Hydrothermal Photochemistry as a Mechanistic Tool in Organic Geochemistry: The Chemistry of Dibenzyl Ketone

Ziming Yang,[†] Edward D. Lorance,[‡] Christiana Bockisch,[†] Lynda B. Williams,*^{,§} Hilairy E. Hartnett,*^{,†,§} Everett L. Shock, $*$, $*$, $\frac{1}{5}$ and Ian R. Gould $*$, $\frac{1}{5}$

† Department of Che[mis](#page-9-0)try and Biochemistry, Ari[zon](#page-9-0)a State University, Tempe, Arizona 85287, United States ‡ Department of Chemistry, Vanguard University, Costa Mesa, California 92926, United States

§ School of Earth and Space Exploration, Arizona State University, Tempe, Arizona 85287, United States

S Supporting Information

[AB](#page-9-0)STRACT: [Hydrotherma](#page-9-0)l organic transformations under geochemically relevant conditions can result in complex product mixtures that form via multiple reaction pathways. The hydrothermal decomposition reactions of the model ketone dibenzyl ketone form a mixture of reduction, dehydration, fragmentation, and coupling products that suggest simultaneous and competitive radical and ionic reaction pathways. Here we show how Norrish Type I photocleavage of dibenzyl ketone can be used to independently generate the benzyl radicals previously proposed as the primary intermediates for the pure hydrothermal reaction. Under hydrothermal conditions, the benzyl radicals undergo hydrogen atom abstraction from dibenzyl ketone and para-coupling reactions that are not

observed under ambient conditions. The photochemical method allows the primary radical coupling products to be identified, and because these products are generated rapidly, the method also allows the kinetics of the subsequent dehydration and Paal− Knorr cyclization reactions to be measured. In this way, the radical and ionic thermal and hydrothermal reaction pathways can be studied separately.

■ INTRODUCTION

Over 99.99% of the Earth's organic carbon does not actively participate in the biospheric carbon cycle but is located within the crust, mainly in continental and marine sedimentary basins in the form of kerogen.¹ It is estimated that more than 15 000 000 Gt of organic matter is located beneath the surface of the Earth.¹ The reacti[on](#page-9-0)s of this huge quantity of organic matter contribute to a wide range of geochemically important processes. R[ea](#page-9-0)ctions of organic material in the Earth's crust represent an important component of the deep (or geochemical) carbon cycle, which is an important factor in controlling atmospheric carbon dioxide levels.² Subsurface organic reactions are critical to petroleum generation and maturation processes, 3 can provide energy sou[rc](#page-9-0)es for deep microbial communities,⁴ and have been implicated in the formation of ore dep[os](#page-9-0)its.⁵

From an organic che[m](#page-9-0)istry perspective, it is interesting that the solvent for most of [t](#page-9-0)hese reactions is water, usually at elevated temperatures and pressures.⁶ Water at high temperatures and pressures is an excellent solvent for many organic reactions.7−¹⁸ A wide range of re[a](#page-9-0)ctions have now been identified in hot subcritical water (at associated confining pressures[\), w](#page-10-0)hich include fragmentations into smaller structures, additions to make larger structures, and functional group interconversions. These reactions take place in water without the addition of any external reagents or catalysts.⁸ For these

reasons, organic chemical reactions under conditions that mimic geochemical conditions are being studied as potential "green chemistry" systems.⁹

Many hydrothermal reactions are surprising compared with corresponding processes [un](#page-10-0)der ambient conditions. Examples include the endothermic elimination of hydrogen from alcohols and alkanes to form carbonyls and alkenes and the dehydration of alcohols to form alkenes.⁸⁻¹² Alcohol dehydration is particularly surprising since water is the solvent. The equilibrium between alcohol a[nd a](#page-10-0)lkene + water is strongly temperature-dependent, and for butanol the equilibrium is on the side of butene + water at temperatures above 200 $^{\circ}$ C at the vapor-liquid saturation pressure of water.⁵ At higher temperatures the entropic contribution to the free energy increases, so eventually water elimination, which inc[re](#page-9-0)ases the entropy, becomes favorable despite being endothermic. In general, hydrothermal organic reactions tend to be controlled by thermodynamics and entropy, as opposed to kinetics and enthalpy, which are the primary controlling factors closer to ambient conditions. Both ionic and radical reaction mechanisms can occur simultaneously under hydrothermal conditions, although it is generally thought that ionic reactions are

Received: April 22, 2014 Published: July 15, 2014

Scheme 1. Schematic Representation of Functional Group Interconversions That Connect Simple Hydrocarbons and Carboxylic Acids, Proposed by Seewald for Hydrothermal Organic Reactions^{7,18}

$$
R \xrightarrow{ -H_{2} \atop +H_{2}} R \xrightarrow{ -H_{2} \atop +H_{2}} R \xrightarrow{ -H_{2}O} R \xrightarrow{ -H_{2} \atop +H_{2}} R \xrightarrow{ 0 \atop +H_{2}} R \xrightarrow{ 1 H_{2}O} 2 \xrightarrow{ 0 \atop +H_{2}O} 2 \xrightarrow{ 0 \atop +H_{2}O} 2 \xrightarrow{ 0 \atop +H_{2}O}
$$

more prevalent at lower temperatures whereas radical reactions dominate at higher temperatures.¹³

Although many hydrothermal organic reactions have now been studied, the emphasis h[as](#page-10-0) been mainly on product distributions; mechanistic studies are less frequent, and direct evidence for proposed intermediates is often lacking. Partly this is because hydrothermal reactions can give complex product mixtures.^{7,8,10,14,15} Other than kinetic measurements¹⁶ and in some cases isotope effects, 17 the mechanistic toolbox for hydrothe[rmal orga](#page-10-0)nic reactions is somewhat limited. [On](#page-10-0)e of the goals of this work was to dev[elo](#page-10-0)p a new experimental probe for hydrothermal organic reaction mechanisms.

The most abundant organic functional groups found in geochemical environments are alkanes and carboxylic acids.⁷ Seewald has proposed a reaction scheme that shows how acids and alkanes might be connected by a series of reversible an[d](#page-10-0) irreversible functional group interconversions (Scheme 1).^{7,18} The critical structure in this scheme is the ketone, since this is where irreversible carbon−carbon bond cleavage must oc[cur.](#page-10-0) We recently studied the hydrothermal reactions of the model compound dibenzyl ketone (DBK) in order to investigate how bond cleavage might compete with functional group interconversions.¹⁴ At 300 °C and 700 bar, all of the reactions in Scheme 1 were observed, except that carbon−carbon bond cleavage gave m[ain](#page-10-0)ly coupling products rather than carboxylic acids.¹⁴ The coupling products were explained as arising from homolytic bond cleavage to give primary benzyl and phenacyl radic[als](#page-10-0) followed by rapid decarbonylation to give a pair of benzyl radicals (eq 1), although the observed coupling products

$$
\text{max}_{\text{DBK}} \left(\begin{array}{c} \Delta \\ -\text{ or } \\ \text{or} \end{array} \right) \rightarrow \text{max}_{\text{D}} \left(\begin{array}{c} \text{or} \\ \text{or} \end{array} \right) \quad \text{max}_{\text{D}} \left(\begin{array}{c} \text{or} \\ \text{or} \end{array} \right) \quad \text{(I)}
$$

and their distributions were very different from those expected on the basis of the known DBK-derived radical chemistry under ambient conditions.¹⁹ We thus sought independent evidence for the intermediacy of radicals in the bond cleavage reactions of DBK under hyd[rot](#page-10-0)hermal conditions.

