. 15-486
Yamamura, K. 3-76, 10-1870
Yamamura, M. 10-1501
Yamamura, S. 10-1884, **19-518**
Yamanaka, H. 10-1582
Yamaoka, M. 10-1340
Yamasaki, K. 5-283, 4-371
Yamasaki, N. 15-145
Yamasaki, R. 10-679, 15-1236
Yamase, Y. 11-292, 11-309
Yamashina, N. 12-406
Yamashita, A. 12-66, 19-783
Yamashita, F. 15-503
Yamashita, M. 10-1438, **10-1516**, 10-1777, **10-1789**, **10-1884**, **10-1887**, **10-1913**, **12-398**, 12-401, 12-410, 18-294, 19-669, 19-703
Yamashita, S. 16-436
Yamashita, T. 10-799
Yamashita, Y. 15-1209
Yamataka, H. **6-66**, **10-150**, **10-182**, **16-297**, 16-416, 16-420, 16-421, 16-760
Yamato, E. 17-386
Yamato, M. 4-225, 5-283
Yamauchi, A. 12-594
Yamauchi, H. 19-686
Yamauchi, M. 19-359
Yamauchi, S. 16-246, 16-258
Yamaura, Y. 12-261
Yamawaki, J. 10-151, 10-1066, 10-2018, 19-71
Yamazaki, H. 10-1264, 10-1359, 10-1806, 13-211, 15-854, 15-1344, 15-1353,15-1468, 15-1468
Yamazaki, J. 14-64
Yamazaki, N. 16-206
Yamazaki, S. 15-1362, 19-140, 19-141, 19-144, 19-148, 19-451
Yamazaki, T. 15-537
Yamazaki, Y. 19-141
Yambushev, F.D. 4-42
Yamdagni, R. 8-182,8-183,8-184,8-185
Yan, S. 16-151
Yan, T.-H. 16-600, 16-601
Yanada, K. 10-576, 10-880, 17-324, 17-327
Yanada, R. 10-576, 10-880, 17-324, 17-327
Yanagi, J. 4-401
Yanagi, K. 10-700
Yanagi, T. 10-732,13-175
Yanagihara, H. 10-1930

Yanagihara, K. **2-251**
Yanagihara, R. **3-114**
Yanagisawa, A. 10-1607, 10-1625, 10-1679, 16-441, 16-443, 16-523, 16-582
Yanagisawa, K. 10-1501
Yanagisawa, Y. 19-386
Yanai, H. 10-1889
Yanase, M. 19-106
Yanchang, S. 2-70
Yandovskii, V.N. **10-1122, 18-117,** 19-446
Yang, B. 18-433
Yang, B.H. 19-578
Yang, C. 10-34, 19-282
Yang, C.C. 10-1050
Yang, D. **13-185, 15-1079**
Yang, D.-H. 16-33
Yang, D.H. 7-40, 16-836
Yang, D.T.C. 19-539
Yang, G. 4-266
Yang, H. 15-569
Yang, J. 15-1465
Yang, J.W. 15-1013
Yang, K. **10-1404, 15-900, 16-21, 16-227**
Yang, L. **5-182**
Yang, N.C. 7-40, 14-272, **16-836, 16-912,** 16-913, 17-280
Yang, S. 16-265
Yang, S.H. 13-147, 15-1327
Yang, T.-H. 7-43
Yang, T.-K. 15-789
Yang, Y. 16-28
Yang, Z. **14-339, 16-526**
Yanik, M.M. 8-162
Yannoni, C.S. 2-187, 2-295, 5-18, 5-67, 10-163, 10-180, 11-16
Yannoni, N. 5-197
Yano, K. 10-128
Yano, T. 10-753
Yano, Y. **10-359, 17-63**
Yanovskaya, L.A. 10-1698, **12-56, 15-559,** 15-563
Yany, F. 17-354
Yao, H.C. 12-157
Yao, Q. 18-59
Yao, S. 15-1282
Yao, Z. 15-342
Yao, Z.-P. **10-1276,** 16-442, **19-618**
Yaozeng, H. 2-70
Yarwood, A.J. 4-400
Yashima, E. 4-76
Yashunskii, V.G. 2-281
Yaskova, M.S. 11-154
Yaslak, S. 18-472
Yasman, Ya.B. 10-508
Yasuda, K. 15-577
Yasuda, M. **15-242, 16-440, 18-500**
Yasue, K. 10-1679, **16-443, 16-523**
Yasuhara, F. **4-96, 16-265**
Yasuhara, T. 12-605
Yasuhara, Y. **11-350, 11-351**
Yatagai, H. **10-1567, 10-1608,** 14-454
Yates Jr., J.T. 15-326
Yates, B.F. 4-229, 18-315
Yates, B.L. 17-412
Yates, J.B. 10-1602
Yates, K. 2-8, 2-12, 8-24, 8-26, 8-38, 8-99, 8-100, 8-101, 8-102, **8-105, 10-594,** 10-597, 10-629, 10-630, 12-122, 15-4, 15-12, 15-14, **15-15, 15-86, 15-204, 15-1258, 18-402**
Yates, P. 15-1212
Yato, M. 11-326, 19-525
Yats, L.D. 11-454
Yatsugi, K. 10-425
Yatsugi, K.-i. 10-424
Yavari, I. 1-86, **10-180,** 16-446
Yazawa, N. 13-140, 13-256, 13-267
Yazdi, S.N. 12-302
Yde, B. 10-1018,16-118
Ye, S. 10-1405
Ye, T. 12-238, 15-1402
Yee, H. 19-377
Yee, K.C. **17-46, 17-50,** 17-52
Yeh, L.I. **12-51**
Yeh, M. 18-444
Yeh, M.C.P. 10-1557, 10-1941, **12-330, 12-468,** 16-372
Yen, C. **10-159**
Yen, S. 10-1647
Yen, V.Q. 15-983
Yeroushalmi, S. 2-288, **5-110**
Yeske, P.E. 15-1293
Yeung, B.A. 16-9
Yeung, E.S. 4-103
Yi, K.Y. **10-1257, 17-405**
Yi, X.-H. 16-450
Yijun, C. 16-922
Yin, J. **10-854**
Yin, Y 10-550, 5-200
Ying, T. 10-1953
Yinglin, H. 10-1085
Yip, C.-W. 16-460
Yip, R.W. 7-45
Yip, Y **4-345, 15-126, 18-64, 18-129, 18-474, 18-481, 18-501**
Yip, Y.-C. 15-1079
Yliniemelä, A. 16-706

Yoakim, C. **10**-653, **10**-1184
Yogo, T. 18-365
Yoh, S. 10-301
Yoh, S.-D. 10-914
Yohitake, J. 12-405
Yokota, K. 10-542, 11-48
Yokota, N. 15-563
Yokoyam, S. 16-469
Yokoyama, H. 15-1107
Yokoyama, K. 10-1731,15-1107
Yokoyama, M. 10-783,10-895,10-1164, **14**-400, 16-204, 16-395, 16-698, 17-393
Yokoyama, S. 19-576
Yokoyama, T. 15-145
Yokoyama, Y. 4-67, 10-1055, 16-584
Yokozawa, T. 10-1458
Yonashiro, M. 10-1737
Yoneda, E. 15-783
Yoneda, N. 10-1197, 10-1903, 10-1905, 11-264, **15**-153, **15**-883, **18**-310
Yoneda, R. **16**-813, **16**-824
Yonemitsu, O. 10-1265, 12-345
Yonemitsu, T. 10-639
Yonemura, K. 14-257
Yonetani, M. 3-111
Yoneyama, Y **2**-251, 2-252
Yonezawa, S. **11**-114
Yong, K.S. 18-428
Yoo, **H.Y.** 18-540, 18-548
Yoo, K.H. 14-44
Yoon, D.C. 12-149
Yoon, D.Y 4-243
Yoon, **K.B.** 10-1136
Yoon, M.S. 10-1423
Yoon, N.M. **10**-578, **10**-1256, **10**-1423, **10**-1428, 15-299, 15-350, **15**-378, **16**-172, **16**-432, 19-499, 19-503, **19**-506, **19**-507, **19**-508, 19-510, 19-549, 19-605
Yorimitsu, H. 10-1680, 15-615, **15**-974, **15**-975
York, C. 16-249, **16**-515
Yorke, M. 10-1420
Yorozu, K. 15-1071
Yoshida, A. 10-1205, 10-1340
Yoshida, E. 10-877
Yoshida, H. 14-278
Yoshida, J. **10**-698, **10**-1459, 10-1592, 15-1445, 19-183
Yoshida, J.I. 10-698
Yoshida, K. 10-1888, **11**-445, **15**-1314, **16**-604
Yoshida, M. 10-296, **11**-204, **14**-131, 14-410, 18-328
Yoshida, N. 19-787, 19-789
Yoshida, S. 14-203, 15-387, 15-812
Yoshida, T. **4**-411, **15**-650, **16**-65, 16-272, **17**-231, **18**-370, **18**-379
Yoshida, Y. 10-799, **10**-2002, **12**-603, **13**-140, 13-143, 13-189
Yoshida, Z. **2**-156, **2**-163, **3**-49, **10**-1892, **10**-1947, **14**-295, **15**-911, **18**-603
Yoshidomi, M. 14-345
Yoshihara, N. 14-278
Yoshikawa, E. 15-532
Yoshikawa, S. 15-1363, 19-574
Yoshikoshi, A. **10**-1357, 15-202, 15-560, **15**-601, **18**-591
Yoshimine, M. 16-890
Yoshimune, M. 10-1456
Yoshimura, K. 11-296
Yoshimura, M. **10**-449, 10-1902
Yoshimura, N. 10-1345, 19-149
Yoshimura, T. **15**-1127, **16**-226, 17-235, 19-789, 19-791
Yoshinari, T. 18-387
Yoshino, K. **14**-135
Yoshino, T. 10-1490
Yoshioka, A. 7-49
Yoshioka, H. **10**-486, **10**-1161, **10**-1200, **13**-144, 15-877, 15-1029
Yoshioka, M. 15-583, 15-807, 15-810, 16-469
Yoshitake, S. 10-703
Yoshitomi, S. 11-204
Yoshizane, K. **15**-1440, **16**-437
Yoshizawa, K. 5-96
You, X.-Z. 4-338
You, Z. 18-595
Youn, I.K. 16-318
Youn, YS. 10-1106
Young Jr., J.E. 1-73
Young, A.E. 2-166, 12-17
Young, A.R. 16-864
Young, D. **12**-35, **12**-36, **16**-138
Young, **D.A.** 12-110
Young, D.J. 16-434, 16-434
Young, D.W. 10-1027, 14-155, 19-65
Young, F. 10-1835
Young, **J.F.** 15-278
Young, L.B. **8**-77, **19**-330
Young, M.G. 14-223
Young, M.W. 17-236
Young, P.R. **10**-507, **16**-135
Young, R.J. 19-177
Young, R.M. 4-356
Young, R.N. 5-78, 5-84, 10-897, 16-869
Young, T.C. 5-134
Young, W.G. **10**-193, **10**-194, **10**-195, **10**-207, 10-286, **10**-381, **12**-33, 17-10

Young, W.R. 5-118,8-71
Yousaf, T.I. 10-301, 12-577, 16-150
Yousefian, S. 17-228
Yousif, N.M. 16-118
Youssef, A.K. 18-460
Youssefyeh, R.D. **12-208, 12-209, 19-214**
Yovell, J. 10-172
Yu, C. 16-464
Yu, D. 1-97
Yu, J. 16-667
Yu, M. 16-553
Yu, S. 15-470
Yu, S.H. 11-371, **12-457, 16-413**
Yu, Y **10-804, 16-488**
Yuan, K. 10-1517
Yuan, Y.-C. 10-930
Yuasa, Y 10-1929, 15-841
Yudilevich, J.A. **18-449**
Yue, X. 10-1006
Yuen, P. 15-1011,16-470
Yufit, S.S. 10-1715, 17-3
Yuhara, M. 17-264
Yuk, J.Y 10-635
Yukawa, Y 10-48, 10-143, 10-150, 17-317, 18-233, 18-279
Yukawa, Y 9-61
Yuki, Y 10-1538
Yukizaki, H. 10-1638
Yulin, J. 10-638, 10-749
Yum, E.K. 10-1504, 10-1505, 15-569
Yumoto, M. 10-969
Yun, M. 15-758
Yuncheng, Y. 10-638, 10-749
Yunes, R.A. 12-590
Yur'ev, Yu.K. 15-44
Yur'eva, L.P. 15-1458
Yur'eva, N.M. 10-835
Yura, T. 15-578, 16-590
Yurchenko, A.G. 18-276
Yus, M. **12-114, 12-285, 12-322,** 12-368, 15-353, 15-354, **16-368, 16-389, 16-508,** 16-732
Yusybov, M.S. 19-438
Yuya, H. 3-111
Yuzhakov, G. 19-200
Yuzhelevskii , Yu.A. 12-308
Yvanaeff, C. 10-723

Zabicky, J. 11-271
Zaborsky, O.R. 10-2030
Zabrowski, D.L. 19-416
Zabusova, S.E. 19-10
Zadel, G. 12-404
Zaera, F. 15-326
Zafiriou, O.C. 7-46
Zagorsky, V.V. 12-477
Zahalka, H.A. 17-249, 19-532
Zahl, G. 18-549
Zahler, R.E. 13-34, 13-75
Zahn, H. 10-810,10-1011
Zahneisen, T. **5-123**
Záhorszky, U.I. 14-416, 14-418
Zahra, J. 19-708
Zahradnik, R. 2-152, 7-3, 10-336
Zaidi, S. 10-774
Zaidlewicz, M. 15-433, 15-454
Zaikov, G.E. 19-186, **19-197, 19-199**
Zajac Jr., W.W. 19-170, 19-410
Zajdel, **W.J.** 5-108,10-1807
Zakett, D. 15-448
Zakharkin, L.I. 10-1344, 10-1431, 10-1434, **10-1443, 12-350, 12-483, 15-938, 19-778**
Zakharov, V.P. 11-345
Zaklika, K.A. 15-1095
Zalar, F.V. 12-542
Zalesov, V.S. 10-2020
Zalesskaya, T.E. 18-150
Zaleta, M.A. 16-38
Zalewski, R.I. 8-102
Zalkow, V.B. 4-335
Zalut, C. 11-182
Zamashchikov, V.V. 10-182, 10-277, 10-408, 10-409
Zamboni, R. 15-228
Zamecka-Krakowiak, D.J. 3-76
Zamir, D. 11-226, 11-396
Zanardi, G. 18-70
Zander, M. 2-109
Zandomeneghi, M. 4-127
Zang, G. 18-392
Zanger, M. 15-868, 16-769
Zanirato, P. 12-379
Zank, G.A. 16-116
Zanobini, F. 15-220
Zanoni, B. 18-161
Zanotto, S.P. 10-719
Zaparucha, A. 15-575
Zapf, L. 19-654
Zarakhani, N.G. 18-275
Zard, S.Z. 14-492, 14-504, 15-263, 16-862, 16-863, 19-267, **19-633, 19-683**
Zare, R.N. 5-272
Zaret, E.H. 14-235
Zarkadis, A.K. 5-203
Zaro, J. 18-329
Zass, E. 12-34

Zaugg, H.E. **10-333, 10-1053, 10-1697, 11-374,** 16-162
Závada, J. 17-7, 17-15, **17-18, 17-21, 17-22, 17-24, 17-25, 17-26, 17-29, 17-30, 17-31, 17-94,** 17-209
Zavitsas, A.A. **14-43, 14-272**
Zaw, K. 19-391
Zawadzki, S. 10-951, 10-1066, 19-643
Zawalski, R.C. 12-593
Zbinden, H. 15-328
Zbiral, E. 16-722
Zderic, S.A. 16-327
Zdravkovski, Z. 10-1003
Zdunek, L.Z. **8-19**
Zee, S. 15-435
Zeeh, B. 10-1756, 15-1405, 18-199
Zefirov, N.S. 1-29, 4-235, 4-272, 4-295, 4-298, 4-303, 4-327, 4-371, **4-394, 10-834,** 10-835, 10-1706, **15-9, 15-20,** 15-44, 15-164, 15-221, 15-874, 15-927, 15-933, 15-948, **15-1102,** 15-1137
Zefirov, Yu.V. 4-430
Zehnder, M. 15-65, 15-821, 18-404
Zeid, I. 17-297
Zeifman, Yu.V. 16-18
Zeiler, A.G. 17-440, 17-441, 17-442
Zeilstra, **J.J.** 19-685
Zeiss, G.D 2-42
Zeiss, H. 3-63
Zeitz, H.-G. 14-60
Zelenina, N.L. 17-374
Zelle, R.E. 10-615
Zeller, J. 10-119
Zeller, K. 17-420, **18-178, 18-189**
Zeltz, H.-G. 5-208
Zemskov, S. 11-235, **12-94, 14-98**
Zens, A.P. 4-177
Zepp, CM. 16-324
Zepp, R.G. 7-40
Zercher, C.K. 15-1449
Zergenyi, J. 17-383
Zetterberg, K. **15-251,** 15-252
Zewall, A.H. 6-12
Zeynizaded, B. 15-1480, 10-887
Zezza, C.A. 15-1205, 16-556
Zha, Z-m. 2-64
Zhadonva, M.P. 16-152
Zhang, F.-Y. 16-460
Zhang, FJ. 2-224
Zhang, G.-S. 16-33
Zhang, H. 15-1208
Zhang, J. **15-481, 16-502**
Zhang, L.C. 16-477
Zhang, L.H. 12-137
Zhang, M.-H. **15-1212**
Zhang, S.-W. 15-783
Zhang, W. 4-33, **15-845, 15-1068, 18-211**
Zhang, W.-C. 19-712
Zhang, X. **13-185, 15-295, 15-369, 15-586, 15-1079, 16-326, 16-470**
Zhang, X.-L. 15-1011
Zhang, X.-M. 1-98, **1-101, 1-102,** 5-222, 8-56
Zhang, Y. **4-338, 10-804, 10-1338, 10-1405,** 10-1406, 10-1953, 10-2055, 11-275, 11-276, **13-172, 14-147, 14-367, 16-529,** 16-538, **16-553, 16-584, 19-640**
Zhang, Y.-K. 5-184
Zhang, YZ. 15-509
Zhang, **Y.z.** 15-512
Zhang, Z. 10-806, 17-173
Zhang, Z.-H. **10-529, 10-532**
Zhang, Z.J. 18-620
Zhao, C.-Y 4-338
Zhao, D. 18-585
Zhao, H. 19-604
Zhao, J. 16-505
Zhao, K 16-734, 10-544
Zhao, M. 19-379
Zhao, S.H. 19-456
Zhao, X. 4-158
Zhdamarova, V.N. 13-85
Zhdankin, V.V. 10-834, **10-835, 15-9,** 15-927
Zhdanov, Yu.A. 18-706
Zheng, B. **10-1305, 12-68**
Zheng, C.Y 15-886
Zheng, J. 16-488
Zheng, **K.** 18-400
Zheng, M. 15-1212
Zheng, **O.** 19-37
Zhi, L. 15-1156
Zhigareva, G.G. 15-938
Zhil'tsov, S.F. 12-486
Zhmurova, I.N. 10-1022
Zhong, H.M. 10-1115
Zhong, Q. 15-1212
Zhong, Z.-L. 3-97
Zhou, B. 7-44
Zhou, J.-Y 16-444
Zhou, M. **10-1975**
Zhou, Q.-L. 15-1408
Zhou, R. **10-1350**
Zhou, W. 15-1063
Zhou, X. 10-868
Zhou, Z. 2-74,2-84,11-81,15-631
Zhu, C.Y 4-145
Zhu, D. 10-1214

Zhu, F. 16-75
Zhu, G. 15-295
Zhu, J. 10-1335, **15-1044**, 18-296
Zhu, L. **10-570**, **12-468**
Zhu, Q.-C. 16-347
Zhu, Z. **10-674**, **19-439**
Zhulin, V.M. 14-125
Zibuck, R. 19-437
Zief, M. **4-122**
Ziegenbein, W. 10-1852, 12-228, 12-292, **16-654**, **17-202**
Zieger, H.E. 10-1872
Ziegler Jr., C.B. 14-343
Ziegler, E. 11-371
Ziegler, RE. 16-824, 18-537, 18-555
Ziegler, T. 15-799, 17-335
Ziehn, K. 17-386, 17-403
Ziemnicka-Merchant, B.T. 15-1398
Zierke, T. 16-467
Ziessel, R. 5-243
Zil'berman, E.N. 11-385, 16-57, 16-70, 16-361
Zilkha, A. 3-146
Ziller, J.W. 18-645
Zimmer, H. 19-132
Zimmer-Gasser, B. 4-444
Zimmerman, E. 2-299
Zimmerman, H.E. **1-1**, **15-402**, **15-403**, **15-1260**, 16-708, **17-347**, **18-105**, **18-402**, **18-477**, 18-489, **18-525**, **18-661**, **18-662**, **18-663**, 18-665, **18-666**, **18-667**, 18-668, 18-673, 18-674, 18-675, 18-506, 18-522
Zimmerman, T. 16-470
Zimmerman, W.T. 17-218
Zimmermann, C. 12-478
Zimmermann, G. 4-223, 14-47
Zimmermann, H. **4-313**, 10-589, 15-725
Zimmermann, M. 16-734
Zimmt, M.B. 5-300
Zink, J.I. 7-12
Zinke, P.W. 16-387
Zippel, M. 16-579, 17-355
Zirnstein, M.A. 8-157
Zlokazov, M.V. 15-789
Zmuda, H. 18-611,18-615
Zoebisch, E.G. 2-18
Zoghaib, W.M. 16-275
Zohdi, H.F. 18-26
Zolfigol, M.A. 10-757
Zollinger, H. 7-3, 9-64, 11-6, 11-8, 11-9, 11-25, 11-99, **11-146**, **11-147**, 11-148, **11-149**, **11-151**, **13-10**, **13-23**, **13-27**, **13-28**, **13-29**, **13-30**, **13-31**, 13-252, 13-255, 14-333, 14-405, 14-406
Zolopa, A.R. 10-1846
Zoltewicz, J.A. 10-683, 10-914, 13-1, **13-2**, 13-245
Zon, G. 18-658
Zondervan, C. 19-324
Zook, H.D. 5-112, 10-335, 10-474, 10-1745, 12-296, **12-523**, **16-400**, 18-148
Zorc, B. 19-94
Zordan, M. 16-436
Zoretic, PA. 12-191
Zorkii, P.M. 4-430
Zountsas, J. 4-402
Zschunke, A. 18-449
Zubairi, Md.O. 10-1422
Zubarev, V.E. **5-181**
Zuberbiihler, A.D. 14-202
Zuberi, S.S. 11-239
Zubiani, G. 12-455, 16-388, 16-389, 16-392
Zubieta, J. 12-276, 14-202
Zucco, C. 2-334, 10-1063, 11-344, 12-83, 12-535, 13-16
Zuckerman, J.J. 12-1
Zuercher, W.J. 18-647
Zuev, P.S. 5-268, 15-1419
Zuidema, L.J. 14-223
Zuika, I.V. 3-39
Zuman, P. 6-42, 6-48, 6-51, 6-52
Zumpe, F.L. 18-542
Zundel, G. 3-1
Zñiga, N. 16-877
Zupan, M. **11-236**, **12-95**, **12-115**, **19-348**, **19-384**
Zupet, P. 12-115
Żurawiński, R. 10-906
Zürcher, C. 3-147
Zuzukin, V. **16-916**
Zvezdina, E.A. 16-152
Zvolinskii, V.P 11-345
Zwanenburg, B. **6-31**, **15-1052**
Zweifel, G. 4-159, 10-1592, 12-337, 12-418, 14-459, 15-307, 15-310, **15-437**, **15-439**, 15-466, 15-476, 15-478, 16-383, 16-389, 17-260, **18-215**, **18-217**, 18-359, 18-366, 18-374, 18-376, 18-377, 18-381
Zweig, A. 18-105
Zweig, J.S. 16-370
Zwick, W. 15-757
Zwierzak, A. 10-951, 10-1066, 10-1068, 10-1082, **10-1085**, **10-1086**, 10-1110, 15-1120. 19-643
Zwiesler, M.L. 12-328
Zwikker, J.W. 10-1000
Zygmunt, J. 11-433
Zyk, N.V. 15-874,15-1102
Zytowski, T. 15-827

SUBJECT INDEX

A nomenclature, IUPAC for mechanisms, 384
A-values, table, 174
α/β nomenclature, for steroids, 146
$A_{AL}1$ mechanism, and ester hydrolysis, 473
$A_{AL}2$ mechanism, and ester hydrolysis, 473
ab initio studies, 34, 36
  1,2 alkyl shifts, electrophilic, 1392
  acids and bases, 339
  and enolate anions, 237
  and nitrenes, 253
  and the Mills-Nixon effect, 690
  and the norbornyl cation, 415
  cubyl cation and the S_N1 reaction, 397
  electrophilic addition to cyclopropanes, 990
  MO, of bromonium ion, 973
  nucleophilic addition to carbonyls, 1173
  S_N2 reaction, 393
  transition state structures for radicals, 900
ab initio, acid strength calculation, 328
Absolute configuration, 138-143
  and diastereomers, 146
  and glyceraldehyde, 138
  and Mosher's derivatives, 142-143
  and radicals substitution, 899
  and the CIP system, 139–141
  and the S_E2 reactions, 761
  and x-ray, 142
  by derivatization, 142-143
  determination of, 141-143
  insertion reactions of carbenes, 790
Absolute hardness, 341
Absorption
  and photochemistry, 308
  differential, and resolution, 152
Abstraction
  of nitrenes, 254
  and radicals, 896
  hydride, photochemical, 1513
  hydrogen, radical, and the Hammett equation, 903
  radical, rate of reaction, 901
Acenaphthylene, reaction with DBr, 975
Acetals
  and enol ether formation, 1181
  and the Mukaiyama aldol reaction, 1223
  by the Prins reaction, 1642
  by transacetalation, 1181
  by transetherification, 480, 1642
  elimination reactions, 1329
  from α-halo ethers, 1642
  from alcohols, 997, 1180, 1642
  from aldehydes, 1180, 1642
  from alkenes, 1642
  from alkoxides, 477, 1642
  from alkynes, 997, 1642
  from cyclization of p-hydroxy ethers, 1642
  from dihalides, 477, 1642
  from Grignard reagents, 1642
  from ortho esters, 1642
  from phenols, 1642
  hydrogenolysis, reagents for, 528
  hydrolysis, 465
  hydrolysis and the Br0nsted coefficient, 466
  hydrolysis and the S_N1 mechanism, 466
  hydrolysis, and microwaves, 467
  hydrolysis, reagents for, 467
  ketene, reaction with aldehydes or ketones, 1249
  ketene, silyl, and the Mukaiyama aldol reaction, 1223
  rate of hydrolysis and structure, 466
  reaction with carboxylic acids, 489
  reaction with Lewis acids, 467
Acetamides, N-chloro, rearrangement of, 728
Acetates
  allylic, coupling with carboxylic acids, 944
  coupling with nickel tetracarbonyl, 545
  elimination with Pd, 1330
  reaction with organocuprates, 545
Acetic acid
  and acid strength, 327
  pK_a, 342

Acetic acid *(Continued)*
reaction with alkenes and $NaNO_2$, 1339
thermodynamic ionization values, 350
Acetic anhydride
and DMSO, for oxidation of alcohols, 1516
cleavage of ethers, 489
dehydrating agent, 491
reaction with alkenes, 1058
reaction with oximes, 1348
Acetic-phosphoric anhydride, acylation of alcohols, 483
Acetoacetic ester
synthesis, 549
enol of, 74-75
Acetoacetic esters
alkylation, 549
dianion, 5S0
Acetolysis, substituent effects, 412
Acetone, as a solvent, 450
Acetonitrile
as a solvent, 450
reaction with hydrocarbons, 925
Acetyl hypofluorite, and aromatic fluorination, 707
Acetyl tosylate, cleavage of ethers, 490
Acetylene, see ethyne
Acetylene
dicarboxy, reaction with bromine, 973
reaction with aromatic compounds, 708
Acetylides, see alkyne anions
Achirality, definition, 125
Aci form
nitronic acids, 76
of nitro compounds, 76
Acid derivatives
reaction with amines, 512
reaction with Grignard reagents, 567
reactivity and leaving groups, 449
Acid form, azinic acids, 76
Acid strength
ab initio calculation, 328
acetic acid, 342
alcohols vs. carboxylic acids, 344
alcohols, order of, 350
amides, 344
amines, 344
and conformation, 347
and diazonium salts coupling, 700
and entropy effect, 347
and equilibrium constants, 336
and free energy, 336
and H_o, 334-335
and hybridization, 348-349
and hydrogen bonding, 99, 101-102, 346
and hydron donors, 352
and inductive effects, 17
and internal hydrogen bonding, 333
and lyonium ions, 335
and principle of imperfect synchronization, 334
and reaction medium, 349-351
and reaction with metals, 793
and solvation, 349
and steric effects, 346
and structure, 342-349
and the Hammett reaction constant, 350
and the Periodic table, 345
C-H, and hybridization, 433
crystallographic scale, 328
definition, 327
esters, 344
ethers, 344
field effects, 342-343
gas phase, 350
Hammet acidity function, 334
hydroxybenzoic acids, 346
kinetic, 228-229
Lewis acids, 340
nitroacetic acid, 342
of 1,3-pentanedione, 347
of β-hydrogen in E2 elimination, 1316
of dimethyl malonate, 347
of dinitromethane, 230
of fluorene, 52
of indene, 52
of Meldrum's acid, 347
of nitromethane, 230
of pentakis(trifluoromethyl)cyclopentadiene, 52
of quinoline conjugate acid, 347
of solvents, 334-336
of squaric acid, 70
phenols, 345
resonance effects, 343-345
scales of acidity, 335
statistical effects, 345-346
t-butylbenzoic acids, 346
table, 329-331
table of acidity constants, 343
the Bunnett-Olsen equation, 335
thermodynamic, 228
tri(pentafluorophenyl)methane, 343
tricyanomethane, 344
triphenylacetic acid, 343
Acid, definition, 333
Acid, formic, see formic acid
Acid, salts, see carboxylic acid salts
Acidity constants, 327-328, 333, 343
Acidity scales, 335

Acids, also see carboxylic acids
Acids
addition to ketenes, 992
and Br0nsted theory, 327-328
and catalysis, 336-338
as proton donors, 327
carboxylic, see carboxylic acids
hard and soft, definition, 340
hardness, table, 340
Lewis, see Lewis acids
mineral, reaction with alcohols, 518
peroxy, see peroxyacids
reaction with alkenes, 991
reaction with alkynes, 975
reaction with cyclopropanes, 989
reaction with organometallic compounds, 794
super acids, 328
thio, see thioacids
Acrolein, reaction with borane, 1031
Acrylonitrile, conjugate addition to, 976
Actinometer, definition, 322
Activated complex, and transition states, 279
Activating groups
and electrophilic aromatic substitution, 681-684
and Friedel-Crafts alkylation, 709
and the Ullmann reaction, 871
electrophilic aromatic substitution, multiple substituents, 687
for S_NAr reactions, 858
chair-to-chair interconversions, 173
Activation hardness, and electrophilic aromatic substitution, 692
Activation volume, and high pressure reactions, 457-458
Activation
free energy of, 278-279
free energy, and reaction coordinate, 279
Active hydrogen compounds
base catalyst condensation, 1219
and the Knoevenagel reaction, 1225-1228
Michael addition to alkenes, 1022-1024
reaction with aldehydes or ketones, 1225-1228
reaction with aryl halides, 869
Acyl anions, and Umpolung, 553
Acyl azides, see azides
from acyl halides, 515
Acyl bromides, from aldehydes, 914
Acyl carbon, and leaving groups, 448
Acyl cations, 223
Acyl cations, see acylium ion
Acyl chlorides, see chlorides, acyl
Acyl cyanides, from acyl halides, 573
Acyl fluorides
from acyl chlorides and HF, 524
from anhydrides and HF, 524
from DAST, 524
Acyl fluoroborates, reaction with alkenes, 1058
Acyl halides, see halides, acyl
Acyl hydrazides, conversion to esters, 488
Acylals, from acylation of aldehydes, 1642
Acylals
from acylation of ketones, 1642
from addition of carboxylic acids to alkynes, 1642
from aldehydes and anhydrides, 1245
from bisdecarboxylation of malonic acids, 1642
from oxidation of arylmethanes with CrO_3 and Ac_2O, 1642
Acylation, 569
Acylation
Friedel-Crafts, 712-714
of alkenes, 784
of amines, 511
of amino acids, 812
of aromatic rings, 710
of conjugated dienes, 784
of enamines, 788
of esters, 569-570
of ketones, 569
reductive, of ketones, 1182
with aldehydes, of heterocycles, 934
Acylhydrazides, reaction with nitrous acid, 1412
Acylium ion, reaction with alkenes, 784
Acyloin condensation, 1562
with tethered diesters, 1602 (ref. 748)
Acyloins, also see hydroxy (a-) ketones
Acyloins, and the benzoin condensation, 1243
Acyloxy amides by the Passerini reaction, 1252
Acyloxylation
of alkenes, 997, 1033, 1048, 1058
of hydrocarbons, 923
of ketones, reagents for, 923
Acylureas, for Hofmann rearrangement, 1411
Adamantanes, 1396
and optical activity, 131
cleavage during hydrogenation, 815
Adamantanones, 1173
Adamantyl cation, 224-225, 1383
Adamantyl compounds, and solvent ionizing power, 452
Addition compounds, 102–114
definition, 102

Addition reactions
of nitrenes, 254
mechanism, 276
of radicals, 246
to cyclopropanes, 988-990
Addition
1,2 vs. 1,4, 980
1,4, see addition, conjugate
alcohols to alkenes, 996
alkenes to alkenes, and Ziegler catalysts, 1020
Addition, conjugate, 979-981
alkyl halides to dienes, 1047
amines to alkenes, 1000
and chiral templates, 1029
and enolate anions, 1023
and Grignard reagents, 1028
and Mannich bases, 1023
and organolithium reagents, 1029
and S_N2' reactions, 980
chiral additives, 1023
cyanoethylation, 976
definition, 976
enantioselectivity of, 1029
hydrogenation of dienes, 1005
Michael addition, 976
organocuprates, 1027
reduction, 1008-1009
with nucleophiles, 1022-1024
with radicals, 1024
Addition, electrophilic, 276
to alkenes, 970-975
to alkenes, diastereoselectivity, 971
to cyclopropanes, 988-990
Addition, Michael, 977, 1022–1024
Addition, nucleophilic, 276
to alkenes, 1000
and conjugation, 1174
and iminium ions, 1178
and steric hindrance, 1174
to alkenes, 975-977
to carbonyls, 1173
Addition, pericyclic, 276
Addition, radical, 276
intramolecnlar, 985
reversibility, 981
to alkenes, 977-979
to alkenes, and cis/trans isomerization, 979
to alkenes, and ESR, 979
to alkenes, and the Felkin-Ahn rule, 981
to alkenes, by silane tethers, 1032
to alkenes, stereoselectivity, 978
to alkenes, steric effects, 985
to conjugated compounds, 1032
to cyclopropanes, 990
to dienes, 978
Addition, termolecular, 972
Addition
to alkenes, and antiaromaticity, 983
to alkenes, and hyperconjugation, 987
to alkenes, and the Cieplak effect, 988
to alkenes, cyclic mechanism, 979
to alkenes, electronic effects, 987
to alkenes, exo/endo diastereoselectivity, 987
to alkenes, field effects, 987
to alkenes, by alkanes, 1017-1019
to alkenes, by boranes, 1012–1016
to alkenes, reactivity of alkenes, 981
to alkenes, regioselectivity, 984
Addition-elimination mechanism, and substitution at vinyl carbon, 428
and transmetallation, 803
metal hydride, 772
and oxidation-reduction, 1509
Additions, IUPAC rules, 383
Adsorption, and catalytic hydrogenation, 1006
A_E nomenclature, IUPAC for mechanisms, 385
Aggregates, and enolate anions, 237
and organolithium reagents, 237
in dialkylamide bases, 348
Aggregation, effect of HMPA, 349
AIBN
and formation of aryl esters, 870
and hydrogenolysis of alcohols, 527
and radical addition of silanes to alkenes, 1039
and radical coupling of dialdehydes, 1561
and radical cyclization to C=N and C=O, 1244
and reaction of aldehydes with ammonia/NBS, 925
and the Barton-McCombie reaction, 527
conpling silanes and lactones, 536
radical initiator, 911, 914
Alanes, vinyl, 1210
Alcohols
and the Oppenauer oxidation, 1199
acylation with acetic-phosphoric anhydride, 483
Addition to alkynes, 997
Alcohols, alkenyl, fragmentation, 1351
Alcohols, alkynyl, dehydration of, 1327
Alcohols, allylic
by Mislow-Evans rearrangement, 1455
coupling with Grignard reagents, 545
from aldehydes and allylsilanes, 1211
from alkene snlfoxides, 1455
from epoxides, 1329
reduction, reagents for, 1009

Alcohols
and acid strength, 344
and Birch reduction, 1010
and Oppenauer oxidation, 1516
and Swern oxidation, 1516
and the Dess-martin periodinane, 1516
and the Koch-Haaf reaction, 564
and the Meerwein-Ponndorf-Verley reduction, 1199
and the Pinner synthesis, 1183
Alcohols
by Payne rearrangement, 1643
by radical oxygenation, 914
by reduction aldehydes or ketones, 1197–1203
by the Baeyer-Villiger reaction, 1644
by the Barbier reaction, 1205
by the Bouveault-Blanc procedure, 1551
by the Cannizzaro reaction, 1200, 1564, 1644
by the Demyanov rearrangement, 1644
by the Tamao-Fleming oxidation, 482
by the Wittig rearrangement, 1421, 1644
by Wagner-Meerwein rearrangement, 1644
Alcohols
conversion to ethers, 479
coupling by MLi-$TiCl_3$, 544
cyclic, oxidative cleavage, 1521
cyclic, transannular etherification, 920
dehydration of, 479, 1326
dehydration, and Zaitsev's rule, 1327
dehydrogenation, 1515
enzymatic oxidation, 1517
epoxy, ring opening, 462
Alcohols
from acetals, 1643
from acid derivatives, 567, 1214, 1551, 1644
from alcohols, 1393, 1643
from aldehydes, 719, 1564, 1643-1644
from aldehydes and organometallics, 1209-1211
from alkaline cleavage of ethers, 1644
• from alkanes, 1533
from alkenes, 914, 974, 993, 1643, 1643, 1644
from alkenes, reagents for, 914
from allylic alcohols, 1643
from allylic silanes, 1643
from allylic silanes to aldehydes, 1644
from amides, 1644
from amines, 494, 1398, 1643
from anhydrides, 1644
from aromatic compounds, 719, 1643
from boradioxolanes, 1422
from boranes, 796, 1422, 1423, 1644
from carboxylic acids, 1549, 1644
from contraction of rings, 1644
from cyclopropanes, 1643
from epoxides, 529, 546, 1643
from esters, 1214, 1551, 1643, 1644
from ethers, 1421, 1643
from expansion of rings, 1644
from Grignard reagents and aldehydes or ketones, 795, 1205-1209, 1644
from hydrolysis of alkyl halides, 1643
from hydrolysis of carboxylic esters, 1643
from hydrolysis of enol acetals, 1643
from hydrolysis of enol ethers, 1643
from hydrolysis of inorganic esters, 1643
from hydrolysis of ortho esters, 1643
from hydrolysis of sulfonic esters, 1643
from hydroperoxides, 1558, 1644
from hydroxyalkylation of aromatic rings, 1643
from hydroxylation at an aliphatic carbon, 1643
from hydroxylation of silanes, 482
from hydroxymethylation of aromatic rings, 1643
from ketones, 719, 1209-1211, 1643-1644
from nitriles, 1644
from organolithium reagents and aldehydes or ketones, 1205-1209, 1644
from organometallic compounds and alcohols, 1643
from organometallic compounds and aldehydes, 1644
from organometallic compounds and epoxides, 1643
from organometallic compounds and ketones, 1644
from organometallic reagents and oxygen, 1643
from ortho esters, 1643
from ozonides, 1644
from peroxides, 1558
from radicals and aldehydes or ketones, 1644
from rearrangement of alcohols, 1644
from rearrangement of alkenes, 1644
from rearrangement of ethers, 1644
from rearrangements of allylic ethers, 1644
from rearrangements of allylic sulfoxides, 1644
from reduction of esters, 1644
from transesterification, 1643
Alcohols
hydrogenation of, 527
hydrogenolysis of, 527
methyl, and the haloform reaction, 813
optically active, by hydroboration, 1014
order of acid strength, 350

Alcohols
oxidation of silanes, 1643
oxidation to aldehydes or ketones, 1514-1517
oxidation to cyclic ethers, 919
oxidation with *Bacillus stearothermophilus*, 1517
oxidation with chromate, mechanism, 1517
oxidation with chromic acid, 1515
oxidation with chromium derivatives, 1537
oxidation with Collins' reagent, 1514
oxidation with Corey's reagent, 1515
oxidation with DMSO-based reagents, 1515-1516
oxidation with Fremy's salt, 1515
oxidation with hypervalent iodine reagents, 1516
oxidation with Jones reagent, 1514
oxidation with nitroxyl radical, 1515
oxidation with oxoammonium salts, 1515
oxidation with permanganate, and ultrasound, 1515
oxidation with pyridinium chlorochromate, 1514
oxidation with pyridinium dichromate, 1514
oxidation with ruthenium tetroxide, 1515
oxidation with TEMPO-NCS, 1515
oxidation with TPAP, 1515
oxidation with zirconocene complexes, 1515
oxidation, and microwaves, 1515
Alcohols
oxidative dehydrogenation with copper chromite, 1515
photochemical addition to alkenes, 997
Alcohols
reaction with acyl halides, 482
reaction with aldehydes or ketones, 1180
reaction with alkenes, 996
reaction with alkyl halides, 564
reaction with amides, 488
reaction with anhydrides, 483
reaction with aryl halides, 870
reaction with carbon disulfide, 1184
reaction with carboxylic acids, 484-486
reaction with chlorotrimethylsilane, 527
reaction with cyanogen chloride, 1183
reaction with DAST, 519
reaction with diazo compounds, 479
reaction with diazomethane, 479
reaction with dihydropyran, 996
reaction with diisopropyl azodicarboxylate, 502
reaction with enol esters, 487
reaction with enol ethers, 487
reaction with esters, 486
reaction with ethers, 480
reaction with Grignard reagents, 526
reaction with HI, 518
reaction with hydrazoic acid, 502
reaction with isocyanates, 1182–1183
reaction with isothiocyanates, 1183
reaction with lactones, 487
reaction with Lawesson's reagent, 496
reaction with lead tetraacetate, 919
reaction with nitriles, 1183
reaction with nitriles, 1244
reaction with nitrous acid, 493
reaction with onium salts, 482
reaction with phosgene, 483
reaction with phosphorus halides, 518
reaction with $POCl_3$, 493
reaction with PPh_3 and CBr_4, 519
reaction with sulfonamides, 576
reaction with sulfonyl chlorides, 576
reaction with sulfur trioxide, 493
reaction with thionyl chloride, 493, 518
reaction with triflic anhydride, 493
reaction with trimethylaluminum, 544
Alcohols
reactivity with alkenes, 996
reagents for hydrogenolysis, 527
vinyl cyclic, and sigmatropic rearrangements, 1440
Alcoholysis
of acyl halides, 482
of amides, 488
of anhydrides, 483
of epoxides, 481
of esters, 486
of lactones, 487
Aldehydes
acylation of, 1245
addition of boranes, 1210
addition to alkenes, 1033
Aldehydes
and Benedict's solution, 917
and Fehling's solution, 917
and Gomberg-Bachmann pinacol synthesis, 1560
and hydroxyalkylation of aromatic rings, 719
and radical cyclization, 1244
and the Barbier reaction, 1205
and the Bouveault-Blanc reaction, 1199
and the Cannizzaro reaction, 1200, 1564
and the Claisen reaction, 1224
and the Darzen's glycidic ester condensation, 1230

and the Eschweiler-Clarke reaction, 1188
and the Fischer indole synthesis, 1453
and the Knoevenagel reaction, 1225–1228
and the Leuckart reaction, 1188
and the Meerwein-Ponndorf-Verley reduction, 1199
and the Passerini reaction, 1252
and the Paterno-Bchi reaction, 1249
and the Perkin reaction, 1229
and the Sonn-Mller method, 534
and the Wallach reaction, 1188
Aldehydes, aromatic
and the Duff reaction, 717
and the Tishchenko reaction, 1565
by bromination of methyl aryls, 1534
by the Étard reaction, 1534
by the Gatterman reaction, 715
by the Gatterman-Koch reaction, 715
by the Reimer-Tiemann reaction, 716
by the Vilsmeier reaction, 715
decarbonylation, 732
from aromatic compounds, 715
from methyl aryls, 1533
oxidation of, 1528
reaction with $Al(OEt)_3$, 1565
reaction with sulfuric acid, 732
Aldehydes
by Hofmann rearrangement, 1645
by hydrolysis of imines, 552
by McFadyen-Stevens reduction, 534
by Oppenauer oxidation, 1516
by pinacol rearrangement, 1645
by reduction of amides, 1550
by Stephen reduction, 1204
by Swern oxidation, 1516
by the Barton reaction, 1463, 645
by the Dess-martin periodinane, 1516
by the Étard reaction, 1646
by the Gatterman reaction, 1645
by the Kröhnke reaction, 1536
by the Meyers synthesis, 558
by the Nef reaction, 1178, 1645
by the Oppenauer oxidation, 1199
by the oxo process, 1645
by the Pummerer rearrangement, 1566
by the Reimer-Tiemann reaction, 1645
by the Rosenmund reduction, 532
by the Sommelet reaction, 1536
by the Sonn-Müller method, 1204
by the Vilsmeier reaction, 1645
by the Wacker process, 1538
Aldehydes, chiral, in the aldol reaction, 1222
Aldehydes, conjugated
and Michael reactions, 1022-1024
and the Grignard reaction, 1205
by [2,3] sigmatropic rearrangement, 1454
reaction with borane, 1031
reaction with organocuprates, 1027
Aldehydes
conversion to amides, 925
decarbonylation, 944
decarbonylation and radical rearrangement, 1389
dissolving metal reductions, 1199–1200
enolate anion of, also see enolate anions
Aldehydes
from 1,2–diols, 1645
from 1,3-diols, 1645
from α-halo amides and NaOBr, 1645
from α-hydroxy amides and NaOBr, 1645
from acid derivatives, 1644
from activated methyl groups, 1646
from acyl halides, 532, 533
from acyl sulfonylhydrazides, 534
from alcohols, 1514–1517, 1645
from aldehydes, 1401, 1644, 1645
from alkanes, 1645
from alkenes, 1037, 1522, 1525-1526, 1537-1538, 1645, 1646
from alkyl halides, 562, 1535, 1644, 1646
from allylic alcohols, arylation of, 1645
from amides, 533
from amines, 1646
from anhydrides, 533
from aromatic compounds, 1645
from aryl acetic acids, 1645
from aryl iodides, 1645
from aryl nitro compounds, 1645
from arylmethanes, 1646
from P-hydroxy alkenes, 1645
from boranes, 1423, 1644, 1645
from carboxylic acid salts, 1644
from carboxylic acids, reagents for, 532, 533
from dialkylformamides, 568
from diazo aldehydes, 1644
from diazonium salts, 1645
from diols, 1519-1521, 1645
from dithianes, 1644
from enol ethers, 1329
from epoxides, 1398
from esters, 1646
from formamides, 1644-1645
from formates, 1644
from formic acid, 1644
from y-amino halides, 1645
from y-hydroxy halides, 1645

Aldehydes *(Continued)*
from glycidic acids, 809, **1645**
from Grignard reagents, 801
from homologation of aldehydes, 1645
from hydration of acetylene, **1645**
from hydroformylation of alkenes, 1645
from hydrolysis of **α-acetoxy sulfides,** 1646
from hydrolysis of acetals, 1644
from hydrolysis of C=N compounds, 1645
from hydrolysis of **enol** esters, 1644
from hydrolysis of enol ethers, 1644
from hydrolysis of ***gem*-dihalides,** 1644
from hydrolysis of hydrazones, 1645
from hydrolysis of **imines,** 1645
from hydrolysis of metalated **aldimines,** 1645
from hydrolysis of **oximes,** 1645
from hydrolysis of primary nitro compounds, 1645
from hydrolysis of thioacetals, 1644
from hydrolysis of unsaturated boranes, 1645
from hydroperoxides, 1645
from imines, 532, **1177,** 1644
from ketones, 1645
from methyl groups, 1463
from nitrites, 1204,1645
from nitro compounds, 1178, 1537, 1646
from organolithium reagents, 801
from organometallic compounds, 1645
from oxazines, 1644
from oximes, 1463, 1645
from rearrangement of **ally lic** ethers, **1645**
from rearrangement of allylic vinylic ethers, 1645
from rearrangement of **diols, 1645**
from Reissert compounds, 533
from sulfoxides, 1566
from thiazoles, 559
from thioaldehydes, **1185**
from thioesters, 533
from unsaturated aldehydes, 1645
from vinyl ethers, 1645
Aldehydes
halo, from aldehydes, 775
halogenation, mechanism of, 776
homologation of, 1407
hydrogenation of, **1198**
hydroxy, see hydroxy aldehydes
in the Mannich reaction, **1189**
in the **Mukaiyama aldol** reaction, **1223**
keto-enol tautomerism, 774
oxidation of, mechanism, **917**
oxidation with permanganate, 918
oxidation, reagents for, **917**
oxidative cleavage, **1521**
photochemical cleavage, **318**
Aldehydes
reaction with **α-methoxyvinyllithium,** 1227
reaction with active **methylene** compounds, 1225-1228
reaction with **acyl** halides, **1182**
reaction with alcohols, **1180, 1182**
reaction with aldehydes, 1218-1223
reaction with alkenes, 1038, 1249-1250
reaction with **allylsilanes, 1211**
reaction with amides, **1187**
reaction with amines, 552, **1185–1189**
reaction with ammonia, 925, **1186, 1188**
reaction with anhydrides, 1229, 1245
reaction with base and then imines, 1222
reaction with **bisulfites, 1185**
reaction with boron **carbanions,** 785
reaction with bromine, 914, **1196**
reaction with bromoesters and Zn, **1212**
reaction with carboxylic acids, and isonitriles, 1251
reaction with chlorine, **914**
reaction with chloro esters, **1230**
reaction with conjugated compounds, 1212
reaction with cyanide and conjugated compounds, 1033
reaction with diazo esters, 785
reaction with diazoalkanes, 1248
reaction with diazomethane, **1248**
reaction with dichromate, **918**
reaction with diethyl diazoacetate, 785
reaction with diethylzinc, **1211**
reaction with dithiols, 556
reaction with esters, **1223**
reaction with formaldehyde, 1230
reaction with Girard's reagents T and P, **1193**
reaction with Grignard reagents, 1205-1209
reaction with halogens, 775
reaction with **HCN,** 1239
reaction with hydrazines, **1192–1193**
reaction with hydrazones, **1193**
reaction with hydrogen **sulfide, 1184**
reaction with **hydroxylamine, 1194**
reaction with **hydroxylamine** and formic acid, 1195
reaction with **KCN,** 1243
reaction with ketene acetals, 1249
reaction with ketenes, 1249
reaction with ketones, 1218-1223
reaction with Lawesson's **reagent, 1184**
reaction with **$LiAlH_4$,** 533
reaction with Mannich bases, **1189**

reaction with Me_3Al or Me_2TiCl_2, 1210
reaction with Me_3SiCN, 1240
reaction with NBS, 914
reaction with organocerium reagents, 1205
reaction with organocuprates, 1205
reaction with organolithium reagents, 1205-1209
reaction with organometallics, 1209–1211
reaction with oxidizing agents, 917
reaction with PCl_5, 1195
reaction with Petasis reagent, 1238
reaction with phenylhydrazine, 1453
reaction with phosphorus ylids, 1231-1237
reaction with semicarbazide, 1193
reaction with silane carbanions, 1228
reaction with silanes, 1239
reaction with silyl enol ethers, 552
reaction with silyl ketene acetals, 1223
reaction with sodium azide/MnO_2, 516
reaction with sulfur ylids, 1247
reaction with Tebbe's reagent, 1238
reaction with thiols, 1181, 1185
reaction with $TiCl_3$/Zn-Cu, 1561
reaction with triphenyl phosphite, 1196
reaction with water, 1175
Aldehydes, rearrangement of, 1401
Aldehydes
reduction of, 1197–1203
reduction with boranes, 1200
reduction with hydrazine-KOH, 1547
reduction with hydrides, 1197–1198
reduction with metals in water, 1200
reduction with silanes and base, 1200
reduction with sodium in ethanol, 1199
reduction with Zn-Hg/HCl, 1547
reduction, chemoselective, 1198
reductive amination, 1188
reductive coupling, 1559-1561
reductive dimerization, 1182
reductive removal of O, 1547
trimerization of, 1245
Aldimines, see imines
Aldol condensation, 236, 552, 1218–1223
Aldol reaction, 236, 552, 1218-1223
crossed, 1221
crossed, and the Tollen's' reaction, 1231
homoaldol, 1227
intramolecular, 1222
intramolecular, and the Robinson annulation, 1222
Mukaiyama, 1223
retro, 808
Aldols, 150, 1220
Aldrich Library of Spectra, 1619
Algorithm, for solvent dielectric effects, 450
Alkaloids, *Cinchona*, and dihydroxylation of alkenes, 1050
Alkanes, also see hydrocarbons
Alkanes
addition to alkenes, 1017
Alkanes
by Clemmensen reduction, 1648
by the Barton-McCombie reaction, 1647
by the Haller-Bauer reaction, 1648
by the Kolbe reaction, 1648
by the Wurtz reaction, 1647
by Wolff-Kishner reduction, 1648
Alkanes
catalytic exchange with deuterium, 1005
conformations, 168
cyclic, aromatization, 1510
Alkanes
from addition of alkanes to alkenes, 1648
from addition of organometallics to alkenes, 1648
from addition of organometallics to alkynes, 1648
from addition to alkenes, 1648
from alkyl halides with organocuprates, 1647
from alkyl halides with organometallics, 1647
from alkylation of alkanes, 1648
from carboxylic acids with trimethylaluminum, 1648
from cleavage of alkanes, 1648
from cleavage of ketones with amide ion, 1648
from cleavage of nonenolizable ketones, 1648
from cleavage of tertiary alkoxides, 1648
from coupling of alcohols, 1647
from coupling of alkanes, 1648
from coupling of alkyl halides, 1647
from coupling of boranes, 1648
from coupling of Grignard reagents, 1648
from coupling of organometallic compounds, 1648
from decarbonylation of acyl halides, 1648
from decarbonylation of aldehydes, 1648
from decarboxylation of carboxylic acids, 1648
from decarboxylative dimerization, 1648
from decyanation of nitriles, 1648
from deoxygenation of aryl ethers, 1648
from desulfurization of sulfur compounds, 1648
from dimerization of alkenes, 1648
from extrusion of CO_2 from diacyl peroxides, 1648
from Grignard reagents and ethers, 1647
from hydrogenation of alkenes, 1648

Alkanes *(Continued)*
from hydrogenation of alkynes, 1648
from hydrogenolysis of alcohols, 1647
from hydrogenolysis of esters, 1647
from hydrogenolysis of nitriles, 1647
from insertion of carbenes, 1648
from ketones with trimethylaluminum, 1648
from organometallic compounds and acids, 1648
from organometallic reagents and alkyl sulfates, 1647
from organometallic reagents and alkyl sulfonates, 1647
from oxidation of hydrazines, 1648
from oxidative decarboxylation of carboxylic acids, 1648
from reduction of aldehydes or ketones, 1648
from reduction of alkenes, 1648
from reduction of alkyl halides, 1647
from reduction of alkynes, 1648
from reduction of aromatic rings, 1648
from reduction of carboxylic acids, 1648
from reduction of cyano to methyl groups, 1648
from reduction of dithianes, 1647
from reduction of epoxides, 1648
from reduction of esters, 1648
from reduction of the C—N bond, 1647
from reduction of tosylates, 1647
from reductive cleavage of carboxylic esters, 1647
from reductive cleavage of cyclopropanes, 1648
from reductive cleavage of sulfides, 1647
from reductive cleavage of sulfoxides, 1647
from reductive cleavage of thiols, 1647
Alkanes
radical halogenation, mechanism of, 909
rate of radical abstraction, 901
reaction with halogens, 907–911
Alkene acids, cyclization of, 1043
Alkene alcohols
by the Prins reaction, 1241
conversion to halo ethers, 1056
fragmentation, 1351
from aldehydes and silanes, 1239
from alkenes and formaldehyde, 1241
Alkene aldehydes
by oxy-Cope rearrangement, 1445
from diene alcohols, 1445
Alkene amides, cyclization of, 1043
Alkene amines, from alkenes, 782
Alkene ketones
by Claisen rearrangement, 1452
from allyl vinyl ethers, 1452
Alkene metathesis, 1457-1459
Alkene metathesis, see metathesis, alkene
Alkenes
acylation of, 784
acylation, and Markovnikov's rule, 784
acyloxylation, 1033
Alkenes,
addition and reactivity, 981
addition of aldehydes, 1033
addition of alkanes, 1017
addition of aniline, 1001
addition of carbanions, 1018
addition of formamides, 1034
addition of formates, 1034
addition of nucleophilic radicals, 983
addition of organometallics, 1024-1026
addition of silanes, 1018, 1039
addition of water, 974
addition to alkenes, 1019
addition to, and antiaromaticity, 983
addition to, and hyperconjugation, 987
addition to, and the Cieplak effect, 988
addition to, electronic effects, 987
addition to, field effects, 987
addition, and exo/endo diastereoselectivity, 987
addition, cyclic mechanisms, 979
addition, regioselectivity, 984
Alkenes
alkylation by the Prins reaction, 1047
alkylation of, 1047
allylic oxidation, reagents for, 915
allylic rearrangement, 771
aminosulfenylation, 1058
Alkenes
and alkene formation from boranes, 1338
and allylic radicals, 902
and Birch reduction, 1008
and Bredt's rule, 188
and cis/trans isomers, 157–160
and diastereomers, 157-160
and Friedel-Crafts acylation, 784
and Friedel-Crafts alkylation, 710
and LIDAKOR, 1329
and Markovnikov's rule, 984
and organolithium reagents, 1649
and PES, 12
and phase transfer conditions, 1085
and radical bromination, 911
and Tebbe's reagent, 1649
and termolecular addition, 972
and the Barbier-Wieland procedure, 1526
and the Bayer test, 1049
and the CIP method, 157

and the Heck reaction, 930
and the Michael reaction, 1022–1024
and the Paterno-Büchi reaction, 1249
and the Petasis reagent, 1649
and thermolysis of aziridines, 1061
and Wohl-Ziegler bromination, 911
Alkenes
anti-Bredt, and the Wittig reaction, 1233
anti-Markovnikov addition, 991, 994
Bakers yeast reduction, 1004
Alkenes
by Chugaev elimination, 1649
by Cope elimination, 1333, 1649
by Cope rearrangement, 1650
by diazonium ions, 1335
by E2 elimination, 1304
by extrusion reactions, 1650
by Hofmann elimination, 1331, 1649
by McMurry reaction, 1561
by Meerwein arylation, 1649
by Peterson olefination, 1649
by protonation of vinylboranes, 1425
by remote dehydrogenation, 1650
by the Bamford-Stevens reaction, 1335
by the Boord reaction, 1344, 1650
by the Chugaev reaction, 1330
by the Corey-Winter reaction, 1340
by the Demyanov rearrangement, 1650
by the di-7t-methane rearrangement, 1650
by the Diels-Alder reaction, 1649
by the ene reaction, 1021, 1649
by the Horner-Emmons reaction, 1233
by the Peterson alkenylation reaction, 1228
by the Ramberg-Bäcklund reaction, 1341 1650
by the Reformatsky reaction, 1649
by the Shapiro reaction, 1334
by the Vilsmeier reaction, 785
by the Wadsworth-Emmons reaction, 1233
by the Wittig reaction, 1231–1237
by the Wittig-Horner reaction, 1233
by the Wurtz reaction, 535
by twofold extrusion, 1355
by Wagner-Meerwein rearrangement, 1650
by Wittig olefination, 1231-1237, 1649
Alkenes
carbocation intermediates, 974
carbocations and Friedel-Crafts alkylation, 710
carbonylation of, with alkenes, 1035
carbonylation of, with amines, 1035
catalytic hydrogenation, 1002-1007
chiral, and the Diels-Alder reaction, 1065
cis/tans isomers, and E2 elimination, 1304
cis/trans, and electrophilic addition to alkenes, 971-972
Alkenes, conjugate addition, 1022-1024
Alkenes, conjugate addition
and chiral additives, 1023
and Grignard reagents, 1028
and Mannich bases, 1023
and organolithium reagents, 1029
and S_N2' reactions, 980
Alkenes, conjugated
by selenoxide elimination, 1336
epoxidation of, 1053
radical addition, 1032
reaction with alkyl halides, 1032
reaction with boranes, 1031
reaction with halogens, 1042
Alkenes
conversion to 1,2-diols, 1048-1051
conversion to thiiranes, 1054
coupling with aryl diazonium salts, 937
cyclic, by McMurry reaction, 1561
dihydroxylation of, 1048-1051
dihydroxylation, catalytic, 1049
dihydroxylation, stereoselectivity, 1050
dimerization, 1021, 1077
dissolving metal reduction, 1008
double bond migration, 770, 990
double bond migration, and carbocations, 772
double bond migration, and thermodynamic stability, 773
electrophilic addition, 970-975
electrophilic addition, diastereoselectivity, 971
electrophilic addition, rate of reaction, 983
epoxidation by Jacobsen-Katsuki reaction, 1053
epoxidation by Sharpless asymmetric epoxidation, 1053
epoxidation by the Prilezhaev reaction, 1052
epoxidation of, 1051-1054
epoxidation, and electronic effects, 1052
epoxidation, asymmetric, 1052-1053
epoxidation, reagents for, 1054
formylation of, 785
Alkenes
from α-halo sulfones, 1650
from α-hydroxy ketones, 1650
from α-lithiosilanes, 1649
from α-sulfinyl carbanions, 1649
from acyl halides, 1339, 1650
from alcohols, 1326, 1393, 1649
from aldehydes, 1228, 1561, 1649, 1650
from alkaline cleavage of ethers, 1649
from alkanes, 1512-1513
from alkene alcohols, 1351

Alkenes *(Continued)*
from alkenes, 1019, 1021, 1437, 1457, 1649
from **alkyl** halides, 524, 535, 1336-1338, 1542,1650
from **alkynes,** 1004, 1026, 1425, 1649
from allylic acetates, 545, 1648
from allylic alcohols, 1648, 1649
from allylic esters, **1649**
from allylic ethers, **1649**
from allylic halides, 1648, **1649**
from allylic silanes and alkyl halides, 1648
from allylic tosylates, **1648**
from **amine** N-oxides, **1649**
from amine oxides, **1333**
from ammonium hydroxides, 1331
from ammonium salts, 1332,1649
from aromatic compounds, 1649
from arylation of alkenes, **1649**
from aziridines, 1343, 1650
from aziridino hydrazones, **1335**
from P-hydroxy carboxylic acids, **1650**
from **β-lactones, 1650**
from boranes, 1425, 1650
from boranes and alkenes, 1338
from carboxylic acids, 1528, 1649, 1650
from contraction of rings, **1650**
from cyclic ethers, **1329**
from cyclic thionocarbonates, **1340, 1650**
from cyclobutane reversions, **1650**
from dialkoxides, **1340**
from diarylalkanes, **1650**
from diazoalkanes, 1649
from dicarboxylic acids, 1530
from dienes, 1649
from dihalides, 1343,1650
from **dimerization** of alkenes, **1649**
from dimerization of alkynes, 1649
from dimerization of allylic Grignard reagents, 1649
from dimerization of dienes, 1649
from dimerization of vinyl chloroboranes, 1649
from dimerization of vinyl organometallic reagents, 1649
from **diols,** 1340, 1650
from dthiophenes, 1649
from **enamines,** 1014, 1648, 1649
from **enol** ethers, 1329
from **episulfides,** 1341
from episulfones, 1248
from epoxides, 1341,1650
from esters, 1329
from ethers, **1328**
from expansion of rings, **1650**
from fragmentation of **1,3-diols,** 1650
from fragmentation of amine halides, **1345**
from fragmentation of **diols, 1346**
from fragmentation of y-amino halides, **1650**
from fragmentation of y-hydroxy halides, 1650
from Grignard coupling, 938
from halo ethers, 1344
from halo sulfones, 1341
from haloalkynes, **1425**
from hydrocarbons, 1512
from hydrogenation of alkynes (Lindlar), 1004
from hydrogenation **of** alkynes, 1649
from hydrogenation of allenes, 1649
from hydroxy acids, **1346**
from inorganic esters, 1649
from isomerization of double bonds, **1649**
from **ketones,** 1228, 1561, 1649, 1650
from magnesium oxides, **1328**
from metathesis of alkenes, **1650**
from migration of double bonds, **1649**
from migration of triple bonds, 1649
from organocuprates, and alkyl halides, 538-540
from **oxathiolanones, 1355**
from oxetanes, 1242
from phosphorus **ylids,** 1649
from pyrolysis of p-hydroxy alkenes, **1650**
from pyrolysis of carboxylic acids, **1329**
from pyrolysis of esters, 1327, 1649
from pyrolysis of xanthates, **1649**
from rearrangement of **1,5-dienes,** 1650
from rearrangement of alcohols and alkenes, 1650
from rearrangement of carbenes, 1392, 1650
from rearrangement of carbenoids, **1650**
from rearrangement of vinylcyclopropanes, 1650
from rearrangements of cyclobutenes, 1650
from rearrangements of cyclohexadienes, **1650**
from selenoxides, 1336,1650
from **silyl** ethers, 1649
from succinic acids, **1650**
from sulfonate esters, **1330**
from sulfonates, 1649
from sulfones, 1336,1650
from sulfonium **compounds,** 1336
from sulfonyl halides, 1649, 1650
from sulfoxides, **1336,** 1650
from thiophenes, **531**
from tosylates, 1330
from **tosylhydrazone** salts, **1649**
from **tosylhydrazones, 1334,** 1548, 1650

from unsaturated acids, 1649
from unsaturated halides, 1648
from unsaturated tosylhydrazones, 1650
from vinyl boranes, 1005, 1424, 1649, 1650
from vinyl ethers, 1649
from vinyl halides, 1648
from vinyl triflates, 1649
from vinylation of diazonium salts, 1649
from xanthate esters, 1330
from [1, *j*] sigmatropic migrations of C or H, 1650
Alkenes
halo, and radical cyclization, 1040
heteroatom, reaction with dienes, 1075
HOMO and LUMO, 1070
hydration of, 993
hydration, anti-Markovnikov's addition, 994
hydroboration, 1012-1016
hydroformylation of, 1037
hydrogenation of, 1002
hydrozirconation, 1016
in conjugation, 36-38
Markovnikov's rule, and Friedel-Crafts alkylation, 710
metallation, 1016
Michael, react with phosphines, 1231
molecular orbitals of, 1070
nucleophilic addition, 975-977
nucleophilic addition, and electron withdrawing groups, 982
oxidation by the Wacker process, 1538
oxidation with iodosylbenzene, 915
oxidation with $PdCl_2/H_2O$, 1537-1538
oxidation, reagents for, 914
oxidative cleavage with chromium trioxide, 1525
oxymercuration, 993
ozonolysis, 1522-1525
ozonolysis, substituent effects, 1522
photochemical addition of alcohols, 997
photooxygenation, 1054
prototropic rearrangements, 771
Alkenes, radical addition, 977-979
and dimerization, 977
and ESR, 979
and the Felkin-Ahn rule, 981
cis/trans isomerization, 979
Michael addition, 1024
of alkyl halides, 1039
of HBr, 991
of silanes, 1039
reversibility, 981
steric effects, 985
Alkenes
reaction with acetic anhydride, 1058
reaction with acids, mechanisms, 974
reaction with acyl fluoroborates, 1058
reaction with acyl halides, 784, 1048
reaction with alcohols, 996
reaction with aldehydes, 1038
reaction with alkenes, 1077–1084
reaction with alkenes and CO, 1035
reaction with and Ziegler catalysts, 1020
reaction with alkyl halides, 1047
reaction with amides, 1001
reaction with amines, 1035, 1056
reaction with ammonia and amines, 999
reaction with aromatic compounds, 708
reaction with aryl diazonium salts, 929-930
reaction with aryl halides, 930
reaction with azides, 1057, 1059
reaction with benzene, 1093
reaction with borane, isomerization, 773
reaction with borane, Markovnikov's rule, 1013
reaction with boranes, 1012, 1338
reaction with bromine, 971, 1041, 1509
reaction with carbenes, 789
reaction with carbenes, stereochemistry, 1087
reaction with carboxylic acids, 997
reaction with Chloramine-T, 1056, 1058
reaction with chlorine, 1042
reaction with chlorosulfonyl isocyanate, 1251
reaction with chlorotrimethylsilane, 992
reaction with CO and H_2, 1037
reaction with CO and water, 1035
reaction with CO and super acids, 564
reaction with dienes, 1062-1075
reaction with diimide, 1007
reaction with disulfides, 1055
reaction with fluorine, 1042
reaction with formaldehyde, 1241
reaction with formic acid and CO, 1035
reaction with Grignard reagents, 1017
reaction with halogens, reagents for, 1041
reaction with HBr with peroxides, 992
reaction with HC1, HBr, HI, 991
reaction with HCN, 1038
reaction with heteroatom dienes, 1075
reaction with HX acids, 991
reaction with HX, Markovnikov's rale, 991
reaction with hydrazoic acid, 1002
reaction with hydrogen peroxide, 1049
reaction with hydrogen sulfide, 999
reaction with hypochlorites, 1044
reaction with hypochlorous acid, 1043
reaction with hypohalous acids, 1044

