[q5-(Hydroxydiphenylmethyl)cyclopentadienyl]dicarbonylnitrosylchromium (16). In a manner similar to that described above, phenylmagnesium bromide, prepared from magnesium (0.078 g, 3.2 mmol) and bromobenzene (0.53 g, 3.3 mmol) in 6 mL of ethyl ether, was allowed to react with $(\eta^5$ **benzoylcyclopentadieny1)dicarbonylnitrosylchromium** (0.500 g, 1.6 mmol) in 6 mL of ethyl ether to give, after the usual workup, 0.395 g **(64%)** of 16 **as** a **red,** crystalline eolid. An **analytical** sample was obtained by sublimation under high vacuum at 100 °C: mp 115-116 °C; IR (KBr) 3575 (m), 3400 (m), 2015 (vs), 1935 (vs), 1695 (vs), 1480 (m), 1440 (w), 1315 (m), 1225 (w), 1160 (m), 1080 (m), 1025 (m), 1005 (m), 945 (w), 920 (w), 885 (w), 830 (m), 760 (s), 745 (s), 698 (vs), 664 (m), 625 **(8)** cm-l; 'H NMR (CDC13) *⁶* H, s, Ph); mass spectrum, *m/e* 385 (M'). 2.56 (1 **H**, **s**, OH), 4.88 (2 **H**, **t**, **H**_{3,4}), 5.08 (2 **H**, **t**, **H**_{2,5}), 7.22 (10)

Anal. Calcd for C₂₀H₁₅CrNO₄: C, 62.33; H, 3.92. Found: C, 62.44; H, 4.11.

(**q6-Isopropenylcyclopentadienyl)dicarbonylnitrosyl**chromium (18). [n⁵-(1-Hydroxy-1-methylethyl)cyclo**pentadienyl]dicarbonylnitrosylchromium** (3.31 g, 12.7 mmol), p-toluenesulfonic acid (0.60 g, 3.2 mmol), and 10 mg of hydroquinone were dissolved in 100 mL of benzene. The mixture was refluxed for 2 h with continual removal of water, and then the solvent was removed under vacuum. The resulting oil was extracted with hexane and fitered through silica gel by eluting with hexane and then hexane-ether 51. The solvent was removed under vacuum to give 2.5 g (81%) of 18 as a red liquid: bp 90-92 **OC** (0.5 torr); IR (neat) 3100 (w), 2950 (w), 2020 (vs), 1945 (vs), 1695 (vs), 1475 (w), 1440 (w), 1380 (w), 1300 (w), 1160 (w), 1040 (w), 895 (m), 825 (m), 678 (m), 640 **(8)** cm-'; 'H NMR (CDC13) δ 1.80 (3 H, d, CH₃), 4.8-5.0 (3 H, m, H_{3,4} and vinyl), 5.1-5.25 (3 H, m, $H_{2,5}$ and vinyl); mass spectrum, m/e 243 (M⁺).

Anal. Calcd for $C_{10}H_9CrNO_3$: C, 49.39; H, 3.73; N, 5.76. Found: C, 49.31; **H,** 3.90; N, 5.94.

[q5-(2-Formyl- **1-chlorovinyl)cyclopentadienyl]di**carbonylnitrosylchromium (26). Phosphorus oxychloride (3.3) mL, 35.5 mmol) was added dropwise to 20 mL of dimethylformamide cooled to 0 "C. To this mixture was added dropwise (**~5-acetylcyclopentadienyl)dicarbonylnitrosylchromium** (2.90 g, 11.8 mmol) dissolved in 10 mL of dimethylformamide. The solution was stirred at 0 °C for 15 min and 25 °C for 5 h and then poured into cold sodium acetate solution (20%, 100 mL) and stirred for another 2 h. The mixture was poured into water and extracted thoroughly with methylene chloride. The combined extracts were washed well with water and dried over magnesium sulfate. The solution was filtered, 20 g of silica gel was added, and the solvent was removed under vacuum. The residue was added to a dry-packed column (4 **X** 8 cm) of silica gel. Elution of the column with ethyl ether gave a red band which upon removal of the solvent under vacuum gave 1.3 g (38%) of 26. An analytical sample was obtained by several recrystallizations from ethyl ether-hexane to give red plates: mp 106-107.5 °C; IR (KBr) 2020 (s), 1950 (s), 1700 (s), 1650 (s), 1600 (w), 1265 (w), 1115 (m), 930 (w), 820 (w), 615 (m) cm⁻¹; ¹H NMR (CDCl₃) δ 5.25 (2 H, t, H_{3,4}), 5.74 (2 H, t, H_{2,5}), 6.45 (1 H, d, olefin), 10.19 (1 H, d, aldehyde).

Anal. Calcd for $C_{10}H_6CrCINO_4$: C, 41.20; H, 2.07; N, 4.80. Found: C, 41.60; **H,** 2,21; N, 4.63:

(η^5 -Ethynylcyclopentadienyl)dicarbonylnitrosyl-
chromium (27). [η^5 -(2-Formyl-1-chlorovinyl)cyclo-[η^5 -(2-Formyl-1-chlorovinyl)cyclo**pentadienyl]dicarbonylnitrosylchromium** (1.0 g, 3.4 mmol) was dissolved in 20 mL of dioxane and heated to reflux. To the refluxing solution was added 20 **mL** of hot **0.5** N sodium hydroxide solution, and refluxing was continued for an additional 30 min. The solution was poured into ice water, acidified with dilute hydrochloric acid, and extracted into ether. The ether extracts were combined, washed well with water, dried over magnesium sulfate, and filtered. The ether was removed under vacuum to give 0.6 g (77%) of **27** as a red oil: bp 72-75 "C (0.5 **torr);** IR (neat) 3305 (m), 3020 (w), **2960** (w), 2010 (s), 1975 (s), 1715 (s), 1470 (w), 1255 (w), 830 (m), 640 (s) cm⁻¹; ¹H NMR (CDCl₃) δ 2.80 (1 H, s, ethynyl), 4.94 (2 H, t, $H_{3,4}$), 5.28 (2 H, t, $H_{2,5}$).

Anal. Calcd for C₉H₅CrNO₃: C, 47.57; H, 2.22; N, 6.17. Found: C, 47.55; **H,** 2.46; N, 5.87.

