to this explanation.

First, the calculations reproduce observed changes in the secondary effect when the primary hydrogen is changed from H to D, and vice versa. Experimentally, deuteration at one of the sites reduces the isotope effect at the other by factors of 1.03 ± 0.02 (Kurz and Frieden^{5,13}) or around 1.14 (cited as ref 11 by Cook, Oppenheimer and Cleland⁶). The calculation for point A predicts a factor of 1.09. Those for points B, C, and D predict respectively 0.99, 0.99, and 1.00.

Second, if the mass of the transferring atom is increased to 16 amu, thus (crudely) simulating solvolysis⁸ and acyl-transfer reactions,⁹⁻¹² anomalous phenomena disappear. If this mass change but no other alteration is made in the model for point A, $k_{
m lpha H}/k_{
m lpha D}$ becomes 1.060 and $K_{\alpha H}/K_{\alpha D}$ 1.100. As with deuteration, an increase in reduced mass for the reaction coordinate has greatly reduced the importance of tunneling and the associated anomalies.

The results are consistent with, but do not demand, a ubiquitous importance of tunneling in hydrogen transfer. The similar observations of Saunders and his co-workers¹⁵⁻¹⁷ for proton transfer in elimination reactions add reinforcement to such a suggestion. It is possible that enzymes that catalyze hydrogen transfer have developed part of their catalytic power by not only altering the *height* of the reaction barrier but also its *shape*, thus altering the contribution of tunneling.

(14) The calculations shown in Figure 2 correspond to a total bond order about H_1 of approximately unity, which is usually assumed in hydrogen-transfer reactions (a practice that derives from: Johnston, H. S. "Gas Phase Reaction Rate Theory", Ronald Press: New York, 1966). Any of the models that reproduces approximately the observed secondary and primary isotope effects yet maintains a low imaginary frequency and thus has no tunneling contribution requires extremely low bond orders about the transferring hydrogen. Such models are probably unreasonable for hydrogen-transfer reactions but perhaps not for heavy-atom transfers.

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Group-Transfer Polymerization. 1. A New Concept for Addition Polymerization with Organosilicon Initiators¹

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Although the conjugate addition of silvl ketene acetals to α ,- β -unsaturated carbonyl compounds has been used in organic synthesis,² application of this chemistry to polymer formation by sequential additions is unprecedented. This communication describes such a process for the controlled polymerization of α,β -unsaturated esters, ketones, nitriles, and carboxamides. This

Scheme I



Scheme II



new method offers new dimensions in the construction and design of polymer chains from these monomers.

Scheme I illustrates the polymerization of methyl methacrylate (MMA) with dimethylketene methyl trimethylsilyl acetal³ (1) as initiator. This new method of addition polymerization is termed "group-transfer polymerization" (GTP)⁴ since the trimethylsilyl group is transferred from 1 (or 2 or 3) to the incoming monomer.

A catalyst is required for the polymerization to proceed, and surprisingly, one of the most generally useful catalysts is bifluoride ion. Although fluorides have been widely used for the catalysis of nucleophilic reactions of organosilanes,^{2g} this is the first report of the general utility of bifluoride ion in the catalysis of such reactions. Other anions that catalyze GTP are Me₃SiF₂,⁵ CN, and N₃.6,7 Table I summarizes the results.

In general, GTP proceeds rapidly at room temperature and gives living polymer of narrow molecular weight distribution in quantitative yield.⁸ The degree of polymerization is controlled by the ratio of monomer to 1. The living polymers are isolable and characterizable.⁹ Hence, further addition of monomer leads to

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⁽⁶⁾ Lewis acids such as zinc halides and alkylaluminum chlorides also catalyze group-transfer polymerization (most likely by activation of the monomer). This work will be published in the near future by O. W. Webster, B. M. Trost, W. R. Hertler, and D. Y. Sogah.
 (7) Although tetraalkylammonium bifluorides or even potassium bifluoride

can be used, we found tris(dimethylamino)sulfonium bifluoride (TAS HF₂) to give the best overall results. Tris(dimethylamino)sulfonium bifluoride was prepared in quantitative yield by treatment of tris(dimethylamino)sulfonium difluorotrimethylsilicate (27.5 g, 0.10 mol) with water (1.0 mL, 0.055 mol) in acetonitrile (20 mL). Purification was achieved by crystallization from MeCN/THF (1/10, v/v). The product has the expected ¹H and ¹⁹F NMR spectral properties, and the elemental analysis was within 0.3% of theory.