The ambient photochemistry of DBK and its analogues has been extensively studied in a variety of reaction media,¹⁹ and the primary photophysical and chemical processes are well-established. Specifically, photochemical excitation of D[BK](#page-10-0) ($h\nu$ in eq 1) gives the same primary radicals as previously proposed in the hydrothermal reactions of DBK (Δ in eq 1). Here we compare the thermal and photochemical reactions of DBK and show how independent generation of the primary radicals rationalizes the product distributions in the hydrothermal reactions of DBK. The photochemical method allows the primary radical coupling products to be identified. Because they are also formed on a much shorter time scale, their follow-up thermal reactions can be monitored directly. In short, hydrothermal photochemistry is found to be a very useful mechanistic tool for geochemically relevant hydrothermal reactions.

EXTENDIO HYDROTHERMAL REACTIONS OF DBK

The hydrothermal decomposition reactions of DBK give a complex mixture of products that has been described in detail previously (Scheme $2)$.¹⁴ One reaction pathway involves reduction, dehydration, and further reduction to give the corresponding alcohol $(2c)$ $(2c)$ $(2c)$, alkene $(2d)$, and alkane $(2e)$ (although alcohol 2c does not accumulate significantly because of rapid dehydration to form alkene 2d), which corresponds to the functional group interconversion reactions shown in Scheme 1. The majority of the reaction products, however,

Scheme 2. Summary of the Main Products of the Hydrothermal Reaction of DBK at 300 °C and 700 bar^a

and the Tragmentation and coupling reactions that give the products 1, 2a, 2b, 3a–d, 4a, 4b¹, and 4b² compete with reduction and and the unit of the seation and the unit of the seation and the seation and the seation dehydration reactions that form alcohol 2c, alkene 2d, and alkane 2e. The (′) symbol means that the product is formed in more than one stereoisom[eric](#page-10-0) and/or structural isomeric form.

Figure 1. Gas chromatograms showing the product distributions for $(A, black)$ the thermal reaction of DBK in water at 300 °C and 86 bar (no light) for a time period of 7 days, (B, red) hydrothermal photolysis in water at 300 °C and 86 bar for a time period of 33 min, and (C, blue) photolysis of DBK in methanol at room temperature (RT) for a time period of 33 min. The various products separate chromatographically into those that contain one, two, three, and four benzene rings.

are derived from carbon−carbon and carbon−hydrogen bond cleavage reactions and subsequent coupling processes, presumably via radical intermediates formed via eq 1.

Bibenzyl (2a) is an expected product of the coupling of two benzyl radicals, but it is formed in relatively l[ow](#page-1-0) yield compared with other products. The various cleavage and coupling products are most easily categorized in terms of the number of benzene rings they contain: specifically, toluene (1) with one ring; bibenzyl $(2a)$ and stilbene $(2b)$ with two rings; and products that contain three benzene rings (3a−d) or four benzene rings (4a and 4b) (Scheme 2).

Reactions designed to mimic geochemical conditions are often performed for extended time pe[rio](#page-1-0)ds, and gold vessels are often used to minimize inadvertent catalysis by the reaction container. Gold is considered to be one of the more inert container materials.²⁰ Our previous experiments were performed in small, pressurized gold tubes, and because the photochemical react[ion](#page-10-0)s required the use of transparent fusedsilica tubes, we first compared the reactions of DBK in fusedsilica and gold.

Hydrothermal reactions of DBK were performed for 3 days in a fused silica tube, in a gold capsule that was sealed inside a fused-silica tube, and in a gold capsule with an external pressure of 700 bar. At 300 °C, the pressure in the fused-silica tube was determined to be ca. 86 bar (see the Experimental Section). At this pressure there was a headspace both in the fused-silica and the gold in fused silica tube expe[riments. Because gol](#page-9-0)d is malleable, the external pressure of 700 bar was transmitted to the sample, and under these conditions there was no headspace. The observed products were identical in the three samples, although their distributions were slightly different. The DBK conversions were also somewhat different: 3.6%, 2.9%, and

2.1% in high-pressure gold, low-pressure gold, and fused silica, respectively. The conversions were slightly higher in gold, which suggests that the fused silica surface does not significantly catalyze the reaction.

A gas chromatogram showing the product distribution for a 7-day thermolysis experiment in a fused-silica tube is shown in Figure 1A. This longer reaction time period allows direct comparison to the photochemical experiments, but the product distribution is similar to that observed after 3 days.

E HYDROTHERMAL PHOTOLYSIS OF DBK

1. Products of Hydrothermal Photolysis. The products of the 7 day, 300 °C hydrothermal reaction were compared with those for 33 min hydrothermal photolysis at 300 °C and also room-temperature photolysis in methanol. The conversions were low (5−8%) to minimize secondary reactions. In agreement with the earlier literature, 19 the photochemical reaction of DBK at room temperature yields bibenzyl $(2a)$ as the only detectable product (Figure [1](#page-10-0)C). Hydrothermal photolysis at 300 °C, however, gives a very different product distribution (Figure 1B). Although bibenzyl is still observed, the major products are now toluene (1) and some of the threeand four-benzene-ring coupling products shown in Scheme 2. The product distribution from hydrothermal photolysis (Figure 1B) resembles a simpler version of the 7 day pure ther[mal](#page-1-0) reaction (Figure 1A). The hydrothermal photochemical conversion of DBK is linear with time, as is formation of toluene, bibenzyl, and the coupling products. Figure 2 shows the product yields as functions of irradiation time for the hydrothermal photochemical reaction compared [wit](#page-3-0)h the corresponding reaction in methanol at room temperature,

Figure 2. Comparison of product concentrations vs irradiation time for the photolysis of DBK, showing the formation of bibenzyl 2a (blue ●) as the only product in methanol at RT and the formation of bibenzyl 2a (red \bullet), toluene 1 (red \circ), and the three-ring coupling product $3a^1$ (red \triangle) in water at 300 °C and 86 bar. The concentrations of the products at 300 °C are corrected for the different conversions of DBK at the two reaction temperatures to allow direct comparison of the relative chemical yields at the two temperatures.

corrected for the different DBK conversions under the two conditions. This plot clearly shows the large difference in the product distributions under the two sets of conditions.

A mechanism that accounts for the fragmentation and coupling products for both the pure hydrothermal and photochemical hydrothermal reactions is shown in Scheme 3. The first steps are those in eq 1. Excitation of DBK to the first excited singlet state is followed by intersystem crossing (ISC) to the excited triplet state, whi[ch](#page-1-0) undergoes efficient homolytic bond cleavage to form a geminate benzyl/phenacyl radical pair. From the previously measured activation parameters, $2¹$

radical should occur in less than 2 ns at 300 °C. The geminate benzyl radical pair is formed in an overall triplet state, and efficient diffusive separation of this primary radical pair is expected to occur in fluid solution since recombination is spinforbidden. 22 The pure thermal reaction forms the same geminate benzyl/phenacyl radical pair, in this case in an overall singlet sp[in](#page-10-0) state. Separated benzyl radicals then form by decarbonylation and diffusive separation.

