PHOTOCHEMISTRY OF CYCLOBUTENES AND RELATED CONSTRAINED S-CIS DIENES

by

JOSE ALBERTO POSTIGO, M.Sc.

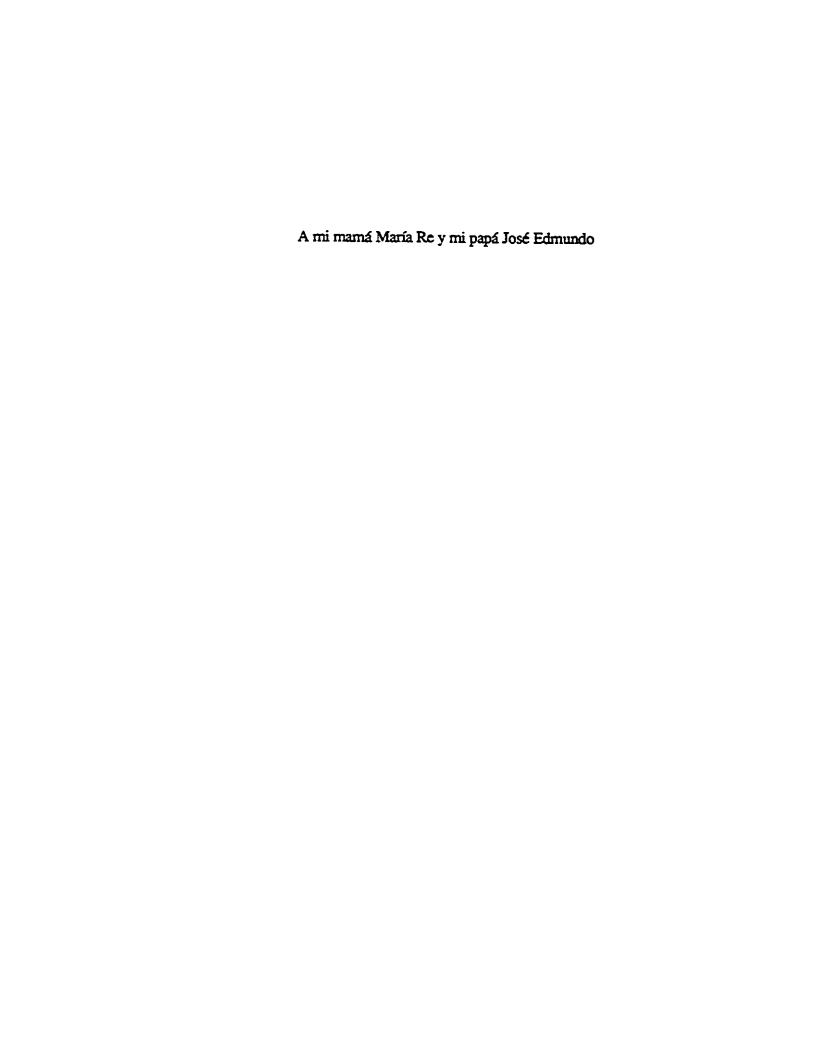
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THE PHOTOCHEMISTRY OF CYCLOBUTENES AND RELATED CONSTRAINED S-CIS DIENES



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AUTHOR: Jose Alberto Postigo, M.Sc.

(Universidad de Buenos Aires)

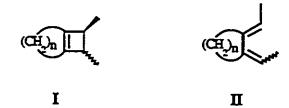
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ABSTRACT

This thesis is concerned with the development of a new qualitative model to explain the photochemistry of cyclobutene and 1,3-butadiene, in which the $2A_g \rightarrow 1A_g$ decay channel of the van der Lugt-Oosterhoff mechanism does not actually correspond to a $2A_g$ avoided crossing pericyclic minimum. In fact, decay from the $2A_g$ excited state to the ground $(1A_g)$ state occurs at a conical intersection point (crossing between the excited state and ground state potential energy surfaces).

The study described pertains to the photochemical ring opening of a series of alkylsubstituted bicyclic cyclobutenes (structure I), and the cis, trans isomerization of related
constrained s-cis dienes (structure II). The high degree of disrotatory stereospecificity
observed in the ring opening of I is not related to ring strain factors induced by the
ancillary ring, but rather to the decreased flexibility in the isomeric 1,3-diene products or
the rotational flexibility of the substituents on the cyclobutene double bond. These results
strongly suggest that orbital symmetry selection rules are important in these reactions.
The effects of constraining the C-C central bond in 1,3-dienes on the cis, trans
photoisomerization process and motions around C=C bond in cyclobutene photochemical
ring opening are two of the direct implications of the results obtained from these
experiments.



The results from the photochemical ring opening of alkyl-substituted monocyclic cyclobutenes provide evidence that orbital symmetry does play a significant role in the reaction, as indicated by the decrease in the quantum yields of ring opening upon syndimethyl substitution. In addition, the same results are exclusive of the presence of operative non-concerted pathways in the ring opening reaction.

The energy requirements for the photochemical ring opening of cyclobutenes have been clearly established. Thus, the inability of 1-phenylcyclobutenes to undergo ring opening reactions has been found to be related to energetic considerations rather than polarizability of their excited states.

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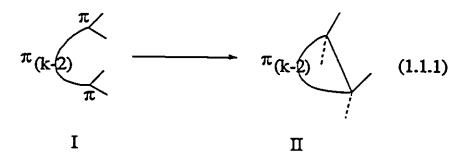
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INTRODUCTION

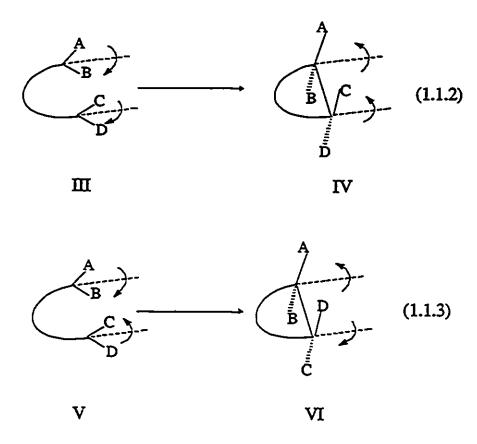
1.1 The Theory of Conservation of Orbital Symmetry

Electrocyclic reactions are among the most versatile reactions in organic chemistry. The interconversions of cyclobutene and 1,3-butadiene can be considered as a cornerstone example, put forward by the classical and famous papers by Woodward and Hoffmann on the stereochemistry of electrocyclic reactions 1 - 10.

An electrocyclic transformation involves the formation of a single bond between the termini of a linear system containing k π -electrons (I \rightarrow II, equation 1.1.1), or the converse process.



In forming or breaking the σ bond, the termini must rotate either in the same direction (conrotatory III \rightarrow IV, equation 1.1.2) or in the opposite direction (disrotatory V \rightarrow VI, equation 1.1.3).



In practice, transformations of this type have been brought about thermally or photochemically. For example, the thermal isomerization of cyclobutenes is cleanly conrotatory (VII \leftarrow VIII, equation 1.1.4)¹¹.

By contrast the thermal cyclization of 1,3,5-hexatrienes is uniquely disrotatory (IX \rightarrow X) 12

$$\begin{array}{c} A \\ B \\ C \\ A \\ \end{array}$$

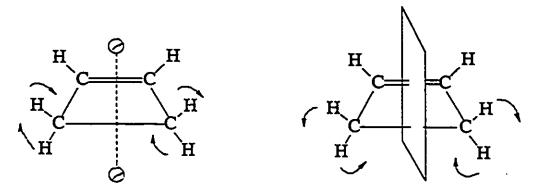
$$\begin{array}{c} A A \\ \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{$$

Finally, 1,3,5-hexatrienes are subjected to photochemical cyclization to 1,3-cyclohexadienes and vice versa by a stereospecific conrotatory process $(XI \rightarrow XII)^{13}$.

In the electrocyclic transformation of cyclobutene to 1,3-butadiene, four molecular orbitals are involved; these are σ , σ^* , π , and π^* , where the first two are the bonding and antibonding orbitals of the bond which is to be broken (C₃-C₄), and the last two refer to the carbon - carbon double bond in the cyclobutene ring. These orbitals will eventually become the molecular π -orbitals of butadiene, namely ψ_1 , ψ_2 , ψ_3 , and ψ_4 , in order of increasing energy. Each of the first set of orbitals passes adiabatically into one of the second set, and their correlation depends upon whether the isomerization proceeds in a conrotatory or disrotatory fashion (Figure 1.1.1). In the conrotatory mode, the system

preserves a twofold axis of symmetry, and each orbital is classified as A or B according to its symmetric or antisymmetric character respectively. In the disrotatory mode, a plane of symmetry is maintained, and each orbital remains either symmetric (A') or antisymmetric (A'') about this plane (Scheme 1.1.1)¹⁰.



a.- Conrotatory mode

b.- Disrotatory mode

Scheme 1.1.1. Symmetry elements present in the *conrotatory* and *disrotatory* motions of cyclobutene.

Figure 1.1.1a shows that in the *conrotatory* mode of cyclobutene ring opening, σ correlates with ψ_2 , π with ψ_1 etc.; however, in the *disrotatory* mode, σ correlates with ψ_1 and π^* with ψ_2 , etc. (Figure 1.1.1b). In general, the stereochemical course of an electrocyclic reaction in the ground state is determined by the highest occupied molecular orbital (HOMO) of the reactant, as shown by extended Huckel Theory (Figure 1.1.1a). On the other hand, promotion of an electron to the lowest excited state leads to a reversal of the terminal symmetry relationships in the orbitals involved in the π system, with the consequence that the system which undergoes a thermally induced *disrotatory* electrocyclic transformation in the ground state should follow a conrotatory course when photochemically excited and *vice versa* (see Molecular Orbitals for Cyclobutene/Butadiene interconversion in Figure 1.1.1b).

However, when one considers that the ground state of cyclobutene is 83.7 KJ mol⁻¹ less stable⁹ than that of 1,3-butadiene, it is evident that the spectroscopic singlet of cyclobutene is about 209-251 KJ mol⁻¹ higher in energy than the spectroscopic singlet of butadiene (see Figure 1.1.2). Thus the formation of the spectroscopic singlet of cyclobutene from a similar state of 1,3-butadiene was judged improbable⁹. By the early 1970's, although the Woodward and Hoffmann rules were gathering increasing support amongst the scientific community in predicting the stereochemical outcome of the photoinduced reaction (butadiene \rightarrow cyclobutene photointerconversion, XIII \rightarrow XIV) it was not clearly understood why the reaction took place at all.

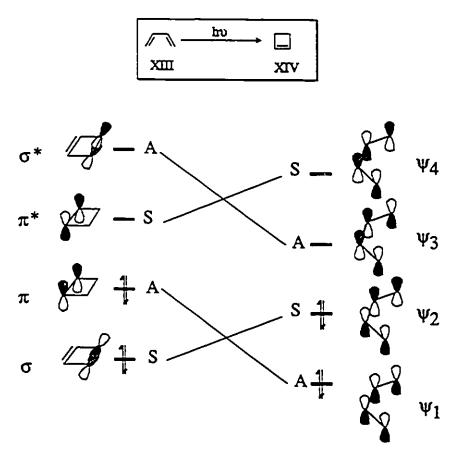


Figure 1.1.1a. Orbital correlation diagram for the thermally-allowed interconversion of butadiene and cyclobutene.

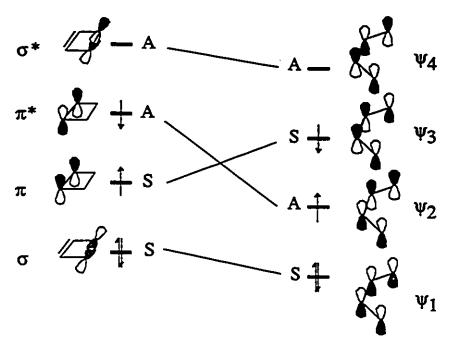


Figure 1.1.1b. Orbital correlation diagram for the allowed photochemical interconversion of butadiene and cyclobutene.

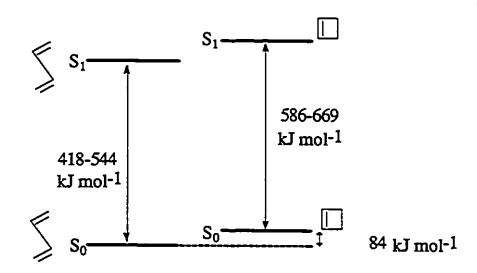


Figure 1.1.2. Relative S_0 (ground state) and S_1 (first singlet excited state) energies of 1,3-butadiene and cyclobutene

Van der Lugt and Oosterhoff undertook a series of quantum chemical calculations on the valence isomerization of 1,3-butadiene to cyclobutene 14, with a large number of intermediate configurations, thus enabling them to establish the potential surfaces, a requisite to the discussion of the actual course of the reaction.

They found that for the thermal reaction, the disrotatory process of ring closure was utterly unfavorable (the energy steadily increased from -9.11 to -4.77 eV on the reaction path, which would demand an activation energy of ca. 418 KJ mol⁻¹). In the conrotatory process, however, a much lower activation energy was found. This process is clearly depicted on the left hand side of Figure 1.1.3.

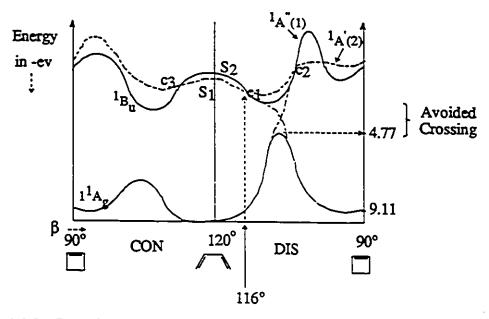


Figure 1.1.3. Potential energy curves for the disrotatory and conrotatory modes in the 1,3-butadiene / cyclobutene system. The C_S symmetry is preserved in the disrotatory mode and the C_2 symmetry is preserved in the conrotatory process. Full line: The lowest singlet S_0 and S_2 states (or 1^1A_g and 2^1A_g). Dashed lines: the lowest singlet state S_1 or 1^1B_u state.

When s-cis-1,3-butadiene is irradiated with ultraviolet light, the molecule is excited into the symmetric excited state S_I (Figure 1.1.1b). At the early stage of the cyclization process, when $\beta \equiv 116^{\circ}$ (angle between carbons C₁-C₂-C₃-C₄ in 1,3-butadiene) in the disrotatory direction butadiene changes its electronic state from the symmetric ¹A'(2) state to the antisymmetric ¹A"(1) state through the symmetry-allowed c₁ crossing (nuclear vibrations cause a molecule in A to pass adiabatically into S). In this way, the molecular electronic state ¹A'(2) is converted into ¹A"(1), in which a disrotatory deformation can ensue. As a result, the molecule is captured in the energy well, from where it is assumed to reach the lower potential surface of the ground state. On reaching the electronic ground state, the molecule is in a nuclear configuration corresponding to the disrotatory transition state between butadiene and cyclobutene. The reaction can now proceed in one of two directions: either cyclobutene is formed or butadiene is regenerated. Conversely, in the conrotatory mode of photochemical ring closure, the energy gap between the ${}^{1}B_{u}$ and ${}^{11}A_{g}$ potential energy surfaces is much greater than that found in the disrotatory direction. The observation that the photochemical ring closure of 1,3dienes proceeds by a stereospecific disrotatory mode is in agreement with the qualitative features of the potential energy diagrams depicted in Figure 1.1.3.

In the photochemical ring opening of cyclobutene to 1,3-butadiene, the energy barrier to the antisymmetric state is predicted to play a significant role for the stereospecificity. As was discussed above, there is a high energy barrier on the IB(1) state for the conrecatory ring opening process of cyclobutene, while such a barrier is not found on the IA''(1) state for the disrotatory mode.

The mechanism for decay to the ground state potential energy surface was suspected to be related to radiationless processes in molecules ¹⁴, ¹⁵ (participating collisions with other molecules were invoked as a way of return to the electronic ground state), but no information concerning the rapidity of this process was available until the mid 1980's ¹⁶. The radiationless decay from the excited state to the ground state potential energy surface occurs, according to the general theoretical interpretation ¹⁴, from the so-called avoided crossing minimum that occurs on the excited state potential energy surface (Figure 1.1.3). The rate of decay was proposed to be determined mainly by the energy gap between the ground and excited state potential energy surfaces at this point ¹⁷, ¹⁹-²¹. The decay probabilities computed by Morihashi et al ¹⁸ are 10⁻⁴ and 10⁻¹⁶ for disrotatory and conrotatory ring closure, respectively. They attribute the stereospecificity of the photochemical ring closure reaction to this difference.

1.2 Dynamics of Photochemical Ring Opening Reactions

Only recently have the dynamics and kinetics of photochemical electrocyclic ring opening reactions been explored 22 - 24.

Mathies and coworkers²² gave a very clear picture of photoproduct formation and vibrational relaxation dynamics in the electrocyclic photochemical ring opening of 1,3-cyclohexadiene (Figure 1.2.1). Within the first ca. 10 fs after excitation, 1,3-cyclohexadiene propagates along the predicted conrotatory reaction coordinate and undergoes rapid, nonradiative decay to the lower energy $2A_1^{25}$. The all-cis-1,3,5-hexatriene photoproduct is then produced in upper vibrational levels of the ground state ($^{1}A_{1}$) within 6 picoseconds. Although the barrier to single and double bond

isomerizations on the $2A_I$ surface are relatively small for linear polyenes²⁶, the initial formation of all-cis-ground state 1,3,5-hexatriene demonstrates that neither process is involved in internal conversion from the $2A_I$ state. Once the ground state is populated, vibrational cooling occurs in ca. 9 ps, in competition with the 7-ps conformational relaxation of all-cis-1,3,5-hexatriene to mono-s-cis-1,3,5-hexatriene.

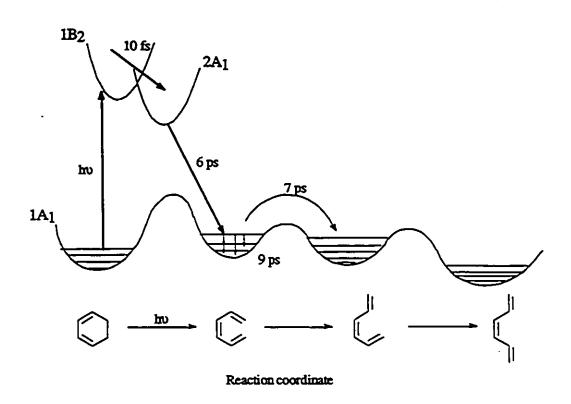


Figure 1.2.1. Schematic reaction coordinate for the photochemical ring opening of 1,3-cyclohexadiene.

Recent results on the photochemical ring opening dynamics of cyclobutene itself²⁷ obtained by Laser Resonance Raman Intensities, indicate that the initial photochemical

motions are directed along the Woodward-Hoffmann-predicted disrotatory ring opening reaction coordinates (see Figure 1.2.2). Upon excitation, an increase in the equilibrium bond distance of the methylene groups is observed (the CH₂-CH₂ bond breaks, as the ring opening proceeds). A resonance mode directly related to the disrotatory twist of the CH₂ groups is also observed. It was noticeable from close inspection of the Resonance Raman spectrum, that the initial dynamics of the ring opening reaction of cyclobutene involve a torsion about the C=C bond (the CH₂ groups in the s-cis diene product are expected to assume a gauche conformation and a torsion would be necessary to bring the planar cyclobutene ring to this geometry). In conclusion, after excitation, planar cyclobutene evolves immediately along the orbital symmetry-predicted reaction coordinate.

The preceding examples afford strong indications that there exists a high degree of concertedness along the reaction coordinates for these electrocyclic reactions as suggested by the early works of Woodward and Hoffmann (vide supra).

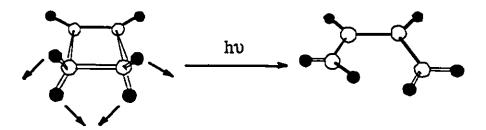


Figure 1.2.2. The arrows superimposed on the ground state structure of cyclobutene give the geometry changes that occur within 30 fs after excitation as a result of evolution along the indicated CH₂-CH₂ stretch and CH₂ twist normal modes

L3 Photochemistry of Cyclobutenes

1.3.1 1-Aryl-substituted Cyclobutenes:

Classically, cyclobutenes have been studied in the readily accessible regions (wavelengths \geq 254 nm) by substitution with chromophores at the double bond. These chromophores interact conjugatively with the double bond, thereby lowering the energy of the excited state and drastically altering its electronic character, resulting in a complete modification in the spectroscopic and photochemical behavior of the chromophore. A notable case is the photochemistry of 1,2-diphenylcyclobutene 1^{28} - 30. De Boer and Schlessinger reported that the singlet excited state of 1 is very efficiently deactivated by fluorescence ($\phi_f = 1$). In this work, the authors only observed dimers as products. This system was reexamined by Kaupp and coworkers 29 who reported the fluorescence quantum yield to be ca. 0.9 (equation 1.3.1.1) and observed the formation of 1,2-diphenylacetylene 2 and ethylene in low quantum yield ($\phi = 0.001$).

$$\begin{array}{c|cccc}
Ph & & & Ph \\
\hline
Ph & & & & \\
Ph & & & \\
\hline
RH & & Ph \\
\hline
1 & & 2
\end{array}$$
(1.3.1.1)

Irradiation of 1 with 300 nm light in nucleophilic solvents such as methanol or acetic acid leads to the formation of solvent addition products as shown in equation 1.3.1.2. The photochemical ionic addition to 1 is thought to proceed via protonation of the first singlet

excited state of the cyclobutene, yielding a cyclobutyl cation intermediate that can rearrange to a cyclopropyl cation.

In contrast to the behaviour of 1, 1,2-diphenyl-3,3,4,4-tetramethylcyclobutene 3 cyclizes inefficiently to yield a cyclobutaphenanthrene derivative in solution (equation 1.3.1.3)³¹.

Photochemical ring opening can be promoted by the introduction of ring strain, as in the case of benzocyclobutene derivatives^{32 - 35}. Low temperature studies have provided evidence that suggests that the photochemical ring opening of cis- and transdiphenylbenzocyclobutene 4 occurs nonstereospecifically (equation 1.3.1.4)³⁵. The thermal ring opening of these compounds has been shown to obey orbital symmetry selection rules³².

The ring opening of 4 has been shown to proceed from both the singlet and triplet excited states. The nonstereoselective nature of the ring opening reaction has been explained as being due to the involvement of upper triplet excited states. Triplet reactivity has also been shown to play a role in the ring opening of the tetrasubstituted cyclobutene 5.

Photoexcited 1,4-dewarnaphthalene³⁶ and anthracene³⁷(6 and 7, respectively) undergo ring opening with high efficiency (see equations 1.3.1.5 and 1.3.1.6). The ring opening process occurs adiabatically in both the singlet and triplet manifolds, as evidenced

by the characteristic naphthalene and anthracene excited state emissions that result from excitation of their dewar isomers. The phenyl substituents in these cases change the electronic character of the singlet excited states. Singlet excited states, which do not normally intersystem cross to the triplet manifolds in alkylsubstituted cyclobutenes, are perturbed by the phenyl substituents to such an extent in the examples depicted, that reaction entirely within the singlet manifold appears impossible.

$$\frac{hv}{6} \xrightarrow{hv} 000 (1.3.1.5)$$

$$\frac{hv}{7} 000 (1.3.1.6)$$

Triplet reactivity in alkylcyclobutenes has been explored and found not only to be possible, but quite complex as well³⁸, ³⁹. Srinivasan³⁹ investigated the mercury sensitized photolysis of *cis-*3,4-dimethylcyclobutene (*cis-*9), in the gas phase and observed nonstereospecific ring opening. The formation of the symmetry forbidden *cis*, trans-2,4-hexadiene was postulated to arise from a vibrationally hot ground state of *cis-*9 (equation 1.3.1.7).

1.3.2 The Photochemical Ring Opening of Alkylsubstituted Cyclobutenes:

According to the State Correlation diagram shown in Figure 1.1.3, the electrocyclic ring opening of simple cyclobutenes initiated by light should proceed in a disrotatory fashion.

There are few reported examples in the early literature that illustrate the photochemical ring opening of alkylsubstituted cyclobutenes. The reason for this is mainly a practical one, related to the fact that these compounds absorb only in the far-UV region of the spectrum (≤ 230 nm). Until 1987, there was only one report that offered stereochemical information on the photochemical electrocyclic ring opening of cyclobutene⁴⁰. Saltiel and Lim reported the photochemistry of the tricyclic cyclobutene derivatives 10 and 11 (equations 1.3.2.1 and 1.3.2.2), providing results which strongly suggest that the photochemical ring opening does indeed proceed by the symmetry-allowed disrotatory pathway. The authors argued that disrotatory opening of 11 would yield the highly strained cis,trans-1,1'-bicyclohexenyl 12, and that the failure of 11 to yield the stable cis,cis isomer indicated that convotatory photochemical ring opening did not occur to any significant extent. Other photoproducts of the reaction consisted of 13 and 14, which are known as "cycloreversion or fragmentation products".

For many years, the results of this study have provided the prototypical examples that illustrate the stereochemistry associated with two seminal photochemical pericyclic reactions: the electrocyclic ring opening of cyclobutene and the $[\sigma_{2s} + \sigma_{2s}]$ cycloreversion reaction of four-membered cyclic hydrocarbons.

The solution phase photochemistry of cyclobutene itself was reported by Adam and coworkers⁴¹ (equation 1.3.2.3).

In addition to ring opening and molecular fragmentation products, measurable yields of methylenecyclopropane (15) were observed. 1,3-Butadiene was thought to arise from electrocyclic ring opening from the π , π * excited state. The remaining photoproducts were rationalized in terms of the intermediacy of carbenes formed by [1,2]alkyl and hydrogen shifts after π ,R(3s) excitation. These carbenes were suggested to be cyclopropylmethyl

carbene and cyclobutylidene, precursors to the minor primary photoproducts acetylene, ethylene and methylenecyclopropane 15.

Further investigations on the photochemistry of three simple cyclobutene derivatives in solution was conducted by Leigh and coworkers⁴² - ⁴⁴. They found that apart from the competitive fragmentation and ring opening reactions, the electrocyclic ring opening formally proceeds *nonstereospecifically*, yielding mixtures of 1,3 - diene geometric isomers in each case (see equations 1.3.2.4 - 6).

The photochemistry of the tricyclic hydrocarbons 10 and 11 was reinvestigated⁴³. The direct photolysis produced mixtures of two major products in each case: diene 12 and the engnes 13 or 14.

Both isomers (10 and 11), undergo photochemical ring opening upon direct photolysis in solution. The tentative detection of 10 from the photolysis of the *trans* isomer and an estimate of its relative yield indicated that the highly strained *cis,trans* isomer of 12 may be formed directly, along with the *cis,cis* isomer, in the case of 11, see equations 1.3.2.7 and 1.3.2.8. These results verified that photochemical ring opening of simple alkylcyclobutene derivatives is *nonstereospecific*, in general.

In contrast to the nonstereospecificity associated with the ring opening reaction of alkylsubstituted cyclobutenes observed to this point, it is well established that the photofragmentation process is highly stereospecific⁴². The stereochemistry about the adjacent saturated carbons in the cyclobutene moiety is retained in the alkene fragment from the reaction. This is the expected result if fragmentation proceeds by concerted [σ 2s+ σ 2s] cycloreversion⁴⁰, but there are alternative pathways that could lead to the same result⁴¹, 44, 45

1.3.3 Excited States Responsible for the Ring Opening and Cycloreversion Reactions in Alkylsubstituted Cyclobutenes.

Spectroscopic results for alkylcyclobutenes, as well as simpler alkenes, indicate that at least three excited singlet states are accessible in the far UV region in the gas phase and in solution 46 - 49 . These are the π , π^* and the σ , π^* valence states and the π , π^* , R(3s) Rydberg state. The Rydberg transitions may be substantially mixed with valence transitions (such as the σ , π^*), particularly in solution. In principle, either the valence or the Rydberg-like transitions could be involved in the photochemistry of simple cyclobutenes, though via very different mechanisms.

It is known that alkyl substitution lowers the gas-phase energy of the π ,R(3s) state in simple alkenes while having only marginal effects on the energy of the valence state (gas phase absorption spectra reveal that the 0,0 band of the π ,R(3s) absorption moves more rapidly to the red than that of the π , π^* band with increasing numbers of alkyl substituents on ethylene⁴⁷). This can be explained by considering that excitation to the Rydberg state involves promotion of a valence π -electron to a spatially diffuse 3s orbital. Thus the electronic character of alkene Rydberg states bears some resemblance to a radical cation. Consequently, the substituent effect on alkene Rydberg state energies parallels that on the π -ionization potential (π -IP). Cyclobutene radical cations are known to undergo thermal ring opening in the gas phase⁵⁰ - ⁵². Furthermore, a recent report⁵³ indicates that photolysis of cyclobutene radical cation in cryogenic media leads to s-trans-1,3-butadiene radical cation and that s-cis-1,3-butadiene radical cation does not occur as an intermediate; consequently, the photochemical ring opening of cyclobutene radical cation does not proceed in a concerted electrocyclic fashion. It is then possible that involvement of the π ,R(3s) state in the photochemical ring opening of alkylcyclobutenes could account

for the nonstereospecificity observed in general. However, alkenes with lowest Rydberg excited states in the gas phase undergo predominantly alkyl and hydrogen 1,2-migration upon photolysis in solution, leading to carbene intermediates 54 - 56. This behavior has been attributed to alkene Rydberg states due to the analogy with well known carbocation rearrangements, but the $\sigma_{\tau}\pi^{*}$ state might also be expected to lead to similar rearrangements; the σ_{τ} -level involved in this transition is localized in the vinylic bonds to the alkene substituents.

Rydberg-derived alkyl 1,2-migrations in cyclobutenes would lead to cyclopropyl carbenes, which are known to fragment *stereospecifically* to yield the same products as would formal $\sigma_{2s}+\sigma_{2s}$ cycloreversion⁵⁷. Leigh and coworkers⁴⁵ reported indirect evidence for the formation of cyclopropyl carbenes in the photolysis of 1,3,4,4- and 1,3,3,4-tetramethylcyclobutenes (27 and 28 in equations 1,3,3,1 and 1,3,3,2 respectively).

The photochemical interconversion of 27 and 28 (see Scheme 1.3.3.1), although it occurs in relatively minor amounts, provided convincing evidence for the formation of at

least one common intermediate in the direct photolysis of these compounds. Whether or not cyclopropyl carbenes are involved in the cycloreversion reaction is not clear. The cycloreversion products are formed in substantially higher yield than rearrangement products. This is opposite to the known behavior of these species, which usually yield cyclobutenes as the major products upon thermal or photochemical generation from diazo precursors⁵⁵.

Scheme 1.3.3.1. Possible mechanistic pathway for the cycloreversion process in alkylsubstituted cyclobutenes

While spectroscopic studies show that increasing alkyl substitution has the same effect on the relative ordering of the valence and Rydberg excited states of cyclobutenes in the gas phase as is found with simpler alkenes, the product distributions from the photolysis of a series of methyl-substituted monocyclic cyclobutenes derivatives in solution showed⁴², 63, 83 no consistent variations that would help to define how the various excited states that can be populated in solution contribute to the different products observed.

It has been shown that trifluoromethyl substitution (at the C=C bond) has the effect of raising the gas-phase Rydberg state energies in alkenes such as norbornene, without altering the energy or localized character of the alkene π , π * state⁵⁸, ⁵⁹. This substituent effect on the gas-phase excited state manifold is manifested in the solution phase

photochemistry of the alkene. The photochemistry of 2-(trifluoromethyl)norbornene (29 in equation 1.3.3.3) is much different than that observed for norbornene (30 in equation 1.3.3.4)⁵⁸ and has been assigned to exclusive reaction from the π , π * singlet state exclusively.

$$CF_3 \text{ inv} (193 \text{ nm})$$
 C_5H_{12}
 CF_3
 CF

Leigh and coworkers⁶⁰ undertook a study of the spectroscopy and photochemistry of three simple *cis*-fused bicyclic cyclobutene derivatives (31-33), which bear substituents chosen so as to alter systematically the ordering and separation of the π , π * and Rydberg states in the parent compound. The photolyses of these compounds is depicted in equation 1.3.3.5.

R hv 193 nm
$$C_5H_{12}$$
 + R + R C_5H_{12} + R C_5H_{12} + R C_7G_7 + R C_7G

As it is illustrated in Figure 1.3.3.1 the gas phase UV absorption spectra of 31-33 each show a prominent, relatively intense band with an apparent maximum at 185 mm. The remaining features of the gas phase spectra vary dramatically with substituent. The spectrum of 32 shows a weak shoulder absorption at 195 nm, which is shifted to 210 mm in that of 31. This absorption is not present in the spectrum of 33, but believed to be located at wavelengths shorter than 187 nm. The variation of the position of this band throughout the series of compounds parallels the variation in the lowest vertical π -IP from the photoelectron spectra of 31-33 (see Table 1.3.3.1). This behavior led to the assignment of those bands as deriving from π ,R(3s) transitions. The results summarized in Table 1.3.3.2 indicate that the photochemistry of 31-33 also shows consistent trends with substitution at the double bond.

<u>Table 1.3.3.1.</u> Gas-phase spectroscopic properties of substituted bicyclo[4.2.0]oct-7-enes 31-33

compound	π IP ^a , eV	$E_{\pi,R(3s)}^b$, eV	$E_{\pi,\pi}$, eV
		(T, eV) ^C	(T, eV) ^C
31	8.5 ± 0.1	5.91 (2.6)	6.40 (2.1)
32	9.0 ± 0.1	6.37 (2.6)	≥ 6.70
33	9.7 ± 0.2	> 6.7 (3.0)	≥ 6.62 (≤ 3.1)

a Lowest vertical ionization potential (IP) from photoelectron spectrum.

b Absorption maximum in gas phase UV.

c Term value.

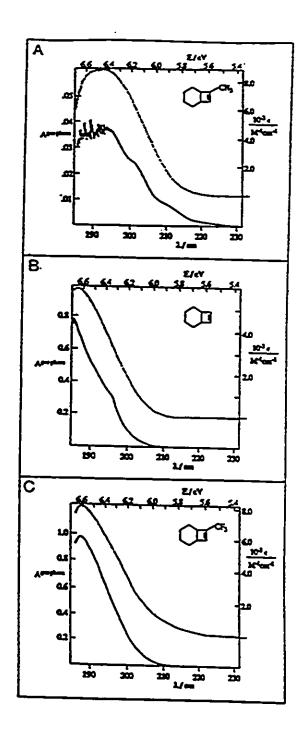


Figure 1.3.3.1. UV Absorption spectra of 31 - 33 in the gas phase (—) and in deoxygenated pentane solution (——)

First it is observed that the quantum yields of isomeric dienes from photochemical ring opening of 31-33 increase systematically throughout the series, while the characteristics of the process with respect to the distribution of isomeric dienes obtained is almost constant.

Table 1.3.3.2. Product quantum yields from photolyses (193 nm) of deoxygenated pentane solutions of 31-33 at 22° C

cyclobutene	Фс.с- 12	$\Phi(c.t + t.c)-12$	фcvclohexene
31	0.049	0.038	0.13
32	0.100	0.075	0.14
33	0.186	0.106	0.030

This is consistent with this aspect of photoreactivity being derived exclusively from the excitation to the π , π^* singlet state. From this study it was inferred that the nonstereospecificity associated with the photochemical ring opening of alkylsubstituted cyclobutenes cannot be attributed to some component of the reaction that arises from Rydberg state excitation.

The fragmentation process depicted in equation 1.3.3.5 and summarized in Table 1.3.3.2 also shows a pronounced trend in quantum yields as a function of substitution. The quantum yield for cycloreversion is decreased substantially in 33 compared to those in 31 and 32, suggesting that the formal cycloreversion reaction is derived mainly from the Rydberg-like excited state.

1.4 Mechanistic Interpretations for the Observed Nonstereospecific Photochemical Ring Opening of Alkylsubstituted Cyclobutenes.

Several mechanistic possibilities have been suggested to explain the apparent nonstereospecificity of the photochemical ring opening 61 - 63; (a) the electronically excited reactant molecule may pass directly to the electronically excited state of the product, followed by cis,trans isomerization, adiabatic mechanism; (b) the process occurs via non-concerted pathways involving intermediates which decay to a distribution of isomeric dienes; (c) the electronically excited reactant molecule crosses directly to a vibrationally excited or "hot" ground state of the reactant which then undergoes a thermal reaction to give ground state products; or (d) reactive excited state decay occurs at a conical intersection of the ground and excited state surfaces, which effectively mixes diene excited state decay modes (i.e. cis,trans isomerization) with those of cyclobutene.

(a) Adiabatic Mechanism.

The overall nonstereospecificity observed in the ring opening reaction of alkylcyclobutenes could be explained on the grounds of an adiabatic ring opening process. Precedent for an adiabatic photochemical ring opening of a cyclobutene exists in the literature. Yang and Michl³⁵, ³⁶ demonstrated that in condensed media, excited 1,4-dewarnaphthalene 6, converts efficiently to excited naphthalene 8 in both the singlet and triplet manifolds (equation 1.3.1.5). The state correlation diagram for the conversion of 6 to 8 is depicted in Figure 1.4.1. In this figure, the solid lines represent the adiabatic reaction pathway, while the dotted lines represent the avoided crossing of the ground and

excited state potential energy surfaces that would be followed by a *nonadiabatic* mechanism.

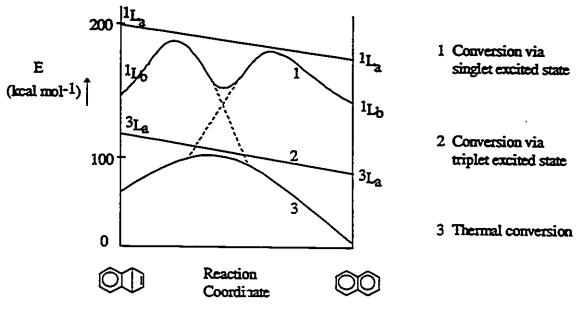


Figure 1.4.1. State correlation diagram for the interconversion of dewarnaphthalene to naphthalene

The direct photolysis of *cis*- and *trans* -3,4-dimethylcyclobutene, 9, affords all three of the possible isomers of 2,4-hexadiene in each case, but in different relative amounts (equation 1.4.1)⁶⁴.

In both cases, the diene mixture obtained was weighted toward the formally forbidden conrotatory ring opening pathway. A simple calculation of the "expected" relative yields of the isomeric 2,4-hexadienes, using the quantum yields for their cis,trans photoisomerization 64 and the assumption that ring opening occurred exclusively by the adiabatic, disrotatory pathway, yields ratios which are not in agreement with the ratios obtained from photolysis of cis and trans-3,4-dimethylcyclobutene. It was noted that this discrepancy could be attributed to the fact that cyclobutene ring opening could be expected to yield the diene initially in an s-cis conformation, while the direct diene photoisomerization quantum yields report on the behavior of the s-trans diene conformers 65, 66. The excited state decay characteristics of s-cis and s-trans dienes are known to differ considerably 42. A conjectural adiabatic mechanism for photochemical ring opening of trans-cyclobutene 9 is given in Figure 1.4.2.

Predicted (E,E/E,Z) =
$$\frac{\Phi EZ - EE}{(1 - \Phi EZ - EE - \Sigma \phi_i)}$$

Figure 1.4.2. Reaction pathway for the adiabatic disrotatory ring opening of 9. ϕ^* Denotes the quantum yield for production of excited s-cis-E,Z-2,4-hexadiene. ϕ_{EZ-EE} Denotes the quantum yield for isomerization of E,Z-2,4-hexadiene to the E,E isomer. $\Sigma \phi_i$ Denotes the quantum yields for other processes observed

Figure 1.4.3 shows the state correlation diagram for the ring opening of cyclobutene (solid lines). In this mechanism, the cyclobutene is excited into its lowest singlet excited manifold S_1 , from which crossing to the S_2 surface occurs and the excited state pericyclic minimum is reached. Complete traversal to the excited diene could occur (in competition with decay at the pericyclic minimum) if further motion on the excited state surface is not subject to a substantial energy barrier. Recent *ab-initio* calculations by Morihashi and Kukuchi¹⁸ suggest that this may be the case. Thus, the orbital symmetry allowed excited diene that is formed by disrotatory ring opening relaxes to ground state diene by *cis,trans* isomerization or returns to ground state diene precursor.

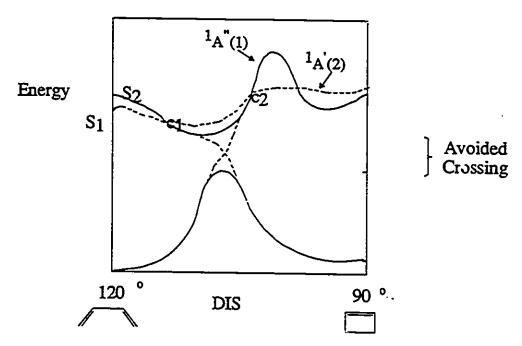


Figure 1.4.3. State correlation diagram for the Butadiene/Cyclobutene interconversion. Solid lines: Adiabatic pathway. Dashed line: Non-adiabatic pathway

In 1992, Leigh and coworkers⁶⁷ investigated the photochemistry of two cyclobutenes, cis- and trans-37 and the isomeric constrained s-cis 1,3-dienes, in an attempt to test the hypothesis of adiabaticity in cyclobutene ring opening. Irradiation of cis- and trans-37 produced a mixture of dienes according to equation 1.4.2. Table 1.4.1 illustrates the expected (that would be formed if ring opening of 37 proceeded by a disrotatory adiabatic pathway) and observed diene ratios for cyclobutene ring opening. The results revealed that for cis-37, there is reasonable agreement between the calculated and observed diene ratios, while for trans-37, the discrepancy between those values is significant. At this point, to discern the presence of an operative adiabatic mechanism, or to support the hypothesis of nonadiabaticity was judged premature. An operating adiabatic mechanism could not be confirmed or ruled out without further recourse to experiments. However, the surprising aspect of this photochemical reaction was the high degree of disrotatory stereoselectivity observed. The cis- isomer of 37 afforded more than 75 % of the formally allowed E,E- diene isomer, whereas trans- 37 yielded more than 80 % of the symmetry allowed E,Z- diene isomer.

Table 1.4.1. Calculated and observed diene ratios from photolysis of cis- and trans-37

	cis-37 (E,E/E,Z)	trans-37 (E,Z/E,E)
calculated	2.4	2.4
observed	3.3	7.5

(b) Excited State Ring Opening Proceeds by a Biradicaloid Mechanism

Photolysis of cis and trans 2383 afforded mixtures of the products shown in equation 1.3.2.6. The diene distribution derived from their photochemical ring opening reactions is summarized in Table 1.4.2.