Determination of the pK_a of $(\eta^5$ -Carboxycyclo**pentadieny1)dicarbonylnitrosylchromium** (9). Ten-milliliter solutions of 0.003 M (η^5 -carboxycyclopentadienyl)dicarbonylnitrosylchromium in water were titrated with 0.5 N sodium hydroxide at 23 °C. The pK_a was obtained experimentally from the titration curve by determining the pH at half-neutralization. The titrations were made on a Radiometer Titrigraph, Type SBR2c, Copenhagen **(US.** distributor, The London Co., Westlake, **Ohio)** coupled with the Radiometer Titrator I1 and pH Meter 25 with a combination glass electrode. It was necessary to connect a ground wire from the chassis of the Titrigraph to that of the Titrator 11. The Titrigraph **was** coupled by its flexible drive shaft to a 0.5-mL syringe which delivered the titrant into the stirred sample. The pK_a was determined to be 5.1 \pm 0.15.

Acknowledgment is made to the donors of the Petroleum Research Fund, administered by the American Chemical Society, for support of this research program.

Registry **No.** 1, 36312-04-6; 6, 72346-80-6; **7,** 72346-81-7; 8, 72346-82-8; 9,72360-41-9; 10,64539-47-5; 12,72346-83-9; 13,72346- 84-0; 14,72346-85-1; 15,72346-86-2; 16,72346-87-3; 18,72346-88-4; 24, 72346-89-5; 25, 72346-90-8; 26, 72346-91-9; 27, 72346-92-0; cyclopentadiene, 542-92-7; chromium hexacarbonyl, 13007-92-6; *N***methyl-N-nitroso-p-toluenesulfonamide,** 80-1 1-5; benzoyl chloride, 98-88-4; phenylacetyl chloride, 103-80-0; methyl chlorothioformate, 18369-83-0.

Transition-Metal-Catalyzed Reactions of Diazo Compounds. 1. Cyclopropanation of Double Bonds

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Received October 11, 1979

Rhodium(I1) and palladium(I1) carboxylates are efficient catalysts for the cyclopropanation of olefins by diazo **eaters.** Intramolecular competitions within diolefins and intermolecular competitions between pairs of monoolefins showed quite different cyclopropanation selectivities with the above-mentioned metal derivatives. Rhodium essentially promotes a carbenoid mechanism involving an electrophilic attack of uncomplexed olefins, while a determinant olefin coordination is observed with palladium. By comparison, the classical copper derivatives are essentially borderline cases: most often they behave **as** carbenoid catalysts, except when associated with very weak ligands such **as** in copper triflate. The synthetic usefulness of these reactions is emphasized in terms of their high efficiency and regioselectivity.

The reactions of carbenes or carbenoids generated by metal-catalyzed decomposition of diazo compounds are now of major synthetic importance. The historical significance of copper catalysis in this field needs no em $phasis$ ¹ although a variety of metal species² promotes the cyclopropanation of olefins to some extent. This dominance by copper has been strongly challenged by the recent introduction of some group 8 metals 3 that appear to be synthetically useful. The relevance of metal-olefin coordination in the copper-catalyzed cyclopropanation has been extensively discussed. As the understanding of the reaction developed, it appeared that two different mechanisms might be involved, possibly **as** competitive pathways, one for which metal-olefin coordination is a key factor and the other a bimolecular process with metal-carbenoid species attacking uncomplexed olefins. Kochi's recent work4 indicated the former type of mechanism to be operative in the particular case of copper(1) trifluoromethanesulfonate (copper triflate, CuTf). In order to gain a further understanding of these reactions and also to widen their synthetic utility, we have undertaken a systematic search for new catalysts. With the hope of diversifying the selectivities, we have been testing the following general types of metal complexes: (a) complexes containing only one single coordination site per metal (in order to favor carbenoid reactions), and (b) complexes with several available sites for strong coordination of olefins (in order to promote coordination reactions).

Results and Discussion

A. The Catalysts. After screening many examples, rhodium(I1) carboxylates and palladium(I1) derivatives were tentatively retained as models of type a and b catalysts, respectively. They were compared with $CuTf₂$, a recently introduced and efficient catalyst⁵ for the cyclopropanation of olefins.

Rhodium(I1) carboxylates are diamagnetic complexes with only one coordination site per metal.⁶ They form stable adducts with basic ligands but not with olefins. On the contrary, the propensity of palladium derivatives to complex olefins is well-known.⁷ Because of the extraordinarily poor coordinating ability of triflate anions, copper triflate seems particularly suited to promote the complexation of other ligands, especially in its reduced form [Cu(I)]. Each metal complex used in this study is air stable, promotes a fast decomposition of diazo esters at room temperature, and is at least moderately soluble in olefins (see Experimental Section). Hereafter, Pd-CH₃,

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^{*a*} Reaction conditions: 22 °C; styrene, 3×10^{-2} mol; catalyst, 10^{-5} mol; diazo ester, 2×10^{-3} mol. Abbreviations (for all the tables): MDA, EDA, and BDA refer respectively to methyl, ethyl, and n-butyl diazoacetate. Mixture of ethyl *cis-* and trans-2-phenylcyclopropanecarboxylate; yields based on EDA. ^c Ratio of area in the GLC peaks.

 $Rh-CH₃$, Rh-Piv, Rh-n-Bu, and Rh-CF₃ are used as abbreviations for the corresponding carboxylates $\rm (CH_3\; in$ dicates the acetate, Piv the trimethylacetate (pivalate), n -Bu the butyrate, and CF_3 the trifluoroacetate).