The hydrothermal reaction of the benzyl radicals that does not take place under ambient conditions is hydrogen atom abstraction from DBK to yield toluene (1) and a DBK-derived radical, DBK• (shown as the process "H-abs" in Scheme 3). Coupling of DBK• with a benzyl radical generates the primary three-ring structures 3a, which form as a mixture of three structural isomers. Coupling of two DBK• generates the primary four-ring structures 4a (two stereoisomers are formed), which undergo thermal dehydration to form isomeric structures 4b. The primary products of the hydrothermal photochemical radical reactions are thus 1 (toluene), 2a (bibenzyl), 3a, and 4a (Scheme 3).

The hydrogen atom abstraction process (H-abs) occurs in competition with the conventional benzyl radical coupling to form bibenzyl (2a). Therefore, changing the relative rates of the competing processes should influence the product distribution. The formation of bibenzyl is kinetically second-order with respect to benzyl radical concentration, whereas the competing hydrogen atom abstraction with DBK is pseudo-first-order. The relative rates of these reactions should thus depend upon the radical concentration. Experiments were performed at higher light intensities where the radical concentration is higher. Under these conditions, the yield of bibenzyl increased compared with those of the coupling products, consistent

Scheme 3. Proposed Mechanism for the Formation of the [Fra](#page-10-0)gmentation and Coupling Products of the Hydrothermal Reaction of DBK at 300 $^{\circ}$ C^a

^aThe steps to the left of the dotted line are the radical processes, while those to the right of the dotted line are the follow-up thermal reactions that are mainly ionic. The first step in the photochemical reaction combines excitation of DBK to the first singlet state $(h\nu)$, ISC to the triplet state, and finally homolytic cleavage (C−C) to form a benzyl radical and a phenacyl radical. This radical pair is also formed in the thermal (nonphotochemical) reaction (Δ), although much more slowly and in an overall singlet state. The second step (−CO/sep) includes decarbonylation (−CO) and separation of the radicals in the geminate pair (sep). These primary steps are those given in eq 1. A separated benzyl radical reacts with ${\rm DBK}$ via hydrogen atom abstraction (H-abs) to yield toluene and a ${\rm DBK}$ -derived radical, ${\rm DBK}^{\bullet}$. The (') symbol associated with a structure indicates that more than one stereoisomer or structural isomer is formed.

with competing radical coupling and hydrogen atom abstraction.

Support for the mechanism shown in Scheme 3 was also obtained from experiments performed in the presence of Cu(II) ion, which is known to trap benzyl [rad](#page-3-0)icals via oxidation.²³ Hydrothermal photolysis of DBK was performed in the presence of 0.5 molal $Cu(II)$ chloride for 15 min. The extent of [D](#page-10-0)BK conversion was similar to that without $Cu(II)$, but the yields of all of the radical products (1, 2a, 3a, and 4a) were dramatically reduced by 80−90%. New oxidized products were detected in the presence of $Cu(II)$, including benzaldehyde, benzoic acid, and phenylacetic acid. This provides strong evidence that benzyl and benzylic radicals are the precursors of the various coupling products of the hydrothermal photochemistry of DBK.

2. Relative Product Yields Support the Reaction Scheme. According to Scheme 3, one molecule of toluene is formed for each one of the three-ring coupling structures, and two molecules of toluene are for[m](#page-3-0)ed for each one of the fourring coupling structures. Therefore, the concentration of toluene in the product mixture, $[1]$, should be equal to the sum of the concentrations of all of the three-ring products $(\sum[3\text{-ring}])$ plus twice the sum of the concentrations of all of the four-ring structures $(\sum[4\text{-ring}])$ (eq 2):

$$
[1] = \sum [3\text{-ring}] + 2\sum [4\text{-ring}] \tag{2}
$$

The two sides of eq 2 are plotted as functions of time in Figure 3. The slopes of the plots are very similar, supporting eq 2 and

Figure 3. Time dependence of the concentration of toluene, [1], compared to that of the sum of the concentrations of 3-ring products plus twice the sum of the concentration of the 4-ring products. These should be equal according to eq 2; the small difference may be a consequence of assumed gas chromatography response factors for the coupling products (see the Supporting Information) or other experimental uncertainties.

the mechanism shown in S[cheme](#page-9-0) [3.](#page-9-0) [The](#page-9-0) [small](#page-9-0) [di](#page-9-0)fferences in the slopes are probably consequences of the assumptions for the gas chromatography respons[e](#page-3-0) factors for the various coupling products (i.e., 1.5 and 2.0 times larger than for DBK for the three and four ring structures, respectively).

3. Relative Quantum Yields Support the Reaction Scheme. The formation of toluene and the coupling products requires consumption of more than one DBK molecule per absorbed photon. The quantum yield for bibenzyl formation in the ambient photochemistry of DBK is ca. 0.7, is essentially solvent-independent, and is the same as that for formation of separated benzyl radicals, since all of the separated benzyl

radicals form coupling products.¹⁹ According to Scheme 3, the formation of a three-ring coupling product and the accompanying toluene consum[es](#page-10-0) two DBK molecules, [w](#page-3-0)hile the formation of a four-ring product and the accompanying two toluenes consumes three DBK molecules. Thus, compared with the quantum yield for formation of bibenzyl, the quantum yields for the formation of the three-ring and four-ring structures should be 2 and 3 times larger, respectively. On the basis of the relative chemical yields of bibenzyl and the three- and four-ring structures, the quantum yield for DBK consumption under hydrothermal conditions can thus be calculated relative to conditions where bibenzyl is the only product.

Bibenzyl formation does not depend upon the DBK concentration, whereas the hydrogen atom abstraction reaction is pseudo-first-order with respect to DBK. It was found that the product distributions could also be varied controllably by changing the DBK concentration. Hydrothermal photolysis of DBK at a concentration of 0.05 molal gave bibenzyl as the major product, whereas at 1 molal concentration toluene and the coupling products dominated the distribution. The quantum yields for formation of the coupling products can thus be obtained by comparing experiments at different concentrations of DBK.

Hydrothermal photolyses of DBK at 0.05 molal and 1.0 molal were compared with the ambient photolysis of DBK, where bibenzyl was the only product, and at concentrations that had the same light absorption as the two hydrothermal samples (details are given in the Supporting Information). It was found that the DBK consumption for hydrothermal photolysis is higher per absorbed [photon at the higher](#page-9-0) DBK concentration by a factor of ca. 1.3 compared with the lower concentration. The calculated hydrothermal quantum yield at 1 molal concentration, based on the observed product distribution and assuming that each of the three- and four-ring structures consumes two and three DBK molecules, respectively, is 1.37, which agrees quite well with the experimentally determined difference. The relative quantum yields thus also support the mechanism shown in Scheme 3.

