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VOLUME NINE, NUMBER TEN

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CONTENTS / CONTEÚDO

AN EFFICIENT METHOD FOR THE SYNTHESIS OF NEW SUBSTITUTED CHROMENS I. Badea, Philippe Cotelle and Jean-Pierre Catteau 1 A VERSATILE PROCEDURE FOR THE SUNTHESIS OF NEW PRENYLATED CINNAMIC ACIDS Irinel Badea, Philippe Cotelle and Jean-Pierre Catteau..... 5 RESPONSE OF THE COMMON CABBAGE (Brassica oleracea L. var. capitata) TO BORON FERTILIZATION Vitor de Cinque Almeida, Luzia Otilia Bortotti Favero 9 and Ervim Lenzi STUDIES ON N-(2-THIENYLMETHYLIDENE)-2AMINOPYRIDINE COMPLEXES OF Fe(II), Co(II), Ni(II), Cu(II), Zn(II) AND Cd(II) Cezar Spinu, Angela Kriza, Aurelia Meghea and Cristian Tigae 17 A QUEUEING MODEL FOR SOME CATALYTIC REACTIONS Paraschiv Balea and Gheorghe Potcovaru 23 CHROMIUM (III) COMPLEX ANIONS IN THE CHEMICAL ANALYSIS. THIORIDAZINE DETERMINATION Ion Ganescu, George Bratulescu, Ion Papa, Anca Ganescu, Cristian Tigae and Daniela Cartana 31 FLUORIDES EVALUATION IN SPENT POT LINER: TOXICITY CHARACTERISTIC LEACHING PROCEDURE LIMITATIONS B. I. Silveira, J.E. Blasquez, A. E. Dantas and R. K. P. Santos 41 CHEMICAL ELEMENTS, ALLOYS AND MINERALS OCCURRING NATURALLY IN METEORITES Lavinel G. Ionescu and Paulo César Pereira das Neves .. 47 NEW Cr(III) COMPOUNDS IN ANALYTICAL CHEMISTRY. Bi(III) CONDUCTOMETRIC DETERMINATION. Olimpia Rusu, Maria Pleniceanu, Mihaela Mureseanu, AUTHOR INDEX 69 COLLECTIVE TITLE AND AUTHOR INDEX Volumes 1-8, Numbers 1-9 71

SOUTHERN BRAZILIAN JOURNAL OF CHEMISTRY SOUTH. BRAZ. J. CHEM., Vol. 9, Nº 10, 2001

1

AN EFFICIENT METHOD FOR THE SYNTHESIS OF NEW SUBSTITUTED CHROMENS

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ABSTRACT

The chromen derivatives can be obtained in excellent yields, in three steps, using first the phase transfer catalysis for the synthesis of phenol ether followed by cyclisation and the Perkin reaction.

KEYWORDS: Lipoxygenase inhibitors, Phase Transfer Catalysis (PTC), Chromens

RESUMO:

Derivados do cromeno foram obtidos com rendimentos excelentes a partir de benzaldeídos em tres etapas usando primeiro catálise por transferência de fase por ciclização e a reação de Perkin.

INTRODUCTION

Inhibitors of the lipoxygenase enzymes and antagonists of leukotrines are now being developed and it remains to be seen if these componds will have the predicted therapeutic value in the treatment of human asthma and inflamation. A general strategy and design for such inhibitors has been under development in our laboratories.

The synthesis of new molecules containing both cinnamic acid and chromene groups is reported in this paper. Such molecules have wide therapeutic possibilities, being able to inhibit the lipoxygenase pathway of arachidonic acid metabolism.

SOUTH. BRAZ. J. CHEM., Vol. 9, Nº 10, 2001

Efficient Synthesis of Substituted Chromens

Conversion of arachidonic acid by the 5 - lipoxygenase enzyme results in the formation of 5 - hydroperoxy - 6, 8, 11, 14 - eicosatetraenoic acid which is subsequently metabolized to a series of highly potent leukotrienes. These oxygenated eicosanoids are implicated in inflammatory and allergic reactions. Little is known at present about the way in which 5 - lipoxygenase acts and any type of information about this mechanism may contribute to the treatment of vascular diseases^{1,2}.

It has been recentely proved that the caffeic $acid^{3,4}$ and a series of chromene derivatives⁵ are good inhibitors of 5 - lipoxygenase. In an attempt to understand the physicochemical background of the structural effects of the side chains as well as the ring systems on the inhibition, we synthesized two new compounds that contain a chromene moiety and a cinnamic acid side chain. At the present, only the 2,2 dimethyl - 6 - carboxyethenyl - 2H - 1 - benzopyran is known and it was isolated and identified from Brazilian propolis⁶ but it was never synthesized *in situ*.

Conventionaly⁷ the chromens are synthesized in two steps. The first is the reaction of the 3 - chloro - 3 methylbutyne with a convenient phenolic substrate, in the presence of potassium iodide and potassium carbonate. This step requires aproximately 65 hours and the O - dimethylprop - 2 - ynyl ether is obtained in a rather poor yield (24%). In the second step the O - dimethyl prop - 2 - ynyl ether, heated at 218°C for 2 hours in diethylaniline to give chromen (56%) by means of the acetylene version of the Claisen rearrengement. Besides the poor yield, this method has a number of disadvantages like the long time required for the synthesis of the ether and the laborious chromatographic procedure required for its purification.

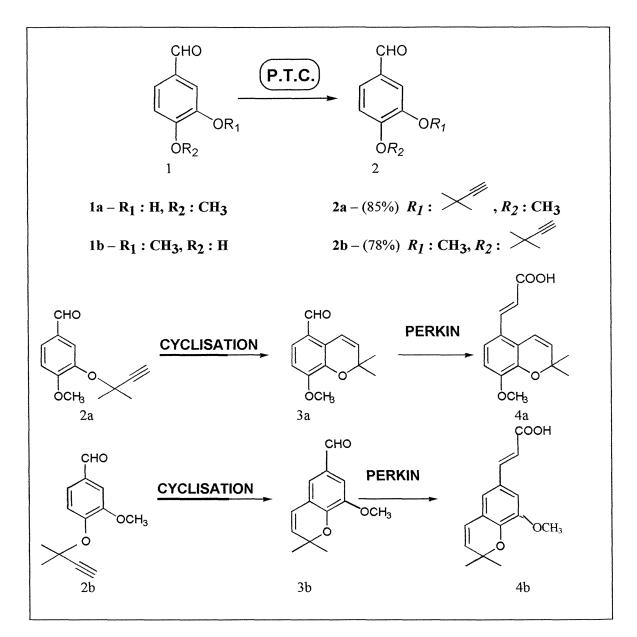
This paper reports an efficient procedure to obtain the chromen derivative (figure 1). This synthesis is based on the observations of $McKillop^8$ who used the phase - transfer catalysis (P.T.C.) for the preparation of the phenol ether. Compared with the classical methods, the new route proposed for the synthesis of the O - dimethylprop - 2 - ynyl ether gave a very good yield (85%), was carried out in a relatively short time (8 - 10 h) and no further purification by chromatographic method was necessary.