Alkenes *(Continued)*
reaction with imides, 1002
reaction with imido selenium compound, 782
reaction with imido sulfur compounds, 782
reaction with iodine azide, 1046
reaction with ketenes, 1077
reaction with $KMnO_4$, 290
reaction with KNH_2, 770
reaction with manganese (ID) acetate, 1059
reaction with metal hydrides, 1016
reaction with N-chloroamines, 1045
reaction with $NaNO_2$/acetic acid, 1339
reaction with nickel tetracarbonyl, 1036
reaction with nitrites, 1245
reaction with nitrosyl chloride, 1045
reaction with nitry 1 chloride, 1046
reaction with organolithium reagents, 791, 1035
reaction with organometallic reagents, 791
reaction with organozirconium reagents, 1026
reaction with osmium tetroxide, 1049
reaction with ozone, 914, 1522-1525
reaction with peroxides, 1051-1054
reaction with peroxyacids, 1051-1052
reaction with potassium permanganate, 1049
reaction with radicals, 901
reaction with selenium dioxide, 915
reaction with singlet oxygen, 921, 1055
reaction with sulfenanilides, 1058
reaction with sulfonyl halides, 1045
reaction with thiols, 998
reaction with trimethylsilylmethyl(2-)-2-propenyl-1-yl acetate, 1076
reaction with water, 993
Alkenes
reactivity in catalytic hydrogenation, 1004
reactivity to bromine addition, 981–982
reagents for reduction, 1007
regioselectivity of borane addition, 1013
Sharpless asymmetric epoxidation, 1053
stereospecificity, in reaction with bromine, 973
steric hindrance and hydrogenation, 1005
telomer formation from radial addition, 978
twisted, 190-191
Alkenylation
by metal carbenes, 1238
Petasis, 1237-1238
Peterson, 1228
Tebbe, 1237-1238
with CX_4 and PPh_3, 1233
Wittig, 1231-12371649
Wittig-Horner reaction, 1233
Alkoxides
alkylation of alkyl halides, 477
by the Wittig rearrangement, 1421
cleavage of, 811
elimination with K_2WCl_4, 1340
from ethers, 1421
in the aldol reaction, 1218
in the Williamson reaction, 477
magnesium, thermal decomposition, 1328
reaction with alkyl halides, MOM and MEM, 478
reaction with aryl halides, 862
reaction with aziridines, 481
reaction with CO_2, 1184
reaction with dihalides, 477
reaction with epoxides, 481
reaction with inorganic esters, 478
reaction with methyl sulfate, 478
reaction with sulfonate esters, 478
reaction with trihalides, 477
reduction of, 1209
thermolysis of, 811
Alkoxy alcohols, alcoholysis of epoxides, 481
Alkoxytrimethylsilanes, transetherification, 481
Alkyl azides, see azides, alkyl
Alkyl bromides, see halides, alkyl
Alkyl chlorides, see halides, alkyl
Alkyl chloroformates, see chloroformates, alkyl
Alkyl halides, see halides, alkyl
Alkyl hydroperoxides, see hydroperoxides
Alkyl iodides, see halides, alkyl
Alkyl tosylates, see tosylates, alkyl
Alkylation
and vinylogy, 553
enantioselective, 552
exhaustive, 500
Friedel-Crafts, 707–711
of acid salts, 494
of alkenes, 1017, 1047
of alkoxides, 477
of alkynes, 1026
of amine anions, 500
of amines, 501
of aromatic compounds, 932
of aryl halides, 868
of carboxylic acid salts, 488
of dithiane anions, 556
of enamines, 788
of enolate anions, 548
of epoxides, 546
of ethyl acetoacetate, 459
of ethyl pyroglutamate, 457
of heterocycles, 871, 933

of heterocycles, Ziegler alkylation, 871
of keto sulfoxides, 549
of malonic esters, 549
of oxazine anions, 558
of oximes, 495
of thiophene, 531
photochemical, of quinolines, 934
reductive, of amines, 1188
regioselectivity with ketone enolates, 554
with alkyl halides, 477
Alkylboranes, see boranes
Alkylidene bisamides, 1187
Alkylmagnesium compounds, see organomagnesium
Alkylmercury compounds, see organomercury
Alkylnitrilium ins, reduction of, 1204
Alkyloxyphosphoninum perchlorates, reaction with amines, 502
Alkyltrimethylsilanes, carbanion formation, 229
Alkyne aluminum reagents, 1210
Alkyne anions
and the Knoevenagel reaction, 1225
copper, reaction with aryl halides, 868
from alkynes, 561
reaction with alkyl halides, 561
reaction with peroxides, 796
Alkyne epoxides, elimination to cumulenes, 1344
Alkyne esters
from alkyne anions, 796
from vinylidine dihalides and amide ion, 1652
Alkyne halides, from reaction of acetylide ions with halogens, 1652
Alkyne ketones, from epoxy hydrazones, 1347
Alkyne, anion, reaction with boranes, 1425
Alkyne-alkenes, and the Pauson-Khand reaction, 1091
Alkynes
addition of alcohols, 997
addition of azides, 1058
addition of organometallics, 1024-1026
Alkynes
and bond migration, 771
and Normant reagents, 1026
and the Cadiot-Chodkiewicz reaction, 927
and the Eglinton reaction, 927
and the Eschenmoser-Tanabe reaction, 1347
and the Favorskii reaction, 1225
and the Glaser reaction, 927
and the Heck reaction, 931
and the Nef reaction, 1225
and thermolysis of aziridines, 1062
and [2+2]-cycloadditions, 1090
and [3+2]-cycloadditions, 1061
Alkynes
by coupling reactions, 543
by dehydrohalogenation, 1337
by elimination of alkyl and vinyl halides, 1337
by the Eglinton reaction, 1651
by the Ramberg-Bäcklund reaction, 1342
by the Stephens-Castro coupling, 868
Alkynes
complex with hexacarbonyldicobalt, 1091
coupling with Sm, 561
dimerization, 927
dimerization, and Schwartz's reagent, 1020
elimination with boranes, 1339
formylation of, 1048
Alkynes
from acetylenic acids, 1651
from acetylenic alcohols, 1651
from alkenes, 1339, 1651
from alkyl halides, 868, 1651
from alkynes, 561, 868, 1339, 1425, 1651
from alkynyl borates, 1651
from alkynyl organometallic compounds, 1651
from allenic substrates, 1651
from ammonium hydroxides, 1651
from aryl iodides, 1651
from arylation of alkynes, 1651
from boranes, 1651
from diaryl alkenes, 1651
from dihalides, 1651
from dihalotoluenes, 1652
from keto-ylids, 1334
from metathesis of alkynes, 1651
from selenoxides, 1651
from tetrahalides, 1651
from thiiren-1,1-dioxides, 1651
from triple-bond migration, 1651
from vinyl halides, 1337, 1651
Alkynes
halo, reaction with aryltin compounds, 561
halo, reaction with boranes, 1425
hydration of, 995
hydrogenation of, 1004–1005
in the Diels-Alder reaction, 1062
in the Pauson-Khand reaction, 1091
metathesis of, 1458
oxidation of, 1539
oxidation to diketones, 1540
ozonolysis, 1523
Alkynes
reaction with amines, 1000
reaction with aminonitrenes, 1057
reaction with azides, 1061
reaction with boranes, 798, 1015

Alkynes *(Continued)*
reaction with bromine, 1042
reaction with carbenes, 1086
reaction with carboxylic acids, 998
reaction with **Dibal,** 1007
reaction with **dicobalt** octacarbonyl, 1089
reaction with **Grignard** reagents, **791**
reaction with HX, 975, 992
reaction with **imides,** 1002
reaction with iodine, 1042
reaction with organocopper reagents, 1026
reaction with ozone, 1540
reaction with selenium dioxide, 1540
reaction with strong bases, 561
reaction with water, 995
Alkynes
reagents for reduction, 1007
rearrangement to allenes, **771**
trimerization, 1089
trimerization, and the **Diels-Alder** reaction, 1090
vinyl cyclopropyl, and alkene metathesis, 1458
Alkynyl cations, 430
Allene oxides, **1144** (ref. 1049)
Allenes
and restricted rotation, 133-134
and the **Paterno-Büchi** reaction, 1250
cyclic, 187
from alkylation of propargyl halides, 1652
from alkylation of propargyl tosylates, 1652
from alkynes, **771**
from carbenes, 1400
from contraction **of** three-membered rings, 1652
from dehalogenation of dihaloalkenes, 1652
from dehalogenation of tetrahalides, 1652
from dehydrohalogenation of dihalides, 1652
from Petasis alkenylation, 1652
from propargyl acetates, 545
from propargyl alcohols, 772
from propargyl esters, 1652
from propargyl ethers, 546, 1652
from pyrolysis of P-hydroxy alkynes, 1652
from reaction of **phosphoranes** with CO_2, 1652
from reaction of phosphoranes with ketenes, 1652
from rearrangement of alkynes, **771,** 1652
from rearrangement of propargylic vinyl compounds, 1652
from reduction of propargyl acetates, 1652
from reduction of propargyl halides, 1652
from Tebbe alkenylation, 1652
hydration of, 996
in [2+2]-cycloadditions, 1077
reaction with aldehydes or ketones, 1250
reaction with carbenes, 1086
reaction with chlorosulfonyl **isocyanate,** 1251
reaction with ketenes, 1077
Allophanates, 1183
Allylic acetates, see acetates, allylic
Allylic cations, 221
Allylic **chlorination, 914**
Allylic oxidation, **915**
Allylic phenols from **allyl aryl** ethers, 1449
Allylic phenols, by Claisen **rearrangement,** 1449
Allylic radicals, see radicals, allylic
Allylic rearrangement, also see substitution, S_N2'
Allylic rearrangement, see rearrangement, allylic
Allylic silanes, see **silanes**
Allylic systems, orbital diagram, 38
Allylsilanes, reaction with aldehydes, **1211**
Alpha effect, an nucleophilic strength, 445
Alpha **effect,** formation of amides, **510**
Alpine-borane, reduction of ketones, 1201
Alternant hydrocarbons, 55-57
Alternate hydrocarbons, and electrophilic aromatic substitution, 690
Alumina, and Diels-Alder reactions, 1066
Aluminates, dimerization, 940
Aluminum alkynyl reagents, 1210
Aluminum amalgam
for reduction of conjugated sulfones, 1206
for reduction of nitro compounds, 1552
Aluminum chloride, 339
Aluminum hydride reagents, and reaction with **alkyl** halides, 525
Hydrocarbons, alternant and **nonalternant,** 55-57
Hydrocarbons, alternant, energy levels, 56
Aluminum, and pinacol coupling, 1560
AM1 method, 34
Amberlyst **15**
and reduction of lactones, 1548
and acetal hydrolysis, 467
and **esterification,** 486
Ambident nucleophiles, 458-461
Ambident substrates, definition, 461
Amidation, of aromatic compounds, 702
Amide anion, reaction with **heterocycles,** 873
Amide bases
and formation of ketone enolates, **551**
and **keto-enol tautomerism,** 775
and the **Haller-Bauer** reaction, **814**
as nucleophiles, 500
cleavage of ketones, 814
formation of, 500
reaction with amines, 503
reaction with ammonium salts, 1419

reaction with esters, 510
reaction with ethers, 1328
reaction with phosphonium salts, 1231
Amide hydrolysis
intermediate, 365
transition state, 365
Amide ketones, from alkenes, 1653
Amides, also see acetamides
Amides, also see formamides
Amides
alcoholysis of, 488
alkylation with diazo componnds, 514
Amides
and acidity, 344
and conformations, 171
and DCC coupling, 509
and Hofmann rearrangement, 1411
and hydrogen bonding, 102
and leaving groups, 449
and the Bouveault reaction, 1214
aromatic, resonance and field effects, 364-365
Amides
by Orton rearrangement, 1653
by tetracarbonylferrate, 565
by the Arndt-Eistert rearrangement, 1653
by the Beckmann rearrangement, 1415, 1653
by the Chapman rearrangement, 1464, 1653
by the Dakin-West reaction, 1653
by the Favorskii rearrangement, 1653
by the Gatterman reaction, 718, 1652
by the Haller-Bauer reaction, 814, 1653
by the Leuckart reaction, 1653
by the Mitsnnobu reaction, 513
by the Ritter reaction, 1244, 1653
by the Schmidt reaction, 1653
by the Schotten-Baumann procedure, 507
by the Willgerodt reaction, 1567, 1653
Amides, conjugated
from vinyltin reagents, 1218
halogenation of, 501
reaction with aldehydes, 1212
Amides
dealkylation, 1559
dehydration, 1350
Amides
from acid derivatives, 512, 1652
from acid salts, 508
from acyl halides, 506, 1652
from alcohols, 1244
from aldehydes, 925, 1653
from alkenes, 1001, 1035, 1244, 1653
from alkyl halides, 513, 1652
from alkynes, 1653
from amides, 503, 512,1001, 1652, 1653
from amines, 503,820,1001, 1535, 1652, 1653
from amino acids, 1653
from anhydrides, 507, 1653, 1652
from aromatic compounds, 719, 1652
from aryl halides, 513, 1653
from aryl ketones, 1653
from boranes, 801
from carboxylic acids, 1413,1652
from cyano amides, 1653
from esters, 510
from heterocycles, 1653
from hydration of ynamines, 1653
from hydrocarbons, 925
from imines, 1653
from imino esters, 1464
from isocyanates, 1217, 1413, 1653
from isonitriles, 1251,1653
from ketenes, 1001,1653
from ketones, 1414, 1567, 1653,1653
from nitrenes, 1653
from nitriles, 1179, 1192, 1244, 1653
from oxime esters, 1415
from oximes, 1415
from rearrangement of α-halo ketones, 1653
from rearrangement of aryl imidates, 1653
from rearrangement of diazo ketones, 1653
from rearrangement of N-halo-N-acyl aromatic amines, 1653
from rearrangement of oximes, 1653
from transamidation, 1652
Amides
hydrolysis of, 474-476
hydrolysis, and diazonium ions, 475
hydrolysis, and radiolabeling, 476
hydrolysis, rate of reaction, 475
imidazolide, reaction with alcohols, 488
indirectly from aldehydes, 1653
methyl, from isocyanates, 1555
potassium, reaction with K and aryl diethyl phosphates, 866
protecting groups for amines, 697
Amides
reaction with acid derivatives, 514
reaction with alcohols, 488
reaction with aldehydes, 1187
reaction with alkenes, 1001
reaction with amines, 503
reaction with ammonium salts, 512
reaction with Grignard reagents, 1214
reaction with Lawesson's reagent, 1184
reaction with NaOBr, 1411
reaction with organocerinm reagents, 1215

Amides *(Continued)*
reaction with organolithium reagents, 568
reaction with oxalyl chloride, 515
reaction with PCl_5, 1464
Amides
reduction to aldehydes, reagents for, 533
reduction with $LiAlH_4$, 1549
sulfenylation of, 783
twisted, 185
Amidines
from addition of amines to ketenimines, 1653
from addition of ammonia or amines to nitriles, 1653
from animation of imidates, 1653
from amines, 1001
from ammonia, 1191
from imidates, 510
from ketenimines, 1001
from nitriles, 1191
Amidomethylation, of phenols, 722
Aminals, 1186
Aminals, from addition of amines to aldehydes or ketones, 1654
Amination, reductive, 1188
Amine alcohols, oxidative cleavage, 1520
Amine alkenes
from alkenes, 782
from bicyclic amines, 1511-1512
Amine anions, see amide bases
Amine ditosylates, as leaving groups, 447
Amine halides, fragmentation reactions, 1345
Amine ketones
and Mannich bases, 1189
by the Mannich reaction, 1189
by the Neber rearrangement, 1410
Amine ketones, from oxime tosylates, 1410
Amine N-oxides
and Cope elimination, 1333
and elimination of aziridines, 1343
from amines, 1541
from oxidation of tertiary amines, 1654
pyrolysis of, 1333
reduction with PPh_3, 1557
spin traps, 239
thermolysis of, 1420
Amine-Claisen rearrangement, 1452
Amines, also see diamines
Amines
acylation, 511
aliphatic, reaction with nitrous acid, 816
alkylation of, 501, 552
alkylation, catalysts for, 501
allylic, reaction with Grignard reagents, 1025
allylic, reductive cleavage, 1559
Amines
and acidity, 344
and base strength, 346
and Birch reduction, 1012
and elimination of snlfonyl halides, 1338
and exhanstive alkylation, 500
and Li, reduction of carboxyiic acids, 532
and Li, reduction of esters, 529
and Michael addition to alkenes, 1000
and Michael reactions, 1023
and optical activity, 129-130
and phase transfer, 501
and pyramidal inversion, 129
and radical cyclization, 1244
and the Ing-Manske procedure, 513
and the Mannich reaction, 1655
and the Menshutkin reaction, 499
Amines, aromatic, also see aniline derivatives
Amines, aromatic
and Friedel-Crafts alkylation, 709
by the Goldberg reaction, 864
coupling with diazonium salts, 700
formylation by the Duff reaction, 717
from aromatic compounds, 701
from aryl halides, 864
from aryl nitrogen compounds, 1559
from azides, 701
from hydroxyl amines, 878
oxidation of, 1539
oxidation with nitric acid, 697
reaction with nitroso compounds, 818
reaction with nitrons acid, 699
removal by dediazoniation, 935
with NCl_3, 701
Amines
aromaticity, resonance effects, 344
as catalysts, for the Knoevenagel reaction, 1226
base strength, table, 346
bicyclic, from *N-chloroamines*, 1416
bicyclic, reaction with mercuric acetates, 1512
Amines
by Hofmann elimination, 1655
by the Bonveanlt reaction, 1214
by the Bncherer reaction, 1654
by the Chichibabin reaction, 1654
by the Curtins rearrangement, 1655
by the Delépine reaction, 501
by the Emde rednction, 530
by the Eschweiler-Clarke reaction, 1188
by the Fischer-Hepp rearrangement, 1654
by the Gabriel synthesis, 500, 513, 1654

by the heteroatom Diels Alder reaction, 1655
by the Hofmann rearrangement, 1411
by the Hofmann-Löffler reaction, 1655
by the Leuckart reaction, 1188
by the Lossen rearrangement, 1413, 1655
by the Mitsunobn reaction, 502
by the Schmidt reaction, 1413, 1655
by the Sommelet-Hauser rearrangement, 877, 1420, 1654
by the Staudinger reaction, 1555
by the Stevens rearrangement, 1419, 1655
by the Wallach reaction, 1188
Amines
chiral, from organolithium addition to imines, 1216
chloro, from alkenes, 1045
cleavage with phenyl chloroformate, 522
conversion to alkyl iodides, 522
conversion to azetidines, 501
conversion to carbocations, 787
cyclic, by the Hofmann-Löffler reaction, 1462
cyclic, cleavage with cyanogen bromide, 523
cyclic, from lactams, 1535
cyclic, from N-chloroamines, 1462
cyclic, oxidation of, 1535
dealkylation, 1559
deamination, 1548
dehydrogenation, reagents for, 1518
diamines, see diamines
diazotization of, 816, 1382
diazotization with metal halides, 522
dichloro, pyrolysis of, 1348
formyl, 1188
formylation of, 820
Amines
from active hydrogen compounds, 1655
from alcohols, 502, 1654
from aldehydes, 552, 1187–1189, 1655
from alkanes, 1654
from alkenes, 999, 1654, 1655
from alkyl halides, 499-501
from alkylnitrilium ions, 1204
from amides, 1549, 1559,1655
from amine ethers, 1654
from amine oxides, 1655
from amines, 503, 999, 1558, 1654, 1655
from amino acids, 1654
from amino ethers, 546
from ammonia, 1654, 1655
from ammonium hydroxides, 1655
from ammonium salts, 530, 877, 1419-1421, 1654, 1655
from aromatic amines, 1654
from aromatic ammonium salts, 1654
from aromatic compounds, 1654
from aryl halides, 1654
from azides, 781, 1555, 1655
from aziridines, 531, 548, 1654
from azo compounds, 1655
from azoxy compounds, 1655
from boranes, 799
from C=N compounds, 1216
from carboxylic acids, 1655
from cyanoamines, 1654
from cyanohydrins, 502
from diazo compounds, 504
from ethers, 1654
from formamides, 1655
from heterocyclic compounds, 1654
from hydrazo compounds, 1655
from hydrazones, 1655
from hydrocarbons, 505
from hydrolysis of amides, 1654
from hydrolysis of cyanamides, 1655
from hydrolysis of enamines, 1655
from hydrolysis of imines, 1655
from hydrolysis of iminium ions, 1655
from hydrolysis of phthalimides, 1654
from hydrolysis of sulfonamides, 1654
from hydroxylamines, 1554, 1655
from imines, 1203, 1655
from iminium salts, 1216
from isocyanates, 1411, 1413, 1655
from isothiocyanates, 1655
from ketones, 1187-1189
from N-nitroso amines, 1556
from N-nitroso compounds, 1655
from naphthols, 1654
from nitriles, 1204, 1655
from nitrilium ions, 1655
from nitro compounds, 1552-1554, 1655
from nitroso compounds, 1655
from O-acyl hydroxamic acids, 1413
from organometallic compounds, 799, 1654, 1655
from oxetanes, 506
from oximes, 1554-1555, 1655
from ozonides, 1655
from rearrangement of acyl azides, 1655
from rearrangement of ammonium salts, 1655
from rearrangement of aryl alkyl ammonium salts, 1654
from rearrangement of aryl hydroxylamines, 1654
from rearrangement of arylamines, 1654
from rearrangement of benzidines, 1655

Amines *(Continued)*
from rearrangement of benzylic ammonium salts, 1654
from rearrangement of hydroxamic acids, 1655
from rearrangement of **N-haloamines,** 1655
from rearrangement of N-nitroamines, 1654
from rearrangement of N-nitrosoamines, 1654
from rearrangement of triazenes, 1654
from rearrangement of ammonium salts, 1655
from thioamides, 1654
from transamination, 1654
Amines
halo, reagents for their preparation, 819
methyl, from isothiocyanates, 1555
methylation with diazomethane, 504
N,N-dichloro, **rearrangement** of, 1410
N-arylation of, **501**
N-chloro, reaction with $AgNO_3$ in methanol, 1416
N-chloro, reaction with **alkenes,** 1045
N-halo, and the Stieglitz rearrangement, 1417
N-iodo, photolysis of, 1463
N-methyl, from reduction of **isonitriles,** 1204
order of base strength, 349
oxidation of, 1535-1536, 1539
oxidation with hydrogen peroxide, **1141**
oxidation with peroxides, **1541**
oxidation with **peroxyacids,** 1541
protection of, 577, 697
Amines
reaction with acids derivatives, **512**
reaction with aldehydes or **ketones, 1185–1187**
reaction with alkenes, 999, 1056
reaction with alkoxyphosphonium perchlorates, 502
reaction with alkynes, 1000
reaction with amide bases, 503
reaction with amides, 503
reaction with **aryl** halides, 864
reaction with azides, 781
reaction with aziridines, 505
reaction with chloroform, 506
reaction with **chloroformates,** 507
reaction with CO, 820
reaction with CO_2, 820, **1192**
reaction with CS_2, **1192**
reaction with cyanogen bromide, 522
reaction with diazo compounds, 504
reaction with diazoalkanes, 1217
reaction with diynes, 1000
reaction with esters, **510**
reaction with **hydroxylamine-O-sulfonic** acid, 530
reaction with **hypobromites,** 819
reaction with hypochlorites, 819
reaction with hypohalites, 819
reaction with isocyanates, **1191**
reaction with isocyanic acid, **1191**
reaction with isopropenyl formate, **511**
reaction with isothiocyanates, **1191**
reaction with **ketenimines,** 1001
reaction with ketones, 552
reaction with $KMnO_4$, 1539
reaction with KNO_2, 494
reaction with **N-chloromethyl** lactams, 500
reaction with **NaOCl,** 1518
reaction with NCS, 500
reaction with nitric acid-acetic anhydride, **818**
reaction with nitrous acid, 816-817, 1398
reaction with **NOCl, 818**
reaction with organocuprates, 800
reaction with organolithium reagents, 500
reaction with oxetanes, 505
reaction with Oxone, 1540
reaction with phenol and **formaldehyde,** 722
reaction with phosgene, 507
reaction with pyrylium ions, **1186**
reaction with sulfonyl chlorides, 576-577
Amines
reduction by **Katritzky** pyrylium-pyridinium method, 530
reductive alkylation, **1188**
test for primary amines, 506
Aminium radical cations, 909
Aminium radical ion, 701
Amino acids
acylation of, 812
and the Dakin-West reaction, 812
aryl, preparation of, 720
by the **Hofmann** reaction, 1656
by the Sorensen reaction, 549, 1656
by the Strecker synthesis, **1656**
conversion to lactams, 508
diazotization, 522
from **acyl** halides, 1656
from aldehydes, 1656
from **β-lactones,** 1656
from **carboxylic** acids, 1656
from dialkyl azodicarboxylate, 1656
from esters, 1656
from halo acids, 1656
from hydrolysis of cyanohydrins, 1656
from hydrolysis of lactams, 1656
from **imides,** 1656
from ketones, 1656
from lactones, **511**

from N-acetylaminomalonic esters, 1656
from nitroso compounds, 1656
from oximes, 1656
reaction with anhydrides, 812
Amino alcohols
and semipinacol rearrangement, 1397
catalysts for formation from epoxides, 504
from enamines, 1014
from epoxides, 504
from oxetanes, 505
reaction with nitrous acid, 1397
reaction with triphenylphosphine dibromide, 502
Amino esters
by the Hofmann reaction, 1656
by the Sorensen reaction, 1656
by the Strecker synthesis, 1656
from acyl halides, 1656
from aldehydes, 1656
from azodicarboxylates, 1656
from β-lactones, 1656
from carboxylic acids, 1656
from esters, 1656
from halo acids, 1656
from hydrolysis of cyanohydrins, 1656
from hydrolysis of lactams, 1656
from imides, 1656
from ketones, 1656
from N-acetylaminomalonic esters, 1656
from nitroso compounds, 1656
from oximes, 1656
Amino ethers
from alcohols, 1656
from aldehydes, 1656
from alkenes, 1656
from aziridines, 481
from aziridines, 1656
from phenols, 1656
reaction with Grignard reagents, 546
Amino groups, migration, 1408
Amino heterocycles
by the Chichibabin reaction, 873
preparation of, 873
Amino nitriles, by the Strecker synthesis, 1240
Amino phenols
from hydroxyl amines, 878
by the Bamberger rearrangement, 878
Amino thioethers, from alkenes, 1058
Amino thiols
by the Herz reaction, 1656
from aldehydes, 1656
from aromatic amines, 1656
from episulfides, 504
from episulfides, 1656
m-Aminoanisole, from *o*-bromoanisole, 854
p-Aminobenzophenone, 1560
Aminoalkylation, of phenols, 722
Aminomalonates, from nitriles, 1241
Aminomethyl aromatic compounds, 877
Aminomethylation, of phenols, 722
Aminonaphthalene, see naphthylamines
Aminonitrenes, reaction with alkenes, 1057
Aminosulfenylation, of alkenes, 1058
Aminotetrahydropyrans, and the anomeric effect, 177
Ammonia,
and reduction of aromatic compounds, 1009
reaction with acyl halides, 506
reaction with aldehydes or ketones, 1186
reaction with alkenes, 999
reaction with anhydrides, 507
reaction with aryl halides, 864
reaction with boranes and NaOCl, 799
reaction with carboxylic acids, 508
reaction with cyanamide, 1192
reaction with cyanohydrins, 502
reaction with cyclic anhydrides, 508
reaction with dinitriles, 1192
reaction with epoxides, 504
reaction with esters, 510
reaction with isocyanates, 1191
reaction with naphthols, 865
reaction with nitriles, 1191
reaction with pyrylium ions, 1186
reaction with sulfonyl chlorides, 576
Ammonium chloride, and the Mannich reaction, 1189
Ammonium hydroxides, thermolysis of, 1331
Ammonium salts
and the E2 elimination, 1306
and the Emde reduction, 530
and the Stevens rearrangement, 1419
aryl, and the Hofmann-Martius reaction, 729
as phase transfer catalysts, 454-455
benzylic, and the Sommelet-Hauser rearrangement, 877
benzylic, reaction with amide bases, 877
by the Menshutkin reaction, 499
elimination reactions, 1332
elimination, and cis/trans isomers, 1333
from amine addition to alkenes, 1000
from amines and alkyl halides, 499
reaction with amide bases, 1419
reaction with amides, 512
reaction with $LiAlH_4$, 530

Ammonium salts *(Continued)*
reaction with organolithium reagents, 792, 1332
reaction with urea, 512
A_N nomenclature, IUPAC for mechanisms, 384
Anchimeric assistance, also see neighboring group effects
Anchimeric assistance, 404
and migratory aptitude in carbocation, 1385
and nonclassical ions, 409
Angelic acid, from vinyl bromides, 766
Angle strain
cyclobutane, 182
cyclopropane, 181
Angles
bond, and E2 elimination, 1303
dihedral and conformation, 168
dihedral, and E2 elimination, 1303
torsion, 168
Angular momentum, and photochemistry, 315
Anhydrides
acetic, with DMSO for oxidation of alcohols, 1516
alcoholysis of, 483
and acylation of alkenes, 784
and leaving groups, 449
and the Perkin reaction, 1229
by-products of the Baeyer-Villiger reaction, 1657
cyclic, from diacids, 491
cyclic, reaction with alcohols, 483
Anhydrides
from α-diketones and peroxy compounds, 1657
from acid derivatives, 1656
from acids and enol esters, 491
from acids and esters, 491
from acyl halides, 490, 1656
from acyloxylation of aldehydes, 1657
from alkenes, 1657
from ammonium carboxylates, 491
from aryl halides and CO, 1657
from carboxylic acid salts, 490, 509, 1656, 1657
from carboxylic acids, 1657
from dehydration of carboxylic acids, 491, 1656
from diazonium fluoroborates, 1657
from ketenes, 1657
from oxidation of aromatic rings, 1657
Anhydrides
hydrolysis of, 469
intermediate in preparing acyl halides, 523
maleic, see maleic anhydride
mixed, 508
organic-inorganic, 494
Anhydrides
reaction with alcohols, 483
reaction with aldehydes, 1229, 1245
reaction with amides, 508
reaction with amino acids, 812
reaction with ammonia, 507
reaction with aromatic compounds, 713
reaction with enamines, 788
reaction with enolate anions, 569
reaction with Grignard reagents, 567
reaction with HF, 524
reaction with hydrogen peroxide, 492
reaction with oximes, 1348
reaction with phosphorus ylids, 1237
reaction with Zn, AcOH, 1550
Anhydrides
reagents for formation of, 509
reduction to aldehydes, 533
reduction to lactones, 1550
triflic, and the Ritter reaction, 1245
trifluoroacetic, with DMSO for oxidation of alcohols, 1516
Aniline derivatives
and cine substitution, 864
and the Friedländer quinoline synthesis, 1186
and the Gabriel synthesis, 864
by the Bamberger rearrangement, 878
by the Goldberg reaction, 864
by the Hofmann-Martius reaction, 729
by the Reilly-Hickinbottom rearrangement, 729
from aryl acyl halides, 1413
from aryl halides, 854, 864
from aryl nitrogen compounds, 1559
from azo compound, 1559
from azoxy compound, 1559
from benzynes, 854
from hydrazo compound, 1559
from hydroxylamines, 878
from nitro compounds, 1552
oxidation of, 1539
reaction with aryl halides, catalysts for, 864
Aniline derivatives, also see amines, aromatic
Aniline
addition to alkenes, 1001
resonance forms, 42
Anilines
deuterated, rearrangement of, 727
trifluoroacetyl, hydrolysis, 475
Anionic cleavage, 759, 808
Anionotropic rearrangements, 1377
Anions
acyl, and Umpolung, 553
allylic, and [3+2]-cycloadditions, 1076

and rate acceleration in Diels-Alder reactions, 1066
carboxylate, and resonance, 344
size and reaction rate, 451
sulfonyl, 574-575
Anisole
chlorination in cyclodextrin, ortho/para ratio, 686
nitrosation of, 699
Annellation, and aromaticity, 50
Annulation, Robinson, 1222
[10]-Annulene, and aromaticity, 62
[10]-Annulenes, derivatives and aromaticity, 63
[18]-Annulene, structure, 44
Annulenes
and aromaticity, 62-69
and NMR, 63-69
annulenoannulenes, 90
definition, 57
Annuienoannulenes, 90
Anomeric effect, 176-177
Antarafacial addition, in Diels-Alder reactions, 1073
Antarafacial migration, [1,5]-H sigmatropic rearrangement, 1437
Antarafacial process, 1342
Anthracene
photodimers, bond distances, 19
Dewar structure, 43
hydrogenation of, 1010
in the Diels-Alder reaction, 1063
reaction with benzyne, 1063
reaction with bromine, 50
Anti conformation, 169
anti nomenclature, 147
Anti-Bredt alkenes, and the Wittig reaction, 1233
Anti-elimination, and E2 elimination, 1300
Anti-Markovnikov addition
amines from boranes, 800
and hydroboration, 798
hydration of alkenes, 994
of HBr to alkenes, 991
thiols to alkenes, 998
radical addition of silanes to alkenes, 1039
Anti-periplanar conformation, and E2 elimination, 1300
Antiaromatic, and oxirenes, 1054
Antiaromaticity
and addition to alkenes, 983
and benzocycloheptatrienyl anion, 62
and cycloheptatrienyl anion, 62
and cyclooctatetraene, 62
and cyclopentadienyl cation, 60-61
and eight-electron systems, 62
and Hückel's rule, 61
and ten-electron systems, 62-64
cyclopropenyl anion, 60-61
definition, 58-59
four electron systems, 58-61
Antibodies, in the Diels-Alder reaction, 1065
Anticlinal conformation, 169
Antimony pentafluoride, and carbocations, 220
Aprotic solvents, 450
Aqueous media, and the Diels-Alder reaction, 1066
Arbuzov reaction, 1234
Arenes, protection of, 1066
Arenium ion mechanism, 675-680
Arenium ion mechanism, mercuration of aromatic compounds, 793
Arenium ions, 222, 411, 413, 1402
Arenium ions, also see carbocations
Arenium ions, also see phenonium ions
Arenium ions
and ipso attack, 686
and NMR, 413
are decarboxylation of aryl carboxylic acids, 733
as intermediates, 676
for naphthalene derivative, 689
isolation of, 678
rc-complexes, 679
stability of, table, 679
Arenonium ions, and the S_N1 mechanism, 853
Arenonium ions, from diazonium salts, 853
Argon matrix trapping, 187
Arndt-Eistert synthesis, 573, 1405-1407
Arndt-Eistert synthesis, and Wolff rearrangement, 1405
Aromatic aldehydes, see aldehydes, aromatic
Aromatic amines, see amines, aromatic
Aromatic compounds, see aromatic compounds
Aromatic compounds
alkyl, oxidation of, 1527
alkylation of, 932
amidation of, 702
Aromatic compounds
and aminium radical ions, 701
and Benkeser reduction, 1012
and benzylic radical bromination, 912
and Birch reduction, 1010-1012
and dissolving metal reductions, 1009
and electrophilic aromatic substitution, 688-690
and S_NAr reactions, 850-853
and the Heck reaction, 930

Aromatic compounds *(Continued)*
and the Scholl reaction, 711
and the S_N1 reaction, 853
Aromatic compounds
by Diels-Alder reactions, 1658
by Friedel-Crafts alkylation, 1657
by the Étard reaction, 15134
by the Gomberg-Bachmann reaction, 1657
by the Haller-Bauer reaction, 1657
by the Pschorr reaction, 1657
by the Scholl arylation, 1657
by the Ullmann reaction, 1657
Aromatic compounds
chloromethylation of, 721
cleavage of alkyl groups, 730-731
coupling, 711
dihydroxylation of, 1050
Aromatic compounds
from α-aryl acids, 1657
from aldehydes, 732
from alkynes, 1658
from aromatic acids, 1657, 1658
from aromatic acyl halides, 1658
from aromatic aldehydes, 1657, 1658
from aromatic compounds, 1657
from aromatic ketones, 1657, 1658
from aromatic nitro compounds, 1657
from aromatic sulfonic acids, 1657
from aromatization of six-membered rings, 1658
from aryl alkenes, 1658
from aryl diazonium salts, 934
from aryl esters, 1657
from aryl ethers, 734, 1657
from aryl halides, 735, 868,1657
from aryl iodides, 1657
from aryl nitriles, 1657
from aryl organometallics, 736
from aryl sulfonic acids, 734-735
from arylboranes, 1658
from benzylic alcohols, 1657
from benzylic ethers, 1657
from benzylic halides, 1657
from cleavage of alkyl arenes, 1657
from cleavage of aryl ketones, 1657
from cleavage of tertiary alkoxides, 1657
from cyclic hydrocarbons, 1510
from diazonium salts, 1657
from dimerization of arenes, 1658
from dimerization of diazonium salts, 1657
from ene-diynes, 1432
from Grignard reagents, 1658
from hydrogenolysis of benzyl alcohols, 1657
from hydrolysis of organometallic compounds, 1657
from ketones, 1657
from methylation of diazonium salts, 1658
from organocuprates, 868
from organometallic compounds, 1657, 1658
from oxidation of hydrazines, 1658
from peroxides, 1657
from phenolic esters, 1657
from phenols, 866, 1657
from photochemical arylation, 1657
from rearrangement of alkyl arenes, 1657
from stilbenes, 1658
from substituted aromatic compounds, 730-731
from sulfur compounds, 1658
from trimerization of alkynes, 1089, 1658
Aromatic compounds
haloalkylation, 721
halogenation of, 704
hydrogenation of, 1009
in the Diels-Alder reaction, 1063
methyl, oxidation of, 1533
monosubstituted, electrophilic aromatic substitution, 681-687
oxidation to phenols, reagents for, 916
oxidative cleavage, 1526
polycyclic, oxidation of, 1535
radical substitution on side chains, 902
Aromatic compounds
reaction with acid, 730
reaction with acyl halides, 712
reaction with acyl peroxides, 932
reaction with alkenes, 708
reaction with alkyl halides, 707
reaction with anhydrides, 713
reaction with aryl diazonium salts, 700, 928
reaction with bromine, 704
reaction with carbenes, 1087
reaction with chlorine, 704
reaction with chlorosulfuric acid, 703
reaction with dichloromethyl methyl ether, 717
reaction with formaldehyde and HCl, 721
reaction with formamides, 715
reaction with Grignard reagents, 1030
reaction with hexamethylenetetramine, 717
reaction with hydrazoic acid, 701
reaction with hydroxamic acid, 702
reaction with isocyanates, 719
reaction with isothiocyanates, 719
reaction with ketones, 719
reaction with mercury fulminate, 723
reaction with metals, 793
reaction with nitric acid, 696

reaction with nitrites, 722
reaction with organolithium reagents, 791, 872
reaction with peroxy acids, 724
reaction with phosgene, 718
reaction with SCl_2, 703
reaction with sulfonyl chlorides, 704
reaction with sulfuric acid, 702, 734
reaction with thiocyanates, 722
reaction with trichloroacetonitrile, 722-723
reaction with zinc cyanide, 715
Aromatic compounds,
reactivity with radicals, 904
reduction of, 1009–1012
UV spectra, 311
Aromatic electrophilic substitution, see substitution
Aromatic hydrocarbons
distorted, 44
fused strained rings, 45
Aromatic rings
expansion, and the Reimer-Tiemann reaction, 717
neighboring group participation, 411
stabilization of carbanions, 231
Aromatic sextet, 34, 46
Aromatic substitution, see substitution
Aromaticity, 46–71
Aromaticity, also see antiaromaticity
Aromaticity
and annellation, 50
and annulenes, 57, 62-69
and fullerenes, 70–71
and fused ring aromatics, 54-56
and hardness, 52
and heterocycles, 51
and Hückel's rule, 57-58
and Hund's rule, 57
and medium-ring derivatives, 48-54
and mesoionic compounds, 69-70
and NMR, 46-47
and ring current, 46-47
and squaric acid, 70
and syndones, 70
and [10]annulene, 62
conjugated circuit model, 48
criteria for, 58
definition, 46
diatopic compounds, 46-47
fused ring aromatics, 48-50
hardness model, 48
Herndon model, 48
Hess-Schaad model, 47-48
heterocycles, 48
homoaromatic compounds, 70
nitrogen heterocycles, 48
other than six electrons, 57-69
oxygen heterocycles, 48
pentalene dianion, 55
super aromaticity, 66
tetramethylcyclooctatetraene dication, 54
two-electron systems, 58
unusual criteria, 69-71
Aromatization
and hydrogenation catalysts, 1510
of ene-diynes, 1433
with S and Se, 1511
Aroxide ion, 1464
Arsenite, sodium, reaction with aryl nitro compounds, 1563
Arsines, triaryl, reaction with alkyl halides, 1233
Aryl aldehydes, see aldehydes
Aryl cations, 929
Aryl diazonium compounds, see diazonium
Aryl diazonium salts, see diazonium salts, aryl
Aryl ethers, see ethers, aryl
Aryl fluorides, see fluorides
Aryl groups, migratory aptitude and carbocations, 1386
Aryl halides, see halides, aryl
Aryl radicals, see radicals, aryl
Aryl sulfides, see thioethers, aryl
Aryl sulfonic acids, see sulfonic acids
Aryl thioethers, see thioethers, aryl
Arylammonium salts, reaction with HC1, 729
Arylation
Friedel-Crafts, 711
intramolecular, 929
Meerwein, 929-930
of active methylene compounds, 869
of acyl peroxides, 932
of amines, 501
of aryl diazonium compounds, 928
of aryl iodides, 933
by the Pschorr ring closure, 929
with aryllead tricarboxylates, 932
Arylazo(N-) amines, rearrangement of, 728
Arylhydrazones, cyclization with Lewis acids, 1452
Arylidene bisamides, 1187
Aryllead tricarboxylates, arylation reactions, 932
Arylsulfonic trifluoromethaaesulfonic anhydride, reaction with aromatic compounds, 704
Arylthallium compounds, reaction with CuCN, 802

Arylthallium reagents, reaction with alcohols and CO, 801
Aryltin, reaction with **haloalkynes,** 561
Arynes, 855
Arynes, see benzynes
Ascaridole, from terpinene, 1055
Ascorbic acid
and oxidation of aromatic compounds, 916
and Udenfriend's reagent, 916
Aspartic acid, specific rotation, 127
Asymmetric boranes, 1014
Asymmetric carbon, see stereogenic carbon
Asymmetric induction, 150
and reduction of **ketones,** 1200
in the Baylis-Hillman reaction, 1212
with sparteine, 537
Asymmetric radicals, 244
Asymmetric synthesis, see synthesis
Asymmetric synthesis
and **enantiomeric** composition, 143
double, 150
general principles, 147-150
Ate complexes
and reduction of **alkyl** halides, 525
definition, 339
Atomic orbitals, see orbitals, atomic
Atropisomers, 132
Austin model 1 method, 34
Autoxidation
and **ally lic** rearrangement, **921**
and radicals, **921**
of **alkanes,** 920
of aromatic **diols, 1518**
of hydrocarbons, 920
Auxochrome, definition, 310
Axes, chiral, see chiral axes
Axial bonds, 172
Axis of symmetry, alternating, 127-128
Aza-Cope rearrangement, 1445
Aza-Wittig rearrangement, 1422
Azaadamantanones, 185
Azabullvalenes, 1493 (ref. 521)
Azadienes, in **Diels-Alder** reactions, 1075
Azeotropic distillation
and ester formation, 484
and formation of acetals or ketals, **1180**
and formation of enamines, **1187**
and formation of **imines, 1186**
Azetidines, preparation of, **501**
Azetidines, reaction with N_2O_5, 494
Azide amides, from azidation of amides, 1659
Azide ion
reaction with **acyl** halides, **515**
reaction with alkenes, 1046
reaction with alkyl halides, 515
Azides
acyl, and the Curtius rearrangement, 1412
acyl, from acylhydrazines and **HONO,** 1412
acyl, thermolysis of, 1412
alkyl, and the diazonium leaving group, 447
alkyl, thermolysis of, 1412
aryl, reaction with amines, 1413
as **1,3-dipoles,** 1060
cycloalkyl, ring expansion by Curtius rearrangement, 1413
Azides
from acyl peroxide, 1658
from alcohols, 1658
from aldehydes, **516**
from alkenes, **1002,** 1046, 1658
from alkyl halides, **515**
from amides, 1658
from **amine** N-oxides, 1557
from azide ions, 1658
from hydrazides, 1658
from hydrazines, 817, 1658
Azides
hydrolysis of, 799
iodo, conversion to aziridines, 1046
iodo, from alkenes, 1046
Azides
reaction with alkenes, 1057, 1059
reaction with alkynes, 1061
reaction with amides, 781
reaction with tin hydride and radicals, 1389
Azides
reagents for preparation of, 515-516
reduction of, reagents, 1555
thermal decomposition to nitrenes, 253
tosyl, reaction with active **methylene** compounds, 780
tosyl, reaction with organolithium reagents, 799
trimethylsilyl, reaction with aromatic compounds, 701
Azido amides, from amides, 781
Azidochloromethylene **dimethylammonium,** 701
Azine, from hydrazones and aldehydes, **1193**
Azines
from addition of hydrazine to aldehydes, 1659
from addition of hydrazine to ketones, 1659
reaction with hydrazine and NaOH, **1193**
Azinic acids, 76
Azinic acids, see nitro compounds
Azirene intermediate, 288
in the Neber rearrangement, 1410

Aziridines
ambident substrates, 461
and the Darzens glycidic ester synthesis, 1230
by extrusion reactions, 1353
Aziridines
from α-halo carbonyl compounds, 1659
from alkenes, 1057, 1659
from amino alcohols, 502
from azides, 1057
from azido alcohols, 515
from P-iodo azides, 1659
from bromo-amines, 500
from carbenes, 1659
from conjugated amides, 501
from cyclization of amino alcohols, 1659
from cyclization of p-azido alcohols, 1659
from cyclization of haloamines, 1659
from diazoalkanes, 1659
from epoxides, 515, 1659
from epoxy amines, 504
from imines, 1659
from imines and diazoalkanes, 1217
from imines and halo esters, 1230
from iodo azides, 1046
from oximes, 1555
from reduction of oximes, 1659
from triazolines, 1057, 1659
Aziridines
reaction with alkoxides, 481
reaction with alkynes, 1062
reaction with amines, 505
reaction with ammonia, 504
reaction with HONO (elimination), 1343
reaction with N_2O_5, 494
reaction with nucleophiles, 446
reaction with organometallics, 548
Aziridines
reduction of, 531
thermolysis and reaction with alkenes, 1061
thermolysis to nitrenes, 783
vinyl, and [1,5]-H sigmatropic rearrangements, 1440
Aziridino hydrazones, reaction with lithium diisopropylamide, 1335
Azirines, from azide addition to alkynes, 1058
Azo compounds
by diazonium coupling, 700
by the Mills reaction, 818, 1659
by the Wallach reaction, 1659
from aliphatic diazonium coupling, 1659
from amines, 1659
from aromatic amines, 818
from aromatic nitro compounds, 1659
from aryl diazonium salts, 937, 1659
from azoxy compounds, 1557
from hydrazo compounds, 1519
from N-azo amines, 728
from nitro compounds, 1563
from nitroso compounds, 1659
from oxidation of hydrazines, 1659
from rearrangement of aryl triazenes, 1659
from rearrangement of azoxy compounds, 1659
from reduction of azoxy compounds, 1659
from reduction of nitro compounds, 1659
hydroxy, by the Wallach rearrangement, 1464
hydroxy, from azoxy compound, 1464
isomerization of, 320, 700
reduction, reagents for, 1556, 1559
thermal cleavage, 245
Azo dyes, by diazonium coupling, 700
Azo-Cope rearrangements, 1452
Azobenzenes
and nitrenes, 254
from aromatic nitro compounds, 1553
Azobis-isobutyronitrile, see AIBN
Azodicarboxylate, diethyl, see diethyl azodicarboxylate
Azomethine imines, as 1,3-dipoles, 1060
Azomethine ylids, as 1,3-dipoles, 1060
Azoxy compounds
as 1,3-dipoles, 1060
from alkanediazotates, 1659
from alkyl halides, 516, 1659
from aromatic nitro compounds, 1563
from hydroxylamines, 819, 1659
from nitroso compounds, 819, 1659
from reduction of hydroxylamines, 1659
from reduction of nitro compounds, 1659
from reduction of nitroso compounds, 1659
rearrangement with acid, 1464
reduction with PPh_3, 1557
reduction with Zn-HCl, 1559
Azoxybenzenes, from aromatic nitro compounds, 1553
Azulene
and aromaticity, 54
photochemistry, 315
Azulenyl nitrones, spin traps, 239

B strain, see strain
Bacillus stearothermophilus, and oxidation of alcohols, 1517
Back strain, see strain
Backside attack, and S_N2, 390
Bacterial monooxygenases, asymmetric oxidation, 1590 (ref. 457)

Baeyer test, for **alkenes**, 1049
Baeyer-Villiger reaiTangement, 1417-1418
and the **Dakin** reaction, 1528
in competition with epoxidation, 1052
Bakelite polymers, 720
Baker-Nathan effect, 72
Baker-Nathan order
and electrophilic aromatic substitution, 685
and nucleophilic substitution, 437
Bakers yeast
and reduction of alkenes, 1004
and reduction of aromatic nitro compounds, 1553
and reduction of azides, 1555
and reduction of ketones, 1200
and reduction of **oximes**, 1554
$B_{AL}1$ mechanism, and ester hydrolysis, 473
$B_{AL}2$ mechanism, and ester hydrolysis, 473
Baldwin's rules, 282-284
and radical cyclization, 978, 986, 1040
Balz-Schiemann reaction, 875
Bamberger rearrangement, 878
Bamford-Steven reaction, 1335
Barbaralane, 1448
Barbier reaction, 1205, 1210
Barbier-Wieland procedure, 1526
Barbituric acid, 514
Barrelene, 136, 1502 (ref. 664)
Bartell **MUB-2** force field calculations, 179
Barton reaction, 1463
Barton-McCombie reaction, 527
Base catalyzed reactions, 337
Base strength
amines, 346, 349
and F strain, 346
and face strain, 346
and hybridization, 348-349
and reaction medium, **349–351**
and resonance effects, 344
and solvation, 349
and steric effects, 347
and structure, 342-349
definition, 327
entropy effect, 347
hydrogen bond scale, 332
table, 332
Bases
and Br0nsted theory, 327-38
and catalysis, 336-338
as proton acceptors, 327
dialkylamides, and structure, 348
for formation of ketone enolate anions, **551**
for preparing alkyne anions, 561
formation of enolate anions, 548
hard and soft, 340
hardness, table, 340
HMPA and aggregation effects, 349
proton sponges, 347
reaction with **non-enolizable** ketones, 814
Basicity
ambident nucleophiles, 460
and ambident nucleophiles, 460
and carbanions, 227-228
and hydrogen bonding, 99
and leaving group ability, 445
Basis sets, for the **Diels-Alder** reaction, **1070**
Basketane, 1502 (ref. 655)
Baylis-Hillman reaction, 1212
9-BBN, 1013
B-alkyl derivatives, with CO and reducing agents, 1424
reaction of **enamines**, 530, 1014
reduction of conjugated carbonyl compounds, 1200
Beckmann rearrangement, 1349, 1381, 1384, 1415-1416
and the Neber rearrangement, **1410**
and the Ritter reaction, 1416
and the Schmidt rearrangement, 1416
migratory aptitudes, 1415
Beilstein, 1605, 1614
Benedict's solution, oxidation of aldehydes, 917
Benkeser reduction, 1012
Bent bonds, and cyclopropane, **181**
Benz(*h*)isoquinoline, and *Chemical Abstracts*, 1613
Benzamide, hydrolysis of, 427
1,3,4-tri-*t*-Butylbenzene, 189
Benzene derivatives, see aromatic compounds
Benzene oxide, by Cope rearrangement, 1448
Benzene
canonical forms, 32
Dewar, 32, 1083, 1090, 1433, 1449
dihydroxylation of, **1050**
electron donor-acceptor complexes, 103
electrophilic aromatic substitution, product distributions, 693
from acetylene, 1089
from cyclohexane, 1510
heat of **atomization**, 35
heat of hydrogenation, 35
MO, and electrophilic aromatic substitution, 683
molecular orbitals, 33
multiple substituents, and electrophilic aromatic substitution, 687
ozonolysis of, 1523

phenonium ion from, charge distribution, 685
reaction with alkenes, 1093
reaction with carbenes, 1087
reaction with *Pseudomonas putida*, 1050
resonance energy, 35, 49
UV spectra, 311
valence bond isomers, 1084
Benzenediazonium chloride, 816
Benzenonium ion, 678
charge distribution, 685
from diazonium salts, 853
Benzhydryl chloride, 396
Benzhydryl *p*-toluenesulfonate, hydrolysis of, 465
Benzidine rearrangement, 1455-1456
and semidines, 1455
and sigmatropic rearrangements, 1456
Benzil, 1403
reaction with Grignard reagents, 1208
Benzil-benzylic acid rearrangement, 1403
Benzocyclobutene, 45
Benzocycloheptatrienyl anion, and antiaromaticity, 62
Benzocyclopropene, 45, 186
Benzofurans, from cyclization with low valent titanium, 1562
Benzoic acid derivatives, see carboxylic acids, aryl
Benzoic acid, from toluene, 1527
Benzoin condensation, 1240, 1243
Benzoins, 1243, 1403
Benzophenone, and photochemistry, 321
Benzophenone-4-carboxylic acid, 1532
Benzothiazoles, and reaction with organolithium reagents, 1029
n-Benzoylnorephedrine, 366
Benzvalene, 1449
Benzyl alcohols
reaction with phosgene, 483
substitution with chloride ion, 457
Benzyl chloroformates, from amines, 507
Benzyl ethers, selective cleavage, 520
Benzyl intermediates, energy levels, 56
Benzylammonium salts, reaction with sodium amide, 877
Benzylic acid, 1403
Benzylic cations, 222
Benzylic cations, also see carbocations
Benzylic radicals, 902
Benzynes, 854
and E1cB elimination, 1310
and the Diels-Alder reaction, 855
in the Diels-Alder reaction, 1062
mechanism, 864
mechanism, substrate effects, 859
reaction with anthracene, 1063
resonance contributors, 855
Bergman cyclization, 1432, 1447
Betaines
and the Wittig reaction, 1234
from epoxides and phosphines, 1235
from homologation of aldehydes and ketones, 1407
Betweenanenes, 186
Biaryls
by the Gomberg reaction, 928
by the Gomberg-Bachmann reaction, 928
by the Scholl reaction, 711
by the Ullman reaction, 870
from aromatic compounds, 933
from aryl diazonium salts, 928, 937
from aryl halides, 870, 933
preparation of, 711
Bicyclic compounds
and cis/trans isomers, 162-163
and memory effects, 1386
and the S_N1 reaction, 397, 764
solvolysis, 1386
Bicyclobutane, 183
Bicyclobntanes
and σ-bond rearrangements, 1460
reaction with silver tetrafluoroborate, 1460
Bicyclohexenes, 183
Bicyclopentanes, 182–183
Bicyclopropenyl, 1449
Bicyclopropyl systems, 1459
Bicyclopropyls, 1085
Bicyclo[2.2.1]hept-2,3-en-7-ones, heating, 1347
Bicyclo[2.2.1]hept-2-ene, see norbornene
Bicyclo[2.2.2] compounds, and E2 elimination, 1303
Bicyclo[2.2.2]octylmethyl tosylate, 437
Bicyclo[3.1.0]hexyl-6-tosylate, *exo*-, 1435
Bicyclo[3.2.0]hept-2-en-6-yl acetate, *endo*-, 1442
Bicyclo[3.2.0]heptane, 162
Bicyclo[3.2.2]non-l-ene, 188
Bicyclo[4.1.0]hexan-4-one, reaction with SmI_2, 1408
Bicyclo[4.2.1]non-l(8)ene, 188
Bicyclo[4.2.2]dec-3-ene, 188
Bifurcated hydrogen bonds, 99
Bimolecular mechanism, 759—763
Bimolecular, S_N2 mechanism, 390
BINAP, 1267 (ref. 321)
and reaction of boranes with conjugated ketones, 1032
and reduction of aldehydes and ketones, 1201

1,1′-Binaphthyl, resolution, 153
Binaphthyl, 712
BINOL, and reaction of epoxides with **ammonia,** 504
Biochemical processes, and resolution, 153
Biosynthesis, lanosterol, 1019
Biphenylene, 1077
Biphenylenediol, and hydrogen bonding, 100
Biphenyls
and **atropisomerism,** 132
and optical activity, **131–132**
diamino, 1455
Biradicals, see radicals
Birch **reduction,** 1010-1011
and **alkenes,** 1008
Bis amides, by the Ugi reaction, 1252
Bis(2-methoxyethoxy)aluminum hydride, sodium, **see Red-Al**
Bis(diphenylphosphino)ethane, see dppe
Bis(picolinato)iron (II), 1532
Bis(*s*-collidine)iodine (I) **tetrafluoroborate,** 1539
Bisamides, **1187**
Bischler-Napieralski reaction, 721
Bismuth trichloride, and the **Knoevenagel** reaction, 1226
Bisperoxides, and ozonolysis, 1523
Bisphenol, by hydroxyalkylation, 719
Bisulfite addition products, **1185**
reaction with cyanide, 1240
Bisulfite, reaction with aldehydes or **ketones, 1185**
Blaise reaction, 1213
Boat conformation, 172
and the Cope rearrangement, 1446
fused ring aromatics, 45
in benzene derivatives, 44
Boekelheide reaction, 1421
Bond angles, 21-22
and E2 elimination, 1303
and hybridization, **21**
and radical abstraction, 903
in strained molecules, **21**
table, **21**
Bond dissociation energy
and radicals, 900
HX and RX, 911
Bond distance, 18-21
Bond distance, also see bonding
Bond distances in benzenediazonium chloride, **816**
Bond energy, see energy, bond
heat of combustion, 24
Bond length, and cross-conjugation, 40
and strain, **184**
picryl iodide, 43
Bond moments, 15-16
Bond order
benzene, 34
naphthalene, 49
valence bond, and Birch reduction, **1011**
Bond **polarization,** 16-18
Bond rotation
and NMR, 295
and temperature, 295
Bonding
and bent bonds, 181
and double bonds, 9
and influence of Si on bond distance, 19
and radicals, 244
and van de **Waals** forces, 98
bond distance, 18-21
bond distances, table, 19, 20
bond length and bond energy, 24
bond length, butadiene, 37
charge-transfer bonding, 104
coordinate covalent, **13**
covalent, 3-6, **13**
delocalized, 32
delocalized, molecule type, 36-39
hydrogen, see hydrogen bonding
in benzene, 32-34
in cyclopropane, **181**
in diatomic **nitrogen, 11**
in electron donor-acceptor complexes, 103
in ethene, 8-9
in ethyne, 9-10
in Grignard reagents, 234
in methane, 8, 10
in triple bonds, 9
ionic, 15
multiple, 8-10
π, 9
pπ-dπ, 45
Bonds
axial, 172
conjugated, in butadiene, 36
energy, **312**
equatorial, 172
heterolytic cleavage, 274
homolytic cleavage, 275
rotation and conformation, 167-178
Boolean operator, 1633
Boord reaction, 1344
9-Borabicyclo[3.3.1]nonane, see 9-BBN
Boradioxolanes, **from** boranes and CO, 1422
Borane
complex with THF, 1014
ease of reduction of functional groups, **1546**

reaction with acrolein, 1031
reaction with alkenes, isomerization, 773
reaction with alkynes, 798
reaction with amines and CO, 801
reaction with conjugated compounds, 1031
reaction with methyl vinyl ketone, 1031
reduction of nitro compounds, 1554
Borane-dimethyl sulfide
and reduction of nitriles, 1204
reaction of conjugated carbonyls, 1200
reduction of enamines, 530
Boranes
and formation of alkenes, 1338
and inversion of configuration, 798
and reduction of aldehydes or ketones, 1200
and reduction of carboxylic acids, 1549
and reduction of iodo azides, 1046
and Wilkinson's catalyst, 1016
BINAP and reaction with conjugated ketones, 1032
coupling of, 939
cyclic, from dienes, 1015
disiamylborane, 1012
formation from alkenes, 1014
Boranes
from borinates with organometallic compounds, 1660
from boron halides and Grignard reagents, 1660
from exchange boranes and alkenes, 1660
from hydroboration of alkenes or alkynes, 1660
from migration of boron, 1660
hydrolysis of, 796
migration of boron, 1409
optically active, 1014, 1210-1211
optically active, borolanes, 1015
oxidation with $NaOH-H_2O_2$, 1016
oxidation with peroxyacids, 1016
Boranes
reaction with alkenes, 1012, 1014, 1338
reaction with alkenes, regioselectivity, 1013
reaction with alkyne anions, 1425
reaction with alkynes, 1015, 1339
reaction with ammonia-NaOCl, 799
reaction with basic hydrogen peroxide, 796
reaction with boranes, 939
reaction with bromoketones, 559-560
reaction with carboxylic acids, 1005
reaction with chloramine, 800
reaction with CO, 1422–1423
reaction with diazo compounds, 561
reaction with enolate dianions, 1424
reaction with halo carbonyl compounds, 560
reaction with haloalkynes, 1425
reaction with halogen, 798
reaction with hydroperoxide anion, 797
reaction with NaCN, 1423
Boranes
thexylborane, 1012
vinyl, 798, 939, 1015
vinyl, coupling, 939
vinyl, reaction with carboxylic acids, 1005
vinyl, reaction with iodine and NaOH, 1424
Borates, in borane reduction of aldehydes or ketones, 1200
Borinates, enol, see enol borinates
Borohydride, sodium, conjugate reduction, 1008
Borolanes, chiral boranes, 1015
Boron trifluoride, 7, 339
reaction with mesitylene and ethyl fluoride, 678
Boronic acids
aryl, coupling with aryl diazonium salts, 938
reaction with aryl triflates, 868
Boronic esters
reaction with halogen, 798
reaction with organolithium reagents, 1424
Bouveault reaction, 1214
Bouveault-Blanc reaction, 1199, 1551
Boyland-Sims oxidation, 724
Bradsher reaction, 720
Bredt's rule, 188
and decarboxylation, 810
and elimination reactions, 1314
and pyrolytic elimination, 1325
Bridged carbocations, see nonclassical ions
Bridged compounds, cis/trans isomers, 161-163
Bridged free radicals, 899
Bridgehead atoms
and Bredt's rule, 188
effect on nucleophilic substitution, 437
Bridgehead carbons
and radical reactions, 894
and S_E2 reactions, 761
and the S_N1 reaction, 764
Bridging compounds, out-in isomers, 163
Bromides, also see halides
Bromides, aryl, by the Sandmeyer reaction, 936
Bromination
allylic, by reaction with NBS, 911
of alkenes, 971, 981-982, 1041, 1509
of alkynes, 1042
of hydrocarbons, 907-911
of ketones and aldehydes, 776
Wohl-Ziegler, 911
Bromine
and NBS, 913
and the Hunsdiecker reaction, 942-943