4. Hydrogen Atom Abstraction. The critical step in the hydrothermal reaction mechanism is hydrogen atom abst[ra](#page-3-0)ction from DBK by benzyl radicals. This process is responsible for the new products and is also responsible for consumption of more than one DBK molecule per photon. H atom abstraction does not occur under ambient conditions, so we examined this reaction computationally to see whether the reaction barrier could account for the different behaviors observed at the two temperatures. Methyl benzyl ketone (MBK) was studied instead of DBK for computational economy, using B3LYP/ aug-cc-pVDZ as implemented in Gaussian $09.^{24}$ MBK was optimized both in the gas phase and in solvent [modeled using the polarizable continuum model (PCM)] at 30[0](#page-10-0) °C and 700 bar. Starting with the optimal conformer, the benzyl radical was fixed at 2.5 Å from the α -hydrogen of MBK (Figure 4), and the distance-constrained complex was fully optimized. From this geometry, the distance to the benzylic carbon of [th](#page-5-0)e radical, C_{benzyl} −H_α, was shortened to 1.5 Å in steps of 0.1 Å and then to 1.35 Å in steps of 0.05 Å (with optimization of the distanceconstrained complex at each step), at which point the C_{α} -H_α bond separation distance in MBK became quite large $(>3 \text{ Å})$, consistent with breaking of this bond. A search for the transition state located an extremely steep apex to the reaction coordinate (Figure 4). The transition-state structure was

Figure 4. Electronic energy vs the α-hydrogen−benzylic carbon separation distance, $r_{\mathrm{C-H}\alpha}$, for hydrogen atom abstraction from methyl benzyl ketone (MBK) by a benzyl radical. The inset shows the transition-state structure, located at $r_{\text{C-H}\alpha} = 1.41 \text{ Å}$, as computed using B3LYP/aug-cc-pVDZ and PCM to model the solvent. The energies are referenced to MBK + benzyl radical at an infinite separation distance. The reaction was computed to be exothermic by 29 kJ/mol at 300 °C and 700 bar. The computed free energy barrier for the reaction is 132 kJ/mol at 300 °C and 700 bar.

characterized by an associated imaginary vibrational frequency of 1528 cm[−]¹ , which corresponds to the desired hydrogen transfer motion. The decrease in energy after the transition state is reached is artificially steep as a consequence of constraining only the $C_{\text{benzyl}}-H_{\alpha}$ coordinate and none of the other relevant bond distances. The reaction was found to be exothermic, as expected for a reaction that generates a more resonance-stabilized radical, by a value of 29 kJ/mol. This is in excellent agreement with the difference of 30 kJ/mol in the experimentally measured $C_{\text{benzvl}}-H_\alpha$ and $C_\alpha-H_\alpha$ bond dissociation energies [i.e., 377 kJ/mol for the benzylic C−H bond in toluene²⁵ and 347 kJ/mol for the benzylic (α) C−H bond in MBK;²⁶ bond dissociation enthalpies are essentially independent of [tem](#page-10-0)perature²⁵]. The activation free energy was computed to b[e 1](#page-10-0)32.4 kJ/mol at 300 °C, which translates into a bimolecular rate constant of [1](#page-10-0)0.3 M^{-1} s⁻¹ using transition state theory.²⁷ The corresponding activation energy and rate constant under ambient conditions were calculated to be 119.0 [kJ/](#page-10-0)mol and 8.9×10^{-9} M⁻¹ s⁻¹, respectively, indicating that the reaction is ca. 10^9 times slower than at 300 °C. This is consistent with bibenzyl being the only observable product at room temperature and H atom abstraction being competitive with radical recombination at 300 °C.

5. Characterization of the Coupling Products. Three structural isomers assigned to the coupling products 3a are observed in the gas chromatogram/mass spectrum of the product mixture from hydrothermal photolysis. One of these isomers, corresponding to the peak with the shortest retention time in Figure 1B, is formed in significantly higher yield than the other two. These products are not isolable (the conversions are low, and th[e](#page-2-0) reaction mixtures are complex), and therefore, we can only make tentative assignments. Coupling of a benzyl radical and a DBK• radical could in principle occur at various positions since the spins are delocalized. For benzyl radical, the measured spin densities are 3.19, 1.0, and 1.22 for the benzylic, $ortho$, and para positions, respectively.²⁸ These spin densities do not explain the coupling of two benzyl radicals under

ambient conditions in fluid solution, since coupling occurs only at the benzylic position. This is readily understood, since coupling at other positions initially forms a structure that has lost aromaticity. On this basis, we anticipate that the major product of the reaction of a benzyl radical and a DBK• radical would arise from coupling at the two benzylic positions to yield structure $3a¹$ (shown in Schemes 3 and 4). However, non-

Scheme 4. Structural Isomers Assi[gn](#page-3-0)ed as Products of Benzyl/DBK Radical (DBK•) Coupling Observed in the Gas Chromatogram of Figure $1B^a$

^aThe major product is assigned as $3a^1$. The products $3a^2$ and $3a^3$ are shown as para-coupling isomers, although ortho-coupling structures could also form. The dashed lines indicate the bonds that cleave to yield fragments with the indicated m/z values. For $3a³$, the m/z 181 peak in the mass spectrum is much larger that the m/z 209 peak.

benzylic coupling has occasionally been observed in photochemical reactions of DBK under ambient conditions in nonhomogeneous environments.²⁹ The equivalent non-benzylic coupling processes, shown in eqs 3a and 3b, yield

structures that are tentatively assigned to the peaks $3a^2$ and $3a^3$ in Figure 1B (also see Scheme 4). The structures assigned to $3a²$ and $3a³$ in eqs 3 and Scheme 4 are shown as *para*-coupling isomers, a[lth](#page-2-0)ough ortho-coupling isomers could also be formed and not be detected if they did not separate well under the chromatography conditions. $3a^2$ and $3a^3$ are formed in lower yields than $3a^1$, which is understandable since according to eqs 3 they must be formed via intermediates that have lost aromaticity. Formation of these non-benzylic coupling products under hydrothermal conditions points to higher reactivity and lower selectivity in the reactions of benzylic radicals at higher temperatures.

The assignments of $3a^1$, $3a^2$, and $3a^3$ to the first, second, and third peaks, respectively, in the gas chromatogram of Figure 1B is supported by their mass spectra and also the observed followup thermal chemistry discussed below. The mass spectra for [th](#page-2-0)e peaks assigned to $3a¹$ and $3a²$ are very similar and contain

fragments of similar size $(m/z 181$ and 209), consistent with cleavage on both sides of the carbonyl group to give benzyl ions (Scheme 4). In the mass spectrum for the peak assigned to $3a^3$, , however, the m/z 209 peak is small and the m/z 181 peak is the base pe[ak,](#page-5-0) since in the case of $3a^3$ the m/z 181 peak corresponds to a more stable diarylmethyl ion (see the Supporting Information).

Five products assigned to structures that contain four [benzene rings are form](#page-9-0)ed at early reaction times in sufficient quantities for mass spectral analysis (Figure 1B). Unlike the three-ring products, the time dependences of the concentrations of these structures are nonlinear (Fi[gu](#page-2-0)re 5). Two of

Figure 5. Concentration vs time plot for the photolysis of DBK in water at 300 °C at 86 bar for (O) the primary coupling product 4a with the shorter retention time of the two diastereomers in Figure 1B and (\bullet) the dehydrated four-ring product 4b¹. .

these structures are formed in equal abundance and have identical mass spectra, suggesting that they are the $meso/(d,l)$ diastereomeric pair formed by coupling of two DBK• radicals (indicated as peaks 4a in Figure 1B; the structure is shown in Scheme 3). The other four-ring products $4b¹$ and $4b²$ indicated in Figure 1B are isomers with a [mo](#page-2-0)lecular ion peak at m/z 400, consiste[nt](#page-3-0) with formal loss of water compared with the 4a isomers ([Sc](#page-2-0)heme 3). The rate of formation of the 4b isomers increases as a function of irradiation time (Figure 5), consistent with the formati[on](#page-3-0) of the 4b isomers by secondary thermal dehydration reactions of the 4a isomers.