EXPERIMENTAL PROCEDURE

A mixture of 50 mL of dichloromethane, 50 mL of water, 10 mmoles of the hydroxy benzaldehyde 1 (Figure 1), 20 mmoles of sodium hydroxide, 20 - 30 mmole of 3 - chloro - 3 methylbutyne and 1 - 1.5 mmole of quaternary ammonium bromide was stirred at room temperature for 8 - 10 h. After this time a volume of 25 ml solution of NaOH (1 M) was added and stiring was continued for 15 minutes. The organic layer was separated and the aqueous layer was extracted with methylene chloride. Removal of the solvent yielded the pure ether 2. This ether was disolved in diethylaniline and the procedure described by

2

I. Badea, P. Cotelle & J.P. Catteau



Crombie was applied to obtain the chromene derivative **3**. The product with the cinnamic side chain **4** was obtained (90% yield) using the general procedure of the Perkin reaction⁹.

Figure 1. Synhtesis of substituted chromens using the new route proposed

Efficient Synthesis of Substituted Chromens

Analytical characterization of the products gave the following results:

3 a : **5** - formyl - 8 - methoxy - 2,2 dimethyl chromen (92%) ¹**H** NMR (CDCl₃) 1,47 ppm (s, 6 H -2x CH₃); 3,90 ppm (s, 3 H - OCH₃); 5,80 ppm (d, 1H, ³J = 10,13 Hz); 6,87 ppm (d, 1H_{arom} ³J = 8,49 Hz); 7,30 ppm (d, 1H_{arom} ³J= 8,49 Hz); 7,44 ppm (d, 1H ³J= 10,14 Hz); 9,96 ppm (s, 1H - CHO); **MS m/e** (percent, relative abundance) 218 (M⁺, 13,77); 203 (M⁺-CH₃, 100); **IR (v cm⁻¹)** 3100 - 2700 (v_{C-H}); 1690 (v_{C=O}); 1495 (v_C-Carom).

3b : *6* - *formyl* - *8* - *methoxy* - *2,2 dimethyl chromen* (88%) ¹H NMR (CDCl₃) 1,44 ppm (s, 6 H -2x CH₃); 3,85 ppm (s, 3 H - OCH₃); 5,62 ppm (d, 1H, ${}^{3}J$ = 9,90 Hz); 6,28 ppm (d, 1H, ${}^{3}J$ = 9,90 Hz); 7,09 ppm (d, 1H_{arom} ${}^{3}J$ = 1,72 Hz); 7,24 ppm (d, 1H_{arom} ${}^{3}J$ = 1,69 Hz); 9,78 ppm (s, 1H, CHO); **MS m/e** (percent, relative abundance) 218 (M⁺, 16,27); 203 (M⁺-CH₃, 100); **IR (v cm**⁻¹) 3000 - 2800 (v_{C-H}); 1695 (v_{C=O}); 1460 (v_{C-Carom}).

4a : **5** - carboxyethenyl - 8 - methoxy - 2,2 dimethyl chromen (90%) ¹H NMR (CDCl₃) 1,50 ppm (s, 6 H -2x CH₃); 3,88 ppm (s, 3 H - OCH₃); 5,78 ppm (d, 1H, ³J = 10,04 Hz); 6,28 ppm (d, 1H, ³J = 15,72 Hz); 6,70 ppm (d, 1H, ³J= 10,09 Hz); 6,80 ppm (d, 1H_{arom} ³J = 8,68 Hz); 7,17 ppm (d, 1H_{arom} ³J = 8,64 Hz); 8,01 ppm (d, 1H, ³J = 15,72 Hz); MS m/e (percent, relative abundance) 260 (M⁺, 18,19); 245 (M⁺-CH₃, 100); IR (v cm⁻¹) 3600 - 2890 (v_{O-H} et v_{C-H}); 1690 (v_{C=O}); 1490 (v_{C-Carom}).

4b : **6** - carboxyethenyl - 8 - methoxy - 2,2 dimethyl chromen (85%) ¹H NMR (CDCl₃) 2,10 ppm (s, 6 H -2x CH₃); 3,90 ppm (s, 3 H - OCH₃); 5,60 ppm (d, 1H, ³J = 9,86 Hz); 6,22 ppm (d, 1H, ³J = 9,62 Hz); 6,25 ppm (d, 1H, ³J= 15,72 Hz); 6,83 ppm (s, 1 H_{arom}); 6,94 ppm (s, 1 H_{arom}); 7,66 ppm (d, 1H, ³J = 15,83 Hz); 11,58 ppm (s, 1 H, COOH); ¹³C NMR (CDCl₃) 15,1 ppm (q, CH₃); 25,6 ppm (d, CH₃); 28,1 ppm (d, CH₃); 30,2 ppm (d, CH); 56,2 ppm (d, CH); 65,9 ppm (d, CH); 111,2 ppm (d, CH); 114,4 ppm (d, CH); 120,2 ppm (d, CH); 121,7 ppm (s, C); 123,5 ppm (s, C); 131,4 ppm (s, C); 147,2 ppm (s, C); 149,2 ppm (s, C); 175,0 ppm (s, C); MS m/e (percent, relative abundance) 260 (M⁺, 18,07); 245 (M⁺-CH₃, 100); **IR (v cm⁻¹)** 3600 - 2500 (v_{O-H} et v C-H); 1690 (v_{C=O}); 1420 (v_{C-Carom}).

