

Heterogeneous Catalytic Homocoupling of Terminal Alkynes

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ABSTRACT: The homocoupling of terminal alkynes under heterogeneous
catalysis is tackled in this perspective. The performance of different
unsupported and supported catalysts, primarily based on palladium and
copper, is analyzed from a critical point of view. This type of coupling provides the most direct access to 1,3-diynes, which can be
found in nature and are very important compounds in organic synthesis.2RRR

1. INTRODUCTION

1,3-Diynes are widespread in nature, some of which possess prominent biological activities such as antibacterial, antimicrobial, antifungal, antitumor, anticancer, anti-HIV, or pesticidal properties (Scheme 1).¹ They have been isolated from varied natural sources including plants, fungi, bacteria, marine sponges, and corals. However, dihydromatricaria acid is the unique example of a conjugated diyne secreted by an insect (the soldier beetle). The 1,3-diyne moiety represents an important scaffold in supramolecular chemistry, especially for the construction of molecular boxes as high-efficiency hosts.² In addition, this structural motif plays an important role in the design of advanced materials such as conjugated polymers, liquid crystals, molecular wires or nonlinear optic materials, among others (Scheme 1).^{3,4}

The metal-catalyzed homocoupling of terminal alkynes can be considered the most straightforward route to this type of compounds, though they can be also obtained by homocoupling of various preformed alkynyl organometallics (e.g., organolithium, organomagnesium, organoboron, organosilicon, organotin, or organolead compounds), iodoalkynes, or alkynyltellurides.^{5,6} In particular, the oxidative dimerization of copper(I) acetylides, discovered in 1869 by Glaser,⁷⁻⁹ has recently experienced an intense revival evolving into an array of methods which imply catalytic amounts of the metal.^{5,6,10–13} There is a general upsurge of interest in maximizing the general efficiency of the process by seeking new catalytic systems which are simple (e.g., without palladium and additives such as oxidants or ligands), are environmentally benign (e.g., green solvents or solvent-free systems), minimize the amount of metal, and are recyclable. In this latter respect, heterogeneous catalysts are advantageous over the homogeneous counterparts, offering an easy recovery and recycling as well as enhanced stability.^{14,15} In spite of the wide array of existing methods, the heterogeneously catalyzed homocoupling of terminal alkynes has been scarcely studied. The aim of this perspective is to survey the contributions to the field from a critical point of view, trying to point out the main advantages and disadvantages. To better compare the different methodologies reported, we will focus on those articles which involve heterogeneous catalysts, that is, the catalyst is in the solid

state in the reaction mixture. Some other reusable reaction systems with homogeneous catalysts, $^{16-20}$ though interesting, are out of the scope of this perspective. A recycling symbol accompanying every scheme represents the number of runs in which the catalyst was used in the homocoupling of phenylacetylene (unless otherwise stated).

2. PALLADIUM-CATALYZED HOMOCOUPLING OF ALKYNES

Heterogeneous palladium catalysts have been widely used in coupling reactions because of their recycling properties which make processes more economical and efficient.²¹ In 2005, while studying the Sonogashira reaction, Macquarrie et al. observed that palladium complexes anchored to mesoporous silica promoted the highly selective phenylacetylene homocoupling when 4-iodophenol was used as the Sonogashira partner compound.²² Reactions were carried out in air with 1 mol % Pd in the presence of triethylamine (3 equiv) and undecane (1 equiv, as internal standard) at 70 °C for 12 h (Scheme 2). Interestingly, 2- and 3-iodophenol were unselective whereas the reaction failed with 4-iodoanisole. This unprecedented result was rationalized in terms of 4-iodophenol acting as an oxidizing agent of the intermediate Pd(0) adduct to the catalytically active Pd(II) complex (Scheme 2). The heterogeneous nature of the process was confirmed by the filtration test. The preparation of the catalyst seems rather tedious including the following: (a) preparation of aminopropyl silica, (b) reaction with 2-pyridinecarbaldehyde, (c) drying at 90 °C (overnight), (d) reaction with palladium(II) acetate in acetone (24 h), (e) filtration and washing with acetone, (f) drying in air at 90 °C (overnight), (g) refluxing in ethanol, toluene and then acetonitrile (27 h), and (h) drying in air at 90 °C (overnight). The reusability of the catalyst was only studied in a Sonogashira cross-coupling reaction but not in the alkyne homocoupling, with a partial loss of catalytic activity being observed in the third cycle (>99-53%).