Table 1.4.2. Product diene yields from 214 nm photolyses of deoxygenated pentane solutions of cis- and trans- bicyclo[5.2.0]non-8-ene 23.

Cyclobutene	24	25
cis-23	15	33
trans-23	14	50

On the basis of the similarity in the distributions of isomeric dienes obtained upon photolyses of cis and trans- 2383, it was proposed that cyclobutene ring opening might proceed largely by a noncencerted pathway involving biradical intermediates. Due to the

geometric constraints imposed by the cyclic structures of 23, ring opening of the two isomers would yield common biradical intermediates, or at least a set of biradicals that decay to a common distribution of products.

In a similar fashion, the corresponding biradicals that would be formed from ring opening of 10 and 11 (equations 1.3.2.7-8) are subject to even greater geometric constraints that those from *cis* and *trans*-23, and it is expected that both compounds should yield the *cis* isomer 12 predominantly. The low estimated yield of *cis,trans*-12 from photolysis of 11 is consistent with this expectation⁴³.

However, results from Mathies and coworkers (Section 1.2), suggest that photochemical ring opening reactions proceed with a high degree of concertedness, and that the first motions are indeed directed along the predicted disrotatory reaction coordinates.

(c) Ring Opening from Vibrationally Excited Ground States.

Another mechanism that has been suggested to be able to account for the nonstereospecificity of cyclobutene ring opening attributes the formation of formally forbidden diene isomers to conrotatory reaction from upper vibrational levels of the ground state, which are populated by internal conversion in competition with disrotatory ring opening.

A distinction between a reaction involving an electronic excited state versus vibrational excited ground states is difficult to make. However, most photochemical reactions are carried out in solution where the excess energy of the photoexcitation is dissipated rapidly to the surroundings. Thus, it is reasonable to assume that the excited state system follows only low energy reaction paths on the surface.

(d) Internal Conversion by Conical Intersections

The presence of different reaction paths at the conical intersection point of a given reaction coordinate for cyclobutene ring opening provides a rationalization for the observation that cyclobutene ring opening is nonstereospecific in general. A detailed description of this process will be discussed in Section 1.6 of the present chapter, following a review of conjugated diene photochemistry.

1.5 The Photochemistry of Conjugated Dienes

The photochemistry of 1,3-dienes has been exhaustively studied³⁶ - 37, 68 - 70, 125, 132. The excited singlet state deactivation pathways which are important in conjugated dienes are:

- (i) cis,trans isomerization
- (ii) s-cis/s-trans conformer interconversion
- (iii) cyclobutene formation (from s-cis dienes)
- (iv) bicyclo[1.1.0] butane formation (from s-trans dienes)
- (v) [1,5]-H migration (in appropriately substituted s-cis dienes)

In general, fluorescence and intersystem crossing are slow compared to reactive excited state deactivation processes (i.e. (i)-(v)). For instance, 1,3-butadiene and 1,3,5-hexatriene show no fluorescence. 1,3,5-Octatriene boasts a quite substantial quantum

yield of fluorescence, and this decreases as the chain length increases and, finally, there is again no fluorescence in the very long polyene limit, i.e., trans-polyacetylene¹⁹.

Theoretical studies 21 suggest that for conjugated polyenes as well as for 1-aryl-1,3-butadienes 71 there exist two low lying singlet excited states, $I^{1}B_{u}$ and the $2^{1}Ag$, of very similar energies.

The large $S_1 \to T_1$ energy gap and the rapid $S_0 \leftarrow S_1$ radiationless decay of 1,3-dienes⁷¹ (Section 1.2) both contribute in making the population of 1,3-diene triplets via intersystem crossing from S_1 of negligible significance. The most direct information on the spectroscopy of short polyene triplet states comes from the electron impact spectra measured for 1,3-butadiene and 1,3,5-hexatriene ⁷², ⁷³. It is reasonably well established that the lowest triplet state of trans-1,3-butadiene is the 3B_u state. A second triplet has been assigned to 3A_g . High oxygen pressures have been used to enhance the $S_0 \to T_1$ transitions of 1,3-dienes⁷⁴. Since triplet states of conjugated dienes are readily obtained through energy transfer from triplet photosensitizers, it is the general belief that these are the reactive species which give rise to processes such as dimerization by reaction with ground state diene molecule. cis,trans Isomerization can also be effected by triplet sensitization⁷⁵.

1.5.1 cis,trans Photoisomerization, s-cis/s-trans Interconversion, and Cyclobutene Formation.

The direct cis,trans isomerization of conjugated dienes is a process that has been studied in great detail⁷⁵. Polyene isomers in general, differing by their conformation about an essential double bond, exist as distinguishable chemical species. The thermal and

photochemical interconversion of these isomers is of fundamental importance. It is the basic step in a large number of chemical and biological transformations. Because of its special role as the visual chromophore, retinal has received considerable attention 76, 77, 78.

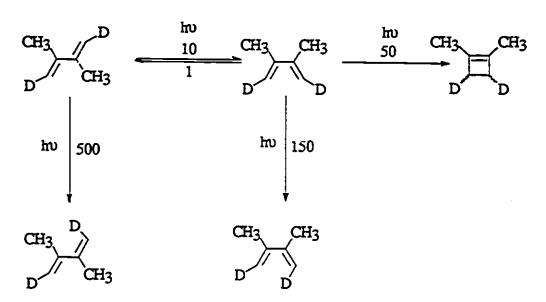
Aryl-substituted 1,3-dienes generally undergo *cis,trans* photoisomerization efficiently and show very weak fluorescence, but do not undergo cyclization to cyclobutene or bicyclobutanes. Under triplet state excitation conditions bicyclobutanes are not formed (see section 1.5.2) and there is only one known instance of sensitized cyclobutene formation⁹.

Direct irradiation of 1,3-butadiene in hydrocarbon solution yields cyclobutene and bicyclo[1.1.0]butane 38 (equation 1.5.1.1). Irradiation of the isolated s-cis and s-trans conformers in an argon matrix at 20 K results in the facile interconversion of the two species⁹.

Squillacote et al. showed for the first time in 1990 that the s-cis conformer of an acyclic 1,3-diene undergoes both electrocyclic closure and double bond isomerization 79. It had been reported earlier that when trans-1,3-pentadiene (see Scheme 1.5.1.1) is photolyzed with 254 nm light a 1:2.8 ratio of closure to isomerization is observed, but upon irradiation at 229 nm no closure is apparent 80. While these results were initially

interpreted to wavelength-dependent photochemistry, the above authors showed that the s-cis conformer of trans-1,3-pentadiene is the primary absorbing species at 254 nm. They also found that double bond isomerization and cyclobutene production are competitive processes even at 20 K.

cis,trans Isomerization, which presumably partitions equally between starting material and product, occurs only about six times more efficiently than electrocyclic ring closure.



Scheme 1.5.1.1. Relative yields for the photoisomerization processes of 2,3-dimethyl-1,3-butadiene-1,4-d₂

It then follows that ring closure is the second most efficient reaction from s-cis-1,3-diene singlet states (a 1:3 ratio of closure to isomerization is experimentally obtained for 2,3-dimethyl-1,3-butadiene-1,4 d₂ according to Scheme 1.5.1.1). In general, in acyclic dienes, cyclobutene formation occurs only when there is a significant population of s-cis

conformers present in solution 74 . Thus, in the case of 11-2,4-hexadiene the geometric 11 \rightarrow C1 photoisomerization (see Scheme 1.5.1.2) is accompanied by the formation of cis-3,4-dimethylcyclobutene 9 as a minor product, whereas irradiation of the 12 and 22-2,4-hexadiene isomers under the same experimental conditions leads only to cis,trans isomerization. The quantum yields for these various processes are summarized in Table 1.5.1.

$$t,t-39$$

$$c,t-39$$

$$\phi = 0.37$$

$$+$$

$$cis-9$$

$$\phi = 0.024$$

Scheme 1.5.1.2. Cis, trans isomerization and cyclobutene formation from t,t-39.

Table 1.5.1. Photoisomerization quantum yields from 2,4-hexadiene

Φ tt→ct	Φ cc→ct	$\Phi_{ct \to tt}$	$\phi_{cc \to tt}$	$\phi_{ct \to cc}$	$\phi \pi \rightarrow cc$
0.37	0.41	0.18	0	0.29	0

Direct excitation of cis,cis- or cis,trans-1,3-cyclooctadiene with 248 nm light gives cis,trans isomerization as the main chemical reaction (equation 1.5.1.2). The sum of the photoisomerization quantum yields, $\phi_{cc \to ct} = 0.28$ and $\phi_{ct \to cc} = 0.80^{81}$, is close to unity and it was suggested that vibrational relaxation (i the initially produced cis,cis and cis,trans excited singlet states leads to a common distorted intermediate which partitions between the two isomers.

The photochemistry of 40 is wavelength dependent (equation 1.5.1.3). Upon photolysis at 254 nm, 40 gives rise to *cis,cis,trans*-1,3,5-cyclononatriene 41 as the only detectable product, but on irradiation at 300 nm slowly yields the tricyclic cyclobutene 4282. The photostationary state ratio between 40/41 at 300 nm is 99 % 40 and 1 % 41. The ring opening of 40 to yield 41 was suggested to result from excitation of the more stable, twisted *s-cis* conformer of diene 40. Formation of compound 42 was attributed to excitation of a planar diene conformer of 40.

It is well documented that the photochemical ring closure of 1,3-dienes is a highly stereospecific process. The efficiency of photochemical ring closure of large cyclic dienes decreases as ring size increases, as is shown in equations 1.5.1.4-781, 83 - 86.

1.5.2 Bicyclo[1.1.0]butane Formation and [1,5]-H Migration.

Bicyclobutane⁸⁷ formation⁴¹, 88 - 90 can be forced to be the major reactive process in flexible *s-trans* dienes which are incapable of undergoing *cis,trans* isomerization; an example of this is 3,5-cholestadiene (44 in equation 1.5.2.1)91, 92

Finally, direct irradiation of s-cis 1,3-pentadienyl systems can also lead to [1,5]-hydrogen migration in appropriately substituted cases (equation 1.5.2.2)93.

1.6 Theoretical Studies of the Photochemical cis,trans Isomerization and Electrocyclization of 1,3-Dienes.

(A) Avoided Surface Crossing Models

The accepted mechanism for the cyclization of s-cis-1,3-butadiene is that initially suggested by Oosterhoff et al¹⁴ (Figure 1.4.3). This mechanism involves planarization of the carbon framework on the excited state potential energy surface plus synchronous 15 (or asynchronous, vide infra⁷⁹) rotation of the terminal methylenes leading to an avoided crossing minimum (Figure 1.1.3), followed by internal conversion to the ground state potential energy surface and ring closure or regeneration of reactant. The carbon framework of the system remains planar along the reaction pathway and thus the reaction path bears no resemblance to the reaction path leading to s-cis/s-trans interconversion.

The proposed reaction coordinate for double bond *cis,trans* isomerization (Figure 1.6.1a) involves an initial rotation of a single terminal methylene by 90° on the excited state potential energy surface (while the rest of the structure remains almost unchanged) leading to an excited state minimum. The remainder of the rotation occurs on the ground state surface after internal conversion from the excited state minimum. For both reactions in Figures 1.4.3 and 1.6.1a, as well as for the *s-cis/s-trans* interconversion, the reaction funnels (which separates the part of the reaction path that lies on the excited state and the part that lies on the ground state, Figure 1.1.3) are assumed to be different excited state minima located along different excited state paths connecting reactants and products.

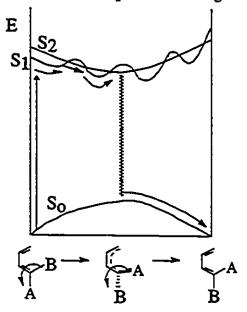
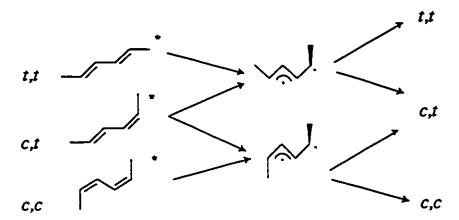


Figure 1.6.1a. State correlation diagram for the photoisomerization of a 1,3-butadiene system according to the avoided crossing model

The ramifications of the allylmethylene mechanism are best described using the photoisomerization of 2,4-hexadienes, as depicted in Scheme 1.6.1. The isomerization process commences with torsional relaxation of the initially planar singlet excited diene

about one double bond and continues through relaxed, noninterconverting, diradicaloid excited states which either isomerize or revert to the starting material.



Scheme 1.6.1. Allylmethylene biradical mechanism for the photoisomerization of 2,4hexadiene

Most calculations⁹⁴ seem to suggest that there is little or no energy barrier to photochemical double bond isomerization. At the same time, calculations for disrotatory electrocyclic closure show a substantial barrier⁹⁵. Experimentally, a 1:2.8 ratio of closure to isomerization is obtained starting from an *s-cis-*1,3- diene (Scheme 1.5.1.1). Squillacote et al explained this apparent conflict between calculations and experimental evidence by postulating an excited state potential energy surface for a nonsynchronous ring closure, which avoids the barrier of the synchronous disrotatory reaction (the reaction path presented avoids the barrier of 17-33 KJ mol⁻¹ by initially rotating around only one of the double bonds). Continuation of this rotation leads to a well that represents an allylmethylene zwitterionic species and thus eventual double bond isomerization.

Since the proposal of the above mechanism, many studies have emphasized the stability of C_S symmetry allylmethylene structures, in which a single C=C bond has been

twisted 90° from the molecular plane. For example, a semiempirical study of 1,3-pentadiene (piperylene) yielded a saddle point in the C=C-CH3 twist potential energy surface, implicating a direct barrierless isomerization on the IB_u surface as the dominant photochemical pathway⁹⁶. However, a recent study on 2-methyl-1,3-butadiene utilizing Absolute Resonance Raman Intensities has demonstrated the effect of methyl group substitution on the π -system. If the methyl group were to stabilize a particular allylmethylene structure, the C-C-C-C bend and the ethylenic stretch would be expected to show fundamental intensity; however, those features do not appear in the resonance Raman spectrum of 2-methyl-1,3-butadiene²¹. The authors concluded that in the IB_u state of 2-methyl-1,3-butadiene, the distortions of the C=C bond lengths and the C-C-C bond angles are nearly equal at each end, and that the terminal C-C bonds retain significant π character in the IB_u state; thus, the experimental evidence obtained is not entirely compatible with the development of an allylmethylene structure along this potential energy surface.

The model proposed by Van der Lugt and Oosterhoff has been widely used to explain the photochemical and photophysical aspects of the cyclobutene \leftrightarrow butadiene interconversion. In addition to the photochemistry just discussed, a related photophysical effect is assumed to result from rapid traversal to and through excited state minima: the absence of fluorescence from s-trans butadiene. Zerbetto et al 19 explained the origin of this phenomenon by computing radiationless decay rates, which were found to be much shorter than the time frames required by fluorescence decay, but nevertheless finite 20. They concluded that the non-planarity of butadiene in its lowest excited vibronic state leads to a dramatic increase in the rate of $S_1 \rightarrow S_0$ radiationless decay. In this fast radiationless decay, out-of-plane torsional modes are responsible for the internal

conversion of the lowest excited singlet state to the ground state. Internal conversion in 1,3-butadiene is therefore fast enough to quench fluorescence completely.

Similarly, the weakness of fluorescence from isoprene ($\phi_f \sim 10^{-6}$) was interpreted as being due primarily to strong nonadiabatic coupling and internal conversion from the Franck-Condon excited IB_{ii} state (single excitation from HOMO to LUMO of the π system or S_1 state) to another electronic manifold by an allowed crossing with an electronic state of different symmetry; this state was identified as the $2A_g$ (double excitation from HOMO to LUMO or S_2 state), as depicted in Figure 1.6.1b²¹. The time scale of the internal conversion process was calculated to be 10 fs.

Cyclobutene formation ensues from a synchronous (or asynchronous) rotation ⁹⁷ about the C₁-C₂ and C₃-C₄ bonds of the 1,3-butadiene moiety according to this model. Upon relaxation to the energy minimum, decay to the ground state surface (by coupling of the discrete vibrational levels of S₂ with the quasi-continuum of the S₀ vibrational levels) produces cyclobutene or regenerates diene (Figure 1.4.3). As mentioned in Section 1.1, the disrotatory pathway for 1,3-butadiene closure is preferred overall because the ground state surface for this pathway is higher in energy than that for the conrotatory pathway (see Figure 1.1.3), and consequently, internal conversion to the ground state is faster for the disrotatory mode of cyclization. This interpretation supports the fact that photochemical ring closure of a 1,3-diene is a highly stereospecific process; however, it is incompatible with the nonstereospecificity observed in general for the reverse reaction (cyclobutene ring opening, Section 1.3.1).

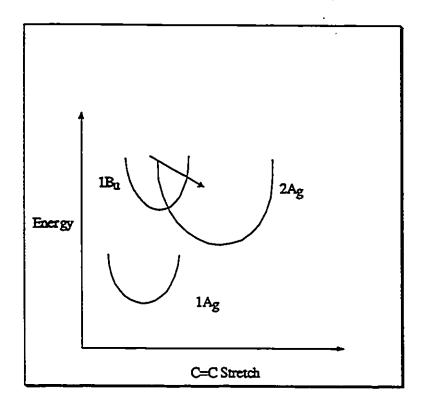


Figure 1.6.1b. A section through the potential energy surfaces for the 1^1B_u , 1^1A_g and 2^1A_g states of 2-methyl-1,3-butadiene along the symmetric C=C stretches.

(B) Conical Intersection Model

Diene photoisomerization and photochemical ring opening reactions are processes that appear to be very fast (well below 1 picosecond, see Section 1.2⁷⁷, ⁹⁸) and are often associated with a complete lack of fluorescence¹⁹. These facts are incompatible with a mechanism where a relatively stable excited state intermediate is generated (*i.e.* allyl methylene biradical) and with the presence of a substantial energy gap between two potential energy surfaces.

Recent ab-initio (MC SCF) calculations, postulate the existence of conical intersection regions (where the ground and excited state potential energy surfaces intersect) in the isomerization pathways of 1,3-butadiene and in several other photochemical reactions 100 - 102. The degeneracy of the two surfaces at a conical intersection allows a very rapid decay process that has been theoretically demonstrated to take place within a single vibrational period 103. The photoexcited reactant can then pass directly to the ground state. The funnel (conical intersection) between the excited state and the ground state surfaces (Figure 1.6.5) of the reaction coordinate plays a role in a photochemical reaction similar to the transition state for a thermal reaction (the photoexcited reactant must necessarily assume the structure of a conical intersection point, or the rate of decay to the ground state surface would be much slower).

The geometries of the conical intersections (CTs) found for the excited singlet state surface of 1,3-butadiene are tetraradicaloid structures (four quasi-unpaired electrons where almost all the bonding is lost) with all three C-C bonds twisted, as a result of substantial pyramidalization at one of the two central carbons and twisting of the two terminal C-C bonds¹⁰⁴. Figure 1.6.2 illustrates a pictorial representation of the reaction paths and minima for 1,3-butadiene isomerization within a three dimensional cross section (obtained by MM-VB, molecular mechanics valence bond calculations) of the excited state potential energy surface. The variable β depicts the *s-cis/s-trans* interconversion process, and the coordinates α_1 and α_2 describe the *cis,trans* isomerization of the two terminal double bonds, which can change in both a synchronous and asynchronous fashion (cf. with avoided crossing model) at the time β is approaching a value of 90°. The center of the box (90,90,90) in Figure 1.6.2, which has been shaded, corresponds to a point where all the π bonds are twisted by 90°. This is one of the conical intersection regions.

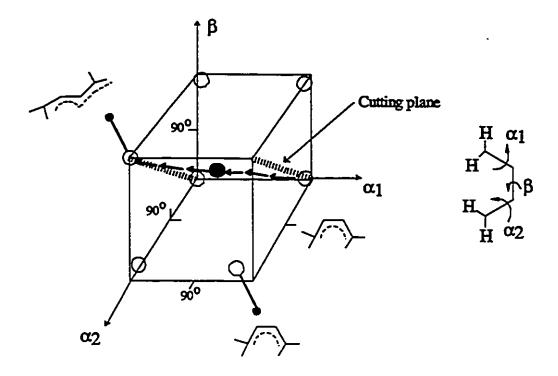
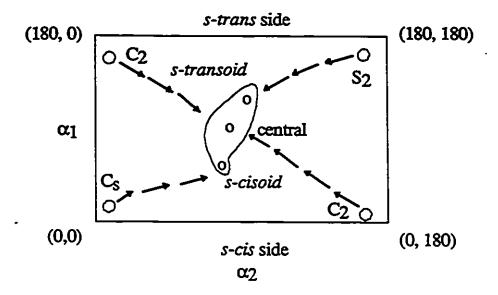


Figure 1.6.2. Three-dimensional cross section of the excited state potential energy surface for butadiene. The coordinates α_1 , α_2 , and β correspond to rotations about the three C-C σ bonds of the butadiene framework and span a range from 0 to 180°. The circles represent the excited state stable structures. The central volume represents the conical intersection region centered on the (90,90,90) point. The diagonals correspond to conrotatory and disrotatory pathways going from s-cis to s-trans minima

The location of the s-cis and s-trans minima that correspond to the excited state of 1,3-butadiene are indicated by spheres near the bottom face and the top face of the box, respectively. The s-cis/s-trans interconversion pathways can be envisaged by plotting potential energy surfaces in the special cutting plane defined by the dashed lines in Figure 1.6.2. This cutting plane is depicted in Scheme 1.6.2.



Scheme 1.6.2. s-cis/s-trans Isomerization pathways for 1,3-butadiene

Two stable s-cis conformations were found (at the MC-SCF/4-31 G level of theory) which correspond to C_2 and C_s symmetry. The two s-trans conformations found have symmetry C_2 and S_2 . In the s-cis/s-trans transition region, no real transition structure for the s-cis/s-trans interconversion process was found, rather only points of degeneracy between the first excited state and ground state seem to occur in these calculations. Thus, there exists a large continuous region of "touching" between the ground and excited state potential energy surfaces along the s-cis/s-trans isomerization path. However, three quite different critical points were found on the conical intersection region, denoted as s-transoid, s-cisoid, and central. The structures of these points are depicted in Figure 1.6.3. If the photoprocess starts from the s-trans conformer (S_2 symmetry) a stationary point on the conical intersection which lies 13.4 kJ mol⁻¹ below the S_2 s-trans minimum is reached. This point is the lowest energy point on the excited state surface.

Similarly, starting from the C_s s-cis conformer, an s-cisoid stationary point is encountered on the conical intersection at 15.5 KJ mol⁻¹ above the excited state

minimum. The pathways to the conical intersections involve the nonsynchronous rotation of the two terminal CH₂'s of 1,3-butadiene along with central C-C bond rotation. A third stationary point on the conical intersection found in these calculations lies 25.1 kJ mol⁻¹ above the C_S and S_2 minima (central conical intersection in Figure 1.6.3). These three conical intersection structures are stationary points on the touching region and hence they give an indication of the accessibility of the conical intersection region by following the possible excited state *s-cis/s-trans* interconversion pathway. The location and energy of the conical intersection stationary points is schematically illustrated in Figure 1.6.4, where the geometric parameter β (from Figure 1.6.2) is used as the reaction coordinate.

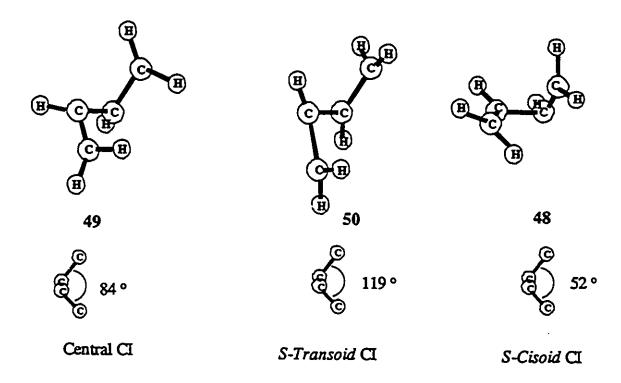
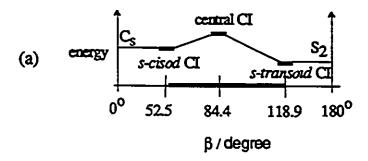


Figure 1.6.3. Optimized MC-SCF/4-31G structures for the central, s-cisoid and s-transoid conical intersections

The s-cisoid conical intersection (48, Figure 1.6.3) occurs at a C-C-C-C dihedral angle of 52° while the central conical intersection (49, Figure 1.6.3) is located at 84° . Similarly, the s-transoid conical intersection (50), occurs at a C-C-C-C dihedral angle of 119° . The conical intersection is approached very soon starting from the C_S s-cis minimum or from the S_2 s-trans minimum near the s-ciscid or s-transoid conical intersection stationary points respectively. These calculations provide the foundation for understanding the disrotatory stereochemical preference which is observed for the photochemical ring closure of 1,3-dienes to cyclobutenes.

Scheme 1.6.2 depicts the reaction pathways from the energy minima of the s-cis and s-trans conformers of 1,3-butadiene for s-cis/s-trans conformer interconversion, cis,trans isomerization and cyclobutene formation. If the decay commences from the s-cis region, the system after photoexcitation undergoes relaxation to the low energy region of the potential energy surface where the excited state minima and the conical intersection region are located and a very fast return to the ground state potential energy surface is assured. There are two stereochemically different pathways connecting the two s-cis minima (C_S and C_2) to the conical intersection region. Along the disrotatory pathway (the one starting from the C_S minimum) the system approaches the conical intersection region, located 16.7 kJ mol⁻¹ above the minimum, (vide supra) with a value of β below 50° (see Figure 1.6.4). The situation is different along the conrotatory pathway, where the system must enter the central conical intersection region, about 25.1 kJ mol-1 above the minimum, with a value if the \beta torsional angle larger than 80°. As is shown in Scheme 1.6.2, the location of the edge of the conical intersection is consistent with an immediate passage into the conical intersection region and thus to the ground state when the system moves along the disrotatory pathway, while the conrotatory pathway corresponds to a less favorable route. The *stereochemical* decision is thus made mainly on the excited state surface of the reaction pathway.



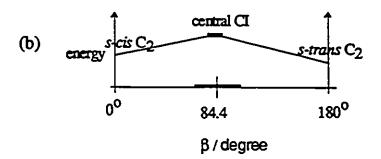
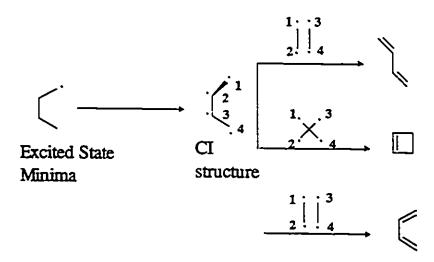


Figure 1.6.4. Reaction coordinate diagram for twisting about the 1,3-butadiene C_2 - C_3 bond along the disrotatory (a), and conrotatory (b), s-cis/s-trans excited state isomerization pathways

Scheme 1.6.3. Schematic excited state pathway for ring closure of 1,3-butadiene.

A recorpling process, described in Scheme 1.6.4, will dominate the ground state stage of the reaction, which commences at the conical intersection region and branches to the various ground state minima corresponding to different photoproducts. Branching to the different recoupling pathways will be dictated by the structure of the molecule at the conical intersection point and the momentum vectors associated with individual atomic trajectories that are established during the approach of the molecule to the conical intersection.



Scheme 1.6.4. Possible recoupling pathways from s-cis excited state minima of 1,3-butadiene

This mechanism can explain the different degrees of stereospecificity in the ring opening and ring closure reactions. A simple picture of the ring opening process involves an initial excitation to a noncovalent electronic state, which then relaxes very rapidly to the doubly excited (2¹A_g) state at a geometry close to that of the original ground state reactant (after few oscillations the molecule will decay to the 2¹A_g state and evolve on the 2A_g potential energy surface). The nonstereospecificity obtained is proposed to result from what occurs on the ground state part of the reaction coordinate, after passage through the conical intersection. Relaxation on the ground state surface is dominated by twisting motions of two CH₂ groups, but this can occur in conrotatory or disrotatory fashion.

Olivucci and coworkers⁶¹ undertook a theoretical study on the photochemistry of 7-methylbicyclo[4.2.0]oct-1(6)-ene 31 using *ab initio* CAS-SCF (Complete Active Space-Self Consistent Field) computations at the 4-31G level of theory. They demonstrated that the formation of the three diene products in the photochemistry of 31 (see equation 1.3.3.5) can be rationalized via a reaction path that passes from the excited state to the ground state via three different *transition points*⁶². The photochemical reaction is divided into two stages. The first stage, which occurs on the excited state potential energy surface before the transition point, corresponds to *ring opening*, involving primarily C2-C3 rotation (numbering from 1,3-butadiene moiety). The *conrotatory or disrotatory motion* occurs in the second stage of the reaction, on the ground state surface after the transition point, and there are three possible ground-state paths from each conical intersection. Thus the stereochemical outcome is decided in the second stage of the reaction by the nature of the path which is actually followed from the conical intersections to the products. The possibility of these different relaxation routes from each conical intersection provides a

mechanistic rationalization for the observation that ring opening of 31 is *nonstereospecific*. Figure 1.6.5 shows, pictorially, a representation of the reaction funnel, where the vertex symbolizes the conical intersection point.

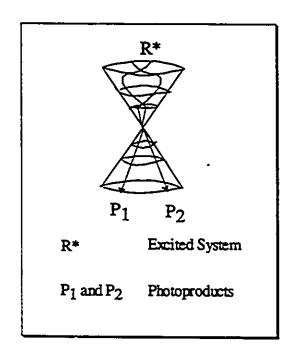


Figure 1.6.5. Reaction funnels for the excited state and ground state surfaces and conical intersection point (vertex of the double cone)

1.7 Statement of the problem:

Three cyclobutene systems will be investigated in this study: 1-Phenyl substituted cyclobutenes; Alkylsubstituted monocyclic cyclobutenes, and Bicyclo[n,2.0]alkenes.

Phenyl-substituted cyclobutenes (section 1.3) are known to fluoresce with high quantum yields to the exclusion of ring opening. The reason for this distinct behavior will

be investigated employing a series of appropriately substituted 1-phenyl cyclobutenes. In particular, the presence of a polarized excited state will be researched as a possible cause for the lack of ring opening reaction.

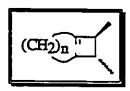
Results from Leigh and coworkers⁴³ (see section 1.3.1 and equations 1.3.1.7 and 1.3.1.8) on the photochemical ring opening of *cis*- and *trans*-tricyclo[6.4.0.0.]dodec-1-ene (10 and 11 respectively) suggested that orbital symmetry does play a role in the initial stages of the ring opening reaction. Also, the dynamics of the photochemical ring opening reaction point towards symmetry-allowed *disrotatory* pathways, as explained in section 1.2. Our study is to be concerned with a series of alkylsubstituted cyclobutenes with increasing alkyl substitution at C₃/C₄ (and therefore diminishing modes for *disrotation*) to provide further evidence, that despite the general nonstereospecificity observed in the ring opening reaction of monocyclic cyclobutenes, the initial motions are directed towards orbital symmetry-allowed *disrotatory* control.

$$R_1$$
 R_2
 R_3
 R_2
 R_3

A study of the *cis,trans* photoisomerization of a series of *EE* and *EZ* constrained scis dienes will be undertaken in Chapter IV. This study will focus on the role of central C-C bond torsion on the *cis,trans* photoisomerization process of s-cis dienes.

According to section 1.4, equation 1.4.2, cyclobutenes such as *cis* and *trans-* 37 undergo photochemical ring opening with an unusually high degree of stereoselectivity. In order to elucidate the reasons why such structural effects prejudice the stereochemical outcome of the photochemical ring opening reaction, the study of a series of bicyclic

cyclobutenes with varying ancillary ring sizes will be analyzed. The question posed is whether the stereoselectivity observed (e.g. equation 1.4.2) is a function of constraint in the cyclobutene ring. Particularly, the role of C=C torsional motions in cyclobutene ring opening will be discussed and paralleled with the motions around C₂-C₃ (1,3-butadiene numbering) in the cis,trans photoisomerization of 1,3-dienes.



n = 2.3.4, and 5

Comparisons of the product distributions obtained from photolysis of these compounds with the quantum yields for *cis,trans* photoisomerization of the corresponding isomeric dienes will also be carried out, in a more comprehensive consideration of the adiabatic mechanism for cyclobutene ring opening.

The majority of the results and observations will be discussed in the context of recent theoretical calculations for cyclobutene \leftrightarrow butadiene interconversion.

CHAPTER II

THE PHOTOCHEMISTRY OF 1-PHENYLCYCLOBUTENES

2.1 Introduction

The photochemistry of 1,2-diphenylcyclobutene (1) in aprotic solvents was illustrated in equation 1.3.3.1 (Chapter 1.3.1). Compound 1 does not undergo ring opening upon photolysis, but cycloreverts to 1,2-diphenylacetylene with very low quantum efficiency. The major photochemical deactivation pathway of the singlet excited state of 1 is fluorescence ($\phi_f = 0.9$). This contrasts with the behavior of benzocyclobutenes and dewar aromatics, which both undergo efficient ring opening upon photolysis in condensed media (equations 1.3.1.4-6). It has been suggested that the failure of arylcyclobutenes to undergo excited state ring opening may be due to simple energetic considerations; the π , π * singlet state energy is too low to enable cleavage of the cyclobutene C_3 - C_4 bond. A second possibility is that the lack of reactivity towards ring opening is for some reason due to polarization of the styrenic C=C bond in the π , π * excited singlet state. That such polarization is present is indicated by the fact that photolysis of arylcyclobutenes (and simple styrene derivatives) in alcohol solution results in the formation of ethers consistent with initial protonation of the lowest excited singlet state by the solvent (equation 1.3.3.2).

The addition of hydroxylic solvents to optically excited olefins is a well-studied reaction in organic photochemistry. Evidence that these reactions involve protonation of the olefin and the intermediacy of the resulting carbocation is compelling 105a.

The triplet-sensitized photohydration of aliphatic cycloalkenes in protic media is summarized in Scheme 2.1.1. The proposed mechanism is supported by evidence 105a which includes direct detection of the *trans*-alkene and incorporation of deuterium when the reaction is run in methanol-d.

$$\frac{\text{hv, Sens}^3}{\text{(CH2)}_{n-2}} \left[\text{ TRANS} \right] \xrightarrow{\text{ROH}} \left(\text{CH2} \right)_{n-2} \xrightarrow{\text{RO}} \left(\text{CH2} \right)_{n-2}$$

Scheme 2.1.1. Sensitized photohydration of aliphatic cycloalkenes.

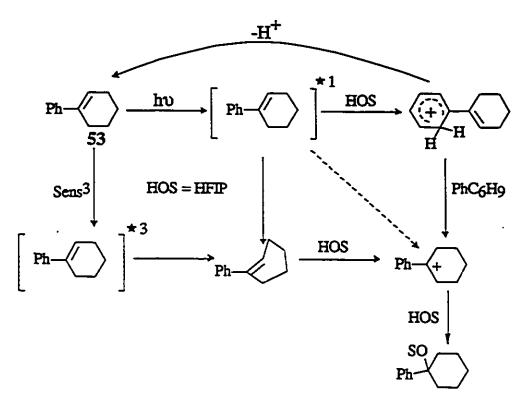
Photoprotonation of aliphatic cycloalkenes also takes place on direct irradiation. The pathway is believed to involve formation of the *trans*-cycloalkene¹⁰⁶, the same intermediate obtained on sensitized irradiation.

Aliphatic acyclic alkenes do not undergo photoaddition on sensitized irradiation but do add hydroxylic solvents on direct photolysis. Kropp 105a, 106 has interpreted these photoadditions in terms of nucleophilic trapping of the Rydberg π ,R(3s) state. The photochemistry of simple aromatic alkenes and alkynes has been rationalized as deriving from π , π * excited states, since they are much lower in energy than other available states.

Singlet states have been postulated to be involved in the photoaddition of methanol to 2-phenyl-2-bornene 51 and 2-phenyl-2-norbornene 52^{105a} (equations 2.1.1 and 2.1.2). In addition, methanol was found to quench the fluorescence of 2-phenyl-2-bornene.

52

coworkers 107 investigated the photochemistry McClelland and phenylcyclohexene 53 in 1,1,1,3,3,3-hexafluoro-2-propanol (HFIP). They observed the cation directly as a transient species by laser flash photolysis, using both direct irradiation at 248 nm and benzophenone sensitized irradiation at 308 nm. In this case, the cation is formed by direct protonation of the singlet state, as well as ground state protonation of trans-53 which is formed by excited state cis, trans- isomerization. Triplet sensitized formation of the cation involves the trans- cycloalkene exclusively. In the direct irradiation, their results suggest that protonation occurs predominantly on the aromatic ring to give the 2-benzenonium ion, which ultimately yields the benzylic cation by proton transfer to ground state alkene. The entire mechanism is depicted in Scheme 2.1.2. Direct protonation of the singlet state at the styrenic double bond to give the cyclohexyl cation directly cannot be ruled out, but the authors concluded that that pathway is likely to be of minor importance in this case.



Scheme 2.1.2. Mechanism for photoaddition of solvent to 1-phenylcyclohexene

The acid-base properties of aromatic compounds in the excited state have been a topic of great interest 105b,c . Phenols and hydroxyaromatic compounds become much stronger acids (ΔpK_a can be > 6) in $S_1^{105d,e}$. For aromatic alkenes, the pK shifts on excitation ($\Delta pK = pK^*-pK$) to S_1 are of the order of 8 logarithmic units or more. A typical example is given by styrene systems.

Yates and coworkers 108 have shown that the photohydration of styrenes 54 are generally subject to acid catalysis, the reaction proceeding via a polarized S_1 state (equation 2.1.3). These authors also examined the reactivity-selectivity relationships for the photoaddition reactions of different nucleophiles to alkenes and alkynes. They found that the photochemically generated carbenium ion exhibits greater selectivity than its

thermal counterpart generated in identical media, suggesting that the cation is produced in the excited state.

In another mechanistic study¹⁰⁹ it was demonstrated that while the triplet states of styrenes (nitrosubstituted derivatives excluded) are not inert in aqueous acid, they do not undergo photoprotonation.

The singlet states of nonnitro-substituted aromatic alkenes and alkynes most likely possess charge transfer character, thus facilitating protonation at the β -carbon and hence hydration. The triplet states of these molecules are thought to be of a diradicaloid nature. Yates and coworkers compared the ground state protonation rate constants with those from the excited state and found that the latter is approximately 10^{11} - 10^{14} times more reactive to protonation than the ground state. This was explained as being principally due to the ground state electronic configurations and geometries involved and the need for rehybridization upon protonation 109 - 111. Since the excited state electronic distribution is quite different, the activation barrier to proton transfer may be reduced significantly. If

however, the excited states are assumed to have twisted or bent geometries, with charge transfer character, then the need for rehybridization on protonation is avoided.

A study on the structure-reactivity relationship of the photohydration reaction of aromatic alkenes was undertaken by Yates and coworkers 112 with a series of substituted styrenes. Irradiation of alkenes 55-64, (see Scheme 2.1.3.) in neutral water or dilute acid at 254 nm resulted in efficient conversion to the corresponding 1-arylethanols. Sensitization and quenching experiments indicated a singlet reaction; solvent isotope effects and the observation of general acid catalysis was consistent with protonation being the rate determining step in the hydration of S₁. Table 2.1 summarizes the singlet fluorescence lifetimes of several styrenic compounds in aqueous solution. It is observed that the stronger the electron donating ability of the substituent, the shorter the lifetime of the styrene derivative. From the results of fluorescence quenching experiments, it was concluded that this is the result of a substantial effect on the rate of protonation of S₁ by the solvent.

x S	CH=CH ₂		hυ H ₂ O)H TH-CH3
	x	Y		x	Y
55	H	H	60	Br	H
56	CH ₃ O	Ħ	61	а	H
<i>5</i> 7	CH ₃	H	62	CN	H
58	F	H	63	CF ₃	H
59	H	F	64	H	CN

Scheme 2.1.3. Photohydration of styrene derivatives.

Table 2.1. Singlet fluorescence lifetimes of styrenic compounds determined in water at pH 7

Styrene	τ _S [ns]
55	7.5
56	1.2
57	4.5
58	4.9
59	4.3

Yates and coworkers could not detect photohydration products for styrenes with substituents of greater electron-withdrawing character than that of fluorine, and thus concluded that for photohydration to take place, the electron-donating ability of the substituent had to be higher or equal to that of fluorine in S_1

As pointed out earlier, arylcyclobutenes do not undergo ring opening upon photolysis in solution. In principle, this could be due to the lower energy and/or more extended delocalization in the lowest excited singlet state of aryl-compared to alkylderivatives. It may also be the result of the π , π * singlet state being more extensively polarized than in alkyl derivatives. If the latter is true, then reducing the intrinsic polarization of the C=C bond in the cyclobutene ring through substitution in the phenyl ring should result in an increase in the rate constant for ring opening, to the point where the ring opening reaction may be detectable.

With that goal in mind, the photochemistry and photophysics of six 1-arylcyclobutene derivatives 65-70 shown below will be studied in aprotic solvents.

$$X = 4 - CH_3O + 4 - CH_3 + 4 - CF_3O + 3 - CF_3$$
65 66 67 68 69 70

These compounds also afford the opportunity to examine the effect of geometrical constraints on the photoprotonation of substituted styrene derivatives. Thus the photochemistry of 65-70 in the presence of alcohols will also be investigated in order to establish a qualitative comparison with the analogously substituted styrenes.

2.2 RESULTS

2.2.1 Preparation of 1-Phenylcyclobutenes

The six 1-arylcyclobutenes were prepared by arylation of cyclobutanone with the corresponding aryl-lithium reagent, followed by acid-catalyzed dehydration of the intermediate 1-arylcyclobutanols according to Scheme 2.2.1.

Scheme 2.2.1. Synthesis of 1-phenylcyclobutenes

Initial purification of cyclobutenes 65-70 was carried out by bulb-to-bulb distillation. Further purification was achieved by semipreparative gas chromatography. Identification of 65-70, as well as the intermediate 1-arylcyclobutanols, was performed on the basis of their ¹H and ¹³C NMR, UV, IR and mass spectra and High Resolution Mass Spectrometry measurements.

2.2.2 UV Absorption Spectra

The UV absorption spectra of compounds 65-70 were obtained in dilute deoxygenated cyclohexane (or pentane), acetonitrile and methanol solutions. Each compound displays a rather broad absorption, devoid of any fine structure. The absorption maxima and the molar extinction coefficients are summarized in Table 2.2.2.1.

Table 2.2.2.1. Solution phase UV absorption data for cyclobutenes 65-70 measured in acetonitrile (CH₃CN), cyclohexane (C_6H_{12}) and methanol (CH₃OH) solutions at 23°C.