Summarising, a simple, rapid and highly efficient procedure for the synthesis of chromen derivatives is now available.

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4

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5

A VERSATILE PROCEDURE FOR THE SYNTHESIS OF NEW PRENYLATED CINNAMIC ACIDS

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ABSTRACT

The prenylated cinnamic acids can be obtained in excellent yields, in two steps, using first a one - step conversion of corresponding bromobenzaldehydes to corresponding prenylated benzaldehydes.

KEYWORDS: lipoxygenase inhibitors, metallation, n butyl lithium, prenylated cinnamic acid

RESUMO:

Os ácidos cinâmicos prenilados podem ser obtidos com rendimentos excelentes em duas etapas, a primeira sendo a conversão correspondente dos bromobenzaldeídos aos benzaldeídos prenilados. A segunda etapa envolve a reação de Perkin.

INTRODUCTION

Leukotrienes (LTs) are a family of important inflamatory mediators produced by an enzymic cascade which is initiated by the action of 5 - lipoxygenase (5 - LO) on arachidonic acid. Leukotrienes are significantly involved in immunoregulation and in a variety of diseases, including asthma, inflammation and various allergic conditions.

Our research group is interesed in the design, synthesis, isolation, conformations, dynamics and structure - biological activity relationships of this new class of inhibitors of arachidonate lipoxygenases. This paper reports our findings on the synthesis of new prenylated cinnamic acids. The inhibitory effect and the bio - analytical behaviour of 3 - [3,4 dimethoxy - 5 - (3-methylbut-2-enyl) phenyl] 2 propenoic acid have been tested in our laboratories.

New Prenylated Cinnamic Acids

Although a few selective inhibitors have been reported, most of them are difficult to be obtained^{1,2}. Caffeic acid^{3,4}, which is one of the most common reagents, is a selective inhibitor for 5-LO and therefore of leukotriene biosynthesis. The phenolic natural products bearing isoprenoid substituents have been reported by many authors⁵ to posses antiinflamatory, antiallergic, antiviral and antitumor properties. This observation is important for us in future design strategy. The search for new synthetic approaches for the prenylated compounds is a continously growing area of investigation. Prenylated benzaldehydes are very rarely synthesized by the direct introduction of a prenyl group, the reason being that the methods used often give low yields, involve a multistep sequence and overoxidation problems^{6,7,8}.

An original and efficient procedure to obtain the prenylated benzaldehydes which are precursors in the synthesis of cinnamic acids is reported in this paper. To accomplish direct metallation of 3,4 dimethoxy benzaldehyde it was decided to look at the bromobenzaldehyde derivative, as an easily available substrate.

The 3,4 dimethoxy-(3-methylbut-2-enyl) benzaldehydes were synthesised using a modified procedure applied for the one-step convertion of bromobenzaldehyde to the corresponding hydroxybenzaldehydes⁹. Figure 1 shows the importance of achieving metallation in a direct manner.

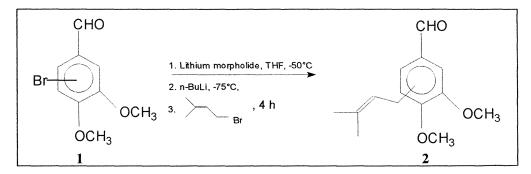


Figure 1. Conversion of bromobenzaldehyde to corresponding prenylated benzaldehyde

The method involves the in situ protection of the aldehyde function of the bromobenzaldehyde as its lithium morpholinoalkoxide, followed by lithium - bromide exchange and reaction with 1-bromo-3- methyl-but-2-enyl at -78°C. The usual procedure

provided a crude mixture of 3,4 dimethoxy - (3-methylbut-2-enyl) benzaldehyde and 3,4 dimethoxybenzaldehyde which was purified by chromatography on silica gel with ethyl acetate : petroleum ether (3 : 2, v/v) as eluent, thus furnishing pure 3,4 dimethoxy-5-(3-methylbut-2-enyl) benzaldehyde in a 50 - 55% yield.

EXPERIMENTAL PROCEDURE

All chemicals used were analytical reagent grade. Packing material for column chromatography was Merck, silica gel 60 (70 - 230 mesh). Solvent used for metallation was thoroughly dried prior to use. Morpholine was stored over NaOH pellets under argon in a septum - capped bottle.

SOUTH. BRAZ. J. CHEM., Vol. 9, Nº 10, 2001

I. Badea, P. Cotelle & J.P. Catteau

An oven - dried three - necked, round bottom flask equipped with a stirring bar, septum cap, thermometer and argon inlet was charged with morpholine (1 mL) and THF (20 - 30 mL). The mixture was cooled to - 50°C and a solution of n - butyl lithium in hexane was added all at once. After 10 minutes a solution of the bromobenzaldehyde (10 mmol) in 20 mL of THF was injected over a period of 5 min. and the mixture was allowed to cool to -70°C over 20 min. A solution of n - butyl lithium in hexane was then added dropwise, keeping the temperature at ~ -75°C. After 35 min a solution of 1-bromo-3-methylbut-2-enyl was added dropwise. Stirring was continued for an additional 4 h and the temperature was slowly increased to 0°C. The mixture was quenched with cold water, the solvent was removed in vacuo and the remaining aqueous phase was extracted twice with hexane. The basic aqueous solution was acidified with cold HCl and extracted with methylene chloride or ether. The extracts were washed successively with brine and water and dried over anhydrous sodium sulfate. Removal of the solvent yielded a crude material which was chromatographed.

Analytical characterization of the products gave the following results:

 $2a^*$: 3,4 dimethoxy-2-(3-methylbut-2-enyl) benzaldehyde (12% from the NMR spectrum); NMR ¹H (CDCl₃) δ 1,68 (s, 3H, CH₃), 1,75 (s, 3H, CH₃), 3,70 (d, 2H Ph-CH₂=CH, J=7,20 Hz), 3,95 (s, 6H, 2xOCH₃), 5,16 (bt, 1H), 6,80 (d, 1H_{arom}, J=9 Hz), 7,40 (d, 1H_{arom}, J=9 Hz) 10,00 (s, 1H-CHO).*This compound can be obtained with a better yield using the procedure described by Crombie⁷.