Bromine *(Continued)*
reaction with **1,2-dimethylcyclohexene,** 974
reaction with aldehydes, 914
reaction with aldehydes and triphenyl phosphite, 1196
reaction with **alkenes, 971, 981–982, 1041, 1509**
reaction with **alkynes,** 1042
reaction with anthracene, 50
reaction with aromatic compounds, 704
reaction with boranes, 798
reaction with carboxylic acids, 777
reaction with dicarboxyacetylene, 973
reaction with ethene, 973
reaction with hydrocarbons, **907–911**
reaction with **ketones** and aldehydes, 775
reaction with **maleic** acid, 972
reaction with metal ketones, 813
reaction with silver carboxylates, 942-943
Bromo acids
by the **Hell-Volhard-Zelenskii** reaction, 777
from carboxylic acids, 777
Bromo esters
and the Blaise reaction, 1213
in the **Reformatsky** reaction, 1212
substitution with esters and Zn, 1213
Bromo ketones, reaction with boranes, 559-560
l-Bromo-l,2-dichloroethene, 157
2-Bromopentane, Zaitsev elimination, 1318
2-Bromopropane, bond angles, 21
3-Bromo-2-butanol, reaction with **HBr,** 405, **411**
α-Bromoacetophenone, 436
***cis*-2-Bromostilbene,** 1301
N-Bromosuccinimide, see **NBS**
***o*-Bromoanisole,** reaction with amide anion, 854
***p*-Bromobenzenesulfonate,** leaving group, 446
***p*-Bromotoluene,** nitration and the **ortho** effect, 688
Bromoamines, from amines, **819**
Bromobenzene, reaction with **organolithium** reagents, 699
Bromoform
by the haloform reaction, 813
flash photolysis of, 249
Bromolactamization, 1043
Bromonium ions, 405, 407, 971
Bromonium ion, ***ab initio*** MO studies, 973
N-romosuccinimide, see **NBS**
Br0nsted catalysis equation, 337
Br0nsted coefficient, and acetal hydrolysis, 466
Br0nsted equation, and E2C elimination, **1313**
Br0nsted law, and the Marcus equation, 338
Br0nsted relation, **371**
Br0nsted theory, 327-328
Brosylate, leaving group, 446
Brucine, and resolution, 151
Bucberer reaction, 861, 865
Buckminsterfullerene, 70-71
Buckyballs, see fullerenes
Buffers, and the **Baeyer-Villiger** rearrangement, 1417
Bullvalene, 1448
Bullvalenes, aza-, 1493 (ref. 521)
Bunnett-Olsen equation, 335
Bunte salts
from **alkyl** halides and **thiosulfate** ion, 1660
hydrolysis of, **495, 498**
preparation of, 498
reaction with nucleophiles, 498
1,3-butadiene, and photochemistry, 310
bond electron density, 37
conjugated bonds, 36
dimerization, 1091
invalid resonance form, 41
photochemical reactions, 1081
resonance contributors, 37
resonance energy, 37
trimerization of, **1091**
Butane
and gauche conformation, 169-170
conformational energy diagram, **170**
Butanediol, 290
2-Buten-1-ol, reaction with **$SOCl_2$,** 422
3-Buten-2-ol, reaction with **$SOCl_2$, 422**
***cis*-2-Butene,** 290
***t*-Butoxide,** potassium, 232
***sec*-Butyl** tosylate, solvolysis, 419
***t*-Butyl** radical, 1390
***t*-Butylamides,** hydrolysis, 476
***t*-Butylbenzene, nitration,** and the **ortho/para** ratio, 686
***t*-Butylbenzoic** acids, acid **strength,** 346
***t*-Butylbutyl** radical, 244
***t*-Butylhydroperoxide,** in Sharpless epoxidation, 1053
***t*-Butyllithium,** 234
***t*-Butyllithium** mixed aggregates, 237
***t*-Butylpyridines,** base strength, 347
***t*-Butylthionitrate,** reaction with ketones, 780
Butylamine, diazotization reactions, 448
Butyllithium, 236
reaction with bromobenzene, 699
reaction with thionolactones, **1215**

c and *r* nomenclature, **161**
C=N compounds
hydrolysis of, reagents, **1177**
reaction with **HCN,** 1240

Cadiot-Chodkiewicz reaction, 927
Cadmium, and aryl carboxylic acid decarboxylation, 733
Cage compounds, 109
Cage compounds, also see inclusion componnds
Cahn-Ingold-Prelog system, see CIP system
Calcium hydroxide, in the Tollens' reaction, 1231
Calixaromatic compounds, 106, 935
and chirality, 136
Cambridge structural database, 99
Camphene, 1394
Camphenilone, 232
Camphor, 162
Cannizzaro reaction, 463, 1200, 1508, 1564-1565
crossed, 1219, 1564
crossed, and the Tollens' reaction, 1231
internal, 1565
with α-keto aldehydes, 1565
Canonical forms, 32
Caprolactam, see hexaydroazepin-2-one
Captodative compounds, and cis/trans isomers, 159
Captodative effects
and ESR, 242
and resonance, 60
in radicals, 242
Carbamates
by radical coupling, 934
by the Curtius rearrangement, 1660
by the Hofmann rearrangement, 1660
from alcohols, 1182-1183, 1660
from alkoxides, 1660
from alkyl halides, 489, 1660
from amides, 1660
from amines, 507, 820, 1660
from chloroformates, 1660
from cleavage of tertiary amines, 1660
from cyanogen chloride, 1183
from insertion by nitrenes, 1660
from isocyanates, 1182–1183, 1660
from nitro compounds, 1660
from nitroso compounds, 1660
from rearrangement of acyl azides, 1660
hydrolysis of, 474
lithiated allylic, and the Knoevenagel reaction, 1227
reaction with Grignard reagents, 568
reaction with isocyanic acid, 1183
reaction with phenyllithium, 1215
Carbamoyl chloride, reaction with aromatic compounds, 718
Carbanion, and inversion, 233
Carbanion, sulfone, reduction with $LiAlH_4$, 1355
Carbanions, 227-238
addition to alkenes, 1018
addition to dienes, 1018
allylic, 229
and basicity, 227-228
and conjugation, 229-230
and field effects, 231
and kinetic acidity, 228-229
and organometallics, 227
and planar shape, 233
and prochiral centers, 233
and pyramidal structure, 232
and racemization, 764
and *s* character, 228, 231
and solvation, 232
and sp^3 hybridization, 233
and stereochemistry, 233
and the Grovenstein-Zimmerman rearrangement, 1396
and the S_E1 reaction, 764
and thermodynamic acidity, 228
and ylids, 231
benzylic, 229
boron, reaction with aldehydes, 785
criteria for stability, 229-232
cyclopentadienyl, 230
enolate anions, 230
enolate anions and structure, 236-237
fate of, 237-238
from alkyltrimethylsilanes, 229
generation of, 237-238
homoenolate ions, 232
methyl, 229
nitro anions, 459
order of stability, 228
oxidation to radicals, 238
rate of isotopic exchange, 765
reaction with acyl halides, 569
reaction with alkyl halides, 548–551
silyl, reaction with aldehydes or ketones, 1228
stability of, 227-234
stability, order of, 229
stabilization by an aromatic ring, 231
stabilization by carbonyls, 230
stabilization by functional groups, 232
stabilization by nonadjacent rc-bond, 232
stabilization by S, Si, and P, 231
structure of, 227-234
vinyl, 233
vinyl, and the S_E1 mechanism, 766
vinyl, configuration, 766
Carbene, 319

Carbenes, 247-253
and carbynes, 249
and CIDNP, 791
and dimerization, 252
and formation of allenes, 1400
and Hund's rule, 248
and infrared, 1086
and phase transfer, 1085
and the Reimer-Tiemann reaction, 716
and the Wolff rearrangement, 252
and ultrasound, 789
and xray. 251
by α-elimination, 249
cis/trans isomerization, 249
disproportionation of, 790
enantioselectivity, 1086
fate of, 249-252
formation of cis/trans isomers, 248
formation of cyclopropanes, 248
from diazirines, 250
from diazo compounds and alcohols, 479
from ketenes, 250
from organometallics and alkyl halides, 807
generation of, 249-253
halo, see halocarbenes
halo, insertion reactions, 789
insertion reactions, 251, 788-791
insertion reactions, and radicals, 790
insertion, and absolute configuration, 790
intramolecular insertion, 789
metal and alkene metathesis, 1458
metal complexes, 1086
metal, and alkenylation reactions, 1238
metal, insertion reactions, 789
reaction with alkenes, 789, 1086
reaction with alkenes, stereochemistry, 1087
reaction with allenes, 1086
reaction with aromatic compounds, 1087
reaction with benzene, 1087
reaction with dienes, 1085
reaction with indoles, 1087
reaction with pyrroles, 1087
rearrangement of, 252, 1084
rearrangements, 1392
ring enlargement, 250-251
singlet, 248, 791, 1086
stability of, 247-249
stable, 251
stereospecific reactions, 248-249
structure of, 247-249
triplet, 248, 252, 791
triplet vs. singlet energy, 248
Carbenium ions, see carbocations
Carbenium ions, 219
Carbenoids
and insertion, 251
and the Simmons-Smith procedure, 1088
chiral, 249
definition, 250
diazo compounds and alcohols, 479
insertion reactions, 791
Carbobenzoxy chloride, from benzyl alcohol, 483
Carbocations, 218-227
2,3,3-trimethyl-2-butyl, 419
acyl, 223, 712-714
alkynyl, 430
allylic, 221
Carbocations
and acylation of alkenes, 784
and addition of alcohols to alkenes, 996
and addition of alkanes to alkenes, 1017
and cleavage of aromatic compounds, 730
and conjugate addition, 979
and dehydration of alcohols, 1328
and Demyanov reactions, 1398-1400
and electrophilic addition to alkenes, 971–972
and equilibria, 220
and Friedel-Crafts alkylation, 710
and hydration of alkenes, 994
and hydrogen bonding, 101-102
and hyperconjugation, 220
and isotope effects, 220
and Markovnikov's rule, 984
and NMR, 219, 225, 710
and nucleophilic rearrangements, 1378
and pinacol rearrangement, 1397
and reaction of alkenes with acids, 974
and σ-bond rearrangements, 1460
and SbF_5, 220
and spectroscopy, 219, 224, 710
and super acids, 219
and the field effect, 220
and the Koch-reaction, 564
and the Ritter reaction, 1244
and the S_N1 reaction, 393
and transetherification, 481
and Wagner-Meerwein rearrangements, 1393
and Wheland intermediates, 676
Carbocations
arenium ions, 222
aryl, 929
benzylic, 222
bridged, 407-420
bridged, also see nonclassical ions
bridgehead, 224-225
by addition, 227

by alkyl halide hydrolysis, 366
cyclobutylmethyl, reaiTangement of, 418
cyclopropyl, 438
cyclopropyl, ring opening, 1434
cyclopropyl-allyl, 1399
cyclopropylmethyl, 417
cyclopropylmethyl, rearrangement of, 417, 1398
definition, 218
degenerate, 1380
delocalization and stability, 221
delocalization, table, 221
dications, 222
dissociation energies, table, 224
double bond migrations, 772
Carbocations
from alkyl halides, 564
from alkyl halides and Lewis acids, 710
from cleavage of hydrocarbons, 814
from diazonium salts, 787, 1394
from diazotized amines, 1382
from diazotized isobutylamine, 1383
Carbocations
homoallylic, 408
hydride shifts and NMR, 1379
in S_N1 reactions, detection of, 396
intramolecular insertion, 787
Markovnikov's rule and Friedel Crafts alkylation, 710
memory effects, 1386
migratory aptitude and anchimeric assistance, 1385
migratory aptitude of aryl groups, 1386
nonclassical, 407-420, 1387
norbornyl, 1394
order of stability, 219
phenyl and vinyl, 223
pK_{R+}, 224
propargyl cations, 222
propeller shaped, 225
reaction with hydrocarbons, 786
Carbocations
rearrangement and Friedel-Crafts alkylation, 709
rearrangement of, 227, 407-420, 786 1379, 1382, 1386
resonance stabilized, and conjugate addition, 980
Carbocations
stability, 1384, 1395
stability and structure, 219-225
stability with cyclopropyl groups, 222-223
stability, and alkene addition reactions, 984
stability, and Markovnikov's rule, 984
stability, and the S_N1 reaction, 395
stability, quantitative treatment, 223--224
Carbocations
stabilization by α-substituents, 435
stabilization by heteroatoms, 223
symmetrically stabilized, 417
table of chemical shifts, 225
tight ion pairs, and Friedel-Crafts alkylation, 711
triarylmethyl, 225
trications, 222
twisted, 1387
vinyl, 430
vinyl, and Friedel-Crafts alkylation, 711
vinyl, from alkynes, 975
Carbodiimides
from addition of isocyanates to isocyanates, 1660
from isocyanates, 1246
Carbohydrates
and the anomeric effect, 176--177
and the Kiliani-Fischer synthesis, 1240
Carbon acids, 328
Carbon acids, also see acids
Carbon dioxide
extrusion from peroxides, 1354
extrusion in the Story synthesis, 1355
reaction with alkoxides, 1184
reaction with amines and iodoethane, 820
reaction with Grignard reagents, 1215
reaction with organolithium reagents, 801
reaction with phenoxides, 718
reaction with phosphorus ylids, 1237
supercritical, and Diels-Alder reactions, 1066
supercritical, as a solvent, 454
Carbon disulfide
and reduction of hydroxylamines, 1554
reaction with alcohols, 1184
reaction with amines, 1192
reaction with Grignard reagents, 1215
reaction with ketones, 1229
Carbon monoxide
and double carbonylation, 565
and retro Diels-Alder reactions, 1347
and the Koch or Koch-Haaf reactions, 1035
extrusion from ketones, 1347
reaction with alkenes and amines, 1035
reaction with alkenes and formic acid, 1035
reaction with alkenes and H_2, 1037
reaction with alkenes and water, 1035
reaction with alkyl halides and alcohols, 564
reaction with amines, 820
reaction with aryl halides and alcohols, 870

Carbon monoxide *(Continued)*
reaction with boranes, 1422-1423
reaction with organolithium reagents, 801
reaction with RLi and ketones, 1207
reaction with tetracarbonylferrate, 563
reaction with vinylmercury halides, 801
Carbon nucleophiles, see carbanions
Carbon nucleophiles, also see nucleophiles
Carbon tetrabromide
and PPh_3, alkenylation, 1233
dipole moment, 16
Carbon, ^{14}C, and isotopic labeling, 289
Carbon, trigonal, and the tetrahedral mechanism, 424
Carbonate esters, see esters, carbonate
Carbonates
from alcohols, 483
from alcoholysis of phosgene, 1660
from alkyl halides and carbonate salts, 1660
magnesium, reaction with ketones, 1229
Carbonium ions, 218
Carbonium ions, see carbocations
Carbonyl nitrenes, insertion reactions, 782
Carbonyl oxides, as 1,3-dipoles, 1060
Carbonylation
of alkenes, 1035
of alkyl halides, 565
Carbonylations, double, 565
Carbonyls, stabilization of carbanions, 230
Carboxylate anions
and leaving gronps, 449
and resonance, 344
decarboxylation of, 810
Carboxylate salts, see carboxylic acid salts
Carboxylate salts, and decarboxylation, 732
Carboxylates, ammonium, conversion to anhydrides, 491
Carboxylation, of aromatic rings, 718
Carboxylation, of phenoxides, 718
Carboxylations, by the Kolbe-Schmitt reaction, 718
Carboxylic acid esters, see esters
Carboxylic acid salts
acylation of, 572
alkylation with, 488
and phase transfer catalysts, 488
by the Cannizzaro reaction, 1564
coupling, 941-942
electrolysis of, 941-942
from aldehydes, 1564
from esters, 521
from Grignard reagents, 796
pyrolysis of, 508
reaction with acyl halides, 490
reaction with alkyl chlorosulfites, 489
reaction with alkyl halides, 488
reaction with BrCN or C1CN, 1246
reaction with LDA, 572
reaction with mesylates, 489
reaction with onium salts, 489
reaction with alkyl halides, 555
silver, and dihydroxylation of alkenes, 1049
silver, and the Hunsdiecker reaction, 942-943
silver, and the Simonini reaction, 943
silver, reaction with bromine, 942-943
silver, reaction with iodine, 943
Carboxylic acids, amino, see amino acids
Carboxylic acids
and acylation of alkenes, 784
and dissolving metal reduction, 532
and the Passerini reaction, 1252
and transesterification, 487
aryl, by hydrolysis of aryl nitriles, 876
aryl, by the von Richter rearrangement, 876
aryl, decarboxylation of, 732
aryl, decarboxylation, and rearrangements, 733
aryl, from aromatic compounds, 718
aryl, from aromatic nitro compounds, 876
aryl, reaction with Li/THF, 1563
Carboxylic acids
by cleavage of ethers, 1537
by Favorskii rearrangement, 1403
by oxidative cleavage of ketones or aldehydes, 1521
by tetracarbonylferrate, 565
by the Arndt-Eistert rearrangement, 1661
by the Barbier-Wieland procedure, 1526
by the Cannizzaro reaction, 1662
by the haloform reaction, 813
by the Koch reaction, 564, 1035
by the Koch-Haaf reaction, 1035
by the Kolbe-Schmitt reaction, 1661
by the malonic ester synthesis, 1661
by the Perkin reaction, 1229
by the von Richter reaction, 1661
by the Willgerodt reaction, 1662
by the Wittig reaction, 1237
Carboxylic acids
coupling with allylic acetates, 944
decarboxylation of, 808
dehydration of, 491
dianions, 555
dianions, reaction with esters, 572
esterification of, 484-486
Carboxylic acids
from 1,1-dichloroethene, 1661

from acyl halides, 1405
from alcohols, 1537
from aldehydes, 917, 1229
from aldehydes and base, 1662
fromalkenes, 1035-1036, 1661
from alkyl halides, 564, 1661
from alkynes, 1523, 1539, 1540
from anhydrides, 1229
from aromatic compounds, 1527, 1661
from aryl halides, 1661
fromboranes, 1424, 1661
from carbon dioxide, 1215, 1661
from carboxylate ions, 1661
from cleavage of P-diketones, 1661
from cleavage of p-keto esters, 1661
from cleavage of carboxylic esters, 1661
from cleavage of ketones. 1661
from cleavage of nonenolizable ketones, 1661
from cleavage of secondary alcohols, 1661
from CO, 1661
from decarboxylation of dicarboxylic acids, 1661
from diazoketones, 1405
from diazonium fluoroborates, 1661
from enolate dianions, 1424
from esters, 549
from fragmentation of certain oximes, 1661
from Grignard reagents, 1215, 1661
from halo ketones, 1403
from hydrocarbons, 564
from hydrolysis of 1,1,1-trihalides, 1660
from hydrolysis of acyl halides, 1660
from hydrolysis of amides, 1661
from hydrolysis of anhydrides, 1661
from hydrolysis of carboxylic esters, 1661
from hydrolysis of nitriles, 1661
from hydrolysis of ortho esters, 1660
from hydrolysis of oxazines, 1661
from hydrolysis of primary nitro compounds, 1661
fromketenes, 1661
from methyl ketones, 813
from nitriles, 1179
from oxazolines, 559
from oxidation of 1,1-diboranes, 1661
from oxidation of aldehydes, 1661
from oxidation of amines, 1662
from oxidation of aromatic side chains, 1662
from oxidation of aryl ketones, 1662
from oxidation of arylthioalkynes, 1662
from oxidation of ethers, 1662
from oxidation of ozonides, 1661
from oxidation of primary alcohols, 1662
from oxidative cleavage of α-diketones, 1661
from oxidative cleavage of α-keto acids, 1661
from oxidative cleavage of alkenes, 1525–1526, 1661
from oxidative cleavage of aromatic rings, 1661
from oxidative cleavage of terminal alkynes, 1661
from ozonolysis of alkenes, 1522
from ozonolysis of alkynes, 1661
from Petasis alkenylation, 1661
from phosphoranes, 1661
from pyrolysis of carboxylic esters, 1661
from pyrolysis of esters, 1329
from rearrangement of α-halo ketones, 1661
from rearrangement of aromatic carboxylate ions, 1661
from rearrangement of aromatic nitro compounds, 1661
from rearrangement of diazo ketones, 1661
from reductive cleavage of carboxylic esters, 1661
from Tebbe alkenylation, 1661
from the haloform reaction, 1661
from unsaturated carboxylic acids, 1661
Carboxylic acids
gas phase acidity, 350
methylation with Me_3Al, 1214
monoesters, 483, 487
oxidation with peroxides, 1542
oxidative decarboxylation, 1528
pyrolysis with ThO_2, 573
Carboxylic acids
reaction with acyl halides, 523
reaction with alcohols, 484-486
reaction with alkenes, 997
reaction with alkynes, 998
reaction with ammonia, 508
reaction with boranes, 1005
reaction with bromine, 777
reaction with carbonyls and isonitriles, 1251
reaction with copper, 732
reaction with diazo compound, 490
reaction with diazomethane, 490
reaction with dimethylformamide acetals, 489
reaction with enol esters, 491
reaction with esters, 491
reaction with ethers, 486
reaction with heterocycles, 933
reaction with hydrazoic acid, 1413
reaction with LDA, 555
reaction with lead tetraacetate and cupric acetate, 1528
reaction with NBS or NCS, 778

Carboxylic acids *(Continued)*
reaction with organolithium reagents, 568
reaction with oxalyl chloride, 523
reaction with P_4S_{10} and alcohols, 1184
reaction with pyridine, 933
reaction with quinolines, 933
reaction with thionyl chloride, 523
reaction with vinyl boranes, 1005
Carboxylic acids
reduction with borane, 1549
reduction with Li and amines, 532
reduction with $LiAlH_4$, 1549
selective reduction, 533
table of pK_as, 343
thermolysis of, 1327
Carboxylic esters, see esters
Carbyne, 249
Carcerand, and cyclobutadiene, 59
Carcerands. and inclusion compounds, 111
Caro's acid, 1539
p-Carotene, 1236
Carvone, photochemistry of, 1082
Carvonecamphor, 1082
CAS registry numbers, 1632
Catalysis
acid-base, 336-338
and mechanism, 289
and the Br0nsted relation, 371
and the Marcus equation, 337
base catalyzed reactions, 337
basic, of S_NAr reactions, 852
Br0nsted catalysis equation, 337
general, 336-337
in the Diels-Alder reaction, 1065
in the tetrahedral mechanism, 427
of keto-enol tautomerism, 774
phase transfer, 454-456
phase transfer, see phase transfer catalysis
specific, 336-337
specific acid, 337
Catalysts
and σ-bond rearrangements, 1459
base, and the Knoevenagel reaction, 1225
chiral, quinidine, 1249
for alkene metathesis, 1457
for amine alkylation, 501
for dihydroxylation of alkenes, 1049
for Friedel-Crafts reaction, 708
for hydrogenation, 1003
for preparation of aryl halides, 502
for the Cope rearrangement, 1446
for the ene reaction, 1022
for the Mukaiyama aldol reaction, 1223
heterogeneous, 1003
hydrogenation, and aromatization, 1510
hydrogenation, for aldehydes or ketones, 1198
Lindlar, 1004
nucleophilic, pyridine, 576
of [2+2]-cycloadditions, 1083
optical active, and the Prins reaction, 1242
palladium, see palladium catalysts
Rosenmund, 1005
Catalytic hydrogenation, see hydrogenation
Catechol, 1632
Catechol, oxidation to quinones, 1518
Catecholborane, 798, 1015
Catechols, oxidative cleavage, 1527
Catenanes, 113–114
and chirality, 136
and topological stereoisomers, 114
by acyloin condensation, 1563
definition, 113
from acyloin condensation or other methods, 1663
Möbius strip mechanism, 113
Cation exchange resins, and acetal hydrolysis, 467
Cation radicals, 247
and the Diels-Alder reaction, 1065
Cationic Diels-Alder reactions, 1065
Cationotropic rearrangements, 1377
Cations, see carbocations
Cations
acyl, 223
radical, aminium, 909
Cavitation, and ultrasound, 456
Cbz, see carbobenzoxy
Cellosolve, 481
Center of symmetry, 127–128
Centrohexacyclines, 213
Ceric ammonium nitrate, reaction with epoxides and NH4SCN, 1248
Cerium trichloride, reaction with organolithium reagents, 1215
Chain reactions
and substitution, 403
radical, 895
radical addition to alkenes, 977
radical and pyrolytic elimination, 1324
Chair conformation, 172
and the Cope rearrangement, 1446
Chair-to-chair interconversion, 173
Channel-type complexes, and cyclodextrins, 113
Chapman rearrangement, 1464
Charge distribution, in benzenonium ion, 685
Charge transfer UV peak, and ionizing power, 453
Charge-transfer spectrum, EDA complexes, 102

Chelation, in reactions of ketones with magnesium methyl carbonates, 1229
Cheletropic reactions, 1342
Chemical Abstracts, 1611
Chemical processes, photochemical, 317-321
Chemical reactivity
and microwave irradiation, 457
and ultrasound, 456-458
Chemical shifts, table, for carbocations, 225
Chemically induced dynamic nuclear polarization, see CIDNP
Chemoselectivity
definition, 525
epoxide reduction, 529
hydride reduction of aldehydes and ketones, 1198
in Grignard reactions, 1206
Chichibabin reaction, 873
Chiral additives
in the Michael reaction, 1023
in the Reformatsky reaction, 1212
reaction of amines and diazoalkanes, 1217
sparteine, with organolithium reagents, 1215
Chiral auxiliaries
in addition of organolithium reagents to imines, 1216
in the Reformatsky reaction, 1212
Chiral auxiliary, 149
Chiral axes, 131-134
Chiral carbenoids, 249
Chiral catalysts
and synthesis, 150
quinidine, 1249
Chiral centers, from reduction of ketones, 1200
Chiral pool, 147
Chiral recognition, 152
Chiral solvents
and NMR, 156
and synthesis, 150
Chiral templates, and conjugate additions, 1029
Chirality, 125-139
Chirality, also see absolute configuration
Chirality transfer, and [2,3]-sigmatropic rearrangement, 1454
Chirality
and adamantanes, 131
and allenes, 133-134
and amines, 129-130
and asymmetric carbons, 128
and atropisomers, 132
and biphenyls, 131-132
and calixaromatic compounds, 136
and catenanes, 136
and crown ethers, 136
and helical shape, 134
and helicenes, 134-135
and metallocenes, 135
and molecular knots, 136
and paracyclophanes, 135-136
and rotaxanes, 136
and spiranes, 134
and stereogenic atoms, 128
and stereoisomers, 125-139
and tervalent atoms, 129
and Tröger's base, 130
categories of optically active compounds, 128-136
definition, 125
helical, 134-135
levo and dextro isomers, 125
pseudoasymmetric carbons, 145
Chiraphos, 1029
Chloramine, reaction with boranes, 800
Chloramine-T
reaction with alkenes, 1056
reaction with alkenes and iodine, 1058
Chloranil, 1511
Chlorides, see halides
Chlorides
acyl, and leaving groups, 449
Chlorides, acyl, from aldehydes, 914
acyl, reduction to aldehydes, 533
alkyl, by sodium salt of alkyl sulfonic acids, 944
aryl, by the Sandmeyer reaction, 936
aryl, from aryl diazonium salts, 935
vinyl from dichlorides, 1195
vinyl, from PCl_5 with aldehydes or ketones, 1195
Chlorination
allylic, 914
of anisole, in cyclodextrin, 686
of aromatic rings, and arenium ions, 679
of hydrocarbons, 907–911
of ketones and aldehydes, 775
Chlorine
photochemical cleavage, 245
reaction with aldehydes, 914
reaction with alkenes, 1042
reaction with aromatic compounds, 704
reaction with hydrocarbons, 907–911
reaction with hydrocarbons and SO_2, 924
Chloro esters, see esters, chloro
Chloro ketones
and Favorskii rearrangement, 1403
rearrangement with base, 1403
1-Chloroethyne, reaction with arylthio anions, 430

1-Chlorocyclopropene, pyrolysis of, 1400
1-Chloroethene, bonding, 38
1α-Chloro-5-cholesten-3β-ol, 146
α-Chloroacetophenone, 436
m-Chloronitrobenzene, chlorination and the ortho effect, 688
m-Chloroperoxybenzoic acid
and fonnation of isocyanates, 516
reaction with alkenes, 1051
N-Chloroacetamides, rearrangement of, 728-729
N-Chloro-2-azabicyclo[2.2.2]octane, 1416
N-Chlorosuccinimide, see NCS
p-Chlorobenzhydryl chloride, 399
Chloroacetic acid, thermodynamic ionization values, 350
Chloroallene, 1400
Chloroamides, conversion to α-lactams, 514
Chloroamines,
from alkenes, 1045
from amines, 819
N-Chloroamines, see amines, N-chloro
Chloroanilines, by benzyne intermediates, 860
Chlorobenzene
reaction with amide bases, 854
resonance structures, 41
Chloroethane, bond polarization, 16
Chloroform
hydrolysis of, 464
reaction with amines, 506
reaction with phenoxide, 716
Chloroformates, alkyl, reduction of, 529
Chlorohydrins, from alkenes, 1043
Chloromalic acid, 150
Chloromethane, reaction with chloride ion, energy, 394
N-Chloromethyl lactams, reaction with amines, 500
Chloromethylation, of aromatic compounds, 721
Chloroquinones, vinyl substitution, 429
Chlorosuccinic acid, 391
N-Chlorosuccinimide, see NCS
Chlorosulfenation, 924
Chlorosulfites, alkyl, reaction with carboxylic acid salts, 489
Chlorosulfonation, of hydrocarbons, 924
Chlorosulfonyl isocyanate
reaction with alkenes, 1251
reaction with allenes, 1251
reaction with cyclopropenes, 1251
reaction with dienes, 1251
reaction with imines, 1251
Chlorosulfuric acid, reaction with aromatic compounds, 703
Chlorotrimethylsilane
and hydrogenolysis of alcohols, 527
and the acyloin condensation, 1562
reaction with alkenes, 992
Chlorotris(triphenylphosphine)rhodium, 1339
5α-Cholest-14-en-3α-ol, 1512
Cholest-6-en-3-one, 377
Cholesta-3,5-diene, 320
3α-Cholestanol, 1512
Cholic acid, and resolution, 152
Chromatography
and resolntion, 152
gas and resolution, 156
Chromic acid
and oxidation of alcohols, 1515
oxidation of hydrocarbons, 915
Chromium reagents
Collins' reagent, 1514
Jones reagent, 1514
oxidation of alcohols, 1514
Chromium trioxide
oxidation of primary alcohols, 1537
oxidative cleavage of alkenes, 1525
oxidative cleavage of ketones, 1521
reaction with polycyclic aromatics, 1535
Chromophore
and conjngation, 310
definition, 308
Chromyl chloride
and the Étard reaction, 1534
oxidation of methyl aryls, 1534
Chugaev reaction, 1330
CIDNP
and aromatic radical substitution, 898
and carbenes, 791
and coupling of organometallics with RX, 538
and fonnation of Grignard reagents, 806
and hydroformylation of alkenes, 1037
and intermediates, 288
and NMR, 240-241
and radicals, 240-241
and SET mechanisms, 403
and the Stevens rearrangement, 1420
in reactions of aromatic compounds and peroxides, 932
in reactions of organolithium reagents and alkyl halides, 808
Cieplak effect, 988
Cinchona alkaloids, and dihydroxylation of alkenes, 1050
Cine substitution, 854, 864
CIP method, and alkenes, 157
CIP rules

and diastereotopic atoms, 166
and enantiotopic atoms, 166
CIP system, 139-141
and Fischer projections, 141
Circular **dichroism,** and enantiomeric composition, 143
Circulene, 44
Circumambulatory rearrangements, 1440
Cis isomers, **156–163**
Cis/trans isomerization, and carbenes, 249
Cis/trans isomers, 156-163
Cis/trans isomers, also see alkenes
Cis/trans isomers, also see isomers
Cis/trans isomers
and alkenes, 157-160
and betweenanenes, **186**
and bridged compounds, **161–163**
and C=X units, 157-158
and captodative compounds, 159
and carbenes, 248
and **diastereomers,** 157-160
and E2 elimination, 1301, 1304
and electrophilic addition to alkenes, **971–972**
and elimination, 1317-1318,1333
and fused ring compounds, **161–163**
and **meso** compounds, 161
and **monocyclic** compounds, 160-161
and nomenclature, 157
and ozonolysis, 1524
and push-pull compounds, 159
and small rings, 158
and the Shapiro reaction, **1335**
strained molecules, 189
thermal interconversion, 158-159
Cisoid conformation, of dienes in the **Diels-Alder** reaction, 1064
Claisen condensation, 236, 552, 569-570
Claisen condensation, also see Dieckmann condensation
Claisen condensation, retro, **813**
Claisen reaction, 1224
and the Reformatsky reaction, **1224**
Claisen rearrangement, 1446, 1449-1452, 1454
abnormal products, 1450
amine-, 1452
and accompanying Cope rearrangement, 1450
and electronic effects, **1451**
and enantioselectivity, 1452
and enolene rearrangement, 1450
and Friedel-Crafts alkylation, 1452
and high pressure, 457
and homodienyl [1,5]-H **sigmatropic** shift, 1450
and substituent effects, 1451
and the Diels-Alder reaction, 1450
and the Willgerodt reaction, 1568
and [1,5] **homosigmatropic** rearrangement, 1450
Ireland-Claisen, 1452
mechanism, 1449-1450
para-, 1449
retro, 1450
thio-, 1452
with **allyl** vinyl ethers, 1452
with enolate anions, 1452
with propargyl vinyl ethers, 1452
Claisen-Schmidt reaction, **1221**
Clathrates, 109
Clathrates, see inclusion compounds
Clays
and acetal hydrolysis, 467
and azide formation, 515
and enamine formation, **1186**
and formation of nitriles, **1195**
and nitration of aromatic compounds, 697
and reductive alkylation of amines, **1188**
and the Friedel-Crafts reaction, 708
and transetherification, 481
Montmorillonite K-10, 457
Cleavage
and hydrogenation of **adamantanes, 815**
by Eschenmoser-Tanabe reaction, **1347**
Norrish type I, **1354**
of alkoxides, **811**
of **alkyl** groups from aromatic compounds, 730-731
of cyclobutanes, 1081
of Diels-Alder adducts, 1069
of diketones, **812**
of ethers, 489, 490, 1537
of hydrocarbons, with super acids, **814**
of keto esters, 812
of ketones, 813
of phosphonate esters, 1331
of **sulfo** groups from **aryl** sulfonic acids, 734-735
of tetrahydrofuran, 490
Cleavage, oxidative
by the Barbier-Wieland procedure, 1526
of alkenes, 1525-1526
of **amino** alcohols, 1520
of aromatic compounds, 1526
of **diamines,** 1520
of diketones, 1520
of diols, 1519-1521
of epoxides, 1520
of hydroxy aldehydes, 1520
of hydroxy ketones, 1520

Cleavage, oxidative *(Continued)*
of keto aldehydes, 1520
with ozone, 1522–1525
with the Lemieux-von Rudloff reagent, 1526
Cleavage
photochemical, 312
reductive, of N-allyl amines, 1559
Clemmensen reduction, 1547
Clorox, and oxidative cleavage of ketones and aldehydes, 1521
CNDO method, 34
Cobalt catalysts, and the Panson-Khand reaction, 1090
Cobalt salen complexes, and epoxidation of alkenes, 1053
Cobalt-salen catalysts, and epoxide hydrolysis, 468
Collidine, and LiI in reactions with esters, 522
Collins' reagent, 1514
Collman's reagent, 562
Combustion, heat of, 24
and elimination reactions, 1315
Common rings, and strain, 185
Common-ion effect, 395, 451
Compendium of Organic Synthetic Methods, 1628
Complexes
cobalt salen, and epoxidation of alkenes, 1053
crown ethers, 105-109
cryptates, 105-09
cyclobntadiene-nickel, 1090
EDA, in photochemical [2+2]-cycloadditions, 1082
electron donor-acceptor, 102-104
encounter, and electrophilic aromatic substitution, 680
hexacarbonyldicobalt-alkynes, 1091
in aryl radicals, 906
in the Kolbe-Schmitt reaction, 718
Lewis acids-dienophiles, 1065
Li AlH_4 with carbonyls, 1202
manganese porphyrin, and epoxidation of alkenes, 1053
metal carbene, 1086
nickel tetracarbonyl and allylic halides, 452
n, and electrophilic aromatic substitution, 679
n, for S_NAr reaction of picryl chloride, 852
π-allyl palladium, and enolate anions, 551
π-allyl, mechanism, 772
rhodium-phosphine, cyclization of dialdehydes, 1564
CT, and electrophilic aromatic substitution, 676
zirconocene, oxidation of alcohols, 1515
Comprehensive Organic Functional Group Transformations, 1624
Comprehensive Organic Synthesis, 1624
Comprehensive Organic Transformations, 1627
Computational methods
ab initio, 34
and molecular mechanics, 178-180
and potential energy, 179
and small rings, 181
force-field calculations, 178
Computers
ab initio calculations, 34
and force-field calculations, 178
and molecular mechanics, 178-180
potential energy calculations, 179
Concerted Cope rearrangement, 1447
Concerted reactions, 1068
Concertedness, of rearrangements, 1381
Condensations
acyloin, 1562
aldol, 1218-1223
benzoin, 1243
Claisen, 569-570
Darzens glycidic ester, 1230
Dieckmann, 5569-570
Knoevenagel, 1225–1228
Stobbe, 1224
Conducted tour mechanism, 766, 771
Configuration, absolute, see absolute configuration
Configuration
and 1,2-shifts, 1380
and ester hydrolysis, 472
and Walden inversion, 391
definition, 167
inversion with Grignard reagents, 236
Conformational analysis, 167–178
Conformational effects, in the E2 elimination, 1305
Conformational energy, of butane, 169–170
Conformational isomer, 167
Conformational isomer, see isomer
Conformational stability, and optical activity, 130
Conformational transmission, and strain, 366
Conformations, 167-178
Conformations
A-value energies, 174
and acid strength, 347
and amides, 171
and energy barrier, 168
and molecular mechanism, 167
and Newman projections, 168
and reactivity, 366
and solvent effects, 170-171
and the anomeric effect, 176-177
anti-, 169

anti-periplanar, and E2 elimination, 1300
anticlinal, 169
axial, of cyclohexanones, 176
boat, and the Cope rearrangement, 1446
chair, and E2 elimination, 1302
chair, and the Cope rearrangement, 1446
cyclohexane derivatives, 175
cyclohexane derivatives, stability, 174
cyclopropylalkenes, 182
definition, 167
dioxane derivatives, 175-176
dioxanes, and homoanomeric interactions, 176
dithianes, 176
energy and ethane, 168
gauche, 169
gauche and butane, 169-170
Lewis acid coordination, 348
of diazo ketones, 1407
of rings, 172-178
of rings, pseudorotation, 178
open chain systems, 167-172
other than six-membered, 177–178
simple alkanes, 168
six-membered rings containing heteroatoms, 175-177
substituted cyclohexanes, 173-174
syn-periplanar, 169
synclinal, 169
tub, 57, 135
vinyl carbanions, 766
Conjugate addition, 979-981
Conjugate addition, see addition, conjugate
Conjugate addition
definition, 976
enantioselectivity, 1029
Conjugate reduction, see reduction, conjugate
Conjugated carbonyl compounds, reduction with boranes, 1200
Conjugated carbonyls
reaction with Grignard reagents, 1205
reaction with HCN, 1239
reaction with organolithium reagents, 1205
Conjugated circuit model for aromaticity, 48
Conjugated compounds
acyloxylation with organocuprates, 1033
and Michael reactions, 1022–1024
and the Robinson annulation, 1222
by the Knoevenagel reaction, 1225
by [2,3]-sigmatropic rearrangement, 1454
epoxidation of, 1052
from esters and aldehydes or ketones, 1223
from selenoxides, 1336
from the Pauson-Khand reaction, 1091
reaction with aldehydes, 1212
reaction with aldehydes and cyanide, 1033
reaction with borane, 1031
reaction with borinates, 1031
reaction with halogens, 1042
reaction with hydroperoxide anion, 1053
reduction of, 1007
Conjugated ketones, see ketones
Conjugation
and carbanions, 229-230
and double bond migration, 771
and photochemistry, 310
and rate of nucleophilic addition, 1174
cross-, 39-40
double or triple bonds, 36-37
Conrotatory rotation, in electrocyclic rearrangements, 1427
Contact ion pairs, 398
Cope elimination, 1324, 1333, 1421
Cope reaction, 1324, 1333
accompanying Claisen rearrangement, 1450
Cope rearrangement, 1444-1449
and bullvalene, 1448
and fluxional structures, 1447
and high pressure, 457
and valence tautomerism, 1447
aza-, 1445
azo-, 1452
catalyst for, 1446
degenerate, 1447
di radical mechanism, 1447
nonconcerted, 1447
of 1,5-diynes, 1445
oxy-, 1445, 1452
transition state, 1446
Coupling of organocuprates, 939
Copper chromite, and dehydrogenation of alcohols, 1515
Copper salts, and the Ullmann ether synthesis, 863
Copper, reaction with aryl carboxylic acids, 732
Corannulene, 71
Corey's reagent, and oxidation alcohols, 1515
Corey-Winter reaction, 1340
Counterions
ambident nucleophiles, 460
and nucleophilic reactivity, 460
definition, 219
Coupling reactions, organocuprates and alkyl halides, 538-540
Coupling
and carbon nucleophiles, 534
and the Heck reaction, 930
and the Wurtz reaction, 535

Coupling *(Continued)*
of acyl halides, 568
of alcohols, 544
of alkanes, 926
of alkynes, 561, 927
of aryl diazonium salts, 937
of aryl halides, 870
of boranes, 939
of diazonium salts, 700
of Grignard reagents, 938
of hydrocarbons, 786
of organocuprates and sulfonate esters, 543
of organometallics and alkyl halides, 536, 540-541
of propargyl halides, 543
of thiohydroxamic esters, 942
reductive, of aldehydes and ketones, 1559-1561
with aryl halides, 868
Covalent character, and organometallics, 234
Cram's rule, 1172
and asymmetric reduction of ketones, 1201
and synthesis, 147-148
CRC Handbooks, 1617, 1619
Criegee mechanism, for ozonolysis, 1523-1525
Cross-conjugation, 39-40
Cross-coupling, and carbon nucleophiles, 534
Crossed Cannizzaro reaction, 1564
CrossFire, 1616
Crossover experiments, 393, 1378
and Fries rearrangement, 727
Crowding, steric strain, 189
Crown ethers
and amide formation, 514
and chirality, 136
and formation of alkyl hydroperoxides, 492
and ketone enolates with esters, 571
and oxidative cleavage with $KMnO_4$, 1526
and resolution, 151, 152
as phase transfer catalysts, 455
azo, isomerization, 320
complexation, 105-109
definition, 105
host-guest, 105
metal ionic binding, 105
reaction with amines and KNO2, 494
Cryptands
and nucleophilic substitution, 443
and resolution, 152
as phase transfer catalysts, 455
calixaromatic compounds, 106
conformational isomers, 106
cryptophanes, 106-107
definition, 106
hemispherands, 106-107
lariat ethers, 107
metal ion binding, 106
molecular recognition, 108
podands, 106-107
spherands, 106
starands, 107
Cryptates, see cryptands
Cryptates
and out-in isomers, 163
complexation, 105-109
definition, 106
Cryptophanes, 106-107
Crystallization, and resolution, 153
Crystallographic scale, of acid strength, 328
Cubane, 182-183, 1459
Cubene, 191
Cubyl cation, *ab initio* calculations and the S_N1 reaction, 397
Cubylcarbinyl radial, 1390
Cumene, from benzene, 709
Cumulenes
cyclic, 187
from alkyne epoxides, 1344
from alkynes, 1344
from dihalides, 1343
Cuneane, 1459
Cuprates, see organocuprates
Cupric acetate, reaction with carboxylic acids and lead tetraacetate, 1528
Cupric chloride, and Meerwein arylation, 929-930
Cuprous chloride
and reaction of hydroperoxides and hydrocarbons, 922
reaction with aryl diazonium salts, 935
Cuprous cyanide
and isocyanide formation, 562
reaction with acyl halides, 573
reaction with aryl diazonium salts, 936
reaction with aryl halides, 867
reaction with arylthallium compounds, 802
Curtius rearrangement, 1380, 1384, 1406, 1412
Cyanamide
reaction with alkyl halides, 501
reaction with ammonia, 1192
Cyanamides
by the von Braun reaction, 1663
from amines, 522
from cleavage of tertiary amines, 1663
from dehydration of disubstituted ureas, 1663
Cyanates, from reaction of aroxides and cyanogen halides, 1663
Cyanation, of ketones, 786

Cyanation, of nitro compounds, 786
Cyanides, see nitriles
Cyanides, acyl, see acyl cyanides
Cyanides
alkyl, from trialkylcyanoborates, 802
ambident nucleophiles, 459
and phase transfer reactions, 561
and the Kiliani-Fischer synthesis, 1240
and the Strecker synthesis, 1240
as an ambident nucleophile, 459
in HMPA, cleavage of methyl esters, 562
potassium reaction with hydrazones, 1241
potassium, and phase transfer catalysts, 456
potassium, reaction with aldehydes, 1243
reaction with alkyl halides, 561-562
reaction with aromatic nitro compounds, 876
reaction with bisulfite addition products, 1240
silver, and alkylation, 461
sodium reaction with boranes, 1423
sodium, and alkylation, 461
tosyl, reaction with enolate anions, 786
vinyl, from vinyl bromides, 562
vinyl, from vinyl copper reagents, 802
Cyano amines, from cyanohydrins, 502
Cyano ketones, 786
and ring expansion, 813
cleavage of, 813
Cyanoacetic ester synthesis, 549
Cyanoamines
by the Mannich reaction, 1663
Cyanoamines
by the Strecker synthesis, 1663
from aldehydes, 1663
from amines, 1663
from aromatic amines, 1663
from cyanohydrins, 1663
from dehydes, 1663
from imines, 1663
from ketones, 1663
from nitriles, 1663
Cyanoborohydride, see sodium cyanoborohydride
Cyanoborohydride
sodium, and reduction of tosylhydrazones, 1548
sodium, reduction of oximes, 1203
Cyanoethylation, 976
Cyanogen bromide
reaction with amines, 522
reaction with carboxylate salts, 1246
Cyanogen chloride
reaction with alcohols, 1183
reaction with carboxylate salts, 1246
Cyanohydrins
alkylation of, 553
from aldehydes or ketones and HCN, 1239
hydrolysis of, 1179
reaction with ammonia, 502
Cyclacenes, 67
Cyclic alcohols, from dimagnesium compounds and esters, 1214
Cyclic amines, see amines, cyclic
cleavage with cyanogen bromide, 523
Cyclic anhydrides
from diacids, 491
reaction with ammonia, 508
Cyclic compounds, also see rings
Cyclic compounds
and cis/trans isomers, 160–161
and E2 elimination, 1304
by Dieckmann cyclization, 1646
by Favorskii rearrangement, 1647
by Pschorr arylation, 1646
by the acyloin condensation, 1647
by the Diels-Alder reaction, 1646
by the Story reaction, 1647
by the Thorpe-Ziegler reaction, 1647
by the Wurtz reaction, 1646
by Wolff rearrangement, 1647
c and *r* nomenclature, 161
Cyclic compounds
from 1,3-diols, 1646
from 1,4-dihalides, 1646
from aldehydes, 1646
from alkenes, 1646
from alkynes, 1646
from all-carbon [3+2]-cycloadditions, 1646
from aromatic rings, 1646
from carbenes, 1646
from carbenoids, 1646
from carboxylic esters, 1646
from conjugated dienes, 1647
from contraction of rings, 1647
from cyclic boranes, 1647
from cyclic ketones, 1647
from cyclic peroxides, 1647
from cycloaddition reactions, 1646
from dialdehydes, 1647
from diallylic halides, 1646
from dicarboxylic acids, 1646
from dienes, 1646
from diesters, 1647
from dihalobiphenyls, 1646
from diketones, 1647
from dimagnesio compounds, 1646
from dimagnesium compounds, 1646
from dinitriles, 1647
from diynes, 1646, 1647

Cyclic compounds *(Continued)*
from expansion of rings, 1647
from extrusion of CO from cyclic ketones, 1647
from extrusion of N_2 from pyrazoles, 1647
from extrusion of N_2 from pyrazolines, 1647
from extrusion of SO_2 from cyclic sulfones, 1647
from halo alkenes, 1646
from halo carbonyl compounds, 1646
from halo ketones, 1647
from internal aldol reactions, 1646
from internal condensation of diesters, 1646
from internal coupling, 1646
from internal malonic ester synthesis, 1646
from internal Mukaiyama aldol reactions, 1646
from internal Wittig reactions, 1646
from intramolecular arylation, 1646
from intramolecular Friedel-crafts acylation, 1646
from intramolecular Friedel-crafts alkylation, 1646
from intramolecular insertion of carbenes, 1646
from intramolecular insertion of carbocations, 1646
from keto esters, 1647
from ketones, 1646
from metathesis of dienes, 1647
from oxidative cyclization, 1647
from radical cyclization, 1646
from ring contraction, 1647
from σ-bond rearrangements, 1647
from Scholl ring closure, 1646
from the di-π-methane rearrangement, 1647
from unsaturated aldehydes, 1646
from unsaturated Grignard reagents, 1646
from vinylcycloalkanes, 1647
from vinylcycloalkenes, 1647
from Wagner-Meerwein rearrangements, 1647
from [1,*j*] sigmatropic migrations of carbon, 1647
Cyclic compounds, small rings and strain, 180-184
Cyclic ketones
by the Ruzicka cyclization, 574
from dicarboxylic acids, 574
from keto esters, 1561
oxidative cleavage, 1521
oxidative cleavage with NaOCl, 1522
reaction with hydrazoic acid, 1414
ring expansion with diazomethane, 1408
Cyclic substrates, effect on nucleophilic substitution, 437
Cyclic sulfates, ring opening, 462
Cyclization, also see ring closing
Cyclization
Bergman, 1432
by acyloin condensation, 1562
by alkene metathesis, 1458
by Fischer indole synthesis, 1452
by McMurry reaction, 1561
by photocyclization of stilbenes, 1436
by the aldol reaction, 1222
by the Hofmann-Löffler reaction, 1462
by the Thorpe-Ziegler reaction, 1239
by the Wittig reaction, 1236
cationic, polyene, 1019
Nazarov, 1021
of alkene-organolithium reagents, 1025
of bis-allylic halides, 542
of dialdehydes with $TiCl_3$, 1560
of esters and dimagnesium compounds, 1214
of keto esters, 1561
Cyclization, radical, 403, 985, 1039-1041
and Baldwin's rales, 978, 986
and [1,7]-H sigmatropic rearrangements, 1440
of dialdehydes, 1561
to C=N and C=O, 1244
to conjugated compounds, 1032
with dienes, 978
with polyenes, 1020
Cycloadditions
[1,2]- of carbenes, 1084
[2+2+2]-, 1093
[2+2]-Cycloadditions, 1077-1084
a diion mechanism, 1080
alkenes with aldehydes or ketones, 1249
and Diels-Alder reactions, 1077
and electrocyclic rearrangements, 1434
and orbital overlap, 1079
and the Wittig reaction, 1235
catalysis, 1083
diradical mechanism, 1080
endo/exo isomers, 1079
exciplex formation, 1082
formation of β-lactams, 1250
imines and ketenes, 1250
masochistic steric effects, 1080
mechanism, 1078
of cyclopentyne, 1392
photochemical mechanism, 1082
photochemical, intramolecular, 1082
photochemical, orbital overlap, 1069
retro, 1081
the Paterno-Büchi reaction, 1249
with allenes, 1077

with enamines, 1077
with **ketenes,** 1077
[3+2]-Cycloadditions
all carbon, 1075
and allylic anions, 1076
and **diradicals,** 1076
and enantioselectivity, 1061
and **nonsynchronous** mechanisms, 1061
azides and alkenes, **1059**
common **1,3-dipolar** compounds, 1060
[4+2]-Cycloadditions, 1062-1075
[4+2]-Cycloadditions, see **Diels-Alder** reactions
[4+4+4]-, with dienes, 1091
[4+4]-, with dienes, 1091
Cycloamyloses, see cyclodextrins
Cyclobutadienes
and antiaromaticity, 58-60
and aromaticity, 57
and the Diels-Alder reactions, 59
derivatives, 59-60
from alkyne dimerization, 1090
matrix trapping, 59
metal complexes, 60
nickel complex, 1091
NMR of derivatives, 60
trapping in carcerands, 59
Cyclobutane
and angle strain, 182
conformation, 177
Cyclobutanes
cycloreversion, 1081
divinyl, Cope rearrangement, 1445
from alkenes, 1077-1084
from cyclic sulfones, 1354-1355
thermal cleavage, 1081
vinyl, rearrangement, 1444
Cyclobutanones
from ketenes and alkenes, 1077
photochemical decarbonylation, 1354
Cyclobutene, from cyclopropylmethyl carbene, 1400
Cyclobutenes
HOMO, 1428
photochemical ring opening, 1428
thermal ring opening, 1428
thermolysis, 1426
Cyclobutyl dications, and aromaticity, 58
Cyclobutylcarbinyl, see cyclobutylmethyl
Cyclobutylmethyl cations, rearrangement, **418**
Cyclobutylmethyl, neighboring group effects, 417
Cyclodecapentanene, and aromaticity, 57
Cyclodextrins
and channel-type complexes, **113**
and chlorination of anisole, 686
and hydrogen bonding, **111–112**
and inclusion compounds, 111-113
and resolntion, 152
1,5,9-Cyclododecatriene, 1091
1,4-Cycloheptadiene, 1447
Cycloheptatriene, 52-53, 1087
Cycloheptatrienes, from norcaradienes, 1427
Cycloheptatrienyl anion, 52-53
and antiaromaticity, 62
Cycloheptatrienyl cation, see tropylium ion
Cycloheptyne, 187
Cyclohexacenes, 67
Cyclohexadienes
thermal cleavage, 1430
thermolysis, 1426
by Cope rearrangement, 1445
Cyclohexadienone, 75
reaction with acid, **1402**
Cyclohexadienones, 2.5-, photolysis of, 1461
Cyclohexane
conformational energies, 172
conformations, 172-175
derivatives and conformations, 175
oxidation to cyclohexanone, 1532
substituted, and conformations, 173-174
substituted, and optical activity, 175
substituted, and stereoisomers, **175**
1,2,3-Cyclohexanetriol, and **meso** compound, 161
Cyclohexanone
derivatives, % axial, 176
from cyclohexane, 1532
Cyclohexenes, by the Diels-Alder reaction, 1062
Cyclohexyne, 187
Cyclononyne, 187
1-*t*-butyl-1,2-Cyclooctadiene, 187
1,5-Cyclooctadiene, 1091
Cyclooctadiene, from cyclooctene oxide, 1341
Cyclooctatetraene, 1434
and antiaromaticity, 62
and aromaticity, 57
from acetylene, 1089
tub conformation, 57, 135
Cyclooctatriene, 1433
***trans*-Cyclooctene,** 134, 186
and resolution, 151-152
Cyclooctene
and helical chirality, 135
and trans double bonds, 158
photochemical **isomerization,** 320
Cyclooctyne, 187

Cyclopentadiene
anion and **aromaticity,** 52
anion and reaction with **alkyl** halides, 550
reaction with **ketene,** 1080
Cyclopentadienone
Diels Alder reactions, 1348
stability of, 53
Cyclopentadienyl anion, 231
and **aromaticity,** 52
reaction with alkyl halides, 550
Cyclopentadienyl carbanions, 230
Cyclopentadienyl cation, and antiaromaticity, 60-61
Cyclopentane, confonnation, 177
Cyclopentane, conformational energy barrier, 178
Cyclopentanols, from **dimagnesium** compounds and esters, **1214**
Cyclopentanone, conformation, 178
Cyclopentenes, from vinylcyclopropanes, 1443
Cyclopentenone, 321
Cyclopentyne, **1160** (ref. 1316), 1392
Cyclopentyne derivatives, 187
Cyclophane, "belt", 44
Cyclopolyacenes, 67
Cyclopropane intermediates, in the Claisen rearrangement, 1451
Cyclopropane
and bent bonds, 181
and bonding, **181**
and cation rearrangements, 1382
and strain, **180–181**
angle strain, **181**
cations and allylic cations, 1399
conformation, 177
orbital overlap, **181**
protonated intermediates, 1382
reaction with HBr, 988
vinyl, by di *n*- methane rearrangements, 1460
vinyl, [1,3]- sigmatropic rearrangement, 1443
Cyclopropanes
addition of radicals, 990
addition reactions, 988-990
and homodienyl [1,5]-H sigmatropic rearrangements, 1440
and Markovnikov's rule, 989
by extrusion from **pyrazolines,** 1353
by the Simmons-Smith reaction, **1088**
divinyl, Cope rearrangement, 1445, 1446
electrophilic addition, ***ab initio*** studies, 990
from alkenes and **carbenes,** 789
from carbenes, 248
from cyclobutanones, 1354
from **diols,** 544
from metal carbenes, 1086
from sulfur **ylids** with aldehydes or ketones, 1247
hydrogenation of, 1012
reaction with HX, 989
relationship to **alkene** reactivity, 988
vinyl, from **1,4-dienes,** 1460
Cyclopropanone, and **UV** spectra, 181
Cyclopropenes, 186
by extrusion from pyrazoles, 1353
reaction with chlorosulfonyl isocyanate, 1251
vinyl, 1443
Cyclopropeniumyldiazonium salts, 448
Cyclopropenone, 58
Cyclopropenyl anion, and antiaromaticity, 60-61
Cyclopropenyl cation, and aromaticity, 58
Cyclopropyl cation, 438
ring opening, 1434
Cyclopropyl groups
as stabilizing groups for carbocations, 222-223
stabilizing effect on carbocations, 225
Cyclopropyl tosylate, **solvolysis,** 437
2-Cyclopropylpropyl cation, 225
Cyclopropyl, as a neighboring group, 410
Cyclopropylalkenes, conformations, **182**
Cyclopropylcarbene, 790
Cyclopropylcarbinyl cation, 408
Cyclopropylcarbinyl halides, and S_N2' reactions, 423
Cyclopropylcarbinyl radicals, 247,901
Cyclopropylcarbinyl, see cyclopropylmethyl
Cyclopropylmethyl carbene, 1400
Cyclopropylmethyl cations, 222-223, 408
and NMR, 418
geometry, 417
rearrangement, **417**
Cyclopropylmethyl halides, reaction with piperidine, 423
Cyclopropylmethyl, neighboring group effects, 416,418
Cycloreversion, of cyclobutanes, 1081
Cyclotetradecane, strain energy, 214
Cyclo[3.3.3]azine, 68
[2+2]-Cycloadditions, see **cycloadditions,** [2+2]-
[3+2]-Cycloadditions, see cycloadditions, [3+2]-
[4+2]-Cycloadditions, see **Diels-Alder** reactions

D nomenclature, **IUPAC** for mechanisms, 384
DABCO, and the Baylis Hillman reaction, 1212
Dakin reaction, **1528**
and the Baeyer-Villiger reaction, 1528
Dakin-West reaction, 812
Dammaradienol, 1019

Darzen's reaction, 809, 1219
Darzens glycidic ester condensation, 1230
DAST
and formation of difluorides, 1196
and preparation of acyl fluorides, 524
preparation of fluorides from alcohols, 519
DBN, and elimination of alkyl halides, 1337
DBU
alkylation with carboxylic acids, 488
and elimination of alkyl halides, 1337
and elimination of hydrazonium salts, 1348
and epoxidation of conjugated ketones, 1052
and formation of sulfones, 498
and formation of thioethers, 496
and Michael reactions, 1023
DCC,
and amide formation, 509
and DMSO for oxidation of alcohols, 1516
and ester formation, 485
and peptide coupling, 509
and reaction of amines with CS_2, 1192
dehydrating agent, 491
dehydration of alcohols, 480
reaction with phenols and DMSO, 722
DC1, and electrophilic aromatic substitution, 679
DDQ, 1511, 1531
and azide formation, 516
reaction with silyl enol ethers, 1512
DDT, preparation of, 719
D_E nomenclature, IUPAC for mechanisms, 385
Deactivating groups, and electrophilic aromatic substitution, 681-684, 687
Diethyl azodicarboxylate (DEAD), and formation of allenes, 772
Dealkylation, of ammonium salts, 503
Deamination, of amines, 1548
Debye units, 15-16
Decalin, 161-162
Decarbonylation
of aldehydes, and radical rearrangements, 1389
of aryl aldehydes, 732
of cyclobutanones, 1354
of ketones, 1347
Decarboxylation, 549
and Bredt's rule, 810
and the Henkel reaction, 733
of aryl carboxylic acids, 732
of carboxylate anions, 810
of carboxylic acids, 573
of carboxylic acids, 808
of formyl carboxylates, 573
of hydroxy acids, 1346
of keto acids, 810
of lactones, 1354
oxidative, 1528
photochemical, 811
1-Decene, double bond migration, 772
Decomposition, photochemical, 318
Dediazoniation, reagents for, 934-935
Degenerate carbocations, 1380
Degenerate Cope rearrangement, 1447
Degenerate rearrangements, 1380
Degradation, Hofmann, 1331
Dehalogenation, of aryl halides, 735
Dehydrating agents
and formation of acetals or ketals, 1180
for dehydration of amides, 1350
for esterification, 486
isonitriles from formamides, 1351
Dehydration
of alcohols, 480, 1326
of alkyne alcohols, 1327
of amides, 1327, 1350
of carboxylic acids, 491
of keto oximes, 1349
of oximes, 1348
Dehydrobenzenes, see benzynes
Dehydrogenation
and dodecahedrane, 1514
of alcohols, 1515
of amines, 1518
of bicyclic amines, 1511-1512
reagents for, 1512
Dehydrohalogenation, see halides, alkyl, elimination
Dehydrohalogenation, photochemical, 1513
Delépine reaction, 501
Delocalization
and carhocation stability, 221
types for carbocations, 221
Demerol, 1405
Demethylation
of ethers, 496, 503, 520, 528
of methyl esters, 562
of methypyridinium salts, 501
Demyanov rearrangement, 1399
Demyanov ring contraction or expansion, 1398-1400
Dendralenes, 39, 80
Deoxygenation, of aryl ethers, 734
Deracemization, and resolution, 154
Derivatization
and absolute configuration, 142–143
and Mosher's acid, 142-143
Dess-Martin periodinane, and oxidation of alcohols, 1516

Desulfurization, 531
by **hydrogenation,** 940
of **thiophene,** 941
Deuteration
of aromatic rings, reagents for, 696
of hydrocarbons, 769
exo-**Deuterio**-*exo*-**norbornyl** acetate, 1442
Deuterium exchange, and electrophilic aromatic substitution, 695
Deuterium isotope effects, 298
Deuterium, catalytic exchange with alkanes, 1005
Deuterium, effect on nucleophilic substitution, 438
Dewar benzene, 1083, 1090, 1449
Dewar benzenes, by **electrocyclic** rearrangement, 1433
Dewar structure, anthracene, 43
Dewar structures, 32
Dextro **isomers,** and chirality, 125
DHU, see **dicyclohexylurea**
Di-alkynes, see diynes
Di-π- methane rearrangement, 1460
Di-π- methane rearrangements, oxa, 1461
Di-*sec*-butylmercury, reaction with **Grignard** reagents, 761
Dialdehydes
cyclization with rhodium phosphine complex, 1564
radical cyclization, 1561
Dialkylboron **enol** ether, see **enol** borinate
Diamantane, 1396
1,2-Diamines, from **dimerization** of iraines, **1561**
Diamines
cyclic, and the anomeric effect, 177
from **alkenes,** 1056
from aziridines, 504, 505
ortho-, oxidation with nickel peroxide, 1527
oxidative cleavage, 1520
1,4'-Diaminobiphenyl, 1456
Diaminobiphenyls
from hydrazobenzenes, 1455
by the benzidine rearrangement, 1455
Dianions
carboxylic acid, reaction with esters, 572
from ketones and CS_2, **1229**
from the acyloin condensation, 1562
of acetoacetic ester, 550
of carboxylic acids, reaction with **alkyl** halides, 555
Diaryl **sulfides,** see thioethers, **aryl**
2,3-Diarylthiiren-1,1-dioxides, 1343
Diarylhydrazines, see hydrazo compounds
Diaryls, see biaryls
Diasterane, **183**
Diastereomer, definition, 144
Diastereomers
and cis/trans isomers, **157–160**
and diastereotopic atoms, 164-166
and **epimers,** 146
and **isomer** formation in elimination reactions, 1318
and Michael addition, 977
and pseudo asymmetric carbons, 145
and resolution, **151–152**
and substitution reactions, 405
and the 2° rale, 145
differences in reactivity, 366
erythro, from electrophilic addition to alkenes, 971
erythro/threo nomenclature, 146-147
meso compounds, 145
nomenclature, 146
physical properties, 144
syn/anti nomenclature, 147
threo, from electrophilic addition to alkenes, 971
torsional, 133
Diastereoselectivity
and Cram's rale, 147-148
and the **Felkin-Ahn** model, 148
and the **Paterno-Büchi** reaction, 1250
electrophilic addition to alkenes, **971**
erythro/threo, in the **aldol** reaction, **1221**
exo/endo, and addition to alkenes, 987
in addition to aldehydes or ketones, 1206
in conjugate additions, 1029
in Mannich reactions, **1191**
in reduction of aldehydes and ketones, 1201
in the aldol reaction, **1221**
in the Knoevenagel reaction, 1225
in the Prins reaction, 1242
in the Reformatsky reaction, **1212**
syn/anti, in the aldol reaction, **1221**
Diastereotopic atoms, 164-166
and isochronous atoms, 165
Diastereotopic faces, 166
Diastereotopic, definition, 165
Diatopic compounds, definition, 46
1,4-Diazabicyclo[2.2.2]octane, see DABCO
1,5-Diazabicyclo[3.4.0]non-5-ene, see DBN
1,8-Diazabicyclo[5.4.0]undecene, see DBU
Diazirines, decomposition of, 250
Diazo alkanes, from nitroso compounds, 1352
Diazo compounds
from **α-amino** esters, 1664
from active hydrogen compounds, 1664
from **acyl** halides, 1664

from aldehydes, 1664
from aliphatic amines, 816
from amines, 816
from diazo esters, 1664
from hydrazones, 1664
from N-nitroso-N-alkyl compounds, 1664
photooxidation and ozonolysis, 1524
protonation, 447
reaction with alcohols, 479
reaction with amines, 504
reaction with boranes, 561
reaction with carboxylic acids, 490
reaction with phenols, 479
Diazo esters
reaction with aldehydes, 785
reaction with boranes, 561
Diazo ketones
and ketene formation, 1250
and the Arndt-Eistert synthesis, 1405
and Wolff rearrangement, 1406
conformations of, 1407
hydrolysis of, 465
intermediates in the Schmidt reaction, 1414
photolysis of with alcohols, 1406
reaction with HBr, 522
rearrangement of, 1414
rearrangement with water and Ag_2O, 1405
s-(E) and *s*-(Z) conformations, 1407
thermolysis of, 1250
Diazo transfer reaction, 781
Diazoalkanes
as 1,3-dipoles, 1060
reaction with aldehydes or ketones, 1248
reaction with imines, 1217
reaction with sulfur, 1248
reaction with thioketones, 1248
Diazoketones
by the Arndt-Eistert synthesis, 574
from acyl halides, 573
reaction with boranes, 561
Diazomethane
and carbenes, 248, 249
and homologation of aldehydes and ketones, 1407
conversion to methylene carbene, 789
decomposition of, 250
photolysis of, 789
rate of decomposition, 1087
reaction with acyl halides, 573, 1405
reaction with alcohols, 479
reaction with aldehydes or ketones, 1248
reaction with amines, 504
reaction with carboxylic acids, 490
reaction with sulfonyl halides, 1249
Diazonium compounds
aryl, 816
by diazo transfer reactions, 781
from active methylene compounds, 780
stability of, 816
Diazonium coupling, 700
Diazonium ions, 448, 700
and amide hydrolysis, 475
and the Bamford-Stevens reaction, 1335
ionization to carbocation, 1393
Diazonium salts, 448
and ionization to aryl cations, 853
aryl, and isomerization, 700
aryl, coupling, 700
aryl, coupling and acidity, 700
aryl, coupling with alkenes, 929-930
aryl, coupling with arylboronic acids, 938
aryl, formation of, 701
aryl, mechanism of formation, 817
aryl, methylation of, 937
aryl, reaction with aromatic compounds, 928
aryl, reaction with CuCl or CuBr, 935-936
aryl, reaction with CuCN, 936
aryl, reaction with cuprous halides, 935
aryl, reaction with hydrogen sulfide anion, 874
aryl, reaction with hypophosphorous acid, 934
aryl, reaction with iodide, 875
aryl, reaction with Me_4Sn, 937
aryl, reaction with $NaNO_2$, 936
aryl, reaction with oximes, 938
aryl, reaction with SO_2, 937
aryl, reaction with sulfur nucleophiles, 874
aryl, reaction with thiol anions, 874
aryl, reaction with water, 874
aryl, reduction of, 934
coupling with alkenes, 937
from amines, 1664
from aromatic compounds, 1664
reaction with active methylene compounds, 778
reaction with enolate anions, 778
reaction with malonic esters, 779
reduction with $LiAlH_4$, 1556
reduction with sodium sultite, 1556
Diazonium tetrafluoroborates, aryl, thermolysis, 875
Diazonium, as a leaving group, 447
Diazosulfides, as intermediates, 874
Diazotization
of amines, 448, 816
of amino acids, 522