 $\lambda_{max} [nm]^a$

$(\varepsilon_{\text{max}})[\text{mol}^{-1}\text{dm}^3\text{cm}^{-1}]^b$			
Cyclobutene	CH ₃ CN	C ₆ H ₁₂	СН3ОН
65	260 (~16000)	260 (17900)	265 (16050)
66	256 (15500)	258 (14500)	247 (16000)
67	252 (13000)	256 (12882)	252 (12950)
68	260 (14800)	260 (16000)	260 (15730)
69	254 (17000)	254 (17400)	260
70	254 (15100)	254 (16500)	260

a Wavelength of maximum absorption.

b Molar extintion coefficient at λ_{max}

2.2.3 Photochemistry of 65-70 in Aprotic Solvents

Photolysis of cyclobutenes 65-70 in deoxygenated pentane and acetonitrile (ca 5 x 10⁻³ mol dm⁻³) solutions with 254 nm light produces the product mixtures shown in equation 2.2.3.1. No attempt was made to identify ethylene in the photoreaction mixtures, but the phenylacetylenes 77-82 (cycloreversion products), were identified by GCMS analyses, GCFTIR analyses and by coinjection with authentic samples where available. The chemical yields of the 1-phenylacetylenes obtained in this manner range from 80 - 95 % (at conversions lower than 10 %).

No ring opening product (2-aryl-1,3-butadiene) was observed within the limits of detection of the technique employed (either by gas chromatography or high field NMR), allowing an upper limit of 1 % relative to that of phenylacetylene formation.

$$X \longrightarrow \frac{hv (254 \text{ nm})}{C_5H_{12} \text{ or }} X \longrightarrow = + = (2.2.3.1)$$
CH3CN

Cyclobutene		Phenylacetylene
65	X = 4-CH ₃ O	77
66	X = 4-CH ₃	78
67	X = H	7 9
68	$X = 4-CF_3$	80
69	$X = 4-CF_3O$	81
70	$X = 3-CF_3$	82

Yields for phenylacetylene formation from photolyses of cyclobutenes 65-70 in deoxygenated acetonitrile and pentane solutions were determined from the slopes of moles of photoproduct *versus* irradiation time plots (Figure 2.2.3.1A and B). These experiments were carried out in a merry-go-round apparatus, with the photolysis of 68 as a standard, with monitoring of photoproduct formation by gas chromatographic techniques. Absolute quantum yields for product formation from photolysis of 68 as deoxygenated ca. 5 x 10⁻³ mol dm⁻³ solutions in pentane, acetonitrile, and methanol were determined by electronic actinometry¹¹³ - ¹¹⁵ (Appendix 1). Absolute quantum yields for product formation from 65-67, 69-70 were then calculated using the slopes of product concentration versus time plots, and the absolute quantum yields for reaction of the reference compound 68 as measured above. These quantum yields are exhibited in Table 2.2.3.1.

Table 2.2.3.1. Quantum yields for cycloreversion of 1-arylcyclobutenes 65-70 in ca. 5 x 10^{-3} mol dm⁻³ deoxygenated acetonitrile and pentane solutions at 23°C with 254 nm Light

Cyclobutene	φ ₁ (acetonitrile)	φ ₂ (pentane)
65	0.18 ± 0.02	0.20 ± 0.02
66	0.12 ±0.05	0.15 ± 0.02
67	0.09 ± 0.02	0.09 ± 0.01
68	0.08 ± 0.01	0.07 ± 0.01
69	0.035 ±0.009	0.022 ± 0.003
70	0.0090 ± 0.0006	0.0045 ± 0.0006

A)

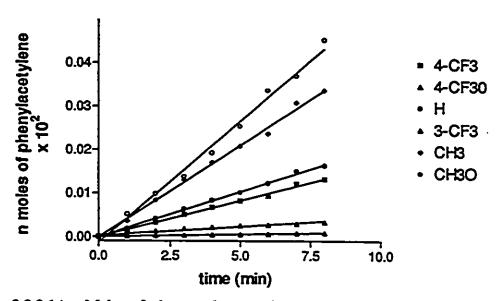


Figure 2.2.3.1A. Moles of photoproduct vs. time plots for the photolysis of 65-70 in deoxygenated pentane solution at $23\pm 1^{\circ}$ C.

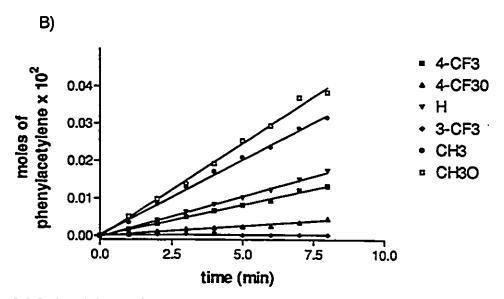


Figure 2.2.3.1B. Moles of photoproduct vs. time plots for the photolysis of 65-70 in deoxygenated acetonitrile solution at $23\pm1^{\circ}C$

Irradiation of acetonitrile solutions of compounds 66-68 in the presence of 4'-methoxyacetophenone with 300 nm light (conditions where the ketone absorbs > 99 % of the light), resulted in the formation of high molecular weight products which were shown to be dimers of 66-68 by GC/MS analysis. No significant accumulation of the corresponding phenylacetylene was observed in any of the cases studied. Scheme 2.2.3.1 depicts the sensitization process. 4'-Methoxyacetophenone was chosen as sensitizer due to its triplet energy (310 KJ mol⁻¹) being somewhat higher than that of 1-phenylcyclobutene itself (~ 245 KJ mol⁻¹ 116). Triplet energy transfer was verified to occur at near the diffusion controlled rate by nanosecond laser flash photolysis experiments (vide infra).

$$CH_3O \longrightarrow O \qquad \qquad ISC \qquad CH_3O \longrightarrow O \qquad T_1$$

$$E_T = 310 \text{ KJ mol-1}$$

$$NO SINGLET \qquad CH_3CN : CH_3OH \qquad X$$

$$1:1 \qquad \qquad X$$

 $X = H, 4-CH_3, 4-CF_3$

Scheme 2.2.3.1. Energy transfer from 4'-methoxyacetophenone triplet to 1-arylcyclobutene

Irradiation of cyclohexane solutions of compounds 66-68 in the presence of transpiperylene (ca. 2 x 10⁻³ mol dm⁻³) led to the formation of the corresponding phenylacetylene (78, 79, and 80 respectively) in similar yields to those obtained in the absence of the diene. The last two experiments supported the conclusion that the cycloreversion reaction derives from excitation into the singlet manifold of the 1-phenylcyclobutenes.

In one case (70) direct irradiation led to the formation of substantial amounts of high molecular weight material. These high molecular weight products were tentarively identified as dirners on the basis of GC/MS analyses. These products are not observed, within our limits of detection, upon direct photolyses of compounds 65-69 in dilute deoxygenated pentane or acetonitrile solutions. Photolysis of 70 in pentane in the presence of 1,3-cyclohexadiene in concentration of 0.02 mol dm⁻³, (which has a triplet energy of 219 KJ mol⁻¹ 117) with 254 nm light resulted in complete suppression of the formation of dimeric products. This experiment seems to indicate that the dimeric products obtained from direct photolysis of 70 are triplet-derived.

The possibility that photocycloreversion proceeds via a similar mechanism to that of alkylcyclobutenes (Introduction 1.3.3) has been investigated with 1-phenylcyclobutene-2,4,4-d3 (89). This compound was synthesized by the route shown in Scheme 2.2.3.2. Photolysis (254 nm) of 89 in deoxygenated acetonitrile solution was carried out to ca. 50 % conversion and the starting material was reisolated by semipreparative GC. The ¹H NMR spectrum of the recovered material was indistinguishable from that of freshly-synthesized sample.

Scheme 2.2.3.2. Synthesis of 1-phenylcyclobutene-d₃.

2.2.4 Photolyses in Hydroxylic Solvents.

Photolysis of 65-70 in deoxygenated ca. 5 x 10⁻³ mol dm⁻³ methanol solutions with 254 nm light affords the respective 1-aryleyclobutyl methyl ethers, 83-88, in high chemical yields (65-90 %) and the respective cycloreversion products, as depicted in Scheme 2.2.4.1. No other products were detected in higher than 5 % yield.

$$\frac{\text{hv (254 nm)}}{\text{CH}_3\text{OH}} \quad X = + X = 0\text{CH}_3$$

Cyclobutene		Solvent adduct
65	X=4-CH ₃ O	83
66	$X = 4-CH_3$	84
67	X = H	85
68	$X = 4-CF_3$	86
69	$X = 4-CF_3O$	87
70	$X = 3-CF_3$	88

Scheme 2.2.4.1. Photolysis of 1-phenylcyclobutene derivatives in methanol.

Relative quantum yields for the formation of 83-88 from photolyses of cyclobutenes 65-70 in deoxygenated methanolic solutions were calculated from the slopes of photoproduct concentration *versus* irradiation time plots (see Section 2.2.3). Product formation was monitored by gas chromatographic analysis. The relative yields obtained in this fashion were transformed into absolute quantum yield figures by the use of the actinic conversion (Section 2.2.3). These quantum yields are shown in Table 2.2.4.1 (see Appendix 1 for quantum yield calculations).

Table 2.2.4.1. Quantum yields for methanol addition and cycloreversion of 1-arylcyclobutenes 65-70 in methanol solution at 23° C.

Cyclobutene	φ methanol adduct	φ phenviacetylene
65	0.13 ± 0.02	0.05 ± 0.02
66	0.10 ± 0.02	0.03 ± 0.02
67	0.08 ± 0.01	0.010 ± 0.005
68	0.05 ± 0.01	0.016±0.003
69	0.024 ± 0.007	0.005 ± 0.002
70	0.0006 ± 0.0001	0.0001 ± 0.0001

The 1-arylcyclobutyl methyl ethers (83-88) were identified by coinjection with authentic samples, and by comparison of the mass and infrared spectra of isolated samples with those obtained from the authentic samples. The authentic samples were prepared by methylation of the 1-arylcyclobutanols (71-76) with iodomethane in dimethylsulphoxide in the presence of barium oxide (equation 2.2.4.1), and were identified on the basis of their

 $^{1}\mathrm{H}$ and $^{13}\mathrm{C}$ NMR, IR and mass spectra and by High Resolution Mass Spectrometry.

Irradiation of acetonitrile: methanol (50:50) solutions of compounds 66-68 in the presence of 4'-methoxyacetophenone with 300 nm light (where compounds 66-68 show only minimal residual absorption), produced no 1-arylcyclobutyl methyl ether or phenylacetylene, but again, high molecular weight material was detected in the reaction mixture. Scheme 2.2.3.1 depicts the sensitization process.

In order to elucidate the extent of reversibility of the protonation step in the photoaddition of solvent to 1-phenylcyclobutenes, an experiment involving the photolysis of 1-phenylcyclobutene 67 in deoxygenated methanol-d₄ was conducted. If the protonation step is reversible, deuterium incorporation in reisolated starting material is expected. The results of the experiment indicate that the recovered starting material contained < 0.5 % of a single deuterium after 50 % conversion of the starting material, as analyzed by mass spectrometric techniques.

2.2.5 Fluorescence Spectra of Cyclobutenes 65-70

The fluorescence emission spectra of compounds 65-70 were recorded as very dilute solutions (ca. 5 x 10^{-6} mol dm⁻³) in acetonitrile, cyclohexane and methanol. The fluorescence excitation spectra of 65-70 match the absorption spectra very closely in all the compounds of the series. Table 2.2.5.1 summarizes the λ_{max} of fluorescence (emission) along with the singlet excited state energies obtained from the O-O band

(excitation-emission) overlap. The wavelengths for optical excitation are the λ_{max} values in the respective solvents (Table 2.2.2.1).

Table 2.2.5.1. Fluorescence emission maxima and O-O band energies for cyclobutenes 65-70

Solvent	Acetonitrile		Methanol		Pentane	
Cyclobutene	λ _{max} em	E _{S1} [KJ mol ⁻¹]	λ _{max} em [nm]	E _{S1} [KJ mol ⁻¹]	λ _{max} em	E _{S1}
65	331	362	<u>-</u>	•	330	363
66	318	376	320	374	335	357
67	320	373	318	377	309	387
68	322	371	320	374	309	387
69	337	355	328	365	335	357
70	331	362	331	361	337	355

Quantum yields of fluorescence were determined in both cyclohexane and acetonitrile as dilute, scrupulously deoxygenated solutions utilizing a primary fluorescence standard (naphthalene, $\phi_f = 0.23$) and are summarized in Table 2.2.5.2 (see Appendix 1 for fluorescence quantum yield determinations).

<u>Table 2.2.5.2.</u> Quantum yields of finorescence of cyclobutenes 65 - 70 determined in deoxygenated acetonitrile (CH₃CN) and cyclohexane (C₆H₁₂) solutions at 23°C using naphthalene as primary fluorescence standard (estimated error $-\pm 20$ %)

Cyclobutene	φ _f (CH ₃ CN)	φ _f (C ₆ H ₁₂)
65	0.20	0.20
66	0.22	0.21
67	0.24	0.25
68	0.27	0.25
69	0.31	0.30
70	0.18	0.31

2.2.6 Singlet Lifetimes, Fluorescence and Product Quenching Experiments.

Singlet lifetimes were determined by the Time Correlated Single Photon Counting technique in deoxygenated cyclohexane, acetonitrile, and methanol solutions at 23°C. The solvents were checked for background fluorescence before use. A typical fluorescence decay profile and lifetime analysis is shown in Figure 2.2.6.1 for 1-phenylcyclobutene, 67, in dilute, deoxygenated cyclohexane solution. The decays were deconvoluted as single exponentials using a maximum of 10000 total counts in 512 channels. The quality of the fit was judged by the value of the reduced chi square ($\chi_{\rm V}^2 \sim 0.9 - 1.1$) and the distribution of the residuals. Each lifetime is the average of at least six determinations. These lifetimes are presented in Table 2.2.6.1.

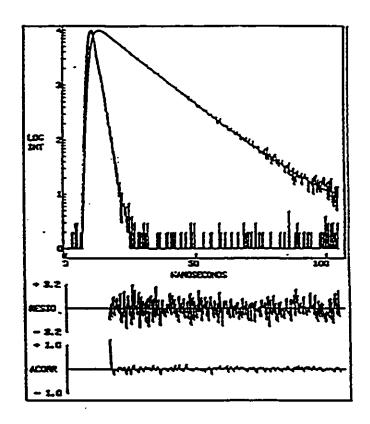


Figure 2.2.6.1. Singlet lifetime decay profile and lifetime analysis for 1-phenylcyclobutene in deoxygenated cyclohexane solution.

Table 2.2.6.1. Fluorescence lifetimes measured by the time correlated single photon counting technique for 1-arylcyclobutenes 65-70 in deoxygenated cyclohexane, acetonitrile and methanol solutions at 23° C.

τ[ns] ^a			
Cyclobutene	C ₆ H ₁₂	CH ₃ CN	СН3ОН
65	12.9	10.2	5.6
66	12.1	9.7	6.6
67	12.2	9.0	7.4
68	12.1	11.8	11.5
69	12.5	11.6	10.8
70	6.7	7.5	7.0

a estimated error ~ 10 %

The steady state fluorescence spectra of compounds 65-70 in dilute deoxygenated acetonitrile solutions were quenched efficiently with 1,1,1,3,3,3-hexafluoro-2-propanol, (HFIP), a hydroxylic solvent of higher acidity and lower nucleophilicity than methanol. Plots of the ratio I_0/I for compounds 65-70 against HFIP concentration were fitted to the Stern Volmer equation 2.2.6.1, where I_0 and I signify the fluorescence intensity of compounds 65-70 in the absence and in the presence of HFIP of concentration [Q]; k_q is the rate constant for quenching by HFIP; τ_0 is the fluorescence lifetime of 65-70 in the absence of HFIP. The $k_q\tau_0$ values obtained from the slopes of these plots (exemplified in Figure 2.2.6.2 for the quenching of 70 by HFIP) are summarized in Table 2.2.6.2.

$$I_0/I = 1 + k_Q \tau_0 [Q]$$
 (2.2.6.1)

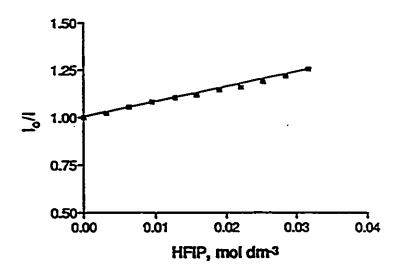


Figure 2.2.6.2. Quenching of the fluorescence of 70 by 1,1,1,3,3,3-hexafluoro-2-propanol

Singlet lifetimes were also determined in neat 2,2,2-trifluoroethanol and HFIP for the unsubstituted 1-phenylcyclobutene derivative 67, and are summarized in Table 2.2.6.3.

Singlet lifetime quenching experiments for 65-67 in dilute deoxygenated acetonitrile solutions were also attempted, using methanol as quencher. These plots are shown in Figure 2.2.6.3. Bimolecular quenching rate constants (k_q^{MeOH}) were estimated from the slopes of the low concentration portions of these plots (≤ 0.7 mol dm⁻³) according to equation 2.2.6.2 (where $\tau_{(MeOH)x}$ is the lifetime of the phenylcyclobutene in the presence of methanol and τ^o is the lifetime in acetonitrile), and are listed in Table 2.2.6.4 along with the Stern-Volmer constants K_{SV} resulting from the product $k_q^{MeOH} \times \tau^o$. The extrapolated singlet lifetimes (at pure methanol concentration) resulting from these plots are also shown in Table 2.2.6.4 as $\tau_{MeOH}(ext.)$.

$$1/\tau_{\text{(MeOH)}x} = 1/\tau^{\circ} + \text{[MeOH]}_{x} k_{q}^{\text{MeOH}}$$
 (2.2.6.2)

<u>Table 2.2.6.2</u>. Stern Volmer values for the fluorescence quenching of compounds 65-70 by hexafluoroisopropanol in deoxygenated acetonitrile solutions

Cyclobutene	$k_a \tau [\text{mol}^{-1} \text{dm}^3]$	λ _{cm} [nm]
65	25±2	331
66	22 ± 1	318
67	15±2	320
68	10 ± 1	322
69	7.6 ± 0.6	337
70	6.5 ± 0.4	331

<u>Table 2.2.6.3</u>. Fluorescence lifetimes of 1-phenylcyclobutene in various solvents, measured at 23° C.

SOLVENT	τ [ns] ± 10 %
C ₆ H ₁₂	12.2
CH ₃ CN	9.0
CH ₃ OH	7.4
CF ₃ CH ₂ OH	2.8
CF3CHOHCF3	0.5

Table 2.2.6.4. Bimolecular quenching rate constants k_q^{MeOH} , Stern Volmer values K_{SV}^{1} and extrapolated lifetimes in pure methanol $\tau_{\text{MeOH}}(\text{ext.})^{1}$, obtained from singlet lifetime quenching experiments of cyclobutenes 65-67 by methanol in deoxygenated acetonitrile solutions.

Cyclobutene	k _a MeOH [mol-1 dm ³ s ⁻¹]	K _{SV} [mol ⁻¹ dm ³] (ε~±20%)	T _{MeOH} (ext.)
65	1.5 x 10 ⁸ ±0.6 x 10 ⁸	1.5	7
66	$5.0 \times 10^7 \pm 1.0 \times 10^7$	0.49	8
67	5.8 x 10 ⁶ ±0.5 x 10 ⁶	0.043	9

1 Defined in the preceding text

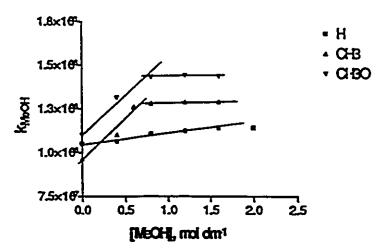


Figure 2.2.6.3. Stern Volmer plot for the singlet lifetime quenching of 65-67 by methanol in deoxygenated acetonitrile solution.

The fluorescence of 1-phenylcyclobutene 67 is readily quenched by oxygen. It was found that the rate constant for quenching of the singlet excited state of 67 with oxygen

approaches diffusion control in acctonitrile solution, and it was assigned a value of 2.0×10^{10} mol⁻¹ dm³ s⁻¹, obtained from the lifetimes of 67 in nitrogen and air saturated solutions (9.0 and 6.0 ns, respectively).

The photolysis of compound 67 in deoxygenated acetonitrile solution containing varying amounts of methanol with 254 nm light was undertaken. This experiment was aimed at constructing a Stern Volmer plot for the quenching of the singlet excited state of 67 by methanol utilizing product analyses instead of fluorescence quenching measurements. The plot for the quenching of 1-phenylacetylene formation by methanol is illustrated in Figure 2.2.6.4. From the slope of this plot ($k_q\tau$ value, see equation 2.2.6.1) a value of the Stern-Volmer constant for the quenching of 1-phenylacetylene formation by methanol was found to be $0.046 \pm 0.003 \text{ mol}^{-1} \text{ dm}^3$.

Figure 2.2.6.5 shows a reciprocal plot of the yield of the ether adduct 85 obtained in these experiments as a function of methanol concentration. The intercept/slope ratio calculated by least squares analyses of the data (using equation 2.2.6.3) affords $k_q \tau = 0.02 \pm 0.01 \text{ mol}^{-1} \text{ dm}^3$. In this equation, ϕ_{methanol} signifies the yield of the ether adduct, k_q is the overall rate constant for formation of the methanol adduct, k_q^{MeOH} is the rate constant for excited state quenching by methanol, and Σ k' is the inverse of the lifetime of 67 in the given solvent. This value of $k_q \tau$ is considered to be a lower limit owing to the poor precision of the data at lower methanol concentrations.

$$1/\phi_{\text{methanol}} = (\sum k')/k_q^{\text{MeOH}} 1/[\text{MeOH}] + k_q/k_q^{\text{MeOH}}$$
 (2.2.6.3)

Table 2.2.6.5 summarizes the Stern-Volmer constants for the quenching of singlet excited 67 by methanol obtained according to the experiments described above.

Table 2.2.6.5. Quenching rate constants and Stern Volmer values.

Method	Figure	k _α τ [mol ⁻¹ dm ³]	k _a [mol ⁻¹ dm ³ s ⁻¹]	
Singlet Lifetime Quenching	2.2.6.3	0.043±0.005	5.8 x 10 ⁶ ±0.5 x 10 ⁶	
Phenylacetylene Quenching	2.2.6.4	0.04 6± 0.003	6.2 x 10 ⁶ ±0.4 x 10 ⁶	
Inverse (Ether) vs. [McOH]	2.2.6.5	0.02±0.01	3 x 106±2 x 106	

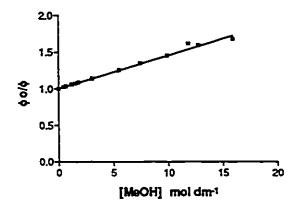


Figure 2.2.6.4. Stern Volmer plot for the quenching of the formation of phenylacetylene by methanol.

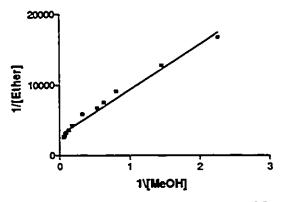


Figure 2.2.6.5. Reciprocal plot of the yield of ether adduct 85 as a function of methanol concentration

2.2.7 Direct Detection of the Triplet States of 1-Phenylcyclobutene Derivatives.

The phosphorescence emission spectrum of compound 67^{116} was recorded in a methylcyclohexane glass matrix at 77 K and is shown in Figure 2.2.7.1. The triplet lifetime of compound 67 was measured under these conditions and found to be 4.1^{118a} ms.

Triplet-triplet absorption spectra were measured for compounds 66-68 in rigorously deoxygenated acetonitrile solutions by Nanosecond Laser Flash Photolysis techniques (NLFP) and are shown in Figure 2.2.7.2. Table 2.2.7.1 summarizes the triplet-triplet absorption maxima of compounds 66-68.

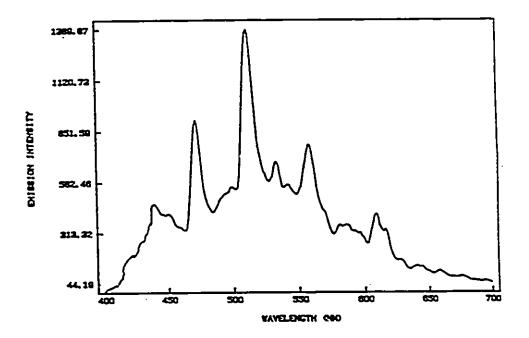


Figure 2.2.7.1. Phosphorescence spectrum of 67 in a methylcyclohexane glass matrix recorded at 77 K

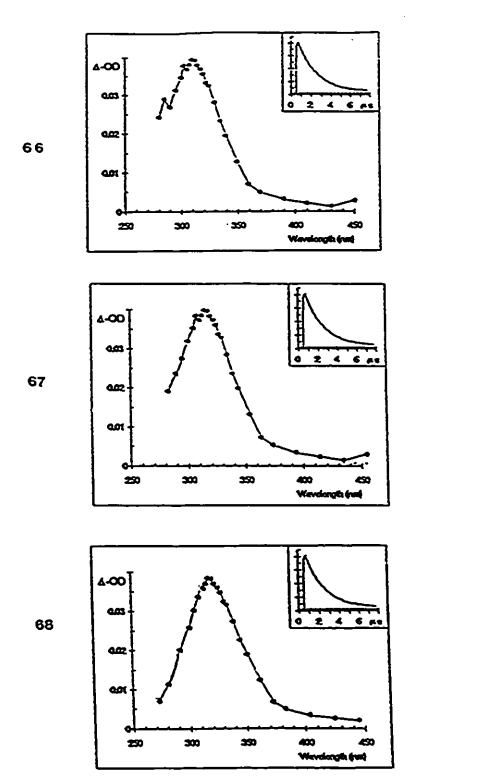


Figure 2.2.7.2. Triplet-Triplet absorption spectra of 66-68 in deoxygenated acetonitrile solution as measured by NLFP

<u>Table 2.2.7.1</u>. Triplet-Triplet absorption maxima for compounds 66-68, as determined by NLFP in deoxygenated acetonitrile solutions

Cyclobutene	λ _{max} [nm]		
66	312		
67	308		
68	320		

The triplet state assignment for these spectra was confirmed by standard quenching experiments, in that the lifetimes of the transients giving rise to the spectra in Figure 2.2.7.2 are shortened in the presence of *trans*- piperylene. Table 2.2.7.2 summarizes the rate constants for triplet quenching of compounds 66-68 by *trans*-piperylene and other quenchers, obtained according to equation 2.2.7.1 (where k_d represents the pseudo first order rate constant for decay, and k_0 is the rate constant for decay in the absence of added quencher Q). It was also verified by NLFP techniques that 1-phenylcyclobutene quenches 4'-methoxyacetophenone triplets with a rate constant of $(2.71 \pm 0.09) \times 10^9 \text{ dm}^3 \text{ mol}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$ in acetonitrile solution.

$$k_d = k_0 + k_q [Q]$$
 (2.2.7.1)

Table 2.2.7.2. Rate constants for triplet quenching obtained by NLFP in deoxygenated solutions

compound	λ _{exc.}	λ _{analvsis}	Solvent	Quencher	k _d x 10 ⁻⁹ [s
	ព្រហ្ស	luml			mol] ^{−1} dm ³
©-\$	248	320	C ₆ H ₁₂	~~	1.58±0.06
67					
	248	320	C8H18	Ad	4.6±0.8
67					
œ5- ⊘- ◆	248	320	C8H18	^	1.70±0.06
68					
○15 ○◆	248	310	C ₆ H ₁₂	^	1.44±0.06
66					
طە©ئىط	337	385	CH ₃ CN		2.71±0.09

2.2.8 Cation In ermediacy in the Photolysis of 1-Arylcyclobutenes in hydroxylic solvents.

Nanosecond Laser Flash Photolysis experiments were conducted utilizing a deoxygenated solution of 66 in 2,2,2-trifluoroethanol. The transient spectrum thus obtained is shifted to longer wavelengths with respect to that of the triplet obtained in acetonitrile solution (see Figure 2.2.7.1). This spectral shift is illustrated in Figure 2.2.8.1.

The lifetime of the intermediate was shortened by addition of methanol to the solution, yielding a bimolecular rate constant of $3.2 \pm 0.8 \times 10^5$ mol⁻¹ s⁻¹ dm³.

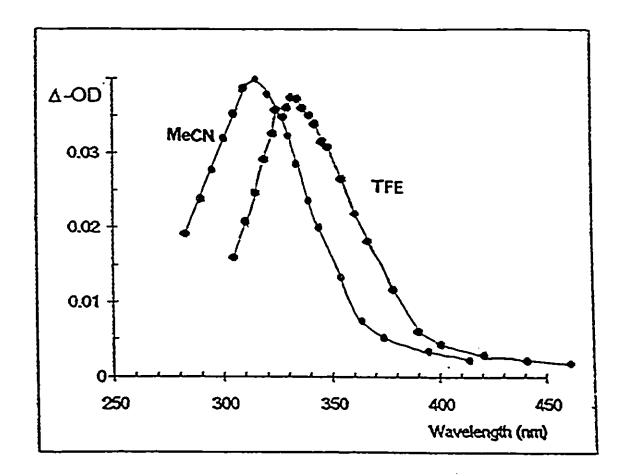
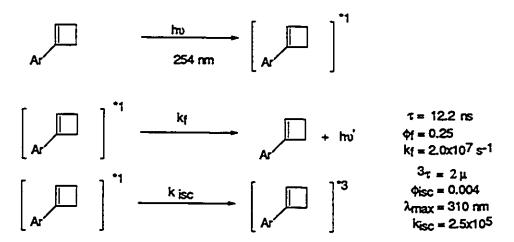


Figure 2.2.8.1. Spectral shift obtained for the transients generated upon 248 nm laser pulse excitation of 66 in acetonitrile ($\lambda_{\text{max}} = 308 \text{ nm}$) and trifinoroethanol ($\lambda_{\text{max}} = 337 \text{ nm}$) solutions.

2.3 DISCUSSION

2.3.1 General Aspects of the Photochemistry and Photophysics of 1-Phenylcyclobutenes

The values of ϕ_f (= 0.24) and τ_S (= 12.2 ns) reported for 67 in pentane solution at room temperature are both in reasonable agreement with those reported by H.E. Zimmerman and coworkers for the same compound in methylcyclohexane / isopentane solution at 27°C ($\phi_f = 0.27$; $\tau_S = 15.9$ ns ± 0.9 ns^{118a}). These authors also reported a value of $\phi_{ISC} = 0.004$ for the quantum yield of intersystem crossing in 67, determined by the biacetyl phosphorescence sensitization method^{118b}. Thus, intersystem crossing is over an order of magnitude less efficient than either fluorescence or reaction via [2 + 2]-cycloreversion ($\phi_{79} = 0.09$), and the combination of these three processes accounts for only about 40 % of excited state decay events. Presumably, nonproductive radiationless decay processes account for the rest (see Scheme 2.3.1.1).



Scheme 2.3.1.1. Deactivation pathways of 1-phenylcyclobutene

Ramamurthy and coworkers 116 observed phosphorescence from 1-phenylcyclobutene (67) included in a thallium - exchanged zeolite at 77 K. Our results demonstrate that it is possible to detect phosphorescence from 67 in a rigid glass such as methylcyclobexane at 77 K (Figure 2.2.7.1). The triplet lifetime for compound 67 has been estimated by Zimmerman and coworkers 118a to be ca. 3.6 ± 2.0 ms; the value reported in this thesis is 4.3 ± 0.1 ms.

Triplet states of 1-aryleyclobutenes can also be readily detected by Nanosecond Laser Flash Photolysis (NLFP) techniques. The triplet-triplet absorption spectra of 66-68 are shown in Figure 2.2.7.2. The triplet-triplet absorption maximum for 67 is similar to that reported by Caldwell and coworkers for 1-phenylcyclopentene 137. The triplet lifetimes and the triplet-triplet absorption spectra of 66-68 appear to be rather insensitive to substituent on the aryl ring or solvent polarity. The rate constants for triplet quenching by dienes (e.g., trans-piperylene, Table 2.2.7.2) are significantly slower than the diffusion-controlled rates in both acetonitrile and isooctane. This is not surprising, since the triplet energy of 67 is ca. 240 KJ mol-1 118, approximately isothermal with the diene triplet energy. The triplet energy transfer process from aryleyclobutene to trans-piperylene is depicted in Scheme 2.3.1.2.

As was mentioned in Section 2.2.3, direct triplet reactivity was observed upon photolysis of 70 in aprotic solvents. Direct irradiation of 70 led to the formation of substantial amounts of high molecular weight products, which were suppressed when the irradiation was carried out in the presence of 1,3-cyclohexadiene, indicating that the high molecular weight products are triplet-derived. GCMS evidence suggests that these products are dimers of 70. The propensity of phenylalkene triplets towards dimerization is well documented 106.

Scheme 2.3.1.2. Triple energy transfer from arylcyclobutene to trans-piperylene

The results from these series of experiments confirm that in spite of the low quantum yield of intersystem crossing observed for 67, its triplet state is readily detectable upon direct irradiation by NLFP or phosphorescence techniques (Figures 2.2.7.1 and 2.2.7.2 respectively). Furthermore, the triplet state can alternatively be produced by triplet sensitization, or quenched by dienes (Scheme 2.2.3.1 and 2.3.1.2 respectively).

The fluorescence emission maxima of 65-70 vary slightly between 320-330 nm, but show no regular variation with substituent or solvent throughout the series (Table 2.2.5.1). The emission bands show minor fine structure in pentane, but are approximately gaussian in acetonitrile solution. On the other hand, the fluorescence quantum yields increase throughout the series in both solvents (Table 2.2.5.2) while the singlet lifetimes remain approximately invariant, with the exception of that of 70 (Table 2.2.6.1).

Irradiation of 65-70 in aprotic solvents results in the formation of the corresponding phenylacetylenes 77-82 (equation 2.2.3.1) in high chemical yield. The

reaction is singlet-derived, as evidenced by the lack of observable quenching of the formation of 78-80 from photolysis of 66-68 in the presence of diene (Scheme 2.3.1.2), and the fact that 77-82 are not formed under triplet sensitization conditions (Scheme 2.2.3.1). Irradiation of 65-70 in methanol solution affords the corresponding solvent adducts 83-88 and the phenylacetylenes 77-82 (equation 2.2.4.1). The former reaction also occurs from the lowest excited singlet state, as evidenced by the shorter fluorescence lifetimes observed for 65-67 in methanol compared to those in acetonitrile (Table 2.2.6.1). the substantial quenching of the formation of cycloreversion products in methanol and methanol-acetonitrile, and the fact that the reaction is not quenched by dienes (Scheme 2.3.1.2). In the case of 67, the Stern Volmer constant obtained from the quenching of phenylacetylene formation by methanol in acetonitrile (Figure 2.2.6.4) agrees with that obtained from the reciprocal plot for the formation of cyclobutyl ether 85 (Figure 2.2.6.5). The Stern Volmer constant $(k_q \tau = 0.046 \pm 0.003 \text{ mol}^{-1} \text{ dm}^3)$ affords a quenching rate constant $k_q = 5.1 \times 10^6 \text{ mol}^{-1}\text{dm}^3 \text{ s}^{-1}$, in satisfactory agreement with the rather imprecise value measured by single photon counting techniques ($k_q = (5.1 \pm 1.4) \times 10^6 \text{ mol}^{-1}\text{dm}^3\text{s}^{-1}$ 1). These experiments support the idea that both cycloreversion and solvent addition photoreactions arise from the lowest excited singlet states of 1-arylcyclobutenes.

By simple inspection of Table 2.2.3.1, those phenylcyclobutenes with electron withdrawing substituents (68-70) show reduced quantum yields for cycloreversion. An analogous situation was observed for the bicyclic alkylcyclobutenes 31-33, equation 1.3.3.5, for which quantum yields of cycloreversion are summarized in Table 1.3.3.2. The fragmentation yield for compound 33 (with trifluoromethyl substitution) is five times lower than that for the unsubstituted bicyclic cyclobutene 32. However, in these systems, as was previously pointed out, the reactive manifold towards fragmentation $(\pi, R, 3)$ is

destabilized by an electron withdrawing group such as trifluoromethyl. This analogy with 1-phenylcyclobutenes could be only coincidental, as the reactive singlet manifold in 1-aryl-substituted cyclobutenes is the π , π * state which is expected to be practically invariant to that kind of substitution. The mechanism of [2 + 2] photocycloreversion in alkylcyclobutenes may involve the intermediacy of cyclopropyl carbenes (Introduction 1.3.3).

While there is substantial precedent for Rydberg-derived [1,2]-shifts in the photochemistry of aliphatic alkenes and cycloalkenes 119b, there appear to be few examples 119c of such processes yielding carbenes in phenylalkene photochemistry. Although the excited singlet state behavior of most of the phenylalkenes that have been studied is dominated by torsional relaxation (with the consequence that carbene-derived products might be difficult to detect in significant yield, particularly when the carbene intermediate can revert to starting olefin), rearrangements of this type have not been observed even in the torsionally constrained phenylcycloalkenes that have been investigated in detail 119d.

The photochemistry of 2,2,4-trideuterio-1-phenylcyclobutene (89) in acetonitrile solution was investigated in order to probe for skeletal rearrangements which might be indicative of the intermediacy of a cyclopropyl carbene in the [2 + 2] cycloreversion process. If cycloreversion proceeds via such an intermediate (Scheme 2.3.1.3), then one would expect to observe scrambling of deuteria between positions 3 and 4 of the cyclobutyl ring, since carbenes of this type are known to undergo ring expansion to the corresponding cyclobutene in addition to fragmentation to alkene and alkyne^{45, 55}.

¹If this analogy is not purely coincidental, then the involvement of the π , π ° state in the cycloreversion process of alkyl-substituted cyclobutenes could be playing a role. The tacit implication is therefore that the retrocycloaddition reaction in alkyl-substituted cyclobutenes could arise from both valence (π , π °) and Rydberg (π ,R(3s)) excited states.

Examination of the ¹H NMR spectrum of an irradiated 0.02 mol dm⁻³ solution of 89 after ca. 50 % conversion affords no evidence for significant scrambling of the label between the two positions. We thus conclude that 1,2-rearrangements leading to cyclopropylcarbenes are unimportant in this case. This is consistent with cycloreversion occurring by a concerted $[\sigma_{2s} + \sigma_{2s}]$ mechanism.

$$\begin{array}{c} D \\ D \\ D \\ D \\ D \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{c} D \\ D \\ D \\ D \\ D \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{c} D \\ D \\ D \\ D \\ D \\ D \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{c} D \\ D \\ D \\ D \\ D \\ D \\ D \end{array}$$

Scheme 2.3.1.3. Conjectural mechanism for cycloreversion of 67 via cyclopropyl carbene intermediates

In 1974, Hasegawa and coworkers reported the photoaddition of methanol to 1,2-diphenylcyclobutene (equation 1.3.1.2). They interpreted the addition as taking place via a cyclobutyl and cyclopropylmethyl cations, according to Scheme 2.3.1.4.

Scheme 2.3.1.4. Mechanism for addition of methanol to 1,2-diphenylcyclobutene

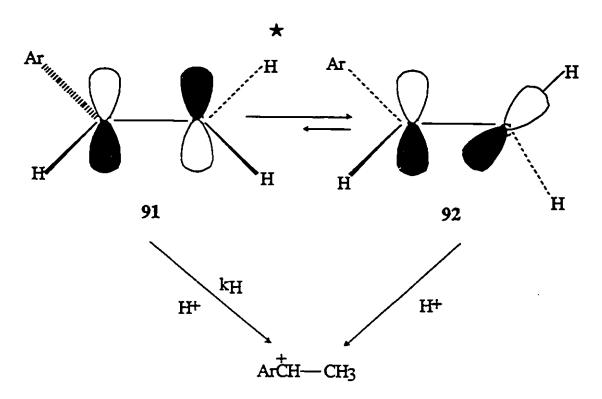
The polarized nature of the excited state of styrenic compounds has been well established by Yates and coworkers¹⁰⁹, 110, 120 - 132, who rationalized the facile photoprotonation of these systems by postulating that the S₁ state possesses charge-transfer character, as shown by 90.

90

Since fluorescence quenching was observed concurrently with acid-catalyzed photohydration, the protonation step, kH, must be to the planar vertical S_1 state (91) of these alkenes, rather than the twisted zwitterionic state (92) (Scheme 2.3.1.5). Twisted zwitterionic (or diradicaloid) states of alkenes are nonfluorescent since they can readily deactivate to S_0 via rapid internal conversion 110 (Figure 2.3.1.1). Theoretical

calculations by Nebot - Gil and Malrieu suggested that the lowest ionic singlet state of

styrene has the benzyl moiety with the positive charge, and the β carbon (where protonation takes place) bears the negative charge 133.



Scheme 2.3.1.5. Deactivation pathways of singlet excited 1-phenylcyclobutenes

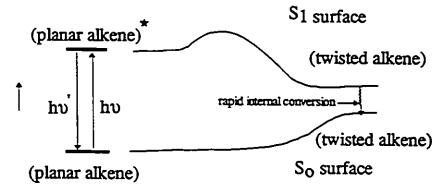


Figure 2.3.1.1. Relative energy levels for twisting about the ethylene moiety in the ground and excited state surfaces

It is reasonable to assume that a similar mechanism is in operation for the photoaddition of solvent to 1-arylcyclobutenes, and that mechanism is proposed in Scheme 2.3.1.6, with proton addition as the rate determining step for excited state decay followed by nucleophilic attack of the arylcyclobutyl cation by the solvent (methanol). This mechanism is supported by the fact that the fluorescence of compounds 65-70 is readily quenched by acidic solvents such as 2,2,2-trifluoroethanol (TFE) and 1,1,1,3,3,3-hexafluoro-2-propanol (HFIP). If the rate determining step in the photoreaction of 1-arylcyclobutenes with methanol were nucleophilic attack by the solvent, an opposite trend to that observed would be expected (the singlet lifetimes would correlate with the solvent nucleophilicity rather than with the solvent acidity). Table 2.2.6.3 shows the dependence of the singlet fluorescence lifetime on the solvent acidity.

Scheme 2.3.1.6. Mechanism for solvent addition to 1-phenylcyclobutene showing proton transfer and nucleophilic attack by the solvent

McClelland and coworkers ^{142a} reported the observation of a number of substituted benzyl cations by nanosecond laser flash photolysis experiments conducted in solvents

such as TFE and HFIP. They found that the UV absorption maxima of the transients generated upon 248 nm laser excitation lie between 310 and 320 nm. The same authors also investigated the cumyl and phenylethyl cations, which exhibit red shifted absorptions with respect to the benzyl cations. Particularly, for the 4-methylcumyl cation, a maximum of absorption at 340 nm with a shoulder at 380 nm was reported in TFE as solvent. The lifetime of the 4-methylcumyl cation in TFE was measured to be 100 ns.