⁽⁸⁾ In a typical procedure, MMA (360 mmol) is slowly added to a solution of 1-methoxy-1-(trimethylsiloxy)-2-methyl-1-propene (1, 8.5 mmol) and tris(dimethylamino)sulfonium bifluoride (0.01 mmol) in tetrahydrofuran (20 mL) at room temperature with exclusion of moisture. When the exothermic reaction is complete, methanol (3 mL) is added, and the solution is evaporated to give a quantitative yield of poly(methyl methacrylate), M_n 4300, M_w 5300 (theory, 4343), dispersity (D) = M_w/M_n = 1.24, as determined by GPC.

Table I. Polymers by Group-Transfer Polymerization

entry	monomer(s)	initiator	cataly st ^a	solvent	polymer			
					M _n	Mw	D	theor
1	methyl methacrylate	1	TASF, SiMe,	THF, -78 °C	1120	1750	1.56	2040
2 ^b	methyl methacrylate	1	TASN ₃	CH ₃ CN	3000	3100	1.03	3700
3	methyl methacrylate	1		CH ₃ CN	1700	19 00	1.10	2000
4 ^b	methyl methacrylate	Me, SiCN	TASCN	CH ₂ CN	800	800	1.03	1000
5 ^c	methyl methacrylate (35%) n-butyl methacrylate (65%)	9a [°]	TASHF ₂	THF	22100	24500	1.11	20307
6^d	methyl methacrylate (35%) ethyl acrylate (65%)	9 a	TASHF ₂	THF	3400	6500	1.92	3466
7 ^e	methyl methacrylate (57%) n-butyl methacrylate (32%) allyl methacrylate (11%)	1	TASHF ₂	THF	3800	4060	1.07	4060
8 ^c	methyl methacrylate (17%) n-butyl methacrylate (17%) glycidyl methacrylate (25%)	1	TASHF ₂	THF	3910	4290	1.10	4092
9	N.N-dimethylmethacrylamide	Me, SiCH, CO, Et	TASF, SiMe,	THF	1400	2000	1.43	2260
10	methyl vinyl ketone	1	TASF, SiMe,	CH ₃ CN/THF	49 0	944	1.93	800
11	methyl methacrylate	OS Me3	TASF ₂ SiMe ₃	CH ₃ CN/THF	2100	2400	1.14	2000

 a TAS = $(Me_{2}N)_{3}S$. ^b Induction period observed. ^c Random copolymer, composition in mole per cent. ^d Diblock copolymer. ^e Triblock terpolymer. Glass transition temperatures are -19, +38, and +108 °C.

Scheme III



the anticipated molecular weight increase while sequential addition of other monomers gives block copolymers. GTP can be terminated by either desilylation or removal of catalyst.

Our mechanistic studies of GTP of MMA with tris(dimethylamino)sulfonium (TAS) bifluoride and TAS Me_3SiF_2 as catalysts show that a fluorosilane is not produced in a reversible, dissociative step. As evidence, polymerization of MMA with phenyldimethylsilyl initiator 4 in the presence of an equimolar



quantity of tolyldimethylsilyl fluoride with TASHF₂ catalyst (25–50 °C, 0.75 h) provided phenyldimethylsilyl oligomer **3** with less than 5% of the corresponding tolyldimethylsilyl derivative. A similar experiment using TASMe₃SiF₂ catalyst (-95 to -90 °C, 5 min), followed by an irreversible catalyst quench with spirosilane **5**,¹⁰ resulted in only ca. 10% incorporation of the tolyldimethylsilyl fragment.

We propose an intramolecular transfer mechanism in which the silyl group is transferred directly from 1 or 3 to the carbonyl oxygen of the monomer via hypervalent silicon intermediates 6

Scheme IV



and 7 (Scheme II). Results with appropriately labeled 3 ($n \ge 10$) show that silvl group exchange is not involved.

Other organosilicon compounds such as ethyl trimethylsilylacetate (entry 9, Table I) and trimethylsilyl cyanide (entry 4, Table I; Scheme III) operate as initiators.¹¹ With Me₃SiCN as initiator, a reactive intermediate 8 (Scheme III) is formed.