Dibal
reduction of **alkynes,** 1007
reduction of carbonyl compounds, **1198**
reduction of **oximes,** 1555
Dibal/$NiCl_2$-dppp, reduction of **allyl** amines, 1559
Dibromides
from **alkenes,** 1041
from hydrazones, **1196**
1,2-Dibromoethane, dipole moment, 16
1,2-Dibromo-1,2-diphenylethane, and E2 elimination, 1301
2,3-Dibromobutane, and E2 elimination, 1301
Dibromocarbene, 249
Dibromoisocyanuric aid, and aromatic **bromination,** 706
Dibromoketones, reaction with organocnprates, 539
Dibromomethane, and the Simmons-Smith reaction, 1088
Dicaranylborane, 1015
1,2-Dicarbonyl compounds
from **1,3-dithianes,** 1664
from **acyl** halides, 1664
from alkenes, 1665
from **alkyl** halides, 1664
from alkynes, 1665
from aromatic compounds, 1665
from carbon dioxide, **1665**
from esters, 1664
from **imines,** 1665
from **ketones,** 1665
from organolithium reagents, 1664
from oxidative cleavage of **α-amino** ketones, 1665
1,3-Dicarbonyl compounds
by Michael addition, **1665**
by the Blaise reaction, 1665
by the Claisen condensation, 1665
by the Dieckmann condensation, 1665
by the Knoevenagel condensation, 1665
by the Stork enamine synthesis, 1665
from **α-halo** esters, 1665
from acetals, 1665
from active hydrogen compounds, 1665
from aldehydes, 1665
from alkenes, **1665**
from aromatic compounds, 1665
from **β-keto** esters, 1665
from carboxylic acid salts, 1665
from diethyl **oxomalonate,** 1665
from **enamines,** 1665
from esters, 1665
from ethyl diazoacetate, 1665
from ketals, 1665
from ketones, 1665
from nitriles, 1665
from rearrangement of epoxy ketones, 1665
1,4-Dicarbonyl componnds
from alkynes, **1665**
from aromatic compounds, **1665**
from carboxylic acids, 1665
from cleavage of furans, **1665**
from enolate anions, 1665
from esters, 1665
from ketones, 1665
from **silyl enol** ethers, 1665
from succinic anhydride, **1665**
from unsaturated ketones, 1665
1,5-Dicarbonyl compounds
from esters, 1665
from silyl enol ethers, 1665
from silyl ketene acetals, 1665
from unsaturated ketones, 1665
Dicarboxyacetylene, reaction with bromine, 973
Dicarboxylic acids
from cyclic ketones, **1521**
oxidative bisdecarboxylation, 1530
pyrolysis with **ThO_2,** 574
radical halogenation, 909
reaction with diesters, 487
reaction with lead tetraacetate, **1530**
Dications, 222
Dications, see carbocations
Dichlorides, conpling, electrochemical, 537
Dichlorine monoxide, 914
1,3-Dichlorobutane, an ambident substrate, 461
1,4-Dichloro-1,3-butadienes, 1434
2,3-Dichloro-5,6-dicyano-1,4-benzoquinone, see DDQ
***cis*-3,4-Dichlorocyclobntene,** 1434
N,N-Dichloroamines, rearrangement of, 1410
Dichlorobenzenes, and benzyne intermediates, 860
Dichloroborane-dimethyl **sulfide,** 1014
Dichlorocarbene, 248
formation of, 250
1,1-Dichloroethene, reaction with ethoxide, 428
1,2-Dichloroethene, reaction with ethoxide, 430
Dichloromethyl ethers, reaction with lithium triethylcarboxide, 1423
Dichloromethyl methyl ether, reaction with aromatic compounds, **717**
Dichromate
oxidation of alcohols, 1514, 1515
oxidation of aromatic **diols,** 1517
reaction with aldehydes, 917
Dicobalt octacarbonyl

and hydroformylation of alkenes, 1037
reaction with organomercury halides, 800
1,1-Dicyclopropylethene, 1443
18-Dicyclohexanocrown-6, 455
Dicyclohexylcarbodiimide, see DCC
Dicyclohexylurea, byproduct of esterification with DCC, 485
Dieckmann condensation, also see Claisen condensation
Dieckmann condensation, 569-570
and the acyloin condensation, 1562
mechanism of, 570
Dielectric effects, in solvents, algorithm, 450
Diels-Alder reactions, 289, 1092, 1062-1075
a biradical mechanism, 1067
and 3-sulfolene, 1066
and a Möbius strip, 1071
and alkyne trimerization, 1090
and alkynes, 1062
and aromatic compounds, 1063
and cation radicals, 1065
and cisoid conformations of dienes, 1064
and Claisen rearrangement, 1450
and cyclic dienes, 1064
and dienophiles, 1062
and high pressure, 457, 1066
and Hückel systems, 1071
and isotope effects, 1067
and Lewis acid complexes, 1065
and $LiClO_4$, 1066
and microwaves, 1065
and Möbius systems, 1071
and orbital symmetry, 1068
and photochemical reactions, 1071
and polymerization, 1065
and rate, 1065
and reaction of oxygen with dienes, 1055
and the cyclic mechanism, 979
and the Möbius-Hückel method, 1070
and the Woodward-Hoffmann rules, 1068
and thermal reactions, 1071
and transoid conformations of dienes, 1063
and ultrasound, 1075
and [2+2]-cycloadditions, 1077
antarafacial additions, 1073
antibody catalyzed, 1065
basis sets, 1070
cationic, 1065
cleavage of adducts, 1069
concertedness, 1068
dienophiles and [3+2]-cycloaddition, 1061
enantioselectivity, 1065
encapsulation, 1066
exo/endo selectivity, 1064
frontier-orbital method, 1068-1070
heteroatom, 1075
heteroatom, enantioselectivity, 1075
HOMO and LUMO, 1070
homo Diels-Alder reaction, 1063
H0M0-LUM0 interactions, 1074
in aqueous media, 1066
in supercritical CO_2, 1066
intramolecular, 1066
inverse electron demand, 1067
Lewis acid catalysis, 1065
mechanism, 1066-1067
normal, 1073
of cyclobutadiene, 59
on alumina, 1066
on zeolites, 1066
orbital overlaps, 1074
photochemical, 1065
rate acceleration, 1065-1066
regioselectivity, 1063
regioselectivity and MO, 1064
retro, 1066, 1348
retro, CO extrusion, 1347
retro, in water, 1066
reversibility, 1066
solvent effects, 1065
stereochemistry, 1064
substituent effects, 1067
suprafacial addition, 1072
twisted, 1073
with anthracene, 1063
with azadienes, 1075
with benzynes, 855, 1062
with furans, 1075
with maleic anhydride, 1062
with phenyl vinyl sulfone, 1062
with quinones, 1062
Diene alcohols, and the oxy-Cope rearrangement, 1445
Diene ketones, and the Nazarov cyclization, 1021
Diene, conjugated, from vinylboranes, 1425
1,4-Dienes
and di-π- methane rearrangements, 1460
photolysis of, 1460
-addition reactions, 980
1,5-Dienes,
from 1,5-dienes, 1444-1449
by Cope rearrangement, 1444–1449
Dienes
addition of carbanions, 1018
and isomerization of double bonds, 991
and orbital symmetry, 1428

Dienes *(Continued)*
and UV absorption, 310
aza, see azadienes
by conjugate elimination, 1326
by coupling of allylic halides, 541
by extrusion of CO, 1347
by isomerization of alkynes, 773
by the Cope rearrangement, 1666
by the Ramberg-Bäcklund reaction, 1342
by the Stille reaction, 931-932, 1666
chiral, and the Diels-Alder reaction, 1065
cisoid, and the Diels-Alder reaction, 1064
conjugated, acylation of, 784
conjugated, and reaction with alkyl halides, 1047
cyclic, in the Diels-Alder reaction, 1064
dimerization, 1091
Dienes
from alkenes, 1666
from alkyne alcohols, 1327
from alkynes, 1020, 1666
from alkynes and Schwartz's reagent, 1020
from allylic halides, 1666
from bicyclobutanes, 1460
from dienes, 1437
from hydrogenation of aromatic compounds, 1666
from pyrolysis of allylic acetates, 1330
from sigmatropic rearrangements of 1,5-dienes, 1666
from thermolysis of 3-sulfolene, 1066
from vinyl boranes, 939, 1666
from vinyl triflates, 931
from vinyltin compounds, 931, 1666
Dienes
gas phase addition of HI, 992
heteroatom, reaction with alkenes, 1075
HOMO and LUMO of, 1070
hydrogenation of, 1005
intramolecular alkene addition, 1019
molecular orbitals of, 1070
photolysis of, 1426
radical addition to, 978
Dienes
reaction with alkenes, 1062–1075
reaction with boranes, 1015
reaction with carbenes, 1985
reaction with chlorosulfonyl isocyanate, 1251
reaction with heteroatom alkenes, 1075
reaction with organozirconium compounds, 1039
reaction with oxygen, 1054
reaction with silanes, 1039
Dienes
ring closure, and the frontier orbital method, 1429
transoid, and the Diels-Alder reaction, 1063
trimerization of, 1091
Dienophiles, also see alkenes
Dienophiles, 1062
and regioselectivity in the Diels-Alder reaction, 1063
chiral, in the Diels-Alder reaction, 1065
Diesters
from alkenes, 1049
reaction with dicarboxylic acids, 487
1,1-Diethoxyethane, hydrolysis of, 466
N,N-Diethylcarbamoyl chloride, reaction with aromatic compounds, 718
Diethyl azodicarboxylate
and dehydration of diols, 480
and elimination of hydroxy acids, 1346
and Mitsunobu esterification, 486
in esterification reactions, 486
Diethyl diazoacetate, reaction with aldehydes, 785
Diethylaminosulfur trifluoride, see DAST
Diethylene glycol, 481
as a solvent for S_N1, 764
Diethylmercury, 237
Diethylzinc, and the Simmons-Smith reaction, 1089
Diethylzinc, reaction with aldehydes, 1211
Differential absorption and resolution, 152
Diffusion control, and kinetics, 279
Difluorides, from oximes, 1197
Difluoro compounds, 1196
1,2-difluoroethane, 170
Difluoroamine, reaction with amines, 530
dig, and Baldwin's rules, 283-284
Dihalides
and elimination reactions, 1343
and Friedel-Crafts alkylation, 710
and the E2 reaction, 1301
and the Wurtz reaction, 536
by radical halogenation, 1666
by the haloform reaction, 1666
elimination, 1343
formation of Grignard reagents, 805
from aldehydes, 1195, 1666
from alkenes, 1041, 1666
from alkyl nitrites, 1666
from alkynes, 992, 1666
from amines, 1666
from aryl nitro compounds, 1666

from CCl_4, 1666
from epoxides, 1666
from ketones, 1195, 1666
from trihalides, 1666
from trihalo acids, 1666
Grignard reactions of, 1206
hydrolysis of, 463
mixed, from alkenes, 1041
reaction with malonate anion, 550
reaction with sulfide ion, 497
Dihedral angle, and conformation, 168
2,7-Dihydrothiepin-l,l-dioxide, 1342
2,5-Dihydrothiophene-l,l-dioxide, 1342
Dihydrophenanthrene, intermediate in photocyclization of stilbene, 1436
Dihydropyran, reaction with alcohols, 996
Dihydroquinidines
and dihydroxylation of alkenes, 1050
Dihydroxylation
and kinetic resolution, 154
catalytic, of alkenes, 1049
of alkenes, 1048-1051
of alkenes, diastereoselectivity, 1050
of alkenes, enantioselectivity, 1050
of alkenes, with peroxide, 1049
of aromatic compounds, 1050
of benzene, 1050
Sharpless asymmetric, 1050
Diimide,
dimerization, 254
reaction of azo compounds, 1556
reaction with alkenes, 1007
Diiodomethane, and the Simmons-Smith reaction, 1088
Diions
and ketene-imine cycloaddition, 1250
in the benzidine rearrangement, 1456
in [2+2]-cycloadditions, 1080
Diisobutylaluminum hydride, see Dibal
Diisopinocampheylborane, 154, 1014
Diisopropyl azodicarboxylate, reaction with alcohols, 502
Diisopropylacetylene, trimerization of, 1089
1,4-Diketones
from coupling of enolate anions, 1543
from silyl enol ethers, 1543
hydrolysis of, 1181
Diketones
acyl halides, 568
cleavage of, 812
conversion to enol ethers, 481
from alkynes, 1523, 1540
from aromatic carboxylic aids, 1563
from bis imidazole of oxalic acid, 1215
from epoxy ketones, 1398
from ketones, 1531
oxidative cleavage, 1520
reaction with hydrazines, 1193
Dilongifolylborane, 1015
Dimer mechanisms, for S_NAr reactions, 852
Dimerization
in radical addition to alkenes, 977
of alkanes, 926
of alkenes, 1077
of alkynes, 927, 1020
of carbenes, 252
of dienes, 1091
of Grignard reagents, 938
of ketenes, 1249
of lithium organoaluminates, 940
of nitrenes, 254
of organocuprates, 939
of radicals, 242
photochemical, 321
Dimers, of dialkylamides bases, 348
Dimesitylethenol, enol content, 74
1,2-Dimethoxyethane, 236
3,4-Dimethoxydiphenylmethyl acetate, 396
3,5-Dimethylcyclohexanol, 161
Dimethyl dioxirane
and oxidation of aromatic diols, 1518
oxidation of alkenes, 1533
oxidation of thiols, 1540
oxidative cleavage of diamines, 1520
reaction with isocyanates, 1540
Dimethyl malonate, pK_a, 347
Dimethyl sulfide, also see thioethers
Dimethyl sulfide
complex with dichloroborane, 1014
reaction with phenol, 722
reaction with base, 572
Dimethyl sulfoxide, see DMSO
1,2-Dimethylcyclohexene, reaction with bromine, 974
3,3-Dimethyl-1-butyl cation, 1387
3,3-Dimethylpentanal, 1390
cis-3,4-Dimethylcyclobutene, 1427
Dimethyl(methylthio)sulfonium fluoroborate, 1058
N,N-Dimethylacetamide, 295
Dimethylalkylidine cation, 220
Dimethylaluminum chloride, and the Prins reaction, 1242
Dimethylamine, and base strength, 349
4,N,N-Dimethylaminopyridine (DMAP), 483, 1340

Dimethylaminofluorene, 347
Dimethylaminophenanthrenes, 347
Dimethyldioxirane, oxidation of ketones, 916
Dimethylformamide, dimethyl acetal, 480
Dimethylformamide, see DMF
Dimethylhydrazones
  elimination reactions, 1348
  oxidation of, 1519
Dimethyloxosulfonium methylid
  reaction with aldehydes or ketones, 1247
  reaction with aromatic nitro compounds, 872
Dimethylsulfonium methylid
  reaction with aldehydes or ketones, 1247
Dimethyltitanium dichloride
  reaction with aldehydes or ketones, 1210
Dimethyltitanocene, 1238
Dinitriles
  from nitriles, 1238
  from ortho-diamines, 1527
  reaction with ammonia, 1192
  by the Thorpe reaction, 1238
Dinitromethane, pK_a, 230
p-Dinitrobenzene, dipole moment, 16
Diol, gem, see hydrates
1,2-Diols
  conversion to cyclic sulfates, 462
  from alcohols, 1667
  from aldehydes, 1667
  from alkenes, 1048-1051, 1667
  from aromatic aldehydes, 1667
  from hydrolysis of epoxides, 1667
  from ketones, 1667
1,3-Diols
  by the Prins reaction, 1667
  by the Tollens reaction, 1667
  from aldehydes, 1667
  from alkenes, 1667
Diols
  and the pinacol rearrangement, 1384
  aromatic, oxidation with chromium, 1517
  by Gomberg-Bachmann pinacol synthesis, 1560
  by photochemical dimerization, 1560
  by the Prévost method, 1049
  by the Prins reaction, 1241
  by the Tollens' reaction, 1230
  cyclic, from dialdehydes, 1560
  dehydration to cyclic ethers, 480
  formation of cyclopropanes, 544
  fragmentation reactions, 1346
  from alkenes, 290
  from alkenes and formaldehyde, 1241
  from anhydrides, 1551
  from aromatic compounds, 1050
  from epoxides, 468, 1463
  from Grignard reactions, 1208
  from ketones or aldehydes, 1230
  from lactones, 1551
  from reductive coupling of aldehydes or •ketones, 1559-1561
  hydrogenolysis, 527
  oxidation to lactones, 1537
  oxidative cleavage, 1519-1521
  reaction with $LiAlH_4$-$TiCl_3$, 544
  reaction with organolithium reagents, 1340
  reaction with thiophosgene, 1340
  rearrangements with acid, 1396-1398
1,3-Dioxa[8]-2,7-pyrenophane, 44
Dioxane, participation in substitution reactions, 402
Dioxanes
  and a homoanomeric interaction, 176
  conformation, 175-176
Dioxirane
  and ozonolysis, 1525
  oxidation of ethers, 1525
1,1-Diphenylethanediol, 1384
4,4-Diphenyloxathiolan-5-ones, 1355
Diphenylacetaldehyde, 1384
Diphenylmethyl cation, 222
Diphenylpicrylhydrazyl radical, 242
Diphenylsulfimide, 1057
Diphenyltetrabenz[*a,c,h,j*]anthracene, 44
Dipleiadiene, 69
1,3-Dipolar additions, see cycloadditions, [3+2]
Dipolar compounds, and [3+2]-cycloadditions, 1060
Dipole moment, 15-16
Dipole moments, and hyperconjugation, 71-72
1,3-Dipoles
  azides, 1060
  azomethine imines, 1060
  azomethine ylids, 1060
  azoxy compounds, 1060
  carbonyl oxides, 1060
  diazoalkanes, 1060
  nitrile imines, 1060
  nitrile oxides, 1060
  nitrile ylids, 1060
  nitrones, 1060
  nitrous oxide, 1060
  ozone, 1060
  thiocarbonyl ylids, 1061
Dipotassium nitrosodisulfonate, see Fremy's salt
Diradicals, also see radicals
Diradicals, 244

and Bergman cyclization, 1432
and cyclopropyl rearrangements, 1400
and dioxirane oxidation, 1525
and ozonolysis, 1525
and rearrangement, 1390
and remote oxidation, 1513
and singlet oxygen reaction with alkenes, 922
and the Cope rearrangement, 1447
and the Paterno-Büchi reaction, 1249
in [2+2]-cycloadditions, 1080
Directed aldol reaction, 1222
Disfavored, and Baldwin's rules, 283-284
Disiamylborane, 1012
Disodium tetracarbonylferrate, see tetracarbonylferrate
Displacement, and oxidation-reduction, 1509
Disproportionation
and radicals, 246
and the Cannizzaro reaction, 1564
in $LiAlH_4$ reduction of carbonyls, 1202
of aldehydes, 1564
of carbenes, 790
Disrotatory rotation, in electrocyclic rearrangements, 1427
Dissociation energy
of carbocations, 224
table, of radicals, 243
Dissolving metal reductions, 1200
and Birch reduction, 1010
of aldehydes or ketones, 1199
of alkynes, 1008
of aromatic compounds, 1009
of carboxylic acids, 532
of esters, 529
with nitriles, 815
Distance, bond, delocalized bonds, 35-36
Distillation, azeotropic
and formation of acetals or ketals, 1180
and formation of enamines, 1187
and formation of imines, 1186
Disulfide ion, reaction with alkyl halides, 498
Disulfides
by the Smiles rearrangement, 1667
from addition of ArSSCl to alkenes, 1667
from alkyl halides, 498, 1667
from aryl halides, 1667
from Bunte salts, 498
from reduction of sulfonyl halides, 1667
from thiols, 1543, 1667
reaction with alkenes, 1055
reaction with enolate anions, 783
reaction with zinc and acid, 1559
Dithiane anions
reaction with alkyl halides, 556
reaction with epoxides, 557
Dithianes
and conformation, 176
anions, 556
formation from aldehydes, 556
reaction with organolithium reagents, 556
reaction with Raney nickel, 557
Dithioacetals
alkylation, 557
from acetals, 1667
from aldehydes, 1181, 1667
from alkynes, 1667
from dihalides, 1667
from ketones, 1667
Dithiocarbamic acid salts, from amines and CS_2, 1192
Dithiocarboxylic acids, from Grignard reagents and CS_2, 1215
Dithiocarboxylic esters, from carboxylic acids, 1184
Dithioketals, alkylation, 557
Dithioketals, from ketones and thiols, 1182
Dithiols
from alkenes, 1667
from carbonyl compounds, 1667
from disulfides, 1667
from imines, 1667
α-Dithiomethyleneketones, 1229
Ditosylamines, reaction with iodide ion, 522
Divinylcyclobutanes, Cope rearrangement, 1445
Divinylcyclopropanes, Cope rearrangement, 1445, 1446
1,5-Diynes, Cope rearrangement, 1445
Diynes
and the Cadiot-Chodkiewicz reaction, 927
by the Eglinton reaction, 927
by the Glaser reaction, 927
from alkynes, 561, 927
from alkynylboranes, 939
reaction with amines, 1000
reaction with zirconium complexes, 1020
DME, see dimethyl(1,2-)ethane
DMF
and formation of thiophenols, 863
and monoalkylation of amines, 502
and nucleophilic substitution, 441
and reaction of organomercury compounds, 800
as a solvent, 450
influence on acidity, 351

DMSO
and Ag_2O, for coupling silyl enol ethers, 1543
and Cope elimination, 1333
and electrophilic aromatic substitution, 705
and epoxide hydrolysis, 468
and formation of thiophenols, 863
and oxidation of alcohols, 1515
and oxidation of alkyl halides, 1535
and reactions of cyanide and alkyl halides, 562
and reactivity haloaromatic compounds with anions, 856
and the Ramberg-Bäcklund reaction, 1342
as a solvent, 450
as a solvent for S_E1, 764
carbanion, reaction with aromatic nitro compounds, 872
reaction with base, 572
reaction with phenols and DMSO, 722
DMSO-based reagents for oxidation of alcohols, 1516
D_N nomenclature, IUPAC for mechanisms, 384
Dodecahedrane, 1514
Dodecahedryl cation, 224-225
Doebner modification, of the Knoevenagel reaction, 1226
Double asymmetric synthesis, 150, 1222
Double bond migration, in alkenes, 770
Double bond shifts, and electrophilic substitution, 766
Double carbonylations, 565
Double hyperconjugation, 220
Double-asymmetric synthesis, and hydroboration, 1015
Doublets, in ESR, 239
Dppe, and reduction of acid chlorides, 533
Dry ice, see carbon dioxide
Drying agents
and formation of acetals or ketals, 1180
and formation of enamines, 1187
and formation of imines, 1186
Dual substituent parameter equation, 373
Duff reaction, 717
Dyes, azo, by diazonium coupling, 700
Dyotropic rearrangements, 1465

E/Z isomers
and enolate anions, 237
and the Wittig reaction, 1235
E/Z nomenclature, 157
El elimination, see elimination, El
E1cB elimination, see elimination
E2 elimination, see eliminations, E2
E2C elimination, see elimination
EDA complexes, also see complexes, electron donor-acceptor
EDA complexes
and charge-transfer bonding, 104
and S_E2 reactions, 763
benzene, 103
T| prefix, 104
hapto prefix, 104
in photochemical [2+2]-cycloadditions, 1082
metallocenes, 103
norbornadienone, 103
of picric acid, 104
spectra, 102-103
EDTA, and oxidation of cyclic amines, 1535
Eglinton reaction, 927
Elbs reaction, 724
Electrochemistry
and dehalogenation of aryl halides, 735
and dehydration of oximes, 1348
and dimerization of ketones, 1560
and the Kolbe reaction, 941–942
and the Wacker process, 1538
conpling of dichlorides, 537
oxidation of alkynes, 1540
reduction of alkyl halides, 525
reduction of nitro compounds, 1564
Electrocyclic rearrangements, 1426-1436
and NMR, 1435
and super acids, 1435
conrotatory/disrotatory rotation, 1427
frontier orbital method, 1428
Möbius-Hückel method, 1429
orbital symmetry rules, 1434
Electrofuge, 385
Electrofuges
and electrophilic aromatic substitution, 675
and the S_E1 reaction, 769
Electromagnetic spectrum, 307
Electron affinity, and electronegativity, 15
Electron diffraction, and bond distance, 18
Electron donating groups, 17
Electron donating groups, σ values, 369–370, 372
Electron donor-acceptor complexes, 102-104
Electron donor-acceptor complexes, also see complexes
Electron paramagnetic resonance, see ESR
Electron releasing groups, σ values, 369-370, 372
Electron spin resonance, see ESR
Electron transfer
and oxidation-reduction, 1508
and oxidation-reduction, 1508
Electron withdrawing groups, 17

and aryl radicals, 905
and nucleophilic addition to alkenes, 982
Electron-donating field effect, see I effect
Electronegativity, 14-15
of substituents, 15
Pauling and Sanderson, 14
Electronic configuration, 6-8
Electronic effects
and migratory aptitude in carbocations, 1386
and radical formation, 902
in epoxidation of alkenes, 1052
in the Claisen rearrangement, 1451
Electronic structures of molecules, 12–13
Electrons
as waves, 3
lone pairs and bond angles, 22
lone pairs, steric demands, 22
valence, 12-13
Electrophilic aromatic substitution, see substitution
Electrophilic radicals, 897
Electrophilic rearrangements, 1392
Electrophilic substitution, see substitution, electrophilic
Electrophilic, mechanism, 275
Element effect, 429
Elimination reactions, definition, 1299
1,4-Elimination, 1326
Elimination
and acidity of β- hydrogen, 1316
and Bredt's rule, 188, 1314
and Grignard formation from dihalides, 805
and heat of combustion, 1315
and Hofmann's rule, 1320
and ketone enolate anions with alkyl halides, 552
and leaving group effects, 1316, 1321
and reactivity at bridgehead carbons, 1314
and regiochemistry, 1314-1317
and steric effects, 1316, 1319
and substrate structure, 1319-1320
and Zaitsev's rule, 1314, 1315
Elimination
anti, 1300
P-, 1299
P-, kinetic classifications, 1309
by fragmentation reactions, 1345
competition with substitution, 1320
conjugate, 1326
Cope, 1333
Elimination, E1, 1306-1308
and dehydration of alcohols, 1328
and dehydrohalogenation, 1337
and E2 elimination, 1308
and fragmentation reactions, 1345
and ion pairs, 1308
and leaving groups, 1307
and Zaitsev's rule, 1308
IUPAC nomenclature, 1307
Elimination, E1cB, 1308-1312
and benzynes, 1310
and ion pairs, 1312
IUPAC nomenclature, 1308
leaving group effects, 1310–1311
substrate effects, 1310
Elimination, E2, 1300–1306
and dehydrohalogenation, 1337
and fragmentation reactions, 1345
and Hofmann elimination, 1331
and Hofmann's rule, 1315
and ion pairs, 1306
and isotope effects, 1304
and reactivity, 366
and the Peterson alkenylation reaction, 1228
and Zaitsev's rule, 1303
anti-periplanar conformation, 1300
formation of stereoisomers, 1301
from cyclic halides, 1302
IUPAC nomenclature, 1300
structural requirements, 1315
syn-anti dichotomy, 1304
with bicyclo[2.2.2] compounds, 1303
Elimination, E2C, 1313-1314
and the Br0nsted equation, 1313
E2C, and Zaitsev's rule, 1314
effect of base, 1320
effects of the medium, 1321
Elimination, Ei
and dehydrohalogenation, 1337
and pyrolysis of esters, 1330
and the Chugaev reaction, 1330
and the Peterson alkenylation reaction, 1228
Elimination
extrusion reactions, 1352
from alkyl halides, 1336-1337
from alkyl halides, and Hofmann's rule, 1337
from alkyl halides, and Zaitsev's rule, 1337
from alkyl halides, solvent effects, 1337
from ammonium hydroxides, and Hofmann's rule, 1331
from ammonium hydroxides, and Zaitsev's rule, 1331
from ammonium salts, and cis/trans isomers, 1333
from boranes, Zaitsev's rule, 1339
from dihalides, 1195

Elimination *(Continued)*
from halides, and **enantioselectivity,** 1338
from **hydroxy** acids, 1346
from organometallics and **alkyl** halides, 807
Hofmann, 1316-1317, 1331
isomer formation and **diastereomers,** 1318
IUPAC nomenclature for mechanism, 383
mechanisms, 276
Elimination, pyrolytic, 1322-1326
and Bredt's rule, 1325
and **Hofmann's** rule, 1325
and radical intermediates, **1324**
and syn elimination, 1323
and Woodward-Hoffmann rules, **1324**
and Zaitsev's rule, 1325
regioselectivity, 1325
Elimination
p values, 1313, 1321
reactivity, 1318-1322
solvent effects, 1321
substituent effects, **1319**
Elimination, syn, 1300
and catalytic elimination of **acyl** halides, 1339
and pyrolytic elimination, 1323
and the Knoevenagel reaction, 1226
and the Peterson alkenylation reaction, 1228
Elimination
to form carbenes, 249
to form **nitrenes,** 253
Elimination-addition mechanisms, 430
Emde reduction, 530
Emission spectroscopy, and mechanism, 321
Emission, and radicals, in **NMR,** 240
Enamine-imine tautomerism, 1000
Enamines, also see Stork **enamine** reaction
Enamine
acylation of, 788
alkylation of, 787
Enamines
and drying agents, **1187**
and formation by azeotropic distillation, **1187**
and formation with microwaves, **1186**
and the Bucherer reaction, 865
and the Simmons-Smith reaction, 1089
and the Thorpe reaction, 1238
and the Thorpe-Ziegler reaction, 1239
Enamines
formation of, 787
formation on clays, **1186**
Enamines
from aldehydes, **1187,** 1667
from alkenes, **1000**
from alkylation of enamines, 1667
from alkynes, **1667**
from aminals, 1187
from amines, 1000, 1187, **1667,** 1668
from **formamides,** 1667
from Grignard reagents, **1667**
from ketones, **1187,** 1667
from Petasis alkenylation, 1668
from phosphonates, 1667
from Tebbe alkenylation, 1668
Enamines
halogenation, reagents for, 788
hydrolysis and the Thorpe reaction, 1238
hydrolysis of, **1178**
in [2+2]-cycloadditions, 1077
Enamines
reaction with 9-BBN, 1014
reaction with acyl halides, 788
reaction with alkyl halides, 555, 787
reaction with anhydrides, 788
reaction with boranes, 530
reaction with CNBr, CNC1, or CN1, 788
reaction with ethyl chloroformate, 788
reaction with isocyanates, **1250**
reaction with strong base, 558
Enamines
reduction, reagents for, 530
salts, alkylation of, 788
Stork enamine synthesis, 555
tautomerism with **imines,** 77
Enamino ketones, **1187**
Enantiomeric composition, by derivatization, 142-143
Enantiomers
and enantiotopic atoms, **164–166**
and optical antipodes, 125
and optical purity, 155-156
and optical rotation, 126-127
and physical properties, 125-126
and planes of symmetry, **127–128**
and reaction rates, **126**
and specific rotation, **127**
and the E2 reaction, 1301
definition, 125
levo and dextro isomers, **125**
racemates, definition, 126
racemic mixture, definition, 126
resolution of, 151-155
resolution, definition, 126
Enantiomorphs, see enantiomer
Enantioselective protonation, of enolate anions, 794
Enantioselective reactions, definition, 150

Enantioselectivity
addition of HCN to aldehydes or ketones, 1239
addition of organolithium reagents to imines, 1216
and dehydrohalogenation, 1338
and epoxide elimination, 1329
and reduction of ketones, 1200
and the Baeyer-Villiger rearrangement, 1417
and the Heck reaction, 931
and the Knoevenagel reaction, 1225
and [3+2]-cycloadditions, 1061
enolate anions, and organopalladium compounds, 551
epoxides from sulfur ylids and aldehydes or ketones, 1248
in boronic esters with organolithium reagents, 1424
in catalytic hydrogenation, 1003
in conjugate additions, 1029
in heteroatom Diels-Alder reactions, 1075
in reaction of imines and diazoalkanes, 1217
in reaction of imines and HCN, 1240
in reaction of organometallics with aldehydes or ketones, 1206
in reactions of aldehydes with allylsilanes, 1211
in reactions of CO, alkenes and water, 1035
in reactions of organometallics with ketones, 1210
in reduction of imines, 1203
in reduction of oximes, 1554
in the aldol reaction, 1221
in the Baylis-Hillman reaction, 1212
in the Darzen's glycidic ester condensation, 1230
in the Diels-Alder reaction, 1065
in the Ireland-Claisen rearrangement, 1452
in the Mukaiyama aldol reaction, 1223
in the Pauson-Khand reaction, 1091
in the Prins reaction, 1242
in the Pummerer rearrangement, 1566
in the Reformatsky reaction, 1212
in the Stork enamine reaction, 788
in [2,3]-sigmatropic rearrangement, 1454
ketene reactions with aldehydes or ketones, 1249
ketone enolate anions and alkyl halides, 552
with metal carbenes, 1086
Enantiotopic atoms, 164-166
Enantiotopic atoms
and prochiral, 165
and radiolabeling, 164
and the Krebs cycle, 164
re/si nomenclature, 166
Enantiotopic faces, 166
Enantiotopic, definition, 164
Encounter complex, 680
Encyclopedia of Reagents for Organic Synthesis (EROS), 1624
Endo addition, in the Diels-Alder reaction, 1064
Ene reaction, 1021
and fullerenes, 1021
catalysts for, 1022
retro, 1022
Ene-diynes, and Bergman cyclization, 1432
Energy barrier, and conformation, 169
Energy cascade, and photochemistry, 313
Energy diagram, and photochemistry, 307-308
Energy diagrams, 282
Energy levels, benzyl intermediates, 56
Energy
activation, of radicals, 906
alternant hydrocarbons, 56
and photochemistry, 307-308
barrier for cyclopentane conformation, 178
barrier to chair-to-chair interconversion, 173
bond, 22-24, 312
bond dissociation energy, 22
bond dissociation for C-H vs. C-D, 297
bond dissociation, and radicals, 900, 911
bond dissociation, for HX and RX, 911
bond energy and steric influences, 23
bond, delocalized bonds, 35-36
bond, in benzene, 35
bond, table, 24
conformations of butane, 169–170
conformations of ethane, 168
dissociation energy of carbocations, 224
dissociation, table, of radicals, 243
enthalpy, 277-278
enthalpy of activation, 280
entropy, 277-278
entropy and ring closing, 280
entropy of activation, 280
formal steric enthalpy, 190
free, 277-278
free and solvent effects, 452
free of activation, 278-279
free, and acid strength, 336
free, and catalysis, 289
free, and kinetics, 278-279
free, and Marcus theory, 286-287
free, and resonance effects, 365
free, and the Hammett equation, 369-370
heat of atomization, 22
heat of combustion, 22
of activation and Marcus theory, 286

Energy *(Continued)*
of activation, and activated complex, 279
of activation, and reaction coordinate, 279
of activation, and transition state, 279
resonance, 32
resonance, for butadiene, 37
resonance, in benzene, 35
singlet vs. triplet carbenes, 248
S_N1 reaction of chloromethane and chloride ion, 394
solvation, in S_N1 reactions, 394
strain, 180
strain, calculation, 180
strain, cyclotetradecane, 214
transfer, and photochemistry, 316
Enlargement, of rings, by carbenes, 250-51
Enol acetates
and the Mukaiyama aldol reaction, 1223
iodination of, 777
reaction with methyllithium, 554
Enol borates, and the aldol reaction, 1221
Enol borinates
and borane reactions with halo carbonyls, 560
and the aldol reaction, 1221
reaction with conjugated compounds, 1031
reaction with methyllithium, 554
Enol carbamates, from alkynes, CO, and an amine, 1668
Enol esters
from alkynes, 998
hydrolysis of, 474
reaction with alcohols, 487
reaction with carboxylic acids, 491
Enol ethers, allyl, see ethers, allyl vinyl
Enol ethers
and formation of Mannich bases, 1191
and the Mukaiyama aldol reaction, 1223
and the Simmons-Smith reaction, 1089
by Petasis alkenylation, 1237-1238
by Tebbe alkenylation, 1237-1238, 1668
by transesterification, 1668
by transetherification, 481, 1668
dialkylboron, see enol borinates
Enol ethers
from 1,3-dicarbonyl compounds, 1668
from α-alkoxy phosphoranes, 1668
from acetals, 1329
from active hydrogen compounds, 1668
from acyl halides, 1668
from alcohols, 1668
from aldehydes, 1668
from alkynes, 1668
from anhydrides, 1668
from β-halo acetals, 1668
from carboxylic acids, 1668
from cleavage of acetals, 1668
from diazo alkanes, 1668
from diketones, 481
from esters, 1668
from formation of acetals and ketals, 1181
from ketenes, 1668
from metal carbene complexes, 1668
from ortho esters, 1668
from Petasis alkenylation, 1668
from phenols, 1668
from vinyl halides, 1668
Enol ethers
hydrolysis mechanism, 467
hydrolysis of, 465
hydrolysis, and isotopic labeling, 467
hydrolysis, isotope effects, 468
hydrolysis, mechanism, 467
oxidation of, 1539
propargyl, see ethers, propargyl vinyl
pyrolysis of, 1329
reaction with alcohols, 487
Enol ethers, silyl
addition to conjugated ketones, 1024
and the Sakurai reaction, 1024
coupling with Ag_2O/DMSO, 1543
from enolate anions, 794
from ketones and aldehydes, 793
from vinyllithium reagents, 796
kinetic and thermodynamic, 794
nucleophilic strength, 1221
reaction with DDQ, 1512
reaction with Grignard reagents, 546
reaction with ketones and aldehydes, 552
reaction with methyllithium, 554
reagents for preparation, 794
Enol thioethers
from aldehydes, 1668
from alkynes, 1668
from ketones, 1185, 1668
from sulfoxides, 1668
from thiols, 1185,1668
Enolate anions, also see carbanions
Enolate anions, 230
ab initio studies, 237
acetoacetic ester synthesis, 549
ambident nucleophiles, 458
Enolate anions
and aggregates, 237
and Baldwin's rules, 283-284
and Claisen rearrangement, 1452

and cyanoacetic ester synthesis, 549
and Grignard reagents, 1207
and Katritzkypyrylium-pyridinium reagents, 551
and keto-enol tautomerism, 775
and Michael addition, 1023
and solvents, 548
and the Robinson annulation, 1222
and xray crystal structure, 236
Enolate anions
as ambident nucleophiles, 458
bases for their formation, 548
E/Z isomers, 237
enantioselective protonation, 794
Enolate anions, ester
and the Claisen condensation, 552
reaction with esters, 569-570
Enolate anions
formation of, 793
from active hydrogen compounds, 1668
from aldehydes, 1668
from enol acetates, 1668
from enols, 75
from organocuprate conjugate addition, 1027
from organolithium reagents, 1209
halogenation of, 776
in coupling reactions, 1543
in the aldol reaction, 1218
in the malonic ester synthesis, 549
Enolate anions, ketone, 1668
and solvents, 552
and the aldol condensation, 552
and vinylogy, 553
bases for, 551
reaction with alkyl halides, 551
reaction with esters, 571
regioselectivity of alkylation, 554
thermodynamic stability, 554
Enolate anions
metal variation in the aldol reaction, 1221
Enolate anions, nitrile, 552-553
reaction with esters, 572
Enolate anions
phase transfer and alkylation, 548
protonation of, 976
Enolate anions
reaction with acyl halides, 569
reaction with alkyl halides, 548
reaction with anhydrides, 569
reaction with aryl halides, 869
reaction with aziridines, 548
reaction with diazonium salts, 778
reaction with disulfides, 783
reaction with palladium compounds, 551
reaction with PhSeCl or PhSeBr, 783
reaction with silyl halides, 793
reaction with tosyl azide, 780
reaction with tosyl cyanide, 786
reaction with zinc chloride, 1221
Enolate anions
structure of, 236-237
Enolate dianions, reaction with boranes, 1424
Enolate radicals, 242
Enolendo, and Baldwin's rules, 284
Enolene rearrangement, 1450
Enolexo, and Baldwin's rules, 284
Enolization
and Grignard reagents, 1207
and organolithium reagents, 1209
Enols
and keto-enol tautomerism, 73-75
and NMR, 75
and the aldol reaction, 1222
and the Bucherer reaction, 865
borinate, halogenation of, 777
chiral, in the aldol reaction, 1221
enol content of carbonyl compounds, 74
fluorinated, enol content, 74-75
from enolate anions, 976
Fuson-type, 74
of acetoacetic ester, 74-75
stable, 189
tautomerization with keto form, 773-775
Entgegen nomenclature, 157
Enthalpy, see energy
Enthalpy, 277-278
formal steric, 190
Entropy, see energy
Entropy, 277-278
and temperature, 278
and the aldol reaction, 1222
cleavage in ethane, 278
Entropy effect, and acid or base strength, 347
Entropy of activation, and substitution, 404
Envelope conformation, 178
Enzymes
and Bakers yeast reduction, 1004, 1200, 1553-1555
and dihydroxylation of aromatic compounds, 1050
and formation of lactams, 508
and hydrolysis, of epoxides, 468
and hydrolysis, of esters, 470
and Meinwald rearrangement, 1398
and reduction of ketones, 1200
and transesterification, 487
from dimerization of alkynes, 1668

Ephedrine, and resolution, 151
Epimers, definition, 146
Episulfides
ambident substrates, 461
and nucleophiles, 446
elimination with **triphenylphosphine, 1341**
from cyclization of **β-halo disulfides, 1669**
from diazoalkanes, 1248, 1669
from epoxides, 1248, 1669
from thioketones, 1248, 1669
reaction with ammonia, 504
Episulfone intermediates, in the Ramberg-Bäcklund reaction, 1342
Episulfones
from sulfonyl halides and **diazomethane, 1249**
thermolysis of, 1248
Epoxidation
and kinetic resolution, 154
by the Darzen's reaction, 1219
Jacobsen-Katsuki, 1053
of alkenes, 1051-1054
of alkenes, and the Baeyer-Villiger reaction, 1052
of alkenes, Sharpless asymmetric, 1053
of conjugated compounds, 1053
Epoxides
alcoholysis of, 481
ambident substrates, 461
and enzyme-induced rearrangements, 1398
and Meinwald rearrangement, **1398**
and pinacol rearrangement, 1398
and the Payne rearrangement, **481**
by internal S_N2, 406, 478
by Payne rearrangement, **1669**
by photooxygenation of alkenes, 1054
by the Darzens glycidic ester condensation, 1230
by the Darzens reaction, 1669
by the Prilezhaev reaction, 1052
elimination with triethyl phosphite, **1341**
elimination with triphenylphosphine, **1341**
Epoxides
from **1,2-diols, 1669**
from **2,3-epoxy** alcohols, 1669
from **α-halo** esters, 1669
from aldehydes, 1247, 1248, 1669
from alkenes, 1051-1054, 1669
from alkenes, reagents for, 1054
from amides, 1669
from carbonyl compounds, 1206
from diazoalkanes, **1248**
from diazomethane, **1669**
from dihalides, 1206, 1669
from halohydrins, 478, 1669
from ketones, 1247, 1248, 1669
from secododecahedrane, **1669**
from sulfur **ylids, 1247, 1669**
Epoxides
hydrolysis of, 468
hydrolysis of, and high pressure, 468
hydrolysis, enzymatic, 468
hydrolysis, selectivity with **Co-salen** catalysts, 468
isomerization of, 481
oxidative cleavage, **1520**
Epoxides
reaction with alcohols, 481
reaction with alkoxides, **481**
reaction with **allyl** silanes, 535
reaction with ammonia, 504
reaction with base, 1329
reaction with dithiane anions, 557
reaction with Grignard reagents, 546
reaction with HX, 520
reaction with $LiAlH_4$, 529
reaction with NH4SCN and **ceric** ammonium nitrate, 1248
reaction with nucleophiles, 446
reaction with organobarium compounds, 547
reaction with organocuprates, 547
reaction with organolithium **reagents,** 546, 1329
reaction with Ph_2PLi, **1341**
reaction with Ph_3=NPh, 515
reaction with phosphines, 1235
reaction with **Red-Al,** 529
reaction with **sulfide** ions, 497
reaction with thiols, **481**
Epoxides
reagents for preparing halohydrins, 521
rearrangement with acid, 1398
rearrangement with hydroxide, 1463
reduction, 1552
reduction, reagents for, 529
vinyl, rearrangement in Grignard reactions, 547
vinylic, reaction with Grignard reagents, 547
Epoxy alcohols
and the Payne rearrangement, **481**
from epoxy ketones, 1200
rearrangements with $TiCl_4$, **1398**
ring opening, 462
Epoxy amines, conversion to aziridines, 504
Epoxy esters, by the Darzens glycidic ester condensation, 1230
Epoxy hydrazones, fragmentation with base, 1347

Epoxy ketones
from conjugated ketones, 1509
reduction of, 1200
EPR, see ESR
Equatorial bonds, 172
Equilibrium constants
and acid strength, 336
and carbocations, 220
and transition states, 279
Equilibrium
and carbocation rearrangements, 1380
and conformations of cyclohexane, 172-175
and conformations of substituted cyclohexanes, 175
and ester hydrolysis, 470
and keto-enol tautomerism, 774
and kinetics, 293
and leaving reaction at acyl carbon, 448
and the adamantyl cation, 1383
and the benzoin condensation, 1243
and the Hammett equation, 368
and the Meerwein-Ponndorf-Verley reduction, 1199
and the Oppenauer oxidation, 1199
and the Sommelet-Hauser rearrangement, 878
and thermodynamic control, 284-285
boranes and alkenes, 1338
cyclobutenes-l,3-dienes, 1426
cyclohexadiene-trienes, 1426
hydrates and carbonyl compounds, 1176
in alkene metathesis, 1457
in reactions of HCN with aldehydes or ketones, 1239
in reactions of organometallics, 802
in the aldol reaction, 1220
Schlenk, 234
structure and reactivity, 368
thermal alkylborane migration, 1409
Ergost-7-en-3-one, 367
Erythro diastereomers, from electrophilic addition to alkenes, 971
Erythro nomenclature, 146-147
Erythro/threo diastereomers
and E2 elimination, 1301
in the aldol reaction, 1221
ESCA, and carbocation rearrangements, 419
Eschenmoser's salt, 1191
Eschenmoser-Tanabe ring cleavage, 1347
Eschweiler-Clarke reaction, 1188
ESR
and captodative effects, 242
and coupling of organometallics with RX, 538
and doublets, 239
and Grignard reagents, 1208
and radical addition to alkenes, 979
and radicals, 239, 244
and SET mechanisms, 403
and the Mills-Nixon effect, 690
Ester hydrolysis, see esters, hydrolysis of
Ester hydrolysis, see hydrolysis, esters
Ester intermediates, in oxidation- reduction, 1508
Ester thioethers, by the Pummerer rearrangement, 1566
Esterase, pig liver, and ester hydrolysis, 470
Esterification
and Amberlyst-15, 486
and microwaves, 484
and steric hindrance, 485
dehydrating agents, 486
Mitsunobu, 486
of carboxylic acids, 484-486
with 2,2,2-trichloroacetimidate, 486
Esters, acetoacetic, see acetoacetic esters
Esters
acylation of, 569-570
acyloin condensation, 1562
alcoholysis of, 486
alkynyl, from acetylides and peroxides, 796
allylic, also see acetates, allylic
allylic, reaction with organocuprates, 545
and acidity, 344
and azeotropic distillation, 484
and leaving groups, 449
and the Barton-McCombie reaction, 527
and the Claisen reaction, 1224
and transesterification, 486
aryl, from aryl halides, 870
aryl, reaction with Leis acids, 727
aryl, reagents for formation, 870
bromo, and the Blaise reaction, 1213
bromo, in the Reformatsky reaction, 1212
Esters
by Katritzky pyrylium-pyridinium method, 489
by reactions of tetracarbonylferrate, 565
by the Arndt-Eistert rearrangement, 1663
by the Baeyer-Villiger reaction, 1417, 1663
by the Favorskii rearrangement, 1663
by the Pinner synthesis, 1183
by the Schotten-Baumann procedure, 482
by the Simonini reaction, 943, 1662
by the Tishchenko reaction, 1565, 1663
Esters
carbonate, from alkoxides and CO_2, 1184
chloro, reaction with aldehydes, 1230
chloro, reaction with ketones, 1230

Esters *(Continued)*
cleavage with **thiols,** 496
Esters, conjugated
and Michael reactions, 1022-1024
from esters and aldehydes or ketones, 1223
reaction with aldehydes, 1212
reaction with organocuprates, 1027
Esters
dissolving metal reduction of, 529
dithiocarboxylic, from carboxylic acids, **1184**
enol, see **enol** esters
enolate anion, reaction with esters, 569-570
enolates, also see enolate anions
formate, reaction with **alkenes,** 1034
formation from carboxylic acids, and microwaves, 484
formation of, and steric hindrance, 485
formation, mechanism of, 485
Esters
from **1,1,1-trihalides,** 463
from acetophenones, 1663
from **acyl** halides, 483, 1662
from acyl hydrazides, 488
from acyl peroxides, **1662**
from alcohols, 483, 486, 488, 801, **1183,** 1662, 1663
from alcoholysis of acyl halides, 482
from aldehydes, 1565, 1663
from alkenes, 997, 1662, 1663
from **alkyl** halides, 564, **1662**
from alkyne ethers, 1662
from amides, 488, 1662
from anhydrides, 483, 1662
from **aryl** esters, 1662
from aryl halides, **1662**
from aryl nitro compounds, 1662
from **β-keto** esters, 1662
from boranes, 1662
from carboxylic acid salts, 1662
from carboxylic acids, **484–486, 489, 490,** 997, 1528, 1662, 1663
from chloro ketones, 1403
from chloroformates, 1662
from conjugated esters, 1662
from cyclic ketones, 1663
from diazo compounds, 490, **1662**
from diazo esters, **1662**
from diazo ketones, 1406
from **dimethylformamide** acetals, 489
from enol ethers, 1539, 1663
from esters, 486, 1662
from ethers, 483, 486, 1534, 1662,1663
from Grignard reagents, **1662**
from halo esters, 1662
from hydrazides, 1662
from hydrocarbons, 922-923
from hydrolysis of ortho esters, **1662**
from iminium salts, **1183**
fromketenes, 1662
from ketones, 1417, 1663
from keto esters, **812**
from mercury hydrides, **1662**
from methyl ketones, 1662
from nitriles, **1183,** 1663
from nitrogen heterocycles, 1662
from organometallic compounds, **1662**
from oxazines, 559, 1662
from oxidative cleavage of **silyl** ketones, 1521
from ozonides, 1663
from phenols, 1662
from rearrangement of **α-halo** ketones, **1663**
from rearrangement of diazo ketones, 1663
from tin hydrides, **1662**
from **transesterification,** 1662
from trihalides, **1662**
from unsaturated esters, **1662**
from unsaturated ketones, 1662
Esters
gas phase reactions, 473
glycidic, 1230
homologation of, 568
hydrogenolysis of, 527, 529
Esters, hydrolysis, 371, 469-474, 1050
Esters, hydrolysis
and freezing point depression, 472
and labeling, 290, 425, 472
and microwaves, 470
and phase transfer catalysis, 470
and ring strain, 473
and stereochemistry, 472
and the tetrahedral mechanism, 425
enzymatic, 470
isotope effects, 472
mechanism, 470-473
reagents for, 470
Esters, **imino**
and the Chapman **rearrangement, 1464**
thermolysis, 1464
Esters, inorganic
alkylation with, 478
from alcohols, 1676
from alkenes, **1677**
from alkyl halides, **1676**
from aryl halides, **1676**
from diazonium salts, **1677**
from inorganic halides, **1676**

from trialkylboranes, 1676
preparation of, 493
Esters, malonic, see malonic esters
Esters
methyl, cleavage with NaCN-HMPA, 562
methyl, from diazomethane and carboxylic acids, 490
Mosher's derivative, 142-143
of glutaric acid, and the Stobbe condensation, 1224
of inorganic acids, hydrolysis of, 464
ortho, see ortho esters
oxime, and the Beckmann rearrangement, 1415
phenolic, from arylmethyl ketones, 1528
phenylthio, radical cyclization, 1244
phosphonate, and Lawesson's reagent, 1331
phosphonate, cleavage, 1331
propargyl, reaction with organocuprates, 545
pyrolysis of, 1327, 1329
Esters
reaction with alcohols, 486
reaction with aldehydes or ketones, 1223
reaction with amide bases, 1224
reaction with amines, 510
reaction with ammonia, 510
reaction with carboxylic acid dianions, 572
reaction with carboxylic acids, 491
reaction with Cp_2TiCl_2, 1552
reaction with dimagnesium compounds, 1214
reaction with Grignard reagents, 567, 1214
reaction with ketone enolate anions, 571
reaction with Lawesson's reagent, 1184
reaction with Li and amines, 529
reaction with $LiAlH_4$, 1551
reaction with $LiAlH_4$-BF_3, 1550
reaction with lithium amides, 510
reaction with lithium iodide, 521
reaction with Me_2AlNH_2, 1195
reaction with Me_3Al, 567
reaction with nitrile enolate anions, 572
reaction with nitrous acid, 465
reaction with organolithium reagents, 567
Esters
reduction by the Bouveault-Blanc procedure, 1551
reduction to alcohols, 1551
reduction to ethers, 1550
sterically hindered, and hydrolysis, 470
substitution with bromo esters and Zn, 1213
sulfenylation of, 783
Esters, sulfonate
hydrolysis, 465
alkylation with alkoxides, 478
allylic coupling with nickel tetracarbonyl, 543
as leaving groups, 446
by the Knoevenagel condensation, 1687
coupling with Grignard reagents, 543
coupling with organocuprates, 543
elimination reactions, 1340
elimination with base, 1330
from alcohols, 1687
from aldehydes, 1687
from aryl nitro compounds, 1687
from boranes, 1687
from ethers, 494, 1687
from halo sulfonic acid esters, 1687
from ketones, 1687
from sulfonamides, 576
from sulfonic acid derivatives, 494, 576, 1687
hydrolysis and labeling, 574
hydrolysis of, 465, 575
of phenols, reduction of, 867
reaction with Grignard reagents, 574
reaction with halide ions, 518
reaction with $LiAlH_4$, 526
reagents for hydrogenolysis, 526
Esters
tethered, acyloin condensation, 1602 (ref. 748)
thio, see thioesters
xanthate, and the Chugaev reaction, 1330
xanthate, pyrolysis of, 1330
$E_T(30)$ values, 454
Étard reaction, 1534
Ethane
cleavage and entropy, 278
conformational energy diagram, 168
heat of combustion, 22
Ethanoic acid, see acetic acid
Ethanol, with sodium, for reduction of aldehydes or ketones, 1199
Ethanolamine, and dealky lation of ammonium salts, 503
Ethanonium ion, 770
Ethene
and resonance, 41
bond angles, 9
bonding, 8-9, 12
reaction with bromine, 973
valence electrons, 12
Etherification, transannular, 920
Ethers
α-halo, and the Boord reaction, 1344
allyl aryl, and Claisen rearrangement, 1449
allyl vinyl, and Claisen rearrangement, 1452

Ethers *(Continued)*
allyl vinyl, and [1,3]-alkyl sigmatropic rearrangements, 1442
allylic, anion, and the Wittig rearrangement, 558
allylic, carbanions, and [2,3] Wittig rearrangement, 1454
allylic, reaction with Grignard reagents, 546
allylic, reaction with organolithium reagents, 558
and acidity, 344
and dialkylamides basses, 349
and esterification reactions, 486
aryl, and the $S_{ON}2$ mechanism, 862
aryl, by the Ullmann ether synthesis, 863
aryl, deoxygenation, 734
aryl, from aryl halides, 862
as solvents for Grignard reactions, 546
benzylic, selective cleavage, 520
by reductive dimerization of aldehydes or ketones, 1182
by the heteroatom Diels-alder reaction, 1669
by the Williamson ether synthesis, 1669
by transetherification, 480, 1669
Ethers
cleavage of, 1537
cleavage with acetic anhydride, 489
cleavage with acetyl tosylate, 490
cleavage with aniline salts, 503
cleavage with HBr, 465, 520
cleavage with HI, 465, 519
cleavage with sulfinic acids, 494
cleavage with sulfuric acid, 465
Ethers, crown, see crown ethers
Ethers, cyclic
and elimination reactions, 1329
cleavage with HI, 520
from alcohols, 919
from diols, 480
from lactones, 1548, 1550
from thionolactones, 1215
oxidation of, 1534
Ethers
demethylation, with thiolate ions, 496
dichloromethyl methyl, reaction with aromatic compounds, 717
Ethers, enol, see enol ethers
Ethers
from acetals, 528, 545, 1669
from alcohols, 479, 482, 996, 1669
from aldehydes, 1182, 1669
from alkenes, 996, 1669
from alkoxides, 1669
from alkyl halides, 477, 1669
from aroxides, 1669
from aryl halides, 1669
from diazo compounds, 479, 1669
from esters, 1550, 1669
from ethers, 480,1669
from Grignard reagents, 796,1669
from inorganic esters, 1669
from ketals, 528, 545,1669
from ketones, 1182,1669
from onium ions, 1669
from onium salts, 482, 1669
from peroxides, 796
from peroxy esters, 1669
from phenols, 1669
from thiono esters, 1550, 1669
Ethers
halo, elimination reactions, 1344
hydrogenolysis of, 528
methyl, from alcohols and diazomethane, 479
oxidation with dioxirane, 1525
oxidation with ruthenium tetroxide, 1534
propargyl vinyl, Claisen rearrangement, 1452
propargylic, reaction with Grignard reagents, 546
Ethers
reaction with acyl halides, 483
reaction with alcohols, 480
reaction with alkyl halides, 492
reaction with amide bases, 1328
reaction with carboxylic acids, 486
reaction with Lewis acids, 520
reaction with organolithium reagents, 1328, 1421
reaction with oxonium salts, 492
Ethers, silyl enol, see enol ethers, silyl
Ethers
symmetrical, preparation of, 480
thio, see thioethers
Etheylenediaminetetraacetic acid, see EDTA
Ethoxide reaction with 1,1-dichloroethene, 428
Ethyl acetoacetate, alkylation of, 459
Ethyl chloroformate, reaction with enamines, 788
Ethyl diazoacetate, and homologation of ketones, 1408
Ethyl ethylthiomethyl sulfoxide, alkylation of, 556
Ethyl fluoride, reaction with mesitylene and BF_3, 678
Ethyl pyroglutamate, see pyroglutamate, ethyl ester
2-Ethyltetrahydrofuran, 480
3-Ethylpiperidine, 1634
Ethylaluminum dichloride, and the Prins reaction, 1242

Ethylene glycol, and the **Bamford-Stevens** reaction, 1335
Ethylene oxide
and strain, 180
reaction with acetyl chloride, 521
Ethylene, see ethene
Ethyllithium, 240
Ethylmercuric chloride, 237
Ethyne
bonding, 9-10
excited state, **311**
Exchange
H-D, and electrophilic aromatic substitution, 695
H-D, and super acids, 770
H-D, in hydrocarbons, 769
Exciplex, in [2+2]-cycloadditions, 1082
Excitation, photochemical, types, 309
Excited molecules
chemical processes, 317-321
physical processes, 315
Excited states
and **fluorescence**, 313–314
and internal conversion, **313**
and phosphorescence, **315**
and photochemistry, 306
fate of molecules, 313-317
nomenclature, 310-311
Exhaustive **alkylation**, 500
Exo addition, in the **Diels-Alder** reaction, **1064**
Exo/endo, and Baldwin's rules, 283-284
Extinction coefficient, 307
Extrusion reactions, **1352**
decarbonylation of ketones, 1347
pyrazolines, 1353
the Ramberg-Bäcklund reaction, 1343
Extrusion
of CO_2 and the Story synthesis, **1355**
of SO_2 from cyclic sulfones, 1354-1355

F strain, and basicity, 3436
Face strain, and basicity, 346
Favored reactions, and Baldwin's rules, 283-284
Favorskii rearrangement, 1225, 1403-1405
quasi-Favorskii, 1405
Fehling's solution, oxidation of aldehydes, 917
Felkin-Ahn model, 148
Felkin-Ahn rule, and radical addition to alkenes, 981
Fenton's reagent, 916
and alkane dimerization, 927
Ferric bromide, catalyst for aromatic halogenation, 704
Ferric chloride, catalyst for aromatic halogenation, 704
Ferrocene, bonding and aromaticity, 54
Ferrocene, stability of, 54
Ferrous sulfate
and Fenton's reagent, 916
and oxidation of aromatic compounds, 916
Field effects, 16-18
and acid strength, 342-343
and carbanions, **231**
and carbocations, 220
and electrophilic aromatic substitution, **681**
and hybridization, **18**
and structure, 363
aromatic amides, 364-365
for aniline, 42
in alkene addition reactions, 987
with radicals, 906
Fieser and Fieser, **1627**
Finkelstein reaction, **517**
First order reactions, 291
Fischer indole synthesis, 1452-1453
Fischer projections
and erythro/threo nomenclature, 147
and the **CIP** system, 141
definition, 137
Fischer-Hepp rearrangement, 728
Flash photolysis, 321
of bromoform, 249
Flash vacuum **pyrolysis**, of keto **ylids**, 1334
Fluorene
pK_a, 52
reaction with organolithium reagents, 791
Fluorescence, 313-314
Flnoride ion
and the **Tamao-Fleming** oxidation, 482
reaction with silanes, 482
Fluorides
aryl, by the **Balz-Schiemann** reaction, 875
aryl, by the Schiemann reaction, 876
Fluorination
of aryl diazonium salts, 875
of hydrocarbons, 908
of ketones and aldehydes, 775
Fluorine
and electrophilic aromatic substitution, 707
reaction with alkenes, 1042
2-Fluoroethanol, 170
Fluoroethane, see ethyl fluoride
Fluoroxytrifluoromethane, 908
Fluxional isomerization, **160**
Fluxional structures, in the Cope rearrangement, 1447

Forbidden transitions, and photochemistry, 308
Force-field calculations, 178
Formal steric enthalpy, 190
Formaldehyde
and paraformaldehyde and trioxane, 1245
in the Mannich reaction, 1189
reaction with aldehydes, 1230, 1241
reaction with aromatic compounds and HC1, 721
reaction with ketones, 1230
reaction with Mannich bases, 1189–1190
reaction with phenols and amines, 722
trimerization of, 1245
Formamide
conformational analysis, 171
rotational analysis, 171
Formamides
and formylation of alkenes, 785
dehydration, 1350
from amines, 506
from isonitriles, 1251
reaction with alkenes, 1034
reaction with aromatic compounds, 715
reaction with Grignard reagents, 1214
reaction with organolithium reagents, 801
reaction with phosgene, 1350
Formamidine, anion, and alkylation, 558
Formates, see esters, formate
Formic acid
and the Koch-Haaf reaction, 1035
reaction with aldehydes and hydroxylamine, 1195
reaction with Grignard reagents, 801
Formic anhydride, 508
Formula periodic table, 48
Formyl carboxylates, decarboxylation of, 573
Formylation
and the Duff reaction, 717
and the Vilsmeier reaction, 715
Friedel-Crafts, 713-714
of alkenes, 785
of alkynes, 1048
of amines, 511
of amines, reagents for, 820
of aromatic compounds, 715
of aromatic rings, reagents, 717
by the Gatterman reaction, 715
by the Gatterman-Koch reaction, 716
by the Reimer-Tiemann reaction, 716
Fragmentation
of alkene alcohols, 1351
of bicyclic lactones, 1348
retro Diels-Alder reactions, 1348
Fragmentation reactions, 1345
Franck-Condon principle, 312
Free energy, see energy
Free radicals, see radicals
Freezing point depression, and ester hydrolysis, 472
Fremy's salt, and oxidation of alcohols, 1515
Fremy's salt, and oxidation of aromatic diols, 1518
Frequency factor, 296
Friedel-Crafts acylation, 712-714
and Fries rearrangement, 726
and polymers, 720
and ring closure, 713
and ring closure with ketones, 720
and the Bischler-Napieralski reaction, 721
and the Bradsher reaction, 720
and the Haworth reaction, 714
formylation, 713–714
of alkenes, 784
reversibility, 732
the Hoesch reaction, 722
the Houben-Hoesch reaction, 722
with anhydrides, 713
with cyclic anhydrides, 713-714
with poly cyclic aromatics, 713
with polyphosphoric acid, 713
Friedel-Crafts alkylation, 707–711, 1379
and Claisen rearrangement, 1452
and heterocyclic amines, 872
and ion pairs, 711
and polyalkylation, 709
and polycyclic aromatics, 709
and rearrangements, 709
and ring closure, 710
and the Hofmann-Martius reaction, 729
of alkenes, 708, 1017
with dihalides, 710
Friedel-Crafts arylation, 711
and the Scholl reaction, 711
Friedel-Crafts catalysts, 708
and addition of alkyl halides to alkenes, 1047
and dehalogenation of aryl halides, 735
and sulfonylation reactions, 704
and sulfurization, 703
3β- Friedelanol, 1395
Friedelene, 1395
Friedländer quinoline synthesis, 1186
Fries rearrangement, 725
crossover experiments, 727
photo, see photo-Fries
Frontier orbital methods
and Diels-Alder reactions, 1068-1070
and electrocyclic rearrangements, 1428

and ring closure of dienes, 1429
and sigmatropic rearrangements, 1438
FSE, see formal steric enthalpy
Fullerenes
and aromaticity, 70–71
and corannulene, 71
and rotaxanes, 114
and the ene reaction, 1021
Fumaric acid, properties, 159
Functional groups
and field effects, 17
categorized by oxidation state, 1507
ease of reduction, 1545-1546
Furan
and aromaticity, 51
electrophilic aromatic substitution, 688
resonance energy, 51
Furans
from 1,4-diketones, 1181
hydrolysis of, 468
in Diels-Alder reactions, 1075
Fused ring aromatics, and electrophilic aromatic substitution, 689-690
Fused ring compounds, cis/trans isomers, 161-163
Fuson-type enols, 74