No modifications of the metal oxidation state were detected by EPR after addition of ethyl diazoacetate (EDA) to solutions of palladium(I1) and rhodium(I1) acetates in 1-octene and in styrene.⁸ In contrast with CuTf₂ as catalyst, we observed the disappearance of the EPR signals of the $Cu(II)$ ions. Although the occurrence of $Cu(II)$ species at the active catalytic site is well documented in several cases,⁹ our findings are in agreement with Kochi's results4 and also with our previous EPR and polarographic observations that EDA reduces $Cu(II)$ to $Cu(I)$ in unsaturated nitriles.¹⁰

B. Relative Efficiencies of the Catalysts. Table **I** shows the results of the cyclopropanation of styrene with a variety of metal derivatives as catalysts. Cu-Tf₂, Pd-CH₃, and rhodium(I1) carboxylates are among the most efficient complexes for this reaction. In contrast, Table I1 shows that Pd -CH₃ is not very efficient for the cyclopropanation of internal olefins (entries 2-8, best yields below **25%)** or of dienes (entries 20-24, best yields below 40%). Nevertheless, some 4-substituted styrenes (entries 27-31) and strained cyclic or bicyclic olefins such as cyclopentene, norbornene (NB), or norbornadiene (NBD) are notable exceptions to this generalization.

Rh-CH, very efficiently catalyzes the cyclopropanation of mono- as well **as** polyolefins, substituted or not (Table I1 and ref 3i). Internal strain has little or no effect. Cis olefins give somewhat better yields than their trans isomers but with a strong dependence on the catalyst counterion³ⁱ

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Table II. Relative Efficiency of Pd, Cu, and Rh Catalysts for the Cyclopropanation of Olefins by Diazo Esters^c

			yield, %		
entry	olefin	diazo ester	$Pd(O_2CMe)$ ₂	CuTf ₂	$Rh_2(O_2CMe)_4$
$\mathbf{1}$	1-hexene	MDA	30	36	86
2	cis-2-butene	MDA	24		54
3	trans-2-butene	MDA	21		
4	$cis-3$ -hexene	MDA			56
		EDA	15	15	
		BDA			98
5	cis-2-octene	MDA	5	40	65
		BDA			90
6	trans-2-octene	MDA	$\overline{2}$	14	24
		BDA			70
7	trans-4-octene	MDA	12	8	7
		BDA			70
8	2,3-dimethyl-2-butene (TME)	EDA	5	30	70
9	cyclopentene	EDA	60	60	95
10	cyclohexene	MDA	15		80
		EDA	21	54	88
		BDA	19		89
11	cycloheptene	EDA	40	30	75
12	cyclooctene	EDA	${\bf 20}$	28	95
13	styrene	EDA	98	80	90
14	indene	EDA	20	55	71
15	norbornene	EDA	87	95	95
16	vinyl acetate	EDA	5	22	77
17	ethyl vinyl ether	EDA	42	0^a	85
18	dimethyl maleate	EDA	traces	traces	traces
19	dihydropyran	EDA	20	55	71
20	$1,3$ -pentadiene	EDA	35, 13 ^b	66, $16b$	$73, 23^b$
21	isoprene	EDA	$37, 11^b$	25, 49 ^b	36,57 ^b
22	1,5-hexadiene	EDA	37	60	80
23	1,3-cyclohexadiene	EDA	18	53	90
24	1,5-cyclooctadiene (COD)	EDA	10	25	64
25	norbornadiene (NBD)	EDA	95	47	88
26	α -methylstyrene	EDA	42		
27	4-methylstyrene		81		
28	4-methoxystyrene		79		
29	4-chlorostyrene		86		
30	4-nitrostyrene		77		
31	2-nitrostyrene		73		
32	4-(dimethylamino) styrene		0		
33	1,1-diphenylstyrene		0		
34	trans-1,2-diphenylstyrene		$\mathbf 0$		
35	4-vinylpyridine		0		
36	1-vinylimidazole		$\overline{0}$		

^a The starting material polymerizes. ^b Respectively for mono- and disubstituted double bond. ^c Same experimental conditions as in Table I.

and on the diazo ester used (Table 11, entries **4-7).** In general, butyl diazoacetate (BDA) gives better results than its lower homologues methyl and ethyl diazoacetates (MDA and EDA, respectively).

Copper triflate usually displays an intermediate efficiency when compared to the other catalysts (Table 11, entries 1, 5, 10, 19, **24).**

C. Palladium. Importance **of Olefin** Coordination. The most striking differences in selectivities of palladium-catalyzed cyclopropanations are observed in intermolecular competitions between olefins of different coordinating power. Those results are summarized in Table 111. The overall trend observed in noncompetitive experiments is confirmed: strained olefins (Table 111, entries 1, 3, 5, 13, 16) or conjugated olefins such as styrene are preferred in competitions. Terminal alkenes are more reactive than internal isomers or homologues (entries 4, 6, **7,** 9). In intramolecular competitions, the less substituted bond is regioselectively cyclopropanated, as expected from steric requirements for a mechanism involving initial π complexation of the olefinic substrate (Table 11, entries 20 and **21;** ratios of mono- to disubstituted double bonds cyclopropanated are $1,3$ -pentadiene = 2.7 and isoprene = 3.4).

The scope and limitations of Pd-catalyzed cyclopropanations are further detailed in Table IV. Together with the competition results, Table IV quotes the **com**plexation constants, *K*, with silver for the olefins,¹² as well as their rate constants, *k*, for 1,3-dipolar addition with picryl azide.13 It is apparent that for an olefin, a high *K* value corresponds to a high reactivity toward carbene addition (but for 1,5-cyclooctadiene, vide infra). Accordingly, Figure 1 plots a few examples of olefin coordination constants K with $Ni(0)^{14}$ against their relative reactivities in competitive cyclopropanations. Here also, a direct relationship between reactivity and coordinating ability is clearly evidenced. Besides, the relative reactivity of cyclic olefins approximately follows the same order as that observed by Stille for olefin carbonylation, a Pd-catalyzed reaction which is clearly π -complex controlled.¹¹

Figure **2** plots the results of Pd- and Rh-catalyzed competitions between various olefins and l-hexene against the

⁽¹²⁾ Because of the scarcity of palladium-olefin formation constants, values for Ag complexes were used instead in Table IV. However, the decrease of π -complex stability caused by substitution of the double bond **is more significant with Pd, and steric effects should accordingly play a greater role in Pd-catalyzed reactions. (a) M. A. Muhs and F. T. Weiss,** J. Am. Chem. Soc., 84, 4697 (1962). (b) F. R. Hartley, Chem. Rev., 73, 163 (1973). (c) W. Partenheimer, J. Am. Chem. Soc., 98, 2779 (1976). (13) A. S. Bailey and J. E. White, J. Chem. Soc., B, 819 (1966).