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Scheme 1. Some Examples of Natural and Synthetic 1,3-Diynes

Scheme 2. Homocoupling of Phenylacetylene Catalyzed by Mesoporous-Silica Supported Palladium and the Proposed Catalytic Cycle



Very recently, the group of Yang and Pu prepared a catalyst based on palladium supported on a 1,4-diazabicyclo[2,2,2]octane (DABCO)-functionalized SBA-15 mesoporous silica.²³ The catalyst, which was fully characterized, was composed of palladium nanoparticles (ca. 2–6 nm) in about 3.5:1 Pd(II)/Pd(0) ratio. A variety of aromatic and aliphatic alkynes, including hydroxyl-substituted alkynes, were transformed into the expected 1,3-diynes in moderate-to-high yields using 1 mol % of the SBA-15@DABCO-Pd complex (Scheme 3). The main feature of this article is the fact that reactions proceed at room temperature. However, the presence of stoichiometric DABCO (1 equiv) as a base and CuI (1 mol %) as cocatalyst were found to be crucial to reach high conversions. It is noteworthy that this catalyst could be easily separated by centrifugation and filtration and reused over four cycles without any apparent loss of activity (100–96%). Moreover, additional reaction time (10 h) allowed further catalyst reutilization in a fifth run with quantitative product yield. The only unfavorable criticism to this work is the multistep and rather complex procedure required to obtain the definitive catalyst, including the following: (a) dispersion of SBA-15 in boiling toluene, reaction with (3-chloropropyl)trimethoxysilane (24 h), filtration, Soxhlet extraction with CH₂Cl₂, and drying at 70 °C (5 h); (b) refluxing of the resulting solid (SBA-15@Cl) with DABCO









in acetone under Ar (24 h), filtration, Soxhlet extraction with CH_2Cl_2 (overnight), and drying at 50 °C (4 h); (c) refluxing of the obtained powder (SBA-15@DABCO) with Pd(OAc)₂ in acetone at 50 °C (5 h), filtration, washing three times with Et₂O and MeOH, and drying under air.

Jiang et al. developed another palladium-copper cocatalyzed homocoupling of terminal alkynes involving a palladium complex immobilized on a PS-PEG₄₀₀-PPh₂ resin.²⁴ Sodium percarbonate (3 equiv) was used as the oxidant in aqueous acetonitrile, with the latter playing a key role for the reaction to succeed. Reactions were performed at room temperature with relatively high catalyst loading (10 mol % Pd and 6 mol % CuI) and were compatible with the presence of hydroxy, chloro, trimethylsilyl, and ester functionalities (Scheme 4). Some other more sensitive functional groups (e.g., carbon-carbon double bonds, carbonyl, amino, cyano, thioether groups, etc.) are expected to be oxidized by sodium percarbonate.25,26 The catalyst was reused in five runs for the homocoupling of 2methyl-3-butyn-2-ol, with a decline in activity (100-58%) which was ascribed to palladium leaching from the resin and/or physical destruction of the polymer matrix by stirring. In the proposed mechanism, the in situ generated copper acetylide is transmetalated into a dialkynyl palladium(II) intermediate

which, eventually, undergoes reductive elimination to the diyne and Pd(0). Sodium percarbonate was suggested to act both as a base, in the generation of the acetylide, and as a reoxidazing agent for the Pd(0) species to Pd(II) (Scheme 5). We must underline that the PS-PEG₄₀₀-PPh₂ resin is not commercially





Scheme 6. Homocoupling of Alkynes Catalyzed by Pd/C-CuI







available, but must be synthesized from PS-PEG-NH₂ resin through (a) conditioning with solvents (MeCN and CH_2Cl_2); (b) reaction with paraformaldehyde and diethylphosphane (65 °C under argon in toluene); (c) successive washing with MeOH, MeCN, and CH_2Cl_2 ; and (d) drying.²⁷