Gabriel synthesis, 500, 513, 864
Gas phase reactions, of esters, 473
Gas phase, acidity, 350
Gatterman amide synthesis, 718
Gatterman method, 937
Gatterman reaction, 715, 936
Gatterman-Koch reaction, 716
reverse, 732
Gauche conformation, also see conformations
Gauche conformation, 169, 184
and cyclohexane derivatives, 174
and reactivity, 366
solvent effects, 170-171
Gauche effect, 170
Geared molecules, 189
Gegenion, definition, 219
Gem dihalides, see dihalides
Gem-difluoro compounds, 1196
Gem-dinitriles, reduction to nitrile, 528
Gem-diols, see hydrates
General acid catalysis, 337
General catalysis, 336-337
gerade, and photochemistry, 309
Gif system, 1533
Gilman reagents, 539
Gilman reagents, see organocuprates
Girard's reagent P or T, reaction with aldehydes or ketones, 1193
Glaser reaction, 927
Glyceraldehyde
and absolute configuration, 138
and x-ray analysis, 139
Glycidic acids, decarboxylation of, 809
Glycidic esters, 1230
by the Darzens reactions, 1670
from α,β-unsaturated esters, 1670
from α-halo esters, 1670
from aldehydes, 1670
from amides, 1670
from amines, 1670
from ketones, 1670
Glycols, see diols
Glyoxals, and the benzoin condensation, 1243
Goldberg reaction, 864, 928
Gomberg-Bachmann pinacol synthesis, 928, 1560
Graphite ribbons, see phenacenes
Grignard reactions, 1205-1209
and ESR, 1208
chemoselectivity, 1206
formation of diols, 1208
intramolecular, 1206
with dihalides, 1206
Grignard reagents
addition to alkenes, 1017
addition to aromatic compounds, 1030
addition to C=N compounds, 1216
Grignard reagents
and CIDNP, 806
and conjugate addition, 1028
and enolization, 1207
and ether solvents, 546
and inversion of configuration, 236
and NMR, 235-236
and optical activity, 762
and radicals, 806
and reduction, 1207
and solvents, 806
and the Bouveault reaction, 1214
and the Schlenk equilibrium, 234
and the SET mechanism, 1208
and transmetallation, 803
and xray diffraction, 235
Grignard reagents
bonding, 234
by hydrogen-metal exchange, 807
comparison with the Reformatsky reaction, 1213
coupling reactions, 535, 938
coupling with alkyl halides, reagents for, 537

Grignard reagents *(Continued)*
coupling with allylic alcohols, 545
coupling with phosphonic esters, 544
coupling with sulfonate esters, 543
dialkylmagnesiums, 235
dimerization of, 938
formation of, 805
from **alkyl** halides, 805
from **aryl** halides, 805
from dihalides, 805
halogenation of, 798
ketyl intermediates, **1208**
mechanism of formation, 806
mechanism of reaction, 1208
Grignard reagents
reaction with $(ArCH{=}N)_2SO_2$, 1216
reaction with acetals, 545
reaction with acid, 736
reaction with acid derivatives, **1214**
reaction with **acyl** halides, 567
reaction with air and water, 806
reaction with alcohols, 526
reaction with aldehydes, 1205-1209
reaction with **alkynes,** 791
reaction with allylic amines, 1025
reaction with allylic epoxides, 547
reaction with allylic ethers, 546
reaction with **amino** ethers, 546
reaction with anhydrides, 567
reaction with aryl oxazolines, 868
reaction with aziridines, 548
reaction with benzil, 1208
reaction with bromohydrins, **1399**
reaction with cadmium chloride, 566
reaction with **carbamates,** 568
reaction with CO_2, 1215
reaction with CS_2, 1215
reaction with **di-*sec*-butylmercury,** 761
reaction with epoxides, 546
reaction with esters, 567, 1214
reaction with ethoxy **lactams,** 546
reaction with **formamides,** 1214
reaction with formic acid, 801
reaction with halo nitriles, **1217**
reaction with **imines,** 1216
reaction with iminium salts, 1216
reaction with iodine, 798
reaction with iron pentacarbonyl, 801
reaction with isocyanates, **1217**
reaction with isonitriles, 1252
reaction with **isothiocyanates, 1218**
reaction with ketals, 545
reaction with **ketones,** 1205-1209
reaction with nitriles, **1217**
reaction with ortho esters, 545
reaction with oxazine iminium salts, 559
reaction with oxygen, 795
reaction with peroxides, 796
reaction with propargyl ethers, 546
reaction with quinones, **1205**
reaction with **silyl enol** ethers, 546
reaction with sulfonate esters, 574
reaction with sulfonyl chlorides, 577-578
reaction with sulfur, 797
reaction with sulfuryl chloride, 797
reaction with vinyl epoxides, 547
reaction with vinyl ethers, 546
Grignard reagents
rearrangement of, 1416
stability of, 806
stabilization by ethers, 235
structure of, 234-235
Ground states, and photochemistry, 306
Grovenstein-Zimmerman rearrangement, 1396
Grunwald-Winstein equation, 452
Grunwald-Winstein relationship, **371**
Guanidine, from cyanamide and **ammonia, 1192**
Guest, and crown ethers, 105
Guest-host, and resolution, 152

Half-chair conformation, **178**
Half-life, and mechanism, 294-295
Half-life, definition, 294
Halide exchange reactions, 517
Halide exchange, with aryl halides, 866
Halide ions
reaction with alkyl halides, 517
reaction with sulfonate esters, 518
Halides, **1,1,1-trihalides**
conversion to esters, 463
hydrolysis of, 463
Halides, acyl
α-halo, elimination reactions, **1344**
alcoholysis, reagents for, 482
and the **Rosenmund** reduction, 532
conversion to Reissert compounds, 533
coupling and ultrasound, 568
decarbonylation, 944
elimination reactions and rhodium catalysts, 1339
from 1,1,1-trihalides and SO_3, **1642**
from acid derivatives, 1642
from acyl halides, 523, 1643
from alcohols, **1643**
from aldehydes, 914, 1643
from alkenes, 1643

from carboxylic acids, 523, 1642
from hydrogen halides, 1643
from ketenes, 992, 1643
hydrogenation of, 532
hydrogenolysis of, 532
hydrolysis of, 468
Halides, acyl
reaction with alcohols, 482
reaction with aldehydes, 1182
reaction with alkenes, 1048
reaction with alkyl hydroperoxides, 493
reaction with amides, 514
reaction with ammonia, 506
reaction with aromatic compounds, 714
reaction with azide ion, 515
reaction with carbanions, 569
reaction with carboxylate salts, 490
reaction with carboxylic acids, 523
reaction with CuCN, 573
reaction with diazomethane, 573, 1405
reaction with enamines, 788
reaction with enolate anions, 569
reaction with epi- sulfides, 521
reaction with epoxides, 521
reaction with Grignard reagents, 567
reaction with HF, 524
reaction with hydrazine, 507
reaction with hydride reagents, 532
reaction with hydrogen peroxide, 492
reaction with hydrogen sulfide, 497
reaction with hydroxylamine, 507
reaction with hydroxylamine O-sulfonic acid, 1413
reaction with ketones, 1182
reaction with lithium nitride, 507
reaction with lithium *tri-t-butoxyaluminum* hydride, 532
reaction with organocadmium reagents, 566
reaction with organocuprates, 566
reaction with organometallic reagents, 566
reaction with pyrophoric lead, 568
reaction with thiols, 497
reagents for preparation from RCOOH, 523
reduction to aldehydes, 532
reduction with $LiAlH_4$ or $NaBH_4$, 1551
reduction, mechanism, 532
Halides, alkyl
addition to alkenes, 1047
addition to conjugated compounds, 1032
addition to dienes, 1047
alkylation, 477
alkylation of alkenes by the Prins reaction, 1047
and ketone enolates, elimination, 552
and the Menshutkin reaction, 499
and the Sommelet reaction, 1536
and the Williamson reaction, 477
and the Wurtz reaction, 535
by radical substitution, 907
by the Finkelstein reaction, 517, 1650
by the Hunsdiecker reaction, 942-943, 1651
by the Simonini reaction, 943
by the von Braun reaction, 523, 1651
carbonylation of, 565
conversion to carbamates, 489
conversion to carboxylic acids, 564
coupling with Grignard reagents, 537
coupling with organoaluminum compounds, 541
coupling with organocuprates, 538
coupling with organolithium reagents, 537
coupling with organometallics, 536, 540-541
coupling with propargyl halides, 543
electrochemical reduction, 525
elimination and enantioselectivity, 1338
elimination and Zaitsev's rule, 1337
elimination reactions, 1336-1338
elimination with DBN or DBU, 1337
elimination, and Hofmann's rule, 1337
elimination, solvent effects, 1337
Halides, alkyl
from alcohols, 518, 1650
from aldehydes, 1651
from alkanes, 907, 1047, 1651
from alkyl halides, 517
fromalkynes, 1651
from allylic halogenation, 1651
from amides, 1651
from amines, 1651
from aromatic compounds, 1651
from arylsilanes, 1650
from carbon tetrachloride, 1651
from carboxylic acids, reagents for, 943
from decarboxylative halogenation, 1651
from epoxides, 1651
from esters, 1651
from ethers, 519, 1651
from Grignard reagents, 798
from halide exchange, 1650
from homologation of alkyl halides, 1651
from hydrogen halides, 1650,1651
from inorganic acid halides, 1650
from inorganic esters, 1650
from ketones, 1651
from methylniobium reagents, 1651
from organometallic compounds, 798,1651

Halides, alkyl *(Continued)*
from radical halogenation, 1651
from reduction of dihalides, 1651
from sulfonate esters, 518
Halides, alkyl
hydrogenation of, 525
hydrogenolysis of, 524-525
hydrolysis of, 462
hydrolysis to cation, 366
hydrolysis, rates, 365
ionization to carbocations, 564
oxidation with DMSO, 1535
preparation and microwaves, 518
preparation in HMPA, 518
radial addition to alkenes, 1039
rate of solvolysis, 432
Halides, alkyl
reaction with $(MeS)_3CLi$ and HBF_4, 565
reaction with acetoacetic ester anions, 549
reaction with acid salts, 493
reaction with alcohols and CO, 564
reaction with alcohols and tetramethylthiourea, 496
reaction with alkane diazotates, 516
reaction with alkoxides, 477
reaction with alkoxides, MOM and MEM, 478
reaction with alkyl halides, 548
reaction with alkyne anions, 561
reaction with alkynes, 561, 1026
reaction with allyl silamines, 534
reaction with aluminum hydride reagents, 525
reaction with amide anions, 513
reaction with amines, 499-501
reaction with aromatic compounds, 707
reaction with azide ion, 515
reaction with carbanions, 548-551
reaction with carboxylic acid salts, 488, 555
reaction with cyanamide, 501
reaction with cyanate ion, 516
reaction with cyanide and phase transfer, 562
reaction with cyanide and ultrasound, 562
reaction with cyanide ion, 561-562
reaction with cyanohydrins, 553
reaction with cyclopentadienyl anion, 550
reaction with dianion of carboxylic acids, 555
reaction with disulfide ion, 498
reaction with dithiane anions, 556
reaction with enamines, 555,787
reaction with enolate anions and vinylogy, 552
reaction with ethers, 492
reaction with halide ions, 517
reaction with hexamethylenetetramine, 501
reaction with hydrazone anions, 555
reaction with hydrogen sulfide, 495
reaction with hydroperoxide anion, 492
reaction with hydroxide, 463
reaction with ketone enolate anions, 551
reaction with ketones, 492
reaction with lithium, 806
reaction with lithium triethylborohydride, 525
reaction with magnesium, 805
reaction with malonate anions, 549
reaction with metals, 805
reaction with NaSH, 495
reaction with $Ni(CO)_4$ and alcohols, 564
reaction with organocuprates, 538-540
reaction with organolithium reagents, 807
reaction with organolithium reagents, and CIDNP, 808
reaction with organometallic compounds, 807
reaction with organotin, CO, and palladium catalyst, 801
reaction with oxazine anions, 558,559
reaction with oximes, 495
reaction with phosphines, 501,1231
reaction with potassium phthalimide, 513
reaction with sodium metal, 535
reaction with sodium nitrite, 515
reaction with sodium sulfide, 497
reaction with sulfinic acid salts, 498
reaction with sulfonamide salts, 514
reaction with sulfone anions, 555
reaction with sulfur, 498
reaction with tetracarbonylferrate, 562
reaction with thiocyanate, 499, 516
reaction with thioethers, 497
reaction with thiol anions, 496
reaction with thiosulfate ion, 498
reaction with thiourea, 495
reaction with tosylhydrazide, 499
reaction with triarylarsines, 1233
reaction with triarylphosphines, 1233
reaction with vinyl sulfide anions, 557
Halides, alkyl
reactivity of halogen in Friedel-Crafts reactions, 707
reagents for halide exchange, 517
rearrangement in preparation from alcohols, 518
reduction of, 525
regioselectivity with ketone enolate anions, 554
SET mechanism and reaction with $LiAlH_4$, 526
solvolysis rates, 366
test for, 494
Halides, allylic
coupling with nickel tetracarbonyl, 541
reagents for coupling, 542

Halides, aryl
and the halogen dance, 735
and the Hurtley reaction, 869
and the Rosenmund-von Braun reaction, 867
and the Wurtz-Fittig reaction, 535
by the Gatterman reaction, 936
by the Hunsdiecker reaction, 1658
by the Orton rearrangement, 1658
by the Sandmeyer reaction, 936, 1658
by the Schiemann reaction, 1658
catalysts for preparation of, 502
coupling, 870
dehalogenation, reagents for, 735
Halides, aryl
from acyl halides, 1658
from aromatic amines, 936
from aromatic compounds, 1658
from aryl diazonium salts, 875, 935-936
from aryl halide exchange, 1658
from aryl halides, 866
from aryl halo-de-hydroxylation, 1658
from aryl halo-de-nitration, 1658
from decarboxylative halogenation, 1658
from diazonium salts, 1658
from migration of halogen, 1658
from organometallic compounds, 1658
from rearrangement of N-haloamines, 1658
from replacement of aromatic COOH, 1658
from replacement of aromatic SO_2Br, 1658
halide exchange, 866
Halides, aryl
reaction with active methylene compounds, 869
reaction with alcohols and CO, 870
reaction with alkenes, 930
reaction with alkoxides, 862
reaction with amide anions, 513
reaction with amines, 501, 864
reaction with amines, benzyne mechanism, 864
reaction with ammonia, 864
reaction with aromatic compounds, 933
reaction with copper acetylides, 868
reaction with copper metal, 870
reaction with CuCN, 867
reaction with enolate anions, 860, 869
reaction with halide ions, 866
reaction with HS anion, 863
reaction with hydroxide, 861
reaction with Lewis acids, 735
reaction with lithium, 806
reaction with magnesium, 805
reaction with metals, 805
reaction with organocuprates, 539, 868
reaction with potassium phthalimide, 865
reaction with sodium, 535
reaction with sulfur nucleophiles, 863
reaction with thiol anions, 863
reagents for alkylation, 868
Halides, benzylic
and the Kröhnke reaction, 1536
from aromatic compounds, 721
oxidation of, 1536
substitution-elimination, 1543
Halides, di-, see dihalides
Halides, propargyl, coupling, 543
Halides, sulfonyl
by the Reed reaction, 1688
elimination with amines, 1338
from aromatic compounds, 1688
from diazonium salts, 1688
from Grignard reagents, 797, 1688
from radical halosulfonation, 1688
from sulfonic acid derivatives, 1688
from sulfonic acids, 577, 1688
reaction with alkenes, 1045
reaction with diazomethane, 1249
reduction and PPh_3, 1557
reduction with $LiAlH_4$, 1556
reduction with Zn and acid, 1556
Halides, vinyl
from acyl halides, 1692
from aldehydes, 1693
from alkyl halides, 1692
from alkynes, 1692
from allenes, 1692
from halide exchange, 1692
from halophosphoranes, 1693
from hydrogen halides, 1692
from ketones, 1693
from organometallic compounds, 1692
from Petasis alkenylation, 1693
from scoopy reactions, 1693
from Tebbe alkenylation, 1693
from ylids, 1693
hydrolysis of, 463
reagents for preparation of, 798-799
Haller-Bauer reaction, 512, 814
Halo acids, conversion to lactones, 488
Halo alcohols, from dihalides and carbonyl compounds, 1207
Halo aldehydes, from aldehydes, 775
Halo alkenes, and radical cyclization, 1040
Halo carbonyl compounds, formation of, 1670
Halo ethers
elimination reactions, 1344
from addition of hypohalites to double bonds, 1670

Halo ethers *(Continued)*
from alkenes alcohols, 1056
from reaction of carboxylic esters with ClF, 1670
Halo ketones
from alkenes, 1048
from diazo ketones, 522
Halo nitroso compounds, from alkenes, 1045
Halo sulfides, and the Ramberg-Bäcklund reaction, 1343
Halo sulfones
and the Ramberg-Bäcklund reaction, 1341
elimination with base, 1341
from sulfones, 778
Halo-ketones, from ketones, 775
Haloalkenes, reaction with organocopper compounds, 423
Haloalkylation, of aromatic compounds, 721
Haloamines
from amines, 819
from N-haloamines, 1670
from unsaturated compounds, 1670
Halocarbenes
insertion reactions, 789
reaction with heterocycles, 1088
Haloform reaction, 813
rate of reaction, 813
Haloformic esters, from alcohols, 483
Halogen dance, 735
Halogenation
of carboxylic acids, 777
of enamines, 788
of enol borinates, 777
of enolate anions, 776
of Grignard reagents, 798
of hydrocarbons, 907–911
of organometallic compounds, 798
photolysis, 899
Halogens
as neighboring groups, 407
reaction with alkenes, reagents for, 1041
reaction with conjugated compounds, 1042
Halohydrins
from addition of hypohalous acids to alkenes, 1670
from cleavage of epoxides with hydrogen halides, 1670
from epoxides, 520
by conversion to epoxides, 478
Halolactonization, 1043
Halonium ions, as leaving groups, 446
Hammett acidity function, 334
Hammett equation, 368
and electrophilic aromatic substitution, 692
and linear free energy relationship, 370
and radical hydrogen abstraction, 903
and rate constants, 369
and spectroscopy, 369
and the selectivity relationship, 692
Hammett reaction constant, and acid strength, 350
Hammett relationship
and S_NAr reactions, 859
and the S_N1 reaction, 436
Hammett $\sigma\rho$ relationship, 437
Hammett-Brown relationship, 693
Hammond postulate, 284-285
and electrophilic aromatic substitution, 681
and S_N1 reactions, 432
Hard acids and bases, 338-342
definitions, 340
Hard-soft acid-base theory, 338-342
Hard-soft, acid-base principle, 341
Hard-soft, acid-bases
absolute hardness table, 341
absolute softness, 341
ambident nucleophiles, 460
and ambident nucleophiles, 460
and electrophilic aromatic substitution, 692
HSAB principle, 341
table, 340
Hardness model for aromaticity, 48
Hardness
absolute, table, 341
acids and bases, 340
and aromaticity, 52
and electrophilic aromatic substitution, 692
quantitative definition, 340
Hartree-Fock method, 34
Haworth reaction, 714
HBr
acidity in DMF, 351
cleavage of ethers, 465
radical addition to alkenes, 991
reaction with 3-bromo-2-butanol, 405, 411
reaction with alkenes, 991
reaction with cyclopropane, 988
reaction with diazo ketones, 522
reaction with ethers, 520
HC1
reaction with alkenes, 991
reaction with aromatic compounds and formaldehyde, 721
reaction with aryl ammonium salts, 729
reaction with C=N compounds, 1240
reaction with N-chloroacetamides, 729

HCN reaction with hydrazones, 1240
addition to alkenes, 1038
reaction with aldehydes or ketones, 1239
reaction with imines, 1240
reaction with nitriles, 1241
reaction with oximes, 1240
reaction with Schiff bases, 1240
Heat of atomization, 22
and strain, 180
benzene, 35
Heat of combustion, 22, 24
Heat of hydrogenation, benzene, 35
Heat, of combustion, and elimination reactions, 1315
Heck reaction, 930
asymmetric, 931
intramolecular, 931
Heck-like coupling, 937
Helical chirality, 134-135
Helical shape, and chirality, 134
Helicene, 134
Helicenes, and optical activity, 134—135
Hell-Volhard-Zelinskii reaction, 777
Hemiacetals
from aldehydes and alcohols, 1180, 1671
from electrolytic oxidation of tetrahydrofuran, 1671
hydrolysis of, 1419
Hemiaminals, 1186
from aldehydes or ketones and amines, 1671
Hemicarcerand, and cyclobutadiene, 59
Hemimercaptals
from addition of thiols to aldehydes or ketones, 1671
from aldehydes and thiols, 1181
Hemispherands, 106-107
Henkel reaction, 733
1,5-heptadiene, 1444
Heptahelicene, resolution, 153
Heptalene, 134
and aromaticity, 54
and NMR, 54-55
derivatives, 55
Herndon model for aromaticity, 48
Herz reaction, 704
Hess-Schaad model for aromaticity, 47-48
Heteroatom Diels-Alder reactions, 1075
Heteroatoms
in rings, conformation, 175-177
stabling effect on carbocations, 223
Heterocycles
acylation with aldehydes, 934
alkylation of, 871, 933
and Birch reduction, 1010
and electrophilic aromatic substitution, 688
and Ziegler alkylation, 871
aromaticity, 48, 51
by the Curtius rearrangement, 1672
by the Diels-Alder reaction, 1672
by the Fischer indole synthesis, 1672
by the Hofmann-Löffler rearrangement, 1672
by the Pschorr arylation, 1671
by vinylcyclopropane rearrangement, 1443
Heterocycles
from 1,3-dipolar addition to double bonds, 1672
from α,β-unsaturated ketones, 1672
from acetals, 1671, 1672
from active hydrogen compounds, 1671
from alcohols, 1671, 1672
from aldehydes, 1672
from alkenes, 1672
from alkynes, 1672
from amides, 1671
from amines, 1671, 1672
from aminonitrenes, 1672
from aromatic compounds, 1671
from aromatization of heterocyclic rings, 1672
from arylhydrazones, 1672
from azides, 1672
from p-diketones, 1672
from p-keto esters, 1672
from boranes, 1671
from carbenes, 1672
from conjugated diynes, 1671
from cycloaddition reactions, 1672
from dienes, 1672
from dihalides, 1671
from diketones, 1672
from dinitriles, 1672
from diols, 1671
from expansion of heterocyclic rings, 1672
from extrusion of CO_2 from benzoxadiazepinones, 1672
from glycols, 1671
from haloamines, 1671
from halohydrins, 1671
from heteroatom Diels-Alder reactions, 1672
from heterocycles, 1671
from hydrazines, 1672
from hydrogenation of heterocycles, 1671
from intramolecular acylation, 1671
from ketones, 1672
from lactams, 1672
from lactones, 1672
from malonic esters, 1671
from N-tosyl malonic esters, 1671

Heterocycles *(Continued)*
from nitrenes, 1671
from rearrangement of N-haloamines, 1672
from ring expansion of ammonium salts, 1672
from ring expansion of aryl azides, 1413
from ring expansion of N-acylaziridines, 1672
from sulfones, 1672
from thiobenzilic acid, 1672
from tosylmethylisocyanide, 1672
from trimerization of aldehydes, 1672
from unsaturated alcohols, 1672
from ureas, 1671
Heterocycles
nitration of, 696
reaction with amide anion, 873
reaction with carbenes, 1087
reaction with carboxylic acids, 933
reaction with hydrazide ions, 873
reaction with organolithium reagents, 871
reduction with indium metal, 1011
reduction with samarium iodide, 1011
Heteropolytungstic acid
and conversion of hydrocarbons to amides, 925
Hexachlorocyclohexane, 1301
and meso compounds, 161
Hexacyclodecanes, 183
Hexadecanol monosuccinate, 1532
1,5-hexadiene, by Hofmann elimination, 1331
cis,trans-2,4-Hexadiene, 1427
Hexaethylbenzene, from 3-hexyne, 1090
l,l,l,3,3,3-Hexafiuoro-2-propanol, as a solvent, 451
Hexahelicene, and strain, 190
Hexaisopropylbenzene, 189, 1089
Hexaisopropylcyclohexane, conformation, 174
Hexamethylbenzene, 1084
Hexamethylbicyclo[2.2.0]hexadiene, 1083
Hexamethylenetetramine
and oxidation of alkyl halides, 1536
and the Duff reaction, 717
reaction with alkyl halides, 501
Hexamethylphosphoramide, see HMPA
Hexamethylprismane, 1083
1,6-Hexanediol, 480
Hexaphenylethane, 241
Hexaydroazepin-2-ones, conformation, 178
3-Hexyne, trimerization of, 1090
HF
reaction with acyl halides, 524
reaction with anhydrides, 524
HI
and reduction of alkyl halides, 518
cleavage of ethers, 465
gas phase addition to dienes, 992
reaction with alkenes, 991
reaction with ethers, 519
High pressure
and epoxide hydrolysis, 468
and formation of oximes, 1194
and reaction of epoxides with ammonia, 504
and steric hindrance, 458
and the Claisen rearrangement, 457
and the Cope rearrangement, 457
and the Diels-Alder reaction, 457, 1066
and the Heck reaction, 931
and the Knoevenagel condensation, 457
and the Menshutkin reaction, 458
and volume of activation, 457
reactions, 457-458
Higher order cuprates, see organocuprates
Highest occupied molecular orbital, see HOMO
Hindrance, steric, see steric hindrance
Hinsberg test, and amines, 576
HMPA, 236
and aggregation of bases, 349
and alkylation of amines, 503
and coupling of allylic halides, 542
and CrO_3, 1515
and dehydration of alcohols, 1327
and dehydrohalogenation, 1337
and formation of aniline derivatives, 864
and halide in substitution with tosylates, 518
and hydrogen bonding, 100
and hydrolysis of sulfonamides, 576
and reaction of aryl halide and alkoxides, 862
as a solvent, 450
formation of thiophenols, 863
solvent for alkylation reactions, 488
H_o, and pH, 335
HOBr, see hypobromous acid
HOCl, see hypochlorous acid
Hoesch reaction, 723
Hofmann degradation, 1331
Hofmann elimination, 1331
Hofmann rearrangement, 1380, 1384
Hofmann's rule, 1315, 1332
and elimination of alkyl halides, 1337
and pyrolytic eliminations, 1325
and substituent effects on elimination, 1320
Hofmann-Löffler reaction, 909, 1462
Hofmann-Löffler-Freytag reaction, 1462
Hofmann-Martius reaction, 729
HOI, see hypoiodous acid
Homo Diels-Alder reaction, 1063
HOMO
alkenes, 1070

and Diels-Alder reactions, 1070
of cyclobutenes, 1428
Homoaldol reaction, 1227
Homoallylic carbocations, 408
Homoanomeric interaction, 176
Homoaromatic compounds, 70
Homoconjugation, 40
Homocubyl radical, 1390
[1,5]-Homodienyl shifts
and vinylcyclopropane rearrangement, 1444
hydrogen shift, 1450
Homoenolate ions, 232
Homoenolate ions, see carbanions
Homologation, of aldehydes and ketones, 1407
Homologation, of esters, 568
Homolytic bond cleavage and mechanism, 275
[1,5]-Homosigmatropic rearrangement, 1450
Horner-Emmons reaction, 1233
intramolecular, 1234
Hosts
and crown ethers, 105
and resolution, 152
Houben-Hoesch reaction, 722
Houben-Weyl, 1623 .
HSAB, see hard-soft acid-base theory
Huang-Minion modification, 1547
Hiickel method, 34
Hückel systems, 1071
Hückel's rule, 1070
and antiaromaticity, 61
and aromaticity, 57-58
Hund's rule
and aromaticity, 57
and carbenes, 248
and photochemistry, 308
Hunsdiecker reaction, 899, 942-943
Hurtley reaction, 869
Hybridization, 6-8
and the S_N2 reaction, 390
and acid-base strength, 348-349
and bond angles, 21
and C-H acid strength, 433
and carbanions, 233
and electronegativity, 15
and field effects, 18
digonal, 7
sp, 9
sp^2, and radicals, 244
trigonal, 7
Hydrates
and I strain, 1176
from aldehydes, 1175
from ketones, 1175
Hydration
of alkenes, reagents for, 993-994
of alkynes, 995
of allenes, 996
Hydrazide ions, reaction with heterocycles, 873
Hydrazides
acyl, reaction with nitrous acid, 1412
from acyl halides, 507, 1672
from carboxylic esters, 1672
from esters, 510
from hydrazines, 1672
Hydrazine
and inclusion compounds, 111
reaction with acyl halides, 507
reaction with esters, 510
reaction with phthalimides, 513
Hydrazines
by the Hofmann rearrangement, 1673
from alkenes, 1673
from azo compounds, 1556, 1673
from diazonium salts, 1556, 1673
from heterocycles, 1673
from hydrazines, 1673
from N-nitro compounds, 1673
from N-nitroso compounds, 1554, 1673
from ureas, 1411, 1673
reaction with aldehydes or ketones, 1192–1193
reaction with diketones, 1193
reaction with hydroxy aldehydes or ketones, 1193
reaction with keto esters, 1193
reaction with nitrous acid, 817
Hydrazo compounds
from nitro compounds, 1564
oxidation with NaOBr, 1519
reduction with Zn-HCl, 1559
2,2'-Hydrazonaphthalene, 1456
Hydrazobenzenes
from aromatic nitro compounds, 1553
rearrangement with acid, 1455
Hydrazoic acid
reaction with alcohols, 502
reaction with alkenes, 1002
reaction with aromatic compounds, 701
reaction with carboxylic acids, 1413
reaction with cyclic ketones, 1414
reaction with ketones, 1414
Hydrazone, anions, reaction with alkyl halides, 555
Hydrazones
alkylation of, 552
and the Eschenmoser-Tanabe reaction, 1347
aryl, and the Fisher indole synthesis, 1452

Hydrazones *(Continued)*
aryl, cyclization with Lewis aids, 1452
by the **Japp-Klingemann** reaction, 779
dimethyl, elimination reactions, 1348
dimethyl, oxidation of, 1519
from active methylene compounds, 778
from aldehydes and **ketones, 1192–1193,** 1673
from azines, **1193**
from diazonium salts, 778,1673
from tautomerism of azo compounds, 778
hydrolysis of, **1177**
in the **Wolff-Kishner** reduction, 1548
reaction with aldehydes, **1193**
reaction with **$CuBr_2$/*t*-BuOLi, 1196**
reaction with HCN, 1240
reaction with KCN, 1241
reaction with ketenes, 1250
reaction with lead tetraacetate, 870
reaction with organocerium reagents, 1216
reduction of, 1203
Hydrazonium salts, elimination reactions, 1348
Hydride ion migration, in Wagner-Meerwein shifts, 1394
Hydride reagents
chemoselectivity, **1198**
reaction with **alkyl** halides, 525-526
reaction with tosylates, 526
reduction of aldehydes and ketones, mechanism of, 1202
reduction of aldehydes or ketones, 1197-1198
1,2-Hydride shifts, 1387
1,3-Hydride shifts, 1387
Hydride shifts, seven, 1395
Hydride transfer
and oxidation-reduction, 1508
in the **Cannizzaro** reaction, 1565
in the Tishchenko reaction, 1566
Hydroboration
and animation of alkenes, 1001
and anti-Markovnikov addition, 798
asymmetric, 1014
double-asymmetric synthesis, 1015
of alkenes, 1012-1016
of dienes, 1015
Hydrobromic acid, see HBr
Hydrocarbon, salts, 230
Hydrocarbons
acyloxylation, reagents for, 923
and radical substitution with iodine, 908
aromatic, distorted, 44
aromatic, fullerenes, 70-71
aromarization with S or Se, **1511**
autoxidation, 920
benzenoid polyaromatic, 48
by **Clemmenson** reduction, 1547
by Huang-Minion modification, 1547
by reduction of alkoxides, 1209
by Wolff-Kishner reduction, 1547
chlorosulfonation of, 924
cleavage with super acids, 814
conversion to carboxylic acids, 564
coupling, 786
cyclic; aromatization, 1510
fluorination of, 908
Hydrocarbons
from alcohols, 527, 544
from aldehydes, 944, 1547
from alkenes, 1002
from amines, 530
from boranes and carboxylic aids, 1005
from carboxylate salts, 941-942
from carboxylic acids, 1214
from **diimide** reduction of alkenes, 1007
from esters, 529
from hydrocarbons, 770, 926
from hydrogenation of cyclopropanes, 1012
from ketones, 1214, 1547
from nitriles, 528, 815
from nitro compounds, **531**
from organometallic compounds, 536, 794
from organometallics and alkyl halides, 540-541
from reduction of epoxides, 1552
from reduction of tosylates, 526
from sulfonate esters and **organocuprates,** 543
from sulfones, 531
from sulfoxides, **531**
from thiocarbonates, 527
from thioethers, 531, 940
from thiols, 531,940
Hydrocarbons
H-D exchange, 769
halogenation of, **907–911**
nitration of, 924
nonalternant, 55-57
oxidation with chromic acid, 915
radical **bromination,** 899
radical halogenation, mechanism of, 909
Hydrocarbons
reaction with acetonitrile, 925
reaction with bromine, **907–911**
reaction with carbocations, 786
reaction with chlorine, **907–911**
reaction with halogens, **907–911**
reaction with hydroperoxides, 922

reaction with metals, 793
reaction with nitric acids, 924
reaction with oxygen, 920
reaction with peroxy esters, 922-923
reaction with radicals, 901
reaction with SO_2 and chlorine, 924
reaction with super acids, 787
reaction with trichloroamine, 505
Hydrochloric aid, see HC1
Hydrocyanic acid, see HCN
Hydrogen atom transfer, and oxidation-reduction, 1508
Hydrogen bond, definition, 98
Hydrogen bonding, 98-102
and 1,8-biphenylenediol, 100
and acid strength, 346
and base strength, 332
and C-H bonds, 101-102
and cyclodextrins, 111–112
and infrared, 100
and isocyanides, 101
and NMR, 100
and pentane-2,4-dione, 99-100
and pK_a, 99
and the Cambridge structural database, 99
effect on physical properties, 101
in Ms-amides, 102
internal, and acid strength, 333
relationship to acidity and basicity, 99
Hydrogen bonds
bifurcated, 99
three-center, 99-100
Hydrogen exchange
and electrophilic aromatic substitution, 696
in carbocation reactions, 786
Hydrogen peroxide
and coupling of thiols, 1543
and oxidation of aromatic compounds, 916
and oxidation of boranes, 797
and oxidation of thioethers, 1541
NaOH and oxidation of boranes, 1016
oxidation of carboxylic acids, 1542
reaction with amines, 1541
Hydrogen sulfide
addition to alkenes, 999
anion, reaction with aryl halides, 863
reaction with aldehydes or ketones, 1184
reaction with alkyl halides, 495
Hydrogen
neighboring group effects, 419
with amines with aldehydes or ketones, 1188
with ammonia and aldehydes or ketones, 1188
Hydrogen-deuterium exchange, with hydrocarbons, 769
Hydrogen-metal exchange, formation of Grignard reagents, 807
Hydrogenation
and cleavage in adamantanes, 815
and desulfurization, 940
and reduction of azo compounds, 1556
and Wilkinson's catalyst, 1003
asymmetric, 1003
asymmetric, of aldehydes and ketones, 1201
catalysts for, 1003-1004
catalysts, and aromatization, 1510
catalytic, 1002-1007
ease of reduction of functional groups, 1545
Hydrogenation
of acyl halides, 532
of alcohols, 527
of aldehydes, 1198
of alkenes, 1002–1007
of alkenes with CO, 1037
of alkenes, prochiral substrates, 1003
of alkyl halides, 525
of alkynes, 1004
of alkynes, and steric hindrance, 1005
of aromatic compounds, 1009
of cyclopropanes, 1012
of dienes, 1005
of esters, 1550
of hydroperoxides, 1558
of isocyanates, 1203
of ketones, 1198
of oximes, 1554
of thiols and thioethers, 940
of thiophene, 941
reactivity of alkenes, 1004
transfer hydrogenation, 1008
Hydrogenolysis, 524
and Raney nickel, 532
of acetals, 528
of acyl halides, 532
of alcohols, 527
of diols, 527
of esters, 527, 529, 1552
of ethers, 528
of ketals, 528
of nitriles, 528
of nitro compound, 531
of selenides, 532
of sulfonate esters, 526
of sulfones, 549
of thioethers, 531
of thiols, 531

Hydroiodic acid, see HI
Hydrolysis
and nucleophilic catalysis, 469
basic, of **keto** esters, **812**
of **1,1,1-trihalides, 463**
of **1,1-diethoxyethane,** 466
of **1,4-diketones,** 1181
of acetals, 465
of acetals by S_N1 mechanism, 466
of acetals, and microwaves, 467
of acetals, and the **Brønsted** coefficient, 466
of acetals, rate and structure, 466
of acetals, reagents for, 467
of **acyl** halides, 469
of **alkyl** halides, 462
of amides, 474-476
of amides, and diazonium ions, 475
of amides, and radiolabeling, 476
of amides, mechanism, 475
of amides, rate of reaction, 475
of anhydrides, 469
of **aryl** nitriles, 876
of azides, 799
of benzamide, 427
of borates, 796
of Bunte salts, 495, 498
of carbamates, 474
of cyanohydrins, **1179**
of diazo ketones, 465
of dihalides, 463
of enamines, **1178**
of enamines in the Thorpe reaction, 1238
of **enol** esters, 474
of enol ethers, 465
of enol ethers, isotope effects, 468
of enol ethers, isotopic labeling, 467
of enol ethers, mechanism, 467
of epoxides, 468
of epoxides, at high pressure, 468
of epoxides, selectivity with **Co-salen** catalysts, 468
of epoxides, with enzymes, 468
of esters, **371,** 469-474, **1050**
of esters thioethers, 1566
of esters, and freezing point depression, 472
of esters, and microwaves, 470
of esters, and oxygen labeling, 425
of esters, and ring strain, 473
of esters, enzymatic, 470
of esters, isotope effects, 472
of esters, mechanism, 470-473
of esters, phase transfer catalysis, 470
of esters, radiolabeling, 472
of esters, reagents, 470
of esters, **saponification,** 470
of **furans,** 468
of **hemiacetals,** 1419
of hydrazones, **1177**
of inline salts, 1217
of imines, 552, 1177, 1536
of imines, to aldehydes, 532
of **iminium** salts, 787, **1183**
of inorganic esters, 464
of isocyanates, 1178, 1411,1413
of isothiocyanates, 1178
of ketene dithioketals, 468
of lactones, 470
of nitriles, **1179**
of nitro compounds, **1178**
of nitrobenzamides, 428
of organometallic compounds, 794
of **oximes,** 938, **1177,1463**
of phthalamic acid, 427
of Schiff bases, 1177
of sulfonamides, 576
of sulfonate esters, 575
of sulfonic anhydrides, 575
of sulfonyl chlorides, 575
of thioacetals, 467
of thiocyanates, **1179**
Hydron donor, 352
Hydroperoxide anion
oxidation of boranes, 1016
reaction with alkyl halides, 492
reaction with boranes, 797
reaction with conjugated compounds, 1053
reaction with conjugated ketones, 1509
Hydroperoxides
acyl, preparation of, 492
and DCC, oxidation of carboxylic acids, 1542
by autoxidation, 920
from acyl halides, 1673
from alkenes, 1673
from alkyl halides, 492, 1673
from autoxidation, 1673
from Grignard reagents, 795
from hydrocarbons, 920
from organometallic reagents, 1673
from singlet oxygen, 1673
hydrogenation of, 1558
reaction with acid, 1418
reaction with hydrocarbons, 922
rearrangement of, 1418
reduction with $LiAlH_4$, 1558
reduction with PPh_3, **1558**

Hydroquinones
and clathrates, 110–111
aromatization reagents, 1511
from reduction of quinones, 1198
Hydroxamic acids
from **acyl** halides, 507, 1673
from esters, 510, 1673
from hydroxylamine, 1673
from nitro compounds, 1673
intermediates in the Nef reaction, 1179
O-acyl, rearrangement with base, 1413
reaction with aromatic compounds, 702
Hydroxide, in the **aldol** reaction, 1218
Hydroxide, reaction with **alkyl** halides, 463
α-Hydroxy ketones
by acyloin condensation, 1562
from esters, 1562
Hydroxy acids
by the Favorskii rearrangement, 1673
conversion to lactones, 484
decarboxylation, 1346
from aldehydes, 1673
from aromatic compounds, 1673
from **aryl** iodides, 1673
from carboxylic acids, 1673
from cyanohydrins, 1673
from diethyl oxomalonate, 1673
from keto aldehydes, 1673
from ketones, 1673
from lactones, 1673
from phenols, 1673
from rearrangement of **α,β-epoxy** ketones, 1673
from rearrangement of benzils, 1673
from zinc carboxylates, 1673
Hydroxy aldehydes
by the acyloin condensation, 1674
by the aldol condensation, 1674
by the benzoin condensation, 1674
by the Fries rearrangement, 1674
by the **Knoevenagel** reaction, 1674
by the **Mukaiyama** aldol reactions, 1674
by the Tollens reaction, 1674
from aldehydes, 1218-1223, 1674
from alkenes, 1674
from dithiane salts, 1673
from enamines, 1674
from epoxides, 1673, 1674
from esters, 1674
from formaldehyde, 1674
from halo aldehydes, 1535
from halo ketones, 1674
from inline anions, 1222
from imines, 1674
from ketones, 1222, 1674
from oxazines, 1674
from rearrangement of **α-hydroxy** aldehydes, 1674
from rearrangement of epoxy **silyl** ethers, 1674
from rearrangement of ketones, 1674
from rearrangement of phenolic esters, 1674
oxidative cleavage, 1520
reaction with hydrazines, 1193
rearrangement of, 1401
Hydroxy alkylation
and the Lederer-Manasse reaction, 719
of aromatic rings, 719
Hydroxy amides
from aldehydes or ketones, zinc, and halo amides, 1674
from alkenes, 1056
from amides, 1674
from silyloxy isocyanides, 1674
Hydroxy amines
by the Bamberger rearrangement, 1674
from aldehydes, 1674
from alkenes, 1674
from amides, 1674
from amines, 1674
from ammonia, 1674
from epoxides, 1674
from imines, 1674
from isocyanides, 1674
from ketones, 1674
from **O-methyl** oximes, 1674
from oxetanes, 1674
from phenols, 1674
from rearrangement of aryl hydroxylamines, 1674
reaction with nitrous acid, 1399
Hydroxy benzoic acids, pK_a, 346
Hydroxy esters
alcoholysis of lactones, 487
by the Baylis-Hillman reaction, 1675
by the Reformatsky reaction, 1212, 1675
from **α-halo** esters, 1675
from **α-metalated** esters to ketones, 1675
from aldehydes, 1223, 1675
from conjugated alkenes, 1675
from epoxides, 1674
from esters, 1223,1674, 1675
from ketones, 1223, 1675
from **transesterification** of lactones, 1674
Hydroxy ethers
as solvents, 481
from alcoholysis of epoxides, 481, 1675

Hydroxy ketones
by sulfonyloxaziridines, 916
by the acyloin condensation, 1674
by the **aldol** condensation, 1674
by the benzoin condensation, 1243, 1674
by the Fries rearrangement, 1674
by the Knoevenagel reaction, **1674**
by the **Mukaiyama** aldol reaction, **1674**
by the Tollens reaction, 1674
from **α-diketones**, 1674
from aldehydes, 1674
from alkenes, 1674
from diazo ketones, 1673
from dithiane salts, **1674**
from **enamines**, 1674
from epoxides, **1674**
from epoxy alcohols, 1398
from esters, 1674
from formaldehyde, **1674**
from halo ketones, 1535, 1674
from **imines**, 1674
from ketones, 1207, 1218-1223, 1533, 1674
from **organolithium** reagents, 1207, 1674
from oxazines, 1674
from rearrangement of **α-hydroxy** aldehydes, 1674
from rearrangement of epoxy **silyl** ethers, 1674
from rearrangement of ketones, 1674
from rearrangement of phenolic esters, 1674
oxidative cleavage, 1520
preparation of, 916
reaction with dimethyldioxirane, 916
reaction with hydrazines, **1193**
rearrangement of, 1401
Hydroxy **nitriles**
from aldehydes, **1675**
from epoxides, 1675
from halo nitriles, 1675
from ketones, 1675
from nitriles, 1675
Hydroxy pyridine, and tautomerism, 76
Hydroxy silanes, by the Peterson **alkenylation** reaction, 1228
Hydroxy sulfonic acids, from bisulfite addition to aldehydes, 1675
Hydroxy sulfonic acids, from bisulfite addition to ketones, 1675
Hydroxy thioethers, **481**
from alkenes, 1055
from epoxides and thiolate ions, 1675
from thioalkylation of phenols, **1675**
Hydroxy thiols
from addition of H_2S to aldehydes, 1675
from addition of H_2S to ketones, **1675**
from epoxides and NaSH, 1675
from hydroxysulfenylation of alkenes, 1675
3-Hydroxypropanoic acid, 333
Hydroxylamine
reaction with **acyl** halides, 507
reaction with aldehydes and formic acid, **1195**
reaction with aldehydes or ketones, **1194**
reaction with esters, **510**
Hydroxylamine-O-sulfonic acid
reaction with acyl halides, 1413
reaction with amines, 530
Hydroxylamines
aromatic, reaction with acids, 878
by the Cope reaction, **1675**
by the Meisenheimer rearrangement, 1675
from alkenes, **1675**
from cleavage of **amine** oxides, 1675
from nitro compounds, 1553, 1554, 1675
from organolithium reagents, 1675
from oxetanes, 506
from oxidation of amines, 1675
from **oximes**, 1203, **1675**
from rearrangement of N-oxides, 1675
O-substituted, by Meisenheimer rearrangement, 1420
O-substituted, from amine oxides, 1420
reaction with nitroso compounds, **819**
rearrangement of, 878
reduction with **Zn/HCl**, 1554
Hydroxylation
of aromatic compounds, 724
of aromatic compounds, by the **Elbs** reaction, 724
of ketones, reagents for, **916**
of silanes, 482
Hydrozirconation, of alkenes, 1016
Hyperconjugation, 39, **71–73**
and addition to alkenes, 987
and carbocations, 220
and isotope effects, 299
and radicals, 241
and the **anomeric effect**, 177
and the Baker-Nathan effect, 72
and the resonance effect, 363
double, 220
isovalent, 73
sacrificial, 73
Hypervalent iodine, see iodine
Hypobromite, sodium
reaction with amines, **819**
reaction with amides, **1411**
Hypobromous acid, reaction with alkenes, 1044

Hypochlorite, sodium
oxidative cleavage of cyclic ketones, 1522
reaction with ammonia and boranes, 799
Hypochlorites
reaction with alkenes, 1044
sodium, reaction with amines, 819
Hypochlorous acid, reaction with alkenes, 1043
Hypoiodous acid, reaction with alkenes, 1044
Hypophosphorus acid, 45
reaction with aryl diazonium salts, 934
Hypostrophene, 1448

/ Effect, also see field effects
/effect
+*I* and -*I* effects, 17-18
and electrophilic aromatic substitution, 682-683
stabilization of Wheland intermediates, 682-683
/ strain, also see strain
/ strain, 366
/strain
and hydrates, 1176
and nucleophilic substitution, 437
Imidates, reaction with amines, 510
Imidazoles, reaction with $LiAlH_4$, 534
Imidazoles, reduction, 534
Imidazolide amides, reaction with alcohols, 488
Imides
by the Curtius rearrangement, 1676
by the Hofmann rearrangement, 1676
from acyl halides, 514
from acyl halides, 1675
from alkenes, 1676
from amides, 1676
from amines, 508
from anhydrides, 508, 1675
from imides, 1676
from lactams, 1676
from rearrangement of acyl azides, 1676
from unsaturated amides, 1676
reaction with alkenes, 1002
reaction with alkynes, 1002
reaction with phosphorus ylids, 1237
Imidines, from dinitriles, 1192
Imido selenium compounds, reaction with alkenes, 782
Imido sulfur compounds, reaction with alkenes, 782
Imine anions, reaction with aldehydes, 1222
Imine salts
from bicyclic amines, 1512
from isocyanates and Grignard reagents, 1217
from nitriles and Grignard reagents, 1217
hydrolysis of, 1217
Imine-enamine tautomerism, see tautomerism
Imines
and oxa-di-π- methane rearrangements, 1461
and the Ugi reaction, 1252
azomethine, as 1,3-dipoles, 1060
by the heteroatom Diels alder reaction, 1676
by the Stieglitz rearrangement, 1417, 1676
cyclic, from azides, 1413
cyclic, from halonitriles, 1217
cyclic, from organometallics, 1217
dimerization, reagents for, 1561
Imines
from active hydrogen compounds, 1676
from aldehydes, 1185-1187, 1676
from alkyl azides, 1412
from alkynes, 1676
from amide dehydration, 1327
from amides, 1327, 1677
from amines, 1185-1187, 1417, 1519, 1536, 1676
from ammonia, 1676
from azides, 1389, 1676
from carboxylic acids, 532
from enamines, 1676
from Grignard reagents, 1676
from isocyanates, 1677
from isonitriles, 1676
from ketones, 1185-1187, 1676
from metalated imines, 1676
from N-haloamines, 1417
from nitrites, 1676
from nitrilium salts, 1676
from nitroso compounds, 1676
from organometallic compounds, 1676
from oxime sulfonates, 1676
from oximes, 1676
from phosphoranes, 1677
from rearrangement of functionalized amines, 1676
from ylids, 1676
Imines
hydrolysis of, 532, 1177
in the aldol reaction, 1222
intermediates in the Schmidt reaction, 1414
isolation of, 1217
metalated, 1252
nitrite, as 1,3-dipoles, 1060
polymerization of, 1186
preparation using drying agents, 1186
preparation via azeotropic distillation, 1186

Imines
reaction with amines, 1001
reaction with base and an aldehydes, 1222
reaction with chlorosulfonyl isocyanate, **1251**
reaction with Grignard reagents, **1216**
reaction with HCN, **1240**
reaction with **ketenes, 1250**
reaction with **$LiAlH_4$,** 1203
reaction with phosphorus **ylids,** 1237
Imines
reduction, reagents for, **1203**
tantomerism with enamines, 77
Iminium ions
and **nucleophilic** addition, **1178**
and the Mannich reaction, **1190**
Iminium salts
and the Stephen reduction, 1204
conversion to nitriles, 722-723
from alcohols, **1183**
from aldehydes, **1187**
from **amine** perchlorates, **1187**
from ketones, **1187**
from nitriles, **1183**
from oxazines, 559
hydrolysis of, 787, 1183
in the Gatterman reaction, **715**
reaction with Grignard reagents, **1216**
reaction with **$LiAlH_4$,** 1203
Iminonitriles, from nitriles, **1241**
In-in isomers, 163
In-out isomers, 163
Inclusion compounds, 109-**111**
and carcerands, **111**
and **cyclodextrins,** 111-113
and hydrazine, **111**
and hydroquinone, **110–111**
and molecular knots, **114**
and rotaxanes, **114**
cage compounds, 109
clathrates, 109
definition, 109
Indacene, 68
Indene, **K_a,** 52
Indium trichloride, and the **Diels-Alder** reaction, 1066
Indium, reduction of heterocycles, **1011**
Indole, and electrophilic aromatic substitution, 689
Indoles
by Fischer indole synthesis, **1452–1453**
by the Fisher indole synthesis, 1452
from arylhydrazones, 1452
reaction with carbenes, 1087
Inductive effects, 16-18
-I and **+I,** 17-18
and hybridization, **18**
influence on **S_N1** reactions, 436
Infrared spectroscopy
and carbenes, 249, 1086
cyclohexyne, 187
Infrared, and hydrogen bonding, 100
Ing-Manske procedure, **513**
Inhibitors
and radicals, 896
radical, **AIBN, 911**
radical, peroxides, **911**
Inorganic esters, hydrolysis of, 464
Insertion reactions
intramolecular, 789
intramolecular, of carbocations, 787
of carbenes, 251,788-791
of carbenoids, 791
of **methylene,** 788
of nitrenes, 253-254, 782
Interconversion, 1,3-diene-cyclobutene, 1430
Interfacial mechanism, phase transfer catalysis, 455
Intermediate mechanisms, for **S_N2** reactions, 401
Intermediates
and **CIDNP,** 288
and energy diagrams, **281–282**
and mechanism, **281–282**
and the Hammond postulate, 285
and the **S_N1** reaction, 393
aryl radical **rearrangement,** 1390
azirine, in the Neber **rearrangement,** 1410
bisperoxide, and ozonolysis, 1523
cyclopropane, in the Claisen **rearrangement,** 1451
detection of, 288-289
diazo ketones, in the Schmidt reaction, 1414
dihydrophenanthrene, in photocyclization of stilbene, 1436
episulfones, in the Ramberg-Bäcklund reaction, 1342
esters, in oxidation-reduction, 1508
in amide hydrolysis, 365
in the Reformatsky reaction, **1212**
isolation of **S_NAr** intermediates, **851**
ketenimine, in the Schmidt reaction, 1414
ketocarbene, in Wolff **rearrangement,** 1407
nitrenes, in the **Curtius** rearrangement, 1412
nitrenes, in the **Hofmann rearrangement,** 1411
nitrenes, in the **Lossen rearrangement,** 1413
ozonolysis, from photooxidation of diazo compounds, 1524
protonated cyclopropane, 1382

sulfene, 575, 1338
Wheland, 676
Internal **aldol**, see **aldol**, intramolecular
Internal conversion, **313**
Internal return, and ion pairs, 398
Internal strain, see strain, I
International Union of Pure and Applied Chemistry, see **IUPAC**
Intersystem crossing, **315**
Intimate ion pairs, 398
Intramolecular, addition of radicals, 985
Intrinsic barrier, 286
Intrinsic free energy, 286
Inverse electron **demand**, in **Diels-Alder** reaction, 1067
Inverse isotope effects, 298
Inversion
of carbanions, 233
Walden, 290
Iodide ion
and elimination of dihalides, 1343
radiolabeled, in S_N2 reactions, 392
reaction with ditosylamines, 522
Iodides, **alkyl**
by the **Katritzky** pyrylium-pyridinium method, 522
from amines, 522
from esters, 521
from ethers and HI, 519
Iodides, see halides
Iodides, vinyl, from alkynes and boranes, 798
Iodination
of **aryl** diazonium salts, 875
of ketones and aldehydes, 776
Iodine azide, reaction with alkenes, 1046
Iodine
and electrophilic aromatic substitution, 706
and radical substitution, 908
and the Simonini reaction, 943
hypervalent, and ester formation, 488
hypervalent, and oxidation of alcohols, **1516**
hypervalent, lactone formation, 488
reaction with alkenes and **Chloramine-T**, 1058
reaction with alkynes, 1042
reaction with boranes, 798
reaction with methyl ketones, **813**
reaction with vinyl boranes and NaOH, 1424
Iodo azides
conversion to aziridines, 1046
from alkenes, 1046
Iodoethane reaction with amines and CO_2, 820
Iodoform, by the haloform reaction, 813
Iodolactamization, 1043
Iodosylbenzene, oxidation of alkenes, 915
Iodotrimethylsilane, and homologation of aldehydes and ketones, 1407
Ion exchange resins, and the aldol reaction, 1220
Ion pairs
and allylic rearrangement, 421-422
and El elimination, 1308
and E1cB elimination, **1312**
and E2 elimination, **1306**
and internal return, 398
and MO calculations, 399
and racemization, 399
and radiolabeled oxygen, 398
and solvolysis, 398
and stereochemistry, 398
and the S_E1 mechanism, 768
and the S_N1 reaction, 397-400
and [2,3]-sigmatropic rearrangement, 1454
in the S_N1 reaction, 397
intimate/contact/tight, 398
loose/solvent-separated, 398
scrambling of radiolabeled oxygen, 399
special salt effect, 399
Ion-pair mechanism, 400
and the **Sommelet** Hauser rearrangement, 878
Ionic bond, see bonding, ionic
Ionic strength, and reactivity, **451**
Ionization potential
and electronegativity, 15
and PES, 10–11
Ionization values, thermodynamic, for acids, 350
Ionization
and stain, 366
and the S_E1 mechanism, 763
of tosylates, solvent effects, **451**
Ionizing power
and charge transfer UV peak, 453
of solvents, 452
of solvents, table, 453
Ions
aminium radical, 701
arenium, 1402
bromonium, **971**
carbenium, **219**
carbocations, 218-227
carbonium, 218
diazonium, 448
nonclassical, 407-420
radical, 247
Wheland intermediates, 676
Ipso attack
and electrophilic aromatic substitution, 686
migration, 687

Ipso position, and electrophilic aromatic substitution, 686
Ipso substitution, and aryl radicals, 905
IR, see infrared
Ireland-Claisen rearrangement, 1452
Iron pentacarbonyl
reaction with Na-Hg, 562
reaction with RMgX and RLi, 801
Isoborneol, 1394
Isobutane, bond energy, 23
Isobutyl radical, 1390
Isobutylamine, labeled, and carbocations, 1383
Isochronous, definition, 165
Isocyanates
by the Curtius rearrangement, 1412, 1677
by the Hofmann rearrangement, 1411, 1677
by the Lossen rearrangement, 1413, 1677
by the Schmidt reaction, 1413
by the Schmidt rearrangement, 1677
from acyl azides, 1412
from alkyl halides, 516
from amides, 515, 1411, 1677
from amines, 507, 1677
from carboxylate salts, 1247
from carboxylic acids, 1677
from cyanate ion, 1677
from hydrazoic acid, 1677
from nitrile oxides, 1465
from rearrangement of acyl azides, 1677
from rearrangement of hydroxamic acids, 1677
hydrolysis of, 1178, 1411, 1413
reaction with alcohols, 1182-1183
reaction with amines, 1191
reaction with ammonia, 1191
reaction with aromatic compounds, 719
reaction with dimethyl dioxirane, 1540
reaction with enamines, 1250
reaction with Grignard reagents, 1217
reaction with phosphine oxides, 1246
reaction with phosphorous ylids, 1237
reaction with vinyltin compounds, 1218
reduction of, 1557
reduction with $LiAlH_4$, 1555
Isocyanic acid
reaction with amines, 1191
reaction with carbamates, 1183
Isocyanides, see isonitriles
Isoinversion, 765
Isomer distribution, in electrophilic aromatic substitution, 691
Isomerization
cis/trans, in radical addition to alkenes, 979
E/Z, 991
fluxional, 160
in carbenes, 249
in dienes, 991
of 2-azirines to 1-azirines, 1058
of alkenes, see alkenes, double bond migration
of azo compounds, 700
of boranes, 773
of double bonds in alkenes, 990
of epoxides, 481
photochemical induced, 319-320
Isomers
alkenes, 157-160
and rotaxanes, 113
atropisomers, 132
cis/trans, 156-163
cis/trans, and E2 elimination, 1304
cis/trans, and electrophilic addition to alkenes, 971-972
cis/trans, and elimination of ammonium salts, 1333
cis/trans, and elimination reactions, 1317-1318
cis/trans, and ozonolysis, 1524
cis/trans, and the Shapiro reaction, 1335
conformational, 167
conformational, cryptands, 106
out-in, 163
topological stereocatenanes, 114
valence bond, 160, 1083
Isonitriles
and hydrogen bonding, 101
and the Passerini reaction, 1252
and the Ugi reaction, 1252
from alkyl halides, 562, 1677
from amides, 1350
from amines, 506, 1677
from chloroform, 1677
from epoxides, 1677
from formamides, 1350
from isocyanates, 1557, 1677
from Me_3SiCN, 1677
from N-alkylformamides, 1677
from oxetanes, 1677
from substitution reactions with cyanide, 459
reaction with carbonyls and carboxylic acids, 1251
reaction with Grignard reagents, 1252
reaction with organolithium reagents, 1252
reaction with Schwartz's reagent, 1038
reaction with water, 1251
rearrangement of, 1421
reduction of, 1204
Isopentane, bond energy, 23
Isopropenyl formate, reaction with amines, 511

Isopropyl acetate, reaction with ketones, 487
Isopropyl fluoroantimonate, 786
Isopropylbenzene, see cumene
Isopropyllithium, 236
Isoquinolines, by the Bischler-Napieralski reaction, 721
Isoracemization, 765
Isothiocyanates
from alkyl halides, 516
from amines, 507, 1192, 1677
from diazonium salts, 1677
from thiocyanate ion, 1677
from thiophosgene, 1677
hydrolysis of, 1178
reaction with alcohols, 1183
reaction with amines, 1191
reaction with aromatic compounds, 719
reaction with Grignard reagents, 1218
reduction of, 1203
reduction with $LiAlH_4$, 1555
Isothiouronium salts, from thiourea and alkyl halides, 495, 1677
Isotope effects
and electrophilic aromatic substitution, 676
and ester hydrolysis, 472
and hyperconjugation, 299
and mechanism, 297-300
and S_N1 mechanisms for aromatic compounds, 853
and solvent, 299
deuterium, 297
deuterium, on nucleophilic substitution, 438
for S_N2 and S_N1 reactions, 299
in carbocations, 220
in Diels-Alder reactions, 1067
in enol ether hydrolysis, 468
in the e2 elimination, 1304
in the S_NAr mechanism, 852
inverse, 298
primary, 298
secondary, 298
Isotopic exchange
isoracemization, 765
rate, for carbanions, 765
Isotopic labeling, see labeling
and mechanism, 289-290
Isovalent hyperconjugation, 73
IUPAC mechanism nomenclature
and carbocations, 219
amide hydrolysis, 476
arenium ion, 675
ester formation, 485
ester hydrolysis, 471–472
nucleophilic addition to alkenes, 975
pyrolytic eliminations, 1323
S_Ei, 681, 763
S_E2, 760
S_Ei, 760
$S_{RN}1$, 856
IUPAC
nomenclature for mechanisms, 384
nomenclature for transformations, 382

Jablonski diagram, 313-314
Jacobsen reaction, 734
Jacobsen-Katsuki epoxidation, 1053
Japp-Klingemann reaction, 779
Johnson polyene cyclization, 1019
Jones reagent, 1514, 1531
with OsO_4, and oxidative cleavage, 1526
Journals
in chemistry, 1608-1609
review, 1620

K, see equilibrium constant
K_a, also see acidity constant
Katritzky pyrylium-pyridinium method, 447, 489, 499
and enolate anions, 551
preparation of alkyl iodides, 522
reduction of amines, 530
KCN, see cyanide, potassium
Kekulene, and aromaticity, 66
Ketals
and enol ether formation, 1181
and transacetalation, 1181
by the Prins reaction, 1642
by transetherification, 1642
from α-halo ethers, 1642
from alcohols, 1180, 1642
from aldehydes, 1642
from alkenes, 1642
from alkoxides, 1642
from alkynes, 1642
from p-hydroxy ethers, 1642
from diazoalkanes, 1642
from dihalides, 1642
from Grignard reagents, 1642
from ketones, 1180, 1642
from ortho esters, 1642
from phenols, 1642
hydrogenolysis, reagents for, 528
Ketene acetals, see acetals, ketene
Ketene
dimerization of, 1249
photolysis of, 250, 319
reaction with cyclopentadiene, 1080