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^a Experimental conditions: same as in Table I except that there is 2×10^{-2} mol of each olefin. $b \Delta B/\Delta A =$ yield ratio of cyclopropanation products of olefins A and B. The values in parentheses correspond to the yiel for each 0.5 mol of diolefin.

Figure 1. Correlation between coordination constants on nick $el(0)^{14}$ and relative reactivities of olefins for Pd-CH₃ catalyzed cyclopropanations: (14) K for trans-2-hexene, $X = trans-2$ -octene; (15) K for cis-2-hexene, $X = cis-2$ -octene; the other numbers refer
to the olefins reported in Table I.

dipolarophilicity of the same olefins.¹³ It shows a correlation between k (1,3-dipole) for an olefin and the relative reactivity of the olefin against 1-hexene for the Pd catalysts. On the contrary, Rh promotes a practically random attack of the olefins, further evidence that the two types of catalysis proceed through basically different mechanistic pathways.

Upon addition of 3 mol % (relative to the olefin) of methyl maleate or fumarate to the otherwise quite reactive styrene or norbornene, a sharp drop in the yields of cyclopropanes is observed. The decrease in yield is related to the coordinating ability of the diester which is greater

Figure 2. Correlation between the 1,3-dipolar reactivity of olefins (toward picryl azide) and the relative rates of the palladium (\bullet) and rhodium acetate (A) catalyzed cyclopropanations: (1) vinyl acetate, (2) 1-hexyne, (3) cyclohexene, (4) 1,5-cyclooctadiene, (5) cis-2-octene, trans-2-octene, and trans-4-octene, (6) 1-hexene, (7) styrene, (8) cycloheptene, (9) cyclooctene, (10) cyclopentene, (11) 4,5-dihydropyran, (12) norbornene, (13) norbornadiene.

for the cis (maleate) than the trans (fumarate) olefinic inhibitor (cf. neat styrene, 95% cyclopropanation; styrene plus 3 mol% of ethyl maleate, 49%; styrene plus 3 mol% of ethyl fumarate, 72%; neat norbornene, 87%; norbornene plus 3 mol % of ethyl maleate, 77%). Therefore, maleate and fumarate effectively compete with the olefins and the diazo ester for coordination to palladium.

It is also evident that chelating diolefins do not follow the same trend as conjugated olefins or monoolefins:

Cyclopropanation of Double Bonds

Table IV. Competitive Cyclopropanations between 1-Hexene and Olefin X Catalyzed by Palladium Acetate^a

		yield of cyclopropane, %			
olefin X	1-hexene	X	$X:1$ -hexene ratio	$K_{\mathbf{A}\mathbf{g}^+}{}^b$	$k(1,3$ -dipole) ^c
1-hexene	30			4.3	1.0×10^{-5} d
1-dodecene	29	25	0.36		6.6×10^{-5} d
trans-4-octene	19	4	0.21	0.5	
trans-2-octene	15	5	0.33	0.4	4.61×10^{-6} e
cis-2-octene	18	6	0.33	$2.2\,$	
styrene	30	54	1.8	14	$1.05\times\,10^{\,\texttt{-5}}$
tetramethylethylene	23	3	0.12	0.1	
cyclopentene	17	21	1,2	7.3	1.08×10^{-4}
cyclohexene	24	6	0.25	3.6	2.55×10^{-6}
cycloheptene	13	17	1.3	12.8	1.36×10^{-4}
cyclooctene	11	8.5	0.76	14.4	9.32×10^{-5}
norbornene (NB)	6	40	6.4	62	2.04×10^{-2}
norbornadiene (NBD)	1.5	37	26	33.7	1.70×10^{-2}
1,5-cyclooctadiene (COD)	30	5.5	0.19	75.0	3.47×10^{-6}
vinyl acetate ^f	$22\,$	1.5	0.07		1.29×10^{-6}
1 -hexyne I	7.5	1.0	0.12		7.88×10^{-7}
dihydropyran	38	38	1.0		9.59×10^{-4}

^a Same experimental conditions as in Table I except that there is 2×10^{-2} mol of each olefin. ^b From ref 12. ^c From ref 13. d Values for 1-pentene and 1-octene, respectively. e Value for "2-octene", isomer not precisely known. f Competition with 1-octene instead of 1-hexene.

1,5-cyclooctadiene (COD) is only poorly cyclopropanated (either neat or in competition) relative to norbornadiene (NBD, Table II, entries 24 and 25, and Table III, entry 14), although the heats of reaction of these two olefins with bis(benzonitrile) palladium dichloride appear to be very similar.¹⁵

Rather, the reactivity of a bidentate olefin is related to the presence of at least one strained double bond. The poor reactivity of chelating cycloolefins toward cis attack has been attributed¹⁶ to the inability of the chelate to rotate 90° from a position perpendicular to the square plane of the metal complex to a position which would favor cis addition of the carbene to a ligand attached to the metal. The above statement is not in opposition with the difference in reactivity between strained diolefins (such as NBD) and a true chelating one (COD), as the solutions of complexes of the former consist of mixtures of monoand dicoordinated species.¹⁴ The mono species could account for the difference in reactivity with true chelates.¹⁷

Furthermore, a mechanism in which a palladium-coordinated carbene (or diazo ester) reacts with an olefin coordinated to the same metal in a fashion reminiscent of a "cis rearrangement" (possibly via the formation of a metallacyclobutane) fits best the data at hand.

D. Rhodium. Importance of Out-of-Sphere Carbenoid Reactions. Rhodium catalysts are extremely efficient for cyclopropanating almost any kind of alkene (Table II). The lack of reactivity of electron-poor olefins (e.g., methyl maleate) is a notable exception. The substrate-coordinating ability and/or dipolarophilicity have little or no effect (Figure 1). In intermolecular competition studies, Rh catalysts are poorly discriminating, even between strained and unstrained olefins (Table III, entries

Table V. Competition between Styrene (S) and Norbornene $(NB)^a$

cyclo- propanated S	cyclo- propanated NΒ	S:NB ratio
19	4	4.75
30	7	4.29
33	10	3.3
21	7	3
65	26	2.5
34	53	0.64
26	41	0.63
11	45	0.24
11	85	0.13
		vield, %

^a Same experimental conditions as in Table I except that there is 2×10^{-2} mol of each olefin; the diazo ester is EDA. ^b Catalyst prepared according to ref 4, 1.1×10^{-4}
mol. ^c 2.2 × 10⁻⁴ mol.