2b : *3,4 dimethoxy-5-(3-methylbut-2-enyl) benzaldehyde* (57%): pale yellow oil; ¹H NMR (CDCl₃) δ 1,65 (s, 6H-2xCH₃), 3,30 (d, 2H Ph-CH₂=CH, J=7,34 Hz), 3,95 (s, 6H, 2xOCH₃), 5,16 (bt, 1H), 7,20 (s, 2H_{arom}), 9,74 (s, 1H-CHO); ¹³C NMR (CDCl₃) 17,6 ppm (q, CH₃); 25,6 ppm (q, CH₃); 28,4 ppm (t, CH₂); 55,6 ppm (q, CH₃); 60,3 ppm (q, CH₃); 108,3 ppm (d, CH_{arom}); 121,9 ppm (d, CH); 125,9 ppm (d, CH_{arom}); 132,1 ppm (s, C); 133,0 ppm (s, C); 135,9 ppm (s, C); 152,6 ppm (s, C); 153,2 ppm (s, C); 191,3 ppm (d, CH); **IR** (CHCl₃) cm⁻¹ 2900 - 2790, 1695, 1590, 1460; **MS m/e** (percent, relative abundance) 234 (M⁺, 40), 219 (M⁺-CH₃, 27), 150 (100); Anal. Calcd for C₁₄H₁₈O₃ C, 71.76; H, 7.75 found C, 71.85; H,7.80.

2c : *3,4 dimethoxy-6-(3-methylbut-2-enyl) benzaldehyde* (48%) ¹H NMR (CDCl₃) δ 1,70 (s, 6H-2xCH₃), 3,70 (d, 2H Ph-CH₂=CH, J=7,34 Hz), 3,95 (s, 6H, 2xOCH₃), 5,21 (bt, 1H), 6,70 (s, 1H_{arom}), 7,35 (s, 1H_{arom}), 10,17 (s, 1H-CHO); ¹³C NMR (CDCl₃) 18,0 ppm (q, CH₃); 25,6 ppm (q, CH₃); 30,4 ppm (t, CH₂); 55,9 ppm (q, OCH₃); 56,0 ppm (q, OCH₃); 110,6 ppm (d, CH); 112,4 ppm (d, CH); 123,1 ppm (d, CH); 126,6 ppm (s, C); 132,7 ppm (s, C); 140,0 ppm (s, C); 147,6 ppm (s, C); 153,8

ppm (s, C); 190,1 ppm (d, CHO); **IR** (CHCl₃) cm⁻¹ 3000 - 2800, 1680, 1510, 1485; **MS** m/e (percent, relative abundance) 234 (M⁺, 40), 205 (M⁺-CHO₂, 62); Anal. Calcd for $C_{14}H_{18}O_3 C$, 71.76; H, 7.75 found C, 71.70; H,7.60.

As the research was focused only on the synthesis of the 3 - [3,4 dimethoxy - 5 - (3-methylbut-2-enyl) phenyl] 2 propenoic acid (Figure 2), this compound was prepared using the general procedure of the Perkin reaction¹⁰ changing only the time of reaction.

.f. BRAZ. J. CHEM., Vol. 9 , Nº 10, 2001

New Prenylated Cinnamic Acids

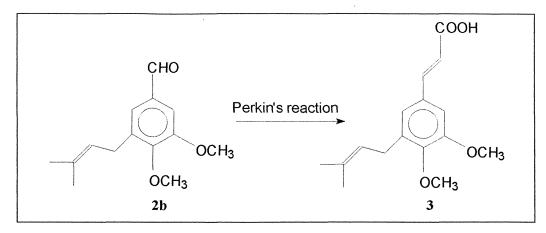


Figure 2. Synthesis of 3 - [3,4 dimethoxy - 5 - (3-methylbut-2-enyl) phenyl] 2 propenoic acid

3 - [3,4 dimethoxy - 5 - (3-methylbut-2-enyl) phenyl] 2 propenoic acid ¹H NMR (CDCl₃) δ 1,75 (s, 6H-2xCH₃), 3,45 (d, 2H Ph-CH₂=CH, ³J=7,34 Hz), 3,85 (s, 6H, 2xOCH₃), 5,25 (bt, 1H), 6,30 (dd 1H, ³J=15,90 Hz), 6,90 (dd, 2H_{arom}, ⁴J=1,93 Hz), 7,70 (dd, 1H, ³J=15,90 Hz); ¹³C NMR (CDCl₃) 17,7 ppm (q, CH₃); 25,7 ppm (q, CH₃); 28,3ppm (t, CH₂); 55,6 ppm (q, OCH₃); 60,4 ppm (q, OCH₃); 109,1 ppm (d, CH_{arom}); 115,8 ppm (d, CH); 122,2 ppm (d, CH); 123,2 ppm (d, CH_{arom}); 129,6 ppm (s, C); 133,1 ppm (s, C); 136,1 ppm (s, C); 147,4 ppm (d, CH); 148,9 ppm (s, C); 152,9 ppm (s, C); 172,6 ppm (s, CH); IR (CHCl₃) cm⁻¹ 3600 - 2400, 1700, 1630, 1410; MS m/e (percent, relative abundance) 276 (M⁺, 100), 206 (M⁺-CH=CH-COO, 27), ; Anal. Calcd for C₁₆H₂₀O₄ C, 69.55; H, 7.30 found C, 69.55; H,7.36.

In a preliminary test the potency of these compouns as inhibitors of lipoxygenases was determined¹¹.

Summarising, a new and highly effective procedure for the synthesis of prenylated cinnamic acid is now available. Further work is in progress.

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SOUTHERN BRAZILIAN JOURNAL OF CHEMISTRY

SOUTH. BRAZ. J. CHEM., Vol. 9, Nº 10, 2001

9

RESPONSE OF THE COMMON CABBAGE (Brassica oleracea L. var. capitata L.) TO BORON FERTILIZATION

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ABSTRACT: The response of the common cabbage (Brassica oleracea L. var. capitata L.) to boron fertilization in soils of the state of Paraná, Brazil, is provided. Six types of soils, LRd; LRe, Ca₁; Ca₂, TRd and LEd were selected, treated with macronutrient fertilizer, their pH was corrected, according to routine. Experiment was conducted in 2.5-L capacity pots, with 2 kg of each soil, in a greenhouse. Each type of soil, in triplicate samples, received boron treatment with boric acid: 0.0 g; 0.1 g; 0.2 g. Pots were kept at 70% water capacity retention during 7 days, after which they received 6 cabbage shoots. Two shoots were maintained and later only one was kept in each pot. Duration of experiment was 8 weeks, after which harvest was undertaken. Plants were dried in stoves, weighted, ground and conditioned for further analysis. Extractor HCl 0.05 mol L⁻¹ was used to determine boron in soils. Although soils Ca₁, LRd and LEd gave significant responses to treatments, concentrations of available boron over 4 µg g⁻¹ were toxic to cabbages.