Ketenes
by the Wolff rearrangement, 1677
from dehalogenation of α-halo acyl halides, 1677
from dehydrohalogenation of acyl halides, 1677
from halo acyl halides, 1344
from pyrolysis of carboxylic acids, 1677
from rearrangement of diazo ketones, 1677
from sulfonyl halides, 1338
in [2+2]-cycloadditions, 1077
reaction with aldehydes or ketones, 1249
reaction with alkenes, 1077
reaction with allenes, 1077
reaction with amines, 1001
reaction with HX, 992
reaction with hydrazones, 1250
reaction with imines, 1250
reaction with phosphorus ylids, 1237
Ketenimines, see imines
Keto acids, from ketones, 1229
Keto aldehydes
and internal Cannizzaro reactions, 1565
oxidative cleavage, 1520
Keto esters
acyl cleavage, 812
aryl, photolysis of, 1532
by the Blaise reaction, 1213
from aldehydes, 785
from alkenes, 1058
from bromo esters, 1213
from diazo esters, 785
from esters, 1213
reaction with hydrazines, 1193
Keto oximes, dehydration, 1349
Keto sulfoxides, alkylation of, 549
Keto-enol tautomerism, also see tautomerism
Keto-enol tautomerism, 73-75, 773-775, 976
and the Bucherer reaction, 865
Ketocarbene intermediates in Wolff rearrangement, 1407
Ketol rearrangement, 1401
Ketone dithioketals, hydrolysis of, 468
Ketone enolate anions, reaction with esters, 571
Ketone esters, 567
Ketone, halo, see halo ketones
Ketone, methyl vinyl
and the Robinson annulation, 1222
reaction with borane, 1031
Ketone-alkenes, from keto acids, 944
Ketones hydroxy, see hydroxy ketones
1,4-ketones, from alkynes and organolithium reagents, 1033
Ketones
α-dithiomethylene, 1229
α-oxidation, 1531
α-oxidation with selenium dioxide, 1531
acylation of, 569
acyloxy, 1643
acyloxylation of, 923
addition of boranes, 1210
Ketones
and Gomberg-Bachmann pinacol synthesis, 1560
and hydroxyalkylation of aromatic rings, 719
and keto-enol tautomerism, 774
and radical cyclization, 1244
and reduction to form a chiral center, 1200
and the Baeyer-Villiger rearrangement, 1417
and the Barbier reaction, 1205
and the Bouveault-Blanc reaction, 1199
and the Claisen reaction, 1224
and the Darzen's glycidic ester condensation, 1230
and the Eschweiler-Clarke reaction, 1188
and the Fischer indole synthesis, 1453
and the Friedländer quinoline synthesis, 1186
and the Knoevenagel reaction, 1225-1228
and the Leuckart reaction, 1188
and the Meerwein-Ponndorf-Verley reduction, 1199
and the Passerini reaction, 1252
and the Paterno-Büchi reaction, 1249
and the Robins on annulation, 1222
and the Wallach reaction, 1188
Ketones
aryl methyl, oxidation to phenolic esters, 1528
aryl, from aromatic compounds, 722
aryl, from nitriles, 722
aryl, oxidation of, 1528
asymmetric induction during reduction, 1200
asymmetric reduction with Alpine-borane, 1201
Ketones
by Friedel-Crafts ring closure, 720
by Friedel-crafts acylation, 1678
by Oppenauer oxidation, 1516
by oxidation with *Bacillus stearothermophilus*, 1517
by radical cyclization, 1244
by retro-aldol condensation, 808
by sulfene intermediates, 1338
by Swern oxidation, 1516
by the Dakin-West reaction, 1678
by the Dess-Martin periodinane, 1516
by the Fries rearrangement, 1678
by the Hoesch reaction, 1678
by the Hofmann rearrangement, 1679

by the Michael reaction, 1679
by the Nef reaction, 1178, 1679
by the Oppenauer oxidation, 1199
by the pinacol rearrangement, 1679
by the Stork enamine synthesis, 1678
by the Tiffeneau-Demyanov reaction, 1679
by the Wacker process, 1538
by [1,3] sigmatropic rearrangements, 1679
Ketones
catalytic hydrogenation, 1198
chemoselective reduction, 1198
chiral, in the aldol reaction, 1222
chloro, and Favorskii rearrangement, 1403
chloro, rearrangement with base, 1403
cleavage of, 813
cleavage with amide bases, 814
Ketones, conjugated
addition to silyl enol ethers, 1024
and Michael reactions, 1022-1024
and the Grignard reaction, 1205
and the Sakurai reaction, 1024
and vinylogy, 553
by Nazarov cyclization, 1021
by selenoxides, 1336
by the Pauson-Khand reaction, 1091
by the Robinson annulation, 1222
reaction with borane, 1031
reaction with hydroperoxide anion, 1509
reduction of, 1007
Ketones, cyclic, see cyclic ketones
Ketones, di-, see diketones
Ketones
diastereoselectivity in reduction, 1201
diazo, hydrolysis of, 465
dissolving metal reductions, 1199-1200
enolates, also see enolate anions
enzymatic oxidation, 1533
Ketones
from 1,2-or 1,3-diols, 1679
from α-hydroxy or α-halo amides and NaOBr, 1679
from acetoacetic ester synthesis, 1678
from acid derivatives, 567, 1678
from active methylene compounds, 1678, 1680
from acyl halides, 566, 1678
from alcohols, 487, 1514–1517
from aldehydes, 556, 785, 1033, 1038, 1678, 1679
from alkene-alcohols, 773
from alkenes, 1033, 1035, 1038, 1522, 1525-1526, 1537-1538, 1679, 1680
from alkoxides, 1678
from alkyl halides, 787, 1678, 1679, 1680
from alkyne ketones, 1031
from alkynes, 1679
from allenes, 996
from allylic alcohols, 1678
from allylic vinylic ethers, 1679
from amines, 1680
from amino acids, 1678
from anhydrides, 1678
from aromatic compounds, 1678
from aryl diazonium salts, 938
from aryl iodides, 1678
from aryl nitriles, 1530
from P-diketones, 1678
from P-keto acids, 1678
from p-keto esters, 1678
from boranes, 1678, 1679
from boron-stabilized carbanions, 1678
from bromohydrins, 1399
from carbamates, 1215
from carboxylic acid salts, 1678
from carboxylic acids, 568, 573, 1213, 1327
from conjugated ketones, 1027
from cycloalkenes, 1539
from dialkylamino nitriles, 1531
from dialkylchloroboranes, 1679
from diarylmethanes, 1680
from diazo ketones, 1678
from diazonium salts, 1679
from dimetallic compounds, 1678
from diols, 1396-1398, 1519-1521
from dithianes, 556, 1678
from enamines, 787, 1678
from enol ethers, 487
from epoxides, 1398
from esters, 549
from y-amino halides, 1679
from y-hydroxy halides, 1679
from glycols, 1679
from Grignard reagents, 1679
from halo ketones, 1678
from heterocycles, 1678
from homologation of aldehydes, 1679
from homologation of ketones, 1679
from hydration of alkynes, 1679
from hydration of allenes, 1679
from hydrolysis of bicyclo[4.1.0]heptanes, 1679
from hydrolysis of C=N compounds, 1679
from hydrolysis of dihalides, 1678
from hydrolysis of enol esters, 1678
from hydrolysis of enol esters of inorganic acids, 1678
from hydrolysis of enol ethers, 1678
from hydrolysis of epoxy silanes, 1679

Ketones *(Continued)*
from hydrolysis of hydrazones, 1679
from hydrolysis of **imines,** 1536, 1679
from hydrolysis of **ketals,** 1678
from hydrolysis of nitro compounds, 1679
from hydrolysis of **oximes,** 1679
from hydrolysis of **thioketals,** 1678
from hydrolysis of unsaturated boranes, 1679
from hydrolysis of vinylic halides, 1678
from **hydroperoxides,** 1418, 1679
from hydroxy amines, 1399
from imines, 1177, 1679
from keto sulfoxides, 549
from ketone rearrangements, 1679
from ketones, 559-560, 1401, 1678, 1679
from ketonic decarboxylation, 1678
from lithium alkynyltrialkylborates, 1679
from lithium carboxylates, 1679
from malonic acid derivatives, 1530
from malonic acids, 1680
from mercury hydrides, 1679
from **nitriles,** 1217, 1678, 1679, 1680
from nitro compounds, **1178,** 1537, 1680
from organocuprates, 1027, 1678
from organolithium reagents, 1213, 1679
from organomercury halides, 800
from **organometallic** compounds, 1678, 1679
from oxazines, 559, 1678
from oximes, 938, 1679
from **phenyllithium,** 1215
from photolysis of acylated **arylamines,** 1678
from pyrolysis of P-hydroxy alkenes, 1679
from rearrangement of glycols, 1679
from rearrangement of hydroxy alkenes, 1678
from rearrangement of phenolic ethers, 1678
from reduction of P-keto sulfoxides, 1678
from reduction of diazo ketone s or nitro ketones, 1678
from reduction of diketones or quinones, 1680
from reduction of halo ketones, 1678
from reduction of hydroxy ketones, 1678
from reduction of phenols, 1679
from ring expansion of certain hydroxyamines, 1679
from secondary alcohols, 1679
from **silyl enol** ethers, 1679
from thioketones, **1185**
from tin hydrides, 1679
from tosylates, 1680
from unsaturated ketones, 1679
from vinyl **sulfides,** 783
Ketones
halo, from ketones, 775
halogenation, mechanism, 776
homologation with diazomethane, 1407
homologation with Me_3SiI, 1407
hydroxylation of, reagents for, 916
in the Mannich reaction, **1189**
in the **Mukaiyama aldol** reaction, 1223
indirectly, from carboxylic esters, 1679
methyl, and the haloform reaction, 813
methyl, and the Willgerodt reaction, 1567
methyl, cleavage with halogens, 813
methyl, from diazomethane homologation of aldehydes, 1408
methylation by the Simmons-Smith reaction, 1089
methylation with Me_3Al, 1214
non-enolizable, cleavage by base, 813
oxidation with dimethyldioxirane, 916
oxidation with $MeReO_3/H_2O_2$, 1533
oxidation with ***Pisum sativum***, 1533
oxidation with SeO_2, 1509
photochemical cleavage, 245, **318**
photochemical dimerization, 1560
protection as dithioketals, **1182**
Ketones
reaction with **α-methoxyvinyllithium,** 1227
reaction with active methylene compounds, 1225-228
reaction with **acyl** halides, 1182
reaction with alcohols, **1180, 1182**
reaction with aldehydes, 1218-1223, 1248
reaction with alkenes, **1249**
reaction with **alkyl** halides, 492
reaction with allenes, 1250
reaction with amines, 553, 1185-1187
reaction with amines and hydrogen, **1187–1189**
reaction with **ammonia, 1186**
reaction with ammonia and hydrogen, **1188**
reaction with bisulfite, **1185**
reaction with bromoesters and Zn, **1212**
reaction with carboxylic acids and isonitriles, 1251
reaction with **chloro** esters, 1230
reaction with CS_2, 1229
reaction with diazoalkanes, 1248
reaction with enol esters, 487
reaction with esters, 1223
reaction with formaldehyde, 1230
reaction with Girard's reagents T and P, **1193**
reaction with Grignard reagents, 1205-1209
reaction with halogens, 775
reaction with HCN, 1239
reaction with hydrazines, **1192–1193**
reaction with hydrazoic acid, 1414

reaction with hydrogen sulfide, 1184
reaction with hydroxylamine, 1194
reaction with isopropyl acetate, 487
reaction with ketene acetals, 1249
reaction with ketenes, 1249
reaction with ketones, 1218-1223, 1248
reaction with Lawesson's reagent, 1184
reaction with magnesium methyl carbonates, 1229
reaction with Me_3Al or Me_2TiCl_2, 1210
reaction with Me_3SiCN, 1240
reaction with organocerium reagents, 1205
reaction with organolithium reagents, 1205-1209
reaction with other organometallics, 1209–1211
reaction with PCl_5, 1195
reaction with peroxyacids, 1417
reaction with Petasis reagent, 1238
reaction with phenylhydrazine, 1453
reaction with phosphorus ylids, 1231-1237
reaction with semicarbazide, 1193
reaction with silane carbanions, 1228
reaction with silanes and base, 1200
reaction with silyl enol ethers, 552
reaction with silyl ketene acetals, 1223
reaction with sulfur ylids, 1247
reaction with Tebbe's reagent, 1238
reaction with thiols, 1182, 1185
reaction with $TiCl_3$/Zn-Cu, 1561
reaction with water, 1175
Ketones
rearrangement of, 1401
reduction, 1197–1203
reduction with boranes, 1200
reduction with hydrazine-KOH, 1547
reduction with hydrides, 1197-1198
reduction with metals in water, 1200
reduction with sodium in ethanol, 1199
reduction with Zn-Hg/HCl, 1547
reduction, and Cram's rule, 1201
reductive acylation, 1182
reductive animation, 1188
reductive coupling, 1559-1561
reductive dimerization, 1182
reductive removal of O, 1547
silyl, oxidative cleavage, 1521
sulfenylation of, 783
Ketyl intermediates, in Grignard reagents, 1208
Ketyls
and Gomberg-Bachmann pinacol synthesis, 1560
and radical ions, 247
dimerization of, 1560
in reduction of aldehydes or ketones with Na/EtOH, 1199
Kiliani-Fischer synthesis, 1240
Kindler modification, to the Willgerodt reaction, 1567
Kinetic acidity, 228-229
Kinetic and thermodynamic control, 284-285
Kinetic resolution, also see resolution
Kinetic resolution, 149, 153-154
and dihydroxylation, 154
and epoxidation, 154
Kinetics
and diffusion control, 279
and El elimination, 1307
and E2 elimination, 1300
and equilibrium, 293
and frequency factor, 296
and half-life, 294-295
and intermediates, 281–282
and lactonization, 281
and mechanism, 290-296
and molecularlity, 291
and NMR, 295
and primary isotope effects, 298
and rate constants, 281, 291
and rate law, 290
and reaction coordinates, 279
and reactions, 278-282
and reactions of nitronium ion, 698
and ring closing reactions, 281
and second order reaction, 291
and secondary isotope effects, 298
and solvent isotope effects, 299
and steady state approximation, 292
and the S_N1 reaction, 394, 396
and the S_N2 reaction, 390
and the tetrahedral mechanism, 425
and third order reactions, 291
and transition state, 279
classifications, for β- eliminations, 1309
first order reaction, 291
kinetic vs. thermodynamic control, 284-285
pseudo-first order, 293
rate determining step, 291-292
Knoevenagel condensation, 1219, 1225-1228
and high pressure, 457
and lithiated allylic carbamates, 1227
and microwaves, 1226
and the Tollens' reaction, 1231
and zeolites, 1226
Doebner modification, 1226
solid state reactions, 1226
solvents effects, 1227

Knoevenagel condensation, **1219,**
1225-1228 *(Continued)*
with **α-methoxyvinyllithium, 1227**
with tosylhydrazones, **1227**
Knots, see molecular knots
Knots, molecular, **114**
Kobe-Schmitt reaction, **718**
Koch reaction, 1035
Koch-Haaf reaction, **564,** 1035
Kolbe electrosynthesis, 942
Kolbe reaction, 941-942, 1354, 1508
photochemical, 942
Kornblum's rule, 460 (ref. 470), 605
Krebs cycle, and enantiotopic atoms, 164
Kröhnke reaction, 1536

Labeling
and ^{14}C, 289
and alkynes, 430
and amide hydrolysis, 476
and enantiotopic atoms, 164
and **enol** ether hydrolysis, 467
and ester hydrolysis, 290, 472
and **keto-enol** tautomerism, 775
and labeled CO_2 with Grignard reagents, **1215**
and mechanisms, 289-290
and ozonolysis, **1525**
and protonated cyclopropanes, 1382
and radical rearrangements, **1389**
and reduction of sulfoxides, **1557**
and the Baeyer-Villiger rearrangement, 1418
and the benzidine rearrangement, 1456
and the benzyne mechanism, 854
and the Favorskii rearrangement, 1404
and the Stevens rearrangement, 1419
and the tetrahedral mechanism, 425
and the Wallach rearrangement, 1465
in aromatic compound cleavage, **731**
in the hydrolysis of **aryl** sulfonates, 574
in the photochemical Wolff rearrangement, 1406
in the Shapiro reaction, 1335
of **adamantane,** and rearrangements, 1396
oxygen, and solvolysis, 398
rearrangement of N-nitro amines, 727
α-Lactams, formation from chloro amides, 514
P-Lactams
from aminocyclopropanols, 1417
from enamines and isocyanates, 1250
from **imines** and ketenes, 1250
Lactams
alkoxy, reaction wt Grignard reagents, 546
and reductive alkylation, **513**
by **halolactamization,** 1680
by the Beckmann rearrangement, 1680
by the Schmidt rearrangement, 1680
by transamidation, 512
enzymatic formation, 508
from alkene amides, 1043
from **alkene-acids, 1680**
from alkenes, 1059, 1680
from amines, **1680**
from **amino** acids, 508, 1680
from aminocyclopropanols, 1680
from ammonia, 1680
from azido carboxylic acids, 508
from **carbamates,** 1002
from cyclic amines, 1535, 1680
from cyclic ketones, 1414, 1680
from enamines, 1680
from halo amides, 1680
from halo esters, 1680
from **imides,** 1680
from imines, 1680
from isocyanates, 1680
from ketenes, **1680**
from lactams, 512, 546, 1680
from lactones, **510, 1680**
from reactions of alkenes, CO, and water, 1036
from rearrangement of **oximes,** 1680
from ring expansion of lactams, 1680
from unsaturated amines, 1680
in **Diels-Alder** reactions, 1075
N-chloromethyl, reaction with amines, 500
oxidation of, 1535
reaction with **alkyl** halides, 513
reaction with amide bases, 512
Lactim ethers, in **Diels-Alder** reactions, 1075
β-Lactones
reaction with **ammonia,** 511
hydrolysis mechanism, 473
γ-Lactones, hydrolysis mechanism, 473
Lactones
and the **Mukaiyama** reagent, 485
bicyclic, fragmentation reactions, **1348**
by extrusion of CO_2 from
1,2-dioxolane-3,5-diones, 1680
by halolactonizations, 1680
by internal S_N2, 406
by intramolecular coupling, 1680
by oxidation of cyclic esters, 1534
by the Baeyer-Villiger **rearrangement,** 1680
by the Story reaction, 1355, 1680
by **transesterification,** 487
cleavage with thiols, 496
conformations, 178
decarboxylation, 1354

enantioselective formation, 1249
from alcohols, 1680
from aldehydes, 1249, 1680
from alkene acids, 1043,1680
from alkenes, 1036, 1059, 1680
from anhydrides, 1550, 1680
from cleavage of cyclic α-cyano ketones, 1680
from cyclic anhydrides, 1681
from cyclic ethers, 1680
from cyclic ketones, 1680
from cyclic peroxides, 1680
from dialdehydes, 1564, 1681
fromdiols, 1537, 1681
from halo acids, 488, 1680
from hydroxy acids, 484, 1680
from ketenes, 1249, 1680
from ketones, 1249, 1680
from lactones, 1465
from manganese(III) acetate, 1680
from N-iodoamines, 1463
from peroxides, 1355
from phosphoranes, 1680
from rearrangement of N-halo amides, 1680
from unsaturated alcohols, 1680
hydrolysis, 470
macrocyclic, 484
pyrolysis of, 1330
reaction with alcohols, 487
reaction with amides, 510
reactions with silanes, 535
reduction to cyclic ethers, 1548
reduction to diols, 1551
reduction to ethers, 1550
Lactonization, 484
and kinetics, 281
and the Mukaiyama reagent, 485
halo- and iodo-, 1043
Lanosterol, 1019
Lanthanide catalysts, reaction of imines and diazoalkanes, 1217
Lanthanide shift reagents, and diastereotopic atoms, 165
Lanthanides, as chiral shift reagents, 156
Lanthanum triflate, in the Diels-Alder reaction, 1065
Large rings, and strain, 185
Large-angle strain, 184
Lariat ethers, 107
Lariat ethers, also see cryptands
Lawesson's reagent
and amide formation, 509
and cleavage of phosphonate esters, 1331
reaction with alcohols, 496
reaction with aldehydes or ketones, 1184
LCAO model, 5
LDA, see lithium diisopropylamide
Lead tetraacetate
and formation of aryl esters, 870
oxidative cleavage of diols, 1520
reaction with alcohols, 919
reaction with alkenes and disulfides, 1055
reaction with amines, 1417
reaction with carboxylic acids, and cupric acetate, 1528
reaction with dicarboxylic acids, 1530
reaction with hydrazones, 870
Lead, pyrophoric, reaction with acyl halides, 568
Leaving group effects
and El elimination, 1307
and electrophilic aromatic substitution, 695
and nucleophilic aromatic substitution, 860
in elimination reactions, 1321
Leaving groups
amine ditosylates, 447
and basicity, 445
and mechanism, 275
and reactivity of acid derivatives, 449
and ring strain, 446
and the S_E1 reaction, 764
and the S_NAr reaction, 860
at acyl carbon, 448
effect on S_E1 reactions, 768
effect on substitution reactions, 445-449
halonium ions, 446
order of ability to leave, 449
the nucleofuge, 389
Lederer-Manasse reaction, 719
Lemieux-von Rudloff reagent, 1526
Leuckart reaction, 1188
Levo isomers, and chirality, 125
Lewis acid catalysts
acylation of aldehydes or ketones, 1245
and acylation of alkenes, 784
and Claisen rearrangement, 1452
and diazomethane homologation of aldehydes or ketones, 1408
and dithioketal formation, 1182
and formation of acetals or ketals, 1180
and formation of keto esters, 785
and Friedel-Crafts acylation, 712-714
and Friedel-Crafts alkylation, 707
and heteroatom Diels-Alder reactions, 1075
and reaction of aldehydes with allylsilanes, 1211
and reaction of alkyl halides with alkenes, 1047
and the aldol reaction, 1221
and the Beckmann rearrangement, 1415

Lewis acid catalysts *(Continued)*
and the Curtius rearrangement, 1412
and the Fischer indole synthesis, 1452
and the Prins reaction, 1242
and [2+2]-cycloadditions, 1083
for Friedel-Crafts reactions, 708
in the Diels-Alder reaction, 1065
with aldehydes and allyl silanes, 1239
with ketenes and aldehydes or ketones, 1249
Lewis acid, definition, 339
Lewis acids
ab initio study, 339
and aromatic halogenation, 706
and ate complexes, 339
and cleavage of aromatic compounds, 731
and cleavage of ethers, 520
and reaction of ketones with silyl enol ethers, 552
and the periodic table, 345
and the Schmidt reaction, 1413
and Wagner-Meerwein rearrangements, 1396
coordination and conformational effects, 348
hard-soft acid bases, 338-342
reaction with acetals, 467
reaction with alkyl halides, 710
strengths, 340
Lewis bases
and ate complexes, 339
hard-soft, acid-basses, 338-342
Lewis structures, 12, 32
LFER, see linear free energy relationship
LIDAKOR, reaction with epoxides, 1329
Light
and chemical reactions, 306
circularly polarized, and reactions, 150
Limiting S_N1 reaction, 394
Limonene
and reduction of nitriles with Pd-C, 1556
reaction with singlet oxygen, 921
Limonylborane, 1015
Lindlar catalyst, and hydrogenation of alkynes, 1004
Linear free energy relationship, 370
Lithiation
of thioethers, 941
ortho, 792
Lithium aluminum hydride
and reduction of aldehydes or ketones, 1197
and $TiCl_3$ in coupling reactions, 544
complex with carbonyls, 1202
disproportionation in reduction of carbonyls, 1202
ease of reduction of functional groups, 1545
reaction with amides, 533
reaction with ammonium salts, 530
reaction with epoxides, 529
reaction with imidazoles, 534
reaction with propargylic halides, 525
reaction with tosylates, 526
reduction of amines, 1549
reduction of anhydrides, 1551
reduction of aryl nitro compound, 1563
reduction of azides, 1555
reduction of azo compounds, 1556
reduction of carboxylic acids, 1549
reduction of diazonium salts, 1556
reduction of esters, 1551
reduction of imines, 1203
reduction of iminium salts, 1203
reduction of iodo azides, 1046
reduction of isocyanates, 1555
reduction of isothiocyanates, 1555
reduction of N-nitroso amines, 1556
rednction of nitriles, 1204
reduction of oximes, 1554-1555
reduction of sulfone carbanions, 1355
reduction of sulfonyl halides, 1556
rednction of sulfoxides, 1557
reduction of the C-S bond, 531
reduction to hydroperoxides, 1558
Lithium borohydride, and reactions of borane and CO, 1424
Lithium dicyclohexylamide, with dihalides and carbonyl compounds, 1207
Lithium diisopropylamide
and formation of ketone enolates, 551
formation of enolate anions, 793
reaction with aldehydes and then imines, 1222
reaction with aziridino hydrazones, 1335
reaction with esters, 1224
reaction with ketones, 786
structure, 348
Lithium diphenylphosphide, elimination of epoxides, 1341
Lithium ditrifylamide, 1155 (ref. 1223)
Lithium hexamethyldisilazide, structure, 349
Lithium iodide, reaction with esters, 521
Lithium naphthalenide, reaction with thioethers, 941
Lithium nitride, reaction with acyl halides, 507
Lithium perchlorate
in ether, and the Diels-Alder reaction, 1066
special salt effect, 399, 452
Lithium phenoxide, and structure, 349
Lithium tetramethylpiperidide, structure, 348

Lithium tri-*t*-butoxyaluminum hydride, reaction with acyl halides, 532
Lithium triethylborohydride, reaction with alkyl halides, 525
Lithium
and amines, reduction of carboxylic acids, 532
and anilines, reduction of esters, 529
and Birch reduction, 1012
and reduction of aromatic compounds, 1009
Long range nucleophilic rearrangements, 1387-1388
Loose ion pairs, 398
Lossen rearrangement, 1380, 1413
Lowest unoccupied molecular orbital, see LUMO
LUMO
alkenes, 1070
and Diels-Alder reactions, 1070
Lyonium ion, 335

M effect, see resonance effect
Magnesium monoperoxyphthalate, 1054
Magnesium
and elimination of dihalides, 1343
and Grignard reagents, 1205
and pinacol coupling, 1560
and the Barbier reaction, 1205
Maleic acid
properties, 159
reaction with bromine, 972
Maleic anhydride, in the Diels-Alder reaction, 1062
Malic acid
reaction with PCl_5, 391
reaction with thionyl chloride, 391
Malonate esters, reaction with dihalides, 550
Malonate, see malonic ester
Malonic acids, 491
dimethyl ester, pK_a, 347
oxidative decarboxylation, 1530
Malonic ester synthesis, 549
an alternative, 556
aryl derivatives, 720
Malonic ester, reaction with diazonium salts, 779
Malonic esters, alkylation, 549
Manganese (III) acetate, reaction with alkenes, 1059
Manganese dioxide
and microwaves, 1572 (ref. 53)
oxidation of thioethers, 1542
Manganese salen
and oxidation of ketones, 1531, 1533
and epoxidation of alkenes, 1053
Mannich bases, 1189
and enolate anion alkylation, 550
and Michael reactions, 1023
as a leaving group, 550
reaction with aldehydes, 1189
with leaving groups, 447
Mannich reaction, 1189
and aminoalkylation, 722
and Eschenmoser's salt, 1191
and the Strecker synthesis, 1240
diastereoselectivity, 1191
mechanism of, 1190
regioselectivity, 1190
Marcus equation, 337
and the Br0nsted law, 338
Marcus theory, 286-287
and the Swain-Scott equation, 444
Markovnikov's rule, also see regioselectivity
Markovnikov's rule, 984
addition of carboxylic acids to alkenes, 997
and acylation of alkenes, 784
and addition of alcohols to alkenes, 996
and addition of borane to alkenes, 1013
and addition of HX to alkenes, 991
and addition to cyclopropanes, 989
and Friedel-Crafts alkylation with alkenes, 710
and reaction of alkenes with alkyl halides, 1047
and reaction of alkenes with anhydrides, 1059
and reaction of alkenes with hypohalous acids, 1044
and reaction of alkenes with NOCl, 1046
and reactions of alkenes, CO, and water, 1036
and the Prins reaction, 1242
and the Wacker process, 1538
and transmetallation, 803
reaction of alkynes with HX, 992
Markovnikov, anti, see anti-Markovnikov
Masked reagents, 1216
Masochistic steric effects, 1080
Mass law effect, 395
Mass spectrometry, and the S_N2 reaction, 392
Matrix trapping, of cyclobutadiene, 59
McFadyen-Stevens reduction, 534
McMurry reaction, 1561
Mcpba, see chloro(*m*-)peroxybenzoic acid
Mechanical separation, and resolution, 153
Mechanisms
α-oxidation of ketones with SeO_2, 1531
acetal and ketal formation, 1180
acid catalyzed rearrangement of hydroperoxides, 1418
acid chromate oxidation of alcohols, 1517
acyl halide hydrolysis, 469
acylation of alkenes, 784

Mechanisms *(Continued)*
acylation of amines, 511
acyloin condensation, 1563
acyloxylation of hydrocarbons, 923
addition, 276
addition of alkanes to alkenes, 1017-1018
addition of boranes to alkenes, 1016
addition of protons to alkenes, 974
aldehyde oxidation, 917
aldol reaction, 1220
alkene metathesis, 1458-1459
alkenes, and nickel tetracarbonyl, 1036
alkyl halides with alkoxides, 477
alkyne trimerization, 1090
amide hydrolysis, 475
Mechanisms
and anchimeric assistance, 404
and arenium ions, 411,413
and bromonium ions, 971
and catalysis, 289
and electrofuge, 385
and emission spectroscopy, 321
and equilibrium, 293
and first order reaction, 291
and formation of thioethers, 496
and half-life, 294-295
and heterolytic bond cleavage, 274
and homolytic bond cleavage, 275
and isotopic effects, 297-300
and isotopic labeling, 289-290
and kinetics, 290-296
and leaving group, 275
and Marcus theory, 286-287
and microscopic reversibility, 285-286
and molecularlity, 291
and nucleofuge, 275, 385
and phenonium ions, 411, 413
and primary isotope effects, 298
and product determination, 287
and rate constants, 291
and rate determining step, 291-292
and rate law, 290
and second order reaction, 291
and secondary isotope effects, 298
and solvent isotope effects, 299
and steady state approximation, 292
and stereochemistry, 290
and symproportionation, 1017
and the Hammond postulate, 285
and third order reactions, 291
Mechanisms
anhydride hydrolysis, 469
arenium ion mechanism, 675-680
arenium ion, mercuration of aryl compounds, 793
aromatic compound cleavage, 731
aromatic compounds and acyl peroxides, 932
aromatic formylation, 715
aromatic radical substitution, 898
aromatic sulfonation, 702
aryl halides with alkoxides, 862
arylation of aryl diazonium salts, 929
azides with active methylene compounds, 781
Baeyer-Villiger rearrangement, 1418
Bamberger rearrangement, 879
Bamford-Stevens reaction, 1335
Barton reaction, 1463
Beckmann rearrangement, 1416
benzidine rearrangement, 1455-1456
benzoin condensation, 1243
benzyne, and aromatic substitution, 854
bimolecular, 759-763
bimolecular, S_N2, 390
biradical, for Diels-Alder reactions, 1067
Birch reduction of aromatic compounds, 1010
bisdecarboxylation of dicarboxylic acids, 1530
borane and hydroperoxide anion, 797
borane reaction with halo carbonyls, 560
boranes, elimination with alkenes, 1339
Bucherer reaction, 865
Cannizzaro reaction, 1565
carbamate hydrolysis, 474
carbanion, elimination, 1308-1312
carbene disproportionation, 790
carbene insertion, 789, 1086, 1087
carbocations and hydrocarbons, 786
Chapman rearrangement, 1464
Claisen condensation, 570
Claisen reaction, 1224
Claisen rearrangement, 1449-1450
concentration of reactants, 293-294
conducted tour mechanism, 766
conducted tour, and double bond migration, 771
conversion of isocyanates to carbodiimides, 1246
Cope elimination, 1333
Cope rearrangement, 1446–1447
coupling of boranes, 939
Criegee, for ozonolysis, 1523-1525
Curtius rearrangement, 1412
cyanoborohydride reduction of tosylhydrazones, 1548
cyclic, and addition to alkenes, 979
cyclic, and the Prins reaction, 1242
cyclobutane cycloreversion, 1081
Dakin reaction, 1528

decarbonylation of aldehydes, 945
decarboxylation of aryl carboxylic acids, 733
decarboxylation of carboxylate ions, 733
decarboxylation of glycidic acids, 809
decarboxylation of keto acids, 810
definition, 274
dehydration of oxime tosylates, 1349
detection of intermediates, 288-289
determination of, 287-300
di-π- methane rearrangements, 1461
diazo transfer with active methylene compounds, 781
diazoalkanes and alcohols, 479
diazomethane homologation of aldehydes and ketones, 1407
diazotization of aromatic amines, 817
dichromate oxidation of aldehydes, 918
Dieckmann condensation, 570
Diels-Alder reactions, 1066-1067
dihydroxylation of alkenes with H_2O_2, 1049
diimide reduction of alkenes, 1007
diion, and ketene-imine cycloaddition, 1250
diion, for [2+2]-cycloadditions, 1080
dimer mechanism and S_NAr, 852
diradical, and carbene insertion to alkenes, 1087
diradical, and Cope rearrangement, 1447
diradical, and cyclobutane cycloreversion, 1081
diradical, for [2+2]-cycloadditions, 1080
DMSO oxidation of alkyl halides, 1536
E1, 1306–1308
E1cB, 1308–1312
E2, 1300-1306
E2C, 1313
Eglinton reaction, 928
electrocyclic rearrangements, 1427
electrophilic, 274
electrophilic addition to alkenes, 970-975
electrophilic addition to cyclopropanes, 989
elimination, 276
elimination of alkyl halides, 1337
elimination of epoxides with PPh_3, 1341
elimination-addition, at vinyl carbon, 430
ene reaction, 1022
enol ester hydrolysis, 474
enolate anion alkylations, 550
ester formation, 485
ester formation with DCC, 485
ester hydrolysis, 470-473
Étard reaction, 1534
Favorskii rearrangement, 1403
Fischer indole synthesis, 1453
flash photolysis, 321
fragmentation of alkene alcohols, 1351
free radical, 275
free radical substitution, 896
Friedel-Crafts acylation, 714
Friedel-Crafts alkylation, 710-711
Fries rearrangement, 727
gem-dichloride formation from aldehydes or ketones, 1196
Glaser reaction, 928
Gomberg-Bachmann pinacol synthesis, 1560
Grignard reaction with aldehydes and ketones, 1208
haloform reaction, 813
halogenation of enolate anions, 776
halogenation of ketones and aldehydes, 776
halogenation of organometallic compounds, 799
Heck reaction, 931
heterogeneous catalytic hydrogenation of alkenes, 1005
Hofmann elimination, 1332
Hofmann rearrangement, 1411
Hofmann-Löffler reaction, 1462
homogeneous catalytic hydrogenation of alkenes, 1006
Hunsdiecker reaction, 943
hydrate formation, 1176
hydration of alkenes, 993
hydrolysis of β-lactones, 473
hydrolysis of C=N compounds, 1177
hydrolysis of enamines, 1178
hydrolysis of γ-lactones, 473
interfacial, phase transfer catalysis, 455
ion-pair and substitution, 400
ion-pair and the Sommelet-Hauser rearrangement, 878
ion pairs and [2,3] sigmatropic rearrangement, 1454
Mechanisms, IUPAC
rules, 384
allylic rearrangement, 421
and ester hydrolysis, 471-472
arenium ion, 675
E1, 1307
E2, 1300
electrophilic addition to alkenes, 970
leaving groups, 445
nomenclature, and ester formation, 485
nucleophilic addition to alkenes, 975
pyrolytic eliminations, 1323
radical substitution, 897
S_E1, 763
S_E2, 760
S_Ei, 760
S_NAr, 851

Mechanisms, IUPAC *(Continued)*
S_NAr, 851
S_Ni, 420
$S_{RN}1$, 855
tetrahedral mechanism, 424
Mechanisms
ketene-imine cycloaddition, 1250
keto-enol tautomerism, catalyzed, 774
ketones and diazonium salts, 780
Kolbe reaction, 942
lead tetraacetate oxidation of alcohols, 919
$LiAlH_4$ reduction of aldehydes and ketones, 1202
Lossen rearrangement, 1413
Mannich reaction, 1190
Meerwein arylation, 930
metal hydride addition-elimination, 772
mixed S_N1–S_N2, 400-402
Neber rearrangement, 1410
Néf reaction, 1178
neighboring-group, 404-407
nonsynchronous, and [3+2]-cycloadditions, 1061
nucleophilic, 275
nucleophilic addition to alkenes, 975-976
nucleophilic rearrangements, 1378-1388
organocuprate conjugate addition, 1030
organolithium reagents and alkyl halides, 807
organolithiums with aldehydes or ketones, 1209
oxidation of alkyl side chains on aromatic rings, 1528
oxidation of aromatic amides with Caro's acid, 1539
oxidation of aromatic diols, 1518
oxidation of hydroquinones, 1511
oxidation of selenoxides to selenones, 1542
oxidation with Fenton's reagent, 917
oxidation-reduction, 277
oxidation-reduction, addition-elimination, 1509
oxidation-reduction, and direct electron transfer, 1508
oxidation-reduction, and ester intermediates, 1508
oxidation-reduction, displacement, 1509
oxidation-reduction, hydride transfer, 1508
oxidation-reduction, hydrogen atom transfer, 1508
oxidative cleavage of alkenes, 1526
oxidative cleavage of diols with lead tetraacetate, 1520-1521
oxidative decarboxylation of carboxylic acids, 1529
ozonolysis of alkenes, 1523-1525
π-allyl complex, 772
Passerini reaction, 1252
pericyclic, 275, 1427
pericyclic and the Prins reaction, 1242
permanganate oxidation of aldehydes, 918
peroxide coupling of thiols to disulfides, 1544
peroxide oxidation of tertiary amines, 1541
photochemical dimerization of ketones, 1560
photochemical Wolff rearrangement, 1406
photochemical [2+2]-cycloadditions, 1082
photolysis of 2,5-cyclohexadienones, 1461
photolysis of pyrazoles, 1353
pinacol rearrangement, 1397
Prévost reaction, 1050
Prins reaction, 1241
pseudo first order, 293
Pummerer rearrangement, 1566
pyrolytic eliminations, 1322–1326
quasi-Favorskii rearrangement, 1405
radical, and oxidative decarboxylation, 1529
radical addition of aldehydes to alkenes, 1034
radical addition to alkenes, 977
radical allylic bromination, 912
radical halogenation of hydrocarbons, 909
radical ring enlargement, 1400
radical, addition of HBr to alkenes, 992
radical, and reduction of nitro compounds, 531
radical, and the Gif systems, 1533
radical, and the Hofmann-Löffler reaction, 1462
radical, in autoxidation of aromatic diols, 1518
radical, Stevens rearrangement, 1420
Ramberg-Bäcklund reaction, 1342
reaction of alkenes and peroxyacids, 1052
reaction of alkenes with hypohalous acids, 1044
reaction of alkenes, CO, and water, 1036
reaction of carboxylate salts with BrCN, 1247
reaction of diazomethane with aldehydes or ketones, 1248
reaction of Grignard reagents with nitriles, 1217
reaction of isonitriles and water, 1251
reaction of nitroso compounds and hydroxylamines, 819
reaction of organometallics and alkenes, 792
reaction with boranes with CO, 1422
rearrangement, 276
rearrangement of aldehydes and ketones, 1401
rearrangement of N-nitro amines, 727
reduction of acyl halides, 532
reduction of aldehydes or ketones with Na/EtOH, 1199
reduction of aromatic nitro compound, 1553
σ-substitution, 702
Sandmeyer reaction, 936

Schiemann reaction, 875
Schmidt reaction, 1414
S_E1, 763-766
S_E1, and carboxylate ion decarboxylation, 733
S_E1, and electrophilic aromatic substitution, 676
S_E1, and electrophilic aromatic substitution, 681
S_E1, and ion pairs, 768
S_E1, H-D exchange in hydrocarbons, 770
S_E2, 759-763
S_E2', 760
S_Ei, 759-763
semi-benzilic mechanism, 1405
Mechanisms, SET, 402-404
and coupling of organometallics with RX, 537
and electrophilic aromatic substitution, 694
and enolate anion alkylations, 550-551
and enolate anions with aryl halides, 870
and formation of Grignard reagents, 806
and sulfur nucleophiles, 495
and the Williamson reaction, 478
Shapiro reaction, 1334
Simmons-Smith reaction, 1088
S_N1, 393-400
S_N1, and aromatic compounds, 853
S_N1, hydrolysis of acetals, 466
S_N1, ion pairing, 397-400
S_N2, 390-393
S_N2, and stereochemistry, 142
S_NAr, 850-853, 857
S_Ni, 420
Sommelet-Hauser rearrangement, 878
$S_{ON}2$, and formation of aryl ethers, 862
$S_{RN}1$, 855-856
Stevens rearrangement, 1419-1420
substitution, 275
sulfite reduction of diazonium salts, 1556
sulfonyloxaziridine oxidation of ketones, 916
sulfur ylids with aldehydes or ketones, 1247
tetrahedral, 424-428
tetrahedral, also see tetrahedral mechanism
tetrahedral, and nucleophilic addition to carbonyls, 1173
transannular rearrangement, 1388
transmetallation, 803
types, 274-275
von Braun reaction, 523
von Richter rearrangement, 877
Wacker process, 1538
Wallach rearrangement, 1465
Willgerodt reaction, 1567
Wittig reaction, 1234
Wittig rearrangement, 1421
Wohl-Ziegler bromination, 912
Wolff rearrangement, 1406
Wolff-Kishner reduction, 1548-1549
[2+2]-cycloadditions, 1078
[3+2]-cycloadditions with allylic anions, 1076
Medium effects, on elimination reactions, 1321
Medium rings, and strain, 185
Medium, and acid-base strength, 349-351
Medium, reaction, see reaction medium
Meerwein arylation, 929-930
Meerwein reaction, 928
Meerwein-Ponndorf-Verley reduction, 1199
and Oppenauer oxidation, 1516
Meinwald rearrangement, 1398
Meisenheimer rearrangement, 1420
Meisenheimer salts, 851
Meisenheimer-Jackson salts, 851
Meldrum's acid, pK_a, 347
MEM, protecting groups, 478
Memory effects, 1386
Menshutkin reaction, 393, 499
and high pressure, 458
Menthyl chloride, E2 elimination, 1302
Mercaptans, see thiols
Merck Index, 1618
Mercuric acetate, reaction with bicyclic amines, 1512
Mercuric chloride, reaction with boronic ester salts, 1424
Mercuric oxide, and hydration of alkynes, 995
Mercuric sulfate, and hydration of alkenes, 995
Mercury fulminate, reaction with aromatic compounds, 723
Mesitoic acid, mechanism of hydrolysis, 472
Mesitylene, reaction with ethyl fluoride and BF_3, 678
Mesitylene, reaction with peroxyacids, 724
Meso compounds, also see diastereomers
Meso compounds, 145
and cis/trans isomers, 161
and E2 elimination, 1301
and erythro/threo nomenclature, 147
Mesoionic compounds, and aromaticity, 69-70
Mesomeric effect, 42
Mesomeric effect, also see resonance
Mesylate, leaving group, 446
Mesylates, di-, elimination reactions, 1340
Mesylates, reaction with carboxylic acid salts, 489
meta-substitution, 681
Metal carbenes, see carbenes
Metal carbenes, and alkene metathesis, 1458
Metal complexes, of cyclobutadiene, 60
Metal halides, and transmetallation, 803

Metal hydride addition-elimination mechanism, 772
Metal hydrides, reaction with alkenes, 1016
Metallation, of alkenes, 791
Metallocenes, 53-54
  and chirality, 135
  and transmetallation, 803
  electron donor-acceptor complexes, 103
  from sodium cyclopentadienylid and metal halides, 1681
Metals
  and elimination of dihalides, 1343
  and reduction of alkenes, 1008
  dissolving metal reduction, alkynes, 1008
  dissolving metal reduction, aromatic compounds, 1009
  reaction with acidic hydrocarbons, 793
  reaction with alkyl halides, 805
  reaction with aryl halides, 805
  reaction with organometallics, 802
Metathesis
  alkene, 1457-1459
  alkene, and ring expansion, 1458
  alkene, substituent effects, 1457
  alkenes, intramolecular, 1458
  with alkynes, 1458
Methane
  and PES, 10-12
  bond angles, 8, 21
  bond energy, 23
  heat of combustion, 22
  hybridization, 8
N-methanesulfinyl-*p*-toluidine, and the Knoevenagel reaction, 1226
Methanesulfonate, leaving group, 446
Methanesulfonyl chloride, reaction with aniline, sulfene intermediate, 575
Methanonium ion, 218, 770
α-Methoxyvinyllithium, 1227
Methoxymethyl cation, 223
Methoxyvinyllithium, in the Knoevenagel reaction, 1227
N-Methyl-N-benzylthiomesitylide, 158
Methyl benzoyl formate, 149
Methyl carbanion, 229, 232
Methyl carbinols, see alcohols, methyl
Methyl esters, from carboxylic acids and diazomethane, 490
Methyl groups, oxidation of, 1533
Methyl hydrocarbons, from ester, 1552
Methyl ketones, see ketones, methyl
Methyl radical, 238, 244
Methyl sulfate, reaction with alkoxides, 478
Methyl transfer, 287
Methyl vinyl ketone, see ketone, methyl vinyl
1-Methyl-2-chloropyridinium iodide, 1327
2-Methylnaphthalene
  electrophilic aromatic substitution, 689
  oxidation of, 1527
2-Methylpiperidine, and Hofmann elimination, 1331
3-Methyl-l,5-hexadiene, 1444
7-Methyl-2-norcamphor, 163
o-methylacetophenone, 1560
Methyl(trifluoromethyl)dioxirane, 1533
Methylamine, base strength, 349
Methylation
  of aryls, 937
  of alcohols,with diazomethane, 479
  of amines with diazomethane, 504
  of carboxylic acids, 489
  of ketones, by the Simmons-Smith reaction, 1089
  of qninoline, 872
Methylcerium dichloride, 1215
Methylcyclohexane, and conformations, 173
Methylene carbene, 248
  from diazomethane, 789
Methylene insertion, 788
3-Methylene-1,4-pentadiene, bonding orbitals,39
Methylene, from diazomethane, 1087
Methylenecyclopropanes, 1077
Methyllithium, 234
  reaction with enol acetates, 554
  reaction with enol borinates, 554
  reaction with silyl enol ethers, 554
Methylpyridinium salts, reaction with phosphines, 501
Methylsulfinyl carbanion
  and reaction of alcohols with CS_2, 1184
  reaction with aromatic nitro compounds, 872
  reaction with esters, 572
  reaction with ester, 572
Mexican bentonite clay, and formation of nitriles, 1195
Meyer-Schuster rearrangement, 423
Meyers synthesis, 558
Micellar catalysis, and alkylation reactions, 477
Michael addition, also see addition, conjugate
Michael addition, also see addition, Michael
Michael addition, 976
  and chiral additives, 1023
  and enolate anions, 1023
Michael reaction, 976, 1022-1024, 1221
  and the Stork enamine reaction, 787
  and Mannich bases, 1023

Michaelis-Arbuzov rearrangement, 1289 (ref. 750)
Microscopic reversibility, 285-286
and *E1cB* elimination, 1310
Microwave spectroscopy, and bond distance, 18
Microwaves
and acetal hydrolysis, 467
and alkylation of amines, 501
and chemical reactivity, 457
and dehydration of oximes, 1348
and ester hydrolysis, 470
and esterification, 484
and formation of enamines, 1186
and formation of Mannich bases, 1191
and formation of nitriles, 1195
and hydrolysis of C=N compounds, 1177
and isocyanate-imine cycloaddition, 1251
and nucleophilic substitution, 457
and oxidation of alcohols, 1515
and preparation of alkyl halides, 518
and reductive alkylation of amine, 1188
and the Baylis-Hillman reaction, 1212
and the Beckmann rearrangement, 1415
and the Diels-Alder reaction, 1065
and the Heck reaction, 931
and the Knoevenagel reaction, 1226
and the Kröhnke reaction, 1536
and the Meerwein-Ponndorf-Verley reduction, 1266 (ref. 294)
on MnO_2, 1572 (ref. 53)
with $NaIO_4$ on silica gel, 1589 (ref. 449)
Migration
in cleavage of aromatic compounds, 731
of an ipso substituent, 687
of phenyl groups, 732
of vinyl groups in radicals, 1391
with borane an hydroperoxide anion, 797
Migratory aptitudes
and electronic effects, 1386
for aryl groups and carbocations, 1386
in nucleophilic rearrangements, 1384-1386
in radical rearrangements, 1389
in the Baeyer-Villiger rearrangement, 1417
in the Beckmann rearrangement, 1415
in the pinacol rearrangement, 1385
in the Wittig rearrangement, 1421
Mills reaction, 818
Mills-Nixon effect, and electrophilic aromatic substitution, 690
MINDO/3 method, 34
Mirror plane, 127-128
Mislow-Evans rearrangement, 1455
Mitsunobu esterification reaction, 486
Mitsunobu esterification, catalysts for, 486
Mitsunobu reaction, and amine formation, 502
Mitsunobu reaction, formation of amides, 513
Mixed anhydrides, 508
Mixed cuprates, see organocuprates
MM2 calculations, 179
MM3 calculations, 179
MMP2 calculations, 179
MNDO method, 34
MO, 4, 32-35
ab initio, and bromonium ions, 973
and ion pairs, 399-400
and regioselectivity in the Diels-Alder reaction, 1064
and small rings, 181
and the frontier orbital method, 1068-1070
and the Möbius-Hückel method, 1070
basis sets, 1070
Hiickel, 34
of benzene, 33-34
of benzene, and electrophilic aromatic substitution, 683
Möbius strip, 136
mechanism, and catenanes, 113
and Diels-Alder reactions, 1071
Möbius systems, 1071
Möbius-Hückel method, 1070, 1431
and electrocyclic rearrangements, 1429
and [1,3]- and [1,5]-H sigmatropic rearrangements, 1439
Molecular knots, 114
and chirality, 136
Molecular mechanics, 178-180
and potential energy, 179
formal steric enthalpy, 190
Molecular mechanism, and conformations, 167
Molecular orbitals, see MO
Molecular recognition, 108
Molecular shuttles, and rotaxanes, 114
Molecularlity
and mechanism, 291
definition, 291
Molecules, electronic structures, 12-13
Molybdenum peroxide reagent, and allylic oxidation, 915
MOM, protecting group, 478
Mono esters, see carboxylic acids, mono ester
Monocyclic compounds, see cyclic compounds
Montmorillonite K10 clay, 457
and acetal hydrolysis, 467
and Friedel-Crafts reactions, 708
and preparation of alkyl halides, 518
and the Beckmann rearrangement, 1415
and the Heck reaction, 931

Montmorillonite K10 clay, 457 *(Continued)*
and the Prins reaction, 1242
and the Willgerodt reaction, 1567
and transesterification, 486
to form P-amino esters, 1191
Morphine, and resolution, 151
Mosher's acid, 142-143
MPTA, see Mosher's acid
Mukaiyama aldol reaction, 1223
Mukaiyama reagent, 1223
and lactonization, 485
and dehydration of carboxylic acids, 1327
Multiple bonds, see bonding, multiple

N_2O_4, see nitrogen dioxide
Nafion-H
and Friedel-Crafts reactions, 708
and hydration of alkynes, 995
Nametkin rearrangement, 1394
Naphthalene
and aromaticity, 49
and Friedel-Crafts, 709
bond order, 49
derivatives, and electrophilic aromatic substitution, 689-690
oxidation of, 1527
resonance energy, 49
sulfonation of, 682
Naphthalenesulfonic acid, 682
Naphtho(*b*)cyclobutene, 1355
2-Naphthoic acid, from 2-methylnaphthalene, 1527
2-Naphthol, excited states, 311
Naphthol, reaction with ammonia, 865
Naphthylamines, from naphthols, 865
Naphthylamines, by the Bucherer reaction, 865
Nazarov cyclization, 1021
NBS
and bromine, 913
and bromolactamization, 1043
and radical bromination, 911
and Wohl-Ziegler bromination, 911
bromination of aldehydes, 914
halogenation of enol borinates, 777
reaction with ammonia and aldehydes, 925
reaction with carboxylic acids, 778
reaction with sulfones, 778
NCS
and TEMPO, oxidation of alcohols, 1515
reaction with amines, 500
reaction with carboxylic acids, 778
reaction with sulfones, 778
Neber rearrangement, 288, 1410
Nef reaction, 1178, 1225
Negative enhancement, and radicals, in NMR, 240
Neighboring group effects
and electrophilic aromatic substitution, 412
and radical substitution, 899
and solvolysis, 410
cyclobutylmethyl, 417
cyclopropyl rings, 410
cyclopropylmethyl, 418
hydrogen, 419
in rearrangements, 1381
in the Prins reaction, 1241
migration of amino groups, 1409
norbornyl compound, 414
norbornylmethyl, 418
of cyclopropylmethyl, 416
phenonium ion, 411, 4113
silylalkyl, 419
with aromatic rings, 411
Neighboring group participation, 407-420
Neighboring-group mechanisms, 404-407
Neomenthyl chloride, E2 elimination, 1302
Neopentane
bond energy, 23
reaction with super acids, 815
Neopentyl bromide, solvolysis, 1379
Neopentyl carbocations, 1379
Neopentyl tosylate, solvolysis, 418
Neopentyllithium, 234
Neophyl carbocations, 1379
Newman projection, definition, 168
Nickel, also see Raney nickel
Nickel bis-cyclooctadiene, 1091
Nickel carbonyl, see nickel tetracarbonyl
Nickel peroxide, oxidation of ortho-diamine, 1527
Nickel tetracarbonyl
coupling allylic halides, 541
coupling allylic tosylates, 543
reaction with alcohols and alkyl halides, 564
reaction with organomercury halides, 800
reaction with RLi and conjugated compounds, 1033
Nickel, catalyst for hydrogenation, 1003
Nitramine nitrates, from aziridines and azetidines, 494
Nitrate, silver, see silver nitrate
Nitration
and ipso attack, 686
of aromatic compounds, 697
of aromatic compounds, and the nitronium ion, 697
of aromatic compounds, reagents for, 697
of aromatic rings, and arenium ions, 679

of heterocycles, 697
of hydrocarbons, 924
Nitrenes, 253-254
abstraction reactions, 254
addition reactions, 254
amino-, addition to alkynes, 1057
and *ab initio* studies, 253
and azobenzene, 254
and formation of aziridines, 1057
and nitrenium ions, 254
and nucleophilic rearrangements, 1378
carbonyl, insertion reactions, 782
definition of, 253
dimerization reactions, 254
from azides, 253, 783
formation during elimination, 253
insertion reactions, 253-254, 782
intermediates in the Curtius rearrangement, 1412
intermediates in the Hofmann rearrangement, 1411
intermediates in the Lossen rearrangement, 1413
rearrangement reactions, 254
single and triplet states, 253
Nitrenium ions, 254
Nitric acid esters, hydrolysis, 465
Nitric acid
ionization to nitronium ion, 698
oxidation of amines, 697
oxidation of thiols, 1540
reaction with aromatic compounds, 696
reaction with hydrocarbons, 924
Nitrile esters, from substitution with nitrite, 459
Nitrile imines, as 1,3-dipoles, 1060
Nitrile oxides
as 1,3-dipoles, 1060
rearrangement to isocyanates, 1465
reduction of, 1557
Nitrile ylids, as 1,3-dipoles, 1060
Nitriles
and Stephen reduction, 1204
and the Blaise reaction, 1213
and the Pinner synthesis, 1183
and the Sonn-Müller method, 1204
aryl, by the Rosenmund-von Braun reaction, 867
aryl, by the Sandmeyer reaction, 936
aryl, from aromatic compounds, 722-723
aryl, from aryl halides, 867
aryl, from arylthallium compounds, 802
aryl, hydrolysis of, 876
aryl, oxidative cleavage, 1530
aryl, reagents for formation of, 867
by Michael addition, 1681
by pyrolysis of dichloroamines, 1348
by the Rosenmund-von Braun reaction, 1681
by the Sandmeyer reaction, 1681
by the von Braun reaction, 1350
decyanation, 815
dialkylamino, oxidation of, 1531
dissolving metal reduction, 815
enolate anions, reaction with esters, 572
Nitriles
from α-cyano acids, 1681
from acid salts and BrCN, 1682
from acrylonitrile, 1681
from acyl peroxides, 1681
from aldehydes, 1195, 1681
from alkenes, 1038, 1681
from alkyl halides, 561-562, 1681
from alkylation of nitriles, 1681
from amides, 1350, 1682
from amines, 1518, 1682
from aromatic acyl cyanides, 1681
from aromatic rings, 1681
from aryl halides, 1681
from aryl nitro compounds, 1681
from benzylic compounds, 1681
from boranes, 1681
from carboxylate salts, 1246
from carboxylic acids, 1682
from diazo nitriles, 1681
from diazonium salts, 1681
from dimethylhydrazones, 1519
from esters, 1195, 1681
from formic acid, 1195
from gem-dinitriles, 528
from halo nitriles, 1681
from hydrazones, 1241, 1682
from hydrazonium salts, 1348
from hydroxylamine, 1195
from isonitriles, 1421
from keto oximes, 1349
from ketones, 1681
from mercury hydrides, 1681
from nitrile oxides, 1557, 1682
from nitriles, 1681
from nitro compounds, 1681, 1682
from organometallic compounds, 1681
from oxime tosylates, 1349
from oximes, 1348, 1682
from rearrangement of isocyanides, 1682
from substitution with cyanide, 459
from sulfonyl hydrazones, 1682
from tin hydrides, 1681
from tosylmethylisocyanide, 1681

Nitriles (*Continued*)
from unsaturated nitriles, 1681
hydrogenolysis of, 528
hydrolysis of, 1179
Nitriles
reaction with alcohols, 1183, 1244
reaction with alkenes, 1245
reaction with amines, 1192
reaction with ammonia, 1191
reaction with aromatic compounds, 722
reaction with Grignard reagents, 1217
reaction with nitriles, 1238, 1241
reaction with sodium, 815
reduction to aldehydes, 1204
reduction with $LiAlH_4$, 1204
reduction with limonene and Pd-C, 1556
reduction, reagents for, 1204
trimerization of, 1246
Nitrilium ions, alkyl, reduction of, 1204
Nitrite ion, as an ambident nucleophile, 459
Nitrite, sodium
reaction with alkenes and acetic acid, 1339
reaction with alkyl halides, 515
reaction with aryl diazonium salts, 936
Nitrites, and electrophilic aromatic substitution, 705
N-nitroamines, rearrangement of, 727
Nitro anions
alkylation, 459
ambident nucleophiles, 459
as an ambident nucleophile, 459
Nitro compounds
aci form, 76
and tautomerism, 76
and the Nef reaction, 1178
aromatic, reaction with cyanide, 876
aromatic, reaction with Na_3AsO_3, 1563
aromatic, reaction with sulfur ylids, 872
aromatic, reduction of, 1554
aromatic, reduction with $LiAlH_4$, 1563
aromatic, reduction with Zn/H_2O, 1554
aryl, from aryl diazonium salts, 936
azinic acids, 76
by Michael addition, 1682
Nitro compounds
from α-nitro acids, 1682
from aldehydes, 1682
from alkanes, 1682
from alkenes, 1682
from alkyl halides, 515, 1682
from amides, 1682
from amines, 1539, 1682
from aromatic compounds, 696, 1682
from aromatic nitro compounds, 1682
from azides, 1682
from diazonium salts, 1682
from hydrocarbons, 924
from isocyanates, 1540, 1682
from ketones, 1682
from nitro compounds, 1682
from nitroalkenes, 1682
from nitroso compounds, 1682
from organometallic reagents, 1682
from oximes, 1539, 1682
from pyrylium salts, 1682
from rearrangement of N-nitro aromatic amines, 1682
from substitution with nitrite, 459
from unsaturated nitro compounds, 1682
Nitro compounds
halo, from alkenes, 1046
hydrogenolysis of, 531
hydrolysis of, 1178
nitronic acids, 76
oxidation of, 1537
reaction with cyanide and $K_3Fe(CN)_6$, 786
reaction with enolate anions, 550
reduction of, 1552, 1558
reduction with Al(Hg), 1552
reduction with Bakers yeast, 1553
reduction with borane, 1554
reduction with Sm, 1552
reduction with Zn/HCl, 1552
reduction with Zn/NaOH, 1564
reduction, reagents for, 531
p-Nitrobenzenesulfonate, leaving group, 446
Nitro, as a leaving group, 550
Nitroacetic acid, 342
Nitroanilines,
base strength, 344
pK_a, 344
Nitrobenzamides, hydrolysis of, 428
Nitrobenzene
dipole moment, 16
from bromobenzene, 699
Nitrogen dioxide, and amide hydrolysis, 475
Nitrogen pentoxide, dissociation to nitronium ion, 698
Nitrogen ylids, see ylids
Nitrogen
bonding, 11
PES spectrum, 10–11
reaction with organolithium reagents, 800
Nitromethane, pK_a, 230
Nitronaphthalenes, 873
Nitrones

as 1,3-dipoles, 1060
from alkylation of oximes, 1682
Nitronic acids, see nitro compounds
Nitronic esters, by substitution with nitro anions, 460
Nitronium ion
and electrophilic aromatic substitution, 680
and nitration of aromatic compounds, 697
from N_2O_5, 698
from nitric acid, 698
kinetics, 698
spectroscopy of, 698
Nitrosation
of alcohols, and the Barton reaction, 1463
of enolate anions, 780
of enols, 779
of rings, 699
Nitroso amines, from Fischer-Hepp rearrangement, 728
Nitroso compounds
and the Barton reaction, 1463
as spin traps, 239
by Fischer-Hepp rearrangement, 1683
by the Barton reaction, 1683
elimination reactions, 1352
from alkenes, 1683
from amides, 1683
from amines, 817, 1683
from aromatic acids, 1683
from aromatic amines, 699
from aromatic compounds, 1683
from arylamines, 1539
from hydroxylamines, 1683
from nitrites, 1683
from rearrangement of N-nitroso aromatic amines, 1683
halo, from alkenes, 1045
reaction with aryl amines, 818
reaction with hydroxylamines, 819
reaction with phosphorus ylids, 1237
reduction with Zn/HCl, 1554
N-Nitrosoamines
rearrangement of, 728
from amines, 818
Nitroso-oxime tautomerism, 76
Nitroso-oxime tautomerism, also see tautomerism
Nitrosodisulfonate, dipotassium, see Freny's salt
Nitrosyl chloride
and amide hydrolysis, 475
reaction with alkenes, 1045
reaction with amines, 818
p-Nitrotoluene, dipole moment, 16
Nitrous acid
and amide hydrolysis, 475
and elimination of aziridines, 1343
and semipinacol rearrangement, 1397
formation of aryl nitroso compounds, 699
reaction with acylhydrazides, 1412
reaction with amines, 816, 1398
reaction with amino alcohols, 1397
reaction with aromatic amines, 699
reaction with hydrazines, 817
reaction with hydroxy amines, 1399
reaction with secondary amines, 817
Nitrous oxide, as a 1,3-dipole, 1060
Nitroxyl radicals, and oxidation of alcohols, 1515
Nitryl chloride, reaction with alkenes, 1046
NMR
and antiaromaticity, 67-68
and arenium ions, 413
and aromaticity, 46-47
and Birch reduction intermediates, 1011
and bond rotation, 295
and carbocations, 219, 225, 710
and cation rearrangement, 419
and chiral shift reagents, 156
and chiral solvents, 156
and CIDNP, 240-241
and cyclobutadiene derivatives, 60
and cyclooctatetraene, 62
and cyclopropylmethyl cations, 418
and degenerate Cope rearrangement, 1447
and electrocyclic rearrangements, 1435
and electronegativity, 15
and emission, 240
and enol content, 75
and Grignard reagents, 235-236
and hydride shifts in carbocations, 1379
and hydrogen bonding, 100
and intermediates in the Chichibabin reaction, 873
and isochronous atoms, 165
and isotope effects, 298
and kinetics, 295
and Mosher's derivatives, 142-143
and negative enhancement, 240
and norbornyl cations, 415, 416
and optical purity, 155-156
and organocuprate conjugate additions, 1030
and organometallic compounds, 234
and S_NAr intermediates, 851
and spin traps, 239
and strain, 181
and super-aromaticity, 66
and the Fischer indole synthesis, 1453
and the Hammett equation, 369

NMR *(Continued)*
and the Wittig reaction, 1234
and [10]annulene, 63
and [18]annulene, **65**
heptalene, **54–55**
of **benzenonium** ion, 678
of bullvalene, 1448
of **kekulene,** 66
of **tropylium** ion, 70
paramagnetic ring **current,** 67
paratropic behavior, 68
NOCl, see nitrosyl chloride
Nomenclature
α/β, for steroids, 146
and cis/trans isomers, 157
and excited states, **310–311**
c and r, 161
E/Z, 157
erythro/threo, 146-147
for diastereomers, 146
IUPAC for mechanisms, 384
IUPAC for transformations, 382
pro-R and *prv-S,* 165
re/si, 166
syn/anti, 147
Non-enolizable ketones, see ketones
Nonacycloeicosanes, 183
Nonafluorobutanesulfonate, leaving group, 446
Nonalternant hydrocarbons, see hydrocarbons, **nonalternant**
Nonclassical carbocations, 1387
Nonclassical ions, 407-420
and anchimeric assistance, 409
and norbornyl compounds, 415
and stereochemistry, 409
arguments against, 415
Norborene, 188
Norbornadiene, 320, 1083
Norbornadienone, electron donor-acceptor complexes, 103
Norbornane
and conformation, 172
radical addition of thiols, **1390**
Norbornenes, 1395
2-Norborneol, 162
Norbornyl bromide, and E2 elimination, **1303**
Norbornyl cations, 408, 415, 1394
ab initio calculations, **415**
and NMR, 415, 416
as nonclassical ions, 414—415
Norbornyl compounds
and nonclassical ions, 415
and the **S_N1 reaction,** 396
neighboring group effects, 414
solvolysis, 414
Norbornylmethyl, neighboring group effects, **418**
Norcaradiene, 1087
ring expansion, 1427
Normant reagents, 1026
Norrish Type I cleavage, 318-319, 1354
Norrish **Type II** cleavage, 318-319, 1299
Nortricyclane, 415
Nosylate, leaving group, 446
Nuclear magnetic resonance spectroscopy, see NMR
Nucleofuge, 385
and elimination reactions, **1319**
definition, 275, 389
Nucleofuges, and solvent ionizing power, 452
Nucleophile
definition, 389, 438
effect on substitution, 438-445
Nucleophiles
ambident, 458-461
ambident, cyanide, 459, 562
ambident, enolate anions, 458
ambident, nitrite, 459
ambident, nitro anions, 459
ambident, phenoxide, 459
ambident, types, 458-459
amide bases, 500
and mechanism, 275
and norbornyl cations, 1395
and nucleophilic aromatic substitution, 861
and steric hindrance, 444
carbon, coupling reactions, 534
effect of counterion, 460
order of strength, 443
sulfur, and SET mechanism, 495
Nucleophilic addition
to alkenes, 975-977
to carbonyls, *ab initio* study, **1173**
Nucleophilic catalysis, **and** hydrolysis of anhydrides, 469
Nucleophilic catalyst, pyridine, 576
Nucleophilic radicals, 903
Nucleophilic rearrangements, see rearrangements
Nucleophilic rearrangements, long range, 1387-1388
Nucleophilic strength, 439
and HSAB theory, 443
and solvation, 443
and solvent effects, 461
and steric hindrance, 444
and the alpha **effect,** 445
and the Swain-Scott equation, 444

at sulfonyl sulfur, 575
nucleophilicity, 444
of common reagents, 444
Nucleophilic, mechanism, 275
Nucleophilicity, 444