In the present study, a maximum of absorption at 337 nm was obtained for the transient generated upon photolysis of 4-tolylcyclobutene (66) in TFE with 248 nm laser flash photolysis. The transient λ_{TMAX} is red-shifted 25 nm with respect to the triplet-triplet transient absorption spectrum measured for the same compound in acetonitrile solution, and is at a similar position to that of the 4-methylcumyl cation reported by McClelland. The transient at 337 nm is thus tentatively assigned to the 1-(p-tolyl)-cyclobutyl cation (Figure 2.2.8.1). Its lifetime is shortened by addition of methanol to the solution, yielding a bimolecular rate constant of $3.2 \pm 0.8 \times 10^5$ mol⁻¹ s⁻¹ dm³. This is in good agreement with the value of 3.4×10^5 mol⁻¹ s⁻¹ dm³ reported by McClelland and coworkers ^{142a} for the quenching of the cumyl cation by methanol in HFIP. It is tentatively concluded that 1-arylcyclobutyl ions are true intermediates in the photoaddition of hydroxylic solvents to 1-phenylcyclobutene derivatives.

Scheme 2.2.4.2 depicts the absence of deuterium incorporation in the starting material upon photolysis of 1-phenylcyclobutene (67) in methanol-d₄. This experiment rules out the possibility that photoprotonation of 1-phenylcyclobutene derivatives is reversible, either in the excited state or in the ground state of the cation.

Yates and coworkers used emission decay profiles as an indication of reversibility of the photoprotonation reaction 130. Their emission decays were single-exponential and

hence they concluded that the feed-back step k_H (from Scheme 2.3.1.6) was negligible. As mentioned in Section 2.2.6, the singlet lifetimes for compounds of 65-70 are also single exponentials, which supports the idea that excited state photoprotonation proceeds irreversibly.

2.3.2 Substituent Effects on the Photochemistry and Photophysics of 1-Phenylcyclobutene

Reported experimental reactivity data on excited states have generally been analyzed in terms of ground state substituent constants 119 (σ , σ^+ , σ^-), implying that substituent effects are not affected by changing the electronic state. Data on excited state reactivity are most readily available for singlet acidities 120 , and a particularly large number of results are available for the p K_a^* values of substituted phenols. These data correlate only qualitatively with ground state substituent constants, the correlation being particularly poor for meta substituents. Welry and Rogers 124 showed that conjugative effects are much more important than inductive effects in electronically excited states and that direct resonance interactions involving meta substituents are considerably more significant in the excited state than they are in the ground state.

Yates and coworkers¹²⁵ attempted to derive a substituent parameter scale for excited-state reactions based on the acid catalyzed photoaddition of water across the multiple bond of the side chain of styrenes and phenylacetylenes. However, their choice of substituents was limited to hydrogen, fluoro, alkyl and alkoxy groups. The trifluoromethyl group could not be included in their scale due to its extremely slow photoprotonation

reaction compared to other modes of excited state decay. Similarly, bromo and chloro substituents could not be evaluated (these substituents lead to homolytic cleavage and biphenyl type products).

Baldry 126 derived a set of substituent constants for the excited state, σ_{ex} , using the pK_a* of phenols obtained from Forster cycle analysis of the 0-0 fluorescence bands of the protonated and unprotonated species, or from the pH dependence of fluorescence. He defined σ_{ex} according to equation 2.3.2.1:

$$\sigma_{ex} = (pK_a^* - 3.804)/-3.10$$
 (2.3.2.1)

Zimmerman and coworkers ¹²⁷ investigated the so called *meta* effect of substituents in the excited state. The observation that a methoxy substituent in the *meta* position exerts an effect that is contrary to ground state expectations was rationalized by the changes in charge density (as calculated by Hückel MO theory) that occur on excitation. In the excited state, a methoxy group is predicted to be a better electron donor from the 3-position (i.e. *meta*) than from the 4-position ¹²⁸. In an analogous fashion, a trifluoromethyl group is predicted to be a better electron withdrawing group from the 3-position than from the 4-position in the excited state.

In order to establish a correlation with substituent constants, it is necessary to extract rate constants for the photoprocesses of interest. This is possible using quantum yield data in conjuction with lifetime data. The rate constants for fluorescence decay k_f are calculated from equation 2.3.2.2 (where ϕ_f signifies the quantum yield of fluorescence in the appropriate solvent, and τ_s the singlet lifetime determined by time correlated singlet photon counting techniques in the specific solvent). In a similar fashion, the rate constants

for cycloreversion (k_2) in acetonitrile and cyclohexane and solvent incorporation in neat methanol k_{meth} can be calculated according to equations 2.3.2.3 and 2.3.2.4, respectively (where ϕ_2 and ϕ_{ether} are the quantum yields for cycloreversion and solvent incorporation, respectively). All the rate constants are summarized in Table 2.3.2.1.

$$\phi_f = k_f \tau_s$$
 (2.3.2.2)
 $\phi_2 = k_2 \tau_s$ (2.3.2.3)
 $\phi_{\text{ether}} = k_{\text{meth}} \tau_s$ (2.3.2.4)

Table 2.3.2.1. Rate constants for fluorescence decay (k_f^0) , cycloreversion in cyclohexane, acetonitrile and methanol (k_2) and solvent incorporation in methanol (k_{meth})

Cyclobutene	C ₆ H ₁₂		CH ₃ CN		СН3ОН	
	kf ⁰ [s ⁻¹] x 10 ⁻⁷	k ₂ [s ⁻¹] x 10 ⁻⁷	kf ⁰ [s ⁻¹] x 10 ⁻⁷	k ₂ [s ⁻¹] x 10 ⁻⁷	k ₂ [s ⁻¹] x 10 ⁻⁷	k _{meth} [s ⁻¹] x 10 ⁻⁷
65	1.6 ± 0.2	1.6 ±0.2	2.2 ±0.3	2.0 ±0.2	0.88	2.32 ±0.3
66	1.7 ± 0.2	1.2 ±0.2	2.4 ±0.3	1.3 ±0.5	0.46	1.5 ±0.2
67	2.0 ± 0.2	0.74 ±0.07	2.6 ±0.3	1.0 ±0.2	0.135	1.1 ±0.2
68	2.4 土 ?	0.58 ±0.08	3.0 ±0.4	0.7 ±0.1	0.139	0.4 ±0.1
69	3.4 ±0.3	0.18 ±0.02	3.6 ±0.4	0.3 ±0.1	0.046	0.2 ±0.1
70	4.6 ±0.5	0.07 ±0.01	2.9 ±0.3	0.14 ±0.02	C.0014	0.0086 ±0.001

The rate constants for cycloreversion of 65-70 in cyclohexane and acetonitrile and for solvent incorporation in methanol (Table 2.3.2.1) correlate only qualitatively with the ground state substituent constants σ or σ^+ (e.g.: $\rho = -1.2 \pm 0.5$ ($r^2 = 0.60$) for the cycloreversion reaction in acetonitrile). Correlations with the $\sigma_{\rm ex}$ -values of Baldry are somewhat better (Figure 2.3.2.1), but still fail to deal adequately with the meta trifluoromethyl substituent.

Qualitatively, it is evident by simple inspection of these plots that the rate of cycloreversion decreases as the electron withdrawing ability of the substituent increases. To our knowledge, this is the first reported example of a substituent effect on a photochemical cycloreversion process that can clearly be attributed to the π , π^* singlet state. The observed substituent effect on k_2 (Table 2.3.2.1) seems to indicate that there is substantial dipolar character developed in the σ -bond framework during the cycloreversion process, with positive charge developing at C_1 of the cyclobutene ring

The common assumption in organic photochemistry is that the central feature in the mechanism of [2+2] cycloaddition (and fragmentation) reactions is the existence of an avoided surface crossing that allows for the occurrence of a radiationless jump from S_1 to S_0 , whose rate is controlled by the energy gap between the two surfaces. Recent theoretical calculations 142c predict that it is possible to reduce the S_1 - S_0 energy gap to zero in photocycloaddition (and cycloreversion) reactions by introducing a difference in the energies of the localized nonbonding orbitals involved. This can be accomplished by making the diagonals of the forming or fragmenting cycloadduct unequal. In this way, asymmetrically substituted rings are predicted to generate perturbation parameters (δ_{AB}) which are significantly different from zero, increasing the contribution from zwitterionic resonance structures on the excited state potential energy surface for cycloaddition and

cycloreversion reactions. These concepts have been verified by *ab-initio* large scale CI calculations on perturbed square cyclobutadienes ^{142d}. The substituent effect on the rate of excited state cycloreversion of 65-70 provides the first experimental verification of these theoretical predictions.

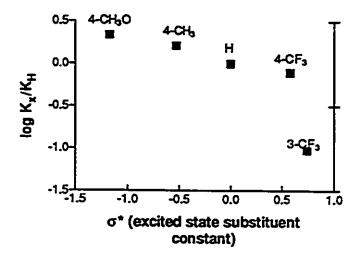


Figure 2.3.2.1A. Hammett plot for the cycloreversion reaction of 65-70 in pentane

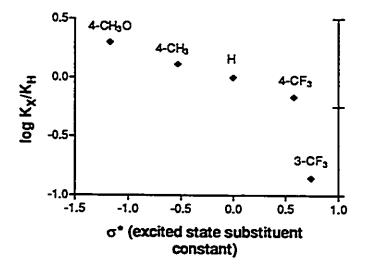


Figure 2.3.2.1B. Hammett plot for the cycloreversion reaction of 65-70 in acetonitrile

As is the case for the cycloreversion reaction of these compounds in non-hydroxylic solvents, the solvent photoaddition reaction is also sensitive to substituent effects, as indicated by the trend in rate constants k_{meth} given in Table 2.3.2.1. This trend can be rationalized in terms of the basicity of the excited state, which is enhanced in phenylcyclobutenes that bear electron donating substituents.

While the rate constants for cycloreversion and methanol addition correlate poorly with ground or excited state substituent constants, they do correlate well with each other. Figure 2.3.2.2 shows a log-log plot of the rate constants for photocycloreversion in methanol k_2 versus those for solvent photoaddition k_{meth} . The slope (1.1 \pm 0.2; r^2 = 0.97) indicates that there is an almost exact correspondence between the substituent effects on the two processes.

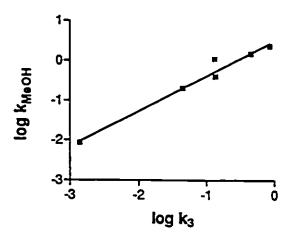


Figure 2.3.2.2. Log-log plot of the rate constants for cycloreversion in methanol (k₂) versus those for solvent addition (k_{MeOH}).

There is no consistent variation in the singlet lifetimes of 65-70 with substituent in any of the solvents studied. However, a trend is manifested in the rate constants for fluorescence decay (k°_{f}) as shown in Table 2.3.2.1. The rate constants for fluorescence

decay increase (in cyclohexane solution) as the electron withdrawing ability of the substituent increases.

The singlet lifetimes of 65-67 are very sensitive to the presence of oxygen in solution, and it has been determined that the rate constant for quenching of the singlet excited state of 67 with oxygen approaches the diffusion limit in acetonitrile solution (2.0 x 10¹⁰ mol⁻¹ dm⁻³ s⁻¹). In contrast, the singlet lifetimes of those phenylcyclobutenes with electron withdrawing groups (68-70) are more or less insensitive to the presence of oxygen in solution (depending on the electron withdrawing ability of the substituent). Thus, the singlet lifetime of 70 (with the strongest electron withdrawing group in the excited state) measured in air saturated acetonitrile solution coincides with that measured in deoxygenated acetonitrile solution (~ 7 ns). The effect of oxygen on the singlet lifetimes of 65-67 is thus tentatively attributed to electron transfer quenching ^{134b,c}, which should lead to the formation of cyclobutene radical cation and superoxide ion.

Electrocyclic ring opening to the corresponding 2-aryl-1,3-butadiene does not occur in detectable yield with any of the compounds studied in this work. The inability of 1-arylcyclobutenes to undergo photochemical ring opening as opposed to alkylsubstituted cyclobutenes is thus most likely related to energetic considerations and not to the polarizability of the S_I state. We conclude that for photochemical ring opening to occur, the S_I state energy has to be higher than the Bond Dissociation Energy of the cyclobutenyl C3-C4 bond. This condition is easily satisfied by alkylsubstituted cyclobutenes whose S_1 energies are in the order of 544-607 KJ mol⁻¹. Singlet state energies for 1-arylcyclobutenes are summarized in Table 2.2.5.1.

2.3.3 Quantitative Aspects of the Photoprotonation of 1-Arylcyclobutenes

It is observed that the rate constant for addition of methanol in neat methanol for the unsubstituted 1-phenylcyclobutene 67, $(k_{meth} = 4.4 \times 10^5 \text{ s}^{-1} \text{ mol}^{-1} \text{ dm}^3$; Table 2.3.2.1) does not match with the rate constant for quenching of the excited state of 67 by methanol $(k_q \sim 6 \times 10^6 \text{ s}^{-1} \text{ mol}^{-1} \text{ dm}^3$; Table 2.2.6.5). This discrepancy can be due to [a] the protonation step in Scheme 2.3.1.6 being reversible, [b] the presence of an exciplex in the mechanism for solvent adduct formation; or [c] a special solvent effect on the singlet lifetimes of 65-70 in methanol solution.

Dauben and coworkers 136 found that the fluorescence of 1-phenylcyclohexene in methanol is quenched upon addition of moderately low concentrations of sulfuric acid. This quenching was fairly effective, but it does not correlate quantitatively with the formation of the solvent adduct (the addition of methanol across the double bond in a Markovnikov fashion). This implies that excited state quenching does not lead to formation of the solvent adduct with unit efficiency 137. McClelland and coworkers 107 (see Scheme 2.1.2) suggested that the source of the inefficiency may be competitive protonation on the aromatic ring. In the present study, the mass spectrum of recovered 1-phenylcyclobutene from the photoreaction mixture in methanol-d₄ shows less than 0.5 % deuterium incorporation (after 80 % conversion) in the molecular ion region. The lower detection limit for deuterium incorporation in the aromatic fragment-ion region of the mass spectrum is calculated to be less than 0.01 %.

Exciplex intermediates have been invoked for numerous photochemical reactions, among which it is worth mentioning those proposed in arene-alkene photocycloadditions 138. The standard mechanism for exciplex formation has been shown

to be valid in several systems ¹³⁹. In the present case, a mechanism involving an exciplex intermediate could explain the discrepancy between the rate constants for methanol addition in neat methanol (Table 2.3.2.1) and for quenching of the excited state in acetonitrile by methanol (Table 2.2.6.5). This mechanism is depicted in Scheme 2.3.3.1. In this mechanism, an excited complex is formed between the excited 1-phenylcyclobutene and a molecule of methanol, which can either collapse to return to ground state 1-phenylcyclobutene or be quenched by proton transfer to yield the ground state phenylcyclobutyl cation, which in turn is trapped by the solvent to form the Markovnikov solvent addition.

Scheme 2.3.3.1. Mechanism for the photoaddition of solvent in 1-arylcyclobutenes involving the formation of an exciplex

Solvents effects [c] could also be responsible for the difference found in the rate constants for solvent addition and quenching of excited phenylcyclobutene by methanol (vide supra). Figure 2.2.6.3 shows the peculiar behavior obtained from the quenching of the singlet lifetimes of compounds 65, 66 and 67 by methanol in acetonitrile solutions.

The slopes of those plots reach a plateau at a distinct methanol concentration. The lifetimes obtained from the plateau regions of the plots ([MeOH] > 0.7 mol dm⁻³) do correspond to the measured lifetimes of 65, 66 and 67 in methanol within experimental error. However, the extrapolated lifetimes at neat methanol concentration (obtained from the low methanol concentration portions of this plot where [MeOH] < 0.7 mol dm⁻³) are much shorter than the measured lifetimes of 65-67 in neat methanol. It is then possible that at certain methanol concentration, the quenching interactions between excited phenylcyclobutene and methanol (or methanol aggregates) become such that normal linear behavior is no longer operative (only particular orientations of the aggregates and excited 1-arylcyclobraene are required for effective quenching to take place, as some orientations may not be quenched at all, giving rise to longer lifetimes). A model of this type implies that specific solvent-excited state arylcyclobutene interactions have to be considered. It has also been suggested 138 that the transient diffusion term (see Appendix 2) makes an important contribution to the quenching process. This is possible since the concentration of the quencher (methanol) is high (and probably removed from its activity value) and the unquenched lifetime is long.

It has also been proposed that dielectric friction 140 can also contribute to the relaxation dynamics of molecules which undergo a sudden change in charge distribution upon excitation (e.g. 1-arylcyclobutenes). Thus, dielectric friction 141 may be an important source of coupling to the solvent if changes occur along the relaxation coordinate. Any polarity dependent changes in the shapes of the potential energy surfaces traversed during the relaxation process may therefore affect the decay dynamics, and consequently the intrinsic lifetimes, in the given solvents. Since only small changes in the absorption and emission bands occur under the experimental conditions employed (see

Tables 2.2.3.1 and 2.2.4.1), there do not appear to be large changes in the ground and excited state potential energy surfaces with solvent polarity. However, the relaxation coordinates of 1-arylcyclobutenes in a solvent such as methanol, may probe regions of the potential energy surfaces which are not represented in the static absorption or emission processes 141. Therefore, solvent dependent changes in the form of the relaxation coordinate cannot be unequivocally excluded.

We tentatively conclude that the methanol quenching experiments reflect the combination of two opposite and counterbalancing effects on the excited singlet state lifetimes of 1-phenylcyclobutenes. The singlet lifetimes observed in acetonitrile also reflect solvent polarity effects, as compared to the singlet lifetimes obtained in cyclohexane solvent (Table 2.2.6.1).

As has been reported for styrene systems ¹¹², photoaddition of alcohol to 4-methoxyphenylcyclobutene is the most efficient, followed by the 4-methyl and unsubstituted compounds (65, 66 and 67 respectively). Yates and coworkers ¹²⁵, 130 reported that 4-trifluoromethylstyrene (63) is unreactive towards photoprotonation, and argued that this is due to insufficient charge transfer character in the excited singlet state. This is clearly not the case in the corresponding arylcyclobutene (68) which undergoes methanol photoaddition with measurable efficiency. The difference in behaviour between 63 and 68 presumably results from the fact that excited state torsional relaxation is blocked in the cyclic compound 68, allowing relatively slow protonation to proceed with measurable efficiency.

The above results show that the basicity of the excited state in 1-phenylcyclobutenes in hydroxylic solvents can be readily altered by proper substitution, as is the case for

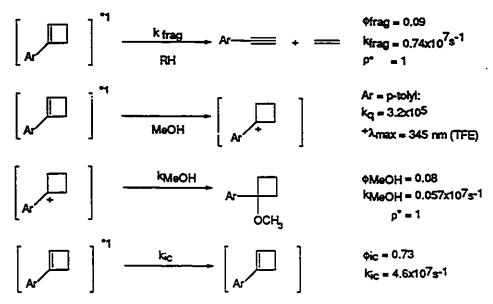
styrene systems. However, the compounds presented in this study can be used as a probe of electron - withdrawing substituent effects in S_I , a measure which is not attainable with the acyclic derivatives utilized by Yates and coworkers. Thus, our results allow the conclusion that the electron withdrawing power of 4-trifluoromethoxy substituent in the excited state falls in between that of 3-trifluoromethyl and 4-trifluoromethyl groups in the excited state.

It is also of interest to compare the absolute rates of methanol addition to 65-67 to those reported by Yates and coworkers for water addition to the corresponding styrene derivatives 125. The rates of water catalyzed photohydration of substituted styrenes in neutral aqueous solution were reported to be 1.86 x 10⁴ mol⁻¹ s⁻¹ dm³ for styrene itself, $3.8 \times 10^4 \text{ mol}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1} \text{ dm}^3$ for 4-methylstyrene, and $2.45 \times 10^5 \text{ mol}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1} \text{dm}^3$ for 4methoxystyrene. In contrast, the kmeOH values for addition of methanol to 65-67 in methanol (Table 2.3.2.1) vary by a factor of about two throughout the series of the three compounds. Converting the k_{MeOH} values to second order rate constants (by correcting for solvent concentration) indicates that for the parent compound, the rate of addition of methanol to excited 67 is ~ 25 times faster than the rate of water addition to styrene in water. The enhanced reactivity towards protonation in the phenylcyclobutene series (Table 2.3.2.1), as compared to styrenes 125, may be attributed to relief of ring strain in the former series of compounds upon protonation. The much less-prominent substituent effect on the rates of methanol photoaddition to phenylcyclobutenes compared to that on the rates of water photoaddition to styrenes may be the consequence of this substantial variance in absolute reactivity, although it will clearly be necessary to study the photochemistry of the two sets of compounds under more similar reaction conditions before reliable conclusions can be made in this regard.

2.4 Summary.

Electrocyclic ring opening to the corresponding 2-aryl-1,3-butadiene does not occur in detectable yields upon photolysis of any of the 1-phenylcyclobutenes 65-70 studied.

The photophysics of 1-phenylcyclobutene was partially outlined in Scheme 2.3.1.1. Scheme 2.4 depicts the remainder of the photophysical and photochemical processes studied for this series of compounds. As is the case for other 1-phenylated cyclobutenes, compounds 65 through 70 fluoresce with appreciable quantum yields. Table 2.4 summarizes the radiative, reaction and non-radiative 118 quantum yields for the parent compound 1-phenylcyclobutene 67. Non-productive internal conversion is then rendered the major deactivation pathway of the singlet excited state of these molecules. The quantum yields of reaction are fairly low, and can be attributed to the short singlet lifetimes of these compounds, which are presumably due to high internal conversion rates. The intersystem crossing rate constant was calculated to be ca. 2.5 x 10^5 s⁻¹ for 67 by Zimmermann and coworkers 118; when compared to the rate constant for internal conversion (3 x 10^7 s⁻¹) the inefficiency of the former process ($\phi_{\rm ISC} = 0.004$) is understandable. It is likely that the significant triplet reactivity exhibited by 70 upon direct photolysis in n-pentane or acetonitrile solution, is the simple result of markedly diminished singlet reactivity, and not the result of an increase in the rate of intersystem crossing.



Scheme 2.4. Photophysical and photochemical processes studied for 1phenylcyclobutenes in the present document.

<u>Table 2.4.</u> Quantum yields for radiative and non-radiative processes for the parent 1-phenylcyclobutene

Φfluorescence [†]	φisc [‡]	φnhenvlacetvlene [†]	ΦIC^{\ddagger}	
0.25	0.0031	0.09	0.73	

From Zimmermann and coworkers.

The transient absorption spectrum obtained from flash photolysis of 66 in 2,2,2-trifluoroethanol was assigned to the p-tolyl-cyclobutyl carbenium ion, though further characterization is necessary to establish firmly the validity of this assignment. All the compounds in the series undergo photoprotonation in alcohol solution; it may therefore be possible to generate the corresponding cations in non-nucleophilic solvents and study their

[†] Measured in cyclohexane as solvent.

chemistry directly by flash photolysis techniques. However, the fact that the triplet state is readily observable in aprotic solvents, and has λ_{max} similar to that of the cation, may pose difficulties in the direct observation of those ionic intermediates. Further work in this area is expected to provide valuable information on these reactive intermediates.

CHAPTER III

THE PHOTOCHEMISTRY OF MONOCYCLIC CYCLOBUTENE DERIVATIVES

3.1 Introduction

One of the fundamental questions pertaining to the photochemical ring opening of cyclobutene, given its overall nonstereospecificity, is whether orbital symmetry selection rules play any role in the process at all. Several mechanisms were presented in Chapter I to explain the nonstereospecificity; most of them involve the presumption that the loss of stereospecificity occurs after ring opening has initiated (in disrotatory fashion) on the excited state surface. Theoretical calculations, at various levels of theory 15, 18, 30, 61, 62, universally predict that orbital symmetry should play a role in the reaction. Only two experimental studies suggest that this may indeed be the case. One is the study of the photochemistry of the isomeric tricyclic cyclobutenes 10 and 11 (see Chapter 1.3.2). Another is the study of cyclobutene ring opening on the femtosecond time scale 27 by Resonance Raman Spectroscopy (Chapter 1.2). Clearly, the development of a comprehensive mechanistic picture to explain the apparent failure of cyclobutene to follow orbital symmetry selection rules would be facilitated by the acquisition of additional experimental examples that illustrate the possible role of orbital symmetry selection rules in the early stages of the reaction on the excited state surface.

The study to be described in this chapter examines the effects of alkyl substitution at C₃-C₄ on the efficiency of the process, using the series of monocyclic cyclobutenes depicted in Figure 3.1.

FIGURE 3.1

3.2 Preparation and Characterization of Compounds

1,2-Dimethylcyclobutene⁹³ (93) was synthesized by preparative photolysis of 2,3-dimethyl-1,3-butadiene¹⁴³, ¹⁴⁴. Compound 93 was purified by semipreparative gas-chromatography (vpc) and its structure was assigned on the basis of its ¹H NMR and ¹³C NMR spectra.

1,2,3-Trimethylcyclobutene¹⁴⁵ - 149 (94), cis- and trans-1,2,3,4-tetramethylcyclobutene⁴⁶ (95, 96), 1,2,3,3,4-pentamethylcyclobutene¹⁵⁰, 151 (97), and hexamethylcyclobutene¹⁵⁰, 151 (98) were prepared according to the procedures shown in equations 3.2.1-4. The cyclobutenes were isolated and purified by semipreparative gas chromatography. All compounds and synthetic intermediates were characterized by ¹H NMR, mass and IR spectroscopy ¹⁴⁵.

Ultraviolet absorption spectra of the six compounds were recorded in deoxygenated hexadecane solution at 23° C. Those of 95 and 96 are similar to the previously reported spectra in isooctane solution⁴⁶. The spectra of the other four compounds are similar to one another, showing only edge absorption extending to ca. 225 nm in the spectral region above 185 nm. The molar extinction coefficients at 214 nm are in the range 1000-2000 mol⁻¹ cm⁻¹ dm³ for all the compounds in the series.

3.3 Direct Photolysis of Cyclobutenes 93-98 in Hydrocarbon Solutions

3.3.1 Light Sources, Quantum Yield Determinations and Product Identification

Irradiations were performed using 214 nm light provided by a 16W zinc resonance lamp situated in the center of a merry-go-round apparatus. The solvent used was n-hexadecane, which was chosen because it allows quantitation and identification of the very volatile photoproducts from the photolysis of 93-98 (equations 3.3.2.1-3) by gas chromatography analyses. In the present study, it was possible to obtain n-hexadecane of very low optical density in the far-UV region (less than 0.05 at 200 nm) by a series of repetitive purification processes (see Chapter VI). This approach improved the sensitivity of the results and shortened the photolysis times considerably compared to those required with less extensively purified hydrocarbon solvents. Photolyses were carried out to conversions of starting material of 5 % or less, in order to avoid secondary photolysis of the primary photoproducts.

The quantum yield for formation of 2,3-dimethyl-1,3-butadiene from photolysis (214 nm) of 1,2-dimethylcyclobutene (93) in deoxygenated hexadecane solution was

determined by uranyl oxalate actinometry¹¹³, 152 - 154, and is the average of triplicate determinations. Quantum yields for 2-butyne formation from 93 and for diene and 2-butyne formation from 94-98 in hexadecane solutions were determined by merry-go-round photolyses relative to the quantum yield for formation of 2,3-dimethyl-1,3-butadiene from 93 in the same solvent. Product quantum yields were determined for each compound from the slopes of moles of photoproduct *versus* time plots. The dienes obtained from the photolysis of cyclobutenes 93-98 were identified on the basis of their ¹H NMR, mass, UV and IR spectra.

3.3.2 Results

Irradiation (214 nm) of 93-98 as deoxygenated, 0.018 M solutions in n-hexadecane containing ca. 2 x 10⁻³ mol dm⁻³ n-heptane as internal standard with 214 nm light generates the product mixtures depicted in equations 3.3.2.1-2. Two types of photoproducts are observed, the ring opening products which are substituted 1,3-butadiene derivatives, and cycloreversion-derived products which consist of mixtures of an alkene and 2-butyne. Relative yields of the isomeric dienes (Section 3.3.1) were determined by merry-go-round photolyses (relative to the formation of 2,3-dimethyl-1,3-butadiene (100) from photolysis of 1,2-dimethylcyclobutene (93) in the same solvent) from the slopes of concentration versus photolysis time plots as depicted in Figures 3.3.2.1-3. Figure 3.3.2.4 shows a plot of total diene yield versus irradiation time for all six compounds. Relative total diene yields (after normalizing that of 100 from photolysis of 93 to a value of 1.0) are listed in Table 3.3.2.1. The table also lists the distributions of isomeric dienes obtained from photolysis of 94-97. The relative yields of 2-butyne and the

alkene derived from the cycloreversion reaction of cyclobutenes 93-98 were determined in similar fashion and are summarized in Table 3.3.2.2.

E-103

Z-103

97 R=H, R'=CH₃

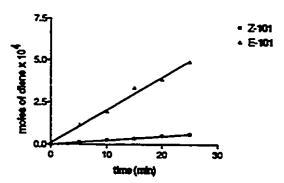


Figure 3.3.2.1. Moles of photoproduct versus time plots for the formation of E and Z-101 from photolysis (214 mm) of 1,2,3-trimethylcyclobutene (94) in hexadecane solution.

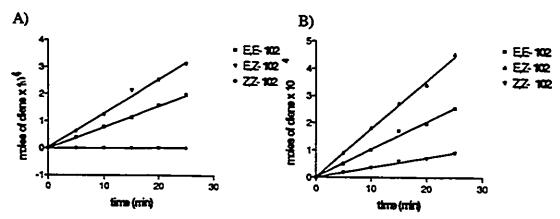


Figure 3.3.2.2. Moles of photoproduct versus time plots for the formation of E,E; E,Z; and Z,Z-102 from photolysis (214 nm) of A) cis-1,2,3,4-tetramethylcyclobutene (95) and B) trans-1,2,3,4-tetramethylcyclobutene (96) in deoxygenated hexadecane solution.

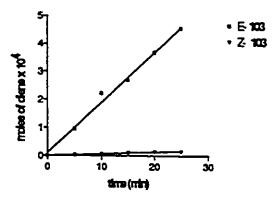


Figure 3.3.2.3. Moles of photoproduct versus time plots for the formation of E, and Z-103 from photolysis (214 nm) of 1,2,3,3,4-pentamethylcyclobutene (97) in deoxygenated hexadecane solution

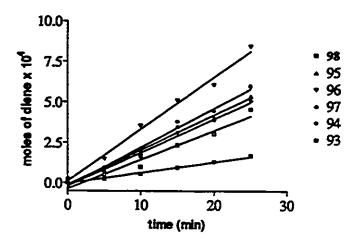


Figure 3.3.2.4. Total product diene yields from photolyses (214 nm) of methylated monocyclic cyclobutenes (93-98) in deoxygenated hexadecane solutions

Table 3.3.2.1. Relative total diene yields^a and isomeric diene distributions^b from photolyses (214 nm) of cyclobutenes 93-98 in ca. 0.02 mol dm⁻¹ deoxygenated n-hexadecane solutions at 20°C.

Cyclobutene	Total Diene Yield	E,E or E diene	E,Z or Z diene	Z,Z diene
93	1		<u>, </u>	
94	4.09	90.3	9.7	
95	3.33	40.7	59	0.3
96	4.49	34.7	54.2	11.1
97	3.09	96.8	3.2	
98	0.89			

a. Calculated from the slopes of the plots shown in Figure 3.3.2.4 and normalized relative to that of 100 from 93.

b. Calculated from the slopes of the plots shown in Figures 3.3.2.1-3 and normalized to a total of 100 % for each diene.

Table 3.3.2.2. Relative yields of cycloreversion products from photolyses (214 nm) of cyclobutenes 93-98 in ca. 0.02 mol dm⁻¹ deoxygenated n-hexadecane solutions at 20°C

Cyclobutene	Relative Yield of 2-Butyne
93	1
94	1.43
95	1.59
96	1.94
97	2.76
98	0.98

Table 3.3.2.3 lists absolute quantum yields for the formation of dienes 100-104 and 2-butyne from photolysis of 93-98 under these conditions. These data were calculated from the data in Tables 3.3.2.1-2 using the actinic conversion. Total quantum yields for diene formation are also listed in the table.

Table 3.3.2.3. Absolute quantum yields for product formation from photolysis (214 mm) of cyclobutenes 93-98 in ca. 0.02 mol dm⁻¹ deoxygenated n-hexadecane solutions at 20° C.

Cyclobutene	φ diene ^{a, b}	ΦEE.or E ^b	ΦEZ.or Z ^b	φzzb.	ф _{butvne} b
93	0.063				0.11
94	0.258	0.23	0.025		0.028
95	0.210	0.085	0.124	0.0006	0.019
96	0.283	0.098	0.153	0.031	0.016
97	0.195	0.0189	0.0062		0.024
98	0.051				0.011

a. ϕ diene is the sum of the quantum yields for formation of isomeric dienes in each case.

GC spiking experiments with authentic samples verified that the formation of alkenes 105 and 106 occur with > 99 % stereospecificity from photolysis of 95 and 96 respectively.

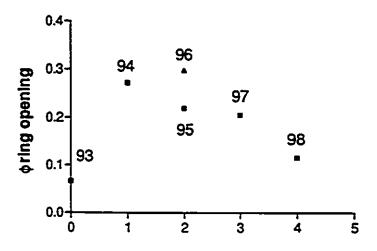
3.4 Discussion

3.4.1 C₃/C₄ Effects on the Photochemical Ring Opening of Alkylcyclobutenes

The varying structural feature in 93-98 is the number of methyl groups attached to carbons 3 and 4 of the 1,2-dimethylcyclobutene ring. The data listed in Table 3.3.2.3

b. Estimated error ~ 20 %.

indicate that this structural variation results in a marked effect on the quantum yield for diene formation. These data are summarized in a more revealing way in Figure 3.4.1.1, which depicts the total quantum yield for diene formation versus the number of C_3/C_4 methyl groups (n). As n increases throughout the series, ϕ diene increases to a maximum value at n = 2 (trans) and then decreases as n increases further.



no methyl groups on carbons 3 and 4

Figure 3.4.1.1. Plot of total quantum yield of ring opening (214 nm) as a function of methyl substitution for cyclobutenes 93-98 in hexadecane

One of the factors that controls the efficiency of the photochemical ring opening of alkylcyclobutenes is the C_3 - C_4 bond strength⁸³, just as is the case in ground state electrocyclic ring opening reactions¹⁶⁹. This is demonstrated by a comparison of the diene/alkene ratios derived from photolysis of compounds cis-107 (ca. 1.0) and cis-108 (ca. 3.6)¹⁷⁰. Molecular modeling studies show that the π -system of the cyclooctenyl C=C double bond in cis-108 is almost coplanar with the fragmenting cyclobutenyl C-C bond, a geometry which would be expected to weaken the C_3 - C_4 bond substantially

compared to that in 107. This effect is also manifested in the relative rates of thermal ring opening of the two compounds⁴³, ¹⁷⁰. Another example which illustrates the role of C₃-C₄ bond dissociation energy on the ring opening reaction



shall be presented in Chapter IV. The increase in ϕ diene between n = 0 and n = 2 trans (compounds 93, 94, and 96) is consistent with the expected progressive weakening of the C_3 - C_4 bond in 93 with increasing methyl substitution.

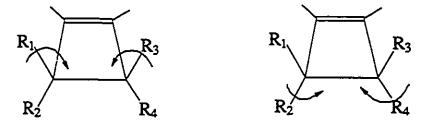
The quantum yield ratios fall off again in compounds 95, 97, and 98. From the point of view of bond-strength arguments alone, these values would be expected to increase continuously with increasing methyl substitution at C₃/C₄; in the case of 95, the C₃-C₄ bond strength might in fact be expected to be even smaller than that in the trans- isomer 96 owing to eclipsing of the methyl groups. Syn- dimethyl substitution clearly causes a diminution in both the absolute and relative quantum yields for ring opening compared to what might be expected on the basis of bond strength arguments alone. Thus the present data are not compatible with a simple biradical mechanism for the process, in which ring opening occurs by homolytic C₃-C₄ bond scission to yield a 1,4-biradical, which then relaxes to yield a mixture of diene isomers⁴³, 83.

A reasonable explanation for the reduced quantum yields of diene formation from photochemical ring opening of those cyclobutenes containing syn-dimethyl substitution (95, 97, and 98) is that the rate of excited state ring opening is altered by steric effects

between syn- substiments at C₃/C₄. Such effects would be expected if ring opening proceeds by disrotation in the early stages on the excited state reaction coordinate. Ring opening involving disrotatory twisting about C₁-C₄ and C₂-C₃ bonds as the C₃-C₄ bond cleaves can occur by two pathways as illustrated in Scheme 3.4.1.1. The types of steric interactions (H-H, H-CH₃, and CH₃-CH₃) that are involved in the two possible disrotatory ring opening modes of 93-98 are summarized in Table 3.4.1.1.

The increase in ϕ diene throughout the initial three members of the series (93, 94, and 96) suggests that no appreciable loss in efficiency results from replacing one pathway involving a hydrogen-hydrogen interaction with one involving a methyl-hydrogen interaction.

Replacement of one H-H or H-CH₃ interaction with a CH₃-CH₃ interaction (95 and 97) results in a significant reduction in ϕ diene. Two CH₃-CH₃ interactions (i.e. 98) result in a further reduction in ϕ diene; it is noteworthy that ϕ diene for 98 is similar to that of unsubstituted compound 93, which possesses a much stronger (in a linear sense) C₃-C₄ bond.



Scheme 3.4.1.1. Disrotatory twisting modes about C₁-C₄ and C₂-C₃ bonds as the C₃-C₄ bond cleaves.

Table 3.4.1.1. Number of disrotatory interactions generated upon cyclobutene ring opening

	Disrotatory Interactions							
cyclobutene	н-н	H-CH ₃	CH ₃ -CH ₃					
93	2	0	0					
94	1	1	0					
95	1	0	1					
96	0	2	0					
97	0	1	1					
98	0	0	2					

The importance of steric factors in *ground state* disrotatory electrocycloreversions has not been extensively documented^{5a,b}, due to the fact that six-electron electrocycloreversions are relatively uncommon because of the greater thermodynamic stability of 1,3-cyclohexadienes relative to their open chain 1,3,5-hexatriene isomers. However, there is evidence to suggest that increasing the steric bulk at C₅/C₆ of a cyclohexadienyl system does result in an increase in the activation energy for ring opening^{5b} when the process does occur. It is expected that the effects of such interactions should be more pronounced on the rates of excited state disrotatory electrocyclic processes, since excited state pericyclic reactions are normally subject to quite small activation barriers.

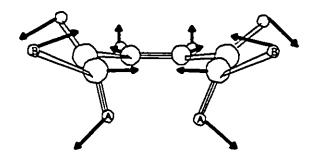
Baldwin and coworkers have measured the secondary deuterium isotope effect (kH/kD) for the disrotatory thermal electrocyclization of hexa-1,3,5-triene¹⁶⁷, 168. The secondary isotope effects for the disrotatory electrocyclic reactions of t,c,t- and all-cis-1,3,5-hexatriene (Scheme 3.4.1.2)

$$\begin{array}{c|c}
 & \Delta & D \\
 & D \\
 & D \\
 & D
\end{array}$$

t,c,t- and all-cis-1,3,5-hexatriene

Scheme 3.4.1.2. Electrocyclization of 1.3.5-hexatriene.

are 1.05 ± 0.03 and 0.88 ± 0.02 , respectively. The authors demonstrated (through *abinitio* calculations) that the former is the expected secondary isotope effect caused by very slight changes in hybridization at C_1 and C_6 in the transition state for electrocyclization. The strong inverse effect observed for the all-*cis*-deuterated compound can then be ascribed to steric effects between the "A" hydrogens in Scheme 3.4.1.3. Steric isotope effects are always less than unity because C-D bonds are shorter than the corresponding C-H bonds 119a .



Scheme 3.4.1.3. Drawing of the SCF/6-31G* transition structure for the electrocyclization of 1,3,5-hexatriene. The arrows show motions in the normal mode of imaginary frequency

Stereoelectronic effects on thermal cyclobutene ring opening have been extensively studied by Houk and coworkers 156, 157. They introduced the term torquoselectivity to describe the selectivity exhibited in the thermal conrotatory ring opening of 3-substituted cyclobutenes, which may proceed by outward or inward rotation of the C₃/C₄ substituents to afford E- or Z- dienes (equation 3.4.1.1). Using quantum mechanical calculations, it was predicted that electron donor and weak electron acceptor substituents should prefer to rotate outwards, while very strong electron acceptor substituents should prefer to rotate inwards 158, 159. The same authors reported several experimental verifications of those predictions 160 - 162. They also agreed with the conclusions of Frey and coworkers who demonstrated that torquoselectivity is approximately additive in polysubstituted cyclobutenes 163. Electronic effects related to differences in hybridization of the C-substituent bonds during outward and inward rotation, are thought to outweigh steric effects in conrotatory electrocyclic reactions. This is born out by recent studies of secondary deuterium kinetic isotope effects on the thermal ring opening of cyclobutenes 168

Another indication that steric factors play a role in the photochemical ring opening of cyclobutenes is afforded by a comparison of the relative yields of isomeric dienes obtained from 94, 95, and 97 (Scheme 3.4.1.4). Table 3.4.1.2 shows the three cyclobutene derivatives, the structure of the formally allowed diene isomers obtained from ring opening, and the dominant steric interaction that will be involved in the disrotatory ring opening mode leading to the formation of each isomer. In these three derivatives, the

two disrotatory ring opening modes lead to different diene isomers. The decreasing relative yields of E/Z (or E,E/ZZ) dienes in the series 95>97>94 is consistent with a decrease in steric discrimination between the two possible modes throughout the series.

Table 3.4.1.2. Structures of the allowed diene isomers obtained from ring opening of 94, 95, and 97, and dominant steric interactions involved in the disrotatory process. Ratios of the allowed isomers are given in each case.

Cyclobutene	Isomer 1	Steric Interaction	Isomer 2	Steric Interaction	Isomer 1/
X 95	$\overline{\chi}$	HvsH	\sim	CH ₃ vs CH ₃	170
洪 97	六	H vs CH3	太	CH ₃ vs CH ₃	30
) ₉₄	\boldsymbol{x}	H vs CH3		H vs CH3	10

Scheme 3.4.1.4. E/Z Diene ratios from allowed disrotatory photochemical ring opening of cyclobutenes 94, 95, and 97.

The degree of steric discrimination follows the difference in the acuteness of the disrotatory interactions involved in the two ring opening pathways (Scheme 3.4.1.4).