Key words: boron; micronutrients, cabbage, fertilization.

RESUMO: O presente trabalho teve como objetivo avaliar a resposta do repolho (Brassica oleracea L., var. capitata L.) à adubação boratada em solos do Estado do Paraná. Para isto, foram selecionados 6 tipos de solos: LRd; LRe; Ca₁; Ca₂; TRd; LEd; nos quais realizaram-se a adubação com o micronutriente boro e a correção do pH, seguindo-se a análise de rotina. Em casa de vegetação foi montado o experimento em vasos de 2,5-L. Em triplicata, cada solo recebeu tratamento com B (boro): 0,0 g; 0,1 g; 0,2 g na forma de ácido bórico. Os vasos foram mantidos a 70% da capacidade de retenção água durante 7 dias, quando receberam 6 mudas de repolho, conservando-se posteriormente duas, e em seguida apenas uma planta em cada vaso. O experimento foi conduzido por 8 semanas, quando foram feitas as coletas das plantas, as quais, foram secadas em estufa, pesadas, moídas e acondicionadas em frascos plásticos para posterior análise. O extrator utilizado para determinar o boro no solo foi a solução de HCl 0,05 mol L⁻¹. Os solos Ca₁, LRd e LEd mostraram respostas significativas aos tratamentos realizados e as concentrações superiores a 4 µg g⁻¹ mostraram serem tóxicas para o repolho.

Response of Cabbage to Boron Fertilization

INTRODUCTION

Soil nutrients are divided into two important classes: macronutrients found in large quantities in the plant dry matter (%) and micronutrients found in smaller quantities (ppm). Micronutrients are essential chemical elements, such as Fe, Cu, Mn, Zn, Mo, Cl and B required by plants in small quantities¹. Maze and later on Warigton stressed that boron is essential².

The researchers Wear and Berger and Truog, *apud* Ribeiro and Sarabia³, showed that only a tiny fraction of total boron in soil is available to plants. Deficiencies are shown in clay soils with low activity clay, poor in organic matter and low CTC⁴.

The soil low fertility, great upheavals during the harvest of some cultivated plants and the increasing use of lime and phosphate manure cause lower availability of this specific micronutrient⁵. Boron fertilization is necessary to avoid decrease of produce in places where heavy K fertilization and intense cultures are practiced⁶.

Coffee and citric plants, sunflowers, tomatoes and other vegetable species are especially sensitive to boron deficiencies in soil⁷ with consequent losses in productivity⁸. Boron deficiency in plants may be detected when its concentrations in soil range between 0.1 and 0.7 μ g g⁻¹, Buzetto and Muroka⁹.

In plants its functions amount to carbohydrate metabolism, sugar transportation, synthesis of nucleic acids, phytohormones, formation of cell walls and cell division^{10, 11}. Boron deficiency symptoms are generally found in the plant younger sections. In the alfalfa and clover boron deficiency is marked by color variation (yellow-red). Toxicity is confirmed by the appearance of burns or tanning in the leaves edges. One of the chief effects of boron deficiency in plants is the excessive decrease of nitrate in leaves¹². The concentration of boron between 20 and 50 μ g g⁻¹ is considered basic for the development of plants¹³ (Gupta, 1991). More than the cabbage, the genus *Brassica*, represented by the cauliflower and broccoli, is more sensitive to boron deficiencies¹⁴.

The general objective of the present research work is the collection of data for the monitoring of deficiency and toxicity of micronutrients in arable soil. Its specific aim is the analysis of the response of boron fertilization in six different types of soil. The plant used is the cabbage since it is conspicuous in Brazilian food, it is consumed both uncooked and otherwise, it is a cheap nutrient source, albeit rich in mineral salts and vitamins.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Sampling

Six types of soils of five different classes from the state of Paraná, Brazil, were used: dystrophic Red Latosol (LRd); eutrophic Red Latosol (LRe); allic Cambisol (Ca₁); allic Cambisol (Ca₂); structured Dark Red Latosol (TRd); dystrophic Dark Red Latosol (LEd). The above-mentioned soils were also used by Favero¹⁵ in another experiment to evaluate response of the cotton plant to boron application.

V. C. Almeida, L.O. B. Favero & E. Lenzi

Physical analysis of soils

Folk's granulometric classification¹⁶ and Suguio's methodology¹⁷ were employed in the Pedology, Sedimentology and Palinology Laboratory of the Department of Geography of the State University of Maringá, Maringá PR Brazil.

Experiment

Pots of 2.5-L capacity, internally lined with plastic bags, were filled with 2 kg of six types of soil, respectively. Pots were organized as follows: LRd was placed in pots from 1 to 9, corresponding to the three soil boron treatments in triplicate; LRe in pots from 10 to 18; Ca₁ in pots from 19 to 27; CA₂ in pots from 28 to 36; TRd in pots from 37 to 45; LEd in pots from 46 to 54. Soils were fertilized with 3.72 g of NH₄H₂PO₄, 4.5 g of K₂SO₄ and lime according to routine analysis. Boron treatments consisted of 0.0; 0.1 and 0.2 g of boric acid (H₃BO₃) corresponding to: 0,0; 0,010 and 0,10 g kg⁻¹, with three replications, respectively. After the soils were placed in the pots and fertilized, distilled and de-ionized water was added until humidity of 70% of water retention capacity was reached. Irrigation continued for 7 days in the greenhouse. Six cabbage plants were then planted in each pot. Plants with low development were discarded and only one was finally left. Plants were maintained at 70% field capacity during 8 weeks, after which they were harvested.

Yield of vegetal material and samples of soil in the pots

After eight weeks the plants were harvested close to the ground, washed with distilled and de-ionized water, dried in porcelain capsules in a stove at 60 °C to constant weight. Evaluation of the total mass of plants after treatment was accomplished by weighing of the samples.