Polymers with terminal functional groups can be prepared by GTP using an initiator containing a protected functional group (entries 5 and 6, Table I). Thus, initiation of MMA polymerization with **9a** gives, after deprotection, PMMA with a terminal hydroxy group,¹² **9b** (Scheme IV). Similarly, initiator **10a**¹³ leads to **10b**.

GTP provides a route to polymers containing a pendent functionality sensitive to free radicals; e.g., a copolymer containing 11% allyl ester group is readily synthesized (entry 7, Table I). A copolymer with this level of allyl functionality prepared by free radical polymerization would be heavily cross-linked.

In conclusion, group-transfer polymerization of α , β -unsaturated esters appears to be a more versatile method of polymerization than previously known methods, allowing for superior control of molecular structure and functionality.

Acknowledgment. We thank Professor Barry M. Trost, University of Wisconsin, for helpful discussions. B. C. Anderson, T. Fukunaga, and B. E. Smart also contributed substantially.

Registry No. 1, 31469-15-5; **9a**, 85248-36-8; Me₃SiCN, 7677-24-9; Me₃SiCH₂CO₂Et, 4071-88-9; TaASF₂SiMe₃, 59218-87-0; TASN₃, 59094-58-5; TASCN, 59094-55-2; TASHF₂, 85248-37-9; MMA, 80-62-6; PMMA, 9011-14-7; *n*-butyl methacrylate, 97-88-1; ethyl acrylate, 140-88-5; allyl methacrylate, 96-05-9; glycidyl methacrylate, 106-91-2;

⁽⁹⁾ The intermediates 2 and 3 (n = 5, 9) have been isolated and characterized by ¹H NMR and GPC. Comparison of 100.6-MHz ¹³C NMR spectra of 3 (n = 9), PMMA (of the same tacticity), and 1 provided accurate peak assignment. For a detailed 25-MHZ ¹³C NMR analysis of PMMA, see: Randall, J. C. "Polymer Sequence Determination, Carbon-13 Method"; Academic Press: New York, 1977; pp 11-114, and references therein.

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Picosecond Observation of Kinetic vs. Thermodynamic Hydrogen Atom Transfer

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In an earlier paper,¹ it was demonstrated that the photoinduced reduction of benzophenone (Bph) by N-methylacridan (NMA) occurs via an electron-proton-electron mechanism (Scheme I). The initial step (within 10 ps after 355-nm laser excitation in benzene) is electron transfer from NMA to ³Bph yielding the corresponding radical ions Bph- and NMA+, which have visible absorbances with λ_{max} of 720 and 640 nm, respectively. Subsequent to electron transfer, proton transfer occurs from NMA⁺. to Bph⁻ ($t_{1/2}$ = 500 ps) yielding the benzophenone ketyl radical $(\lambda_{\text{max}} = 550 \text{ nm})$ and the N-methylacridanyl radical $(\lambda_{\text{max}} = 520 \text{ nm})$ nm). Previously,¹ it was assumed that proton transfer occurred from the 9-position of NMA⁺ (rather than from the N-methyl position) since the more stable, and observed, acridanyl radical would be the immediate product.² We now report that initial proton transfer occurs from the N-methyl position of NMA⁺. followed by a fast $(t_{1/2} < 500 \text{ ps})$ intramolecular [1,5] proton shift yielding the acridanyl radical.

The experimental procedure for obtaining absorption spectra of photolysis intermediates with a time resolution of 25 ps has been described in detail.^{1.4} Three systems observed simultaneously contained 0.05 M Bph and 1.0 M either NMA or the two deuterated analogues NMA-9,9- d_2 and N-(methyl- d_3)acridan.⁵

The rate of proton transfer from NMA⁺ and NMA⁺ $\cdot .9,9-d_2$ were identical (within 3% as determined by the disappearance of Bph⁻ and NMA⁺ \cdot); however, the N-(methyl- d_3) acridan gave a slower rate of proton transfer yielding $k_{\rm H}/k_{\rm D} = 1.4 \pm 0.05$. These results indicate that initial proton transfer occurs from the Nmethyl position rather than the 9 position of NMA⁺. The ratios of ketyl radical to N-methylacridanyl radical (determined by the ratio of the 550- and 520-nm peaks) were constant for all three systems studied indicating that although initial proton transfer occurs from the N-methyl position, the N-methylacridanyl radical appears at a rate similar to ketyl radical formation.