1, 13, 14). This behavior is reminiscent of purely electrophilic reactions.¹⁹ The high reactivity of electron-rich olefins (Table III, entries 2, 12) and the preference for cis-disubstituted over terminal olefins in competitions (Table III, entries 4, 7) are all indicative of the importance of electronic factors. Steric factors are not determinant, even if they are effective to some extent (Table III, entries $9, 15).$

The difference between Rh -C H_3 and Pd -C H_3 is further illustrated by the results of intramolecular competitions in conjugated dienes. With Rh-CH₃, the electron-rich double bond (monosubstituted in 1,3-pentadiene and disubstituted in isoprene;¹⁸ Table II, entries 20, 21) is regioselectively cyclopropanated (different with Pd-CH₃, see section C). Since rhodium (II) carboxylates have only one vacant coordination site per metal, a simultaneous coordination of the olefin and diazo ester (or carbene) seems unlikely. The above facts can be accommodated by postulating an attack of an electrophilic carbenoid by the olefin. Support for this mechanism comes from the apparent activation parameters of the Rh-CH₃ catalyzed cyclopropanation of styrene by EDA. We find that the

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⁽¹⁷⁾ Interestingly, the reactivity of chelated substrates was shown by NMR not to be important, even in the presence of a significant excess of diazo ester (up to 4 times the stoichiometric amount). When MDA is added to a solution of η^3 -allylpalladium chloride dimer, PdCl₂-COD, or ature of MDA is used. Moreover, the ligands are not modified unless a large
excess of MDA is used. Moreover, the last two catalysts decompose the diazo compound at very different rates. PdCl₂·COD is practically inactive at -10 °C whereas the rhodium complex promotes the decomposition at -40 °C, although forming only methyl maleate and fumarate and poly-

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reaction is first order in catalyst with $\Delta H^* = 15.0 \pm 0.6$ kcal mol⁻¹ and $\Delta S = -3.1 \pm 2$ eu (0 °C). (See the Experimental Section for details.) This apparent entropy of activation is much higher than that reported for the cyclopropanation of 1-hexene with CuTf⁴ (-8.9 eu at -18 °C), a system in which olefin coordination rather than carbene reactivity largely determines selectivity, and very much higher than the value reported for the formal dimerization of carbene under the influence of Pd-CH₃ (-30 eu at 25 °C); it thus provides further support for a carbenoid mechanism.

E. Copper. A Borderline Case. Copper triflate induces selectivities intermediate between those of the two other catalytic systems (e.g., see entries 1-4 and 9-13 in Table 111), being, however, closer to Rh in its general pattern. This behavior is best explained by postulating a progressive inhibition of the coordination pathway by an increase of the electron density at the metal level due to basic byproducts. The above supposition is supported by the results of competitions between NB and styrene (Table **V).** There, in purely carbenoid mechanisms (e.g., with $Rh-CH_3$ or $Cu(acac)_2$), styrene is definitely preferred to NB, but the selectivity is reversed in favor of the more strongly coordinated NB when coordination mechanisms take over. This is clearly the case with palladium acetate and Cu'Tf. With the latter catalyst, an increase in metal concentration also promotes an enhanced selectivity for the more complexed olefin. $Cu^{II}Tf₂$ shows a selectivity close to that of its reduced form, further proof that the actual catalysts are Cu(1) species, but exhibits a reversal of selectivity (with somewhat lower yields) after addition of strong ligands (PP h_3).

Conclusions

Schematically, our results may be explained by two fundamental mechanistic pathways: a carbenoid mechanism **as** shown in Scheme I and a coordination mechanism as shown in Scheme II (where $M =$ metal complex, S = unsaturated substrate, and $P =$ products).

Rhodium(I1) carboxylates act exclusively according to Scheme I, while palladium carboxylates probably react according to Scheme 11. Copper catalysts generally display a carbenoid (Scheme I) type of behavior, with the exception of some complexes carrying weak ligands, notably copper triflates, where the contribution from the mechanism of Scheme I1 becomes important. Both types of mechanism may, of course, contribute to some extent to the overall process in certain cases (e.g., progressive inhibition of the coordinating ability of the complex). Rhodium carboxylates are very efficient cyclopropanation catalysts, and are only slightly sensitive to strain, coordinating ability, and steric factors. They are particularly

well suited for the cyclopropanation of disubstituted isolated double bonds. They are, moreover, very interesting for the study of the preparation of cyclopropenes from acetylenes,²⁰ the insertion into OH, SH, and NH bonds,²¹ and even the insertion into OH bonds of unsaturated molecules. $20,22$

Palladium catalysts are just the opposite. They are exceedingly sensitive to the steric effects of the substrate and in fact will only satisfactorily cyclopropanate monosubstituted activated or strained cyclic double bonds.

Experimental Section

Analysis and purification of the cyclopropanes were run on Varian 1700 and 2800 gas-liquid chromatographs (catharometers, **W** filaments) using analytical $(4 \text{ ft} \times \frac{1}{4} \text{ in.})$ and preparative (10 ft) ft **x 3/s** in.) columns **(SE-30** or FFAP, 15% on Chromosorb W, acid washed). The carrier gas was He (40 mL/min). The temperature program was from 70 up to 230 °C (15 °C/min). The olefins were carefully distilled under nitrogen. Most reactions were carried out under nitrogen at room temperature, but with rhodium carboxylates and palladium acetate, there was no distinguishable difference when they were run in air. Boiling points are uncorrected. Palladium acetate and chloride from Johnson-Matthey were used without further purification. Rhodium(I1) carboxylates⁶ and copper(II) triflate⁵ were prepared by methods in the literature. The Cu and Rh catalysts were generally poorly soluble in the olefins but were readily dissolved after addition of a few drops of the diazo ester. After the absence of any absorption at 2175 cm^{-1} (diazo group) was checked, the reaction product was analyzed by GLC using an internal standard (dibutyl or diamyl phthalate, dibutyl, diethyl, or dimethyl maleates or fumarates). The results are summarized in Tables 111, IV and V.