Octabisvalene, 183
Octaphenyldibenzo[*a,c*]napthacene, 44
1,3,5,7-Octatetraene, 1433
Octet **rnle,** 12
Octopus molecule, **107**
2-Octyl iodide, reaction with radiolabeled iodide, 392
2-Octyl brosylate, 398-400
13(18)-oleanene, 1395
Olefin metathesis, see metathesis, **alkene**
Olefin, see alkene
Olefination, also see alkenylation
Olefination
Peterson, 1228
Wittig, **1231–1237**
Onium salts
alkylation with, 482
reaction with alcohols, 482
reaction with carboxylic acid salts, 489
Oppenauer oxidation, **1516**
Optical activity, 125-139
and adamantanes, 131
and allenes, **133–134**
and amines, 129-130
and **atropisomers, 132**
and biphenyls, 131-132
and Grignard reagents, 762
and helicenes, 134-135
and **metallocenes, 135**
and molecular knots, **136**
and paracyclophanes, **135–136**
and spiranes, **134**
and symmetry, 127-128
and **Tröger's** base, **130**
causes of, 143-144
definition, 125
in substituted cyclohexanes, 175
Optical antipodes, **125**
Optical inactivity, definition, 125
Optical purity, **155–156**
and NMR, 155-156
Optical rotation, 126-127
Optical rotatory dispersion, and enantiomeric composition, 143
Optically active compounds, categories, 128-136
Orbital overlap, in [2+2]-cycloadditions, 1079
Orbital symmetry
and cyclopropyl rearrangements, 1400
and the **Ramberg-Bäcklund** reaction, **1342**
and [1,3]- and [1,5]-alkyl sigmatropic rearrangements, 1441
conservation of, 1068
conservation, and electrocyclic rearrangements, 1434
rnles, and [1,5]-H sigmatropic rearrangements, 1438
Orbitals, 3
and hyperconjugation, **71–72**
antibonding, 4
atomic, 4
bonding, 4
bonding, allylic system, 38
gerade, 5
highest occupied, see HOMO
hybrid, 6
LCAO model, 5
lowest unoccupied, see LUMO
molecular, see MO
nonbonding, 37
overlap in **Diels-Alder** reactions, 1074
overlap, cyclopropane, **181**
π, 8
π, butadiene, 36
pπ-dπ, 45
sigma (a), 4
sp, 6
sp^2, 8
sp^3, 8
stabilization of carbanions, **231**
ungerade, 5
Organic Syntheses, 1626
Organoaluminates, lithium dimerization, 940
Organoaluminum reagents
and Ziegler catalysts, **1020**
coupling with **alkyl** halides, 541
Organobarium reagents, reaction with epoxides, 547
Organoboranes, addition to aldehydes and ketones, 1210
Organocadmium reagents
preparation of, 566
reaction with **acyl** halides, 566
Organocalcium compounds
and reactions with alcohols, 544
mechanism of reaction, 237
Organocerium reagents,
reaction with aldehydes or ketones, 1205
reaction with amides, 1215
reaction with hydrazones, 1216

Organocopper compounds, reaction with haloalkenes, 423
Organocopper reagents, and the Ullman reaction, 871
Organocuprates
and acyloxylation of conjugated compounds, 1033
and S_N2' reactions, 423
and the S_N2 mechanism, 539-540
and the S_N2' mechanism, 540
and transmetallation, 803
conjugate addition, 1027
coupling reactions, 538, 939
coupling with alkyl halides, 538-540
Gilman reagents, 539
higher order, 539
higher order, by transmetallation, 804
lithium coupling reactions, 538
magnesium, coupling reactions, 538
mixed, 539
mixed, reaction with acyl halides, 566
reaction with acyl halides, 566
reaction with aldehydes, 1205
reaction with allylic acetates, 545
reaction with allylic esters, 545
reaction with amines, 800
reaction with aryl halides, 539, 868
reaction with conjugated aldehydes, 1027
reaction with conjugated esters, 1027
reaction with conjugated ketones, 1027
reaction with conjugated sulfones, 1028
reaction with dibromoketones, 539
reaction with dithiocarboxylic acids, 1215
reaction with epoxides, 547
reaction with propargyl acetates, 545
reaction with sulfonate esters, 543
Organoindium reagents, allylic, reaction with imines, 1216
Organolithium reagents
and aggregates, 236
and conjugate addition, 1029
and coupling of alcohols, 544
and coupling of sulfones, 544
and enolization, 1209
and reduction, 1209
and sparteine as a chiral additive, 1215
and the Wurtz reaction, 806
and transmetallation, 803
butyllithium, 236
t-butyllithium, 234, 237
coupling with alkyl halides, 537
coupling with alkyl halides, and ESR, 538
ethyllithium, 240
from alkyl halides, 806
from aryl halides, 806
from thioethers, 941
isopropyllithium, 236
methyllithium, 234
neopentyllithium, 234
ortho-lithiation, 792
Pd and elimination of sulfones, 1336
phenyllithium, 236
Organolithium reagents
reaction with $(ArCH{=}N)_2SO_2$, 1216
reaction with aldehydes or ketones, 1205-1209
reaction with alkenes, 791, 792, 1025
reaction with alkyl halides, 807
reaction with alkyl halides, and CIDNP, 808
reaction with allylic ethers, 558
reaction with amides, 568
reaction with amines, 500
reaction with ammonium salts, 792, 1332
reaction with aromatic compounds, 791, 872
reaction with azides, 799
reaction with benzothiazoles, 1029
reaction with boronic esters, 1424
reaction with carboxylic acids, 568, 1213
reaction with $CeCl_3$, 1215
reaction with CO, 801
reaction with CO_2, 801
reaction with conjugated compounds and $Ni(CO)_4$, 1033
reaction with epoxides, 546, 1329
reaction with esters, 567
reaction with ethers, 1328, 1421
reaction with formamides, 801
reaction with halo nitriles, 1217
reaction with heterocycles, 871
reaction with hydroxylamines, 799
reaction with iron pentacarbonyl, 801
reaction with isonitriles, 1252
reaction with ketones and CO, 1207
reaction with nitrogen, 800
reaction with oxazine iminium salts, 559
reaction with oxazines, 558, 559
reaction with oxetanes, 546
reaction with oximes, 1216
reaction with oxygen, 795
reaction with phosphonium salts, 793, 1231
reaction with pyridine, 871
reaction with thionolactones, 1215
reaction with tosyl azide, 799
reaction with tosylhydrazones, 1334
Organolithium reagents
regioselectivity, 792
structure, 2326

vinyllithium, 233, 236
Organomagnesium compounds, also see Grignard reagents
Organomagnesium compounds, from organomercury, 228
Organomanganese reagents, 1208
Organomercury bromides, rate of reaction with bromine, 768
Organomercury compounds
and the S_E2 reaction, 761–762
reaction with organomagnesium, 228
Organomercury halides, reaction with dicobalt octacarbonyl, 800
Organometallic compounds, also see boranes
Organometallic compounds, also see carbanions
Organometallic compounds, also see Grignard reagents
Organometallic compounds, also see organocuprates
Organometallic compounds, also see organolithium reagents
Organometallic compounds
addition to C=N compounds, 1216
and NMR, 234
definition of, 227
from alkenes, 791, 1016, 1683
from alkyl halides, 805, 1683
from aryl halides, 736, 805, 1683
from carboxylic acid salts, 1683
from halides, 1683
from hydrocarbons, 793
from metallation with metals, 1683
from metallation with organometallic compounds, 1683
from metallation with strong bases, 1683
from organocopper compounds, 1683
from organometallic compounds, 802, 1683
from rearrangement of Grignard reagents, 1683
from sulfides, 1683
hydrolysis of, 794
reaction with acids, 736, 784
reaction with alkyl halides, 807
reaction with azides, 799
reaction with aziridines, 548
reaction with hydroxylamines, 799
reaction with iodine, 798
reaction with oxygen, 795
reaction with peroxides, 796
structure of, 234-237
transmetallation, 803, 804
Organosamarium compounds, allylic, reaction with imines, 1216
Organostannanes, see organotin
Organotin reagents, 1210
allylic, reaction with imines, 1216
reaction with alkyl halides, CO and Pd catalyst, 801
vinyl, reaction with isocyanates, 1218
vinyltin and the Stille reaction, 931
Organotitanium reagents, 1208
Organozinc reagents, 1210
Organozirconium complex, reaction with alkenes, 1026
Organozirconium reagents, 1208
Organozirconium reagents, and Schwartz's reagent, 1020
Ortho effect, 688
and reaction rate, 375
Ortho esters
from addition of alcohols to formic acid, 1683
from reaction of alkoxides with 1,1,1-trihalides, 1683
from transetherification, 1683
from trihalides and alkoxides, 477
reaction with Grignard reagents, 545
transetherification, 480
by the Williamson ether synthesis, 1683
ortho- Substitution, 681
Ortho/para ratio
and electrophilic aromatic substitution, 685
Fries rearrangement, 726
in the Orton rearrangement, 729
ortho effect, 688
rate of reaction, 690
with multiple substituents, 687
Orthoformates, reaction with sulfonic acids, 576
Orton rearrangement, 728-729
photochemical, 729
Osazones, from hydroxy aldehydes or ketones and hydrazines, 1193
Osmium tetroxide
and reaction of alkenes with Chloramine-T, 1056
reaction with alkenes, 1049
with Jones reagent, and oxidative cleavage, 1526
Out-in isomers and out-out isomers, 163
Oxa-di-π- methane rearrangements, 1461
Oxacyclooctane, conformation, 178
Oxalyl chloride
reaction with amides, 515
reaction with carboxylic acids, 523
with DMSO for oxidation of alcohols, 1516
Oxaphosphetanes, and the Wittig reaction, 1234

Oxazine anions, reaction with alkyl halides, 558-559
Oxazine iminium salts
alkylation of, 559
reaction with Grignard reagents, 559
Oxazines
and the Meyers synthesis, 558
conversion to aldehydes, 558
conversion to ketones, 559
reaction with organolithium reagents, 558
Oxazoborolidines, and asymmetric reduction of aldehydes or ketones, 1201
Oxazolines
aryl, reaction with Grignard reagents, 868
reaction with organolithium reagents, 559
Oxepin, and Cope rearrangement, 1448
Oxetane, conformation, 177
Oxetanes
and the Prins reaction, 1241
by the Paterno-Büchi reaction, 1249
from reaction of alkenes with aldehydes or ketones, 1249
of alkanes, by the Gif system, 1533
reaction with amines, 505
reaction with organolithium reagents, 546
reaction with trimethylsilyl cyanide, 506
spirocyclic, by the Paterno-Biichi reaction, 1249
Oxidation
allylic, 915
asymmetric, with bacterial monooxygenases, 1590 (ref. 457)
definition, 1506
enzymatic, 1517
Lavoisier's definition, 1506
of alkenes with $KMnO_4$, 290
of alkenes, reaction for, 914
of amines by nitric acid, 697
of aromatic aldehydes or ketones, 1528
of aromatic amines, 724
of boranes, 1014
of hydrocarbons, by the Gif system, 1533
of phenols, 724
polymer supported, 1515
remote, 1513
Oxidation-reduction mechanisms
addition-elimination, 1509
and direct electron transfer, 1508
and ester intermediate, 1508
displacement, 1509
hydride transfer, 1508
hydrogen atom transfer, 1508
SET, 1508
Oxidation state, and functional groups, 1507
Oxidative cleavage, see cleavage
Oxime esters, and the Beckmann rearrangement, 1415
Oxime tosylates
and the Neber rearrangement, 1410
fragmentation to nitriles, 1349
rearrangement with base, 1410
Oximes
and high pressure, 1194
by the Barton reaction, 1684
catalytic hydrogenation, 1554
conversion to gem-difluoridea, 1197
dehydration, 1348
formation and pH, 1194
from α-nitro alkenes, 1558
from alcohols, 1684
from aldehydes, 1194, 1684
from alkenes, 1684
from amines, 1684
from cyclic ketones, 1684
from Grignard reagents, 1684
from hydroxylamine, 1684
from ketones, 1194, 1684
from nitrites, 1684
from nitro compounds, 1558, 1684
from oximes, 938
hydrolysis of, 938, 1177, 1463
oxidation of, 1539
reaction with alkyl halides, 494
reaction with anhydrides, 1348
reaction with aryl diazonium salts, 938
reaction with HCN, 1240
reaction with organolithium reagents, 1216
reaction with Oxone, 1540
reaction with PCl_5, 1349, 1415
reaction with peroxyacids, 1539
reduction of, 1203, 1554
reduction with Bakers yeast, 1554
reduction with Dibal, 1555
reduction with $LiAlH_4$, 1554-1555
ω-Oximinocarboxylic ester, from cyclic ketones, 1522
Oximinoketones, from ketones, 780
Oxiranes, see epoxides
Oxirenes, trapping in argon, 1054
Oxoammonium salts, and oxidation of alcohols, 1515
Oxone
and hydrolysis of nitriles, 1179
reaction with aldehydes, 917
reaction with amines, 1539
reaction with oximes, 1540
Oxonin, and aromaticity, 63

Oxonium salts
from alkyl halides, 492
from ethers, 492
from ketones, 492
from oxonium salts, 492
reaction with ethers, 492
Oxy-Cope rearrangement, 1445, 1452
Oxygen
and coupling of organocuprates, 939
photosensitization, 921
radiolabeled, solvolysis, 398
reaction with dienes, 1054
reaction with Grignard reagents, 795
reaction with organolithium reagents, 795
reaction with organometallic compounds, 795
reaction with phenanthrene, 1054
reaction with terpinene, 1055
singlet, see singlet oxygen
valence electrons, 12–13
Oxygenation, radical, of alkenes, 914
Oxymercuration, of alkenes, 993
Ozone, see ozonolysis
as a 1,3-dipole, 1060
oxidation of alkynes, 1540
reaction with alkenes, 914, 1522-1525
reaction with alkynes, 1523
reaction with amines, 1539
Ozonides, 1522
Ozonolysis, 1532
and bisperoxide intermediates, 1523
and dioxirane, 1525
and labeling experiments, 1525
and stereochemistry of alkenes, 1524
of alkynes, 1523
of benzene, 1523
oxidation of ozonides, 1522
reduction of ozonide, 1522
substituent effects, 1522

p Character, and strain, 181
π-Allyl complex mechanism, 772
rc-Bond, and carbanion stability, 232
Pagodane, 183
Palladium catalysts
and addition of amines to alkenes, 1001
and all carbon [3+2]-cycloadditions, 1076
and carbonylation of halides, 464
and coupling reactions, 540
and diamination of alkenes, 1057
and diamine formation, 502
and formation of thioethers, 496
and preparation of sulfones, 498
and reaction of aryl triflates and zinc cyanide, 724
and reaction of organotin, CO, alkyl halides, 801
and rearrangement of epoxy ketones, 1398
and σ- bond rearrangements, 1460
and Suzuki coupling, 868
and the Heck reaction, 930
and the Hurtley reaction, 869
and the Stille reaction, 932
for alkylation of amines, 500
for coupling allylic acetates with acids, 944
for hydrogenation, 1003
for isomerization of alkynes to dienes, 773
for the Cope rearrangement, 1446
Palladium chloride, and oxidation of alkenes with water, 1537-1538
Palladium compounds, and enolate anions, 551
Palladium
and dehydrogenation of amines, 1519
elimination from allylic acetates, 1330
Pancreatic porcine lipase, formation of lactams, 508
para-Claisen rearrangement, 1449
para-Substitution, 681
Paracyclophanes
and NMR, 47
and optical activity, 135–136
and ring current, 47
structural distortion, 43-44
by acyloin condensation, 1562
Paraformaldehyde, 1245
Paramagnetic ring current, and antiaromaticity, 67
Paratropic, NMR and antiaromaticity, 68
Partial bond fixation, 49
Partial rate factors
and aryl radicals, 905
and electrophilic aromatic substitution, 685, 690
Partition factor, 677
Partitioning effect, 677
and the S_NAr reaction, 852
Passerini reaction, 1252
Pasteur tweezer method, and resolution, 153
Patents, 1607
Paterno-Büchi reaction, 1249
diastereoselectivity, 1250
photosensitization, 1250
Pauli exclusion principle, 3
Pauli principle, and radicals, 238
Pauling electronegativity, 14
Pauson-Khand reaction, 1091
Payne rearrangement, 481
Pentacyclododecanes, 183
Pentacyclohexadeca-l,7-dienes, 188

Pentacyclooctanes, 183
Pentacyclo[3.3.2.0^{2,4}.0^{3,7}.0^{6,8}]decane, 1459
1,4-Pentadiene, resonance energy, 37
***cis*-1,3-Pentadiene,** resonance energy, 37
Pentahaloethanes, and **E1cB** elimination, 1309
Pentalene
  and **aromaticity,** 54
  derivatives, 55
  dianion, and aromaticity, 5
Pentamethylbenzenonium ion, 678
Pentamethylhexane, formal steric enthalpy, **190**
Pentane, bond energy, 23
2,4-Pentanedione, and hydrogen bonding, 99-100
1,3-Pentanedione, pK_a, 347
3-Pentanone, reaction with ethyl diazoacetate, 1408
Pentaprismane, 183
***t*-Pentyl** cation, 1380
Peptide synthesis, and **DCC,** 509
Peptide synthesizers, 510
Peracyclene, 69
9-Perchlorofluorenespirocyclohexa-2′,5′-diene, 44
Pericyclic, mechanism, 275
Periodate, sodium, on silica gel with microwaves, 1589 (ref. 449)
Periodic acid
  and **$KMnO_4$** in oxidative cleavage, 1526
  and oxidative cleavage of **diols,** 1520
Periodic table
  and acid strength, 345
  and Lewis acids, 345
  and nucleophilic strength, 439
Periodinane, and oxidation of alcohols, 1516
Peristylanes, 183
Perkin reaction, 1219, **1229**
Permanganate potassium
  and oxidation of alcohols, **1515**
  and oxidation of sulfoxides, 1541
  oxidation of **alkyl** groups on aromatic compounds, 1527
  oxidative cleave with crown ethers, 1526
  reaction with aldehydes, **918**
  reaction with alkenes, 290, 1049
  reaction with amines, 1539
Peroxide, hydrogen, reaction with alkenes, 1049
Peroxides, also see hydroperoxides
Peroxides, also see peroxyacids
Peroxides
  acyl, reaction with aromatic compounds, 932
  acyl, reaction with Grignard reagents, 796
  and addition of HBr to alkenes, 992
  and extrusion of **CO_2,** 1354
  and NBS **bromination,** 911
  and the Prins reaction, **1242**
  and the Story synthesis, 1355
  diacyl, preparation of, 492
  dialkyl, from hydroperoxides, 492
  from dienes, 1054
  from hydrocarbons, 922
  from ozonides, 1523
  hydro, see hydroperoxides
  reaction with Grignard reagents, 796
  reaction with organometallic compounds, 796
  reduction of, 1558
  silyl, reaction with **vinyllithium** reagents, 796
  thermal cleavage, 245
Peroxyacids
  and the **Baeyer-Villiger** rearrangement, 1417
  and the **Tamao-Fleming** oxidation, 482
  from anhydrides, 492
  from carboxylic acids, 1542
  from oxidation of carboxylic acids, **1684**
  oxidation of boranes, 1016
  reaction with alkenes, 1051-1052
  reaction with amines, 1541
  reaction with aromatic compounds, 724
  reaction with ketones, 1417
  reaction with oximes, 1539
Peroxyesters, reaction with hydrocarbons, 922-923
Perpendicular disymmetric planes, see chiral axes
PES, see photoelectron spectroscopy
Petasis alkenylation, 1237-1238
Petasis reagent, 1238
Peterson alkenylation reaction, 1228
Peterson reaction, **1219**
PH, and **H_o,** 335
Phase transfer catalysis, 454—456
  interfacial **mechanism,** 455
  biphase catalysts, 456
Phase transfer catalysts
  alkylation with carboxylic acid salts, 488
  ammonium salts, 454-455
  and **transesterification,** 487
  crown ethers, 455
  cryptands, 455
  phosphonium salts, 454
  podands, 456
Phase transfer
  and alkylation of amines, 501
  and azide formation, **515**
  and carbene reactions with alkenes, 1085
  and cleavage of ethers with HBr, 520
  and dehydration of amides, 1350
  and diazo transfer reactions, **781**
  and enolate **anion** alkylation, 548

and ester hydrolysis, 470
and oxidation of amines to imines, 1536
and oxidation of nitro compounds, 1537
and permanganate oxidation of alcohols, 1515
and reactions of alkyl halides and cyanide, 562
and the Darzens glycidic ester condensation, 1230
and the Gomberg reaction, 928
Phenacenes, and aromaticity, 67
Phenalene, and aromaticity, 50
Phenanthrenes
and aromaticity, 49
reaction with oxygen, 1054
resonance energy, 49
from photocyclization of stilbenes, 1436
Phenol anions, see phenoxides
Phenol, reaction with dimethyl sulfide, 722
Phenol-dienone rearrangement, 1402
Phenol-keto tautomerism, 75-76
Phenol-keto tautomerism, also see tautomerism
Phenolic esters, from arylmethyl ketones, 1528
Phenols
acidity of, 345
allyl, by Claisen rearrangement, 1449
allyl, from allyl aryl ethers, 1449
and Friedel-Crafts alkylation, 709
by Fenton's reagent, 916
by rearrangement of allylic aryl ethers, 1685
by rearrangement of aralkyl peroxides, 1685
by rearrangement of azoxy compounds; 1685
by rearrangement of N-hydroxylamines, 1685
by rearrangement of phenolic esters, 1685
by the Baeyer-Villiger rearrangement, 1685
by the Bucherer reaction, 861
by the Claisen rearrangement, 1685
by the Dakin reaction, 1528
by the dienone-phenol rearrangement, 1685
by the Fries rearrangement, 727, 1685
by the Wallach rearrangement, 1685
by Udenfriend's reagent, 916
coupling with diazonium salts, 700
formylation by the Duff reaction, 717
formylation of, 716
from alkali fusion of sulfonate ions, 1685
from aromatic compounds, 724, 916, 1685
from aromatization of cyclic ketones, 1685
from aryl diazonium salts, 874
from aryl halides, 861
from aryl ketones, 1685
from aryl organometallic compounds, 1685
from cyclohexadienones, 1402
from esters, 727, 1685
from hydrolysis of aryl halides, 1685
from hydrolysis of diazonium salts, 1685
from hydrolysis of phenolic esters, 1685
from phenolic esters, 1685
from phenols, 1685
from quinones, 1685
hydrogenation of, 1009
nitrosation of, 699
reaction with chloroacetamides, 722
reaction with diazo compounds, 479
reaction with DMSO and DCC, 722
reaction with formaldehyde and amines, 722
reaction with zinc metal, 866
reduction to aromatic compounds, 866
sulfonate esters, reduction of, 867
thioalkylation of, 722
Phenonium ions, also see arenium ions
Phenonium ions, 411, 413
and NMR, 413
benzene, charge distribution, 685
Phenoxides
as ambident nucleophiles, 459
from aryl sulfonic acids, 862
reaction with chloroform, 716
reaction with CO_2, 718
Phenyl cation, 223
Phenyl chloroformate, cleavage of amines, 522
Phenyl radicals, reactions rates with substituted benzenes, 905
1-Phenyl-2-propanol, 391
2-Phenylpropyl cation, 225
Phenylhydrazine
and the Fischer indole synthesis, 1453
reaction with aldehydes or ketones, 1453
Phenyliodosyl bis(trifluoroacetate), and Hofmann rearrangement, 1412
Phenyllithium, 236
from bromobenzene, 699
reaction with carbamates, 1215
reaction with thiobenzophenone, 1172
Phenylselenyl bromide, reaction with enolate anions, 783
Phenylselenyl chloride, reaction with enolate anions, 783
Phosgene
and aromatic formylations, 715
reaction with alcohols, 483
reaction with amines, 507
reaction with aromatic compounds, 718
reaction with formamides, 1350
Phosphates, aryl diethyl, reaction with potassium amide and K, 866

Phosphine oxides
bonding, 45
reaction with isocyanates, 1246
Phosphines
from alkyl halides, 1685
from Grignard reagents, 1685
from phosphonium salts, 1685
from phosphorus halides, 1685
reaction with alkyl halides, 501
reaction with alkyl halides, 1231
reaction with epoxides, 1235
reaction with methylpyridinium salts, 501
Phosphite, triphenyl, reaction with aldehydes and bromine, 1196
Phosphonate esters, see esters
Phosphonate ylids, see ylids
Phosphonates, by the Arbuzov reaction, 1234
Phosphonic esters, coupling with Grignard reagents, 544
Phosphonium salts
as phase transfer catalysts, 454-455
from Michael alkenes, 1231
from phosphines and alkyl halides, 1231
reaction with bases, 1231
reaction with organolithium reagents, 793
Phosphonium ylids, from phosphonium salts, 793
Phosphoranes, see ylids, phosphorus
Phosphorescence, 315
Phosphoric acids, anhydrides, 494
Phosphorous pentoxide, dehydration agent, 491
Phosphorus halides, reaction with alcohols, 518
Phosphorus oxychloride
and formylation of alkenes, 785
and formylation of aromatic compounds, 715
and the Bischler-Napieralski reaction, 721
reaction with alcohols, 493
Phosphorus pentachloride
and valence electrons, 13
reaction with aldehydes or ketones, 1195
reaction with amides, 1464
reaction with malic acid, 391
reaction with oximes, 1349, 1415
reaction with sulfonic acids, 577
Phosphorus pentoxide, dehydration of amides, 1350
Phosphorus tribromide, reaction with carboxylic acids, 777
Phosphorus ylids, see ylids, phosphorus
Phosphorus ylids, and the Wittig reaction, 1231-1237
Phosphorus, stabilization of carbanions, 231
Photo-Fries rearrangement, 727
relation to photolysis of arylamines, 730
Photochemical decarboxylation, 811
Photochemical reactions, 306
Photochemical Wallach rearrangement, 1465
Photochemistry
addition of alcohols to alkenes, 997
alkylation of quinolines, 934
and absorption, 308
and an actinometer, 322
and angular momentum, 315
and auxochromes, 310
and chromophores, 308, 310
and circularly polarized light, 150
and cis/trans isomerization, 320
and conjugation, 310
and dimerization of ketones, 1560
and extinction coefficient, 307
and extrusion reactions of pyrazolines, 1353
and fluorescence, 313-314
and forbidden transitions, 308
and Hund's rule, 308
and intersystem crossing, 315
and Jablonski diagrams, 313-314
and phosphorescence, 315
and photolysis, 312
and photosensitization, 316
and Planck's constant, 306
and quantum yield, 322
and radicals, 245, 312
and spectrophotometers, 306
and the Barton reaction, 1463
and the Diels-Alder reaction, 1065
and the electromagnetic spectrum, 307
and the Kolbe reaction, 942
and the Orton rearrangement, 729
and the Wolff rearrangements, 1406
and triplet state reactivity, 317
and triplet states, 311
and vibrational levels, 307-308
and [2+2]-cycloadditions, 1081
benzene with alkenes, 1093
cleavage, 312
cleavage to radicals, 318
cyclization of stilbenes, 1436
decomposition, 318
dehydrohalogenation, 1513
dimerization, 321
exciplex formation in [2+2]-cycloadditions, 1082
flash photolysis, 321
halogenation of hydrocarbons, 907
hydrogen atom abstraction, 321
internal conversions, 313
intramolecular [2+2]-cycloadditions, 1082

mechanism determination, 231
Norrish Type I cleavage, 318-319
Norrish Type II cleavage, 318–319
of 1,4-dienes, 1460
of 2,5-cyclohexadienones, 1461
of aryl keto esters, 1532
of cyclobutanones, 1354
of dienes and trienes, 1426
of ketene, 319
of ketones, 1560
of N-iodoamides, 1463
of pyrazoles, 1353
of thiohydroxamic esters, 942
of triazolines, 1057
photo Fries rearrangement, 727
photosensitizers, 316
physical processes of excited molecules, 315
reactions, 318
rearrangements, 319
singlet and triplet states, 308-309, 316
singlet states, 311
spin-forbidden transitions, 309
symmetry-forbidden transitions, 209
the Franck-Condon principle, 312
types of excitation, 309
Wallach rearrangement, 1465
Wigner spin-conservation rule, 316
Photodimerization, 321
Photoelectron spectroscopy, 10-12
and carbocations, 224
Photoisomerization, 319-30
Photolysis, definition, 312
Photolytic halogenation, 899
Photooxygenation, of alkenes, 1054
Photosensitization, 316
and the Paterno-Biichi reaction, 1250
in [2+2]-cycloadditions, 1081
of mercury, and alkane dimerization, 926
of oxygen, 921
Photosensitizers, 316
and reaction of oxygen with dienes, 1054
mercury, and dimerization of alkenes, 1021
Phthalamic acid, hydrolysis of, 427
Phthalate ion, rearrangement of, 733
Phthalic anhydride, from naphthalene, 1527
Phthalimide, potassium
reaction with alkyl halides, 513
reaction with aryl halides, 865
Phthalimides
reaction with hydrazine, 513
reagents for hydrolysis, 514
Picric acid
acidity in DMF, 351
electron donor-acceptor complexes, 104
Picryl chloride, reaction with hydroxide, π-complex, 852
Picryl iodide, bond lengths, 43
Pig liver ester esterase, hydrolysis of esters, 470
Pig liver esterase, and Meinwald rearrangement, 1398
Pinacol coupling, 1560-1561
Pinacol rearrangement, 1384, 1396-1398
and quasi-Favorskii rearrangement, 1405
migratory aptitudes, 1384-1385
regioselectivity, 1397
with epoxides, 1398
Pinacols, see diols
from aldehydes or ketones, 1559-1561
side products of Clemmensen reduction, 1547
Pinene, reaction with borane, 1014
Pinner synthesis, 1183
Pinocolate, titanium, 1562
Piperidine
catalyst for the Doebner modification, 1226
reaction with cyclopropylmethyl halides, 423
Piperidines, by the Hofmann-Löffler reaction, 1462
Pimm sativum, oxidation of ketones, 1533
Pitzer strain, 184
pK_a, see acidity constant
Planck's constant, 3, 306
Plane-polarized light, and optical activity, 126-127, 143-144
Platinum catalyst
and hydrogenation of aldehydes or ketones, 1198
for hydrogenation, 1003
Podands, 106-107
Podands, as phase transfer catalysts, 456
Polar radicals, 902
Polarity, of solvent, and rate of reaction, 450
Polarized light
and reactions, 150
circularly polarized, 143
plane, 126-127, 143-144
Polyalkylation, in Friedel-Crafts alkylation, 709
Polycyclic aromatics
and Friedel-Crafts acylation, 713
electrophilic aromatic substitution, 688-690
Polycyclic small ring compounds, and strain, 182-183
Polyenes
cationic cyclization, 1019
radical cyclization, 1020
Polyethylene glycol monomethyl ether
and ammonium salt pyrolysis, 1333

Polyhydrogen fluoride-pyridine
and preparation of **acyl** fluorides, 524
solvent, 519
Polymer-supported synthesis, 509
Polymerization
and the Kobe reaction, 942
and the Robinson annulation, **1223**
in the **Diels-Alder** reaction, 1065
of **imines, 1186**
Polymers
and **Friedel-Crafts** acylation, 720
and oxidation of alcohols, 1515
Bakelite, 720
from aldehyde addition to **alkenes,** 1034
Polyphosphoric acid, 720
and Friedel-Crafts acylation, 713
reaction with alkene-alcohols, 773
Polyurethanes, **1183**
Potassium amide, see amide, potassium
Potassium cyanide, see cyanide
Potassium nitrite, reaction with amines, 494
Potassium permanganate, see permanganate
Potassium phthalimide, see **phthalimide**
Potassium superoxide, 492
Potassium *t*-**butoxide,** see butoxide
Potassium thiocyanate, see thiocyanate
Potassium triisopropoxyborohydride,
and reactions of borane and CO, 1424
Potassium, reaction with
aryl diethyl phosphates and KNH_2, 866
Potential energy, and molecular mechanics, 179
Pressure, and chemical reactivity, 457-458
Pressure, high, see high pressure
Prévost method, Woodward **modification,** 1050
Prévost reaction, 1049
Prilezhaev reaction, 1052
Primary isotope effects, 298
Primary sources in literature, 1605
Principle of conservation of orbital symmetry, 1068
Principle of imperfect synchronization, 334
Principle of least motion, **1011**
Principle of microscopic reversibility, 286
Prins reaction, 1047, 1241
with oxetanes, 1241
Prismane, 182-183, 1449
pro-R and *prv-S* nomenclature, **165**
Prochiral centers, and carbanions, 233
Prochiral substrates, and catalytic hydrogenation, 1003
Prochiral, definition, **165**
Product spread, 421
L-**proline,** 642 (ref. **1349**)
Propane, bond energy, 23
2-Propanone, see acetone
Propargyl cations, 222
Propargyl compounds, and allylic rearrangement, 423
Propargyl halides
coupling, 543
reaction with $LiAlH_4$, 525
Propellanes, 182-183
Propeller shape, and radicals, 244
Protecting groups
for amines, 697
MEM, 478
MOM, 478
Protic solvents, 450
Proton acceptors, and Br0nsted theory, 327
Proton donors, and Br0nsted theory, 327
Proton sponges, base strength, 347
Proton-shift **tautomerism,** 75-76
Proton-shift tautomerism, also see tautomerism
Protonation
enantioselective, of enolate anions, 794
of enolate anions, 976
of vinylboranes, 1425
Prototropic rearrangements, 771, 1377
Pschorr ring closure, 929
Pseudo-first order, 390
Pseudo-first order mechanisms, 293
Pseudoasymmetric carbons, 145
Pseudoaxial and pseudoequatorial, 178
Pseudomonas putida, and dihydroxylation of aromatic compounds, 1050
Pseudorotation
and ring conformation, **178**
in aromatic hydrocarbons, 44
Pummerer rearrangement, 1566
Push-pull compounds, and cis/trans isomers, 159
Push-pull effect
and resonance, 60
in radicals, 242
Py scale, and solvent polarity, 454
Pyramidal inversion, **129**
Pyramidal shape
and carbanions, 232
and radicals, 244
Pyran,48
and the anomeric **effect,** 176-177
Pyrazoles
extrusion reactions, **1353**
from **diketones, 1193**
Pyrazolines
extrusion of nitrogen, 1353
from keto esters, **1193**

Pyridine N-oxides, and the Boekelheide reaction, 1421
Pyridine
and aromaticity, 48
and chromium, Collins' reagent, 1514
and electrophilic aromatic substitution, 689
as a nucleophilic catalyst, 576
base strength, 350
reaction with amide anion, 873
reaction with organolithium reagents, 871
eduction with samarium iodide, 1011
Pyridines
2-hydroxy, from pyridine N-oxides, 1421
from pyrroles, 1088
reaction with carboxylic aids, 933
Pyridinium chlorochromate, 1531
oxidation of alcohols, 1514
Pyridinium compounds, as leaving groups, 447
Pyridinium dichromate, oxidation of alcohols, 1514
Pyridinium ions
and electrophilic aromatic substitution, 689
and E1cB elimination, 1311
Pyridinium-N-phenolbetamine, electronic peaks, 454
Pyridone thiols, and tautomerism, 76
Pyridone, and tautomerism, 76
Pyrocalciferols, 1432
Pyroglutamate, ethyl ester, N-alkylation, 457
Pyrolysis, also see thermochemistry
Pyrolysis
of 1-chlorocyclopropene, 1400
of alkyl azides, 1412
of amine oxides, 1333
of carboxylic acids, 1327
of carboxylic acids with ThO_2, 573
of cyclic sulfones, 1354–1355
of enol ethers, 1329
of esters, 1329
of hydroxy alkenes, 1351
of keto ylids, 1334
of lactones, 1330
of sulfoxides, 1336
Pyrrole
and aromaticity, 51
base strength, 350
electrophilic aromatic substitution, 689
resonance energy, 51
Pyrroles
from amines, 1000
from diynes, 1000
reaction with carbenes, 1087
Pyrrolidines
from aziridines, 1061
by the Hofmann-Löffler reaction, 1462
Pyrrolidinone, 5-carboethoxy, N-alkylation, 457
Pyrrolines, from amino ketones, 1186
Pyrylium ions
and aromaticity, 48
as leaving groups, 447
reaction with ammonia or amines, 1186

Quadricyclane, 1082,1083
Quadropole echo spectroscopy, and urea, 110
Quantum yield
and radicals, 896
definition, 322
Quasi-Favorskii rearrangement, 1405
and pinacol rearrangement, 1405
Quaternary ammonium salts, see ammonium salts
Quaterphenyl, 898
Quinines
and the Paterno-Büchi reaction, 1249
reaction with carboxylic acids, 933
Quinoline
and electrophilic aromatic substitution, 689
methylation of, 872
photochemical alkylation, 934
pK_a, 347
Quinolines
by the Friedländer quinoline synthesis, 1186
from indoles, 1088
Quinones
by Fremy's salt oxidation, 1518
by Friedel-crafts acylation, 1686
from aromatic amines, 1686
from aromatic diols, 1517-1518
from aromatic hydrocarbons, 1686
from hydroquinones, 1511
from phenols, 1686
from polycyclic aromatics, 1535
in the Diels-Alder reaction, 1062
reaction with Grignard reagents, 1205
reduction of, 1198, 1548
Quino[7,8-*h*]quinoline, 347

r and *c* nomenclature, 161
p values, and elimination reactions, 1313, 1321
Racemates, see enantiomers, racemates
Racemic mixture, and enantiotopic faces, 166
Racemic mixtures, see enantiomers, racemates
Racemization
and ion pairs, 399-400
and keto-enol tautomerism, 774
and radical substitution, 897
and the S_E1 reaction, 763

Radical addition, also see addition, radical
Radical addition, to alkenes, 977-979
Radical cations
aminium, 909
and the benzidine rearrangement, 1456
Radical chain reaction, and pyrolytic elimination, 1324
Radical cyclization, also see cyclization, radicals
Radical cyclization
and Baldwin's rules, 1040
iodo-ester alkenes, 1047
Radical ions, also see radicals
Radical ions, 247, 901
and Birch reduction, 1010
and formation of Griguard reagents, 806
and the SET mechanism, 402-404
Radical probes, and SET mechanisms, 403
Radical, aromatic substitution, 897-899
Radical, aryl, rearrangement intermediate, 1390
Radical, definition, 238
Radical, halogenation
and dicarboxylic acids, 909
and the Hofmann-Löffler reaction, 909
Radical, initiator, and addition of aldehydes to alkenes, 1034
Radical, mechanism, 275
Radicals, also see cyclization, radicals
Radicals
aryl, and electron withdrawing groups, 905
Radicals hydrogen atom abstraction, and the Hammett equation, 903
abstraction of a halogen, reactivity order, 903
abstraction of hydrogen and stereoselectivity, 903
abstraction reactions, 246, 896
abstraction, and bond angles, 903
activation energy of, 906
acyl, cyclization, 1040
addition of silanes to alkenes, 1039
addition reactions, 246
addition to cyclopropanes, 990
allylic, bromination, 911
allylic, from alkenes, 902
allylic, rearrangement of, 902
Radicals
and acyloxylation of hydrocarbons, 923
and addition of alkanes to alkenes, 1017
and addition of alkyl halides to alkenes, 1039
and addition of HBr to alkenes, 991
and addition of thiols to alkenes, 998
and addition to alkenes by silane tethers, 1032
and AIBN initiation, 912
and all carbon [3+2]-cycloadditions, 1076
and aminium radical ions, 701
and arylation of aryl halides, 933
and autoxidation, 920-921
and Bergman cyclization, 1432
and Birch reduction, 1010
and bond dissociation energy, 900, 911
and captodative effect, 242
and carbene insertion reactions, 790
and chain reactions, 895
and coupling of aryl halides with enolate anions, 870
and cyclization, 403
and decarbonylation aldehydes, 944
and dehydrohalogenation, 1337
and disproportionation, 246
and electron withdrawing substituents, 902
and ESR, 239
and formation of Griguard reagents, 806
and hyperconjugation, 241
and inhibitors, 896
and Meerwein arylation, 930
and Michael addition, 1024
and NMR, 239
and Norrish cleavage, 318–319
and optical activity, 244
and oxidative decarboxylation, 1529
and photochemical dimerization of ketones, 1560
and photochemistry, 312
and push-pull effects, 242
and pyrolytic elimination, 1324
and quantum yield, 896
and reaction of aromatic compounds with acylperoxides, 932
and reaction of aryl diazonium salts with water, 874
and remote oxidation, 1513
and resonance stabilization, 241-242
and ring enlargement, 1400
and SET mechanisms, 239, 402-404
and steric effects, 900
and the Barton reaction, 1463
and the Cope rearrangement, 1447
and the Gif system, 1533
and the Hofmann-Löffler reaction, 1462
and the Kolbe reaction, 942
and the Paterno-Büchi reaction, 1249
and the $S_{RN}1$ mechanism, 856
and the Stevens rearrangements, 1420
and thiohydroxamic esters, 942
and triplets, 245
Radicals
aryl, 904

aryl, and ipso substitution, 905
aryl, complex formation, 906
aryl, partial rate factors, 905
aryl, substituent effects, 904
as initiators, 896
as intermediates, 288
benzylic, 902
benzylic and radical bromination, 912
bonding, 244
bridged, 899
bridgehead, 244
bromine, reaction with trichloropropene, 1391
cation, and the Diels-Alder reaction, 1065
chain reaction and substitution, 403
chain reactions, initiation step, 894
chain reactions, propagation steps, 246, 895
chain reactions, termination steps, 246, 894
cubylcarbinyl, 1390
cyclopropylcarbinyl, 901
decomposition of, 246
destruction of, 894
dimerization, 242
diradicals, 244
diradicals and cyclopropane rearrangement, 1400
diand rearrangement, 1390
dissociation energy, table, 243
electrophilic, 987
enolate, 242
fate of, 245-247
field effects, 906
formation by photochemistry, 318
from azo compounds, 245
from carbanions, 238
from peroxides, 245
from radicals, 246
generation of, 245-247
homocubyl, 1390
in reduction of nitro compounds, 531
in the Orton rearrangement, 729
in [2+2]-cycloadditions, 1080
isobutyl, 1390
nucleophilic, 903
nucleophilic, addition to alkenes, 983
order of stability, 241
oxygenation of alkenes, 914
phenyl, reaction with substituted benzenes, 905
polar, 902
propeller shaped, 244
pyramidal structure, 244
radical ions, 247
Radicals
reaction at bridgehead carbons, 904
reaction with alkenes, 901
reaction with hydrocarbons, 901
reaction with side chains of aromatic compounds, 902
reaction with silanes, 895
reaction with tributyltin hydride, 895
reactivity with aliphatic substrates, 900
reactivity with aromatic substrates, 904
rearrangements, 246, 1389-1392
rearrangements, 1,2 phenyl migration, 1389
rearrangements, and decarbonylation of aldehydes, 1389
rearrangements, labeling experiments, 1389
selectivity, 905
solvent effects, 906
spin traps, 239
stability of, 238-245, 985
stable, 242-243
stereoelectronic effects, 903
structure of, 238-245
substitution reactions and neighboring group effects, 899
substitution reactions with hydrocarbons, 899
succinimidyl, 913
t-butyl, 1390
transannular rearrangements, 1392
triarylmethyl, 242
tricyanomethyl, 242
triphenylmethyl, stability of, 905
vinyl, and rearrangements, 1391
Radiolabeling, see labeling
Ramberg-Bäcklund reaction, 1342
and cheletropic reactions, 1342
and orbital symmetry rules, 1342
suprafacial vs. antarafacial processes, 1342
with α-halo sulfides, 1343
Raney nickel
and dehalogenation of aryl halides, 735
and reduction of nitriles, 1204
catalyst for hydrogenation, 1003
reaction with dithianes, 557
reaction with sulfur compound, 532
reduction of thiols and thioethers, 940
reduction of thiono esters, 1550
Rate constant, definition, 291
Rate constants, also see kinetics
Rate constants, and the Hammett equation, 369
Rate controlling, see rate determining
Rate determining step, 291-292
Rate determining step, electrophilic aromatic substitution, 694
Rate law, 290
Rate law, S_N1, 394

Rate limiting, see rate determining
Rate of reaction
acceleration, in Diels-Alder reactions, 1065-1066
alkyl halide hydrolysis, 365
alkyl halide solvolysis, 366
amide hydrolysis, 475
and dual substituent parameter equation, 373
and enantiomers, 126
and isotope effects, 297
and kinetic resolution, 153-154
and mechanisms, 290-296
and σ values, 371-372
and size of anions, 451
and solvent effects, 451
and solvent polarity, 450
and substituents in aryl radicals, 904
and the ortho effect, 375
and the S_N2 reaction, 390
diazomethane decomposition, 1087
electrophilic addition to alkenes, 983
electrophilic aromatic substitution, 688, 694
for El elimination, 1307
for E1cB elimination, 1310
for E2 elimination, 1300, 1302
for ortho/para substitution, 690
for S_N1 reactions, 394
for S_N1 reactions of allyl tosylates, 434
for S_N1 reactions, effect of β-unsaturation, 434
for S_N2 reactions, effect of α-substituents, 436
for S_N2 reactions, for alkyl substrates, 432
for S_NAr reactions, 851
for solvolysis of alkyl halides, 432
for solvolysis of bicyclic compounds, 1435
haloform reaction, 813
halogenation of ketones an aldehydes, 776
heterocycles and electrophilic aromatic substitution, 689
hydrolysis of acetals and structure, 466
in aqueous Diels-Alder reactions, 1066
isotopic exchange for carbanions, 765
nucleophilic addition and conjugation, 1174
organomercury bromides and bromine, 768
pH and oxime formation, 1194
phenyl radicals with substituted benzenes, 905
pyrolytic eliminations, 1324
radical reactions with alkanes, 901
radicals with tin hydride or silanes, 895
substituent effects and the Diels-Alder reaction, 1065
re nomenclature, 166
re/si nomenclature, 166
Reaction coordinate, and kinetics, 279
Reaction medium, and nucleophilic substitution, 450-454
Reaction order, 291
Reaction rate, see rate of reaction
Reaction, types, 275-277
Reactions
and asymmetric induction, 150
and circularly polarized light, 150
and kinetics, 278-282
enantioselective, 150
photochemical, 306, 318
self-immolative, 150
synthetic, nucleophilic substitution, 440-441
thermodynamic requirements, 277-278
with intermediates, 281-282
Reactivity order, radical abstraction of halogen, 903
Reagents for Organic Synthesis, 1627
Reagents
for acetal hydrolysis, 468
for ester hydrolysis, 470
nucleophilic strength, 444
Rearrangements
nucleophilic, 1378–1388
1,2 shifts and stereochemistry, 1380
1,2-methyl shift, 1383
1,2-shifts, in aromatic compound cleavage, 731
1,3 hydride, 1387
1,3 migration of bromine, 1387
α-ketol, 1401
alkynes to allenes, 771
Rearrangements, allylic, 421, 771
and allylic alcohols, 544
and autoxidation, 921
and Grignard reactions, 546
and propargyl compounds, 423
Meyer-Schuster rearrangement, 423
of propargylic halides with $LiAlH_4$, 525
radical chlorination, 914
with nucleophilic substitution, 421-424
with nucleophilic substitution, 421-424
with vinyl epoxides and Grignard reagents, 547
Rearrangements
and concertedness, 1381
and crossover experiments, 1378
and Friedel-Crafts alkylation, 709
and ipso substitution, 687
and neighboring group effects, 1381
and preparation of alkyl halides from alcohols, 518
and S_N1 reactions, 1381
and stabilomers, 1396
and the Arndt-Eistert synthesis, 1405-1407

and the Henkel reaction, 733
and the Jacobsen reaction, 734
and the Schmidt reaction, 1413-1415
Rearrangements
anionotropic, 1377
aza-Cope, 1445
aza-Wittig, 1422
azo-Cope, 1452
Baeyer-Villiger, 1417
Barton reaction, 1463
Beckmann, and the Ritter reaction, 1416
Beckmann, and the Schmidt rearrangement, 1416
Beckmann, 1349, 1381, 1384, 1415-1416
benzidine, 1455-1456
benzidine, labeling experiments, 1456
benzidine, semidine formation, 1455
benzil-benzilic acid, 1403
borane oxidation to alcohols, 797
boron migration, 1409
cationotropic, 1377
Chapman, 1464
circumambulatory, 1440
Claisen, 1449-1452, 1454
Cope, 1444-1449
Cope, and bullvalene, 1448
Cope, nonconcerted, 1447
Curtius, 1380, 1384, 1406, 1412
cyclopropane carbenes to allenes, 1400
cyclopropyl, and diradicals, 1400
cyclopropyl, conservation of orbital symmetry, 1400
degenerate, 1380
Demyanov, 1398-1400
deuterated anilines, 727
di-n-methane, 1460
diazoketones, 1414
dienone-phenol, 1402
double bond migration in alkenes, 770
double bond shifts and electrophilic substitution, 766
dyotropic, 1465
Rearrangements, electrocyclic, 1426-1436
and NMR, 1435
and super acids, 1435
conrotatory and disrotatory, 1427
frontier orbital method, 1428
Möbius-Hückel method, 1429
orbital symmetry rues, 1434
Rearrangements, electrophilic, 1377, 1392
ab initio studies, 1392
Rearrangements
enolene, 1450
Favorskii, 1403-1405
Favorskii, labeling experiments, 1404
Favorskii, quasi-Favorskii, 1405
Fischer-Hepp, 728
Fries, 726
Grovenstein-Zimmerman, 1396
Hofmann, 1380, 1384, 1411
in aromatic compound cleavage, 731
in aromatic compounds, 876-880
in aryl carboxylic acid decarboxylation, 733
in bicyclic systems, 1386
in borane reactions with halo carbonyls, 560
in diradicals, 1390
in polyhalobenzenes, 735
intermolecular, 1378
intramolecular, 1378
Ireland-Claisen, 1452
Lossen, 1380, 1413
mechanism, 276
Meinwald, 1398
Meisenheimer, 1420
Meyer-Schuster, 423
Michaelis-Arbuzov, 1289 (ref. 750)
Mislow-Evans, 1455
Nametkin, 1395
Neber, 288, 1410
nucleophilic, 1377
nucleophilic, and carbocations, 1378
nucleophilic, and nitrenes, 1378
nucleophilic, long range, 1387-1388
nucleophilic, migratory aptitudes, 1384-1386
Rearrangements
of α-hydroxy aldehydes or ketones, 1401
of aldehydes, 1401
of alkyl carbenes, 1084
of allylic radicals, 902
of amine oxides, 1420
of aryl hydroxylamines, 878
of aryl radicals, as intermediates, 1390
of carbenes, 252, 1392
of carbocations, 227, 407-420, 786, 1379
of carbocations, and NMR, 419
of cations and cyclopropane, 1382
of cyclobutylmethyl cations, 418
of cyclopropylmethyl cation, 417
of Grignard reagents and vinyl epoxides, 547
of hydroperoxides, 1418
of isonitriles, 1421
of ketones, 1401
of N,N-dichloroamines, 1410
of N-arylazo amines, 728
of N-azo amines, 728
of N-chloro acetamides, 728

Rearrangements *(Continued)*
of N-nitro amines, 727
of N-nitroso amines, 728
of nitrenes, 254
of phthalate ion, 733
of radicals 1,2 phenyl migration, 1389
of radicals, 246, 1377, 1389-1392
of radicals, and decarbonylation of aldehydes, 1389
of radicals, labeling experiments, 1389
of radicals, migratory aptitudes, 1389
of radicals, transannular, 1392
of vinyl groups in radicals, 1391
Rearrangements
Orton, 728
oxa-di-7t- methane, 1461
oxy-Cope, 1445
para-Claisen, 1449
Payne rearrangement, 481
phenol-dienone, 1402
photo-Fries, 727
photochemical induced, 319
pinacol, 1384, 1396-1398
pinacol, migratory aptitudes, 1384-1385
pinacol, regioselectivity, 1397
pinacol, with epoxides, 1398
prototropic, 771, 1377
Pummerer, 1566
quasi-Favorskii, 1405
Reilly-Hickinbottom, 729
retro pinacol, 1395
retro-Claisen, 1450
σ-bond, 1459, 1465
CT-bond, and carbocations, 1460
Schmidt, 1380
Schmidt, and the Beckmann rearrangement, 1416
semipinacol, 1397
sigmatropic, 1436-1456
sigmatropic, circumambulatory, 1440
sigmatropic, definition, 1436
Smiles rearrangement, 879
Sommelet-Hauser, 877, 1420, 1455
Sommelet-Hauser, and the Stevens rearrangement, 1420
Stevens, 1419-1421
Stevens, and sulfur ylids, 1420
Stevens, and the Sommelet-Hauser rearrangement, 1420
Stevens, labeling experiments, 1419
Stieglitz, 1416
Stieglitz, and Wagner-Meerwein rearrangement, 1416
thio-Claisen, 1452
Tiffeneau-Demyanov, 1399
transannular, 1388
vinylcyclobutane, 1444
vinylcyclopropane, 1443
vinylcyclopropane, and formation of heterocycles, 1443
vinylcyclopropane, and homodienyl [1,5] shifts, 1444
von Richter rearrangement, 876
Rearrangements, Wagner-Meerwein, 1384, 1393-1396
and adamantanes, 1396
and Lewis acids, 1394,1396
and Nametkin rearrangements, 1395
and norbornyl cations, 1394
and retro pinacol rearrangements, 1395
and stabilomers, 1396
and the Stieglitz rearrangement, 1416
and Zaitsev's rule, 1393, 1394
hydride ion migration, 1394
in terpenes, 1394
Rearrangements
Wallach, 1464
Wallach, photochemical, 14M.
Whitmore 1,2 shift, 1378
Wittig, 1421
Wittig rearrangement, 558
Wittig, migratory aptitudes, 1421
Wolff, 252, 1250, 1405-1406
Wolff, and the Arndt-Eistert synthesis, 1405
Wolff, photochemical, 1406
[1,3]-Rearrangements
alkyl sigmatropic, 1440-1445
alkyl sigmatropic, allyl vinyl ethers, 1442
alkyl sigmatropic, and orbital symmetry, 1441
alkyl sigmatropic, and stereochemistry, 1441
alkyl sigmatropic, radical mechanism, 1442
alkyl sigmatropic, thermal and photochemical, 1441-1442
alkyl sigmatropic, vinylcyclopropane, 1443
H sigmatropic, and the frontier orbital method, 1438
H sigmatropic, and the Möbius-Hückel method, 1439
|],5]-Rearrangements
homosigmatropic, 1450
alkyl sigmatropic, 1440-1445
alkyl sigmatropic, and diradicals, 1443
alkyl sigmatropic, and stereochemistry, 1441
alkyl sigmatropic, thermal and photochemical, 1441-1442
H sigmatropic, 1437-1440

H sigmatropic, and the frontier orbital method, 1438
H sigmatropic, and the Möbius-Hückel method, 1439
H sigmatropic, homodienyl, 1440
H sigmatropic, orbital symmetry rules, 1438
H sigmatropic, suprafacial and antarafacial, 1437
H sigmatropic, with vinyl aziridines, 1440
sigmatropic, 1436
sigmatropic, and semidine formation, 1456
[1,7]-Rearrangements, sigmatropic, in radical cyclization, 1440
[2,3]-Rearrangements, [2,3] Wittig, 1454
sigmatropic, 915, 1453-1455
sigmatropic, enantioselectivity, 1454
sigmatropic, Mislow-Evans, 1455
[3,3]-Rearrangements
sigmatropic, 1436
sigmatropic, Claisen rearrangement, see Claisen rearrangement
sigmatropic, Cope, see Cope rearrangement
[5,5]-Rearrangements
sigmatropic, and benzidine rearrangements, 1456
Red-Al
and reduction of esters, 1552
eduction of epoxides, 529
Reduction, see oxidation-reduction
and Grignard reagents, 1207
and organolithium reagents, 1209
and the Bouveault-Blanc reaction, 1199
conjugate, of conjugated systems, reagents for, 1008-1009
definition, 1506
dissolving metal, 1199
ease of reduction of functional groups, 1545-1546
hydrogenolysis, 524
Meerwein-Ponndorf-Verley reduction, 1199
of alkyl halides, 525
of aromatic compounds, 1009-1012
of hydrazones, 1203
of imines, 1203
of ketones and aldehydes, 1197–1203
of ketones, and Cram's rule, 1201
of nitriles, 1204
of Schiff bases, 1203
with optically active boranes, 1210-1211
Reduction-oxidation, see oxidation-reduction
Reductions, selectivity, 1544-1564
Reductive acylation, of ketones, 1182
Reductive alkylation
of amines, 1188
of lactams, 513
Reductive amination, 1188
Reductive coupling, of aldehydes and ketones, 1559-1561
Reed reaction, 924
Reformatsky reaction, 1212
and ketene-imine cycloaddition, 1250
and the Claisen reaction, 1224
and the Wittig reaction, 1232
with other metals, 1212
Regiochemistry, of β- elimination, 1314-1317
Regioselectivity
and reaction of sulfur ylids with aldehydes or ketones, 1247
and the ortho/para ratio, 685
definition, 458
electrophilic substitution, monosubstituted benzenes, 681-687
electrophilic substitution, polycyclic aromatics, 689-690
in alkene addition reactions, 984
in reactions of organolithium reagents, 792
in the Diels-Alder reaction, 1063
in the Mannich reaction, 1190
in the pinacol rearrangement, 1397
in the Stork enamine reaction, 787
of borane addition to alkenes, 1013
of di-π- methane rearrangements, 1460
of epoxide reduction, 529
of ketone enolate alkylations, 554
of pyrolytic eliminations, 1325
of radical bromination, 899
Registry number, CAS, 1632
Reilly-Hickinbottom rearrangement, 729
Reimer-Tiemann reaction, 716
and carbenes, 716
and the Kolbe-Schmitt reaction, 718
ring expansion, 717
Reissert compounds, reduction to aldehydes, 533
Resins, exchange, and acetal hydrolysis, 467
Resolution, also see kinetic resolution
Resolution
and biochemical processes, 153
and chiral recognition, 152
and chromatography, 152
and crystallization, 153
and deracemization, 154
and diastereomers, 151-152
and differential absorption, 152
and gas chromatography, 156
and guest-hosts, 152
and mechanical separation, 153

Resolution *(Continued)*
kinetic, 149, 153-154
of enantiomers, 126, 151-155
Resonance, also see mesomeric effect
Resonance effects, 42
and acid strength, 343-345
and electrophilic aromatic substitution, 681
and free energy, 365
and hyperconjugation, 363
and structure, 363
and vinylogy, 553
aromatic amides, 364-365
table, 364
Resonance energy, 32
benzene and fused ring aromatics, 49
heterocycles, 51
Resonance integral, 35
Resonance interaction, and electrophilic aromatic substitution, 682
Resonance
and aromatic radical substitution, 898
and captodative compounds, 159
and conjugate addition, 980
and principle of least motion, 1011
and radicals, 241-242
and strain, 43-45
and Wheland intermediates, 676
captodative effect, 60
in amides and thioamides, 158-159
in aniline, 42
in aryl diazonium compounds, 816
in benzene, 32
in benzynes, 855
in butadiene, 37
in carboxylate anions, 344
in chlorobenzene, 41
in push-pull compounds, 159
nitro group, and base strength, 344
push-pull effect, 60
rules, 40-42
steric inhibition of, 43-45, 699
Retro aldol reaction, 1220
Retro aldol, see aldol, retro
Retro Claisen condensation, see Claisen condensation, retro
Retro Diels-Alder reaction, see Diels-Alder reactions, retro
Retro pinacol rearrangement, 1395
Retro-Claisen rearrangement, 1450
Retro-ene reaction, 1022
Retro-Gatterman-Koch reaction, 732
Reversibility
and radical addition to alkenes, 981
microscopic, and E1cB elimination, 1310
Review journals, 1620
Rhodium catalysts, also see Wilkinson's catalyst
and addition of aldehydes to alkenes, 1038
and carbene addition reaction, 1086
and carbonylation of halides, 565
and the Bamford-Stevens reaction, 1335
chiral, and reduction of oximes, 1554
elimination with acyl halides, 1339
Rhodium, and insertion reactions of carbenes, 251
Ring chain tautomerism, see tautomerism
Ring closure
alkene addition to alkenes, 1019
and Baldwin's rules, 282-284
and entropy, 280
and Friedel-Crafts acylation, 713
and the Bischler-Napieralski reaction, 720
and the Bradsher reaction, 720
and the Friedländer quinoline synthesis, 1186
and the Haworth reaction, 714
and the Robinson annulation, 1222
by Friedel-Crafts acylation with ketones, 720
by radical addition to dienes, 878
by the aldol reaction, 1222
by the Wittig reaction, 1236
Pschorr, 929
with aryl halides, 869
Ring contraction, Demyanov, 1398-1400
Ring current
definition, 46-47
paracyclophane, 47
Ring expansion
and the Beckmann rearrangement, 1415
and the Stevens rearrangement, 1419
by alkene metathesis, 1458
by diazomethane homologation of cyclic ketones, 1408
by radicals, 1400
Demyanov, 1398-1400
of aryl azides, 1413
of carbenes, 250-251
of cyano ketones, 813
of cycloalkyl azides, 1413
Tiffeneau-Demyanov, 1399
Ring formation, by the Thorpe-Ziegler reaction, 1239
Ring nitrosation, 699
Ring opening, cyclopropyl cations, 1434
Ring strain
and ester hydrolysis, 473
and leaving groups, 446
Rings
and cis/trans isomers, 158, 160-161

and the Dieckmann condensation, 570
closure by Friedel-Crafts alkylation, 710
closure with sulfur, 704
conformations, 172-178
cyclic amines, from amines, 501
from malonate and dihalides, 550
heterocyclic, from sulfides and dihalides, 497
other than 3 or 4, stain, 184–186
puckering, 172
six-membered, conformations, 172-177
small rings and strain, 180–184
small-ring polycyclic and strain, 182–183
strain and reactivity, 366
unsaturated, and strain, 186–188
by coupling with nickel tetracarbonyl, 542
by the Story synthesis, 1355
by the Wurtz reaction, 536
Ritter reaction, 1244
and the Beckmann rearrangement, 1416
Robinson annulation reaction, 1222, 1224
Rosenmund catalyst, 1005
Rosenmund reduction, 532
Rosenmund-von Braun reaction, 867
Rotamer, definition, 167
Rotation
and NMR, 295
and rings, 160
around single bonds, 168-169
optical, see optical rotation
restricted, and allenes, 133-134
restricted, and cis/trans isomers, 156-157, 159
restricted, torsional diastereomers, 133-134
specific, and optical purity, 155–156
Rotaxanes, 113–114
and chirality, 136
and fullerene, 114
and inclusion compounds, 114
and isomers, 113
and molecular shuttles, 114
definition, 113
Rule, 2^n
Ruthenium catalysts
and hydrogenation of aldehydes or ketones, 1198
and reaction of amines with nitriles, 1192
Ruthenium oxide, reaction with alkynes, 1540
Ruthenium tetroxide
and oxidation of alcohols, 1515
oxidation of ethers, 1534
Ruzicka cyclization, 574

S states, see singlet state
s character
and carbanions, 228, 231
and strain, 181
a values, 369-370, 372
σ-bond rearrangements, 1459-1460, 1465
σ-substitution, mechanism, 702
Sacrificial hyperconjugation, 73
Sadder Index, 1618
Sakurai reaction, 1024
Salen manganese, and oxidation of ketones, 1531
Salen, cobalt catalysts, 468
Salen, cobalt complex, and epoxidation of alkenes, 1053
Salen, manganese catalyst
and formation of aziridines, 1058
and oxidation of ketones, 1533
Salt effects, 395, 451
and the S_Ei' reaction, 763
in the Wittig reaction, 1235
special, 399, 452
Salts, hydrocarbon, 230
Samarium iodide
and reduction of isothiocyanates, 1203
and the Knoevenagel reaction, 1226
and the Prins reaction, 1242
and the Wurtz reaction, 536
and [2,3] Wittig rearrangement, 1454
coupling acyl halides, 568
reduction of nitriles, 528
reduction of pyridine, 1011
ring expansion of bicyclic ketones, 1408
Samarium, and reduction of nitro compounds, 1552
Sanderson electronegativity, 14
Sandmeyer reaction, 874, 875, 936
SANDRA, 1629
Sandwich compounds, see metallocenes
Saponification, see esters, hydrolysis
Saponification, of esters, 470
Schiemann reaction, 875
Schiff bases, 1186
and organolithium reagents, 547
hydrolysis of, 1177
reaction with HCN, 1240
reduction of, 1203
Schlenk equilibrium, 234
Schleyer adamantization, 1396
Schmidt reaction, 1413-1415
Schmidt rearrangement, 1380
and the Beckmann rearrangement, 1416
Scholl reaction, 711
intramolecular, 712
Schotten-Baumann procedure
and alcoholysis of acyl halides, 482
and formation of amides, 506