Further evidence that initial proton transfer occurs from the N-methyl position with subsequent formation of the acridanyl







radical was obtained by NMR analysis. A solution of 1 M Bph with 0.015 M N-(methyl- d_3)acridan in C₆D₆ was photolyzed to ~50% conversion of the acridan. The remaining starting material contained >20% N-(methyl- d_2)acridan. Furthermore, the 9,9'-acridanyl dimer (one of the major products) contained ~100% N-methyl- d_2 groups.⁷

Initial proton transfer from the *N*-methyl position will create an ylide. Since the acridanyl radical appears as fast as the ketyl radical, the ylide must be converted to the acridanyl radical within 500 ps. Two mechanisms can account for conversion of the ylide to the radical, paths a and b, Scheme II. Path a is an *inter*molecular hydrogen atom transfer from the 9-position of acridan to the ylide yielding acridanyl radical and acridan. If path a is occurring, we anticipate that other ylides similar to the NMA ylide will also abstract a hydrogen atom from NMA. *N*,*N*-Dimethyl-*p*-toluidine (DMT) undergoes electron-proton transfer to ³Bph in C₆H₆ at rates similar to those for NMA. Proton transfer from DMT⁺ to Bph⁻ will create a DMT ylide similar to the NMA ylide. Laser excitation of 0.05 M Bph with 1 M



DMT-ylide

NMA and 1 M DMT in C_6H_6 showed the same amount of ketyl radical (5 ns after excitation) as a solution with only 1 M NMA but showed only half as much acridanyl radical. This result shows that the DMT ylide does not abstract a hydrogen atom from acridan and rules out path a as the mechanism for acridanyl radical formation. By exclusion pathway b, an *intra*molecular [1,5] sigmatropic shift, must be occurring.

The reason for kinetically favored proton abstraction from the N-methyl group rather than the thermodynamically favored 9position must be due to the geometry of the ion pairs in solution. It is anticipated that the favored geometry would allow maximum π system overlap between the two aromatic systems and strong

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 Mass spectral analysis of NMA and NMA-9,9-d₂ has shown that hydrogen atom loss occurs predominantly from the 9 position.³ Our mass spectral analysis of NMA, NMA-9,9-d₂, and N-(methyl-d₃)acridan confirm this previous conclusion, indicating that <1% of the hydrogen loss occurs from the N-methyl position in the gas phase.
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(5) NMA was prepared as described previously.⁶ The NMA-9,9-d₂ was

⁽⁵⁾ NMA was prepared as described previously.⁶ The NMA-9,9- d_2 was prepared by NaBD₄ reduction of *N*-methylacridone in 2-propanol at 80 °C, 14 h, 75% yield, NMR and mass spectrum indicated it was >93% d_2 , ~6% dH, and <1% H₂. *N*-(methyl- d_3)acridan was prepared similar to NMA using CD₃I rather than CH₃I. NMR and mass spectrum indicated it was >99.8% methyl- d_3 .

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⁽⁷⁾ Photolysis was done with a 300-W medium-pressure Hg arc lamp filtered through a 330-m cutoff filter. NMR analysis of the mixture (1.0 M Bph and 0.015 M N-(methyl- d_3)acridan in C₆D₆) before photolysis showed a peak at 3.66 ppm due to the methylene bridge protons (9 position) and a very small peak at 2.80 ppm due to the <0.2% N-(methyl- d_2)acridan in the starting material (along with many peaks between 6.5 and 8 ppm due to the Bph and NMA aromatic protons). After photolysis to 50% conversion, N-(methyl- d_2)acridan (2.80 ppm, pentet) accounts for >20% of the remaining starting material and pentets appear at 2.69 and 2.60 ppm. We assign the pentet at 2.60 ppm to the 9,9'-(N-(methyl- d_2)acridanyl) dimer shows a singlet at 2.63 ppm). The pentet at 2.69 is possibly due to the mixed dimer from the acridanyl and ketyl radicals. The position of the N-methyl- d_2 NMR peaks in the starting material (2.80 ppm) and in the 9,9'-acridanyl dimer (2.60 ppm) are shifted upfield from the N-methyl groups in the corresponding compounds, 2.84 and 2.63 ppm, respectively. Isotope shifts of these magnitudes for CHD₂ vs. CH₃ groups are common in proton NMR.⁸ NMR spectra were recorded on a Bruker 300 MHz.