After harvest, soils were removed from the pots, air-dried, triturated, and passed though 2mm-mesh sieves, homogenized and placed in plastic bags for further analysis.

Extraction and determination of boron in soils

Volumes of 20 mL of HCl 0.05 mol L ⁻¹ were added to each 10 g of sample of airdried fine soil, shaken for 5 minutes and then filtered with a n^0 . 42 Whatman filter paper. Analyses of boron concentration in soils were undertaken from extracts by UV-Vis spectrophotometry with Azomethina-H¹⁸.

Statistics

Variance analysis was applied to the results. When significant difference ranged between 5 and 1%, Tukey test was employed for differentiation at the same levels of significance.

Response of Cabbage to Boron Fertilization

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Table 1 shows the characteristics of soils *in natura* used in the experiment. pH values varied from 5.7 to 7.2, with highest value in LEd. Low rate of organic matter and the high percentage of sand in LEd showed that the added and solved limestone in samples of this soil practically remained in the solution. Consequently, it had the highest pH value. Soils TRd and LRd contained the highest percentage of clay.

Parameters	Ca ₁	Ca ₂	TRd	LRd	LRe	LEd
pH (H ₂ O)	5.7	5.7	6.6	6.2	6.3	7.2
C (%)	3.49	3.99	2.01	2.21	1.37	0.74
O.M.(%)	6.00	6.86	3.46	3.80	2.36	1.27
Clay (%)	39.57	52.62	65.40	65.47	38.77	9.65
Silt (%)	55.43	45.38	33.60	31.53	34.55	3.35
Sand (%)	5.0	2.0	1.0	3.0	6.0	87.0

Table 1. Chemical and Physical Properties of Pre-Treatment Soils.

 $Ca_{(1 and 2)}$ - allic Cambisol; LEa - allic Dark Red Latosol; TRd - Structured Dark Red Soil; LRd - Dystrophic Red Latosol; LRe - eutrophic Red Latosol; LEd - dystrophic Dark Red Latosol.

Treatments caused a 5% significant increase in boron level in soil, as may be seen in Table 2.

Table 2. Tukey's Test at 5% Level in Boron Concentration Means in Soil Solution, in $\mu g g^{-1}$, per Treatment after Harvest.

Soil	Ca ₂	Ca ₁	TRđ	LRd	LRe	LEd
Reference	0.910 <i>b</i>	0.36 b	0.09 c	0.19 <i>c</i>	0.57 <i>b</i>	0.41 <i>c</i>
Treatment 1	1.48 <i>b</i>	2.19 <i>a</i>	1.55 b	1.75 b	1.25 <i>ab</i>	3.86 b
Treatment 2	2.91 a	3.40 <i>a</i>	3.20 <i>a</i>	4.09 <i>a</i>	2.31 <i>a</i>	8.36 a

 $Ca_{(1 \text{ and } 2)}$ - allic Cambisol; TRd - structured dystrophic Red Soil; LRd - dystrophic Red Latosol; LRe - eutrophic Red Latosol; LEd - dystrophic Dark Red Latosol; Reference - soil reference with no boric acid; Treatment 1 - treatment with 0.1 g boric acid; Treatment 2 - treatment with 0.2 g boric acid; (*a*, *b*, ...) -Values followed by the same letter are not significantly different at 5% level, using the Tukey's test (SANEST software).

V. C. Almeida, L. O. B. Favero & E. Lenzi

Many boron concentrations in reference treatments without boron fertilization were within micronutrient deficiency levels, or rather, 0.7 μ g g⁻¹, according to Buzetto and Muroka⁹. Soils Ca₂ and LEa are exceptions.

Soils TRd, LRd and LEd had highest increase in available boron levels, as Table 2 shows. In treatments 1 and 2 LEd had highest concentration of extractable boron, 3.86 and 8.36 μ g g⁻¹ respectively. This may be due to the fact that LEd is a sandy soil with low concentration of clay and organic matter. Practically almost all added boron is available (or present) in the soil solution.

Figure 1 shows values in grams of dry mass of cabbage plants cultivated in three treatments in six types of soil.

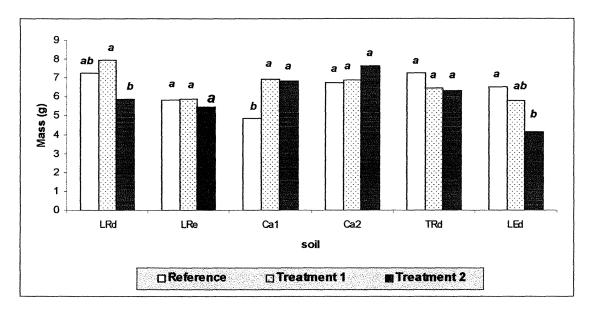


Figure 1. Mass of Plants (in grams) with Respective Treatments.

According to variance analysis there was a significant difference between masses of plants cultivated in treatments with Ca₁, LRd and LEd. It may be remarked that in the case of Ca₁ the plant response to boron fertilization was positive. On the other hand, growth of plants in treatments of LEd was impaired. Negative effect to fertilization is shown by decrease of dry matter of plants to Treatment 1 and more pronounced to Treatment 2. Although in the case of LRd plants response was positive to Treatment 1, fertilization for this type of soil in Treatment 2 was toxic to plants and impaired their growth. The same fact has been noted by Luchese *et al.*¹⁹ with the cotton plant.

Treatments in LEd, LRd and Ca₂ had the most significant response with regard to mass of cabbage plants and boron concentration in soils. Figure 2 shows this correlation in detail. Curve *a* and *b* of the figure show that boron concentrations up to 2 μ g g⁻¹ in these soils did not impair the development of cabbage plants. Treatments with 0.2 g of boric acid caused an increase of over 4 μ g g⁻¹ in available boron concentrations for LEd and LRd. Plants

13

SOUTH. BRAZ. J. CHEM., Vol. 9, Nº 10, 2001

Response of Cabbage to Boron Fertilization

cultivated in these soils presented toxicity levels when concentrations were higher than 4 μ g g⁻¹. This proves that levels between deficiency and toxicity in this micronutrient for the plant under analysis are relatively low²⁰.