It is also instructive to compare the diene distributions from photolyses of 95 and 96 which are summarized in Table 3.3.2.1. The relative yields of E,E-, E,Z-, and Z,Z-102 obtained from photolysis of 95 and 96 are similar to those reported previously 46. The absolute quantum yield for formation of Z,Z-2,3-dimethyl-2,4-hexadiene (Z,Z-102) from photolysis of 96 is 50 times higher than that obtained from 95. Z,Z-102 is a formally forbidden product from 96; its substantially higher yield from 96 than from 95 is consistent with its formation by two different pathways (with different steric requirements) from 95 and 96. Clearly, those steric requirements involved in the formation of Z,Z-102 from 96 are less demanding than those involved in its formation from 95.

While the trends noted above are consistent with other indications that, in spite of the overall nonstereospecificity of the photochemical ring opening of alkyl substituted cyclobutenes, disrotatory motions are involved in the initial stages of the process on the excited state potential energy surface, there are clearly other possible explanations that must be examined. One is that the observed substituent effect on the quantum yield of ring opening might be due to an effect on some other excited state decay process in addition to ring opening (e.g. cycloreversion). A complete analysis would therefore require calculation of rate constants for the photochemical ring opening reaction. Unfortunately, the excited singlet state lifetimes necessary for the calculation cannot be determined by the technique available to us.

3.4.2 Photochemical versus Thermal Ring Opening of 93-98

Rate constants and activation parameters for the thermal ring opening of alkylcyclobutenes have been determined for a wide variety of compounds (including 93-98) by Frey and coworkers 143 - 149, 155 and Criegee and Seebach 150, 151 and have been reviewed by Marvell 5. Table 3.4.2.1 lists rate constants and free energies of activation for the thermal electrocycloreversion of 93-98, and Figure 3.4.2.1 shows a plot of Arrhenius activation energy versus n. The similarity of the trend in activation energy for thermal ring opening of these compounds to that in the quantum yields for the photochemical process is striking, but it is difficult to ascertain its cause. The thermal process occurs with high degree of controtatory stereospecificity, and is certainly a fundamentally different process mechanistically from the photochemical one. The trend in thermal activation energy for these compounds has been ascribed to a combination of steric and electronic effects 145-149, 151. More recent theoretical studies have led to the conclusion that the latter dominates, however 157, 161, 163-166

One possible explanation for the similarity is that the photochemical process involves a dominant contribution from vibrationally excited ground state molecules, which might be formed by internal conversion in competition with disrotatory ring opening on the excited state surface. This could explain the general nonstereoselectivity of the reaction, since the hot ground state component would be expected to proceed with conrotatory stereochemistry. However, it would be difficult to explain the substantial yield of Z_i obtained from photolysis of 96 (Z_i Z_i E_i E_i 0.3), since the Z_i E_i diene is not formed in detectable yields (i.e. < 1 % of that of E_i E_i 102) in the thermal ring opening of this compound.

Table 3.4.2.1. Rate data for cyclobutenes 93-98 undergoing conrotatory ring opening⁵

Cyclobutene	$k \times 10^9 [s^{-1}]^{\ddagger}$	ΔG [KJ mol ⁻¹]
93	0.68	143.3
94	1.32	138.6
95	2.26	146.7
96	5.61	133.1
97	2.60	142.7 [†]
98	0.45	167.4 [†]

[‡] Calculated at 448 K

[†] Reference 151.

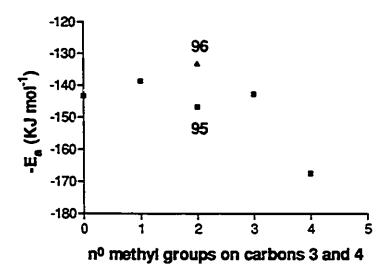


Figure 3.4.2.1. Plot of activation energies *versus* number of methyl groups for the thermal ring opening of cyclobutenes 93-98

3.4.3 Cycloreversion of Cyclobutenes 93-98

The photocycloreversion of 95 and 96 yields cis- and trans- 2-butene, respectively, with a high (> 99 %) degree of stereospecificity, verifying previous conclusions regarding the process⁴⁶.

The quantum yields for cycloreversion (Table 3.3.2.3) do not vary markedly throughout the series of cyclobutenes 93-98. This is consistent with the Rydberg state assignment for this reaction; 93-98 all possess similar Rydberg state energies. This is understandable since the chromophore (C=C) remains unchanged along the series of alkyl-substituted cyclobutenes.

3.5 Conclusions

The present results provide evidence that orbital symmetry does play a significant role in the photochemical ring opening of cyclobutene, in spite of the general nonstereospecificity of the reaction. These results are also in agreement with those obtained by Mathies and coworkers²⁷, which show that the photochemical ring opening dynamics of cyclobutene (in the first 10 - 20 femtoseconds following Franck Condon excitation) are those predicted by orbital symmetry selection rules.

CHAPTER IV

THE EFFECTS OF "CENTRAL BOND" TORSIONAL CONSTRAINT ON THE PHOTOCHEMISTRY OF CYCLOBUTENE AND 1,3-BUTADIENE

4.1 Introduction

Recent theoretical calculations have led to the proposal of a fully efficient internal conversion mechanism for the photoisomerization processes of conjugated dienes, which is described in detail in Chapter I. These studies are based on the tenet that excited-toground state internal conversion processes occur at conical intersections- geometries where the two surfaces actually touch61, 100 - 104 -rather than at avoided surface crossings. According to MC-SCF ab-initio calculations, the structures at the conical intersection geometries for the 21Ag surface of 1,3-butadiene are tetraradicaloid with all three C-C bonds twisted 102. In the s-cis-like conical intersection (48 in Figure 1.6.3), which is proposed to be involved in the photochemistry of s-cis-dienes, the two terminal bonds are twisted by ca. 20° and 80°, while the central bond is twisted by ca. 50°. This should be compared to the planar allylmethylene biradical, which is commonly thought to be the lowest energy structure on the excited singlet state surface of 1,3-butadiene, and postulated to be involved in the cis, trans- photoisomerization process. This model, in which the allylmethylene biradical geometry is simply that at the avoided surface crossing for cis, trans isomerization, would predict that the efficiency of the process should be independent of structural constraints which would prevent torsion of the central C-C bond. The opposite would be expected for the conical intersection model, since it predicts that *cis,trans* photoisomerization about one or the other double bond involves simultaneous torsional motions about the central C-C bond. It is interesting that similar skeletal motions have been suggested to be important in the photoisomerization of opsin-bound retinal 77 - 78.

This same model postulates that the pathway for cyclobutene ring opening is dominated by the twisting motion of one or two almost independent methylene groups, and that the nonstereospecificity of cyclobutene ring opening is due to the way in which the photoexcited reactant traverses the excited state potential energy surface as it approaches the conical intersection region. The theory predicts that torsional motions about the cyclobutene C=C bond (central single bond in 1,3-butadiene) accompany disrotatory torsion of the C₁-C₄/C₂-C₃ bonds.⁸⁷

There already appears to be some experimental evidence that contradicts the predictions of the avoided crossing model for *cis,trans*- photoisomerization. On the basis of resonance Raman spectroscopic results for isoprene, Mathies and coworkers²¹, 96 proposed that the initial relaxation modes (after Franck Condon excitation to the ¹B_u state) include torsion about the central bond. This is also suggested by gas-phase spectroscopic studies of acyclic dienes²¹, ²⁴.

Aue and coworkers 91 reported the photochemical ring closure of constrained *s-cis* exocyclic dienes 109-112 (see Scheme 4.1.1). They found that the photoconversions of 1,2-dimethylenecyclohexane (109) to bicyclo[4.2.0]oct-1(2)ene (113) and 1,2-dimethylenecyclopentane (110) to 114 proceed in high (> 95 %) chemical yield, and with quantum yield of about 0.1.

	ф	% cyclization yield	% diene
	0.12	71	100
109 113	0.11	>95	5 7
110 — 114	0.11	>95	58
111	0.025	80	58
112	<0.01		

Scheme 4.1.1. Photochemistry of constrained s-cis dienes.

The substantially lower quantum yields for photocyclization of 111 and 112 were ascribed to strain effects on the rates and quantum yields of photochemical ring closure, since the diene chromophores are essentially identical and were assumed to possess similar excited state lifetimes.

The conical intersection model⁶¹, 102, 104, 177 rationalizes the trend observed for these compounds as due to variations in the torsional flexibility of the central bond throughout the series.

The report from Leigh and coworkers 67 on the photochemistry of cis- and trans-37 (vide infra) provided a strong indication that orbital symmetry factors do play a role in the photochemical ring opening of cyclobutenes 33 . The high degree of disrotatory stereoselectivity observed in this photochemical ring opening reaction (> 75 % of the formally allowed E,E isomer from ring opening of cis- cyclobutene 37, and > 80 % of the allowed E,Z isomer from ring opening of trans-37) was the first clear example that suggests that orbital symmetry factors may be important.

It is possible that the special structure of 37 is the dominant factor responsible for the high degree of disrotatory selectivity in the photochemical ring opening of these compounds. *cis*- And *trans*-37 would be expected to experience reduced central bond torsional flexibility as ring opening commences, and may be indicative of the validity of the conical intersection mechanism for cyclobutene ring opening.

This chapter describes a study directed at assessing the importance of central bond torsional motions in both diene and cyclobutene photochemistry. The study involves an investigation of the photochemistry of an expanded series of cyclobutenes and their isomeric dienes. Determination of the quantum yields for cis,trans- photoisomerization of the dienes will allow us to test the effects of central bond torsional constraint on the

efficiency of the photoisomerization processes of conjugated dienes. They will also allow a more comprehensive test of the adiabatic ring opening mechanism that was described in Chapter 1.4.

4.2 Preparation and Identification of Compounds

Synthesis of the *E,E* isomers of the 1,2-bis(ethylidene)cycloalkanes 124-127 was effected by zirconocene-mediated intramolecular coupling 180 of the corresponding dialkynes 116-119, which in turn were synthesized by methylation of the terminal dialkynes 120-123, (see Scheme 4.2.1).

Теп	minal dialkyne	Diene	Methylated alkyne
n			
2	120	124	116
3	121	125	117
4	122	126	118
5	123	127	119

Scheme 4.2.1. Synthesis of 1,2-bis(ethylidene)-cycloalkanes

Exhaustive irradiation (254 nm) of the *E,E*-diene isomers was then carried out to afford a mixture of the *E,E*- and *E,Z*-dienes and the *cis*- and *trans*- cyclobutenes, which were separated and purified by semipreparative gas chromatography (equation 4.2.1).

The dienes *E,E*- and *E,Z*-2,3-bis(ethylidene)bicyclo[2.2.1]heptane, 131, whose syntheses are described in Scheme 4.2.2, will also be utilized in the cis,transphotoisomerization study.

131

Scheme 4.2.2. Synthesis of 2,3-bis(ethylidene)bicyclo[2.2.1]heptanes.

The photoisomerization step to the cyclobutene (equation 4.2.1) was useful only for the syntheses of cis- and trans- isomers of cyclobutenes 129, 37, and 130. Cis- and trans- 128 (n = 2) were synthesized by a route (equation 4.2.2) involving initial zir conocene-mediated cyclization of the dialkyne 133, hydrogenolysis and photocyclization of the resulting mixture of 3,4-dimethyl-1,2-bis(methylene)cyclobutanes 134. The isomeric dimethylbicyclo[2.2.0]hexenes 128 were thermally labile, but could be separated and purified by semipreparative GC under mild conditions.

The dienes and cyclobutenes were characterized by 1 H and 13 C NMR, IR, MS, UV, and High Resolution Mass Spectrometric Measurements. Table 4.2.1 summarizes some diagnostic 13 C nuclear magnetic resonances of dienes 124-127. The NMR spectra of the $E_{*}E_{*}$ - diene isomers are much simpler than those of the $E_{*}Z_{*}$ - isomers due to symmetry factors.

Table 4.2.2 summarizes the UV absorption data of the E,E- and E,Z- isomers of 124-127, and 131. Figure 4.2.1 shows the UV spectra of the E,E-isomers of 124-127 and 131, recorded as dilute (ca. 5 x 10⁻⁵ mol dm⁻³) deoxygenated pentane solutions. The UV spectrum of E,E-124 exhibits detailed fine structure centered at 252 nm. The UV

spectrum of E,E-131 shows only minor fine structure. The rest of the dienes display a rather broad absorption, devoid of any fine structure.

Table 4.2.1. Diagnostic ¹³C NMR chemical shifts of **124-127** E,E- and E,Z- diene isomers determined in deuteriochloroform as solvent.

		-		δ [ppm]				
	(Сң	2)n 4			-	(CH ₂)n	5] 3 2 3	
n → C ↓	0	1	2	3	0	1	2	3
1	141.60	141.12	142.03	146.06	142.47	146.39	142.14	145.31
2					140.22	141.10	137.39	140.27
3	111.47	111.13	115.71	117.40	117.29	120.32	118.85	121.33
4					116.07	116.06	116.48	117.38
5	13.21	14.85	12.92	13.03	14.60	15.41	12.69	14.03
6					13.94	15.10	14.11	14.95
7	29.69	30.35	27.95	31.80	26.42	36.42	37.89	38.00
8					24.98	31.09	28.66	29.68

Table 4.2.2. Ultraviolet absorption data for E,E- and E,Z- dienes 124-127 and 131. The spectra were recorded in ca. 5×10^{-5} mol dm⁻³ deoxygenated pentane solutions at 23° C.

Diene	λ _{max} [mm]	ε _{max} [dm³mot-1 cm¹]	E [KJ mol-1]
E,E- 124	252	9900	476
E,E- 125	252	9550	476
E,E- 126	221	8500	543
E,E- 127	222	9010	541
E,E- 131	253	11200	474
E,Z- 124	250	10550	480
E,Z- 125	249	9930	482
E,Z- 126	220	9000	545
E,Z- 127	219	8990	548
<i>E,Z</i> - 131	245	11900	490

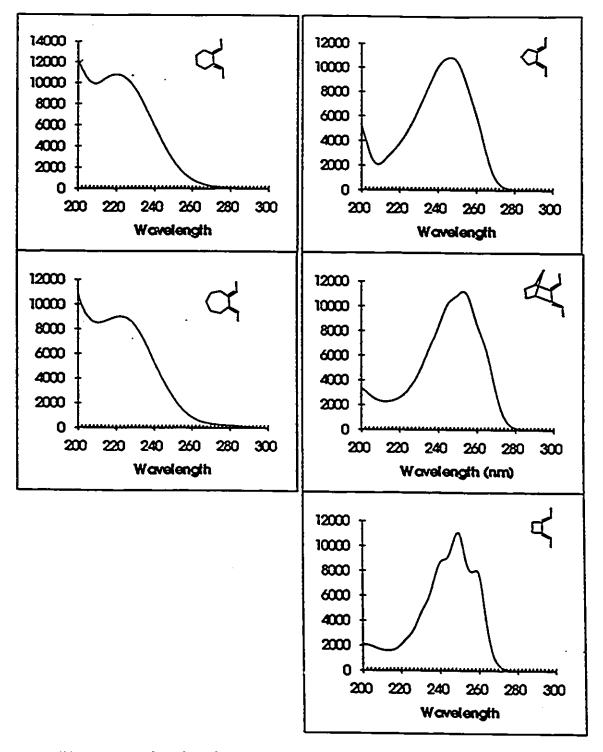


Figure 4.2.1. Solution phase UV absorption spectra of E_*E_* 124-127 and 131 measured at 23 °C, 1.0 cm path length in pentane ca. 1 x 10⁻⁴ mol dm⁻³ solutions

The cis- and trans- cyclobutene isomers were readily distinguished by their 1 H and 13 C nuclear magnetic resonance spectra. The proton resonances due to the hydrogens at positions 3 and 4 of the cyclobutene ring are particularly diagnostic 46 of stereochemistry in alkylcyclobutene. In the trans- series, these hydrogens are displaced to lower fields with respect to those in the cis- isomers; the same trend is observed for the methyl groups. Of particular interest is the γ effect observed in the 13 C nuclear magnetic resonances that confirmed the identification of the cis- and trans- isomers of the cyclobutene series (Table 4.2.3).

Table 4.2.3. Diagnostic ¹³C NMR chemical shifts of bicyclic cyclobutenes determined in carbon tetrachloride as solvent.

_			δ [ppm]						
(($CH_2)_n = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 2 \end{pmatrix}_3$			(CH ₂)n	3				
n	C ₁	C ₂	C ₃	C ₁	C ₂				
1	154.34	38.67	14.11	152.60	44.62	17.50			
2	144.74	40.48	13.19	143.69	46.42	16.94			
3 § Determi									

The condensed-phase ultraviolet absorption spectra of the cis-, and transcyclobutenes 128, 129, 37, and 130 follow similar trends to those observed for 95 and 96⁴². The condensed-phase UV absorption spectra of *cis*- and *trans*- cyclobutenes 128, 129, 37, and 130 are shown in Figure 4.2.2.

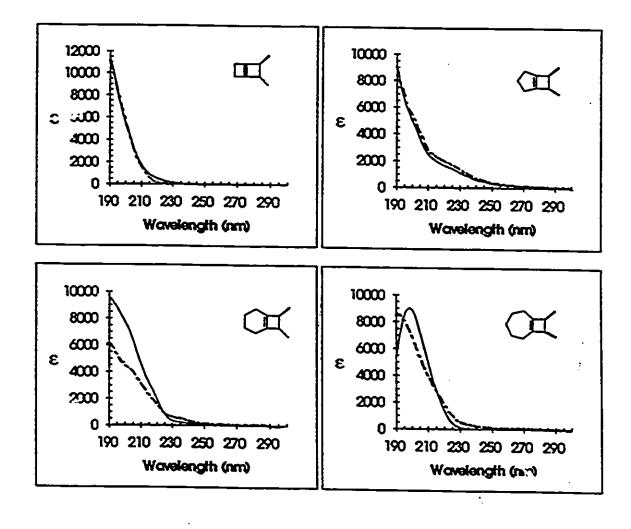


Figure 4.2.2. Solution phase UV absorption spectra for cis-(—), and trans-(—) 128-130, and 37 measured at 23 °C, in deoxygenated pentane solutions ca. 2×10^{-4} mol dm⁻³

4.3. Results

4.3.1 Direct Irradiation of Dienes

Direct irradiation (254 nm) of deoxygenated ca. 0.02 mol dm⁻³ pentane solutions of E,E-126 and 127 resulted in the formation of the corresponding E,Z- isomers and ciscyclobutenes 37 and 130 according to equations 4.3.1.1-2. Direct irradiation (254 nm) of the E,Z- isomers 126 and 127 yielded the corresponding E,E- dienes, trans- cyclobutenes and small amounts of unidentified products according to equations 4.3.1.3-4. Plots of moles of photoproduct versus irradiation time were constructed for each product and are shown in Figures 4.3.1.1-2. Quantum yields for cis,trans isomerization and cyclobutene formation were determined using ferrioxalate actinometry (see Appendix 1), and are collected in Table 4.3.1.1.

<u>Table 4.3.1.1</u>. Quantum yields for *cis,trans*- photoisomerization and cyclobutene formation from 254 nm irradiation of ca. 0.02 mol dm⁻³ deoxygenated pentane solutions of E,E- and E,Z-126 and 127

Diene	ФЕЕ-EZ	ΦEZ-EE	ФЕЕ-СВ	ФЕZ-СВ	Σφ _{other} a (cis)	^ф other (trans)			
126	0.20 ± 0.03	0.29 ± 0.03	0.074±001	0.13 ± 0.01	0.041±.005	0.034±009			
127	0.21 ± 0.03	0.14 ± 0.06	0.067±.001	0.032±.001	0.027±008	0.021±.005			
a. No mo	a. No more than of 5 % of total product.								

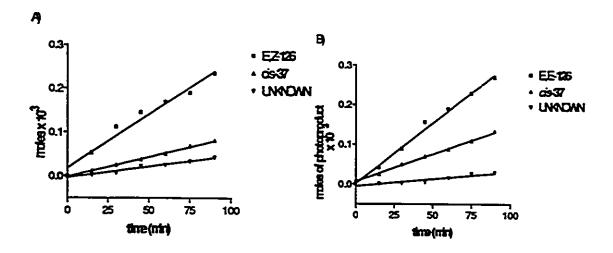


Figure 4.3.1.1 Plots of moles of photoproduct versus irradiation time from photolysis of A) E,E-1,2-Bis(ethylidene)cyclohexane (E,E-126) and B) E,Z-1,2-Bis(ethylidene) cyclohexane (E,Z-126) in deoxygenated pentane solutions with 254 nm Light

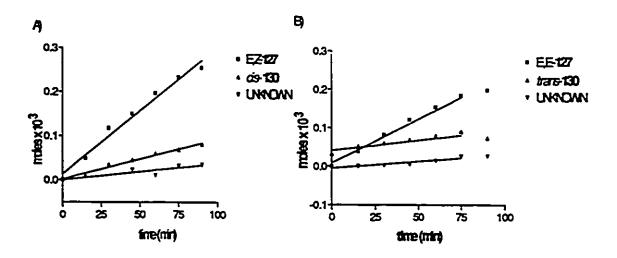


Figure 4.3.1.2. Moles of photoproduct versus irradiation time plots for photolysis of A) $E_*E_*-1,2-Bis$ (ethylidene)cycloheptane (E_*E_*-127) and B) $E_*Z_*-1,2-bis$ (ethylidene) cycloheptane (E_*Z_*-127) in deoxygenated pentane solutions with 254 nm Light

Direct irradiation (254 nm) of deoxygenated ca. 0.02 mol dm⁻³ pentane solutions of the *E,E*-isomers of 1,2-bis(ethylidene)-cyclopentane 125 and cyclobutane 124, and 2,3-bis(ethylidene)-norbornane 131 results in the formation of the corresponding *E,Z*-isomers and cis-cyclobutenes 129, 132 and 128, as depicted by equations 4.3.1.5-7. Direct irradiation of the *E,Z*-isomers of 125, 131 and 124 yields the corresponding *E,E*- diene and trans-cyclobutene derivatives, and small amounts of isomeric compounds which were not identified, according to equations 4.1.3.8-10.

Product yields were determined from plots of moles of photoproduct versus irradiation time as shown in Figures 4.3.1.3-5. Quantum yields for *cis.trans*- photoisomerization and for cyclobutene formation and other minor products were determined for all compounds in the series relative to the *cis,trans*- photoisomerization of *E,E*-125, which was determined to be $\phi_{E,E\to E,Z^-} = 0.24 \pm 0.02$ by ferrioxalate actinometry, and are collected in Table 4.3.1.2.

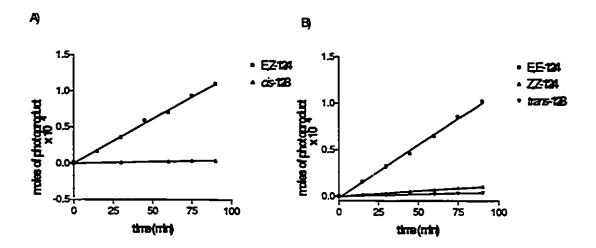


Figure 4.3.1.3. Moles of photoproduct versus irradiation time plots for photolysis of A) E,E-1,2-bis (ethylidene)cyclobutane (E,E-124) and B) E,Z-1,2-bis (ethylidene)cyclobutane (E,Z-124) in deoxygenated pentane solutions with 254 nm Light

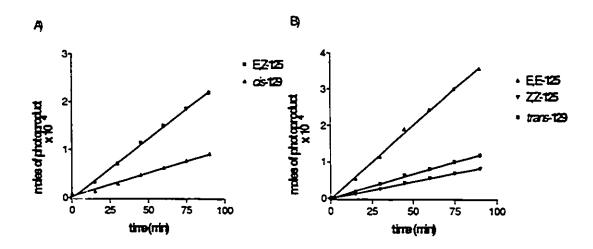


Figure 4.3.1.4. Moles of photoproduct *versus* irradiation time plots for photolysis of A) $E_*E_*-1,2$ -Bis(ethylidene)cyclopentane (E_*E_*-125) and B) $E_*Z_*-1,2$ -Bis(ethylidene) cyclopentane (E_*Z_*-125) in deoxygenated pentane solutions with 254 nm Light

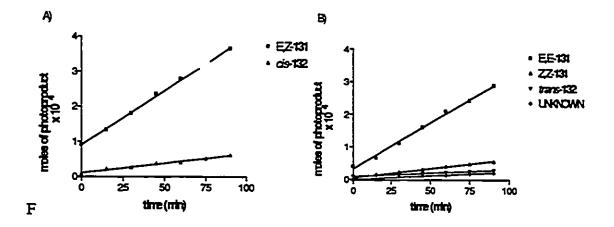


Figure 4.3.1.5. Moles of photoproduct *versus* irradiation time Plots for photolysis of A) $E_{,E}$ -2,3-bis(ethylidene)bicyclo[2.2.1]Heptane ($E_{,E}$ -131) and B) $E_{,E}$ -2,3-bis(ethylidene) bicyclo[2.2.1]Heptane ($E_{,E}$ -131) in deoxygenated pentane solutions with 254 nm Light

Table 4.3.1.2. Quantum yields for *cis,trans*- photoisomerization and cyclobutene formation from 254 nm irradiation of 1,2-*bis*(ethylidene)cycloalkanes 125, 131, and 124 in deoxygenated pentane solutions at 23°C

_						
	Diene	ФЕЕ-ЕZ	ΦEZ-EE	ФEZ-ZZ	ФСВ	[©] other
	125	0.24 ± 0.02	0.39 ± 0.04	0.09 ± 0.01	0.10 ± 0.02 (EE)	< 0.002 (EE)
					0.13 ± 0.01 (EZ)	≈ 0.01 (EZ)
	131	0.30 ± 0.03	0.28 ± 0.03	0.06 ± 0.01	0.03 ± 0.01 (EE)	≈ 0.003 (EE)
					0.03 ± 0.01 (EZ)	< 0.005 (EZ)
	124	0.12 ± 0.02	0.11 ± 0.03	0.011±0.005	< 0.005 (EE)	= 0.01 (EE)
					< 0.005 (EZ)	≈ 0.01 (EZ)

4.3.2 Direct Irradiation of cis- and trans-Dimethylbicyclo[n.2.0]Alk-1n+2-enes.

Irradiation of ca. 0.02 mol dm⁻³ deoxygenated pentane solutions of 128-129, 37 and 130, with the pulses from an Ar/F2 excimer laser (193 nm; 15 ns; 20 mJ; 0.5 Hz repetition rate) or with a 16W Zn resonance lamp (214 nm) resulted in the clean formation of E,E- and E,Z- 124-127 as the major products, with minor amounts of the Z,Z- diene in the irradiations of the trans- isomers (Scheme 4.3.2.1). No other products were observed in yields greater than ca. 3 % in any case. Product yields were determined from the slopes of moles of photoproduct versus photolysis time plots (for the E,E-,E,Z-, and Z,Z- diene isomers). These plots are shown in Figures 4.3.2.1-5 for the photolyses of cis- and transcyclobutenes 128, 129, 37, and 130 respectively. Quantum yields for product formation from photolysis of cyclobutenes 129, 37, and 130 were determined using the ring opening of bicyclo[4.2.0]oct-6(1)-ene as actinometer¹⁸¹, ¹⁸² for 193 nm irradiations. Quantum yields for ring opening of cis- and trans-128 were determined with 214 nm excitation, using uranyl oxalate actinometry 113. Table 4.3.2.1 lists the quantum yield data from photolysis of the eight compounds at the two excitation wavelengths, along with the E,E-/E,Z- diene ratios calculated from the slopes of moles of photoproduct vs time plots over the 0.5-4% conversion range.

Scheme 4.3.2.1. Photolysis of dimethylbicyclo[n.2.0]alk-1-ene

Table 4.3.2.1. Quantum yields for diene formation from 193 nm and 214 nm irradiation of ca. 0.02 mol dm⁻³ deoxygenated pentane solutions of cis- and trans- 128, 129, 37, and 130

Cyclobutene	ф <u>е</u> е	ΦEZ	Ф _{total}	(E,E-/E,Z-) ₁₉₃	(E,E-/E,Z-) ₂₁₄
cis-128	0.55 ± 0.04	0.32 ± 0.06	0.87		1.7
cis- 129	0.42 ± 0.05	0.17 ± 0.03	0.59	2.5	
cis-37	0.48 ± 0.06	0.14 ± 0.02	0.62	3.4	
cis-130	0.68 ± 0.05	0.075±0.008	0.75	9.1	5.38
trans-128	0.066±0.009	0.61 ± 0.04	0.69		0.11
trans-129	0.065±0.008	0.59 ± 0.07	0.66	0.11	
trans-37	0.08 ± 0.02	0.45 ± 0.06	0.53	0.18	
trans-130	0.19 ± 0.03	0.67 ± 0.05	0.86	0.29	0.48

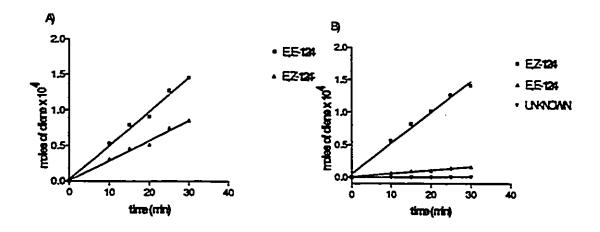


Figure 4.3.2.1. Moles of photoproduct *versus* time plots for the photolysis (214 nm) of *ca* 1 x 10⁻² mol dm⁻³ deoxygenated pentane solution of A) *cis*-5,6-dimethylbicyclo[2.2.0]hex-1(4)-ene (*cis*-128) and B) *trans*-5,6-dimethylbicyclo[2.2.0]hex-1(4)-ene (*trans*-128) with 214 nm Light

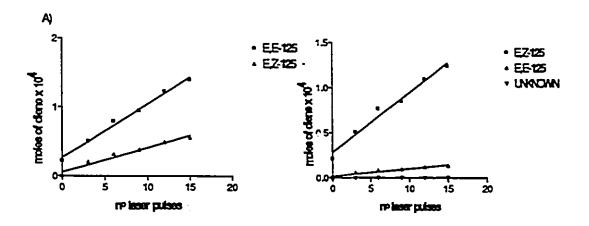


Figure 4.3.2.2. Moles of photoproduct *versus* laser dose for the photolysis (193 nm) of *ca* 1 x 10⁻² mol dm⁻³ deoxygenated pentane solutions of A) *cis*-6,7-dimethylbicyclo[3.2.0]hept-1(5)-ene (*cis*-129) and B) *trans*-6,7-dimethylbicyclo[3.2.0]hept-1(5)-ene (*trans*-129)

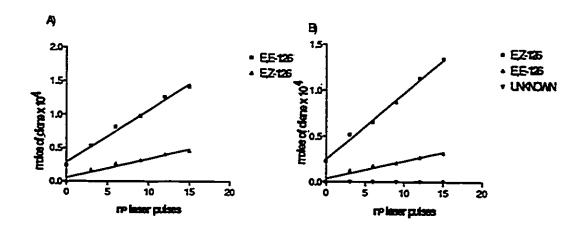


Figure 4.3.2.3. Moles of photoproduct *versus* laser dose for the photolysis (193 nm) of *ca* 1 x 10⁻² mol dm⁻³ deoxygenated pentane solutions of A) *cis*-7,8-dimethylbicyclo[4.2.0]oct-1(6)-ene (*cis*-37) wand B) *trans*-7,8-dimethylbicyclo[4.2.0]oct-1(6)-ene (*trans*-37)

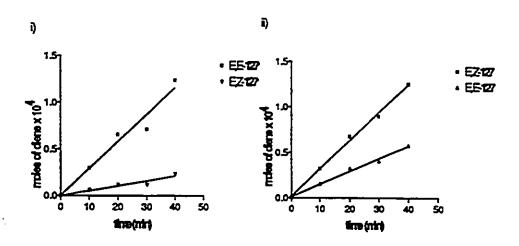


Figure 4.3.2.4. Moles of photoproduct versus time plots for the photolysis (214 nm) of ca 1 x 10^{-2} mol dm⁻³ deoxygenated pentane solution of i) cis-8,9-dimethylbicyclo[5.2.0]non-1(7)-ene (cis-130) and ii) trans-8,9-dimethylbicyclo[5.2.0]non-1(7)-ene (trans-130)

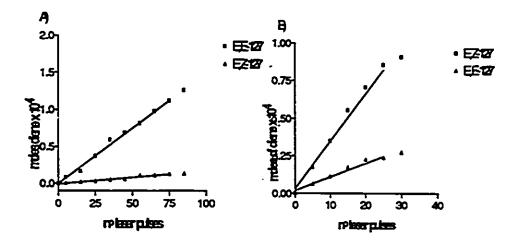


Figure 4.3.2.5. Moles of photoproduct vs laser dose for the photolysis (193 nm) of ca 1 x 10⁻² mol dm⁻³ deoxygenated pentane solution of A) cis-8,9-dimethylbicyclo[5.2.0]non-1(7)-ene (cis-130) and B) trans-8,9-dimethylbicyclo[5.2.0]non-1(7)-ene (trans-130).

4.4 DISCUSSION

4.4.1 The cis,trans Photoisomerization of Constrained s-cis Dienes

The five sets of isomeric dienes studied, 124-127, and 131, have planar s-cis structures with central bond dihedral angle close to 0°, but with varying abilities to twist about the dihedral. This is demonstrated by molecular mechanics calculations. The results of MMX dihedral driver calculations for the corresponding bis-(methylene)cycloalkanes 110-112 are listed in Table 4.4.1.1. The data listed are the central bond dihedral angle at which the calculated MMX heat of formation of the corresponding bismethylene cycloalkanes 110-112 is 12.5 KJ mol⁻¹ higher than that of its stable ground state geometry 178.

Table 4.4.1.1. Central bond dihedral angles at which the calculated MMX heat of formation of the corresponding Bis (methylidene) cycloalkanes is 12.5 KJ mol⁻¹ higher than that of its stable ground state geometry. C_1 - C_4 distances are included (terminal methylene carbons).

	Diene	Angle for $\Delta H_f = 12.5$ KJ mol ⁻¹	C ₁ -C ₄ distance [‡] [Å]
110	a	37°	1.49961
111	\Leftrightarrow	31°	1.51229
112	4	27°	1.52276

[≢] Ground State Geometry

The quantum yields for cis,trans- isomerization of 125 and 131 (Table 4.3.1.2) are of similar magnitude to those reported for the 2,4-hexadienes (Table 1.5.1) and those for 126 and 127 (Table 4.3.1.1), and can thus be considered typical of conjugated dienes in general. In contrast, those for E,E- and E,Z-124 are significantly lower. No fluorescence was detected at room temperature for 124 and no evidence was found for the formation of other products, which might account for the reduced quantum yields for cis,trans-isomerization.

The results for 124 are incompatible with the classical allylmethylene mechanism for cis,trans- photoisomerization (Chapter I, Section 1.6A). This model requires that cis,trans- isomerization involves planarization of the diene framework and twisting about one of the terminal C=C bonds. Clearly, constraining the central bond would not be expected to affect the efficiency of the process if it occurred by such a mechanism. It is

possible that distortions of the C₂-C₃ bond which are caused by the cyclobutyl ring¹⁸³ destabilize the allylmethylene structure relative to those of 125 and 131, but to a first approximation, this should also be felt in the fully planar geometry. Thus, it does not seem likely that this factor could account for the observed results.

On the other hand, the results for 124 are qualitatively compatible with the conical intersection mechanism suggested by recent theoretical calculations 79, 104, 179. As mentioned previously, the geometry of the s-cisoid conical intersection (CI) found for the excited singlet state surface of 1,3-butadiene is a tetraradicaloid structure with all three C-C bonds twisted, partly as a result of substantial pyramidalization at one of the two central carbons 104. In the cases of 124, 125, and 131, structural constraints prevent access to the s-trans- conical intersection (50 in Figure 1.6.3, Chapter I), so that only the s-cisstructure (48 in Figure 1.6.3) needs to be considered. The theory stipulates that after Franck Condon excitation of s-cis- but adiene to the $^{1}B_{u}$ state, minor distortions allow crossing onto the double excited 2^IA_g surface. Once on the 2^IA_g surface, the molecule relaxes to the conical intersection region by disrotatory twisting around C1-C2 and C3-C4 bonds and pyramidalization at C2. Once the conical intersection region is entered, rapid decay to the ground state surface occurs, and the molecule partitions to stable products (the s-trans- conformer, cyclobutene, and geometric isomers, Scheme 1.6.4) in relative yields which depend on the trajectories of two vectors that define the conical intersection region⁶¹.

One might expect that preventing the molecule from undergoing the C₂ pyramidalization process, which is qualitatively similar to C₂-C₃ bond torsion, would inhibit decay via the conical intersection, resulting in low quantum yields for photoreaction. The results for 124 (anomalously low quantum yields for cis,transisomerization and no cyclobutene formation) are consistent with this idea.

The calculated geometry for the s-cis- conical intersection of 1,3-butadiene (48 in Figure 1.6.2) has a torsional angle of 52°-larger than that obtainable (with a reasonable expenditure of energy) from any of the three compounds studied (124, 125, and 131). If the theoretical model is correct, our results would suggest that is unnecessary for the system to achieve the full 52° angle in order for efficient photochemistry to occur. Theoretical calculations in fact make it clear that efficient passage to the ground state surface can take place anywhere near the conical intersection geometry 104, 186, 188. Our results suggest that this region extends as much as 20-25° away from the 52° angle.

The quantum yields for cyclobutene formation from 124, 125, and 131 (Table 4.3.1.2) are similar to those reported by Aue and Reynolds for the corresponding bis(methylene) analogs 109-112, shown in Scheme 4.1.1. The quantum yields for cyclobutene formation follow a much more consistent trend with torsional freedom than those revealed from the cis,trans- isomerization of the dienes 124, 125, and 131 (decreasing central bond torsional flexibility, and shortening of C₁-C₄ bond distance-125>131>124). While this is also consistent with the ramifications of the conical intersection mechanism, the reduction in ring closure quantum yields throughout the series is more likely to be the result of increasing C₁-C₄ bond distances, however (Table 4.4.1.1).

The effects of constraining the C_2 - C_3 torsional angle are also evident in the UV absorption spectra of 124, 125, and 131 (Figure 4.2.1). For E_1E_2 -124, 125, and 131, the absorption maximum is approximately constant at $\lambda_{max} = 250$ nm, indicating (in agreement with MMX) that the most stable ground state conformation is one in which a torsional angle of ca. 0° prevails. The increasing fine structure evident in the spectra of

131 and 124 compared to 125 are consistent with increased torsional rigidity since it has been suggested that the diffuseness observed in the absorption spectra of conjugated dienes²¹ is due primarily to strong nonadiabatic coupling and internal conversion from the ${}^{1}B_{u}$ state to the optically forbidden ${}^{2}I_{Ag}$ state. This mixing of states is caused by rapid torsional relaxation of C-C bonds after Franck-Condon excitation, as suggested by the work of Mathies and coworkers²¹⁻²⁴.

4.4.2 The Photochemical Ring Opening Reaction of Dimethyl-bicyclo[n.2.0]alk-1n+2-enes.

In the present study, the dienes produced by photochemical ring opening of cyclobutenes 128 through 13° (Scheme 4.3.2.1) are locked in an s-cis conformation which renders them suitable for testing the hypothesis of adiabaticity of the photochemical ring opening reaction. Predicted E,E-diene ratios were calculated from the quantum yields for diene photoisomerization according to Tables 4.3.1.1-2., and are collected in Table 4.4.2.1 along with the observed ratios from direct photolysis of 128-130. Comparison of the predicted and observed-diene ratios verifies the preliminary conclusion that the isomeric diene distributions obtained from photochemical ring opening of cyclobutene derivatives cannot be accounted for by the excited state behavior of the single diene isomer formed by disrotatory opening; at least for the trans- isomers in the series.

In Chapter III the relevance of orbital symmetry selection rules to the photochemical ring opening reaction of monocyclic alkylcyclobutenes was discussed. The results of spectroscopic studies on cyclobutene itself²⁷ provide a convincing indication that orbital

Symmetry plays a role in the ring opening reaction in the first 10 - 20 femtoseconds after Franck Condon excitation. The ring opening of the tricyclic cyclobutenes 10 and 11 (equations 1.4.1.7-8, Introduction 1.4.1) has been mentioned several times throughout this thesis as an example of how orbital symmetry factors can influence the quantum yields for the process, in spite of the fact that, overall, the reaction is nonstereospecific. Supporting evidence for these ideas was provided in Chapter III, from the results of a study of steric effects on the quantum yield for the reaction.

The role of C₃-C₄ (cyclobutene ring numbering) bond strength in controlling the quantum yield of cyclobutene ring opening was also discussed earlier, and the regiochemistry observed in the ring opening of cis- and trans- 128 provides further support for these conclusions. cis- And trans-128 undergo ring opening regiospecifically to yield the various geometric isomers according to Scheme 4.4.1. The fact that 134 is not formed in the photolyses of these compounds suggests that the efficiency of photochemical cyclobutene ring opening depends on the strength of the C₃-C₄ bond (in cyclobutene numbering)⁸³, 170.

Scheme 4.4.1. Regioselectivity observed in the photochemical ring opening of 128

Table 4.4.2.1. Calculated and observed diene ratios at 193 nm and 214 nm from photolyses of cyclobutenes 128, 129, 37, and 130.

cyclobutene	Calculated E.E/E.Z.†	Observed 1	E.E-/E.Z-
		193 nm	214 nm
cis-128	1.2 ± 0.4		1.7
cis-129	2.2 ± 0.4	2.5 ± 0.4	
cis-37	3.7 ± 0.4	3.4 ± 0.6	
cis-130	2.9 ± 0.4	9.1 ± 1.3	5.38
trans-128	0.2 ± 0.1		0.11
trans-129	0.71 ± 0.09	0.11 ± 0.02	
trans-37	0.38 ± 0.05	0.18 ± 0.03	
trans-130	0.19 ± 0.03	0.29 ± 0.04	0.48

[†]Calculated from the quantum yields for photoreaction of the corresponding E,E- and E,Z- dienes. (E,E-/E,Z-)-predicted = Φ EZ \rightarrow EE $/(1-\Phi$ EZ \rightarrow EE $-\Sigma\Phi$ i)

Direct irradiation of cis- and trans-128, 37, 129, 130 leads to ring opening to the isomeric dienes 124-127, with a high degree of disrotatory stereospecificity in each case (Table 4.4.2.1). The unusual behavior noted previously for cis and trans-37 (vide supra) is a general feature of the photochemistry of bicyclo[n.2.0]alk-1-enes. Furthermore, all the eight cyclobutenes undergo ring opening with quantum yields in the 0.45-0.65 range, a factor 2-3 times higher than those typically observed for monocyclic cyclobutenes. Ring strain clearly cannot account for the unique behavior of these compounds, since there is no

consistent variation in either quantum yield or stereospecificity throughout the series. The opposing trends observed in stereospecificity for the cis- and trans- cyclobutene isomers (Table 4.4.2.1) is rather intriguing, and may suggest that molecular symmetry plays a role in determining the course of the ring opening reaction. A comparison of the diene distributions reported for the photolysis of cis and trans- 1,3,4-trimethylcyclobutene with those from 95 and 96 also suggests that molecular symmetry may play some role in the reaction 46. Table 4.4.2.2 summarizes the data for these compounds; the distributions obtained from photolysis of the asymmetric compounds is weighted in favour of the orbital symmetry allowed isomers, in contrast to those obtained from the symmetric compounds 95 and 96. The nature of the role of molecular symmetry in controlling stereospecificity of cyclobutene ring opening is not clear. Dunken et al 189 suggested that high stereospecificity (in a concerted electrocyclic rearrangement) is mostly likely to be found when the lowest excited state of the reactant can correlate directly with the ground state of the product. Experiments to test the possible role of molecular symmetry are underway in our laboratory.