That $4b^1$ and $4b^2$ are derived from 4a was readily demonstrated by an experiment in which hydrothermal photolysis was followed by thermolysis without light at 300 $\rm ^{\circ}C$ for a further 30 min. In this experiment it was found that the two peaks formed in the initial photolysis and assigned to the 4a isomers had completely disappeared in a follow-up thermal reaction and that the peaks assigned to the 4b isomers were correspondingly larger. This explains the nonlinear behavior of the 4a and $4b¹$ concentrations with time shown in Figure 5.

■ FOLLOW-UP IONIC REACTIONS

In addition to providing insight into the thermal radical reactions, the photochemical technique allows the follow-up ionic thermal reactions to be more readily studied. The photochemical reaction clearly shows that the primary threering and four-ring radical coupling products are the 3a and 4a isomers. It was impossible to identify these primary products in the thermal-only experiment because of the simultaneous formation of secondary products. 14 In the thermal-only reactions, the primary three-ring products 3a are not among the most abundant, and the primary four-ring products 4a are not even observed (Figure 1A). The secondary products can be understood as arising from follow-up dehydration reactions of the 3a and 4a isomers. It [s](#page-2-0)hould be noted that dehydration occurs efficiently despite the fact that the solvent is water and there are no added reagents or catalysts.

Dehydration of alcohols is perhaps the best-characterized hydrothermal reaction from a mechanistic perspective.^{11,12} This reaction proceeds by acid-catalyzed elimination, with the water acting as the acid catalyst. It is well-known th[at u](#page-10-0)nder hydrothermal conditions K_w for water increases³⁰ and the dielectric constant of water decreases,³⁰ and with the increased thermal energy, the reactivity of the hydronium an[d h](#page-10-0)ydroxide ions should increase. The mechani[sm](#page-10-0)s of the dehydration reactions of the ketones 3a and 4a are not as obvious, however, since these are not alcohols.

Further photolysis-followed-by-thermolysis experiments were performed in order to obtain a quantitative description of the dehydration reactions of 3a and 4a. Photolysis was performed at 300 °C for 2 min, followed by thermolysis at the same temperature for variable time periods. The rates of follow-up thermal dehydration were found to be very different for the 3a isomers and the 4a isomers. The reactions of both diastereomers of 4a were complete within ca. 15 min after the light was shut off (both reacted at the same rate), whereas the reactions of the 3a isomers were much slower. The different isomers of 3a decreased in concentration at different rates, but none decreased by more than a factor of ca. 2 over a period of 1 day. The reactions of the 3a isomers were so slow that accurate measurement of their reaction kinetics was not possible, since they were also being formed by thermal (non-photochemical) decomposition of DBK in the postphotolysis thermal reaction period. However, the kinetics of the conversions of the diastereomers of 4a to the 4b isomers were readily measured by quenching of photolysis samples after different follow-up thermolysis periods (Figure 6). Dehydration of the 4a isomers to the 4b isomers was remarkably fast: the pseudo-first-order

Figure 6. Time dependence of the concentration of 4a (expressed as a fraction of the sum of the $4a$ and $4b¹$ concentrations) in the dehydration reaction of 4a to form furan $4b¹$ in water at 300 °C and 86 bar. The 4a stereoisomer is the one with the shorter gas chromatographic retention time in Figure 1B. 4a was formed by hydrothermal photolysis of DBK for 2 min, and this was followed by thermal dehydration for the various times indicated in the graph. The curve through the data corresponds to a [p](#page-2-0)seudo-first order rate constant of 0.25 min⁻¹. .

Scheme 5. Proposed Mechanisms for Brønsted Acid-Catalyzed Dehydrations of 3a and 4a To Give 3b(′) and 4b 1 or 4b 2 (′), Respectively, via Enol $[3e(')$ and $4e(')]$ and Conjugated Alkene $[3f(')$ and $4f(')]$ Intermediates^{*a*}

aThe (') symbol indicates stereoisomers and/or structural isomers. Acid can catalyze each step; only the first protonated intermediate is shown. Cyclization of the primary protonated intermediate is possible for 4a (but not for 3a) to give furan 4b¹, a structural isomer of dienones 4b²('). The numbers in red are the heats of formation in kJ/mol at 300 °C and 700 bar, calculated using the PM6 method with the solvent modeled using PMC as detailed in the Supporting Information. The values for $3b(')$, $4b^2(')$, and $4b^1$ include the heat of formation of the water that is liberated in the last reaction, which is calculated to be -271 kJ/mol using the PM6/PCM method. Furan $4b¹$ was calculated to be more stable than the corresponding dienones $4b^2(')$ [by ca. 60 kJ/mol under](#page-9-0) these conditions using this method.

Figure 7. Structures of (left) the $(3Z,5E)$ isomer of dienone $4b^2$ and (right) the furan $4b^1$ computed using the semiempirical PM6 method with PCM to model water as the solvent. The structures show a lack of planarity and lack of conjugation between the carbon–carbon and carbon–oxygen double bonds in the dienone and increased planarity in the furan.

rate constant is ca. 0.25 min[−]¹ . It is clear that the reactivities of the 3a and 4a isomers are very different and that any proposed dehydration mechanism needs to account for this difference in reactivity.

We investigated possible acid-catalyzed dehydration reactions computationally. For these large structures, the semiempirical PM6 method was selected.^{24,31} Calculations were performed at 300 °C and 700 bar (the conditions of the original gold tube experiments of ref 14) in s[imul](#page-10-0)ated hot pressurized water using the PCM (details are provided in the Supporting Information). A plausible mecha[nis](#page-10-0)m for the dehydration of 4a/3a involves protonation of a carbonyl followe[d by formation of th](#page-9-0)e corresponding enol (4e/3e), rearrangement to form an alcohol (4f/3f), and conventional acid-catalyzed elimination of water to generate the dienone/diene $(4b^2/3b)$ (Scheme 5). Most of these structures could be formed in multiple stereoisomeric or structural isomeric forms, as indicated by the (′) symbols in

Scheme 5 and as observed in the final dehydration products 3b and $4b²$ in the gas chromatograms in Figure 1.

Heats of formation for the relevant intermediate structures are summarized in Scheme 5. Formation of t[he](#page-2-0) enol was found to be slightly endothermic for both 3a and 4a, as expected, and the isomerization 3e/4e to 3f/4f was almost thermoneutral. Deprotonation of the initially protonated carbonyl may skip the enol and form the alcohols 3f/4f directly, but the energy changes along the two reaction pathways to the dienes 3b and the dienones $4b^2$, including the final dehydration step, are very similar and cannot account for the large observed difference in the reaction rates for 3a and 4a. The isomeric dienones $4b²$ shown in Scheme 5 are sterically congested, and extensive conjugation is not observed in any of the calculated structures (e.g., see Figure 7). This lack of conjugation due to steric crowding is also observed in the enol and alkene isomers 3e/4e and 3f/4f. The heats of formation of the four stereoisomers of the dienones $4b²$ were found to be similar, although the

(3Z,5E) isomer is the most stable computationally and is the least crowded (Figure 7). The uncertainty in the heats of formation of isomeric organic structures such as those in Scheme 5 has been esti[ma](#page-7-0)ted to be ca. 16 kJ/mol. 32 One of the products of dehydration of 4a is formed in significantly higher yield th[an](#page-7-0) the others (Figure 1B). The energy o[f t](#page-10-0)he (3Z,5E) isomer is lower than those of the others by ca. 30 kJ/mol (i.e., by more than the reported esti[m](#page-2-0)ated uncertainty in the heats of formation), but this energy difference is not enough to account for the formation of this isomer in significantly higher abundance than the others. However, another dehydration pathway is available to 4a that can form a product that is even more stable than the dienones.