A more environmentally benign protocol was introduced by the group of Sajiki in which, symmetrical 1,3-diynes were synthesized by oxidative dimerization of terminal alkynes with heterogeneous $Pd/C-CuI.^{28}$ Low palladium loadings were generally used (0.01 mol % for aromatic alkynes, 0.03 mol % for aliphatic alkynes), together with CuI (3 mol %) in dimethylsulfoxide (DMSO) at room temperature, under an atmosphere of molecular oxygen (balloon) (Scheme 6). Under these conditions, high yields of the corresponding diynes were obtained, though the reaction of phenyl propargyl sulfide required an extra amount of palladium (0.5 mol %) to overcome the poisoning effect of sulfur. A modified method, involving air instead of molecular oxygen, was shown to be equally effective in the presence of higher amounts of palladium (0.05-0.3 mol %). Moreover, this method was applicable to a larger-scale reaction of 50 mmol of the alkyne. Apparently, reutilization of supported palladium was not attempted, but it would be recommended to study this possibility for those reactions carried out with larger amounts of catalyst.

3. COPPER-CATALYZED HOMOCOUPLING OF ALKYNES

The development of catalysts that do not require precious metals should be a priority in modern research because (a) nonprecious metals are about 100 to 1000 fold cheaper than precious metals, because of their higher abundance; (b) the use of specialized and expensive organic ligands can be often avoided, and (c) in some cases, the environmental and toxicological impact can be minimal.²⁹ In this sense, copper

Perspective









has demonstrated to supplant noble metals in diverse organic reactions, with a notable success in coupling reactions.^{30–33} The application of copper nanoparticles in coupling reactions is an emerging area which benefits from the advantageous features of metal nanoparticles.³⁴ Additional advantages of the nanocatalysis can be obtained by immobilization of metal nanoparticles on high-surface-area inorganic supports, allowing a higher stability and dispersion of the particles as well as a further exploitation of the special activity and recycling properties of the catalyst.^{35–39}

3.1. Unsupported Copper Catalysts. To the best of our knowledge, Radivoy et al. reported the first homocoupling of terminal alkynes promoted by copper nanoparticles.⁴⁰ The copper(0) nanoparticles $(3.0 \pm 1.5 \text{ nm})$ were readily generated from anhydrous copper(II) chloride, lithium metal, and a catalytic amount of 4,4'-di-tert-butylbiphenyl (DTBB, 2.5 mol %) as electron carrier, in tetrahydrofuran (THF) at room temperature. The homocoupling reaction was conducted with a large excess of copper nanoparticles (4 equiv) in refluxing THF under a nitrogen atmosphere, furnishing a wide range of diaryland dialkyl-substituted 1,3-diynes in moderate-to-high yields (Scheme 7). The generally longer reaction times required for alkyl-substituted alkynes, in comparison with the aryl counterparts, was attributed to partial agglomeration of the nanoparticles (15-30 nm) upon prolonged heating. It is worth noting that the addition of sodium carbonate (1.0 equiv) improved the reaction rate while allowing the use of a substoichiometric amount of CuNPs (0.5 equiv). The presence

of the base was related to the deprotonation of the alkyne prior to the formation of alkynyl-CuNPs species, in a similar manner as suggested by Rothenberg and co-workers in Sonogashira-type reactions.⁴¹ The CuNPs were not recovered, and it remains ill-defined whether Cu(0) or some other species are the true catalyst since half of the required amount of reductant for CuCl₂ was employed.

An efficient and simple approach to the homocoupling of terminal alkynes was presented by Chen et al. using CuCl₂ (3 mol %) and Et₃N (3 mol %) in air, at 60 °C under solvent-free conditions.⁴² A variety of functional groups were resistant to these conditions, though modest yields were recorded for propargyl alcohol derivatives (Scheme 8). The reaction crudes could be purified by reduced pressure distillation, with this method being more environmentally benign than column chromatography. Furthermore, this methodology was extended to the cross-coupling of two different terminal alkynes by using a 6-fold excess of one of the alkynes (Scheme 9). In this case, modest-to-good yields were attained after purification by column chromatography. The catalyst was recovered, after dichloromethane addition, by filtration, acidification, and drying under vacuum. Some decrease in the activity was observed after five cycles, with an average catalyst recovery of about 80%.