None of these compounds undergo formal [2+2]-cycloreversion to any discernible extent since this process would lead to the formation of the corresponding highly strained C4-C7 cycloalkyne.

The quantum yields for photochemical ring opening of bicyclic cyclobutenes such as those shown in equations 1.3.2.4-6 (Chapter I, Section 1.3.2)⁸³ are listed in Table 4.4.2.3⁶³. These data contrast with those from the cyclobutenes 128, 37, 129, 130 studied in this chapter (Table 4.3.2.1). Presumably, the increased efficiency in the ring opening process observed for the latter series of compounds is due to some structural feature present in these compounds, but absent in monocyclic cyclobutenes and the

compounds shown in Table 4.4.2.3. Since additional ring strain can be ruled out, the possibilities that remain are the rotational rigidity of the alkyl substituent on the C=C bond, and a lack of torsional mobility about the central (C=C) bond as ring opening commences.

<u>Table 4.4.2.2</u>. Allowed to forbidden diene ratios from photolyses of alkylcyclobutenes in hydrocarbon solutions.

	K	T	X	
193 nm	2.0	2.1	1.2†	1.1†
214 nm	2.1	2.1	0.7‡	1.2‡

[†] Reference⁴⁶

Table 4.4.2.3. Quantum yields for cyclobutene ring opening at 185 nm excitation wavelength

Cyclobutene	Allowed Isomer	Forbidden Isomer
	0.12 (18)	unstable at 25° C
\Box	0.12 (20)	0.40 (21)
	0.16 (24)	0.06 (25)

[‡] Chapter III of the present document.

The latter possibility relates directly to the conical intersection mechanism for cyclobutene/butadiene interconversions. Olivucci and coworkers 62 have proposed that the nonstereospecific ring opening of alkylsubstituted cyclobutenes can be rationalized according to a mechanism where the optically-excited cyclobutene evolves on the excited state potential energy surface up to a point where it enters the same low energy conical intersection region as that obtained from s-cis- butadiene. Since in cyclobutene, the two terminal CH2's are already twisted by 90° with respect to the carbon framework, it will be possible to enter the conical intersection region without changing the original orientation of the CH2 groups (or at most, by twisting only one of them). Thus the system can arrive at the conical intersection point along nonstereospecific pathways, and product formation will then be determined by the ground state part of the reaction pathway. The ground state part of the ring opening pathway will be dominated by the twisting motion of one or two almost independent CH2 groups. Thus, there is no reason why only one of the possible torsional motions would be strongly preferred during the distortion toward 1,3butadiene (Figure 4.4.1). In the present series of compounds, the torsional restrictions imposed on the cyclobutenes could force the systems to follow "restricted" pathways for ring opening on the excited state surface. It is possible that these pathways are directed along the orbital symmetry predicted disrotatory reaction coordinates.

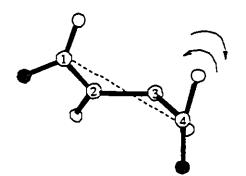


Figure 4.4.1. Structure of cyclobutene at the conical intersection

In the photochemical ring opening of 1,3-cyclohexadiene, Franck Condon excitation to the lB_u state is thought to be followed by a rapid crossing to the 2^lA_g surface (Chapter I, Figure 1.2.1). Recent ab-initio calculations for the 1,3cyclohexadiene ring opening reaction postulate that depopulation of the $2^I\!A_g$ state and subsequent formation of ground state cZc-1,3,5-hexatriene (all-cis- hexatriene) occurs through a $2A_g$ / $1A_g$ conical intersection point ¹⁹⁰. Olivucci and coworkers ^{192b} explained the experimental quantum yield for 1,3-cyclohexadiene ring opening (ϕ = 0.4494) as being consistent with the presence of a conical intersection point located at the top of two different ground state valleys, one leading to formation of cZc-1,3,5-hexarriene and the other to regeneration of original reactant. As expected from this model, the quantum yields for ring opening of 1,3-cyclohexadiene and ring closure of cZc-1,3,5hexatriene is close to unity³⁷, ⁹⁴. These authors implied that photoexcitation of both cyclohexadiene and cZc-1,3,5-hexatriene must generate the same excited cZc-1,3,5hexatriene intermediate. The involvement of a common intermediate in the direct cis, trans- photoisomerization of isomeric dienes has also been suggested 81. One example of this is given by the direct photoisomerization of cis, cis- or cis, trans-1,3-cyclooctadiene (Chapter 1.5.1), where the sum of the photoisomerization quantum yields ($\phi_{cc\rightarrow ct} \approx 0.28$ and $\phi_{\text{ct}\to\text{cc}} \approx 0.80$) is close to unity.

In Section 4.4.1, the involvement of torsional motions around the C₂-C₃ bond (1,3-butadiene numbering) in the *cis,trans*- photoisomerization process of a constrained scis diene (124) was established. In the present section it was suggested that the locked conformations of the diene products from photochemical ring opening of cyclobutenes 128, 129, 37, and 130 appears to also have an influence on the stereoselectivity of the ring opening reaction, presumably because the cyclobutenyl C=C bond (which constitutes the C₂-C₃ of the diene product) is impeded from torsional motions as ring opening proceeds.

These ideas suggest that ring opening may proceed through an "intermediate" geometry that is common to that involved in the *cis,trans*-photoisomerization of the corresponding isomeric dienes. If this is the case, the sum of the quantum yields for *cis,trans*-isomerization of *E,E*- and *E,Z*- 124 and ring opening of 128 might be expected to be near unity. In fact, the sum exceeds unity by a small amount in most cases.

4.5 Summary and Conclusions.

The results from the photoisomerization of compounds 124 cannot be accommodated by the Oosterhoff model for *cis,trans*- photoisomerization, but are more compatible with a model in which the process involves torsion about all three C-C bonds of the diene- the conical intersection mechanism for diene isomerization. Photochemical ring opening of the bicyclic cyclobutenes 128, 129, 37, and 130 occurs with a high degree of disrotatory stereoselectivity, and strongly suggests that orbital symmetry selection rules are important in this reaction. The present study shows the effect of constraining the C-C central bond in 1,3-dienes on the *cis,trans*- photoisomerization process, and suggests that motions around C=C bond are involved in cyclobutene photochemical ring opening.

Figure 4.5 represents a 3-D surface diagram where the reaction coordinates are motions around the terminal and central C-C bonds in the butadiene \leftrightarrow cyclobutene system. In this diagram, torsions about the central C=C bond link cyclobutene to [1.1.0] bicyclobutane and s-cis- butadiene the s-trans conformer. It is implicit in this diagram that cis, trans- isomerization of s-cis- dienes occurs through a conical intersection

region located inside the cube, whereas cyclobutene ring opening can either proceed through the same conical intersection or through an avoided crossing (front face of the cube), depending upon the C=C bond motions available to the cyclobutene. Thus, cyclobutenes in which the C=C bond is free from torsional constraints, will reach a transition point on the excited state potential energy surface from where immediate funneling to the ground state surface occurs through the so called "conical intersection". After proceeding through the conical intersection, branching to the various photoproducts occurs on the ground state surface. This model can explain the formation of more than one diene isomer from ring opening of simple alkylsubstituted cyclobutenes and therefore the nonstereospecificity of the reaction.

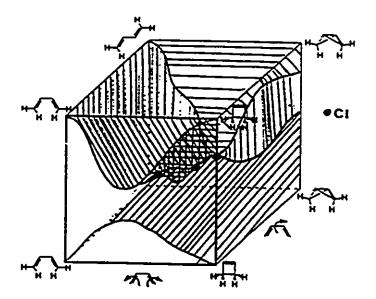


Figure 4.5. Conjectural surface diagram for cyclobutere ↔ butadiene interconversion. The spheres inside the cube represent conical intersections

It is then imperative to reconcile the observations that the photochemical ring opening of cyclobutenes appears in general to proceed nonstereospecifically, and the high degree of *stereoselectivity* and high quantum yields encountered for the ring opening reactions of *cis*- and *trans*- dimethylbicyclo[n.2.0]alk-1-enes.

For the cyclobutene \leftrightarrow butadiene system, this theory explains the stereospecificity of the ring closure reaction of 1,3-butadiene to cyclobutene (vide infra) as involving C₁-C₄ bond formation, and therefore, the terminal CH₂ carbons are prevented from losing their disrotatory relative orientations during the process. In contrast, the ring opening reaction involves double bend formation between C₁-C₂ and C₃-C₄ carbons, and can occur by either rotating the CH₂ clockwise or counterclockwise, since according to this model, this CH₂ is almost 90 degrees twisted. The structure of the decay point (at the conical intersection) is given in Figure 4.4.1.

If cyclobutene ring opening indeed follows the mechanism described, then it would be further expected that cyclobutenes with restricted central bond torsional mobility will adopt restricted pathways along their evolution on the $1B_2$ and $2A_1$ potential energy surfaces that could lead to some degree of orbital symmetry control. The results exposed in Section 4.3.2 show that for cyclobutenes 128-130 and 37, the photochemical ring opening reaction proceeds with high degree of stereoselectivity.

According to the general view of this model, both cyclobutene formation and cis, trans photoisomerization are processes that are intimately related (vide supra); and both could involve a common intermediate. Consequently, these two processes should be connected along the multidimensional potential energy surfaces. It is therefore not surprising that motions that relate cyclobutene ring opening to butadiene ring closure potential energy surfaces also affect the cis, trans isomerization process and vice versa

(Figure 4.5). The results from the cis, trans photoisomerization of the s-cis constrained dienes studied in Section 4.3.1, also support the notion of common intermediates in the isomerization processes. Thus, the severely constrained diene 124 shows reduced quantum yields of cis, trans isomerization due to its high degree of planarity around the central C-C single bond (1,3-butadiene numbering). This planar structure, as compared to the higher homologs of the series, impedes the molecule from reaching the same low energy conical intersection that is accessible for the higher homologs by rotation around the C-C central bond.

On the other hand, constraining the same central bond (which constitutes the C=C bond in cyclobutene) causes an enhanced reactivity for cyclobutene ring opening, and an increase in the stereoselectivity of the photoreaction perhaps due to forcing the molecule to follow the avoided crossing pathway for ring opening (the front face of the cube in Figure 4.5).

The series of alkylsubstituted monocyclic cyclobutenes studied in Chapter III also supports the idea that the potential energy surfaces traversed during the ring opening reactions are dominated by orbital symmetry factors; that is, disrotatory motions are preserved along the excited state coordinates. This is suggested by the diminution in the quantum yields for ring opening upon increasing the methyl substitution in the ring. These results are consistent with those found by Mathies and coworkers on cyclobutene ring opening.

CHAPTER V

OVERVIEW

5.1 A New Mechanism for the Photochemical Isomerization of Cyclobutene and 1,3-Butadiene

Three main aspects concerned with the photochemical ring opening of cyclobutenes have been studied in the present document. These are the energetic requirements of the process (1-phenylcyclobutene derivatives; Chapter II); the effects of constraining the C=C bond on the stereoselectivity and efficiency of the reaction (dimethylbicyclo[n.2.0]alk-1ⁿ⁺²-enes; Chapter IV); and the influence of steric factors upon syn-dimethyl substitution in the ring opening reaction (alkylsubstituted monocyclic cyclobutenes; Chapter III).

It was found that a certain threshold excited state energy is required for the photochemical ring opening reaction to take place. Thus, 1-phenylcyclobutenes do not undergo ring opening due to their low singlet state energy, as compared to alkylsubstituted analogs.

The application of the Woodward and Hoffmann rules to the photochemical ring opening of alkylsubstituted cyclobutenes has proven to be not all successful⁴³, ⁷⁴. There are many examples in the literature that illustrate the general nonstereospecificity

associated with the photochemical ring opening of alkylsubstituted cyclobutenes. The theoretical model developed by Van-der-Lugt and Oosterhoff in the early 1970's cannot accommodate these results.

This thesis has been concerned with the development of a new qualitative model to explain the photochemistry of cyclobutene and 1,3-butadiene, in which the internal conversion processes (passage from the excited state to the ground state potential energy surfaces) occur at conical intersections rather than at an avoided surface crossing.

5.2 Contributions of the Studies and Future Work

Many of the important contributions this work has provided to those involved in the studies of the theoretical and photochemical aspects of the cyclobutene ↔ 1,3-butadiene interconversion have been summarized at the end of each chapter. This chapter integrates in more general terms the conclusions that can be drawn from the present work with regards to the above reaction and the cis,trans photoisomerization processes of substituted 1,3-dienes. It is expected that the knowledge gained in this study will have important ramifications to researchers in the field.

5.2.1 Phenylcyclobutenes

Our studies have offered a detailed understanding of the photochemistry and photophysics of 1-phenylcyclobutene derivatives. The inability of these compounds to undergo ring opening reactions has been found to be related to energetic considerations

rather than polarizability of their excited states. Thus the major distinctive feature of phenylated cyclobutenes with respect to their alkylsubstituted analogues resides in their lower singlet excited state energies that preclude their photochemical ring opening reactions.

Results of the photolyses of 1-phenylcyclobutenes in aprotic solvents have illustrated the extent to which the polarizability of the σ carbon-framework in the cyclobutene ring affects the cycloreversion process. As was pointed out in Chapter II, asymmetrically substituted cyclobutenes are predicted by theory to exhibit polarized excited states. The first series of examples that confirms these predictions has been provided by our 1-phenylsubstituted series (where the diagonals of the cyclobutene ring are not identically substituted). It would be worthwhile to test the extent of the validity of these calculations by studying the photochemistry of a series 1,4-diphenylcyclobutene derivatives with substitution in the phenyl ring, where the diagonals of the cyclobutene ring are "symmetrically" substituted. These compounds are predicted, at a high level of theory, to be deprived of polarized character in the excited state, and hence, substitution in the aryl ring should not have an influence on their photochemistry in aprotic solvents.

The 1-phenylcyclobutenes have proven to be very versatile substrates in reactions such as photoaddition of alcohols. The basicity of their excited states in hydroxylic solvents is enhanced with respect to the corresponding styrene derivatives. It may be possible to construct an excited state substituent constant scale based on the photohydration or alcohol photoaddition to this compounds. This scale can include electron withdrawing substituents such as 3-CF₃, 4-CF₃O, and 4-CF₃. Also, a more thorough comparison between the 1-phenylcyclobutenes and their styrenic analogs is necessary in order to understand the distinctive nature of the former.

Particular attention will have to be focused on the detection of short-lived ionic intermediates from photolyses of phenylated cyclobutenes in hydroxylic solvents. These cationic intermediates, which are often eclipsed by the presence of high intense triplets, are suspected to have lifetimes of a few hundred nanoseconds. Their detection requires the use of nonnucleophilic solvents and constant flow systems. The present study tentatively assigns the p-tolyl-cyclobutyl cation to a transient spectrum with $\lambda_{max} = 337$ nm, but further confirmation of this assignment is necessary. In particular, the determination of rate constants for the quenching of the cation generated in hydroxylic-nonnucleophilic solvents will unambiguously confirm the assignments. Work on this area is in progress in our laboratory.

5.2.2 Cyclobutene ↔ Butadiene Photointerconversion.

The contribution of the work accomplished in Chapter IV (photochemistry of dimethylbicyclo[n.2.0]alk- 1^{n+2} -enes) has direct relevance on orbital-symmetry conservation arguments for cyclobutene \leftrightarrow 1,3-butadiene interconversions. The high degree of stereospecificity observed in the ring opening of these compounds is not related to ring strain factors induced by the presence of the ancillary ring, but rather to the decreased flexibility in the isomeric 1,3-diene products or the rotational flexibility of the substituents on the cyclobutene double bond. This series of cyclobutenes presents the first systematic study which interrelates aspects such as structural modifications and stereospecificity.

The increased disrotatory preference with increased ancillary ring size observed in the ring opening of the cis- series of cyclobutenes and decreased disrotatory preference with increased ancillary ring size observed for the *trans*- series of cyclobutenes (Table 4.3.1) is as intriguing an aspect of the photochemistry of these compounds as it is puzzling. This effect may be related to the intervention of states of different symmetry in the photochemistry of the *cis*- or *trans*- series of cyclobutenes. Future work in the area will include the photochemistry of asymmetric cyclobutenes, such as *cis*- and *trans*- 134.

The study of the cis,trans photoisomerization of constrained s-cis dienes (Chapter IV) has contributed to a more incisive understanding of this fundamental process in organic photochemistry. Laser Raman Spectroscopy and Laser Raman Intensity measurements carried out by Mathies and coworkers²⁴ demonstrate that the allylmethylene mechanism (Chapter 1.6) cannot account for the cis.trans photoisomerization process. The results presented in Chapter IV are also incompatible with the above mechanism, but are in accord with recent theoretical calculations. Indeed, the lower quantum yield of isomerization of 124 represents the first experimental example of low efficiency in the photoisomerization process of a substituted 1,3-butadiene.

Further work in this area shall include the study of dienes with C-C central bond (in 1,3-butadiene numbering) in a more rigid s-cis conformation than 124. These dienes are 135 and 136. Work on the syntheses of these compounds is also under way in our laboratory.



It is also worthwhile inspecting the photochemistry of a series of s-trans- dienes, in order to determine the effect of constraining the central bond on the cis, trans-photoisomerization quantum yield.

n = 1, 2, 3, and 4

CHAPTER VI

EXPERIMENTAL

6.1. 1-PHENYLCYLOBUTENES

6.1.1 General

¹H NMR spectra were recorded on Bruker AM300 (300 MHz) or AM500 (500 MHz) spectrometers in deuteriochloroform (carbon tetrachloride, or dichloromethaned2 where noted) and ¹³C NMR spectra were recorded at 125.6 MHz on the Bruker AM500; all are reported in parts per million downfield from tetramethylsilane. ¹⁹F NMR spectra were recorded at 282.23 MHz on the Bruker AC300; they are reported in parts per million relative to tetramethylsilane and trichlorofluoromethane, respectively.

Mass spectra were recorded on a VGH ZAB-E mass spectrometer, and employed a mass of 12.000 000 for carbon. GC/MS analyses were performed using a Hewlett-Packard 5890 gas chromatograph equipped with a HP-5971A mass selective detector and a DB-1 microbore capillary column (12 m X 0.2 mm; Chromatographic Specialties, Inc.) or a DB-5 microbore capillary column (30 m X 0.2 mm; Chromatographic Specialties, Inc.).

Condensed phase infrared spectra were recorded on a Bio-Rad FT-40 FT infrared spectrometer as neat samples or in carbon tetrachloride solutions where noted. GC/FTIR analyses were carried out using a Hewlett-Packard 5890 gas chromatograph equipped with a DB-17 megabore capillary column (30 m X 0.53 mm;

Chromatographic Specialties) and a Bio-Rad GC/C 32 interface attached to the Bio-Rad FTS-40 FT infrared spectrometer.

Ultraviolet absorption spectra were recorded using a Perkin-Elmer Lambda 9 spectrometer interfaced with an IBM PC PS/2. The spectrometer sample compartment was continuously flushed with nitrogen. Spectra were recorded in 1-cm Suprasil UV cells (Hellma). The sample and reference were deoxygenated with argon prior to recording the spectrum.

Fluorescence emission and excitation spectra were recorded on a Perkin Elmer LS-5 spectrofluorometer, which is also interfaced to the IBM PS/2-286 and controlled by software supplied by the manufacturer or on a PTI-LS 100 spectrofluorometer equipped with both steady state and time resolved capabilities. Phosphorescence spectra were recorded on a PTI-LS 100 spectrofluorometer.

Time Resolved Single Photon Counting measurements were carried out on the PTI-LS 100 spectrofluorometer equipped with a H₂ plasma gas and the software supplied by the manufacturer.

Gas chromatographic analyses were carried out using a Hewlett-Packard 5890 gas chromatograph equipped with a flame ionization detector, a Hewlett-Packard 3396 integrator, and a HP-1 megabore capillary column (12 m x 0.53 mm; Hewlett-Packard, Inc.), a DB-1 megabore capillary column (30 m x 0.53 mm, Chromatography Specialties) or a megabore SPB-1 glass column (Supelco, 30 m x 0.53 mm ID). Semipreparative vpc separations employed a Varian 3300 gas chromatograph equipped with 6' x 0.25 in. stainless steel columns consisting of (a) 5% OV-101 on Supelport or (b) 10% QF-1 on 80/100 Chromosorb (Supelco, Inc.).

6.1.2 Commercial Solvents and Reagents Used

n-Pentane (Baker Photorex), cyclohexane (BDH Omnisolv), methanol (Caledon, HPLC grade), and barium oxide (Mallinckrodt) were used as received from the suppliers. Acetonitrile (Omnisolv) was dried over calcium hydride and distilled under dry nitrogen. Benzene (Baker Analyzed) was purified by several extractions with concentrated sulfuric acid, followed by distillation through a Vigreux column. Tetrahydrofuran (Baker Analyzed) was refluxed over sodium/benzophenone and distilled immediately prior to use. Dimethylsulfoxide (Caledon) was dried over potassium hydroxide and distilled under reduced pressure. p-Toluenesulfonic acid monohydrate was used as received from Matheson. Deuterium oxide was from MSD isotopes (Merck division) and used as received. Bromobenzene, 4-bromotoluene, 4-bromo-anisole, 4-bromobenzotrifluoride, 4-trifluoromethoxybromobenzene,-bromobenzotrifluoride, tetrakis(triphenylphosphine)palladium(0), cyclobutanone, iodomethane, n-butyl lithium, and n-decane were all used as received from Aldrich Chemical Co.

6.1.3 Preparation and Identification of Compounds.

The cyclobutenes 65-70 were prepared by acid-catalyzed dehydration of the corresponding 1-arylcyclobutanol¹⁹³, which was prepared by addition of the appropriate aryllithium to cyclobutanone in anhydrous diethylether at -78°C. The aryllithium reagents were prepared as solutions in ether from the corresponding bromoarene by lithium exchange using n-butyllithium. A typical procedure is described below for the preparation of 1-(4-trifluoromethylphenyl)cyclobutene (68).

1-(4-trifluoromethylphenyl)cyclobutene (68). In an oven-dried 50 mL 2neck round bottom flask equipped with a dropping funnel, magnetic stirrer, rubber septum, and mitrogen inlet were placed 4-bromobenzotrifluoride (3.43 g, 0.015 mol) and anhydrous ether (10 mL). The flask was cooled under an atmosphere of dry nitrogen to -78°C with a dry ice / acetone bath, and a 1.6 mol dm⁻³ hexane solution of nbutyllithium (9.5 mL, 0.015 mol) was added dropwise over one hour. The bath and contents of the flask were then allowed to warm to 0°C over ca. one hour. The temperature of the resulting yellow solution was again lowered to -78°C, and a solution of cyclobutanone (0.47 g, 0.0067 mol) in anhydrous ethyl ether (10 mL) was added dropwise over one hour. The resulting yellow solution was then allowed to warm to room temperature over a further one hour. The dark red mixture which resulted was quenched by slow addition of water (20 mL) and then extracted with ether (3 X 10 mL). The combined ether extracts were dried over anhydrous sodium sulfate and filtered. Evaporation of the solvent on a rotary evaporator yielded an orange liquid (1.23 g), which was distilled under vacuum. The major fraction (0.75 g, 0.0035 mol, 70%; b.p. = 87°C (0.3)torr). m.p.: 52-54°C) identified was as 1-(4trifluoromethylphenyl)cyclobutanol 194 (74), on the basis of the following spectral data:

¹H NMR: δ = 1.55 (br s, 1 H), 1.76 (cplx. m, 1 H), 2.08 (b s, 1 H), 2.36 (cplx. m, 2 H), 2.54 (cplx. m, 2 H), 7.62 (s, 4 H). ¹³C NMR: δ = 12.96, 37.18, 79.60, 125.51, 125.42, 125.36, 125.27, 126.88, 129.0 (q), 156.39. ¹⁹F NMR: δ = -62.67. IR: 3632 (w), 2996 (m), 1328 (s), 1286 (w), 1232 (w), 1172 (m), 1149 (s), 1076 (m), 1017 (w), 846 (w). MS, *m/e* (I) = 216 (2), 215 (3), 197 (17), 188 (98), 173 (100), 151 (35), 147 (42), 145 (96), 125

(33), 91 (75), 69 (33). Exact mass: calc. for $C_{11}H_{11}F_3O$, 216.076200; found, 216.0750000.

Significantly higher isolated yields of the cyclobutanols can be obtained using column chromatography (neutral alumina, hexane/ether mixtures) to purify the crude reaction mixtures in the above step.

A solution of 74 (0.50 g, 0.0023 mol) and a few crystals of p-toluenesulfonic acid in dry benzene (25 mL) was stirred under mild reflux for six hours, in a 50 mL round bottom flask equipped with a glass tube which contained a small thimble filled with granulated calcium chloride and was topped with a reflux condenser. The resulting light brown solution was cooled to room temperature, water (25 mL) was added, and the mixture was extracted with pentane (3 X 10 mL). The combined extracts were washed with saturated aqueous sodium bicarbonate, dried over anhydrous magnesium sulfate, and the solvent was evaporated to yield a light yellow liquid (0.40 g). The product was isolated as a colorless liquid (0.20 g, 0.001 mol, 43%; b.p. (1 torr) = 77°C, m.p.: 20°C) by vacuum distillation. Better yields can be obtained by purification of the crude product by column chromatography (neutral alumina; 10% ether in hexane). The product was further purified by semi-preparative gas chromatography (vpc) using column (e), and identified as 1-(4-trifluoromethylphenyl)cyclobutene (68) on the basis of the following data:

¹H NMR: δ = 2.40 (m, 2 H), 2.65 (t, 2 H, J = 4Hz), 6.25 (br s, 1 H), 7.25 (d, 2 H, J = 8.2 Hz), 7.39 (d, 2 H, J = 8.2 Hz). ¹³C NMR: δ = 26.44, 28.65, 124.32, 125.15, 130.27, 137.89, 145.14, 129 (q, CF₃). ¹⁹F NMR: δ = -62.70. IR: 3056 (w),

2962 (m), 2935 (m), 2852 (m), 1330 (s), 1176 (m), 1149 (s), 1073 (s), 1043 (w), 1019 (w), 900 (w), 846 (m), 765 (w). MS: m/e (I) = 198 (15), 179 (21), 177 (22), 151 (28), 145 (21), 129 (100), 128 (50), 120 (15), 75 (27), 63 (20), 51 (16). Exact mass: Calcd. for C₁₁H₉F₃, 198.0656; Found, 198.0688. UV (MeCN): $\lambda_{\text{max}} = 260 \text{ nm}$ (ϵ 14800 M⁻¹cm⁻¹). M.P.: 22° C.

Cyclobutenes 65-67, 69-70 were prepared in similar fashion to 68, except that the initial lithium exchange in the cyclobutanol synthesis required less or more vigorous conditions depending on substituent. The yields of the intermediate 1-arylcyclobutanols ranged from 50-90% after chromatography, and those of the cyclobutenes from 70-90% after isolation by alumina column chromatography. The latter were all subjected to additional purification (>99% by GC) by semi-preparative gas chromatography. Spectral and analytical data for the remaining 1-arylcyclobutanols- and 1-arylcyclobutenes in the series are listed below.

I-(4-methoxyphenyl)cyclobutanol (71). ¹H NMR: $\delta = 1.66$ (cplx. m, 1 H), 1.98 (cplx. m, 1 H), 2.36 (m, 2 H), 2.55 (m, 2 H), 3.78 (s 3 H), 7.42 (q, 2 H), 7.77 (q, 2 H). IR: 3576 (m), 2966 (s), 2941 (s), 2883 (m), 1610 (m), 1513 (s), 1472 (m), 1298 (m), 1253 (s), 1224 (m), 1175 (m). MS: m/e (I) = 178 (27), 177 (38), 147 (31), 135 (100), 121 (11), 105 (7), 91 (9), 65 (7).

1-(4-methoxyphenyl)cyclobutene (65). ¹H NMR: δ = 2.50 (m, 2 H), 2.77 (t, 2 H), 3.81 (s, 3 H), 6.13 (t, 1 H), 6.84 (dd, 2 H, J =

2.2 Hz, J = 6.8 Hz), 7.26 (dd, 2 H, J = 2.2 Hz, J = 6.9 Hz). 13 C NMR: δ = 26.02, 55.29, 113.74, 124,57, 125.55. IR: 3009 (w), 2956 (m), 2932 (m), 2851 (m), 1605 (m), 1424 (w), 1300 (m), 1258 (s), 1174 (m), 1056 (w), 1038 (w), 835 (m), 760 (w). MS: m/e (I) = 160 (65), 159 (31), 145 (27), 129 (42), 117 (91), 115 (100), 102 (21), 91 (42), 89 (64), 77 (11), 51 (15). Exact mass: Calcd. for $C_{11}H_{12}O$, 160.0888; Found: 160.0904. UV (pentane): λ_{max} = 261 nm (ϵ 17900 M⁻¹cm⁻¹).

1-(4-methylphenyl)cyclobutanol (72)¹⁹⁴. ¹H NMR: δ = 1.66 (cplx. m, 2 H), 1.98 (br s, 2 H), 2.37 (s, 3 H), 2.37 (b s, 2 H), 2.54 (b s, 2 H), 7.17 (d, 0.7 Hz, 2 H), 7.37 (d, 0.7 Hz, 2 H). ¹³C. NMR: δ = 12.93, 21.02, 36.80, 109.22, 124.92, 129.09, 136.90, 143.29. IR: 3634 (m), 3032 (m), 2994 (s), 2958 (s), 2883 (m), 1621 (w), 1517 (m), 1342 (m), 1243 (m), 1136 (m), 1055 (m), 1021 (m), 818 (m), 720 (m). MS: m/e (I) = 162 (2), 147 (26), 134 (71), 119 (100), 92 (37), 91 (63), 77 (10), 65 (16). Exact mass: calc. for C₁₁H₁₄O, 162.1044651; found, 162.1037000.

1-(4-methylphenyl)cyclobutene (66). ¹H NMR: δ = 2.27 (s, 3 H), 2.46 (br t, 2 H), 2.72 (t, 2 H, J = 3.3 Hz), 6.15 (br s, 1 H), 7.05 (d, 2 H), 7.18 (d, 2 H). ¹³C NMR: δ = 21.30, 26.15, 28.75, 102.86, 124.12, 125.96, 128.95, 137.14. IR: 3057 (m), 3030 (m), 2957 (s), 2932 (s), 2883 (m), 2853 (m), 1510 (m), 1317 (w), 1291 (w), 1241 (w) , 1183 (w), 1117 (w), 899 (w),

822 (m), 754 (m). MS: m/e (I) = 144 (24), 129 (100), 128 (59), 115 (90), 90 (9), 89 (11), 63 (18), 51 (12). Exact mass: Calcdfor $C_{11}H_{12}$, 144.0939; Found, 144.0930. UV (MeCN): λ_{max} = 258 nm (ϵ 15500 M⁻¹ cm⁻¹).

*1-phenylcyclobutanol*¹⁹³ (73). ¹H NMR: δ = 1.68 (cplx. m , 1 H), 2.01 (cplx. m, 1 H), 2.36 (cplx. m, 2 H), 2.56 (cplx. m, 2 H), 7.27 (m, 1 H), 7.36 (m. 2 H), 7.49 (m, 2 H). ¹³C NMR: δ = 12.99, 36.83, 124.93, 127.24, 128.44. IR: 3633 (m), 3073 (m), 3041 (m), 2995 (s), 2960 (s), 1448 (m), 1342 (m), 1242 (m), 1177 (w), 1139 (m), 1026 (m), 899 (m), 761 (m). MS: *mle* (I) = 148 (8), 147 (7), 130 (12), 120 (58), 115 (18), 105 (100), 102 (15), 91 (63), 78 (89), 77 (99), 74 (21), 63 (16), 51 (48). m.p. = 40-41° C

1-phenylcyclobutene¹⁹³, 195, 196 (67): ¹H NMR: δ = 2.51 (m, 2 H), 2.79 (t, 2 H), 6.27 (t, 1 H), 7.31 (m, 5 H). ¹³C NMR⁴⁷⁷: δ = 26.18, 28.72, 124.16, 127.13, 127.36, 128.07, 128.28, 128.64, 135.04, 146.40. IR: 3069 (m), 3041 (m), 2958 (s), 2933 (s), 2888 (w), 2852 (m), 1580 (w), 1491 (w), 1449 (w), 1244 (w), 1070 (w), 901 (w), 850 (w), 729 (s).

1-(4-trifluoromethoxyphenyl)cyclobutanol (75). ¹H NMR: $\delta = 1.18$ (cplx m, 1 H), 1.63 (br s, 1 H), 1.97 (cplx m, 2 H), 2.11

(cpix m., 2 H), 6.82 (m, 2 H), 7.13 (m, 2 H). 13 C NMR: $\delta = 12.88$, 37.06, 76.56, 120.6 (q), 120.83, 127.08, 134.71, 144.92. 19 F NMR: $\delta = -94.59$. IR: 3630 (w), 2996 (m), 2965 (w), 1513 (m), 1273 (s), 1229 (m), 1186 (m), 1142 (w), 1020 (m), 851 (w). MS: m/e (I) = 232 (1), 231 (1), 204 (74), 189 (100), 175 (7), 162 (23), 147 (15), 95 (22), 69 (15). Exact mass: calc. for $C_{11}H_{11}F_{3}O_{2}$, 232.071114437; found, 232.0695000.

1-(4-trifluoromethoxyphenyl)cyclobutene (69). 1 H NMR: δ = 2.52 (br d, 2 H), 2.79 (t, 2 H), 6.35 (br s, 1 H), 7.25 (br q, 4 H). 13 C NMR: δ = 25.37, 34.94, 118.50, 127.38, 129.56, 130.43, 134.75, 147.80. 19 F NMR: δ = -59.08. iR: 3036 (w), 2968 (m), 2911 (w), 1794 (m), 1597 (m), 1502 (m), 1274 (s), 1226 9s), 1187 (s), 1112 (m), 1023 (w), 901 (m), 836 (m), 790 (m). MS: m/e (I) = 214 (50), 199 (11), 186 (23), 175 (4), 145 (7), 130 (14), 129 (100), 128 (36), 127 (38), 117 (21), 115 (29), 102 (7), 89 (21), 69 (21), 63 (14), 51 (7). Exact mass: Calcd. for $C_{11}H_{9}F_{3}O$, 214.0605; Found, 214.0593. UV (pentane): λ_{max} = 255 nm (ε 17400 M⁻¹cm⁻¹).

1-(3-trifluoromethylphenyl)cyclobutanol (76). ¹H NMR: δ = 1.55 (br s, 1 H), 1.73 (cplx m, 1 H), 2.04 (cplx m, 1 H), 2.34 (cplx m, 2 H), 2.48 (cplx m, 2 H), 7.61 (m, 4 H). ¹³C NMR: δ =12.98, 37.15, 76.73, 121.81, 123.98, 124.06, 128.37, 128.92, 130.0 (q), 147.32. ¹⁹F NMR: δ = - 62.71. IR: 3633 (w), 3080

(w), 2996 (m), 2956 (m), 2889 (w), 1441 (w), 1330 (s), 1272 (m), 1178 (s), 1147 (s), 1077 (m), 1019 (w), 902 (w), 838 (w), 804 (w), 703 (m). MS: m/e (I) = 216 (2), 215 (1), 197 (13), 188 (94), 173 (100), 159 (6), 145 (56), 127 (7), 91 (19), 75 (6). Exact mass: calc. for $C_{11}H_{11}F_3O$, 216.0762000; found, 216.0750000.

I-(3-trifluoromethylphenyl)cyclobutene (70). ¹H NMR: δ = 2.54 (m, 2 H), 2.81 (t, 2 H, J = 4.0 Hz), 6.38 (t, 1 H, J = 1.2 Hz), 7.43 (m, 4 H). ¹³C NMR: δ = 26.38, 28.72, 120.93, 123.89, 127.34, 128.74, 129.36, 146.20. ¹⁹F NMR: δ = -63.01. IR: 2955 (m), 2816 (m), 1601 (w), 1444 (m), 1348 (m), 1327 (s), 1282 (m), 1256 (m), 1181 (s), 1151 (s), 1076 (m), 981 (w), 891 (w), 799 (m). MS: m/e (I) = 198 (23), 179 (11), 177 (46), 151 (40), 129 (100), 128 (40), 120 (9), 75 (9), 63 (4), 51 (5). Exact mass: Calcd. for C₁₁H₉F₃, 198.0656; found 198.0649. UV (MeCN): λ max = 254 nm (ε 15100 M⁻¹cm⁻¹).

Compounds 65-70 were found to be unstable at room temperature and when kept as highly concentrated solutions. Thus, samples of 65-70 were kept in pentane solutions, at -12° C, in the presence of radical scavengers such as hydroquinone. The stabilizer was readily removed from the samples by bulb-to-bulb distilling the cyclobutene.

The 1-aryl-1-methoxycyclobutanes 83-88 were prepared by stirring mixtures of the corresponding 1-arylcyclobutanol (0.0009 moles), barium oxide (0.005 mol), iodomethane (0.002 mol), and dry dimethylsulfoxide (10 mL) for 24 hours at room temperature. After addition of 5% aqueous hydrochloric acid, extraction with ether, drying and evaporation of the ether extracts, and finally alumina column chromatography (20% ether in hexane), the compounds were isolated in 70-90% yields as colorless oils. They were identified on the basis of their NMR, IR, and mass spectral data, which are listed below.

1-methoxy-1-(4-methoxyphenyl)cyclobutane (83). 1 H NMR: $\delta = 1.80$ (cplx m, 1H), 1.99 (cplx m, 1 H), 2.46 (cplx m, 2 H), 2.55 (cplx m, 2 H), 2.85 (s, 3 H), 3.76 (s, 3 H), 6.89 (d, 2 H), 7.32 (d, 2 H). IR: 2995 (m), 2953 (m), 1652 (m), 1616 (m), 1558 (m), 1517 (m), 1510 (s), 1305 (m), 1252 (s), 1178 (m), 1135 (m), 1047 (w), 972 (w), 833 (m), 777 (w). MS: m/e (I) = 192 (4), 191 (4), 177 (2), 164 (42), 163 (100), 149 (8), 133 (42), 121 (12), 119 (42), 105 (8), 91 (25), 77 (17), 63 (9). Exact mass: Calcd. for C₁₂H₁₆O₂, 192.1150; found 192.1127000.

1-methoxy-1-(4-methylphenyl)cyclobutane (84). ¹H NMR: δ = 1.68 cpix m, 1 H), 1.97 (cpix m, 1 H), 2.36 (s, 3 H), 2.36 (m, 4 H), 2.92 (s, 3 H), 7.15 (d, 2 H, J = 7.9 Hz), 7.28 (d, 2 H, J = 8.0 Hz). ¹³C NMR: δ = 12.99, 21.06, 32.88, 50.34, 81.34, 126.29, 128.92, 136.78, 140.10. IR: 3031 (m), 2995 (s), 2950 (s), 2885 (m), 2830 (m), 1621 (w), 1516 (m), 1296 (m), 1249 (m), 1137

(s), 1090 (m), 1056 (m), 815 (m), 786 (w). MS: m/e (I) = 176 (2), 175 (2), 162 (5), 161 (36), 148 (22), 147 (39), 133 (100), 117 (55), 115 (28), 105 (22), 91 (33), 77 (11), 65 (17), 51 (5). Exact mass: calc. for $C_{12}H_{16}O$, 176.120115; found, 176.1190000.

I-methoxy-I-phenylcyclobutane (85). ¹H NMR: δ = 1.58 (cplx m, 1 H), 1.87 (cplx m, 1 H), 2.32 (cplx m, 4 H), 2.86 (s, 3 H), 7.30 (m, 5 H). ¹³C NMR: δ = 13.01, 32.80, 50.47, 126.28, 127.14, 128.24. IR: 3071 (m), 3037 (m), 2884 (s), 2952 (s), 2914 (m), 2831 (m), 1449 (m), 1289 (m), 1248 (m), 1136 (s), 1090 (m), 1046 (m), 759 (m). MS: *m/e* (I) = 161 (3), 134 (37), 133 (100), 115 (6), 104 (31), 91 (34), 77 (35). MS/CI (NH₃): *m/e* (I) = 131 (100), 148 (50), 162 (4), 180 (5). MS/CI (CH₄): *m/e* (I) = 61 (9), 79 (28), 85 (34), 131 (100), 163 (11). HRMS (M^{+o}-1): calc. for C₁₁H₁₃O, 161.096640; Found, 161.0944000.

1-methoxy-1-(4-trifluoromethylphenyl)cyclobutane (86). ¹H NMR: δ = 1.67 (m, 1 H), 1.96 (m, 1 H), 2.36 (d, 2 H), 2.39 (d sextet, 2H), 2.92 (s, 3 H), 7.57 (q, 4 H, J = 8.4 Hz). ¹³C NMR: δ = 12.90, 32.80, 50.67, 81.26, 125.28, 125.36, 125.42, 126.55, CF₃ not observed. ¹⁹F NMR: δ = - 62.67. IR: 2997 (m), 2951 (m), 2834 (w), 1620 (w), 1408 (w), 1323 (s), 1300 (w), 1173 (s), 1147 (s), 1087 (m), 1072 (m), 1018 (m), 842 (s). MS: *m/e* (I) = 230 (1), 229 (2), 202 (27), 210 (61), 182 (11), 172 (27), 161

(28), 151 (25), 145 (42), 133 (100), 103 (22), 75 (8). Exact mass: calc. for C₁₂H₁₃F₃O, 230.091850; found, 230.0900000.

1-methoxy-1-(4-trifluoromethoxyphenyl)cyclobutane (87). 1 H NMR: $\delta = 1.65$ (m, 1 H), 1.98 (m, 1 H), 2.40 (d, 2 H), 2.42 (m, 2 H), 2.93 (s, 3 H), 7.02 (m, 4 H). 13 C NMR: $\delta = 12.86$, 32.70, 50.63, 78.60, 120.90, 27.14, 134.90, 144.60. MS: *m/e* (I) = 245 (3), 230 (6), 218 (48), 217 (100), 188 (45), 175 (15), 161 (15), 133 (36), 119 (18), 91 (9), 77 (6), 69 (15). Exact mass: calc. for C₁₃H₁₃F₃O₂, 246.08676; found, 246.0901000.