Protonated 4a can undergo the known Paal−Knorr cyclization to form a furan, $^{33^{\circ}}$ whereas the corresponding protonated 3a cannot (Scheme 5). This additional reaction pathway readily accounts for t[he](#page-10-0) significantly increased rate of dehydration of 4a compared with 3a. The furan that would be formed, show[n](#page-7-0) as structure $4b¹$ in [S](#page-7-0)cheme 5 and Figure 7, is a structural isomer of the dienones $4b²$ in Scheme 5. Computationally, this furan is found to be significan[tly](#page-7-0) more stabl[e](#page-7-0) than the dienones (by ca. 6[0](#page-7-0) kJ/mol at 300 $^{\circ}$ C and 700 bar), which in turn suggests that it is the major dehydration isomer observed with the shortest retention time in the gas chromatograms of Figure 1. Although still sterically congested, furan $4b¹$ is more conjugated than the least hindered dienone (Figure 7), which presu[m](#page-2-0)ably contributes to its increased stability.

Isome[rs](#page-7-0) are possible for the dienones but not for furan $4b¹$. . Three dehydration isomers are clearly observed in the gas chromatograms shown in Figure 1, and smaller peaks due to other isomers can also be detected at longer reaction times. Dehydration may form all of the [i](#page-2-0)somers, or interconversion among the dienone isomers could also occur via protonation and deprotonation reactions. The development of a true thermodynamic equilibrium among the various isomers is unlikely, however, as a result of further follow-up reactions of dienones $4b²$ as discussed below.

Studies of model reactions also support Scheme 5. Enolization of ketones 3a and 4a can be tested using DBK itself as a model. As mentioned above, we expect the inhere[nt](#page-7-0) Brønsted acid and base catalytic activity in water to be high at 300 °C. The hydrothermal reaction of DBK in deuterated water at 300 °C for 10 min resulted in complete incorporation of four deuteriums in the unreacted DBK, as determined by mass spectrometry, presumably as a consequence of exchange of the four enolizable hydrogens in DBK.³⁴ Thus, enolization readily occurs on the time scale of the dehydration reaction. The second isomerization step can als[o](#page-10-0) be readily understood as proceeding via acid catalysis (protonation followed by deprotonation), similar to enolization (Scheme 5). That this process could also be fast on the time scale of the 4a dehydration is supported by the calculated heats [o](#page-7-0)f formation, which indicate that the process $4e \rightarrow 4f$ is even less endothermic than the enolization step, as well as observation of rapid interconversions among isomeric alkenes under similar conditions.¹⁵

The final step in the mechanism of Scheme 5 is dehydration of the al[coh](#page-10-0)ol, which we modeled by studying the same reaction in 1-phenylethanol (eq 4). The[rm](#page-7-0)olysis of 1 phenylethanol in water for 1 h at 300 °C resulted in conversion of 50% of the alcohol to styrene. The mechanism of hydrothermal alcohol dehydration has previously been shown

to proceed via protonation of the oxygen followed by conventional E1 or E2 elimination.^{11,12} The rate of this dehydration is intermediate between those observed for the overall more complex dehydrations o[f](#page-10-0) [3a](#page-10-0) and 4a, suggesting that the reactions in Scheme 5 are plausible on the observed time scales.

E SEPARATING THE ION[IC](#page-7-0) AND RADICAL REACTION PATHWAYS

The photochemical reaction effectively separates the radical reactions from the mainly ionic secondary dehydration reactions that occur simultaneously with the radical reactions in the pure thermal reaction (Scheme 3). This separation allowed us to construct the reaction scheme for the formation of the fragmentation and coupling product[s](#page-3-0) (Scheme 3), which was not possible from the previous thermal-only studies.¹⁴

Hydrothermal photolysis followed by thermolysis [ev](#page-3-0)entually results in a product distribution resembling that of th[e p](#page-10-0)ure thermolysis reaction (Figure 1A). As mentioned above, thermolysis after photolysis results in the complete removal of the 4a isomers via dehydratio[n.](#page-2-0) Thermolysis after photolysis does not completely remove the 3a isomers, but their product distribution changes compared with that after short-time photolysis alone. In particular, the major product of hydrothermal photolysis, $3a^1$, becomes the least abundant of the $3a$ isomers upon thermolysis, and additional three-ring structures are observed, although in greater yields than could be explained by reactions of 3a alone.

This observation is explained by recognizing that $3a¹$ can undergo the same dehydration reaction as 4a to give 3b isomers (Scheme 3). The structures assigned to $3a^2$ and $3a^3$, however, cannot undergo corresponding dehydration but could in principle [u](#page-3-0)ndergo reactions similar to those of DBK itself. Under the experimental conditions and time scales, conversion to secondary products would be expected to be minimal since the reactions of DBK itself are relatively slow.¹⁴ Toluene (1) would be expected to be a major product of these reactions, but structural isomers of bibenzyl (2a) and other c[oup](#page-10-0)ling products would also be expected to form eventually. In support of this, small peaks in the gas chromatograms, close to authentic bibenzyl, are observed upon extended thermolysis and appear to be bibenzyl isomers on the basis of mass spectral analysis (Figure 1).

After extended thermolysis, the major three-ring structure is aldehyde 3d, which is formed as multiple stereoisomers (Schem[e](#page-2-0) 3). We have not yet investigated this reaction in detail; however, the aldehyde yield after extended reaction times is [su](#page-3-0)fficiently large that it cannot be formed from reactions of the primary three-ring products 3a. A potential alternate source of 3d is via bond homolysis in dienones $4b²$ (Scheme 3). The other product of this reaction would be toluene (1) , although formation of 3d and 1 from $4b²$ requires two hydr[og](#page-3-0)en atoms. With extended reaction times, stilbene (2b, mainly the trans isomer) becomes a major product in the two-benzene-ring region at the expense of bibenzyl (Figure 1A). The conversion to stilbene from bibenzyl formally generates hydrogen atoms that could be used in the formation [o](#page-2-0)f 3d from $4b^2$. .

■ **CONCLUSIONS**

Hydrothermal photolysis of dibenzyl ketone allows the identification of the primary radical coupling products in the corresponding thermal reactions and reveals unexpected reactions of benzylic radicals in high-temperature water. Hydrothermal photolysis also allows separation of the radical and ionic reactions that occur simultaneously in the purely thermal experiment without photolysis. Reactions of the benzyl radicals at high temperature that do not occur under ambient conditions include ortho and para coupling and hydrogen atom abstraction from DBK itself. The increased thermal energy and increased K_w facilitate rapid Brønsted acid- and base-catalyzed reactions that are not observed under ambient conditions, specifically dehydration of the ketones 3a and 4a. Although alcohol dehydration has been observed many times in hydrothermal organic reactions, this work points to dehydration as a generally favorable process for different kinds of structures.⁵ The follow-up reactions in Scheme 5 are mainly Brønsted acid-catalyzed, and it is well-known that natural geologic systems are characterized by widely var[yi](#page-7-0)ng pH and distributions of organic materials and functional groups.³⁵ Isolation of the ionic pH-dependent reactions is thus a valuable tool to aid in the understanding of the complex schemes t[hat](#page-10-0) often characterize geologically relevant organic processes.