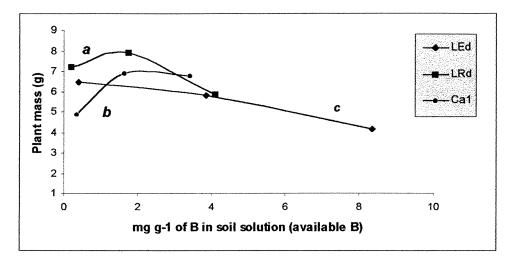


Figure 2. Relation between Boron Concentrations in Soil Solution (available B) and Dry Masses of Plants for Treatments in LRd, LEd and Ca₁.

Soil LRd has low sand concentration, high concentration of clay and organic matter. These factors caused a greater development of the plants in response to fertilization with 0.1 g of boric acid. However, fertilization with 0.2 g surpassed the 4 μ g g⁻¹ of boron available concentration in the soil solution and a lower development of plants occurred. In the case of LEd high presence of sand and low presence of clay and organic matter gave the soil a greater tendency of ion concentration in the solution and more boron was available to the plants. Consequently their growth was impaired, as may be seen in curve *c* of Figure 2.

CONCLUSION

Boron concentration extractable by HCl 0.05 mol L^{-1} in soil samples showed that with treatments (0,00 g kg; 0,010 g kg and 0,10 g kg) there was a significant increase in the level of available boron in the soil.

The cabbage presented a diagnosis of deficiency and toxicity of the boron micronutrient in the six types of soil. Tukey's test showed significant differences in the dry masses of plants in LEd, LRd and Ca_1 . In Ca_1 there was a positive response of the plant to boron fertilization. In LEd the response was negative, and in soil LRd only Treatment 2 impaired the plant development.

Treated soils with available boron concentrations over 4 μ g g⁻¹ may be toxic to the cabbage plant.

V. C. Almeida, L. O. B. Favero & E. Lenzi

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16

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SOUTHERN BRAZILIAN JOURNAL OF CHEMISTRY SOUTH. BRAZ. J. CHEM., Vol. 9, Nº 10, 2001

17

STUDIES ON N-[2-THIENYLMETHYLIDENE]-2-AMINOPYRIDINE COMPLEXES OF Fe(II), Co(II), Ni(II), Cu(II), Zn(II) AND Cd(II)

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ABSTRACT

Metal complexes ML_2Cl_2 , where M is Fe^{II} , Co^{II} , Ni^{II} , Cu^{II} , Zn^{II} and Cd^{II} and L is Schiff base formed by condensation of 2-thiophenecarboxaldehyde and 2-aminopyridine, N-[2-thienylmethylidene]-2-aminopyridine (TNAPY), have been prepared and characterized by elemental analysis, magnetic and spectroscopic measurements. IR and NMR spectra show that the nitrogen of the azomethyne group and the sulphur of the thiophene ring take part in coordination. Magnetic, ESR and electronic spectral studies show a distorted octahedral structure for the Fe(II), Co(II), Ni(II) and Cu(II) complexes and a tetrahedral geometry for the Zn(II) and Cd(II) complexes. Conductance measurements suggest the nonelectrolytic nature of the complexes, with the exception of the Zn(TNAPY)₂Cl₂ and Cd(TNAPY)₂Cl₂ compounds which are 1:2 electrolytes.

KEYWORDS: Schiff base, N-[2-thienylmethylidene]-2-aminopyridine, NMR, ESR, Transition Metal Complexes

RESUMO

Complexos metálicos do tipo ML_2Cl_2 M = Fe(II), Co(II), Ni(II), Cu(II), Cd(II) e L é o liganté N- [2-tienilmetilideno] -2-aminopiridina (TNAPY) foram preparados e caracterizados usando análise elementar e métodos espectroscópicos e magnéticos. Espectros de ressonância magnética nuclear (RMN) e infravermelho (IV) demonstraram que o nitrogênio do grupo azometina e o enxofre do tiofeno participam da coordenação. Estudos de espectros eletrônicos, magnéticos e ressonância de spin do elétron (RSE) idicam uma estrutura octaédrica distorcida para os complexos de Fe(II), Co(II), Ni(II) e Cu(II) e geometria tetraédrica para os complexos de Zn(II) e Cd(II). Medidas de condutância sugerem que a maioria dos complexos não são eletrôlitos, com exceção de Zn(TNAPY)₂Cl₂ e Cd(TNAPY)₂Cl₂ que são eletrolitos 2:1.

INTRODUCTION

The pyridine ring occurs in molecules of many natural and synthetic biologically active compounds. Pyridine derivatives have also found application in hydrometallurgy and metal complexes with pyridine bases have been used as catalysts in a number of technological processes¹⁻⁴.

In continuation of our work on a metal complexes of Schiff bases^{5,6} we report here the results of our studies on the complexes of a Schiff base derived from 2-thiophenecarboxaldehyde (2-TFCA) and 2-aminopyridine (2-APy), N-[thienylmethylidene]-2-aminopyridine (TNAPY), with Fe(II), Co(II), Ni(II), Cu(II), Zn(II) and Cd(II).

Tentative structures have been proposed on the basis of analytical, spectral, magnetic and conductance data.

EXPERIMENTAL

Reagents: FeCl₂·4H₂O (Merck, 99%), CoCl₂·6H₂O (Merck, 99.99%), NiCl₂·6H₂O (Merck, 99.99%), CuCl₂·2H₂O (Merck, 99.99%), 2-thiophenecarboxaldehyde (Merck, 98%), 2-aminopyridine (Merck, 98%).

Synthesis of bidentate Schiff base. An ethanolic solution of 2-TFCA (0.002 mol, 25 ml) was added to an ethanolic solution of 2-APy (0.002 mol, 25 ml) and refluxed for 6h on a water-bath. After the concentration of the solution, the precipitate was filtered, washed with ethanol and dried over CaCl₂ in vacuum. *Anal.* Calcd. for TNAPY : C, 63.83; H, 4.25; N, 14.89; S, 17.02. Found: C, 63.79; N, 14.96; S, 17.43. ¹H NMR: δ_1 8.7; δ_2 7.4; ¹³C NMR: δ_1 162.7; δ_2 132.5; δ_3 111.2.