1-methoxy-1-(3-trifluoromethylphenyl)cyclobutane (88). 1 H NMR: δ = 1.65 (cplx m, 1 H), 1.95 (cplx m, 1 H), 2.36 (d, 2 H), 2.39 (m, 2 H), 2.92 (s, 3 H), 7.60 (m, 4 H). 13 C NMR: δ = 12.88, 32.71, 50.62, 81.23, 22.92, 124.05, 128.82, 129.62, 144.49. 19 F NMR: δ = -62.69. IR: 3080 (w), 2997 (m), 2952 (m), 2833 (w), 1489 (w), 1439 (w), 1335 (s), 1270 (s), 1177 (s), 1145 (s), 1100 (m), 1077 (m), 1042 (w), 901 (w), 802 (w). MS: *m/e* (I) = 230 (2), 215 (8), 202 (58), 201 (98), 172 (40), 159 (25), 151 (40), 145 (33), 133 (100), 103 (22). Exact mass: calc. for C₁₂H₁₃F₃O, 230.091850; found, 230.0901000.

4-Trifluoromethylphenylacetylene²¹⁴. 4-Bromobenzotrifluoride (0.803 g, 0.5 mL, 3.57×10^{-3} mol) dissolved in freshly distilled toluene (10.0 mL) was added to tetrakis(triphenylphosphine)palladium(0) (0.082 g, 7.1×10^{-5} mol) in deoxygenated

tolinene (10.0 mL) under a N₂ atmosphere. The solution was evacuated and refilled with N₂ three times, and the mixture was heated to reflux. To this solution was added dropwise over the period of one hour tributyl-tin-acetylene^{†‡} (0.56 g, 1.78 x 10⁻³ mol) in deoxygenated toluene (10 mL). After refluxing for four additional hours, the reaction mixture was cooled down and a brown residue was isolated. Work-up consisted in washing the residue with water and extracting with pentane (5 mL x 4). The dark pentane and toluene layers were dried over anhydrous sodium sulfate and evaporated with a rotary evaporator. A dark brown residue was obtained. Purification consisted in silica gel column chromatography (solvent of elution: pentane) and ulterior bulb-to-bulb distillation. The spectroscopic characterization is in good agreement with the literature information.

4-trifluoromethylphenylacetylene (80)¹⁹⁷. IR: 3314 (s), 3083 (m), 3060 (w), 3035 (w), 2928 (w), 2112 (m), 1601 (m), 1575 (w), 1489 (s), 1444 (m), 1401 (w), 1325 (m), 1223 (m), 1172 (m), 1132 (m), 1102 (w), 1071 (m). MS: m/e (I) = 170 (100), 169 (25), 151 (40), 120 (40), 99 (10), 75 (20), 74 (20).

‡ ‡ Sample kindly supplied by Dr. M.A. Brook.

2,4,4-Trideuterio-1-phenylcyclobutene (89): Deuteration of cyclobutanone was accomplished by stirring a mixture of cyclobutanone (1 g, 0.014 mol), triglyme (15 mL) deuterium oxide (5.0 mL) and potassium carbonate (5 g) for 24 hrs. at 70°C (not allowing the temperature to rise above 75°C). The resulting solution was extracted 5 times with ethyl ether, and the combined organic layers were distilled off at atmospheric pressure employing a short Vigreux fractionating column. Once the ethyl ether was

removed, two consecutive traps immersed in dry ice / isopropanol were attached in series to the receiving flask that had been cooled at -78°C, and the temperature of the still was allowed to increase gradually. Deuterated cyclobutanone (0.5 g, 51 % yield), and traces of ethyl ether collected in the receiving flask and the traps. 1H NMR analysis of the fractions collected revealed that 80 % tetradenteration had taken place at the a positions to the carbonyl group of cyclobutanone. The material was subjected to a second cycle of deuteration following a similar procedure as described (vide supra). The ¹H NMR spectrum of the material isolated, showed H resonances for the methylene groups α to the carbonyl integrating in a ratio 0.5:20 with respect to the β protons of the cyclobutane ring. The material obtained (0.29 g), was made react with phenyllithium (2.2 mL, 0.0039 mol) in tetrahydrofuran (10 mL) at -78°C. The solution was stirred at -78°C, and allowed to reach room temperature. After quenching with deuterium oxide (3.0 mL) and usual work-up (vide supra) 0.505 g of a slightly yellow oil was obtained. ¹H NMR analysis of this oil in CDCl₃ revealed that the cyclobutane ring had retained four deuteria in its structure. Purification consisted in column chromatography (solvent of elution: hexane: ethyl ether 40:60).

MS: *m/e* (I): 152 (0.5), 151 (0.8), 150 (0.2), 122 (48), 105 (100), 93 (26), 78 (81), 77 (68), 51 (33), 30 (5), 29 (4), 28 (3), 27 (1). IR: 3638 (w), 3073 (m), 3041 (m), 2982 (s), 2943 (m), 2687 (w), 2190 (w), 1606 (w), 1496 (w), 1448 (m), 1378 (m), 1289 (m), 1183 (m), 1103 (m), 1031 (m), 903 (m), 760 (m). m.p.: 35-36°C.

2,4,4-Trideuterio-1-phenylcyclobutanol (0.4 g) in benzene-d₆ (5.0 mL) containing traces of deuterium oxide and p-toluenesulfonic acid monodeuteriohydrate (recrystallized thrice from D₂O) for 5 hours. After cooling to room temperature, the solution was washed with a small amount of 5% aqueous sodium hydroxide and dried over anhydrous magnesium sulfate. The solvent was removed by rotary evaporation to yield a colorless oil (0.35g) from which 89 was isolated by semi-preparative vpc after bulb-to-bulb distillation under vacuum. ¹H NMR analysis indicated the compound to be >95% deuterated at C₂ and C₄ positions of the cyclobutene ring.

¹H NMR (CD₃CN): δ = 2.48 (s, 2 H), 2.81 (m, 0.12 H), 6.32 (t, 0.05 H), 7.31 (m, 5 H) MS: *m/e* (I): 133 (81), 132 (100), 131 (79), 119 (9), 118 (21), 117 (45), 116 (44), 103 (81), 79 (11), 78 (12), 77 (30), 76 (26), 75 (21), 67 (11), 66 (12), 65 (14), 52 (16) 51 (36), 50 (18), 39 (13). IR: 3074 (m), 3039 (m), 2035 (s), 2291 (w), 2226 (m), 2154 (w), 1954 (w), 1798 (w), 1606 (w), 1493 (m), 1447 (w), 1291 (w), 1019 (w), 753 (s).

Irradiations were carried out on a 0.5 mL scale in 3" x 5 mm quartz tubes, in a Rayonet reactor containing 1 254 lamp. For the purposes of product identification, photolyses were taken to ca. 40% conversion, and the products identified by GC/MS, GC/FTIR, and GC coinjection with authentic samples (the synthesized 1-arylmethoxy cyclobutane ethers (83-88)). Identification of the substituted phenylacetylenes was based on their GC retention times, the prominent parent ion and characteristic fragmentation patterns in their mass spectra 198, their characteristic IR spectra (C=C-H

stretching frequency) obtained by GC/FTIR analyses of the crude photolysis mixtures and coinjection with authentic samples in the case of 4-tolylacetylene¹⁹⁹, phenylacetylene²⁰⁰, and 4-trifluoromethylphenylacetylene (*vide supra*). Mass and gas phase infrared spectral data for the four substituted phenylacetylenes obtained from preparative scale photolysis of phenylcyclobutenes 65, 69, and 70 are given below.

4-methoxyphenylacetylene (77)²⁰¹. IR: 3318 (s), 3083 (w), 3031 (w), 2957 (w), 2925 (w), 2838 (w), 2110 (m), 1650 (w), 1598 (m), 1581 (m), 1508 (s), 1489 (s), 1451 (m), 1443 (m), 1290 (m), 1245 (m), 1180 (m), 1103 (w). MS¹⁹⁸: m/e (I) = 132 (80), 131 (75), 117 (27), 101 (39), 90 (20), 50 (20).

4-methylphenylacetylene (78) 201 . IR: 3317 (s), 3084 (w), 3031 (w), 2962 (m), 2925 (m), 2866 (w), 2111 (m), 1508 (s), 1261 (s), 1215 (m), 1103 (m), 1020 (m), 826 (m), 650 (s), 603 (s), 529 (s). MS: m/e(I) = 116 (75), 115 (100), 89 (40), 74 (20), 63 (35), 50 (29).

4-trifluoromethylphenylacetylene (80)¹⁹⁷. IR: 3314 (s), 3083 (m), 3060 (w), 3035 (w), 2928 (w), 2112 (m), 1601 (m), 1575 (w), 1489 (s), 1444 (m), 1401 (w), 1325 (m), 1223 (m), 1172 (m), 1132 (m), 1102 (w), 1071 (m). MS: m/e (I) = 170 (100), 169 (25), 151 (40), 120 (40), 99 (10), 75 (20), 74 (20). 19F NMR: -62.72.

4-trifluoromethoxyphenylacetylen. (81). IR: 3314 (s), 2980 (s), 2828 (s), 2869 (m), 2855 (m), 2112 (w), 1671 (w), 1597 (w), 1574 (w), 1489 (m), 1445 (m), 1380 (w), 1261 (s), 1227 (m), 1100 (s), 1070 (m), 1025 (s). MS: m/e (I) = 186 (100), 167 (30), 120 (17), 117 (15), 99 (20), 85 (15), 75 (25), 74 (31). ¹⁹F NMR: -62.76.

3-trifluoromethylphenylacetylene (82)¹⁹⁷. IR: 3314 (s), 3076 (m), 3035 (w), 2923 (w), 2114 (w), 1602 (w), 1579 (s), 1485 (s), 1430 (s), 1348 (s), 1272 (s), 1223 (m), 1174 (s), 1131 (s), 1088 (s), 914 (m). MS: m/e (I) = 170 (100), 169 (30), 151 (40), 120 (42), 99 (10), 75 (20), 74 (30), 69 (10).

The dimers obtained from direct photolysis of 70 in hydrocarbon solutions were tentatively identified on the basis of GC/MS analysis:

Dimer 1: 66 % (based on total dimer yield):

MS: *m/e* (*I*) = 396 (0.2), 387 (0.1), 290 (100), 271 (21), 251 (4), 240 (6), 219 (23), 201 (94), 170 (10), 152 (50), 126 (3), 99 (1), 69 (19), 50 (0.5).

Dimer 2: 33 % (based on total dimer yield):

MS: *m/e (I)* = 396 (0.5), 387 (0.5), 290 (100), 271 (30), 251 (4), 240 (5), 219 (25), 201 (85), 170 (15), 152 (55), 126 (1), 99 (1), 69 (24), 50 (1).

6.1.4 Quantum Yield Determinations and Fluorescence Lifetimes

Quantum yields were determined by electronic actinometry. The system comprised of an optical bench and a photocounter devise. The optical bench consisted of an ultra high pressure Hg lamp housed in a ventilated steel compartment, a monochromator that selected the optical wavelength for excitation and a black box with a mobile shutter. The black box contained a filter (Corning C57-54) and one splitting lens. Photodiodes collecting the split reference beam and the sample beam were located equidistantly to the splitting lens. A photocounter device provided the number of counts that the photodiodes received. The system was calibrated daily with potassium ferrioxalate. Samples were contained in cylindrical suprasil quartz cells, which were sealed with rubber septa and deoxygenated with a stream of dry nitrogen prior to photolysis. The actinometry was carried out at 260 nm. The conversion of the actinometer (potassium ferrioxalate) was monitored by measuring the absorbance of the complex Fe-(o-phenanthroline-1,10) at 510 nm. A radiant power of ca. 10⁻⁸ einsteins was achieved after 3 hour photolysis. The conversion of the aryl-cyclobutene 68 to 1arylacetylene 80 (in aprotic solvents) or to the ether adduct 86 (in protic solvents) was followed by gas chromatographic techniques. Product concentrations were determined relative to an internal standard (n-decane) and were corrected for relative FID response factors using working curves.

Relative quantum yield determinations and Stern-Volmer studies were carried out using a Rayonet reactor equipped with a merry-go-round and one 253.7 nm Hg lamp. Fluorescence lifetimes²⁰² were measured at ambient temperature (22-25°C) using a PTI-LS 100 single photon counting system and a hydrogen flash lamp. Cuvettes used were Suprasil fluorescence cells sealed with a rubber septa. The cuvettes were

decoxygenated with a stream of dry nitrogen for at least 45 minutes prior to the experiment. Fluorescence decays were recorded using 260 mm excitation and a monitoring wavelength corresponding to the emission maximum of the cyclobutene in the particular solvent being studied (Table 2.2.5.1). For the solutions in the pure solvents, decays were recorded with 10000 counts in the maximum channel, and were deconvoluted and analyzed using the software provided by the manufacturer. In general, the decays were fit to single or double exponential (e.g. 65) functions in order to obtain the best possible fit. In cases where the data fit best to a two exponential function, the second component comprised less than ca. 10% of the decay. In each case, the lifetimes reported are the average of at least two independent determinations, the results of which invariably differed by less than 5%. For the methanol and HFIP quenching studies, the quencher was added incrementally to the cuvettes by microlitre syringe. In these experiments, decays were recorded with 1000 counts in the maximum channel so as to minimize sample decomposition.

6.1.5 Nanosecond Laser Flash Photolysis Experiments

Nanosecond laser flash photolysis experiments employed the pulses (248 nm, ca. 12 ns) from a Lumonics 510 excimer laser filled with F2/Kr/He or the pulses from a Lumonics TE-861M excimer 1 er filled with N2/He (337 nm, 6 ns, ca. 4 mJ) and a microcomputer-controlled detection system that has been described elsewhere 203. The geometry of the system is such that the excitation beam power is reduced from 80-120 mJ at the source to 2-4.5 mJ at the sample compartment. Solutions of 66-68 were prepared at concentrations such that the absorbance at the excitation wavelength was ca.

0.7 (ca. 5×10^{-5} mol dm⁻³.) The 1-aryleyelobutene solutions were flowed continuously through a 3×7 Suprasil flow cell, supplied by a calibrated 100 mL capacity reservoir. The solutions were deoxygenated continuously in the reservoir with a stream of nitrogen. Quenchers were added directly to the reservoir by microlitre syringe as aliquots of the neat liquids.

6.1.6 Steady State Photolyses

Steady-state photolyses of deoxygenated $0.005 \text{ mol dm}^{-3}$ pentane, acetonitrile and methanol solutions of 65-70 were carried out in a Rayonet photochemical reactor equipped with a merry-go-round and one or two RPR-254 (254 nm) lamps. Photolysis solutions were contained in $7 \times 70 \text{ mm}$ quartz tubes sealed with rubber septa which were deoxygenated prior to photolysis with a stream of dry nitrogen.

6.2. MONOCYCLIC CYCLOBUTENES

6.2.1 General

 $^{1}\mathrm{H}$ / $^{13}\mathrm{C}$ NMR analyses, IR and mass spectral data were obtained according to Section 6.1.1

Gas chromatographic analyses were carried out using a Hewlett-Packard 5890 gas chromatograph equipped with a flame ionization detector, a Hewlett-Packard 3396 integrator, and a HP-1 megabore capillary column (12 m x 0.53 mm; Hewlett-Packard,

Inc.) or a SP-B1 microbore capillary column (15 m x 0.2 mm; Supelco, Inc.), and a DB-1 megabore capillary column (30 m x 0.53 mm, Chromatography Specialties, Inc.) Semipreparative vpc separations employed a Varian 3300 gas chromatograph and one of the following stainless steel columns: (c) 20 % β , β -oxy-bis(dipropionitrile) (ODPN), on 80/100 Chromosorb PNAW (20' x 0.25", stainless steel) or (d) 3.8 % UC W982 on 80/100 Supelport (24' x 0.25", stainless steel).

Ultraviolet absorption spectra were recorded using a Perkin Elmer Lambda 9 spectrophotometer interfaced with an IBM PC PS/2. The spectra were recorded in 0.1 cm Suprasil cells. The sample and the reference were deoxygenated with argon prior to recording the spectra. The cell compartment was constantly flushed with dry nitrogen.

6.2.2 Commercial Solvents and Reagents Used

2,3-Dimethyl-1,3-butadiene, 2,3-dimethylmaleic anhydride, acetophenone, propene, cis and trans-but-2-ene, 2,3-dimethyl-but-2-ene, 2-butyne, lithium aluminum hydride, n-decane, n-nonane, and n-heptane and p-toluenesulphonyl chloride were all purchased from Aldrich Chemical Co., and used as received. Ethyl acetate was Baker Analyzed (HPLC grade). Tetrahydrofuran and ethyl ether were purchased from Fisher Chemical Co., dried over sodium/benzophenone and distilled prior to use. Pentane and cyclohexane were Baker Analyzed (Photorex grade), and used as received from the supplier. Lithium Perchlorite was purchased from Alfa Inorganics, and used as received n-Hexadecane was purchased from Aldrich, and purified by stirring with concentrated sulfuric acid for 12 hours, separating and discarding the sulfuric layer, and repeating this procedure until the sulfuric layer remained clear. Extraction into an aqueous solution of

sodium bicarbonate followed, and rinsing with distilled water until neutral pH. The n-hexadecane was then separated from the aqueous solution, dried over anhydrous sodium sulfate, filtered, and refluxed over calcium hydride overnight. The distillation of the hydrocarbon was carried out under reduced pressure (0.4 torr, 105°C) using a Vigreux fractionating column wrapped in a heating tape. This process yielded the hydrocarbon with very low UV absorption at 200 nm (< 0.05), as compared to the commercially available spectroscopic grade hydrocarbons (A ≥ 1 at 200 nm).

6.2.3 Preparation and Purification of Cyclobutenes

2,3-dimethylcyclobutene⁹³, ¹⁴³ (93). 2,3-dimethyl-buta-1,3-diene (5.0 mL, 3.63 g, 0.044 mol) was dissolved in 45.0 mL of pentane in a 50.0 mL quartz cell. After deoxygenating with a stream of nitrogen for 15 minutes, the solution was irradiated with seven 254 nm light lamps in a Rayonet reactor for six hours until a conversion of 50% of the starting material to the cyclobutene was achieved. The conversion was monitored by gas chromatography using column (c). Further conversion led to increasing amounts of polymeric material. Purification was achieved by bulb-to-bulb distillation of the photolysis mixture. Ulterior purification was carried out by semipreparative gas chromatography on column (c).

¹H NMR (CCl₄) δ: 1.56 (s, 6 H), 2.21 (s, 4 H). ¹³C NMR δ: 3.56, 9.57, 136.04. UV hexadecane), λ_{max} (ε): 191 (8050), 200 (3300), 220 (520).

1,2,3-trimethylcyclobutene¹⁴⁵(94). 2,3-dimethylmaleic anhydride (15 g, 0.12 mol) and acetophenone (0.57 mL, 0.58 g, 0.0048 mol) were dissolved in 50.0 mL of ethyl acetate in a pyrex reaction kettle equipped with a magnetic stirrer and gas inlet. The solution was deoxygenated at ca. -78°C with a stream of dry nitrogen for twenty minutes, and then saturated with propylene. The solution was irradiated with a medium pressure mercury lamp (450W, Hanovia) for 4 hours while the temperature was maintained at -78°C. The irradiation was terminated when more than 95% of the maleic anhydride had been consumed as determined by ¹H NMR, and the solvent was evaporated on the rotary evaporator. The yellow oil that remained was distilled in vacuo (ca. 0.3 torr) to remove acetophenone and traces of maleic anhydride. Redistillation of the residue (86-87°C, ca. 0.4 torr) afforded a white solid which exhibited a ¹H NMR spectrum consistent with a mixture of cis and trans 1,2,3-trimethyl-cyclobutane anhydrides.

¹H NMR δ (CD₃OD): 0.83 (d, 3 H), 0.87 (d, 3 H), 1.12 (s, 6 H), 1.13 (s, 6 H), 2.21 (br. t, 4 H), 3.15 (cplx. m, 2 H). GC/FTIR: 919 (m), 970 (s), 1111 (w), 1177 (m), 1219 (m), 1283 (w), 1387 (w), 1459 (w), 1788 (s), 1857 (m), 2883 (w), 2943 (w), 2978 (m). MS, m/e (I): 169 (2), 168 (2), 141 (39), 127 (52), 100 (100), 82 (40), 69 (21), 55 (42). MS (NH₃ DCI): 186.

A portion (10 g) of the white solid was stirred in 20% aqueous hydrochloric acid (30 mL) for 12 h at room temperature, and then extracted with diethyl ether (3 x 15 mL). The extracts were washed with water (30 mL), saturated brine (30 mL), dried over anhydrous sodium sulfate, and the solvent was evaporated to yield a dirty white

solid (9 g). This solid was recrystallized from a mixture of ethyl acetate: water: methanol: 1:1:0.5, to yield needle-like white crystals, (7.2 g, 80 %). The ¹H NMR spectrum of this material showed resonances that were consistent with 1,2,3-trimethylcyclobutane-1,2-dicarboxylic acid, obtained as a mixture of isomers.

¹H NMR (CD₃OD): 0.93 (d, 3 H), 1.11 (s, 6 H), 2.5 (m, 2 H), 3.30 (m, 1 H), 9.05 (br. s, 2 H). MS, m/e (I): 169 (31), 168 (2), 141 (61), 140 (19), 127 (38), 125 (23), 100 (100), 85 (34), 82 (53), 69 (18), 55 (45). MS (NH₃, DCI): 204. IR (KBr pellet): 941 (m), 1061 (w), 1119 (m), 1190 (m), 1310 (s), 1416 (m), 1473 (m). 1701 (s), 2500-2500 (br. s)

A portion of the mixture of diacids (5 g) was then dissolved in acetonitrile (25 mL) in a 150 mL beaker, and 15 mL of an aqueous 0.1 mol dm⁻³ solution of lithium perchlorite were added. The mixture was cooled down to 0°C by means of a cold plate which also stirred the mixture magnetically. Five carbon anodes and one graphite cathode were introduced. The reference electrode consisted of a silver/silver chloride couple ($E_{\rm OX}$ = 2 v versus Ag°/AgCl, $\Delta E_{\rm O}$ = 70 v). The solution was then electrolyzed²⁰¹ for 36 h, while the temperature was maintained at 0°C throughout the electrolysis. The progress of the reaction was monitored by taking aliquots at regular intervals of the electrolysis, extracting them with pentane and monitoring the conversion by gas chromatography. After 36 h, more than 85% of the starting material had disappeared to give 1,2,3 trimethylcyclobutene as sole product. Other attempts at $\frac{g^{21}}{g^{21}}$ shorting the reaction times were made by adding radical scavengers such as p-tert-butyl phenol. These attempts did not lead to any significant improvements to the electrolysis

times. The acetonitrile solution was then extracted with pentane (5 x 15 mL) and the pentane layers distilled off slowly at atmospheric pressure and 35°C. When no less than 10 mL were left, the liquid was bulb-to-bulb distilled at 0.3 torr and room temperature. A transparent liquid was obtained. Gas chromatographic analysis revealed the presence of the very volatile 1,2,3-trimethylcyclobutene. Further purification was achieved by semipreparative gas chromatography, using column (c) (injector temperature 120°C, detector temperature 150°C, oven temperature 50°C).

A second route to the synthesis of 1,2,3-trimethylcyclobutene was attempted. This route involved the oxidative decarboxylation of 1,2,3-trimethylcyclobutanedicarboxylic acid by lead tetraacetate in pyridine. A portion (5 g, 0.027 mol) of the solid was added to pyridine (100 mL, distilled from potassium hydroxide) and the solution was placed in a 250 mL, two necked, round bottom flask fitted with a gas inlet tube and a Vigreux column connected to three sequential dry ice/isopropanol traps. The solution was saturated with oxygen at room temperature, lead tetraacetate (11.9 g, 0.027 mole) was added, a slight positive pressure of dry nitrogen was applied, and the mixture was placed in an oil bath at 70°C where CO2 evolution occurred within one minute. When gas evolution had subsided, the temperature of the oil bath was increased to 80°C and nitrogen was slowly bubbled through the reaction mixture for 5 hours. The colorless liquid which had collected in the traps (trap 1 contained ca. 1.9 mL of pyridine, volume of traps 2 and 3 ca. 1.5 mL) was dissolved in pentane (5 mL), washed with 5 % aqueous hydrochloric acid (3 x 2 mL), water (3 x 3 mL), dried over anhydrous sodium sulfate, filtered, and concentrated by distillation at atmospheric pressure. VPC analysis (column (c)) of the product revealed the presence of one major component in ca. 96 % (gas chromatographic analysis showed solvent peak integrating for not more than 3 % of the total area). This was separated by semi-preparative vpc (column (c), injector

temperature 100°C, detector temperature 150°C, oven temperature 50°C). The yield of the oxidative decarboxylation of 1,2,3-trimethylcyclobutane dicarboxylic acid with lead tetraacetate was 55 %.

¹H NMR: 0.91 (d, 3 H), 1.07 (s, 6 H), 2.45 (m, 2 H), 3.21 (m, 1 H). MS, m/e (I): 96 (45), 95 (12), 81 (100), 80 (75), 79 (51), 68 (61), 55 (65), 54 (66), 42 (39), 41 (29).UV (hexadecane), λ_{max} (ε): 186 (12100).

Cis and trans-1,2,3,4-tetramethylcyclobutene²⁰² (95, 96). A mixture of maleic anhydride (3.55 g, 0.36 mol), and acetophenone (1.5 mL, 1.53 g, 0.0127 mol) were added to 0.190 L of ethyl acetate in a pyrex reaction Kettle equipped with a magnetic stirrer and gas inlet. The solution was cooled down to ca. -78° C, and purged with a stream of dry nitrogen for 30 minutes and then saturated with a mixture of cis and trans 2-butene, while the temperature was maintained at -78° C. The solution was irradiated with a medium pressure mercury lamp (450W, Hanovia) for 3.5 hours while the temperature was not allowed to rise above -70° C. The irradiation was terminated when more than 95% of the maleic anhydride had been consumed as determined by ¹H NMR and gas chromatographic analyses, and the solvent was evaporated on the rotary evaporator. The yellow oil that remained was distilled in vacuo (ca. 0.3 torr) to remove acetophenone and traces of maleic anhydride, affording a white solid which exhibited a ¹H NMR spectrum consistent with a mixture of cis- and trans-1,2,3,4-dimethylcyclobutane-3,4-dicarboxylic acid anhydrides.

¹H NMR: $\delta = 0.95$ (b d, 6 H), 1.12 (b s, 6 H), 3.11 (cplx m, 2 H).

The solid from above (1.4 g, 0.01 mol) was stirred in 20 % aqueous hydrochloric acid for ca. 12 hours at 60°C and then extracted with ethyl ether (3 x 10 mL). The extracts were washed with water (5.0 mL), saturated brine (5 mL), dried over sodium sulfate and then distilled to afford a white solid (1.2 g). The ¹H NMR spectrum of the solid dissolved in DMSO-d₆ showed, besides the signals corresponding to methyl and methyne protons, a resonance at ca. 10.1 ppm, indicating the presence of carboxylic protons.

A portion (1 g, 0.005 mol) of the solid was added to pyridine (10 mL, distilled from potassium hydroxide) and the solution was placed in a 50 mL, two necked, round bottom flask fitted with a gas inlet tube and a Vigreux column connected to three sequential dry ice/isopropanol traps. The solution was saturated with oxygen at room temperature, lead tetraacetate (2.5 g, 0.005 mole) was added, a slight positive pressure of dry nitrogen was applied, and the mixture was placed in an oil bath at 70°C where CO₂ evolution occurred within one minute. When gas evolution had subsided, the temperature of the oil bath was increased to 90°C and nitrogen was slowly bubbled through the reaction mixture for 5 hours. The colorless liquid which had collected in the traps was dissolved in pentane (5 mL), washed with 5 % aqueous hydrochloric acid (3 x 2 mL), water (3 x 3 mL), dried over anhydrous sodium sulfate, filtered, and concentrated by distillation. VPC analysis (column (c)) of the product revealed the presence of two major components in ca. 1:1 ratio. These were separated by semi-preparative vpc (column (c), injector temperature 120°C, detector temperature 150°C, oven temperature 70°C).

Cis-1,2,3,4-tetramethylcyclobutene¹⁸⁶ (95). ¹H NMR: $\delta = 0.89$ (d, 6 H, J = 6.9 Hz), 1.49 (s, 6 H), 2.56 (q, 2 H, J = 6 Hz). ¹³C NMR: $\delta = 10.86$, 12.79, 39.45, 139.80. UV (hexadecane), λ_{max} (ϵ): 190 (11100).

Trans-1,2,3,4-tetramethylcyclobutene¹⁸⁶ (96). ¹H NMR : δ = 0.99 (d, 6 H), 1.53 (S, 6 H), 1.93 (q, 2 H). UV (hexadecane), λ max (ϵ): 189 (10500), 205 sh. (7600).

1,2,3,3,4-Pentamethylcyclobutene¹⁵¹.(97). 2,3-dimethyl-maleic anhydride (15 g, 0.12 mol) and acetophenone (2.80 mL, 2.88 g, 0.024 mol) were dissolved in 100.0 mL of ethyl acetate in a pyrex reaction kettle equipped with a magnetic stirrer and gas inlet. The solution was deoxygenated at ca. -50°C with a stream of dry nitrogen for thirty minutes, and then saturated with 2-methyl-2-butene. The solution was irradiated with a medium pressure mercury lamp (450W, Hanovia) for 5 hours while the temperature was maintained at -50°C. The irradiation was terminated when more than 95% of the maleic anhydride had been consumed as determined by ¹H NMR and gas chromatography analyses, and the solvent was evaporated on the rotary evaporator. The oil that remained was distilled in vacuo (ca. 0.3 torr) to remove acetophenone and traces of maleic anhydride, affording a white solid which upon ulterior recrystallization from a mixture of ethyl acetate: water: methanol (1:1:0.5) yielded white crystals (18.6 g, 80 %), which exhibited a ¹H NMR spectrum consistent with a mixture of cis and trans 1,2,3,3,4-pentamethyl-cyclobutane anhydrides.

¹H NMR (CD₃COCD₃): δ = 0.96 (d, 3 H, J = 7.4 Hz), 0.97 (s, 3 H), 1.19 (s, 3 H), 1.32 (s, 3 H), 1.38 (s, 3H), 2.24 (q, 1 H, J = 7.5 Hz). ¹³C NMR (CD₃COCD₃): δ = 11.17, 11.32, 17.04, 20.70, 26.59, 39.59, 47.59, 49.63, 175.98, 176.24. GC/FTIR: 919 (m), 967 (s), 1005 (w), 1120 (m), 1177 (m), 1242 (m), 1277 (w), 1388 (w), 1459 (m), 1789 (s), 1857 (m), 1931 (w), 2882 (w), 2944 (m), 2978 (m). MS, m/e (I): 123 (11), 97 (61), 84 (100), 69 (83), 55 (17), 44 (67). MS (NH₃, DCI): 228.

The solid from above (10 g, 0.05 mol) was stirred in 20 % aqueous hydrochloric acid for ca. 48 hours at 80°C and then extracted with ethyl ether (3 x 20 mL). The extracts were washed with water (25.0 mL), saturated brine (25 mL), dried over sodium sulfate and filtered to afford a white solid (9 g, 84 % yield based on anhydride). The ¹H NMR spectrum of the solid dissolved in DMSO-d₆ showed, besides the signals corresponding to methyl and methyne protons, a resonance at around 10.0 ppm, indicating the presence of carboxylic protons.

IR (KBr pellet): 519 (w), 601 (w), 801 (s), 1021 (m), 1077 (s), 1261 (m), 1376 (m), 1398 (m), 1458 (m), 1473 (m), 1558 (s), 2871 (w), 2922 (m), 2966 (m), 3394 (br., m).

A portion (5 g, 0.023 mol) of the solid was added to pyridine (50 mL, distilled from potassium hydroxide) and the solution was placed in a 250 mL, two necked, round bottom flask fitted with a gas inlet tube an a Vigreux column connected to three sequential dry ice/isopropanol traps. The solution was saturated with oxygen at room

temperature, lead tetraacetate (10 g, 0.023 mole) was added, a slight positive pressure of dry nitrogen was applied, and the mixture was placed in an oil bath at 70°C where CO₂ evolution occurred within one minute. When gas evolution had subsided, the temperature of the oil bath was increased to 90°C and nitrogen was slowly bubbled through the reaction mixture for 24 hours. The colorless liquid which had collected in the traps was dissolved in pentane (5 mL), washed with 5 % aqueous hydrochloric acid (3 x 5 mL), water (3 x 3 mL), dried over anhydrous sodium sulfate, filtered, and concentrated by distillation. VPC analysis (column f) of the product revealed the presence of one component. This component was separated and purified by semi-preparative vpc (column (c), injector temperature 120°C, detector temperature 150°C, oven temperature 70°C).

¹H NMR (CCl₄): $\delta = 1.02$ (d, J = 6.8 Hz, 3 H), 1.21 (s, 6 H), 1.37 (s, 6 H), 2.71 (m, 1 H). MS, m/e (I): 124 (32), 123 (5), 109 (54), 108 (23), 96 (31), 82 (52), 70 (100), 69 (67), 68 (32), 55 (47), 54 (43), 53 (32), 37 (21), 27 (12). UV (hexadecane), λ_{max} (ε): 187 (7700).

Hexamethylcyclobutene¹⁵¹, 202 (98). 2,3-Dimethyl-maleic anhydride (15 g, 0.12 mol), acetophenone (0.57 mL, 0.58 g, 0.0048 mol), and 2,3-dimethyl-2-butene (10.9 g, 15.5 mL, 0.13 mol) were dissolved in 50.0 mL of ethyl acetate in a pyrex reaction kettle equipped with a magnetic stirrer and gas inlet. The solution was deoxygenated at ca. -30°C with a stream of dry nitrogen for twenty minutes. The solution was irradiated with a medium pressure mercury lamp (450W, Hanovia) for 5 hours while the temperature was maintained at -30°C. The irradiation was terminated

when more than 95% of the maleic anhydride had been consumed as determined by ¹H NMR and gas chromatography, and the solvent was evaporated on the rotary evaporator. The oil that remained was distilled in vacuo (ca. 0.5 torr) to remove acetophenone and traces of maleic anhydride, affording an oil which was redistilled under high vacuo (ca. 0.05 torr, 146°C) to yield 1,2,3,3,4,4-hexamethylcyclobutane anhydride (18 g, 72 %).

¹H NMR (CDCl₃): $\delta = 1.01$ (12 H), 1.15 (6 H). GC/FTIR: 909 (w), 966 (m), 1001 (w), 1211 (w), 1262 (w), 1386 (w), 1462 (w), 1797 (s), 1855 (w), 2884 (w), 2921 (w), 2948 (m).

Attempts at hydrolyzing this compound were unsuccessful. A portion (5 g, 0.023 mol) of the solid was added to pyridine (50 mL, distilled from potassium hydroxide) and the solution was placed in a 250 mL, two-necked, round-bottom flask fitted with a gas inlet tube an a Vigreux column connected to three sequential dry ice/isopropanol traps. The solution was saturated with oxygen at room temperature, lead tetra-acetate (10 g, 0.023 mole) was added, a slight positive pressure of dry nitrogen was applied, and the mixture was placed in an oil bath at 70°C where CO₂ evolution occurred within one minute. When gas evolution had subsided, the temperature of the oil bath was increased to 90°C and nitrogen was slowly bubbled through the reaction mixture for 24 hours. The colorless liquid which had collected in the traps was dissolved in pentane (5 mL), washed with 5 % aqueous hydrochloric acid (3 x 5 mL), water (3 x 3 mL), dried over anhydrous sodium sulfate, filtered, and concentrated by distillation. VPC analysis (column f) of the product revealed the presence of one component. This component was separated and purified by semi-

preparative vpc (column (c), injector temperature 120°C, detector temperature 150°C, oven temperature 75°C).

An alternative route to the synthesis of 98, is described as follows: 2,3-dimethyl-maleic anhydride (15 g, 0.12 mol), acetophenone (0.57 mL, 0.58 g, 0.0048 mol), and 2-butyne (7.02 g, 0.13 mol) were dissolved in 50.0 mL of ethyl acetate in a pyrex reaction kettle equipped with a magnetic stirrer and gas inlet. The solution was deoxygenated at ca. -55°C with a stream of dry nitrogen for twenty minutes. The resulting solution was irradiated with a medium pressure mercury lamp (450W, Hanovia) for 5 hours while the temperature was maintained at -55°C. The irradiation was terminated when more than 95% of the maleic anhydride had been consumed as determined by ¹H NMR and gas chromatography, and the solvent was evaporated on the rotary evaporator. The oil that remained was distilled under vacuo (ca. 0.5 torr) to remove acetophenone and traces of 2,3-maleic anhydride, affording an oil which was distilled again under high vacuo (ca. 0.05 torr, 90°C) to yield 1,2,3,4-tetramethylcyclobutene anhydride (18.5 g, 80 %).

¹H NMR (CDCl₃):
$$\delta = 1.45$$
 (s,1 H), 1.68 (s, 1 H).

In a 250 mL two-necked round-bottomed flask equipped with a reflux condenser, addition funnel and magnetic stirrer, a suspension of lithium aluminum hydride (6.24 g, 0.166 mol) in tetrahydrofuran (25 mL) was added. The flask was evacuated and blanketed with a nitrogen atmosphere. The mixture was stirred at room temperature when 1,2,3,4-tetramethylcyclobutene anhydride (15 g, 0.083 mol) in tetrahydrofuran (150 mL) was added over a period of 1 hour. The mixture was refluxed for 20 hours with continuous stirring. The solution was then cooled down to -10°C and

quenched carefully by dropwise addition of vater (30 mL). The suspension formed was extracted with ethyl ether (20 mL x 5), the organic layers dried over anhydrous sodium sulfate, filtered, and evaporated in a rotary evaporator, to yield a light yellow residue (12.7 g, 91 %). An IR spectrum of the sample dissolved in carbon tetrachloride confirmed the presence of hydroxyl group (3507 cm⁻¹) and the C=C presence (1690 cm⁻¹), ¹H NMR spectrum confirmed the presence of 1,2,3,4-tetramethyl-1,2-cis-bis-hydroxymethyl-cyclobutene.

¹H NMR (CDCl₃): $\delta = 1.12$ (s, 3 H), 1.45 (s, 3 H), 3.34 (d, 1 H), 3.75 (d, 1 H), 4.64 (br s, 1 H).

A portion of 1,2,3,4-tetramethyl-1,2-cis-bis-hydroxymethylcyclobutene (8 g, 0.048 mol) dissolved in dry pyridine (25 mL) was added dropwise to p-toluenesulfonyl chloride (14.3 g, 0.1 mol) in pyridine (45 mL) in a 250 mL round-bottom flask at 0°C, stoppered, and left at 0°C for 48 hours. The mixture was poured into 250 g of ice, vigorously stirred for 30 min, and then allowed to stand at 0°C for 1 hour. The solid precipitate was collected by filtration, washed with 2 % hydrochloric acid (25 mL), water (25 mL), filtered, dried under vacuum, and recrystallized from methanol to afford a light brown solid (11.9 g, 52 %).

The ditosylate (10 g, 0.021 mol) was added slowly to a suspension of lithium aluminum hydride (4.74 g,0.126 mol) in dry tetrahydrofuran (150 mL) in a three-necked, round-bottomed flask equipped with a solid addition funnel, reflux condenser, nitrogen inlet, and magnetic stirrer. The mixture was refluxed for 20 hours, cooled down to -10° C and quenched carefully by dropwise addition of water (30 mL). The thick suspension was extracted with ethyl ether (25 mL x 3), pentane (25 mL x 3) and the combined

organic layers were dried over anhydrous magnesium sulfate, filtered, and the solvent removed by slow distillation at atmospheric pressure with the use of a Vigreux column. The product was bulb-to-bulb distilled under vacuum, to afford a clear, transparent liquid with a ¹H NMR spectrum consistent with hexamethylcyclobutene 98.

¹H NMR (CDCl₃): $\delta = 1.02$ (s, 12 H), 1.44 (s, 6 H). MS, m/e (I): 138 (29), 137 (9), 123 (67), 97 (35), 96 (100), 95 (54), 93 (21), 80 (13), 79 (56), 78 (50), 77 (12), 54 (47), 37 (41), 27 (15). UV (hexadecane), λ_{max} (ϵ): 185 (6900).

6.2.4 Characterization of Photoproducts

The cis and trans dienes 101, 103 and 104 were isolated from preparative scale photolyses of cyclobutenes 94, 97, and 98 respectively, using column (c) and (d). Their characterizations follow:

E-2,3-Dimethyl-penta-1,3-diene¹⁴⁹, 196 (trans-101): ¹H NMR (CCl₄): $\delta = 1.55$ (d, J = 6.5 Hz, 3 H), 1.73 (s, 6 H), 4.83 (s, 2 H), 5.31 (q, J = 6.5 Hz, 1 H). MS, m/e (I): 96 (35), 95 (24), 81 (100), 80 (51), 79 (22), 68 (57), 55 (81), 54 (66), 42 (45), 41 (31), 37 (25), 27 (41). UV (cyclohexane), λ_{max} (ϵ): 235 (21000).

Z-2,3-Dimethyl-penta-1,3-diene¹⁴⁹, 196 (cis-101): ¹H NMR (CCl₄): 1.67 (d, J = 6.8 Hz, 3 H), 1.75 (s, 6 H), 4.83 (s, 1 H), 4.93 (s, 1 H), 5.65 (q, J = 6.5 Hz, 1 H). MS, m/e (I): 96 (31), 95 (25), 81 (100), 80 (61), 79 (25), 68 (60), 55 (80), 54 (65), 42 (54), 41 (30), 37 (25), 27 (45). UV (cyclohexane), λ_{max} (ϵ): 239 (15900).

E-2,3,4-trimethyl-hexa-2,4-diene²⁰⁴ (trans- 103): ¹H NMR (CCl₄): 1.54 (d, J = 6.7 Hz, 3 H), 1.70 (s, 6 H), 1.72 (s, 6 H), 5.37 (q, J = 6.5 Hz, 1 H). MS, m/e (I): 124 (35), 123 (11), 109 (59), 108 (29), 96 (42), 82 (55), 70 (100), 69 (61), 68 (35), 55 (42), 54 (45), 53 (30), 37 (29), 27 (19). UV (cyclohexane), λ_{max} (ϵ): 207 (9500).