Synthesis of Cyclopropanecarboxylates. The same general procedure as above was applied for preparative experiments. After addition of the diazo ester, the reaction mixture was distilled under reduced pressure. The yields and ratios of cis to trans isomers were determined by VPC. On FFAP columns, shorter retention times for the cis rather than the trans isomers were the rule. Analytical samples were purified by adsorption chromatography on silica gel or preparative VPC and were analyzed by **NMR** and IR. Cyclopropanes were identified with authentic samples when previously described.^{3i,25} In some cases, isomeric ratios could not be measured because of poor VPC separation and ambiguous NMR analysis. Spectroscopic data are then given for mixtures of isomers.

Kinetics of the Rh-CH3 Catalyzed Cyclopropanation of Styrene with Ethyl Diazoacetate. A 25-mL two-necked flask a measuring buret filled with oil. The other neck was fitted with

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a rubber septum. The apparatus was immersed in a thermostated glycol-water bath maintained to ± 0.2 °C. An approximately 0.7 M solution of EDA in styrene was then added with vigorous stirring through the side neck with a syringe. N_2 evolution began immediately. The quantity of gas evolved was measured at atmospheric pressure with an estimated accuracy of ± 0.1 mL. Typical experiments in neat styrene gave linear apparent rate constants **as** a function of temperature up to 75-80% of reaction. Errors in ΔH^* and ΔS^* were calculated by a least-squares linear-regression analysis. Experimental results are summarized in Table VI.

Methyl 2-(p-Methoxyphenyl)cyclopropanecarboxylate. MDA was added to p-methoxystyrene according to the general procedure (see above; catalyst Pd-CH,). Distillation afforded the pure cyclopropanes **as** a mixture of cis and trans isomers: bp 111 °C (0.01 torr); NMR (CCl₄, Me₄Si) δ 6.8 (m, 4 H, Ph), 3.64 (9, 3 H, OCH,), 3.56 **(s,** COOCH3 trans), 3.30 **(s,** COOCH, cis) (trans and cis, 3 H), 1.0-2.5 (m, 4 H, cyclopropane). Anal. $(C_{12}H_{14}O_3)$: C, H.

Methyl 2-(p-methylphenyl)cyclopropanecarboxylate was prepared from p-methylstyrene and MDA (catalyst Pd-CH₃): bp 130 "C (0.01 torr); NMR (CC14, Me4Si) 6 7 (m, 4 H, Ph), 3.6 **(s,** $COOCH₃$ trans), 3.32 (s, $COOCH₃$ cis) (trans and cis, 3 H), 2.3 $(s, 3 H, \check{C}H_3)$, 1-2.5 (m, 4 H, cyclopropane). Anal. $(\check{C}_{12}H_{14}O_2)$: C, H.

Methyl 2-(p-chlorophenyl)cyclopropanecarboxylate was prepared from p-chlorostyrene and MDA (catalyst Pd-CH,): bp 140 °C (0.01 torr); NMR (CCl₄, Me₄Si) δ 7.12 (m, 4 H, Ph), 3.60 (s, COOCH₃ trans), 3.30 (s, COOCH₃ cis) (trans and cis, 3 H), 1-2.5 $(m, 4 H,$ cyclopropane). Anal. $(\check{C}_{11}H_{11}O_2Cl)$: C, H.

Methyl 2-(o- and p-nitrophenyl)cyclopropane**carboxylates** were obtained from o- and p-nitrostyrenes and MDA (catalyst Pd-CH,). These compounds could not be isolated in an analytically pure state, but their identification was possible by NMR spectroscopy.

Methyl 24 o-nitrophenyl)cyclopropanecarboxylate: bp 140-170 °C (0.01 torr); NMR (CCl₄, Me₄Si) δ 7.70 (m, 4 H, Ph), 3.64 (s, COOCH, trans), 3.38 **(s,** COOCH, cis) (trans and cis, 3 H), 1-2.5 (m, 4 H, cyclopropane).

Methyl 2-(p-nitrophenyl)cyclopropanecarboxylate: bp 180-210 °C (0.01 torr); NMR (CCl₄, Me₄Si) δ 7.65 (m, 4 H, Ph), 3.68 (s, COOCH₃ trans), 3.40 (s, COOCH₃ cis) (trans and cis, 3 H), 1-2.5 (m, 4 H, cyclopropane).

n **-Butyl** *2-n* **-decylcyclopropanecarboxylate** was prepared from 1-dodecene and BDA (catalyst Rh-CH₃); bp 100-110 °C (0.01 torr). Analytical purity was obtained by adsorption chromatography on silica gel (elution with n -hexane followed by benzene): NMR (CCl₄, Me₄S₁) δ 3.95 (t, $J = 6$ Hz, 2 H, OCH₂), 1-1.9 (m, 32 H, remaining H); mass spectrum (70 eV) *m/e* (relative intensity) 282 (0, M⁺), 209 (2, M⁺ - C₄H₉O), 173 (17), 155 (36), 117 (56), 99 (100). Anal. $(C_{18}H_{34}O_2)$: C, H.

n **-Butyl 2-acetoxycyclopropanecarboxylate** was prepared from vinyl acetate and BDA (catalyst $Rh\text{-}CH_3$); bp 75 °C (0.01 mm). Analytical purity was obtained by adsorption chromatography on silica gel (elution with n -hexane followed by benzene) or by preparative GLC: IR (liquid film) 1750 (acetoxy C=O), 1725 (ester C=O), 1235 (acetoxy C-O), 1176 (ester C-0) cm-'; NMR (CC14, Me4%) 6 4.C-4.2 (m, 1 H, CH-0 cyclopropane), 3.88 $(t, J = 6 \text{ Hz}, 2 \text{ H}, 0$ —CH₂), 1.82 (s, 3 H, OOCH₃), 1.8-0.8 (m, 10 H, remaining H; mass spectrum (70 eV) m/e (relative intensity) 201 (0.6, M + 1), 158 (6, M - CH₃CO + 1), 129 (56, M - CH₃ $- C_4H_9 + 1$, 127 (8, M - C₄H₉O), 103 (16), 102 (17), 85 (32), 84 (27) , 73 (100, C₄H₉O). Anal. $(C_{10}H_{16}O_4)$: C, H.