EXPERIMENTAL SECTION

Most of the chemicals were available from previous work.¹⁴ Copper chloride (98%) was purchased from Sigma-Aldrich and used without purification. The hydrothermal photolysis experiments w[ere](#page-10-0) carried out in fused silica glass tubes (GM Associates, Inc.) that had a 6 mm outside diameter and a 2 mm inside diameter. DBK was weighed into the tubes, and 0.2 mL of argon-purged deionized water was added to obtain solutions that, when heated, ranged in concentration from 0.035 to 1 molal. It was previously confirmed that DBK is soluble at all experimental concentrations at 300 °C.¹⁴ The samples were frozen in liquid nitrogen, evacuated using three pump−freeze−thaw cycles, and sealed under vacuum with a hydrogen [fl](#page-10-0)ame to a length of ∼12 cm. Each sample occupied ∼8 cm of the tube length at room temperature, and the remainder was evacuated headspace. The volume of the headspace was diminished by water expansion at 300 °C since the density of water decreases ca. 30% in going from room temperature to 300 °C. The pressure in the tube at 300 °C was determined to be ca. 86 bar using SUPCRT 92.³⁶ The sealed fused silica tubes were placed vertically in a large brass block that was heated using cartridge heaters. A thermocouple inside th[e](#page-10-0) brass block next to the sample tube was used to monitor the reaction temperature. The samples were preheated in the brass block at 300 °C for 5 min before irradiation for time periods of 2 to 33 min. The 5 min preheating time was established in an experiment where the temperature was measured directly using a thermocouple placed inside the same silica glass tube containing silicone oil. The light source was a 200 W mercury arc lamp (Osram HBO200W) equipped with an arc lamp power supply system (model 8500, Oriel, Stamford, CT, USA). A filter solution of potassium chromate and sodium carbonate was used to isolate the 313 nm emission line and control the light intensity. 37 After irradiation, the samples were immediately quenched in a cold-water bath.

For longer-time-scale (thermolysis only) ex[per](#page-10-0)iments, the samples were heated in a gas chromatography oven at 300 °C for 3, 7, or 12 days. Thermolysis experiments in gold tubes at 300 °C and 700 bar were performed using the apparatus and methods described previously.¹⁴ A low-pressure gold capsule hydrothermal experiment at 300 °C and 86 bar was performed by sealing a gold capsule inside a larger fuse[d](#page-10-0) silica tube with a 12 mm outside diameter and a 6 mm inside diameter, which was placed in a Swagelok pipe that contained water to equalize the pressure inside and outside the fused silica tube and prevent fracture. Room-temperature photolyses of DBK were

carried out in the same fused silica tubes and apparatus as the hightemperature photolysis experiments. Radical trapping experiments were performed using 0.5 molal CuCl₂ at 300 °C and 86 bar.

The extraction and analytical procedures were as described previously.¹⁴ Gas chromatography with flame ionization detection (FID) was used for quantitative analysis of the reaction mixtures. Because of [th](#page-10-0)e low conversions and the number of products, it was not possible to isolate the coupling products containing three or four benzene rings. As described previously,¹⁴ the gas chromatography FID response factors for these coupling structures were estimated on the basis of the number of benzene rings t[ha](#page-10-0)t they contained; specifically, the values for the three-benzene-ring and four-benzene-ring structures were estimated to be 1.5 and 2.0 times larger than that for DBK, respectively.

■ ASSOCIATED CONTENT

S Supporting Information

Computational details, a description of the quantum yield experiments, mass spectra of the coupling products, and the full citation for ref 24 (as SI ref 5). This material is available free of charge via the Internet at http://pubs.acs.org.

■ AUTHOR [IN](#page-10-0)FORM[ATION](http://pubs.acs.org)

Corresponding Authors

*E-mail: lynda.williams@asu.edu.

- *E-mail: h.hartnett@asu.edu.
- *E-mail: [everett.shock@asu.edu.](mailto:lynda.williams@asu.edu)

*E-mail: [igould@asu.edu.](mailto:h.hartnett@asu.edu)

Notes

The auth[ors declare no c](mailto:igould@asu.edu)ompeting financial interest.

■ ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

This work was supported by National Science Foundation Grant OCE 0826588. We thank all of the members of the Hydrothermal Organic Geochemistry (HOG) Group at ASU for many stimulating discussions and helpful suggestions. We are also grateful to Pierre Herckes and Jinwei Zhang (Arizona State University) for their assistance with the GC−MS analysis.

■ **DEDICATION**

I.R.G. dedicates this manuscript to the memory of N. J. Turro, a master teacher and scholar, who used the photochemistry of dibenzyl ketone to teach the chemical community so much.

■ REFERENCES

(1) Falkowski, P.; Scholes, R. J.; Boyle, E.; Canadell, J.; Canfield, D.; Elser, J.; Gruber, N.; Hibbard, K.; Hogberg, P.; Linder, S.; Mackenzie, F. T.; Moore, B.; Pedersen, T.; Rosenthal, Y.; Seitzinger, S.; Smetacek, V.; Steffen, W. Science 2000, 290, 291−296.

(2) (a) Dasgupta, R. Rev. Mineral. Geochem. 2013, 75, 183−229. (b) Manning, C. E.; Shock, E. L.; Sverjensky, D. A. Rev. Mineral. Geochem. 2013, 75, 109−148.

(3) Helgeson, H. C.; Richard, L.; McKenzie, W. F.; Norton, D. L.; Schmitt, A. Geochim. Cosmochim. Acta 2009, 73, 594−695.

(4) Horsfield, B.; Schenk, H. J.; Zink, K.; Ondrak, R.; Dieckmann, V.; Kallmeyer, J.; Mangelsdorf, K.; di Primio, R.; Wilkes, H.; Parkes, R. J.; Fry, J.; Cragg, B. Earth Planet. Sci. Lett. 2006, 246, 55−69.

(5) Shock, E. L.; Canovas, P.; Yang, Z.; Boyer, G.; Johnson, K.; Robinson, K.; Fecteau, K.; Windman, T.; Cox, A. Rev. Mineral. Geochem. 2013, 76, 311−350.

(6) (a) Price, L. C.; DeWitt, E. Geochim. Cosmochim. Acta 2011, 65, 3791−3826. (b) Tassi, F.; Vaselli, O.; Capaccioni, B.; Montegrossi, G.; Barahona, F.; Caprai, A. Geochem., Geophys., Geosyst. 2007, 8, No. Q05008.

The Journal of Organic Chemistry and the Second Second

(8) For example, see: (a) Siskin, M.; Katritzky, A. R. Science 1991, 254, 231−237. (b) Katritzky, A. R.; Nichols, D. A.; Siskin, M.; Murugan, R.; Balasubramanian, M. Chem. Rev. 2001, 101, 837−892. (c) Siskin, M.; Katritzky, A. R. Chem. Rev. 2001, 101, 826−835.