Z-2,3,4-trimethyl-hexa-2,4-diene²⁰⁴ (cis- 103): ¹H NMR (CCl₄): 1.61 (d, J = 6.8 Hz, 3 H), 1.72 (s, 6 H), 1.76 (s, 6 H), 5.79 (q, J = 6.5 Hz, 1 H). MS, m/e (I): 124 (365, 123 (11), 109 (55), 108 (25), 96 (42), 82 (54), 70 (100), 69 (62), 68 (36), 55 (45), 54 (45), 53 (39), 37 (29), 27 (21). UV (cyclohexane), λ_{max} (ϵ): 218 (9650).

2,3,4,5-Tetramethyl-hexa-2,4-diene¹⁹⁶ (104). ¹H NMR (CCl₄): 1.47 (s, 6 H), 1.63 (s, 12 H). MS, m/e (I): 138 (31), 137 (10), 123 (57), 97 (41), 96 (100), 95 (55), 93 (24), 80 (18), 79 (50), 78

(55), 77 (15), 54 (49), 37 (45), 27 (18). UV (cyclohexane), λ_{max} (ϵ): 202 (10200).

The tetramethyl-buta-1,3-dienes 102 obtained from photolyses of *cis-* and *trans*-1,2,3,4-tetramethylcyclobutenes 96 and 95 were characterized by co-injection with authentic samples[†].

E,E-3,4-Dimethyl-hexa-2,4-diene²⁰⁶ (E,E-102). UV (cyclohexane),
$$\lambda_{\text{max}}$$
 (ϵ) 206 (5700).

E,Z-3,4-Dimethyl-hexa-2,4-diene²⁰⁶ (E,Z-102). UV (cyclohexane),
$$\lambda_{\text{max}}$$
 (ϵ): 210 (4100).

Z.Z-3,4-Dimethyl-hexa-2,4-diene²⁰⁶ (Z.Z-102). UV (cyclohexane),
$$\lambda_{\text{max}}$$
 (ϵ): 235 (12000).

6.2.5 Photolyses and Quantum Yield Determinations

Steady-state photolyses of deoxygenated 0.02 mol dm⁻³ n-hexadecane solutions of 93-97 were carried out using 214 nm light provided by a 16W zinc resonance lamp situated in the center of a merry-go-round. Photolysis solutions were contained in 7 x 70 mm quartz tubes sealed with rubber septa which were deoxygenated prior to photolysis with a stream of dry nitrogen. The conversion of the cyclobutenes was

[†]The samples of the dienes were kindly provided by Mr. K.C. Zheng.

monitored by gas chromatography. The solutions of 93-97 in n-hexadecane contained ca. 10⁻⁴ mol dm⁻³ n-heptane as internal standard for quantitation of the dienes and fragmentation products. The FID detector responses toward the dienes (ring opening-type products) and 2-butyne (cycloreversion-type products) were calibrated relative to the internal standard by construction of working curves.

Quantum yields were calculated relative to the ring opening reaction of 1,2dimethylcyclobutene 93. The absolute quantum yield for ring opening of 93 was determined by uranyl oxalate actinometry and the solutions employed were rigorously deoxygenated for half an hour with a stream of dry nitrogen prior to photolyses. Photolysis solutions of both the actinometer (7.002 x 10^{-3} mol dm⁻³) and 93 (2.50 x 10^{-3} ³ mol dm⁻³) were contained in cylindrical 3.0 mL quartz cells that were placed very close to the lamp, and were photolyzed at the same time. The absorbance of the unirradiated blank was lower than 0.013 in all cases. A radiant power of ca. 5.5 x 10^{-8} einstein was achieved after 40 minute photolysis as determined by the actinometer. Determinations were carried out in triplicate, and they all resulted in averageable figures. The conversion of the actinometer was calculated by an spectrophotometric technique 113 - 115. The solutions of 93 in hexadecane contained 10-4 mol dm-3 n-heptane as internal standard for quantitation of the product 2,3-dimethyl-buta-1,3-diene by gas chromatographic techniques. The FID detector response toward 2,3-dimethyl-buta-1,3diene was calibrated relative to an the internal standard by construction of a working curve.

6.3 cis and trans-DIMETHYLBICYCLO[n.2.0]ALK-1n+2-ENES and RELATED DIENES

6.3.1 General

¹H /¹³C NMR analyses, UV, IR and mass spectral data were obtained according to Section 6.1.1

Gas chromatographic analyses were carried out using a Hewlett-Packard 5890 gas chromatograph with a flame ionization detector and a Hewlett-Packard integrator, a SPB-1 microbore capillary column (15 m X 0.2 mm; Chromatographic Specialties, Inc.) with cold on-column injection or a DB-1 megabore capillary column (30 m X 0.53 mm; Chromatographic Specialties, Inc.) with a conventional injector, or a HP-17 megabore capillary column (15 m X 0.53 mm, Hewlett-Packard, Inc.) with conventional injector.

Semipreparative vpc separations employed a Varian 3300 gas chromatograph equipped with a thermal conductivity detector, a Hewlett-Packard 3390A integrator and one of the following stainless steel columns: (e) 20 % TCEP on 80/100 chromosorb PNAW, 20 ft X 1/4 in. (Chromatographic Specialties, Inc.); (f) 20 % TCEP column on 80/100 chromosorb PNAW, 6 ft X 1/4 in., (Chromatographic Specialties); or (g) 3.8 % UC-W982 on 80/100 Supelcoport, 24 ft X 1/4 in. (Supelco).

6.3.2 Commercial Solvents and Reagents Used

Pentane, Photorex reagent, was purchased from Baker Analyzed and used as received from the supplier. Hexamethylphosphoramide, n-Butyllithium, zirconocene

dichloride, methyl iodide, n-decane, cis,cis-1,3-cyclooctadiene, and 1,8-nonadiyne were purchased from Aldrich Chemical Co., and used as received. Cerium (IV) sulfate tetra hydrate was purchased form Aldrich and recrystalyzed from HPLC grade water three times before use. 1,7-Octadiyne and 1,6-heptadiyne were purchased from Wiley Organics, and purified by alumina column chromatography using hexanes as solvent of elution. 1,5-Hexadiyne was purchased from Lancaster and purified in the same way as 1,7-octadiyne and 1,6-heptadiyne. n-Nonane was purchased from Matheson Coleman & Bell and used as received. Uranyl sulfate was purchased from Alfa Inorganics Ventron. Oxalic acid, BDH reagent, was recrystalyzed three times from water. Tetrahydrofuran was from Caledon and was dried over calcium hydride and distilled from sodium/benzophenone prior to its use. Hexanes was from Fisher and used without further purification.

6.3.3 Preparation of Compounds

Uranyl oxalate was prepared as described by D.F. Eaton 113.

The dialkynes precursors of dienes 124-127 were prepared according to a general technique given by Negishi et al. 180.

2.9-undecadiyne¹⁸⁰ (119): To 1,8-nonadiyne (10 g, 83.3 mmol) in tetrahydrofuran (160 mL) was added at -78 °C a solution of n-butyllithium in hexane (67 mL, 167 mmol). After stirring for one hour, iodomethane (24g, 167 mmol) in hexamethylphosphoramide (50 mL) was added. The reaction mixture was warmed to room temperature, stirred for thirty minutes, poured into water, extracted with pentane,

washed with brine, dried over magnesium sulfate and distilled to provide 12.3 g, (90 %) of a colorless liquid: b.p. 65-66 °C, 0.3 torr.

¹H NMR, δ : 1.45 (br s, δ H), 1.76 (t, J = 2.5 Hz, δ H), 2.10 (cplx. m, 4H); ¹³C NMR, δ : 3.34, 18.65, 28.64, 75.46, 79.17; MS (m/z (I)): 148 (2), 133(20), 120(20), 105(100), 91(40), 79(30), 67(30), 53(40), 39(40); GC/FTIR: 1335 (w), 1377 (w), 1445 (w), 1461 (w), 2749 (w), 2871 (m), 2939 (s), 3004 (w), 3033 (w).

2,8-decadiyne¹⁸⁰ (118): To 1,7-octadiyne (10 g, 94 mmol) in tetrahydrofuran (160 mL) was added at -78 °C a 2.5 mol/dm³ solution of n-butyllithium in hexane (75 mL, 188 mmol). After stirring for one hour, iodomethane (27 g, 188 mmol) in hexamethylphosphoramide (50 mL) was added. The reaction mixture was warmed to room temperature, stirred for thirty minutes, poured into water, extracted with pentane, washed with brine, dried over magnesium sulfate and distilled to provide 11.3 g, (90 %) of a transparent liquid: b.p. 48°C, 0.3 torr.

MS (m/z (I): 134 (0.5), 133 (3), 119 (44), 106 (47), 105 (27), 91 (100), 79 (34), 77 (21), 65 (16), 47 (51), 45 (31), 41 (52), 39 (50), 27(48); GC/FTIR: 1334 (m), 1378 (w), 1446 (m), 1461 (m), 2750 (w), 2873 (s), 2936 (s), 2973 (w), 3005 (w), 3062 (w).

2,7-nonadiyne¹⁸⁰, 207 (117): To 1,7-octadiyne (8 g, 87 mmol) in tetrahydrofuran (160 mL) was added at -78 °C a 2.5 mol/dm³ solution of n-butyl lithium

in hexane (70 mL, 174 mmol). After stirring for one hour, iodomethane (24.7 g, 174 mmol) in hexamethylphosphoramide (50 mL) was added. The reaction mixture was warmed to room temperature, stirred for thirty minutes, poured into water, extracted with pentane, washed with brine, dried over magnesium sulfate and distilled to provide 6.3 g, (60 %) of a limpid liquid: b.p. 67°C, 42 torr.

MS (m/z (I)): 120 (1), 119 (4), 105 (100), 92 (39), 91 (73), 79 (50), 77 (41), 65 (44), 47 (36), 45 (50), 41 (50), 39 (97), 27 (71). GC/FTIR: 1294 (w), 1337 (m), 1380 (w), 1445 (m), 1461 (w), 1541 (w), 2751 (w), 2875 (m), 2937 (s), 3005 (w), 3034 (w).

Preparation of (E,E)-1,2-bis(ethylidene)cycloalkane-

E,E-1,2-bis(ethylidene)cycloheptane¹⁸⁰ (127): Zirconocene dichloride (2.45 g, 8.4 mmol) in tetrahydrofuran (28 mL) was treated at -78 °C with n-butyllithium in hexane (2.6 mol/dm³ solution, 6.48 mL, 16.8 mmol). The mixture was stirred for one hour, and 2,9-undecadiyne (1.2 g, 8 mmol) in tetrahydrofuran (12 mL) was added. The reaction mixture was allowed to warm to room temperature and was stirred for four additional hours. The mixture was poured into 6 N hydrochloric acid (15 mL), and extracted with pentane (three times, 10 mL each), washed with brine, dried over magnesium sulfate anhydrous, concentrated, and chromatographed (silica gel, pentane as solvent of elution) to provide 0.52 g (42 %). Further purification was achieved by semipreparative gas-chromatography on column (f).

¹H NMR δ : 1.45-1.55 (m, 6 H), 1.56 (d, J = 3.5 Hz, 6 H), 2.21 (m, 4 H), 5.37 (q, J = 7 Hz, 2 H); ¹³C NMR, δ : 13.03, 27.78,

29.38, 31.8, 117.40, 146.06. MS (m/z (I)): 150 (52), 135 (16), 121 (41), 107 (37), 105 (21), 93 (96), 91 (75), 79 (100), 77 (62), 67 (38), 55 (18), 53 (28), 39 (50). 27 (31). UV (pentane): λ max (ϵ) = 222 mm (9010). GC/FTIR: 806 (w), 840 (w), 977 (w), 1035 (w), 1315 (w), 1346 (w), 1384 (w), 1452 (m), 1647 (w), 1870 (w), 2392 (s), 2868 (m), 3034 (w).

E,E-1,2-bis(ethylidene)cyclohexane⁶⁷, 180 (E,E-126): This compound was prepared in an analogous fashion as (E,E)-1,2-bisethylidenecycloheptane described above.

¹H NMR δ: 1.58 (d, J = 6.8 Hz, 6 H), 1.59 (superimposed m, 4 H), 2.16 (br s, 4 H), 5.26 (q, 2 H, J = 6.8 Hz). ¹³C NMR (CCl₄), δ: 12.90, 26.29, 27.95, 115.71, 142.03. MS (m/z (I)): 136 (45), 121 (10), 107 (45), 93 (50), 91 (65), 79 (100), 77 (50), 67 (20), 65 (20), 53 (20), 51 (19), 39 40). HRMS: calc. for $C_{10}H_{16}$, 136.1252006; found, 136.0721000. UV (pentane): λ max = 221 nm. FTIR: 808 (m), 843 (deg., w), 905 (w), 1001 (w), 1235 (w), 1375 (w), 1443 (m), 2857 (s), 2939 (s), 2959 (m),

*E,E-1,2-bis(ethylidene)cyclopentane*¹⁸⁰, 208 (E,E-125): The synthesis and purification of this compound involved an analogous procedure to that described for E,E-126 and 127.

¹H NMR δ : 1.51 (quintet, 2 H), 1.60 (d, J = 7 Hz, 6 H), 2.23 (t, 4 H), 5.21 (m, 2 H); ¹³C NMR (CCl₄), δ : 14.85, 23.79, 30.35, 111.13, 141.12. MS (m/z (I)): 122 (75), 107 (45), 105 (25), 94

(35), 93 (75), 79 (50), 77 (80), 67 (35), 65 (30), 55 (25), 41 (40). UV (pentane): λ max (ϵ) = 252 mm (9550). FTIR: 1011 (s), 1068 (s), 1101 (m), 1261 (s), 1561 (s), 1678 (m), 2855 (m), 2928 (s), 2961 (m).

E,E-1,2-bis(ethylidene)cyclobutane²⁰⁹, ²¹⁰ (E,E-124):

¹H NMR δ: 1.51 (d, 6 H, J = 7 Hz), 2.49 (br. s, 4 H), 5.43 (q, 2 H, J = 6.5 Hz). ¹³C NMR, δ: 13.21 ,24.99, 111.47, 141.60. MS (m/z (I)): 108 (45), 93 (86), 91 (96), 79 (100), 77 (83), 66 (16), 65 (17), 53 (12), 51 (39), 39 (51), 27 (41). HRMS: found: 108.0925000, calculated:. UV (pentane): λ max (ε) = 252 nm (9900) shoulders at 262 and 240 nm. CG/FTIR: 1011 (s), 1068 (s), 1314 (w), 1416 (w), 1561 (s), 1578 (m), 2855 (m), 2929 (m), 2928 (m), 2961 (m).

Preparation of (E,Z) and (Z,Z)-1,2-bis/~hylidene)cycloalkanes and bicyclic cyclobutenes:

Preparative direct irradiation of deoxygenated 1 mol/dm³ pentane solutions (45.0 mL) of (E,E)-1,2-bis(ethylidene)cycloalkane dienes with 253.7 mm light gave the respective (E,Z) and (Z,Z) diene isomers as well as the cis- and trans- cyclobutenes. The mixtures were photolyzed until their photostationary state ratios were achieved (35:65, 40:60, 45:55 for the (E,Z):(E,E) isomers of the seven, six, and five member ring dienes respectively). The mixtures of dienes and cyclobutenes (from the five, six and seven member ring diene precursors) were purified by alumina column chromatography

(solvent of elution: hexanes). Further purification was achieved by preparative gaschromatography (column (f)). The large scale preparative photolysis is depicted in equation 4.2.1. Their spectroscopic characterizations follow:

E,Z-1,2-bis(ethylidene)cycloheptane (E,Z-127):

¹H NMR δ: 1.51 (b s, 6 H), 1.59 (d, J = 7 Hz, 3H), 1.63 (d, J = 7 Hz), 2.16-2.22 (m, 4 H), 5.22 (sextet, J = 8 Hz, 2 H); ¹³C NMR, δ: 14.04, 14.95, 27.42, 29.46, 29.52, 29.68, 38.00, 117.38, 121.33, 140.27, 145.31. MS (m/z (I)): 150 (56), 135 (18), 121 (43), 107 (39), 105 (21), 93 (97), 91 (69), 81 (28), 79 (100), 77 (60), 69 (3), 67 (41), 55 (17), 53 (29), 39 (54), 27 (30). UV (pentane): λ max (ε) = 219 mm (8990). GC/FTIR: 798 (w), 822 (w), 957 (w), 1350 (w), 1384 (w), 1457 (m), 2864 (m), 2681 (w), 2931 (s), 2968 (m). HRMS: calc. for C₁₁H₁₈, 150.14085066; found, 150.1418000.

EZ-1,2-bis(ethylidene)cyclohexane⁶⁷ (E,Z-**i26**):

¹H NMR δ : 1.60 (d, 3 H, J = 6.8 Hz), 1.60 (m, 4 H), 1.67 (d, 3 H, J = 6.8 Hz), 2.10 (m, 2 H), 2.74 (m, 2 H), 5.12 (complex m, 2 H). ¹³C NMR (CCl₄), δ : 12.69, 14.11, 27.19,27.94, 28.66, 37.89, 116.48, 118,85, 137.39, 142.16. MS (m/z (I)): 136 (30), 121 (15), 107 (45), 93 (50), 91 (75), 79 (100), 77 (50), 67 (25), 65 (27), 53 (16), 51 (16), 41 (21), 39 (43). IR (neat): 807 (m),

837 (s), 907 (m), 993 (m), 1238 (w), 1375 (w), 1442 (m), 2860 (s), 2935 (s), 3035 (w).

E,Z-1,2-bis(ethylidene)cyclopentane²⁰⁸ (E,Z-125):

¹H NMR δ : 1.61 (quinter, J = 7 Hz, 2 H), 1.74 (d, J = 7 Hz, 3 H), 1.79 (d, J = 7 Hz, 3 H), 2.35 (complex. m, 4 H), 5.48 (m, 1 H), 5.77 (m, 1 H). ¹³C NMR, δ : 15.10, 15.41, 23.78, 31.09, 36.42, 116.06, 120.32, 141.10. UV (pentane): λ max (ϵ) = 249 nm (9930).

E,Z-1,2-bis(ethylidene)cyclobutane²¹⁰ (E,Z-124):

¹H NMR δ : 1.61 (d, J = 7 Hz, 3 H), 1.72 (d, J = 7 Hz, 3 H), 2.48 (br s, 4 H), 5.11 (q with fine structure, J = 7.5 Hz, 1 H), 5.57 (q with fine structure, J = 7.5 Hz, 1 H). ¹³C NMR: 13.94, 14.60, 24.98, 26.42, 116.07, 117.29, 140.22, 142.47. MS (m/z II): 108 (33), 93 (81), 91 (89), 79 (100), 77 (97), 53 (31), 51 (49), 39 (76), 27 (51). UV (pentane): λ max (ϵ) = 250 mm (10550), 241 nm sh, 270 nm sh. GC/FTIR: 1015 (s), 1097 (s), 1261 (s), 1382 (s), 1470 (s), 2855 (m), 2929 (m), 2962 (m).

ZZ-1,2-bis(ethylidene)cyclobutane²¹⁰ (Z,Z-124):

¹H NMR δ : 1.77 (d, J = 7 Hz, 3 H), 2.41 (br s, 4 H), 5.06 (q, J = 7 Hz, 2 H). MS (m/z (I)): 108 (44), 93 (79), 91 (84),79 (100),

77 (95), 65 (41), 53 (27), 51 (42), 39 (67), 27 (46). UV (pentane): λ max (ϵ) = 250 nm (11200). GC/FTIR: 1015 (s), 1097 (s), 1261 (s), 1412 (w), 1448 (w), 1602 (m), 2866 (m), 2928 (m), 2963 (m).

Long term photolysis of the irradiated 1 mol/dm³ deoxygenated pentane solutions of the *E,E* and *E,Z* diene isomers of *1,2-bis(ethylidene)cycloalkanes* (cycloheptane, cyclohexane and cyclopentane) with 253.7 nm light source afforded the respective ring-closed *cis*- and *trans*- bicyclic cyclobutenes. Purification consisted of alumina column chromatography (hexanes as solvent of elution). Further purification was achieved by semi-preparative gas chromatography (column (f)). Their spectroscopic characterizations follow:

Cis-8,9-dimethyl-bicyclo[5.2.0]non-1(7)-ene (cis-130):

¹H NMR (CD₂Cl₂) δ: 0.93 (d, J = 7 Hz, 6 H), 1.51 (complex. m, 4 H), 1.67 (complex. m, 2 H), 1.92 (complex. m, 2 H), 2.05 (complex. m, 2 H), 2.58 (b q, 2 H); ¹³C NMR, δ: 13.11, 28.31, 29.04, 29.67, 38.35, 145.12. MS (m/z (I)): 150 (27), 135 (16), 121 (34), 107 (35), 105 (18), 93 (90), 91 (69), 81 (51), 79 (100), 77 (61), 67 (51), 63 (9), 55 (23), 53 (32), 39 (63), 27 (36). HRMS: calc. for C₁₁H₁₈, 150.14085066; found, 150.1405000. UV (pentane): λ max (ε) = 199 nm (9050). GC/FTIR: 913 (m), 993 (w), ,1452 (m), 1641 (w), 2866 (m), 2932 (s), 2971 (w), 3087 (w).

Trans-8,9-dimethyl-bicyclo[52.0]non-1(7)-ene (trans-130):

¹H NMR (CCl₄) δ: 0.97 (d, J = 7 Hz, 6 H), 1.52 (complex. m, 6 H), 1.88 (complex. m, 6 H); ¹³C NMR, (CCl₄) δ: 17.44, 28.88, 29.41, 30.02, 44.45, 143.99. GC/MS (m/z (I)): 150 (33), 135 (17), 121 (39), 107 (42), 105 (22), 93 (99), 91 (77), 81 (25), 79 (100), 77 (61), 67 (39), 65 (25), 55 (16), 53 (25), 39 (52), 27 (29). HRMS: calc. for $C_{11}H_{18}$, 150.14085066; found, 150.1410000. UV (pentane): λ max (ε) = 191 mm (8650). GC/FTIR: 815 (w), 831 (w), 977 (w), 1378 (w), 1459 (m), 2866 (m), 2920 (s), 2966 (m).

Cis-7,8-dimethyl-bicyclo[4.2.0]oct-1(6)-ene⁶⁷ (cis-37):

¹H NMR δ: 0.94 (d, 6 H, J = 6.7 Hz), 1.62 (m, 4 H), 1.75 (d, 2 H), 1.86 (d, 2 H), 2.78 (complex q, 2 H). ¹³C NMR (CCl4), δ: 13.19, 22.34, 22.92, 40.48, 144.74. MS (m/z (I)): 136 (22), 121 (17), 107 (40), 105 (13), 93 (51), 91 (59), 79 (100), 77 (46), 67 (21), 65 (18), 53 (20), 51 (19). 41 (25), 39 (43). IR (neat): 805 (w), 815 (w), 885 (w), 928 (w), 968 (w), 1017 (w), 1125 (m), 1233 (m), 1363 (m), 1315 (deg., m), 1375 (m), 1438 (s), 1448 (sh., s), 1465 (m), 2905 (br, s).

Trans-7,8-dimethyl-bicyclo[4.2.0]oct-1(6)-ene⁶⁷ (trans-37):

¹H NMR δ: 1.08 (d, 6 H, J = 6.8 Hz), 1.60 (m, 2 H), 1.66 (m, 2 H), 1.77 (d, 2 H, J = 16 Hz), 1.85 (d, 2 H, J = 16 Hz), 2.19 (complex q, 2 H, J = 6.5 Hz). ¹³C NMR (CCl4), δ: 16.94, 22.44, 23.04, 46.42, 143.69. GC/MS (m/z (I)): 136 (23), 121 (19), 107 (48), 105 (17), 93 (57), 91 (46), 79 (100), 77 (48), 67 (24), 65 (18), 53 (25), 51 (20), 41 (31), 39 (50). IR (neat): 967 (m), 1043 (w), 1123 (w), 1223 (m), 1260 (m), 1291 (m), 1327 (m), 1438 (m), 1443 (s), 2840 (s), 2917 (br. s).

Cis-6,7-dimethyl-bicyclo[3.2.0]hept-1(5)-ene²¹¹ (cis-129):

13C NMR, δ : 14.11, 26.32, 29.81, 38.67, 153.34. GC/MS (m/z (I)): 122 (17), 107 (21), 93 (55), 91 (38), 79 (45), 77 (35), 65 (31), 51 (34), 39 (51). UV (pentane): λ max (ϵ) = 190 (9800).

Trans-6,7-dimethyl-bicyclo[3.2.0]hept-1(5)-ene²¹¹ (trans-129):

13C NMR, δ : 17.50, 26.20, 29.75, 44.62, 152.60. GC/MS (m/z (I)): 122 (25), 107 (20), 93 (61), 91 (43), 79 (44), 77 (37), 65 (33), 51 (41), 39 (45). UV (pentane): λ max (ϵ) = 188 (7260)

Preparation of cis- and trans-2,3-dimethyl bicyclo[2.2.0]hex-1(4)-ene (128):

In a 250 mL two-necked flask previously flame-dried, (-)-2,3-butanediol di-ptosylate 199 (19.93 g, 0.05 moles) in tetrahydrofuran (50.0 mL) was placed. The system was cooled to -100 °C, evacuated and refilled with a N2 atmosphere. This process was repeated three times after which (trimethylsilyl)lithium acetylide[†] (0.1 mol) in tetrahydrofuran was added over a period of one hour by means of a double-end needle (the reservoir was maintained at -78°C) while the solution was stirred continuously. The temperature of the system was maintained at -100 °C throughout the addition of the acetylide. The solution was left stirring for an additional hour at -100 °C, and then the temperature was gradually allowed to reach ambient values. The reaction mixture was quenched with ice water (20 g), and extracted three times with pentane (10.0 mL). The pentane layers were dried with sodium sulfate and evaporated. The residue that was left was chromatographed over alumina (hexanes 100% as solvent of elution, transparent fractions collected). The mass obtained was 4.75 g (0.019 mol, 38 %). The mass spectrum of the compound was consistent with 3,4-dimethyl-1,6-bis(trimethylsilyl)-1,5hexadiyne. GC/MS (m/z (I)): 235 (13), 207 (3), 162 (75), 161 (43), 156 (2), 147 (22), 138 (13), 110 (14), 96 (14), 83 (12), 81 (11), 73 (100), 59 (12), 43 (11).

† Prepared from (trimethylsilyl)acetylene (0.98 g, 0.68 mL, 0.1 mol) and n-butyllithium (55 mL, 0.1 mol) at -78°C.

In a 50.0 mL two-necked flask previously flame-dried, zirconocene dichloride (2.92 g, 0.01 mol) in tetrahydrofuran (15.0 mL) was introduced. The system was evacuated and blanketed with a N₂ atmosphere, and stirred by means of a magnetic stirrer. The temperature was lowered to -78 °C when n-butyllithium (0.02 mol) in tetrahydrofuran (5.0 mL) was added over a period of one hour by means of a dropping

funnel attached to the flask, while the temperature was maintained at -78 °C throughout the addition. The system was left stirring for an additional hour at -78 °C and 3.4dimethyl-1,6-bis(trimethylsilyl)-1,5-hexadiyne (2.50 g, 0.01 mol) in tetrahydrofuran (5 mL) was added to the reaction mixture by means of a canula. After the addition was completed, the solution was kept for an additional three hours at -78 °C, and then warmed up to room temperature. The mixture was quenched with ice water (20 g), and extracted three times with pentane (10.0 mL). The pentane layers were evaporated, yielding 1.74 g (69 %) of a yellowish residue. A portion of this material (0.75 g, 0.0030 mol) was dissolved in dichloromethane (10.0 mL) and placed in a 25.0 mL round bottom flask. Trifluoroacetic²⁰⁴ acid (5 mL) was added, and the mixture was then stirred at room temperature overnight. The resulting brown mixture was quenched with water (10.0 mL) and extracted three times with pentane (5.0 mL each). The organic layers were dried over sodium sulfate, and the solvents distilled off until a volume of 3.0 mL was remained. The residue was bulb-to-bulb distilled employing two liquid nitrogen traps; a mass of 0.29g (90%) of a colorless liquid was obtained. GC/MS analysis indicated two products of the same molecular weight in more than 95% purity. Further purification consisted of semipreparative gas chromatography using column (g). These compounds were identified on the basis of their ¹H NMR spectra and GC/MS analysis and characterized as cis-3,4-dimethyl-1,2-(bis)methylenecyclobutane and trans-3,4dimethyl-1,2-(bis)methylenecyclobutane according to their precedent in the literature 210

The above mixture of cis and trans cyclobutanes was taken up in pentane (5.0 mL), deoxygenated with a stream of N₂ and photolyzed with 253.7 nm light until only 30 % of the starting materials were left, as indicated by gas chromatographic analyses. Two cyclobutene isomers were produced upon this photolysis. The mixture was

maintained at liquid nitrogen temperature until further purification continued. For their final purification, column (e) was used. Their spectroscopic characterizations follow:

Cis-2,3-dimethylbicyclo[2.2.0]-hex-1(4)ene (cis-128):

¹H NMR δ: 1.60 (d, 6 H, J = 7.5 Hz), 1.76 (t, 4 H, J = 2.4 Hz), 2.21 (q, 2 H, J = 6.7 Hz). UV (pentane): λ max (ε) = 188 (11500). GC/FTIR: 1101 (m), 1261 (m), 1353 (w), 1381 (w), 1450 (w), 2855 (m), 2872 (m), 2929 (s), 2962 (s). GC/MS (m/z (I)): 108 (39), 93 (78), 91 (83), 79 (100), 77 (94), 66 (24), 65 (29), 53 (29), 51 (41), 39 (63), 27 (41).

Trans-2,3-dimethylbicyclo[2.2.0]-hex-1(4)ene (trans-128):

¹H NMR δ: 1.60 (dd, 6 H, J = 6.7 Hz, J = 1.6 Hz), 1.76 (t, 4 H, J = 2.5 Hz), 2.15 (m, 2 H), 2.20 (br. q, 2 H). UV (pentane): λ max (ε) = 188 (10800). GC/FTIR: 1261 (m), 1451 (w), 2856 (w), 2872 (w), 2929 (s), 2962 (s). GC/MS (m/z (I)): 108 (40), 93 (96), 91 (96), 79 (95), 77 (100), 66 (23), 65 (27), 53 (33), 1 (44), 39 (64), 27 (42).

Compounds cis- and trans- 128 are unstable at room temperature due to rapid polymerization. Thus, it was estimated that the half life (time required for the original concentration of the analyte to be reduced to 1/e of the original concentration) of 128 was approximately 72 hrs at 20° C. The value of this half life was significantly reduced

in the presence of impurities and dienes. The samples were kept at liquid nitrogen temperature until the experiment took place. The photolyses of 128 were also carried out at -78° C, in order to check for possible sample-decomposition, or thermal isomerization to dienes during phoyolysis. The results of the experiments confirmed that no such reactions are detectable if photolysis times are kept under one hour (ratio of dienes from cyclobutene ring opening remain constant at both room temperature and -78 ° C).

Preparation of 2,3-E,E and E,Z-bisethylidene-bicyclo[2,2,1]heptanes.

Bicyclo[2.2.1]heptane-2,3-dione²¹²: In a 150.0 mL two-necked flask was placed norcanfor (10.0 g, 0.091 mol), toluene (50.0 mL) and selenium dioxide¹⁹⁹ (7.90 g, 0.1 mol). A condenser was attached to one of the glass joints of the flask and the mixture was heated to reflux for two hours with vigorous stirring, after which the solution turned dark red. Increasing quantities of selenium metal precipitating out of the solution gave the mixture a black color. The selenium metal was filtered off, and the mixture was continued to reflux for an additional hour. The reaction was followed by thin layer chromatography (silica plate, hexane:ethyl acetate 75:25 as developing solvent) and allowed to proceed to 70 % conversion of the starting material. The work-up consisted in boiling the reaction mixture in 95 % ethanol (to destroy the excess of selenium dioxide) and extraction of the toluene-ethanol solution with hydrochloric acid 20% (to remove organic selenium complexes) and then washed three times with ethyl ether. The ether and ethanol solvents were removed by rotary evaporation and toluene was distilled off at atmospheric pressure. The dark orange residue that was left, was

redistilled under very reduced pressure (133°C, 0.05 torr). The distillate that solidified immediately after collection amounted to 9.1 g (0.073 mol, 81%) of a bright yellow solid. An alternate purification procedure consisted in recrystallization of the dark orange residue (obtained after solvent evaporation) from methanol. This compound was identified as bicyclo[2.2.1]heptane-2,3-dione on the basis of the following spectroscopic data:

¹H NMR δ: 1.76 (cplx. m, 2 H), 2.01 (t, 9 Hz, 1 H), 2.04 (t, 9 Hz, 1 H), 2.08 (cplx. m, 2 H), 3.04 (cplx. m, 2 H). ¹³C NMR, δ: 23.78, 31.64, 48.19, 202.05. GC/MS (m/z (I)): 124 (21), 96 (24), 68 (81), 55 (100), 39 (54), 27 (26). Exact mass: calc for C₇H₈O₂, 124.052429; found, 124.0522000. IR: 3004 (w), 2970 (m), 2893 (w), 1771 (s), 1459 (w), 1198 (w), 1076 (w), 980 (w), 936 (w), 894 (w), 737 (w).

Into a 500 mL three necked-flask²¹³ was placed sodium hydride (2.5 g, 0.101 mol), and the solid was washed 3 times with dry pentane. The flask was evacuated and blanketed 3 times with dry nitrogen. Anhydrous dimethyl sulfoxide (50 mL, previously dried over potassium hydroxide and distilled under reduced pressure) was introduced by syringe, and the resulting mixture (white color) was heated at 80°C in an oil bath with stirring for 1.5 hour until hydrogen evolution ceased, which resulted in a green limpid solution. Following cooling to room temperature, a solution of ethyltriphenylphosphonium iodide§, (42.2g, 0.101 mol) in warm dimethyl sulfoxide (250 mL) was added. The blood-red solution that resulted was stirred for 15 min before bicyclo[2.2.1]heptane-2,3-dione (5 g, 0.0403 mol) dissolved in 50 mL of the same solvent was slowly introduced (warming) by

means of a double-end needle. When addition was complete, the mixture was heated at 60 °C for 20 h and poured into 300 mL of ice water. The product was extracted into petroleum ether (3 x 150 mL), and the combined layers were washed with 50% aqueous dimethylsulfoxide (100 mL) and brine (50 mL). After the solution was dried, the solvent was slowly removed by distillation at atmospheric pressure and the residue was chromatographed by alumina column chromatography (solvent of elution: hexanes 100%), and all the transparent fractions were collected. After solvent evaporation, a colorless liquid was recovered (3.22 g, 0.0218 mol). A GC/MS analysis indicated the presence of a mixture of two isomers of 2,3-bisethylidene-bicyclo[2.2.1]heptane in over 80% yield. The major component of the mixture of the two isomers was isolated by semipreparative gas chromatography, employing column (f). This compound was identified as E,E-2,3-bisethylidene-bicyclo[2.2.1]heptane²¹³ (131) on the basis of the following spectroscopic data:

¹H NMR δ: 1.24-1.30 (m, 6 H), 1.66 (d, J = 7.5 HZ, 6 H), 3.05 (m, 2 H), 5.48 (q, J = 6.8 Hz, 2 H). ¹³C NMR: 14.1, 28.10, 39.10, 40.04, 107.33, 145.08. GC/MS (m/z (I)): 148 (23), 120 (31), 119 (26), 105 (100), 91 (48), 77 (24), 65 (12), 39 (18), 27 (9). IR: 3041 (w), 2986 (s), 2966 (s), 2929 (s), 2877 (s), 1681 (w), 1450 (m), 1262 (w), 1121 (w), 982 (w), 807 (m). UV (pentane): λ max (ε) = 253 nm (11200).

To enrich the mixture of isomers (obtained from the synthesis) in the E,Z component, compound E,E-131 (1.5 g) dissolved in pentane (10.0 mL) was photolyzed (254 nm light, 12 lamps, 3 h) in a quartz container after deoxygenation with a stream of

nitrogen. The photolysis was followed up by gas chromatography and interrupted when the mixture reached its photostationary state (50% mixture of the E,E and E,Z isomers, and minor amounts of other isomers). The second major component in the mixture (with shorter retention time than the E,E isomer) was separated by semipreparative gas chromatography employing column (f) and identified as the E,Z-2,3-bisethylidene-bicyclo[2,2,1]heptane isomer according to the following spectroscopic data:

¹H NMR δ: 1.30 (cplx. m, 6 H), 1.73 (d, J = 7 Hz, 3 H), 1.75 (d, J = 7 Hz, 3 H), 3.10 (m, 2H), 5.37 (q, J = 7.6 Hz, 1 H), 5.60 (q, J = 7.6 Hz, 1 H). ¹³C NMR: 14.89, 14.91, 26.91, 28.13, 38.06, 39.71, 47.38, 112.64, 145.20, 145.96. GC/MS (m/z (I)): 148 (21), 133 (5), 120 (31), 105 (100), 91 (51), 77 (23) 65 (10), 51 (8), 39 (19), 27 (8). Exact mass: calc. for $C_{11}H_{16}$, 148.1252006 ;found, 148.1245000. IR: 3069 (w), 2969 (s), 2931 (s), 2878 (s), 1454 (m), 1379 (w), 1261 (w), 1119 (w), 1023 (w), 826 (m). UV (pentane): λ max (ε) = 245 (11900).

§ Prepared from ethyl iodide and triphenylphosphine in scrupulously dried benzene.

6.3.4 Photolyses and Quantum Yield Determinations

Synthetic photolyses employed a Rayonet photochemical chemical reactor fitted with twelve RPR-254 (253.7 nm) lamps and a merry-go-round apparatus.

The cyclobutenes 128, 129, 37, and 130 were photolyzed in deoxygenated 0.02 mol dm⁻³ pentane solutions with a 16-W Zn resonance lamp as the light source (214

nm) using an Acton Research Corp. filter (214-B-ID) with a peak wavelength of 2130 Å and a bandwidth of 320 Å to cut off spurious radiation. Ulterior determinations of quantum yields in the absence of such filter did not introduce differences in the results. The unfocused pulses of an ArF excimer laser (193 nm, ca 15 ns, 20 mJ, 0.5 Hz repetition rate) were also employed in the photolyses of cyclobutenes 129, 37, and 130.

For absolute quantum yield determinations utilizing uranyl oxalate photolysis the light source was the Zn resonance lamp. Quartz cells of 3.0 mL were employed. A detailed procedure described by D.F. Eaton 113 was followed. A quantum yield of 0.500 \pm 0.021 was used for the actinometer. The conversion of the actinometer was monitored by a spectrophotometric technique as described in Section 6.2.5. The absorbance of the unitradiated blank was lower than 0.10 in all cases. A radiant power of ca. 1.0×10^{-8} einstein was achieved after 12 hour photolysis (employing the low pass filter) as determined by the actinometer. The conversion of the cyclobutene was determined by gas chromatographic techniques. In determining quantum yields, four single point averageable determinations were employed.

Quantum yields for ring opening of cyclobutenes 129, 37, and 130 were also determined by bicyclo[4.2.0] octene actinometry with 193 nm laser pulse excitation. The actinometric reaction consists in the photochemical ring opening of bicyclooctene to cis,cis- and cis,trans- cycloocta-1,3-diene. The quantum yield for production of cis,cis-cycloocta-1,3-diene is 0.12. Both actinometer (2.70 x 10⁻² mol dm⁻³) and sample (ca. 6.5 x 10⁻³ mol dm⁻³) pentane solutions were contained in identical cylindrical suprasil quartz cells that were placed in a cell holder in front of the laser beam and photolyzed separately. The conversions of the actinometer and the sample were followed by gas chromatographic techniques. Quantum yields were determined by following the formation of cis,cis-cycloocta-1,3-diene from the actinometer and or dienes 124-127

from the cyclobutenes by vpc analyses between 0 and 5 % conversion. The solutions contained n-octane $(1.1 \times 10^{-4} \text{ mol dm}^{-3})$ and n-decane $(1.0 \times 10^{-3} \text{ mol dm}^{-3})$ as internal standards for quantitation of products. The FID detector responses towards the dienes 124-127 were calibrated relative to the internal standards by construction of working curves.

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APPENDIX 1

Ferrioxalate Actinometer

Calculation of measured radiant power

 $\phi_p = \Delta A.V_1.10^{-3}.V_3/(\phi.\epsilon_{510}.V_2.t) \text{ [einstein .s$^{-1}$]}$

where ΔA = Absorbance of irradiated actinometer minus absorbance of unirradiated actinometer solution measure at 510 nm.

V₁ = Volumen of irradiated solution.

V2.= Volumen of aliquote taken from irradiated actinometer.

 $V_3 = V$ olumen of volumetric flask where the the complex is prepared.

 ϕ = Quantum yield of actinometer at the given wavelength.

€510 = Molar Extintion Coerfficient of complex Fe⁺⁺-o-Phenanthroline

 $(11100 \, dm^{-3} \, mol^{-1} cm^{-1})$

t = Irradiation Time in seconds.

Uranyl Oxalate Actinometer

Calculation of measured radiant power:

$$P = V.\Delta A.10^{-2}/[CF.t\phi.F.\epsilon]$$

where V = Volumen of irradiated actinometer solution (mL).

 ΔA = Absorbance of irradiated actinometer minus absorbance of unirradiated actinometer solution (measured at 320 nm).

CF = Conversion factor to convert moles of Cerium analyzed to moles of oxalate photolyzed.

t = Time of irradiation (min).

 ϕ = Quantum yield of the actinometer (~ 0.50 at 214 nm).

F = Fraction of incident light absorbed by the actinometer.

 ε = Molar Extintion Coefficient of Ce(IV) solution (5.41 x 10³ dm³ mol⁻¹ cm⁻¹).

The formula reduces to photon flux ϕ_D :

$$\phi_p = \Delta A/(t \cdot \phi) \cdot 2.773 \times 10^{-6} [eintein \times min^{-1}]$$

Fluorescence Quantum Yield Determinations:

$$\phi_f = \phi_S A_i \eta_i I_i / (A_S \eta_S I_S)$$

Where the subscript "i" refers to the sample and the subscript "s" refers to the standard.

A = Maximum of absorbance (in the range 0.05 - 0.2) at the wavelength of excitation.

 $\eta = \text{Refractive index of the solvent used.}$

I = Integration of the gaussian emission band from the fluorescence spectrum.

APPENDIX 2

Decay Law (Singlet Lifetime) Predicted in the Case of a Transient Term:

$$G(t) = A \exp(-at - 2bt^{1/2}),$$

Where $a = 1/\tau_0 + 4\pi R' D_{AQ} N' [Q]$

$$b = 4 (R)^2 x (\pi D_{AQ} N)^{1/2} [Q]$$

R' = Encounter distance between fluorophore and quencher.

D_{AQ} = Mutual Diffusion Coefficient of the fluorophore and quencher.

N = Fraction of excited molecules that emit a fluorescence photon.

[Q] = Concentration of quencher.