Schrödinger equation, 3
Schwartz's reagent, 1016, 1020
  reaction with isocyanides, 1038
Science Citation Index, 1637
Scoopy reactions, 1236
Scrambling, of radiolabeled oxygen, 399
S_E1 mechanism, 763-766
  and carboxylate ion decarboxylation, 733
  and electrophilic aromatic substitution, 681
S_E1, see substitution
S_E2 mechanisms, 759-763
S_E2, see substitution
S_E2' mechanism, 760
Second order reaction, 291
Second order reactions, S_N2, 390
Secondary isotope effects, 298
Secondary sources in literature, 1605
S_Ei mechanism, 759-763
S_Ei, see substitution
Selectivity relationship, and electrophiles, 692
Selectivity
  chemoselectivity, 525
  cis/trans, and the Shapiro reaction, 1335
  in attacking radicals, 905
  in reductions, 1544-1564
  regioselective, definition, 458
Selenides
  from aldehydes, 1686
  from alkyl halides, 1686
  from esters, 1686
  from ketones, 1686
  from organometallic compounds, 1686
  from selenoxides, 1557, 1686
  hydrogenolysis of, reagents, 532
Selenium dioxide
  α-oxidation of ketones, 1531
  and dehydrogenation, 1512
  oxidation of hydrocarbons, 1512
  oxidation of ketones, 1509
  reaction with alkenes, 915
Selenium oxide, Sharpless method, 915
Selenium, and aromatization, 1511
Selenones
  from selenides, 1542
  from selenoxides, 1542
Selenoxides
  from selenides, 1542
  pyrolysis, 1336
  reduction of, 1557
Self-consistent field method, 34
Self-immolative reactions, 150
Semibullvalene, 1448
Semicarbazide, reaction with aldehydes or ketones, 1193
Semicarbazides, from nitroureas, 1553
Semicarbazones, and Wolff-Kishner reduction, 1547
Semidines, 1455
Semiempirical methods, 34
Semipinacol rearrangement, 1397
Semiquinones, and radical ions, 247
Sensitizers, triplet, and aldehyde addition to alkenes, 1034
Separation, mechanical, and resolution, 153
Sequence rules, for the CIP system, 139-141
SET mechanisms, 237, 402-404
  and coupling of organometallics with RX, 537
  and electrophilic aromatic substitution, 693
  and enolate anion alkylations, 550-551
  and enolate anions with aryl halides, 870
  and formation of Grignard reagents, 806
  and Grignard reagents, 1208
  and organocalcium, 237
  and oxidation-reduction, 1508
  and radical probes, 403
  and radicals, 239
  and reduction of alkyl halides, 526
  and spectroscopy, 403
  and stereochemistry, 403
  and substitution reactions, 433
  and sulfur nucleophiles, 495
  and the tetrahedral mechanism, 424
  and Williamson reaction, 478
Shapiro reaction, 1334
Sharpless asymmetric dihydroxylation, 1050
Sharpless asymmetric epoxidation, 1053
Sharpless method, SeO_2 oxidation, 915
Shift reagents
  and diastereotopic atoms, 165
  and Mosher's derivatives, 142-43
  and NMR, 156
Shift, 1,2-methyl, see rearrangements 1,2-methyl
Shifts, see rearrangements
si nomenclature, 166
Side chain, of aromatic rings, radical substitution, 902
Sigmatropic rearrangements, 1436–1456
  circumambulatory, 1440
  definition, 1436
Sigmatropic [1,3]-alkyl rearrangements, 1440-1445
  allyl vinyl ethers, 1442
  and orbital symmetry, 1441
  and stereochemistry, 1441
  radical mechanism, 1442

thermal and photochemical, 1441-1442
vinylcyclopropane, 1443
Sigmatropic [1,3]-H rearrangements
and the frontier orbital method, 1438
and the Möbius-Hückel method, 1439
Sigmatropic [l,5]-alkyl rearrangements, 1440-1445
and diradicals, 1443
and stereochemistry, 1441
thermal and photochemical, 1441-1442
Sigmatropic [1,5]-H rearrangements, 1437-1440
and the frontier orbital method, 1438
and the Möbius-Hückel method, 1439
homodienyl, 1440
orbital symmetry rules, 1438
suprafacial and antarafacial, 1437
with vinyl aziridines, 1440
Sigmatropic [l,5]-rearrangements, 1436
and semidine formation, 1456
Sigmatropic [1,7]-H rearrangements
in radical cyclization, 1440
Sigmatropic [2,3]-rearrangements, 915, 1453-1455
enantioselectivity, 1454
Mislow-Evans, 1455
Sigmatropic [3,3]-rearrangements, 1436
Claisen rearrangement, see Claisen rearrangement
Cope, see Cope rearrangement
Sigmatropic [5,5]-rearrangements
and the benzidine rearrangement, 1456
Silane carbanions, reaction with aldehydes or ketones, 1228
Silane tethers, and radical addition to alkenes, 1032
Si lanes
addition to alkenes, 1018, 1039
allyl, addition to conjugated ketones, 1024
allyl, reaction with aldehydes, 1211, 1239
allyl, reaction with epoxides, 535
and the Sakurai reaction, 1024
C-Si bond distances, 19
from addition of silanes to alkenes, 1686
from alkenes, 1039
from reaction of aryl silanes with fluoride, 1686
hydroxylation of, 482
reaction with alkyl halides, reagents for, 534
reaction with base and aldehydes or ketones, 1200
reaction with bromo lactones, 535
reaction with radicals, 895
Silica gel, $NaIO_4$ and microwaves, 1589 (ref. 449)
Silicon, stabilization of carbanions, 231
Siloxy compounds, coupling with alkyl halides, 535
Silver benzoate, and Wolff rearrangement, 1405
Silver carboxylates, and dihydroxylation of alkenes, 1049
Silver cyanide, see cyanide
Silver ion, 339
Silver nitrate
and coupling of boranes, 939
reaction with N-chloroamines, 1416
Silver tetrafluoroborates, reaction with bicyclobutanes, 1460
Silyl enol ethers, see enol ethers
Silyl ketones, oxidative cleavage, 1521
Silyl-Wittig reaction, 1228
Silylalkyl, neighboring group effects, 419
Simmons-Smith reaction, 1088
and diethylzinc, 1089
and methylation of ketones, 1089
Simonini reaction, 942
Single electron transfer, see SET
Singlet carbenes, 252, 791, 1086
Singlet nitrenes, 253
Singlet oxygen
and autoxidation, 921
reaction with alkanes, 921
reaction with alkenes, 1055
reaction with hydrocarbons, 921
stereochemistry of reaction with alkenes, 922
Singlet state
and photochemistry, 308-309, 311, 316
and photolysis of 2,5-cyclohexadienones, 1461
of carbenes, 248
Small rings, and strain, 185
Small-angles strain, 180
Smiles rearrangement, 879
S_N1, see substitution, S_N1
S_N1', see substitution, S_N1'
S_N1cB, see substitution, S_N1cB
S_N2, see substitution, S_N2
S_N2', see substitution, S_N2'
S_Ni reactions, see substitution, S_Ni
S_Ni, see substitution, S_Ni
S_Ni', see substitution, S_Ni'
Snoutane, 1459
Sodium ammonium tartrate, 153
Sodium
amalgam, hydrogenolysis of sulfones, 549
and Birch reduction, 1010
and ethanol, for reduction of aldehydes or ketones, 1199
and pinacol coupling, 1560
and the Bamford-Stevens reactions, 1335

Sodium *(Continued)*
and the Wurtz reaction, 535
in alcohol, and reduction of amides, 1550
naphthalene, and elimination of disulfonate esters, 1340
reaction with **alkyl** halides, 535
reaction with **aryl** halides, 535
reaction with nitriles, **815**
Sodium arsenite, see arsenite
Sodium bis(2-methoxyethoxy)aluminum hydride, **see Red-Al**
Sodium borohydride, see borohydride
reduction of aldehydes or **ketones, 1197–1198**
Sodium cyanide, see cyanide
Sodium **cyanoborohydride,** see cyanoborohydride
hydrogenolysis of nitriles, 528
reaction of alkyl halides, 526
Sodium hydroxide, reaction with aryl sulfonic acids, 862
Sodium **hypobromite,** see **hypobromite**
Sodium hypochlorite, see hypochlorite
Sodium nitrite, see nitrite
Sodium peroxide, 492
and amide hydrolysis, 475
Sodium **phthalimide,** see **phthalimide**
Sodium sulfhydride, reaction with alkyl halides, 495
Sodium **sulfide,** reaction with alkyl halides, 497
Sodium **sulfite,** see **sulfites**
Sodium tetracarbonylferrate, see tetracarbonylferrate
Sodium **thiocyanate,** see thiocyanate
Soft acids, 338-32
Soft acids, definition, 340
Soft bases, 338-342
Soft bases, definition, 340
Softness, 341
absolute, 341
acids and bases, 340
Solid-phase, and the Dieckmann condensation, 570
Solid state reactions, the **Knoevenagel** reaction, 1226
Solid-phase synthesis, 509
Solvation rule, 450
Solvation
and acid-base strength, 349
and carbanions, 232
and nucleophilic strength, 443
and the Baker-Nathan effect, 72
and the S_N1 reaction, 393
Solvent effects
and charge transfer UV peaks, 453
and conformation, 170-171
and free energy, 452
and phase transfer catalysis, 454—456
and rate of reaction, **451**
and the Grunwald-Winstein equation, 452
and the transition state, 450
common-ion effect, **451**
in the **Diels-Alder** reaction, 1065
ionic strength and reactivity, **451**
ionizing power, 452
ionizing power, table, 453
on **ambident** nucleophiles, 461
on elimination reactions, **1321**
on ionization of tosylates, **451**
polarity and $E_T(30)$ values, 454
polarity and the Py scale, 454
salt effects, **451**
solvation rule, 450
with adamantyl compounds, 452
with radicals, 906
with the S_E1 reaction, 769
Y values, 452-453
Solvent isotope effects, 299
Solvent polarity
and $E_T(30)$ values, 454
and the Py scale, 454
Solvent-separated ion pairs, 398
Solvents
acid strength, 334-336
and **dialkylamides** bases, 349
and enolate anions, 548
and **regioselectivity** of **ketone** enolate anions, 554
and the Grunwald-Winstein relationship, 371
and the S_Ei reaction, 763
aprotic, 450
aprotic, and nucleophilic substitution, 441
β-hydroxy ethers, **481**
chiral and **NMR,** 156
dielectric effects, **algorithm,** 450
effects, on the Knoevenagel reaction, **1227**
for Grignard reagents, 806
for ketone enolate anions, 552
lyonium ions, 335
mixtures and nucleophilic substitution, 452
polarity and rate of **reaction,** 450
protic, 450
supercritical CO_2, 454
trifluoroacetic acid, **412**
Solvolysis
alkyl halides, 366
and ion pairs, 398
and neighboring group effects, **410**

and radiolabeled oxygen, 398
at bridgehead positions, 438
definition, 389
of adamantyl compounds, 433
of bicyclic systems, 1386
of cyclopropyl tosylate, 437
of neopentyl bromide, 1379
of neopentyl tosylate, 418
of norbornyl compounds, 414
of sec-butyl tosylate, 419
rates with alkyl halides, 432
substituent effects, 412-413
Sommelet reaction, 1536
Sommelet-Hauser rearrangement, 877, 1420, 1455
and the Stevens rearrangement, 1420
Sonn-Miller method, 534, 1024
Sorensen method, amino acid synthesis, 549
Soxhlet extractor, and the aldol reaction, 1220
Sp^2 hybridization, and radicals, 244
Sp^3 hybridization, and carbanions, 233
Sparteine
and RLi-RX coupling, 537
chiral additive with organolithium reagents, 1215
with organolithium reagents and epoxides, 546
Special salt effect, and ion pairs, 399
Specific acid catalysis, 337
Specific catalysis, 336-337
Specific rotation, 127
and concentration, 127
and optical purity, 155-156
and the wavelength of light, 127
Spectrophotometer, definition, 306
Spectroscopy
and carbocations, 219, 224, 710
and ester hydrolysis, 290
and the Hammett equation, 369
and the nitronium ion, 698
photoelectron, and carbocations, 224
Spherands, 106
Spin trapping, and radicals, 239
Spin-forbidden transitions, 209
Spiranes, and optical activity, 134
Spiropentanes, from carbene additions, 1086
Squalene 2,3-oxide, 1019
Squalene, 1019
Squaric acid, and aromaticity, 70
Squaric acid, pK_a, 70
$S_{RN}1$ mechanism, see substitution, $S_{RN}1$
$S_{RN}1$, see substitution
Stability
criteria for, carbanions, 229-232
of arenium ions, table, 679
of carbanions, by S, Si, and P, 231
of carbocations, 219-225, 1384
of diazonium salts, 816
of radicals, 241, 985
order, for carbanions, 228
order, for carbanions, 229
order, for carbocations, 219
thermodynamic, and double bond migration, 773
Stabilization, of Grignard reagents by ethers, 235
Stabilomer, 1396
Starands, 107
Statistical effects, and acid strength, 345-346
Staudinger reaction, 1555
Steady state approximation, 292
Stephen reduction, 1204
Stephens-Castro coupling, 868
Stereochemistry, 125-191
and 1,2 shifts, 1380
and 1,2-alkyl shifts, 1383
and carbanions, 233
and ester hydrolysis, 472
and ion pairs, 398-400
and mechanism, 290
and nonclassical ions, 409
and ozonolysis, 1524
and the S_Ni mechanism, 420
in the Diels-Alder reaction, 1064
in [1,3]- and [l,5]-alkyl sigmatropic rearrangements, 1441
of autoxidation of alkenes with singlet oxygen, 922
of carbene insertion with alkenes, 1087
of S_N1 reactions, 397
of S_N2 reactions, 142
of S_N2 with Walden inversion, 391
of S_N2' reactions, 422
of the SET mechanism and substitution, 403
Stereoelectronic control, and the tetrahedral mechanism, 427
Stereoelectronic effects
and radicals, 903
and the tetrahedral mechanism, 427
Stereogenic carbon, definition, 128
Stereogenic centers, 136
and Fischer projections, 137
more than one, 144-147
Stereoisomers, also see diastereomers
Stereoisomers, also see enantiomers
Stereoisomers
and chirality, 125-139
and cis/trans isomers, 157-160
and E2 elimination, 1301

Stereoisomers *(Continued)*
and enantiomer definition, **125**
and substituted cyclohexanes, **175**
diastereomers, 144-147
topological, catenanes, **114**
torsional diastereomers, 133
Stereoselective synthesis, 147-150, 166-167
Stereoselective synthesis, also see synthesis
Stereoselective, **definition, 166**
Stereoselectivity
and chiral auxiliaries, 149
and Cram's rule, 147-148
and the **Felkin-Ahn** model, 148
and the Wittig reaction, **1235**
in the **aldol** reaction, **1221**
Lindlar reduction of alkynes, 1004
of epoxide hydrolysis and **Co-salen catalysts,** 468
of hydride reduction of aldehydes and ketones, 1198
of Michael additions, 977
of radical addition to alkenes, 978
of radical hydrogen abstraction, 903
Stereospecific synthesis, 166-167
Stereospecific, definition, 166
Stereospecificity
bromine addition to alkenes, 973
electrocyclic rearrangements, 1427
Steric effects
and acid strength, 346
and base **strength,** 347
and elimination reactions, 1319
and radicals, 900
and structure, 365-368
B strain, 366
hindrance, see steric hindrance
I strain, 366
masochistic, 1080
quantitative treatment, 374
radical addition to alkenes, 985
Steric hindrance
and ester formation, 485
and ester hydrolysis, 470
and high pressure reactions, 458
and hydrogenation of alkynes, **1005**
and nucleophilic addition, **1174**
and nucleophilic strength, 444
definition, 365
Steric **inhibition,** of resonance, 699
Steric strain, see strain
Steroids, α/β nomenclature, 146
Stevens rearrangement, 878, 1419-1421, 1454
and sulfur **ylids,** 1420
and the **Sommelet-Hauser** rearrangement, 1420
labeling, 1419
Stieglitz rearrangement, 1416
Stilbenes, 288
photochemical isomerization, 391-320
photocyclization, 1436
Stille reaction, 931-932
and cine substitution, 932
Stobbe condensation, 1224
Stork **enamine** reaction, 787
and Michael reactions, 787
enantioselectivity, 788
regioselectivity, 787
synthesis, 555
Stork-Eschenmoser hypothesis, 1019
Story synthesis, 1355
Strain energy, **180**
calculation, 180
cyclotetradecane, 214
Strain
and bent bonds, 181
and betweenanenes, **186**
and bond length, **184**
and Bredt's rule, 188
and cleavage of **non-enolizable** ketones, **814**
and conformational transmission, 368
and electrophilic aromatic **substitution,** 690
and geared molecules, **189**
and heat of **atomization, 180**
and **NMR,** 181
and/) and *s* character, **181**
and cr-bond rearrangements, 1459
and substitution, 432-433
and twisted molecules, 19
angle, cyclobutane, 182
angle, cyclopropane, 181
B, 366
back, 366
conformations and reactivity, 366
eclipsing, and reactivity, 366
energy, cycloalkanes, **185–186**
for ring categories, **185**
I, 366
in fused ring benzene derivatives, 45
in organic molecules, 180-191
large-angle, 184
Pitzer, **184**
polycyclic small-ring systems, **182–183**
ring size and reactivity, 366
ring, and ester hydrolysis, 473
ring, and leaving groups, 446
rings other than 3 or 4, 184-186
small rings, 180-184

small-angle, 180
steric, 180
transannular, 184
twisted amides, 185
unavoidable crowding, 189
Strained molecules, by the Wurtz reaction, 536
Strecker synthesis, 1240
Strength, of nucleophiles, 439
Structure
and acid-base strength, 342-349
and field effects, 363
and reactivity, 368-375
and steric effects, 365-368
and the Hammett equation, 368
of enolate anions, 236-237
of organolithium reagents, 236
resonance effect, 363
Structures, Lewis, 12
Strychnine, and resolution, 151
Substituent effects
α-substitution, 435
and aryl radicals, 904
and electrophilic aromatic substitution, 683-684, 691
P-substitution, 436
P-unsaturation, 434
elimination reactions, 1319
hybridization, 433
in alkene metathesis, 1457
in the Claisen rearrangement, 1451
in the Diels-Alder reaction, 1067
inductive effects, 436
on S_N1 reactions, 433-435
on S_N2 reactions, 436
rate and the Diels-Alder reaction, 1065
Substitution nucleophilic bimolecular, see substitution, S_N2
Substitution nucleophilic internal, see substitution, S_Ni
Substitution nucleophilic unimolecular, see substitution, S_N1
Substitution reactions
and alkyne carbon, 433
and bromonium ions, 405
and chain reactions, 403
and entropy of activation, 404
and isotope effects, 299
and neighboring group participation, 407-420
and radicals, 402-404
and SET mechanism, 433
at vinyl carbon, 433
B strain, 432-433
branching effects, 431
competition with elimination, 1320
IUPAC rules, 382-383
reactivity, 431-462
substrate, 431-438
with aryl substrates, 433
Substitution
and anchimeric assistance, 404
and neighboring group mechanism, 404-407
benzyne, 854
Grignard reagents and aryl oxazolines, 868
nucleophilic, effect of nucleophile, 861
nucleophilic, intramolecular, 879
nucleophilic, leaving group effects, 860
nucleophilic, other mechanisms, 857
nucleophilic, substrate effects, 857
radical, 897-899
radical, and ipso substitution, 905
radical, mechanism of, 898
S_E1, 676
S_E1, and electrophilic aromatic substitution, 681
S_N1, and aromatic compounds, 853
S_NAr, 850-853
S_NAr, activating groups, 858
S_NAr, and Meisenheimer salts, 851
S_NAr, and the Hammett relationship, 859
S_NAr, base catalysis, 852
S_NAr, dimer mechanism, 852
S_NAr, isolation of intermediates, 851
S_NAr, isotope effects, 852
S_NAr, leaving group effects, 860
S_NAr, partitioning effect, 852
S_NAr, substrate effects, 857
$S_{ON}2$, 862
$S_{RN}1$, 855-856
$S_{RN}1$, and radicals, 856
$S_{RN}1$, and ultrasound, 856
vicarious nucleophilic substitution of H, 872
Substitution
at allylic carbon, 421–424
bimolecular, see S_N2
cine, and the benzyne mechanism, 854
cine, and the Stille reaction, 932
Substitution, electrophilic
and double bond shifts, 766
Substitution, electrophilic, aromatic, also see Friedel-Crafts acylation
Substitution, electrophilic, aromatic, also see Friedel-Crafts alkylation
Substitution, electrophilic
aromatic, activating groups, 681-684
alternant hydrocarbons, 690
and activation hardness, 692
and hardness, 692

Substitution, electrophilic *(Continued)*
and HSAB, 692
and **nitronium** ion, 680
and SET mechanism, 694
and strain, 690
and the Baker-Nathan **order,** 685
and the **Hammett** equation, 692
and the Hammond postulate, 681
and the ortho/para ratio, 685
arenium ion mechanism, 675-680
arenium ions, 676
arenium ions, isolation of, 678
benzenonium ions, 678
bromination, reagents for, 705
chlorination, 679
deactivating groups, 681-684
deuteration, reagents for, 696
deuterium exchange, 695
electrophiles, 692
encounter complexes, 680
encounter-complex, 694
estimating **isomer** distribution, **691**
field effects, 681
fluorination, reagents for, 707
Friedel-Crafts acylation, 712-714
Friedel-Crafts alkylation, **707–711**
Friedel-Crafts, see Friedel-Crafts
fused ring aromatics, 689-690
halogenation, reagents for, 705-706
heterocycles, 688
hydrogen exchange, 696
iodination, reagents for, 706
ipso **attack,** 686
ipso attack, migration, 687
ipso position, 686
isotope effects, 676
leaving group effects, 695
***meta-*, 681**
migration, 687
Mills-Nixon effect, 690
monosubstituted benzenes, 681-687
multiple substituents, 687
nitration, 679
nitration, reagents for, 697
nitronium ion, 697
on zeolites, 705
ortho effect, 688
***ortho-*, 681**
other ring systems, 688-690
π-complexes, 679
***para-*, 681**
partial rate factor, 685, 690
partition factor, 677
partitioning effect, 677
pentamethylbenzenonium ion, 678
polycyclic aromatics, 688-690
predicting product distributions, **691**
rate determining step, 694
rate of reaction, 688, 690
regioselectivity, 681-687
relative rates of substitution, 694
resonance effects, 681
resonance interaction, 682
cr-substitution, mechanism, 702
steric inhibition of resonance, 699
substituent effects, 683-684, 691
substrate reactivity, 690
sulfonation, and SO_3, 702
sulfonation, and sulfone side products, 702
sulfonation, mechanism, 702
the Hammett-Brown relationship, 693
the Herz reaction, 704
the S_Ri mechanism, 681
the selectivity relationship, 692
tritiation, reagents for, 696
tritium exchange, 696
Vilsmeier reaction, **715**
Wheland intermediates, 676
with iodine, 706
with nitrites, 705
Substitution
electrophilic, mechanism, 275
free radical, mechanism of, 896
mixed $S_Ni–S_N2$, 400-402
Substitution, nucleophilic
ambident substrates, 461
and ambident **nucleophiles,** 458-461
and aprotic solvents, 441
and bridgehead atoms, 437
and cryptands, 443
and high pressure, 457
and ***I*** strain, 437
and ionic strength of the medium, **451**
and microwave irradiation, 457
and phase transfer catalysis, 454-456
and reaction medium, 450-454
and solvent mixtures, 452
and solvent polarity, 450
and steric hindrance of nucleophiles, 444
and the Baker-Nathan order, 437
and the common-ion effect, **451**
and the salt effect, **451**
and the Swain-Scott equation, 444
and **ultrasound,** 456-458
at vinylic carbon, **428–431**
basicity and leaving group ability, 445

cyclic substrates, 437
effect of bridgeheads, 437
effect of deuterium, 438
influence of the nucleophile, 438-445
leaving group effects, 445-449
leaving groups, 434
leaving groups, order of leaving, 449
mechanism, 275, 424-428
nucleophilic strength, 439
nucleophilicity, 444
order of nucleophilic strength, 443
product spread, 421
reaction rate and anion size, 451
solvation rule, 450
solvent effects and nucleophilic strength, 443
substrate reactivity, 439
synthetic reactions, 440-441
tetrahedral mechanism and synthetic reactions, 442
the alpha effect, 445
types of transition states, 450
vicarious, 872
with allylic rearrangement, 421-424
Substitution, radical
allylic bromination, 911–913
allylic chlorination, 914
and iodine, 908
and racemization, 897
IUPAC nomenclature, 897
mechanism, 275
neighboring group effects, 899
on side chains of aromatic rings, 902
transition state, 897
with alkanes, rate of abstraction, 901
with hydrocarbons, reagents for, 908
Substitution, reaction type, 275—276
Substitution, S_E1, 763-767
and carbanions, 764
and electrofuges, 769
and ion pairs, 768
and racemization, 763-764
and solvent effects, 764
and tautomerization, 763
and the leaving group, 764
conducted tour mechanism, 766
effect of leaving groups, 768
effect of substrates, 768
isoinversion, 765
isoracemization, 765
isotopic exchange, 765
solvent effects, 769
Substitution, S_E2, 759-763
absolute configuration, 761
and bridgehead carbons, 761
and EDA complexes, 763
Substitution, S_E2', 760, 767
Substitution, S_Ei, 759-763
salt effects, 763
solvent effects, 763
Substitution, S_Ei', 767
Substitution, SET mechanism, 402-404
Substitution, S_N1', 423
Substitution, S_N1
and adamantyl compounds, 433
and ambident nucleophiles, 460
and bicyclic systems, 397
and branching effects, 432
and bridgehead carbons, 764
and carbocation stability, 395
and Markovnikov's rule, 984
and reactions of alcohols with $AlMe_3$, 544
and rearrangements, 1381
and the Hammett relationship, 436
and the Hammond postulate, 432
and trifluoroacetic acid as a solvent, 451
at vinylic carbon, 430
common ion effect, 395
cubyl cation and *ab initio* calculations, 397
effect of P-substitution, 436
effect on rate of P-unsaturation, 434
effects of α-substitution, 435
influence of inductive effects, 436
ion pairing, 397-400
IUPAC mechanistic description, 394
kinetic studies, 396
limiting, 394
mass law effect, 395
mechanism, 393-400
planar intermediates, 396
rate law, 394
reaction rates of alkyl tosylates, 434
salt effect, 395
solvation, 394
solvolysis rates for alkyl halides, 432
stereochemistry, 397
Substitution, S_N1cB, 448
Substitution, S_N2 vs. S_N2', 422
Substitution, S_N2', 422-424
and S_Ni, 422
and conjugate addition to alkenes, 980
stereochemistry, 422
with cuprates, 423
with cyclopropylmethyl halides, 423
with organocuprates, 540
with vinyl epoxides and organocuprates, 547

Substitution, S_N2
ab initio studies, 393
anchimeric assistance, 404
and ambident nucleophiles, 460
and backside attack, 390
and branching effects, 432
and electrophilic addition to alkenes, 972
and enolate anion alkylations, SSO
and epoxides, 461
and $LiAlH_4$ reduction of epoxides, 529
and Marcus theory, 287
and mass spectrometry, 392
and organocuprate reactions, 539—540
and stereochemistry, 142
and the Finkelstein reaction, 517
and the Hammond postulate, 285
and the Menshutkin reaction, 393
and the nucleophile, 438-443
and Walden inversion, 391
crossover experiments, 393
effect of a- or P-substituents, 436
intermediate mechanism, 401
internal, 406
internal, epoxides from, 478
kinetics, 390
mechanism, 390-393
neighboring group mechanism, 404
participation by dioxane solvent, 402
pseudo-first order kinetics, 390
rate expression, 390
rate of reaction for alkyl substrates, 432
transition state, 390
Substitution, S_Ni', 422-423
Substitution, S_Ni
and formation of gem-dichlorides, 1196
IUPAC nomenclature, 420
mechanism, 420
stereochemistry, 420
Substitution, $S_{RN}1$, and vinylic halides, 431
Substitution, vinyl, 428-431
element effect, 429
elimination-addition, 430
Substitution-elimination, of benzylic halides, 1543
Substrate effects
branching, 431
on substitution, 431–438
Substrate factor, in the Swain-Scott equation, 444
Substrates
ambident, 461
and mechanism, 274
effect on S_E1 reactions, 768
reactivity toward nucleophilic substitution, 439
Succinimidyl radical, 913
Sugars, see carbohydrates
Sugars, and ring-chain tautomerism, 77
Sulfates
from 1,2-diols, 462
ring opening, 462
Sulfenamilides, reaction with alkenes, 1058
Snlfene intermediates, 575
Sulfene, and elimination of sulfonyl halides, 1338
Sulfenyl chloride, aryl, reaction with aromatic compounds, 704
Sulfenylation
of amides, 783
of esters, 783
of ketones, 783
Sulfides, see thioethers
Sulfides, epi, reaction with acyl halides, 521
Sulfinates, alkyl, as side products, 498
Sulfinic acid salts, reaction with alkyl halides, 498
Sulfinic acids
from sulfonyl chloride, 577
reaction with ethers, 494
Sulfite, sodium reduction of diazonium salts, 1556
Sulfolene
and Diels-Alder reactions, 1066
thermolysis of, 1066
Sulfonamides
acyl, reduction of, 1550
and protection of amines, 577
from acyl sulfonamides, 1687
from alkenes, 1687
from alkyl halides, 514
from amines, 1687
from ammonia, 1687
from aryl nitro compounds, 1687
from boranes, 1687
from halo sulfonamides, 1687
from sulfonamides, 1687
from sulfonyl azides, 1555, 1687
from sulfonyl chlorides, 576
from sulfonyl halides, 1687
hydrolysis, 576
reaction with alcohols, 576
Sulfonate esters, see esters, sulfonate
Sulfonation
of aromatic rings, 702
of naphthalene, 682
Sulfones
allyl vinyl, and thio-Claisen rearrangement, 1452
anions, reaction with alkyl halides, 555
aryl, and the Smiles rearrangement, 879
aryl, reaction with hydroxide, 879
as side products or aromatic sulfonation, 702

bonding, 45
by Michael addition, 1687
by the Knoevenagel condensation, 1687
conjugated, reaction with organocuprates, 1028
conjugated, reduction with aluminum amalgam, 1206
coupling with organolithium reagents, 544
cyclic, extrusion of SO_2, 1354-1355
cyclic, pyrolysis, 1354-1355
diaryl, from aromatic compounds, 704
elimination with base, 1336
Sulfones
from aldehydes, 1687
from alkenes, 1687
from alkyl halides, 498, 499, 1687
from aromatic compounds, 1687
from aryl halides, 1687
from aryl nitro compounds, 1687
from boranes, 1687
from esters, 1687
from halo sulfones, 1687
from ketones, 1687
from organometallic compounds, 1687
from sulfinate ions, 1687
from sulfinates, 1687
from sulfones, 1687
from sulfonic acid derivatives, 1687
from sulfonyl chlorides, 577-578
from sulfonyl halides, 1687
from sulfoxides, 1541, 1687
from thioethers, 1687
Sulfones, halo
and the Ramberg-Bäcklund reaction, 1341
elimination with base, 1341
from alkenes, 1045
from sulfonyl halides, 1045
Sulfones
halogenation of, 778
phenyl vinyl, in the Diels-Alder reaction, 1062
reaction with NBS or NCS, 778
reaction with RLi and Pd, for elimination, 1336
Sulfonic acid esters, hydrolysis, 465
Sulfonic acids
and sulfonyl chlorides, 575
aryl, by the Jacobsen reaction, 734
aryl, from aromatic compounds, 702, 734
aryl, heating with sulfuric acid, 734-735
aryl, reaction with hydroxide, 862
by the Jacobsen rearrangement, 1687
from aromatic compounds, 1687
from aryl halides, 1688
from disulfides, 1540
from sulfonamides, 576
from sulfonate esters, 575
from sulfonation with rearrangement, 1687
from sulfones, 1540
from sulfonic acid derivatives, 1687
from sulfonic anhydrides, 575
from sulfoxides, 1540
from sulfur compounds, 1688
from thiols, 1540, 1688
reaction with orthoformates, 576
reaction with PCl_5, 577
reaction with thionyl chloride, 577
salts, reaction with thionyl chloride, 944
Sulfonic anhydrides, hydrolysis of, 575
Sulfonium compounds, elimination reactions, 1336
Sulfonium salts
from alkyl halides, 497
reaction with base, 1420
Sulfonyl anions, 574-575
Sulfonyl chlorides
aryl, from aromatic compounds, 703
aryl, from aryl diazonium salts, 937
by the Reed reaction, 924
from hydrocarbons, 924
hydrolysis of, 575
reaction with alcohols, 576
reaction with amides, 576
reaction with amines, 577
reaction with ammonia, 576
reaction with aromatic compounds, 704
reactions with Grignard reagents, 577-578
reduction with zinc, 577
Sulfonyl fluorides, reaction with aromatic compounds, 704
Sulfonyl halides, see halides, sulfonyl
Sulfonyl hydrazides, reaction with halogenation agents, 577
Sulfonyl sulfur, nucleophilic strength, 575
Sulfonylation, of aromatic compounds, 704
Sulfonylhydrazides, acyl, reduction to aldehydes, 534
Sulfoxides
alkene, and Mislow-Evans rearrangement, 1455
alkene, thermolysis, 1455
and the Pummerer rearrangement, 1566
bonding, 45
by the Knoevenagel condensation, 1688
diaryl, as side products, 704
elimination with base, 1336
from aldehydes, 1688
from alkenes with O_2 and RSH, 1688
from aromatic compounds, 1688
from esters, 1688

Sulfoxides *(Continued)*
from Grignard reagents, 1688
from ketones, 1688
from **methysulfinyl** anion, 1688
from organometallic compounds, 1688
from **sulfinic** esters, 1688
from sulfoxides, 1688
from thioethers, 1688
from thiols, 1541
from thionyl chloride, 1688
from unsaturated sulfoxides, 1688
indirectly from sulfones, 1688
pyrolysis of, 1336
reaction with acetic anhydride, 1566
reduction of, 1557
reduction with $LiAlH_4$, 1557
Sulfoximine-titanium reagents, 1240
Sulfur dichloride, reaction with aromatic compounds, 703
Sulfur dioxide
as a solvent, 396, 450
extrusion from cyclic sulfones, 1354-1355
reaction with **aryl** diazonium salts, 937
reaction with hydrocarbons and chlorine, 924
solvent for oxidative cleavage of ketones, 1522
Sulfur **hexafluoride,** and valence electrons, 13
Sulfur nucleophiles, reaction with aryl halides, 863
Sulfur trioxide
and aromatic sulfonation, 702
and DMSO, for oxidation of alcohols, 1516
reaction with alcohols, 493
reaction with trihalomethanes, 464
Sulfur **ylids,** see **ylids,** sulfur
Sulfur
and **aromatization,** 1511
and ring closing reaction, 704
reaction with diazoalkanes, 1248
reaction with Grignard reagents, 797
stabilization of carbanions, 231
Sulfuric acid
anhydrides, 494
cleavage of ethers, 465
reaction with aromatic compounds, 702
reaction with aryl aldehydes, 732
reaction with aryl sulfonic acids, 734-735
valence electrons, 12
Sulfurization, of aromatic compounds, the Herz reaction, 704
Sulfuryl chloride, reaction with Grignard reagents, 797
Super acids, also see acids
Super acids, 219, 328
and carbocation stability, 219
and cleavage of hydrocarbons, 814
and electrocyclic rearrangements, 1435
and H-D exchange, 770
reaction with hydrocarbons, 787
Super-aromaticity, 66
Supercritical CO_2
and **Diels-Alder** reactions, 1066
as a solvent, 454
Superimposability, and chirality, 125
Suprafacial addition, in **Diels-Alder** reactions, 1072
Suprafacial migration, [1,5]-H sigmatropic **rearrangement,** 1437
Suprafacial process, 1342
Suzuki coupling, 868
Suzuki-type coupling, 938
Swain-Scott equation, 444
and Marcus theory, 444
Swern oxidation, 1516
Symmetry, planes, and optical activity, 127-128
Symmetry-forbidden transitions, 209
Symproportionation, and addition of alkanes to alkenes, 1017
Syn nomenclature, 147
Syn-anti dichotomy, in the E2 reaction, 1304
Syn-periplanar conformation, 169
Syn/anti diastereomers, in the **aldol** reaction, 1221
Synclinal conformation, 169
Syndones, and **aromaticity,** 70
Synthesis
acetoacetic ester, 549
and chiral auxiliaries, 149
and Cram's rule, 147–148
and the **Felkin-Ahn** model, 148
and the Wittig reaction, 1236
Arndt-Eistert, 1405-1407
asymmetric, and enantiomeric composition, 143
asymmetric, and the chiral pool, 147
asymmetric, general principles, 147-150
chiral catalysts and solvents, 150
cyanoacetic, 549
double asymmetric, 150
double-asymmetric, and hydroboration, 1015
Fisher indole, 1452-1453
malonic ester, 549
of peptides, 509
Sorensen method, 549
stereoselective, 147-150, 166-167
stereospecific, 166-167
Synthetic reactions
nucleophilic substitution, 440-441
by tetrahedral mechanism, 442
Synthon, definition, 556

2^n rule, 145
T states, see triplet states
Tamao-Fleming oxidation, 482
Tandem vicinal difunctionalization, 1028
Tartaric acid
  and diastereomers, 145
  and mechanical separation, 153
Tartrate, and Sharpless asymmetric epoxidation, 1053
Tautomerism, 73-77
  and aliphatic nitro compounds, 76
  and hydropyridines, 76
  and isotope effects, 298
  and pyridine thiols, 76
  and pyridones, 76
  and the S_E1 reaction, 763
  azo compounds to hydrazones, 778
  enamine-imine, 1000
  enol content of carbonyl compounds, 74
  imine-enamine, 77, 1000
  in sugars, 77
  keto-enol, 73-75, 773-775, 976
  keto-enol, and decarboxylation of glycidic acids, 809
  keto-enol, and enolate anions, 775
  keto-enol, and equilibration, 774
  keto-enol, and hydration of allenes, 996
  keto-enol, and isomerization, 774
  keto-enol, and labeling, 775
  keto-enol, and racemization, 774
  keto-enol, catalysis by acids and bases, 774
  nitroso-oxime, 76
  oxime-nitroso, 1463
  phenol-keto, 75-76
  proton-shift, 75-77
  ring chain, 77
  valence, 77
  valence and 1,2,3-tri-*t*-butylcyclobutadiene, 1449
  valence, and Cope rearrangement, 1447
Tautomerization, see tautomerism
Tautomers, of bullvalene, 1448
TEBA, and oxidative cleavage of aryl nitriles, 1530
Tebbe alkenylation, 1237-1238
Tebbe's reagent, 1238
Telomers, from radical addition to alkenes, 978
Temperature
  and bond rotation, 295
  and entropy, 278
Templates, chiral, and conjugate additions, 1029
TEMPO-NCS, and oxidation of alcohols, 1515
Termolecular addition, with alkenes, 972
Terpenes, and Wagner-Meerwein rearrangements, 1393
Terpinene, reaction with oxygen, 1055
Tervalent atoms, and chirality, 129
Test
  Baeyer, for alkenes, 1049
  for alkyl halides, 494
  for amines, Hinsberg test, 576
  from primary amines, 506
tet, and Baldwin's rules, 283-284
Tetra-*t*-butyltetrahedrane, 1354
Tetraacetate, lead, see lead tetraacetate
[2,2]-tetrabenzoparacyclophane, bond distances, 19
1,1,2,2-Tetrabromoethane, 170
Tetracarbonylferrate
  disodium, and the Tishchenko reaction, 1566
  reaction with alkyl halides, 562
  reaction with carbon monoxide, 563
  reaction with halogen, 565
  reagents for alkylation of, 563
1,1,2,2-Tetrachloroethane, 170
2,3,5,6-Tetrachloro-1,4-benzoquinone, 1511
Tetracyclohexanes, 182-183
Tetraesteranes, 183
1,1,2,2-Tetrafluoroethane, 170
Tetraglyme, and the Chapman rearrangement, 1464
Tetrahedral mechanism, 424-428, 434
Tetrahedral mechanism
  and ester hydrolysis, 425
  and nucleophilic addition to carbonyls, 1173
  and SET, 424
  and stereoelectronic control, 427
  and stereoelectronic effects, 427
  and substitution at vinyl carbon, 428
  catalysis, 427
  kinetics, 425
  reaction of Grignard reagents and acyl halides, 567
  synthetic reactions, 442
Tetrahedranes, 182-183
Tetrahydrofuran
  cleavage, 490
  conformation, 178
  derivatives, for alcohols, 919
Tetrahydrothiophene S-oxide, conformation, 178
Tetrakis-triphenylphosphinopalladium, 496
Tetrakis-triphenylphosphinopalladium, see palladium catalysts
1,1,4,4-Tetramethyl-7-cyclodecyltrimethylammonium chloride, 1304
1,1,4,4-Tetramethylcyclodecyl bromide, 1306

3,3,7,7-Tetramethylcycloheptyne, 187
tf.tf.A^tf'-Tetiamemylemylenediarnine, 236
Tetramethylbutane, formal steric enthalpy, **190**
Tetramethylcyclodecenes, 1304
Tetramethylcyclooctatetraene dication, and aromaticity, 54
Tetramethylthiourea, reaction with alcohols and **alkyl** halides, 496
Tetramethyltin, reaction with **aryl** diazonium salts, 937
Tetrapropylammonium perruthenate, see TPAP
Thallium (HI) acetate, and reaction of amines with alkenes, 1056
Thermochemistry
of **3-sulfolene,** 1066
of acylazides, 1412
of alkene sulfoxides, 1455
of alkoxides, **811**
of alkylboranes, 1409
of **amine** oxides, 1420
of aryl diazonium **tetrafluoroborates,** 875
of aziridines, 1061
of bicyclic ketones, 1347
of carboxylic acids, 808, 1327'
of diazo ketones, **1250**
of episulfones, 1248
of **imino** esters, 1464
Thermodynamic acidity, 228
Thermodynamic stability, and the Wittig reaction, 1235
Thermodynamics
and reactions, 277-278
kinetic vs. thermodynamic control, 284-285
Thexylborane, 1012
THF, complex with borane, **1014**
Thiazoles, conversion to aldehydes, 559
Thiazolium salts, catalysts for the benzoin condensation, 1243
Thiiranes, from alkenes, 1054
Thiiranium ions, and **amino sulfenylation,** 1058
Thio esters
from aromatic compounds, 722
reduction to thioethers, **1550**
Thio-Claisen rearrangement, **1452**
Thioacetals, hydrolysis, 467
Thioacids
from **acyl** halides, 497
reagents for preparation, 498
Thioaldehydes
conversion to **thioamides,** 925
from aldehydes, **1184**
Thioalkyl ketones, **from** ketones, 783
Thioalkylation, of phenols, 722
Thioamides
and **cis/trans isomers,** 158-159
from amides, **1184**
from amines, 1688
from **ammonia,** 1688
from aromatic compounds, **719, 1688**
from isothiocyanates, **1218,** 1688
from ketones, 1688
from thioaldehydes, 925
from thioaldehydes generated in situ, 1688
Thiobenzophenone, reaction with phenyllithium, 1172
Thiocarbamates
from alcohols, 1688
from hydrolysis of **thiocyanates,** 1688
from isothiocyanates, **1183, 1688**
from thiocyanates, **1179**
Thiocarbonates, hydrogenolysis of, 527
Thiocarbonyl **ylids,** as **1,3-dipoles,** 1061
Thiocyanates
by **Katritzky** pyrylium-pyridinium method, 499
from acyl peroxides, **1689**
from alkenes, 1689
from alkyl halides, 499, 1688
from amines, 499
from aryl halides, 1688
from diazonium salts, **1689**
hydrolysis of, 1179
reaction with alkyl halides, 499
reaction with aromatic compounds, 722
reaction with epoxides and **ceric** ammonium nitrate, 1248
Thioesters
and HSAB theory, **341**
from acyl halides, 497
from alkyl halides, 565
from esters, **1184**
reduction, 533
reduction to thioethers, 1550
Thioethers
and the Zinin reduction, 1553
aryl, from aromatic compounds, 703
aryl, from aryl diazonium salts, 874
aryl, from aryl halides, 863
by the heteroatom **Diels Alder** reaction, **1689**
by the Stevens rearrangement, 1689
cleavage with lithium naphthalenide, 941
from alcohols, 496
from alkenes, 998, 1689
from alkyl halides, 494, 496, **1689**
from amides, **1689**
from aromatic **compounds,** 1689
from aryl halides, **1689**

from **diazonium** salts, 1689
from **disulfides,** 1689
from **dithioacetals,** 1689
from enolate anions, 783
from esters, 1689
from Grignard reagents, 797, 1689
from ketones, 783, 1689
from phenols, 722
from rearrangement of **sulfonium** salts, 1689
from rearrangements of sulfur **ylids,** 1689
from sulfenyl chlorides, 1689
from sulfones, 1689
from sulfonium salts, 1420
from sulfoxides, 1557, 1689
from sulfur, 1689
from thioaldehydes, 1689
from thioethers, 1689
from thioketones, 1689
from **thiol** esters, 1550, 1689
from thiolate ions, 1689
from thiols, 494, 998, 1689
halo, and the Ramberg-Bäcklund reaction, 1343
hydrogenolysis, reagents for, **531**
methylthiomethyl phenols, 722
oxidation of, 1541
reaction with **alkyl** halides, 497
reaction with $LiAlH_4$, **531**
reduction, 940
vinyl, see vinyl **sulfides**
Thioformamides, from isothiocyanates, 1203
Thiohydroxamic esters, radical dimerization, 942
Thioketenes, reaction with **imines,** 1250
Thioketones
from ketones, **1184**
in **Diels-Alder** reactions, **1075**
intermediate in **episufide** formation, 1248
reaction with diazoalkanes, 1248
Thiol esters, from **acyl** halides, 483
Thiol, anions, reaction with **aryl** halides, 863
β-Thiolactams, from thioketones and imines, 1250
Thiolate ions
and demethylation of ethers, 496
reaction with alkyl halides, 496
Thiols
by the Herz reaction, 1689
cleavage of esters and lactones, 496
coupling with peroxides, 1543
from alcohols, 496
from alkenes, 1689
from alkyl halides, 1689
from aromatic compounds, 1689
from aryl halides, 1689
from cleavage of **isothiuronium** salts, 1689
from diazonium salts, 1689
from disulfides, 1559, 1690
from dithiocarboxylic acids, **1215,** 1690
from Grignard reagents, 797, 1689
from hydrolysis of thiol esters, 1689
from Lawesson's reagent, 496
from organocuprates, 1215, 1690
from sulfonic acids, 1690
from sulfonyl halides, 1556, 1690
from sulfur, 1689
hydrogenolysis, reagents for, **531**
oxidation of, 1540
radical addition to **norbornene,** 1390
reaction with acyl halides, 497
reaction with aldehydes, **1181**
reaction with alkenes, 998
reaction with alkyl halides, 495
reaction with epoxides, 481
reaction with ketones, **1182**
reaction with ketones or aldehydes, **1185**
reaction with $LiAlH_4$, **531**
reduction, 940
Thiono ethers, reduction of, 529
Thionocarbonates
cyclic, pyrolysis of, **1340**
from thiophosgene and **diols,** 1340
Thionolactones, reaction with butyllithium, 1215
Thionyl chloride
and dehydration of keto **oximes, 1349**
reaction with 2-buten-**1-ol,** 422
reaction with 3-buten-2-ol, 422
reaction with alcohols, 493, 518
reaction with alkyl sulfonic aids, 944
reaction with aromatic compounds, 703
reaction with carboxylic acids, 523
reaction with malic acid, **391**
reaction with sulfonic acids, 577
Thiophenes
alkylation of, **531**
and aromaticity, **51**
desulfurization, **531**
desulfurization, to alkenes, **531**
electrophilic aromatic substitution, 688
hydrogenation of, 941
resonance energy, **51**
Thiophenols
from aryl diazonium salts, 875
from aryl halides, 863
Thiophosgene
reaction with amines, 507
reaction with diols, 1340

Thioureas
from amines and CS_2, 1192
from isothiocyanates, 1191
reaction with alkyl halides, 495
Third order reactions, 291
Thorium oxide, reaction with carboxylic acids, 573
Thorpe reaction, 1219, 1238
intramolecular, 1238
Thorpe-Ziegler reaction, 1239
Three-center hydrogen bonds, 99-100
Threo diastereomers, from electrophilic addition to alkenes, 971
Threo nomenclature, 146-147
Tiffeneau-Demyanov rearrangement, 1399
Tiffeneau-Demyanov ring expansion, 1399
Tight ion pairs, 398
Tin chloride, and the Stephen reduction, 1204
Tishchenko reaction, 1565
Titanium ($TiCl_3$/Li/THF), and reduction of amines, 1548
Titanium cyclopentadienide, 1238
Titanium reagent, low valent, and McMurry coupling, 1561
Titanium tetrachloride
and rearrangement of hydroxy ketones, 1398
and the Simmons-Smith reaction, 1088
in the Mukaiyama aldol reaction, 1223
Titanium tetraisopropoxide, and Sharpless asymmetric epoxidation, 1053
Titanium trichloride, in coupling reactions of alcohols, 544
Titanocene dichloride
and reduction of epoxides, 1552
and reduction of esters, 1552
TMEDA, see
tetramethyl(*N*,*N*,*N*′,*N*′)ethylenediamine
Tolanes, from dibromotoluenes, 1543
Tollens' reaction, 1219, 1230
p-Toluenesulfonate, leaving group, 446
Toluene
chlorination and the ortho/para ratio, 685
dipole moment, 16
electrophilic aromatic substitution, product distributions, 693
nitration and the ortho/para ratio, 686
oxidation of, 1527
Topological stereoisomers, and catenanes, 114
Torquoselectivity, 1120 (ref. 537)
Torsion angle and conformation, 168
Torsional diastereomers, 133
Tosyl azide
reaction with active methylene compounds, 780
reaction with organolithium reactions, 799
Tosyl cyanide, reaction with enolate anions, 786
Tosylates,
alkyl, S_N1 reaction rates, 434
di-, elimination reactions, 1340
ionization and solvent effects, 451
leaving group, 446
reaction with $LiAlH_4$, 526
Tosylhydrazide, reaction with alkyl halides, 499
Tosylhydrazones
and the Bamford-Stevens reaction, 1335
and the Knoevenagel reaction, 1227
and the Shapiro reaction, 1334
elimination reactions, 1334
reaction with Na and ethylene glycol, 1335
reaction with organolithium reagents, 1334
reduction of, 1548
Tosylmethylisocyanide, and the Knoevenagel reaction, 1226
TPAP, oxidation of alcohols, 1515
Trans isomers, 156-153
Transacetalation, 1181
Transamidation, 503, 512
Transamination, 503
Transannular interactions, 184
Transannular rearrangements, 1388
Transannular rearrangements, in radicals, 1392
Transannular stain, 184
Transesterification, 486
and Montmorillonite K10 clay, 486
and phase transfer catalysis, 487
enzymatic, 487
of lactones, 487
reagents for, 486
Transetherification, 480
and alkoxytrimethylsilanes, 481
of acetals, 480
of ethers, 480
of ortho esters, 480
Transfer hydrogenation, 1008
Transformations, IUPAC nomenclature, 382
Transition states
amide hydrolysis, 365
and activated complexes, 279
and equilibria, 279
and kinetics, 279
and solvent effects, 450
and the Hammond postulate, 285
for E2 reactions, 1300
for free radical substitution, 897
for Meerwein-Ponndorf-Verley reduction, 1199
for S_N2 reactions, 390
for the Cope rearrangement, 1446

radicals, *ab initio*, 900
types, 450
Transmetallation
and higher order cuprates, 804
and Markovnikov's rule, 803
and metallocenes, 803
and organocuprates, 803
of organometallic compounds, 803-804
Transoid conformation, of dienes, and the Diels-Alder reaction, 1063
Tri(pentafluorophenyl)methane, pK_a, 343
Tri-2-norbornylcarbinol, 1422
Tri-sec-butylborohydride, reduction of aldehydes and ketones, 1198
2,4-tri-*t*-butylbenzene, 189
1,2,3-tri-*t*-butylcyclobutadiene, valence tautomerism, 1449
1,2,4-tri-*t*-butylbenzene, 1433
1,2,5-tri-*t*-butyl[2.2.0]hexadiene, 1433
Tri-*t*-butylamine, 190
Tri-*t*-butylcarbinol, 190
Tri-*t*-butylmethane, formal steric enthalpy, 190
Triacylamines, from acyl halides, 507
Triarylmethyl cations, 225
Triarylmethyl radicals, 242
Triazenes
aryl, from diazonium coupling, 700
from amines and diazonium salts, 1690
from aromatic amines and diazonium salts, 1690
from trimerization of nitriles, 1246
Triazoles, from alkynes and azides, 1061
Triazolines
and extrusion reactions, 1353
from alkenes and azides, 1059
from azide addition to alkenes, 1057
photolysis of, 1057
Tribromomethane, see bromoform
Tributyltin hydride
and radical cyclization, 1040
and radical cyclization of dialdehydes, 1561
and radical cyclization to C=N and C=O, 1244
and the Barton-McCombie reaction, 528
reaction with radicals, 895
Tributyltin oxide, and hydrolysis of alkyl halides, 463
Trications, 222
Trications, also see carbocations
2,2,2-Trichloroacetimidate, in esterification reactions, 486
Trichloroacetic acid, thermodynamic ionization values, 350
Trichloroacetonitrile, reaction with aromatic compounds, 722-723
Trichloroamine, and electrophilic aromatic substitution, 701
Trichloromethane, see chloroform
Trichloropropene, reaction with bromine radical, 1391
Tricyanomethane, pK_a, 344
Tricyanomethyl radicals, 242
Tricyclic compounds, out-in isomers, 163
Tricyclobutanes, 183
Tricyclohexylcarbinol, 1422
Tricyclooctanes, 183
Tricyclopentanes, 183
Tricyclo[4.2.0.$0^{2,5}$]octa-3,7-diene, 1434
1,3,5-Trienes, and Cope rearrangement, 1445
Trienes
by the Ramberg-Bäcklund reaction, 1342
photolysis of, 1426
Triethyl phosphite, reaction with epoxides, 1341
Triethylbenzylammonium chloride, see TEBA
Triethylborohydride, see lithium triethylborohydride
Triethylcarboxide, lithium, 1423
Triethylsilane, reaction with radicals, 895
Triflates
and the Heck reaction, 930
aryl, reaction with boronic acids, 868
aryl, reaction with zinc cyanide, 724
leaving group, 446
vinyl, and the Stille reaction, 931
vinyl, reaction with vinyltin compounds, 931
Triflic anhydride
and the Ritter reaction, 1245
reaction with alcohols, 493
1,1,1-Trifluoroethanol, as a solvent, 451
2,2,2-Trifluoroethanesulfonate, leaving group, 446
Trifluoroacetic acid, as a solvent, 412,451
Trifluoroacetic anhydride
and DMSO, for oxidation of alcohols, 1516
dehydrating agent, 491
Trifluoroacetyl anilines, hydrolysis, 475
Trifluoromethanesulfonate
leaving group, 446
anhydride, see triflic anhydride
Trifluoroperoxyacetic acid
reaction with aromatic compounds, 724
trig, and Baldwin's rules, 283-284
Trigonal carbon, and the tetrahedral mechanism, 424
Trigonal molecules
diastereotopic atoms, 166
enantiotopic atoms, 166

1,1,1-Trihalides, hydrolysis of, 463
Triketones, from **diketones,** 572
Trimerization
of aldehydes, 1245
of alkynes, 1090
of dienes, 1091
of nitriles, 1246
Trimethyl phosphite, reaction with cyclic thionocarbonates, 1340
2,2,3-Trimethyl-2-butyl cation, 419
2,4,6-Trimethylbenzoic acid, see **mesitoic** acid
Trimethylaluminum
reaction with alcohols, 544
reaction with aldehydes or **ketones,** 1210
reaction with carboxylic acids, 1214
reaction with esters, 567
reaction with ketones, 1214
Trimethylamine oxide, bonding, **13**
Trimethylamine, and base strength, 349
Trimethylenemethane diradical, 244
Trimethyloxonium **tetrafluoroborate,** reaction with amides, **488**
Trimethylsilyl azide, reaction with aromatic compounds, **701**
Trimethylsilyl cyanide
and the Strecker synthesis, **1240**
reaction with aldehydes or ketones, **1240**
reaction with oxetanes, 506
Trimethylsilylmethyl potassium, 791
2-Trimethylsilylmethyl-2-propen-1-yl acetate, 1076
Trinitrophenol, **2,4,6-trinitro,** see picric acid
Trioxane, 1245
1,2,3-Trioxolane, from ozonolysis of alkenes, 1523
1,2,4-Trioxolane, see ozonide
Triphase catalysts, 456
Triphenylchloromethane, **ionization,** 222
Triphenylene, and aromaticity, 50
Triphenylmethane, pKa, 343
Triphenylmethyl
cation, 222
radical, stability of, 905
radicals, 241
Triphenylphosphine **dibromide,** reaction with **amino** alcohols, 502
Triphenylphosphine oxide, 1234
Triphenylphosphine
and dehydration of alcohols, 1327
and elimination of halo **acyl** halides, **1344**
and reduction of sulfonyl halides, 1557
and the Staudinger reaction, 1555
reaction with **alkyl** halides, 1233
reaction with CBr_4 and alcohols, **519**
reaction with epoxides, 1341
reduction of **amine** oxides, 1557
reduction of azoxy compound, 1557
reduction **of** hydroperoxides, 1558
reduction of nitro compound, 1563
Triphenylphosphite, reaction with aldehydes and bromine, 1196
Triple-decker sandwiches, see metallocenes
Triplet carbenes, 252, 791
Triplet nitrenes, 253
Triplet sensitizer, and aldehyde addition to alkenes, 1034
Triplet states
and photochemistry, 308-309, **311,** 316
and photolysis of **2,5-cyclohexadienones,** 1461
and radicals, 245
of carbenes, 248
Triptycenes, 189, 1063
Tris(diethylamino)phosphine, 1355
Tris-(4-bromophenyl)ammonium **hexafluoroantimonate,** 1444
1-Trishomobarrelyl cation, 224-225
Tris[3-trifluoroacetyl-*d*-camphorato]europium(III), 156
Trithiane, **1184**
Tritiation, of aromatic rings, reagents for, 696
Tritium exchange, and electrophilic aromatic substitution, 696
Tritium, labeling in alkynes, 430
Trger's base, 130
Tropolones, aromatic character, 53
Tropone, aromatic character, 53
Tropylium ion
and aromaticity, 53
and Friedel-Crafts alkylation, **711**
NMR, 70
Truxillic acid, a-, and chirality, **128**
Tub conformation, 57, 135
Tungsten halides, and elimination of dialkoxides, 1340
Twist conformation, **172**
Twistane, and conformation, 172
Twisted carbocations, 1387

Udenfriend's reagent, **916**
Ugi four component reaction, **1252**
Ugi reaction, **1252**
Ullman reaction
and the Wurtz reaction, **871**
reagents for, **871**
Ullmann ether synthesis, 863
Ullmann reaction, 870
and activating groups, 871

Ultrasound
and Al(Hg), for reduction of nitro compounds, 1552
and alkylation, 477
and azide formation, 515
and cavitation, 456
and chemical reactivity, 456-458
and coupling acyl halides, 568
and dehalogenation of aryl halides, 735
and formation of acyl cyanides, 573
and formation of carbenes, 789
and heteroatom Diels-Alder reactions, 1075
and nucleophilic substitution, 456-458
and oxidant of alcohols, 1515
and oxidation of ketones, 1531
and pinacol synthesis, 1560
and reactions of cyanide and alkyl halides, 562
and $S_{RN}1$ reactions, 856
and the Reformatsky reaction, 1212
and the Simmons-Smith reaction, 1088
Umpolung, and acyl anions, 553
Undecacycloeicosanes, 183
ungerade, and photochemistry, 309
Urea
and inclusion compounds, 109
and quadropole echo spectroscopy, 110
and resolution, 151
reaction with ammonium salts, 512
reaction with diesters, 514
Wöhler's synthesis, 1191
Ureas
and the Hofmann rearrangement, 1411
from amines, 1191
from amines and CO_2, 1192
from Hofmann rearrangement, 1411
from isocyanates, 1191
UV light
and dienes, 310
and electrocyclic rearrangements, 1426
and photochemistry, 306
and the Fries rearrangement, 727
UV spectra
benzene derivatives, 311
cyclopropane, 181

Valance bond
bond order, and Birch reduction, 1011
isomers, 160, 1084
method, 4–5
Valence electrons, see electrons, valence
Valence tautomerism, see tautomerism
Valence tautomerism, and Cope rearrangement, 1447
Valence, multiple, 6
Valence, of, 2,3-tri-*t*-butylcyclobutadiene, 1449
Van der Waals forces, 98
Van der Waals forces, also see bonding
Vibrational levels, and photochemistry, 307
Vicarious nucleophilic substitution, 872
Vilsmeier reaction, 715
and formylation of alkenes, 785
Vilsmeier-Haack reaction, 715
Vinyl alanes, 1210
Vinyl alcohol, 75
Vinyl anions, 233
Vinyl boranes, see boranes, vinyl
Vinyl carbanions, see carbanions
Vinyl carbon
substitution, addition-elimination mechanisms, 428
substitution, tetrahedral mechanism, 428
Vinyl cations, also see carbocations, vinyl
Vinyl cations, 223, 430
and Friedel-Crafts alkylation, 711
Vinyl copper reagents, reaction with clan, 802
Vinyl cyanides, see cyanides, vinyl
Vinyl dimerization, 938
Vinyl ethers, reaction with Grignard reagents, 546
Vinyl halides, see halides, vinyl
Vinyl halides, and the Wurtz reaction, 536
Vinyl iodides, see iodides, vinyl
Vinyl organomercury halides, reaction with CO, 801
Vinyl potassium, 791
Vinyl sulfide anions, reaction with alkyl halides, 557
Vinyl sulfides, alkylation, 557
Vinyl sulfides, conversion to ketones, 783
Vinyl triflates, see triflates, vinyl
2-Vinylcyclobutanols, rearrangement, 1444
4-Vinylcyclohexene, 1447
Vinylcyclobutane rearrangement, 1444
Vinylcyclopropane rearrangement, 1443
and formation of heterocycles, 1443
and homodienyl [1,5] shifts, 1444
Vinylcyclopropenes, 1443
Vinylic carbon, and S_N1, 430
Vinylic carbon, nucleophilic substitution, 428–431
Vinyllithium, 233, 236
Vinyllithium reagents reaction with peroxides, 797
Vinylogy
and enolate anions, 553
in the aldol reaction, 1220
Vinyltin, reaction with vinyl triflates, 931
Volume of activation, and high pressure reactions, 457-458

Von Braun reaction, 522, **1350**
mechanism of, 523
Von Richter reaction, 289
Von Richter rearrangement, 876

Wacker process, 1538
and Markovnikov's rule, 1538
Wadsworth-Emmons reaction, 1233
Wagner-Meerwein rearrangements, **1384,** 1393-1396
and adamantanes, **1396**
and Lewis acids, 1394, **1396**
and **Nametkin** rearrangements, **1395**
and **norbornyl** cations, **1394**
and retro pinacol rearrangements, **1395**
and **stabilomers, 1396**
and the Stieglitz rearrangement, 1416
and Zaitsev's rule, 1393, 1394
hydride ion migration, 1394
in terpenes, **1394**
Walden inversion, 290, **391**
Wallach reaction, **1188**
Wallach rearrangement, 1464
photochemical, 1465
Water
addition to alkenes, 993
as a solvent for **Diels-Alder** reactions, 1066
reaction with aldehydes or ketones, **1175**
reaction with alkynes, 995
reaction with **aryl** diazonium salts, 874
reaction with isonitriles, **1251**
Wave functions, 3
Westheimer method, 178, **211**
Wheland intermediates, and the I effect, 682-683
Whitmore 1,2 shift, 1378
Wigner **spin-conservation** rule, **316**
Wilkinson's catalyst
and decarbonylation of aldehydes, 944
and **hydroboration,** 1016
and hydrogenation, 1003
Willgerodt reaction, 1567
and the Claisen rearrangement, 1568
and the **Kindler** modification, **1567**
Williamson ether synthesis, 477
Williamson reaction, 477
Wittig reaction, 185, 1213, 1219, 1231-1237
and betaines, 1234
and epoxides, 504
and oxaphosphetanes, 1234
and **scoopy** reactions, 1236
and [2+2]-cycloaddition of **ylid** and **carbonyl,** 1235
E/Z isomers, 1235
in synthesis, 1236
intramolecular, 1236
NMR and intermediates, **1234**
on silica gel, 1233
polymer supported, 1233
salt effects, **1235**
salt-free, 1232
silyl, 1228
stereoselectivity, 1235
structural variations in the ylid, 1232
Wittig **rearrangement,** 558, 1421, 1454
aza-, 1422
migratory aptitudes, **1421**
Wittig-Horner reaction, 1233
Wohl-Ziegler bromination, 911
Wöhler, synthesis of **urea, 1191**
Wolff rearrangement, 1250, 1405
and carbenes, 252
and the **Arndt-Eistert** synthesis, 1405
photochemical, 1406
Wolff-Kishner reduction, 1547
Woodward-Hoffmann rules, 1068, **1083, 1091,** 1092
and pyrolytic elimination, 1324
Wurtz reaction, 535
acyl halides and lead, 568
and dihalides, 536
and formation of **organolithium** reagents, 806
and Grignard reagents, 1207
and SmI_2, 536
and the Ullmann reaction, **871**
in reactions of organometallics and **alkyl** halides, 807
intramolecular, 536
preparation of strained molecules, 536
reagents for, 535
Wurtz-Fittig reaction, 535

X-ray diffraction, and bond distance, 18
X-ray, and absolute configuration, 142
Xanthate esters, see esters, xanthate
Xanthates
from alcohols, 1184, 1693
from carbon disulfide, **1184, 1693**
Xenon **difluoride,** and aromatic fluorination, 707
Xray
and **carbenes,** 251
and enolate anions, 236
and intermediates for the Reformatsky reaction, 1213
and lithium **diisopropylamide,** 348
diffraction, of Grignard reagents, 235
of organolithium reagents, 236

photoelectron spectroscopy, see ESCA
Xylene (*m*-), acetylation, isomer distribntion, 691

Y values, and solvent effects, 452—453
Ylids
from alkyl phosphonothionates, 1234
and carbanions, 231
azomethine, as 1,3-dipoles, 1060
bonding, 45-46
from phosphine oxides, 1234
from phosphoric acid bisamides, 1234
keto, pyrolysis of, 1334
nitrile, as 1,3-dipoles, 1060
nitrogen, and field effects, 231
nitrogen, and [2,3]- sigmatropic rearrangement, 1454
nitrogen, from ammonium salts, 792
on silica gel, 1233
phosphonate, 1234
Ylids, phosphorus
and the Wittig reaction, 1231-1237
from phosphonium salts, 793
reaction with anhydrides, 1237
reaction with CO_2, 1237
reaction with imides, 1237
reaction with imines, 1237
reaction with isocyanates, 1237
reaction with ketenes, 1237
reaction with nitroso compounds, 1237
resonance stabilized, 1232
structural variations, 1232
Ylids
polymer supported, 509, 1233
salt-free, 1232
Ylids, sulfur
and Stevens rearrangement, 1420
chiral, 1247
polymer anchored, 1247
reaction with aldehydes or ketones, 1247
reaction with aromatic nitro compounds, 872
reaction with thioketones, 1248
solvent free reactions, 1247
Ylids, thiocarbonyl, as 1,3-dipoles, 1061

Z nomenclature, 157
Zaitsev elimination, with 2-bromopentane, 1318
Zaitsev's rule
and dehydration of alcohols, 1327
and El elimination, 1308
and E2 elimination, 1303
and E2C elimination, 1314
and elimination of alkyl halides, 1337
and elimination of boranes, 1339
and Hofmann elimination, 1331
and pyrolytic elimination, 1325
and regiochemistry in elimination reactions, 1314
and Wagner-Meerwein rearrangements, 1393
definition, 1314
Zeolites
and aromatic substitution, 705
and Diels-Alder reactions, 1066
and Friedel-Crafts acylation, 712
and hydride rednction of aldehydes or ketones, 1197
and the Knoevenagel reaction, 1226
Ziegler alkylation, 871
Ziegler catalysts, 1020
Zinc and acid, reduction of sulfonyl halides, 1556
Zinc chloride
and the Fisher indole synthesis, 1452
in the aldol reaction, 1221
reaction with enolate anions, 1221
Zinc cyanide
reaction with aromatic compounds, 715
reaction with aryl triflates, 724
Zinc metal
and elimination of dihalides, 1343
and HC1, reduction of nitro compounds, 1552
and NaOH, reduction of nitro compounds, 1564
in AcOH, reduction of nitro compounds, 1558
in the Reformatsky reaction, 1212
reaction with sulfonyl chlorides, 577
reduction of aromatic nitro compounds in water, 1554
reduction of hydroxylamines, 1554
reduction of nitroso compounds, 1554
Zinc-copper couple, and the Simmons-Smith reaction, 1088
Zinin rednction, 1552
Zip reaction, and lactams, 512
Zirconocene complexes, oxidation of alcohols, 1515
zusammen nomenclature, 157
Zwitterions
and elimination of hydroxy acids, 1346
and oxime formation, 1194