(d) Akiya, N.; Savage, P. E. Chem. Rev. 2002, 102, 2725−2750.

(e) Hunter, S. E.; Savage, P. E. Chem. Eng. Sci. 2004, 59, 4903−4909.

(f) Watanabe, M.; Sato, T.; Inomata, H.; Smith, R. L.; Arai, K.; Kruse, A.; Dinjus, E. Chem. Rev. 2004, 104, 5803−5821.

(9) (a) Avola, S.; Guillot, M.; da Silva-Perez, D.; Pellet-Rostaing, S.; Kunz, W.; Goettmann, F. Pure Appl. Chem. 2013, 85, 89−103. (b) Shanab, K.; Neudorfer, C.; Schirmer, E.; Spreitzer, H. Curr. Org. Chem. 2013, 17, 1179−1187.

(10) (a) Seewald, J. S. Nature 1994, 370, 285−287. (b) Seewald, J. S.; Zolotov, M. Y.; McCollom, T. Geochim. Cosmochim. Acta 2006, 70, 446−460.

(11) (a) Shock, E. L. Geochim. Cosmochim. Acta 1993, 57, 3341− 3349. (b) Xu, X.; Antal, M. J. AIChE J. 1994, 40, 1524−1534. (c) Xu, X.; Antal, M. J.; Anderson, D. G. M. Ind. Eng. Chem. Res. 1997, 36, 23− 41. (d) Kuhlmann, B.; Arnett, E. M.; Siskin, M. J. Org. Chem. 1994, 59, 3098−3102. (e) Akiya, N.; Savage, P. E. Ind. Eng. Chem. Res. 2001, 40, 1822. (f) Ott, L.; Bicker, M.; Vogel, H. Green Chem. 2006, 8, 214−220. (12) Antal, M. J.; Brittain, A.; DeAlmeida, C.; Ramayya, S.; Roy, J. C.

ACS Symp. Ser. 1987, 329, 77−86. (13) (a) LaRowe, D. E.; Van Cappellen, P. Geochim. Cosmochim. Acta 2011, 75, 2030−2042. (b) Burdige, D. J. Geochemistry of Marine Sediments; Princeton University Press: Princeton, NJ, 2006.

(14) Yang, Z.; Gould, I. R.; Williams, L. B.; Hartnett, H. E.; Shock, E. L. Geochim. Cosmochim. Acta 2012, 98, 48−65.

(15) Shipp, J.; Gould, I. R.; Herckes, P.; Shock, E. L.; Williams, L. B.; Hartnett, H. E. Geochim. Cosmochim. Acta 2013, 104, 194−209.

(16) For example, see: (a) Belsky, A. J.; Maiella, P. G.; Brill, T. B. J. Phys. Chem. A 1999, 103, 4253−4260. (b) Li, J.; Brill, T. B. Int. J. Chem. Kinet. 2003, 35, 602−610. (c) Li, J.; Brill, T. B. J. Phys. Chem. A 2001, 105, 6171−6175. (d) McCollum, T. M.; Seewald, J. S. Geochim. Cosmochim. Acta 2003, 67, 3645−3664.

(17) For example, see: (a) Hoering, T. C. Org. Geochem. 1984, 5, 267−278. (b) Yamamoto, M.; Yokota, Y.; Oshima, K.; Matsubara, S. Chem. Commun. 2004, 1714−1715. (c) Matsubara, S.; Yokota, Y.; Oshima, K. Org. Lett. 2004, 6, 2071−2073. (d) McCollom, T. M.; Lollar, B. S.; Lacrampe-Couloume, G.; Seewald, J. S. Geochim. Cosmochim. Acta 2010, 74, 2717−2740. (e) Reeves, E. P.; Seewald, J. S.; Sylva, S. P. Geochim. Cosmochim. Acta 2012, 77, 582−599.

(18) Seewald, J. S. Geochim. Cosmochim. Acta 2001, 65, 1641−1664. (19) (a) Robbins, W. K.; Eastman, R. H. J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1970, 92, 6076−6077. (b) Robbins, W. K.; Eastman, R. H. J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1970, 92, 6077−6079. (c) Turro, N. J. Tetrahedron 1982, 38, 809− 817. (d) Gould, I. R.; Baretz, B. H.; Turro, N. J. J. Phys. Chem. 1987, 91, 925−929. (e) Garcia-Garibay, M. A.; Zhang, Z.; Turro, N. J. J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1991, 113, 6212−6218. (f) Turro, N. J. Acc. Chem. Res. 2000, 33, 637−646. (g) Warrier, M.; Turro, N. J.; Ramamurthy, V. Tetrahedron Lett. 2000, 41, 7163−7167.

(20) For example, see: Palmer, D. A.; Drummond, S. E. Geochim. Cosmochim. Acta 1986, 50, 813−823.

(21) (a) Turro, N. J.; Gould, I. R.; Baretz, B. H. J. Phys. Chem. 1983, 87, 531−532. (b) Lunazzi, L.; Ingold, K. U.; Scaiano, J. C. J. Phys. Chem. 1983, 87, 529−530.

(22) Gould, I. R.; Turro, N. J.; Zimmt, M. B. Adv. Phys. Org. Chem. 1984, 20, 1−51.

(23) Turro, N. J.; Weed, G. C. J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1983, 105, 1861− 1868.

(24) Frisch, M. J.; et al. Gaussian 09, revision C.01; Gaussian, Inc.: Wallingford, CT, 2009.

(25) Blanksby, S. J.; Ellison, G. B. Acc. Chem. Res. 2003, 36, 255−263. (26) Bordwell, F. G.; Harrelson, J. A. Can. J. Chem. 1990, 68, 1714− 1718.

(27) Fernandez-Ramos, A.; Miller, J. A.; Klippenstein, S. J.; Truhlar, D. G. Chem. Rev. 2006, 106, 4518-4584.

(28) Dust, J. M.; Arnold, D. R. J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1983, 105, 1221− 1227.

(29) For example, see: Lehr, G. F.; Turro, N. J. Tetrahedron 1981, 37, 3411−3420.

(30) Harvey, A. H.; Friend, D. G. In Aqueous Systems at Elevated Temperatures and Pressures; Palmer, D. A., Fernandez-Prini, R., Harvey, A. H., Eds.; Elsevier: San Diego, CA, 2004.

(31) Stewart, J. P. P. J. Mol. Model. 2007, 13, 1173−1213.

(32) Isegawa, M.; Fiedler, L.; Leverentz, H. R.; Wang, Y.; Nachimuthu, S.; Gao, J.; Truhlar, D. G. J. Chem. Theory Comput. 2013, 9, 33−45.

(33) Amarnath, V.; Amarnath, K. J. Org. Chem. 1995, 60, 301−307. (34) For example, see: Siskin, M.; Katritzky, A. R.; Balasubramanian, M. Fuel 1995, 74, 1509−1511.

(35) McSween, H. Y.; Richardson, S. M.; Uhle, M. E. Geochemistry: Pathways and Processes, 2nd ed.; Columbia University Press: New York, 2003.

(36) Johnson, J. W.; Oelkers, E. H.; Helgeson, H. C. Comput. Geosci. 1993, 18, 899−947.

(37) Murov, S. L.; Carmichael, I.; Hug, G. L. The Handbook of Photochemistry, 2nd ed.; CRC Press: Boca Raton, FL, 1993.