Ethyl 2-ethoxycyclopropanecarboxylate was prepared from ethyl vinyl ether and EDA (catalyst Rh-CH₃): bp 64 $\rm{°C}$ (15 mm); ratio of cis to trans = 0.5; NMR (CDCl₃, Me₄Si) δ 4.13 (2 q, $J =$ 7 Hz, 2 H), -C(0)OCH2, cis and trans), 3.60 (2 q, *J* = 8 Hz, 2 H, O-CH₂, cis and trans), 0.90-1.95 (m, 10 H). Anal. (C₈H₁₄O₃): C, H.

Ethyl bicyclo[5.l.0]octane-8-carboxylate was prepared from cycloheptene and EDA (catalyst Rh-CH₃): bp 59-65 \degree C (0.1 mm); ratio of exo to endo = 2.4; NMR (CDCl₃, Me₄Si) δ 4.08 (q, $J =$ 7 Hz, 2 H, $-C(O)OCH_2$), 0.9-2.46 (m, 16 H). Anal. $(C_{11}H_{18}O_2)$: C, H.

Methyl exo-bicyclo[6.1.0]nonane-9-carboxylate was prepared from cyclooctene and MDA (catalyst Rh-CH₃): bp 80 °C

 (0.3 mm) ; IR 1730 cm⁻¹ (C=O); NMR (CCl₄, HMDS) δ 3.5 (s, 3) H, CH₃ ester), 2.32-0.51 (m, 15 H). Anal. $(C_{11}H_{18}O_2)$: C, H.

Cyclopropanation of Isoprene. The isomers were isolated by preparative VPC and identified by NMR (CDCI,, Me₄Si) by LIS with Eu.

(a) Ethyl 2-(2-isopropenyl)cyclopropane-l-carboxylate (mixture of *E* and *2* isomers) was prepared from isoprene and EDA (catalyst Rh-CHJ: IR 1728 (M), 1645 cm-' *(C=C);* NMR $\frac{6}{6}$ 5.2-4.6 (m, 2 H), 4.05 and 4.0 (q, 2 H, CH₂CH₃, E and Z), 2.1-0.8 [m, 10 H, including a d at 1.66 (CH₃), a t at 1.25 (CH₂CH₃, *E*), and a t at 1.20 (CH_2CH_3 , Z)]. Anal. $(C_9H_{14}O_2)$: C, H.

(b) Ethyl (E)-2-vinyl-2-methylcyclopropanel-carboxylate: IR 1730 (C=O), 1638 cm-' (C=C); **NMR** 6 6.1-4.7 (m, 3 H), 4.08 $(9, 2 H)$, 2.0-0.9 [m, 9 H, including a s at 1.32 (CH_3) and a t at 1.26 (CH₂CH₃)]. Anal. $(C_9H_{14}O_2)$: C, H.

(c) Ethyl (2)-2-vinyl-2-methylcyclopropane- 1-carboxylate: IR 1730 (C=O), 1638 cm⁻¹ (C=C); NMR δ 6.1-4.78 (m, 3 H), 4.05 $(a, 2 H)$, 1.94-0.76 [m, 9 H, including a s at 1.28 (CH₃) and a t at 1.26 (CH₂CH₃)]. Anal. (C₉H₁₄O₂): C, H.

Cyclopropanation Products of 1,j-Pentadiene. The isomers were identified according to the data of ref 23.

Cyclopropanations of Norbornene and Norbornadiene. The isomers were identified according to ref 24.

Acknowledgment. We are indebted to the FNRS, Belgium, for a fellowship to N.P. and for a grant (highpressure LC equipment). We also acknowledge the generous support of the Service de la Programmation de la Politique Scientifique, Bruxelles. We are grateful to Dr. Warin for recording and interpreting the NMR spectra and to Dr. Weber for mass spectral measurements.