3.2. Supported Copper Catalysts. In 1995, Baiker and co-workers presented a copper-containing hydrotalcite as a heterogeneous catalyst for the homocoupling of phenyl-acetylene.⁴³ The Cu–Mg–Al hydrotalcite-derived catalyst was prepared by the coprecipitation method from $Cu(NO_3)_2$,

 $Mg(NO_3)_{22}$, and $Al(NO_3)_3$ at 60 °C, in the presence of Na_2CO_3 . The precipitate was successively subjected to filtration, washing with water, drying at 90 °C (48 h), and calcination at 400 °C (under vacuum, 4 h). The homocoupling of phenylacetylene was effected in a stainless steel autoclave containing dry NaOH dissolved in butanol under 0.5–2 MPa oxygen pressure at 60 °C (Scheme 10). No conversion was

Scheme 10. Homocoupling of Phenylacetylene Catalyzed by a Cu–Mg–Al Hydrotalcite



observed in the absence of the base, with the intrinsic basicity of the hydrotalcite being insufficient for deprotonating phenylacetylene. An optimum 85% conversion-selectivity was reached at a about $[NaOH] = 0.15 \text{ mol } L^{-1}$, whereas higher concentrations led to an increase in the formation of soluble copper hydroxide species. A prominent rise in the conversion was caused by increasing the oxygen pressure from 0.5 to 1.0 MPa. However, when compared with other heterogeneous methodologies, the whole procedure and equipment required is rather sophisticated. The substrate scope was limited to phenylacetylene and, though presented as a heterogeneous catalyst, no comment was made about its reutilization capability.

In contrast with the aforementioned report, the group of Jiang prepared a highly recyclable hydrotalcite for the homocoupling of alkynes at room temperature.⁴⁴ In this case, a Cu–Al hydrotalcite was obtained similarly as above, with the catalyst being finally dried overnight at 80 °C in air without calcination. Alkyne homocoupling was accomplished with stoichiometric amounts of TMEDA (1 equiv) and catalyst (1.1 equiv) in MeCN at 25 °C for 4 h (Scheme 11). Good

yields of the corresponding diynes were attained in all cases, including the presence of hydroxy, silane, or conjugate ester functionalities. The catalyst was recovered by filtration and exhibited excellent recyclability, with a slight decrease in the yield being observed only after the eight cycle (88–86% in 8 cycles, 76% ninth cycle). The recovered catalyst must be dried at 80 °C before each run, though the main challenge for this methodology should be to diminish the amount of catalyst.

The group of Pale and Sommer prepared a variety of copper(I)-modified zeolites with which the title reaction was tested.45,46 The authors concluded that Cu(I)-USY was the most efficient catalyst, behaving as an acidic Glaser-type catalyst [i.e., the rate increased with increasing copper(I) concentration]. The reaction efficiency could be directly correlated with the pore size of the zeolite (the larger the pore size, the higher the yield) as well as with the Si/Al ratio (the higher the Si/Al ratio, the higher the yield). Alkyne homocoupling was performed with 30 mol % copper loading in dimethylformamide (DMF) at 110 °C and was successfully accomplished, not only for common substrates but also for some carbohydrate derivatives with a pendant propargyl moiety (Scheme 12). Good-to-excellent yields of the expected diynes were recorded (74-98%), with the exception of two examples which underwent decomposition or oligomerization. One main advantage of this methodology is that the process proceeds in the absence of base; the reaction temperature and catalyst loading are, however, relatively high. Although it was confirmed that no leaching occurred during the reaction, no comment was made with regard to the possibility of catalyst recycling.

Kabalka et al. reported in 2001 the microwave enhanced, solvent free, Glaser coupling reaction on potassium fluoridealumina in the presence of copper(II) chloride.⁴⁷ Although this method benefited from the solvent-free conditions and rapidness of the microwave irradiation (8 min), a large excess of the copper salt was utilized (3.7 equiv) to reach yields of up to 75%. Soon after, the group of Sharifi and Naimi-Jamal, modified this method by using catalytic amounts of a copper halide and alumina under microwave irradiation, getting moderate yields of products.⁴⁸ More recently, this group notably improved the methodology by grinding in a mortar a mixture of the terminal acetylene with KF/Al_2O_3 in the presence of Cu(OAc)₂·H₂O (20 mol %) and morpholine (1.2









Scheme 13. Homocoupling of Alkynes Catalyzed by Cu(OAc)₂-KF/Al₂O₃



equiv).⁴⁹ Under these conditions, the homocoupling was effected at room temperature, leading to the expected diynes in moderate-to-excellent yields (Scheme 13). The substrate scope studied was rather limited, and the reaction time was not clearly specified in every case. Another aspect which remains unclear is whether the copper(II) salt gets adsorbed on KF/ Al_2O_3 or both components operate independently. At any rate, no comment was made regarding the recovery and reusability of the catalyst.

Mizuno et al. described a catalyst for the alkyne homocoupling consisting of copper hydroxide on titania $[Cu(OH)_x/TiO_2, 5 \text{ mol } \% \text{ Cu}]$ which did not require the presence of a base and showed good catalytic activity (0.5 h) in toluene at 100 °C under 1 atm of molecular oxygen.⁵⁰ The catalyst was easily prepared by the impregnation method (calcined titania with an aqueous solution of $CuCl_2 \cdot 2H_2O$), involving the following: pH adjustment to 12 with NaOH, stirring for 24 h, filtration, washing with water, and drying in vacuo. The XPS peaks pointed to +2 as the most probable oxidation state of copper. The base treatment was found indispensible for a high catalytic performance, with the authors suggesting that copper hydroxide species form alkynyl species by abstraction of the alkyne acidic hydrogen. The substrate scope mostly covered hydrocarbon-based alkynes (11 examples), whereas the tolerance toward more reactive functional groups was not studied (Scheme 14). All yields were >80%, albeit they were determined by gas chromatography; isolated yields are preferable to GC yields to assess the practical utility of a given methodology. Different experiments ruled out the participation in the process of leached copper species or free-radical intermediates. Unfortunately, only one recycling experiment was presented in this article, showing a slight decrease in yield (from 90 to 82%). In view of the above data, it is difficult to gauge the potential application of this catalytic system which, in addition, requires rather high temperature in toluene and an atmosphere of molecular oxygen.

The same group above obtained a much more efficient catalyst following the same procedure but changing the TiO_2 support into a manganese oxide-based octahedral molecular sieve (KMn₈O₁₆).⁵¹ The original idea was to use the manganese oxide as an electron mediator for the reoxidation of the copper(I) species. The catalyst reached high values of turnover frequency (TOF) and turnover number (TON) in comparison with other heterogeneous catalysts and could be reused in 14 runs with an excellent performance (98–90%). Reactions were very fast (10 min) and high yielding (73–94%) in toluene at 100 °C under 1 atm of molecular oxygen (Scheme 15). Longer reaction time was required under an air atmosphere, with the









Scheme 16. Homocoupling of Alkynes Catalyzed by SILP



homocoupling of phenylacetylene being quantitative (40 min, >99%). Unfortunately, only this example was reported and, therefore, it is difficult to estimate if other substrates (especially aliphatic alkynes) would behave similarly. The process with molecular oxygen was successfully scaled to one gram of phenylacetylene (94% yield). A difficulty encountered while studying the substrate scope was the variable amounts of catalyst required for different alkynes, including 2, 3, 5, and 10 mol % Cu.

Supported ionic liquid phase (SILP) catalysts consist of homogeneous catalysts or catalysts precursors immobilized in a thin film of an ionic liquid on the surface of a porous carrier material by physisorption, ionic or covalent anchoring.^{52–54} Very recently, the group of Szesni prepared a wide range of SILP catalysts by immobilization of [Cu(TMEDA)(OH)]Cl in a nanometric film of an ionic liquid on various supports.⁵⁵ The homocoupling of phenylacetylene was studied for catalyst screening, using 5 mol % Cu in hexane at room temperature for 72 h under synthetic air. A gradual increase in the activity of the tested catalysts was shown with decreasing surface area of the parent support material, reaching a maximum for medium surface areas (80–180 m² g⁻¹). Thus, the catalytic systems based on silica and bmmim(OTf) (1-butyl-2,3-dimethylimida-zolium triflate) successfully accomplished the homocoupling of

Scheme 17. Homocoupling of Alkynes Catalyzed by CuNPs/TiO₂



Scheme 18. Homocoupling of Alkynes Catalyzed by Ni-MINT



several alkynes and could be reused for at least four times with no appreciable loss of activity (Scheme 16). The filtration test confirmed the process being heterogeneous in nature. The synthesis of the catalyst, thought not a direct one, seems easy despite the fact that the starting copper complex is not commercially available. The methodology is advantageous in the sense that reactions proceed at room temperature. However, the reaction time is excessive (72 h) and the substrate scope covered rather narrow.