Registry No. Methyl **cis-2-(p-methoxyphenyl)cyclopropane**carboxylate, 72228-94-5; methyl **trans-2-(p-methoxyphenyl)cyclo**propanecarboxylate, 72228-95-6; p-methoxystyrene, 637-69-4; methyl **cis-2-(p-methylphenyl)cyclopropanecarboxylate,** 72228-96-7; methyl **trans-2-(p-methylphenyl)cyclopropanecarboxylate,** 72228-97-8; *p*methylstyrene, 622-97-9; methyl **cis-2-(p-chlorophenyl)cyclo**propanecarboxylate, 72228-98-9; methyl **trans-2-(p-chlorophenyl)** cyclopropanecarboxylate, 72228-99-0; p-chlorostyrene, 1073-67-2; methyl **cis-2-(o-nitrophenyl)cyclopropanecarboxylate,** 72229-00-6; methyl **trans-(2-o-nitrophenyl)cyclopropanecarboxylate,** 72229-01-7; methyl **cis-2-(p-nitrophenyl)cyclopropanecarboxylate,** 72229-02-8; methyl **trans-2-@-nitrophenyl)cyclopropanecarboxylate,** 72229-03-9; (o-nitrophenyl)styrene, 579-71-5; (p-nitrophenyl)styrene, 100-13-0; butyl **2-decylcyclopropanecarboxylate,** 72229-04-0; 1-dodecene, 112- 41-4; butyl **2-acetoxycyclopropanecarboxylate,** 72229-05-1; vinyl acetate, 108-05-4; ethyl **cis-2-ethoxycyclopropanecarboxylate,** 71666-09-6; ethyl **trans-2-ethoxycyclopropanecarboxylate,** 60212-44- 4; ethyl vinyl ether, 109-92-2; ethyl **endo-bicyclo[5.l.0]octane-8** carboxylate, 4729-32-2; ethyl **ero-bicyclo[5.l.0]octane-8-carboxylate,** 4729-45-7; cycloheptene, 628-92-2; methyl **exo-bicyclo[6.1.0]nonane-**9-carboxylate, 59895-61-3; cyclooctene, 931-88-4; isoprene, 78-79-5; ethyl **cis-2-(2-isopropenyl)cyclopropane-l-carboxylate,** 52390-22-4; ethyl **trans-2-(2-isopropenyl)cyclopropane-l-carboxylate,** 52345-59-2; ethyl **trans-2-vinyl-2-methylcyclopropane-l-carboxylate,** 52345-60-5; ethyl **cis-2-vinyl-2-methylcyclopropane-l-carboxylate,** 52345-63-8; 1,3-pentadiene, 504-60-9; norbornene, 498-66-8; norbornadiene, 121- 46-0; styrene, 100-42-5; ethyl trans-2-phenylcyclopropanecarboxylate, 946-39-4; ethyl **cis-2-phenylcyclopropanecarboxylate,** 946-38-3; ethyl diazoacetate, 623-73-4; 1-hexene, 592-41-6; cis-2-butene, 590-18-1; trans-2-butene, 624-64-6; cis-3-hexene, 7642-09-3; cis-2-octene, 7642-04-8; trans-2-octene, 13389-42-9; trans-4-octene, 14850-23-8; TME, 563-79-1; cyclopentene, 142-29-0; cyclohexene, 110-83-8; indene, 95-13-6; dimethyl maleate, 624-48-6; dihydropyran, 110-87-2; l,5-hexadiene, 592-42-7; 1,3-cyclohexadiene, 592-57-4; 1,5-cyclooctadiene, 111-78-4; MDA, 6832-16-2; BDA, 24761-88-4; methyl 2 butylcyclopropanecarboxylate, 64583-94-4; methyl 2,3-dimethylcyclopropanecarboxylate, 72258-11-8; methyl 2,3-diethylcyclopropanecarboxylate, 61452-44-6; ethyl **2,3-diethylcyclopropane**carboxylate, 61490-19-5; butyl **2,3-diethylcyclopropanecarboxylate,** 61452-45-7; methyl **2-methyl-3-pentylcyclopropanecarboxylate,** 61452-46-8; butyl **2-methyl-3-pentylcyclopropanecarboxylate,** 61452-47-9; methyl **2,3-dipropylcyclopropanecarboxylate,** 61490-20-8; butyl **2,3-dipropylcyclopropanecarboxylate,** 61452-48-0; ethyl **2,2,3,3-tetramethylcyclopropanecarboxylate,** 771-10-8; ethyl bicyclo- **[3.1.0]hexane-6-carboxylate,** 72229-06-2; methyl bicyclo[4.1.0]heptane-7-carboxylate, 61452-49-1; ethyl **bicyclo[4.1.0]heptane-7-** carboxylate, 52917-64-3; butyl **bicyclo[4.l.0]heptane-7-carboxylate,** 61452-50-4; ethyl **bicyclo[6.l.0]nonane-9-carboxylate,** 72258-12-9; **4-(ethoxycarbonyl)tricyclo(4.4.0.03~5]decane,** 72258-13-0; 3-(ethoxy**carbonyl)tricyclo[3.2.1.02~4]octane,** 72258-14-1; ethyl 2-acetoxycyclopropanecarboxylate, 72229-07-3; **7-(ethoxycarbonyl)-2-oxabicyclo-** [4.1.0]hexane, 72229-08-4; ethyl **2-(l-propenyl)cyclopropane**carboxylate, 16783-15-6; ethyl **2-ethenyl-3-methylcyclopropane**carboxylate, 51607-42-2; ethyl **2-ethenyl-2-methylcyclopropane-** carboxylate, 21304-31-4; ethyl **2-(l-methylethenyl)cyclopropane**carboxylate, 18864-65-8; ethyl **2-(3-butenyl)cyclopropanecarboxylate,** 61452-53-7; **7-(ethoxycarbonyl)bicyclo[4.1.0]hept-2-ene,** 61452-52-6; **7-(ethoxycarbonyl)bicyclo[6.l.0]non-4-ene,** 59891-06-4; 3-(ethoxycarbonyl)tricyclo[3.2.1.0^{2,4}]oct-6-ene, 59811-70-0; 1-octene, 111-66-0; 1-hexyne, 693-02-7; methyl **2-hexylcyclopropanecarboxylate,** 72229- 09-5; ethyl **2-decylcyclopropanecarboxylate,** 15898-93-8; methyl 2 **butyl-2-cyclopropenecarboxylate,** 67500-40-7.

Study of the Electrochromism of Methoxyfluorene Compounds

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Received July 16, 1979

The electrochemical and electrochromic properties of a variety of polysubstituted fluorene compounds have been studied. The 2,7- and 2,3-dimethoxy-, 2,3,6,7-tetramethoxy-, and **2,3,4,5,6,7-hexamethoxyfluorenes** are highly reversible electrochromic materials. One-electron oxidation of these materials yields deeply colored, stable radical cations. The structure-property relationships observed for the electrochemical and absorption behavior of these materials are discussed.

Electrochromism, a reversible optical absorption change induced in a material by an applied electric field or current, has been observed in a relatively large number of organic and inorganic substances.' In general, widespread applications have not been realized due to a variety of material problems, including poor electrochemical nucleic; between the colored and colorless states, low optical efficiencies, electrode incompatibilities, etc. However, increasing technological demands (e.g., low-power, nonemissive information displays) prompt the need for highly reversible, optically efficient electrochromic materials. The ultimate development of these systems will require better understanding of the relationships of molecular structure to the electrochemical and electrochromic behavior of materials. In the present study we describe these properties for a new class of organic electrochromic materials, namely, the polymethoxylated fluorenes.

In a series of papers describing the oxidation of meth- α oxybiphenyls and related compounds, $^{2-5}$ Parker and coworkers noted the unusual stability of the corresponding radical cations and dications. They observed a direct relationship between the stability of the oxidation products and the planarity of the aromatic nuclei; e.g., the relative stabilities of the radical cations of compounds **1-3,** were found to be as shown. Of interest for the present study, the radical cation of the methylene-bridged biphenyl **3** was reportedly a deep blue color and displayed a half-life of approximately 6 h in nitrobenzene solution.2 These observations prompted us to investigate further the electrochromism of bridged biphenyl compounds.

Results and Discussion

Important structures for subsequent discussion are either indicated as shown or are in Table I.

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Cyclic Voltammetry Data. The previous reports of Parker et al.²⁻⁵ established the ability of methoxy substituents to stabilize the oxidation products of fluorene materials. We have extended these studies to a variety of