Finally, the previously reported methodology based on copper nanoparticles⁴⁰ was substantially upgraded by the group of Alonso and Yus with the introduction of supported nanoparticles.⁵⁶ A variety of copper catalysts were obtained by simply adding the support to a suspension of the CuNPs, with the latter being readily generated from anhydrous copper(II) chloride, lithium metal, and a catalytic amount of 4,4'-di-*tert*-butylbiphenyl (DTBB, 10 mol %) in THF at room temperature.^{57–61} In addition, the supported catalysts did not require any kind of treatment prior to use. The catalyst composed of ultrafine CuNPs/TiO₂ (ca. 1.0 ± 0.4 nm, mainly as Cu₂O, 1 mol % Cu) exhibited the best performance either in THF or without any solvent at 65 °C in the presence of

piperidine (30 mol %), producing a series of 1,3-diynes in high yields (Scheme 17). In general, reactions under solvent-free conditions were faster. This catalyst was found to be much more efficient than other commercially available catalysts based on copper, such as metal copper or the copper chlorides and oxides. Moreover, the catalyst, at low metal loading, could be reused over three cycles with negligible leaching. Different experiments conducted to gain an insight into the reaction mechanism allowed to conclude that alkynyl radicals were not involved in a process which was operationally simple (solvent and oxygen atmosphere were not required) and which, surprisingly, also gave high yields of product in an inert atmosphere.⁶² Although a higher reuse capability would be desirable, we must take into account that the amounts of both catalyst and copper loading utilized were low.

4. OTHER CATALYSTS

The nickel-catalyzed homocoupling of alkynes has been barely reported, normally in the presence of CuI as cocatalyst.^{63,64} Recently, Luque and co-workers prepared metal-containing tubular silica-based nanostructures from tetraethoxyorthosilicate in the presence of a metal salt and dodecylamine in water-

acetonitrile under microwave irradiation (1-15 min, 80-110 $^{\circ}\text{C}\text{)}.^{65}$ Among the metals tested, Ni-MINT (Ni-Microwave Induced NanoTubes) was shown to be the most active catalyst in the homocoupling of phenylacetylene. Six terminal alkynes were subjected to the homocoupling reaction using 5 mol % Ni and 0.5 equiv of DABCO under microwave heating (300 W, 140-170 °C, 15-45 min) (Scheme 18). The conversions and selectivities were high for alkyl-substituted alkynes, whereas the selectivities decreased to 60-80% for phenylacetylene and hydroxy-substituted alkynes. The catalyst could be reused over four consecutive cycles (>95-89% conversion) maintaining good activity with a decline in the selectivity (70-60%). Although the reaction times are relatively short, some more sensitive functional groups might not tolerate the high temperatures applied, giving undesired side reactions. Indeed, it is our belief that the moderate selectivity attained in half of the examples studied could be attributable to partial cyclotrimerization of the alkyne, given that nickel can promote this type of reaction. This side reaction might hamper the applicability of the catalytic system since the separation of such a hydrocarbon mixture would be troublesome.

5. CONCLUDING REMARKS

The homocoupling of alkynes under heterogeneous catalysis offers easy recovery and reuse of the catalyst as major advantages with respect to the homogeneous counterpart. In this context, some heterogeneous palladium catalysts have been devised, mostly as immobilized complexes. Although low palladium loading is generally used, the high price of this precious metal and the need for copper cocatalysis has led to the displacement of palladium in favor of copper as the metal of choice. The long and tedious procedures required for palladium immobilization, together with the large amounts of solvents utilized during the catalyst preparation, are additional inconveniences that curtail the practical application of these methodologies. Certainly, copper catalysts are much more attractive because they can provide similar or even superior performance at a lower cost with simpler protocols. In particular, the supported copper catalysts are especially interesting because the separation from the reaction mixture is easier and they can be highly effective at low metal loading. Notwithstanding these advantages, the following general guidelines might be considered to design more efficient heterogeneous catalytic systems for the alkyne homocoupling, namely, (a) easy to implement and cost-effective methods for catalyst preparation; (b) relatively low catalyst loadings, preferably <5 mol %; (c) use of ecofriendly solvents or solvent-free reactions; (d) air as the natural oxidant instead of molecular oxygen or other chemical oxidants; (e) the absence of base or use of substoichiometric amounts of base; (f) reactions at room temperature or below 100 °C at least; and (g) scalable reactions. In addition, the cross-coupling of two different terminal alkynes is a challenging issue not properly addressed yet which, together with the aforementioned requirements, leaves enough play for originality and creativity in the field.

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Notes

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