Synthesis of the ML₂Cl₂ complexes. A mixture of 2-TFCA (0.004 mol, 50 ml) and 2-APy (0.004 mol, 50 ml) in ethanol was added to an ethanolic solution of metal chlorides (0.002 mol, 50ml), at pH=8-8.5. The mixture of reactants was refluxed on a water-bath for 6-8 h. The excess of solvent was then distilled. The compounds separated were filtered, washed with ethanol and dried over CaCl₂ in vacuum. Anal. Calcd. for Co(TNAPY)₂Cl₂: Co, 11.63; C, 47.35; N, 11.05; S, 12.63; Cl, 14.18. Found: Co, 11.71; C, 47.29; N, 11.28; S, 12.60; Cl, 14.67. Calcd. for Ni(TNAPY)₂Cl₂: Ni, 11.59; C, 47.37; N, 11.05; S, 12.63; Cl, 14.19. Found: Ni, 11.31; C, 47.05; N, 10.86; S, 12.76; Cl, 14.38. Calcd. for Cu(TNAPY)₂Cl₂: Cu, 12.42; C, 41.92; N, 10.95; S, 12.51; Cl, 14.06. Found: Cu, 12.11; C, 41.72; N, 11.15; S, 12.52; Cl, 14.11. Calcd. for Zn(TNAPY)₂Cl₂: Zn, 12.47; C, 46.76, N, 10.91; S, 12.47; Cl, 14.00. Found: Zn, 12.44; C, 46.58, N, 10.66; S, 12.45; Cl, 13.56. ¹H NMR: δ_1 9.1; δ_2 7.5; ¹³C NMR: δ_1 165.7; δ_2 137.2; δ_3 116.7. Calcd. for Cd(TNAPY)₂Cl₂: Cd, 20.06; C, 42.83, N, 9.99; S, 11.42; Cl, 12.83. Found: Cd, 20.41; C, 42.56, N, 9.40; S, 11.73; Cl, 13.03. ¹H NMR: δ_1 9.1; δ_2 7.6; ¹³C NMR: δ_1 166.6; δ_2 138.7; δ_3 114.8. Calcd. for Fe(TNAPY)₂Cl₂: Fe, 11.08; C, 47.64, N, 11.11; S, 12.70; Cl, 14.27. Found: Fe, 11.64; C, 47.98, N, 11.03; S, 12.92; Cl, 14.11.

Instruments. The ligand and the complexes were analysed for M, S and Cl by conventional methods^{7,8}, while C and N by microanalytical methods. The IR spectra were obtained with KBr pellets using a BIO-RAD FTS 135 spectrophotometer. The UV-VIS spectra were recorded on an UNICAM UV-VIS UV-4 spectrophotometer in DMF solution. The reflectance spectra were recorded on a VSU-2P spectrometer at room temperature.

18

C. Spinu, A. Kriza, A. Meghea & C. Tigae

The ¹H-NMR spectra (in CDCl₃) were recorded on a Varian T60, and the ¹³C-NMR spectra were obtained using a Bruker WH 270 spectrometer. The ESR spectrum was recorded on an ART 5 spectrometer at room temperature.

The magnetic moments have been determined by the Faraday method. A digital conductivity meter K 612 was used to measure the molar conductivities in DMF solution.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The complexes of Fe(II), Co(II), Ni(II), Cu(II), Zn(II) and Cd(II) with N-[2-thienylmethylidene]-2-aminopyridine (TNAPY) (Fig. 1) appear as powders. They are not soluble in methanol, ethanol and ethyl ether but soluble in DMF.

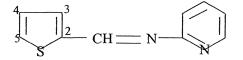


Figure 1. The structure of N-[2-thienylmethylidene]-2-aminopyridine

Based on the elemental analysis, the formula ML_2Cl_2 (Table I) has been suggested for all compounds.

Compounds	Melting point (°C)	Colour	μ _{eff} (BM)	$\frac{\Lambda_{\rm M}^{**}}{(\Omega^{-1}\rm cm^2mol^{-1})}$
Fe(TNAPY) ₂ Cl ₂	160	red	5.20	9.5
Co(TNAPY) ₂ Cl ₂	180	pink	4.88	5.2
Ni(TNAPY) ₂ Cl ₂	175	greenish	3.10	19.8
Cu(TNAPY) ₂ Cl ₂	220	blue	1.88	13.5
Zn(TNAPY) ₂ Cl ₂	240	white	-	126.9
Cd(TNAPY) ₂ Cl ₂	210	yellowish	-	133.2

 Table I. Analytical and Physical Data of the Complexes*

*All the complexes give satisfactory metal, C, S, N and Cl analyses ** in DMF solution

IR and NMR spectra. Some important IR bands of TNAPY and its complexes along with their assignments are presented in Table II.

Thienylmethylidene Complexes of Transition Metals

Compound	VC=N azomethyne	V _{C=N} pyridine	V _{C-S-C}	v_{C-S}	v_{M-N}
TNAPY	1675	1456	920	673	-
Fe(TNAPY) ₂ Cl ₂	1635	1449	843	640	423
Co(TNAPY) ₂ Cl ₂	1621	1455	841	654	419
Ni(TNAPY) ₂ Cl ₂	1626	1456	859	650	430
Cu(TNAPY) ₂ Cl ₂	1625	1450	851	645	420
Zn(TNAPY) ₂ Cl ₂	1640	1451	860	635	418
Cd(TNAPY) ₂ Cl ₂	1630	1453	835	630	415

Table II. Characteristic Infrared Absorption Frequencies (in cm ⁻¹) of Ligand and
Complexes

The IR spectrum of the ligand shows a band at 1675 cm⁻¹ which is assigned to the $v_{C=N}$ of the azomethyne group and an intense band at 1456 cm⁻¹ corresponding to the C=N stretching of the pyridine ring. The comparison of the positions of these bands with those observed in the IR spectra of the complexes indicates that the band at 1675 cm⁻¹ shifts towards lower frequencies ($\Delta v=35-55$ cm⁻¹), while that at 1456 cm⁻¹ does not show a marked shift. This behaviour suggests that TNAPY is coordinated to the central metal ion through the azomethyne nitrogen. The proof of the coordination to the N atom is provided by the occurrence of the bands in the 415-430 cm⁻¹ region in the IR spectra of the compounds.

The band observed in the free ligand spectrum at 920 cm⁻¹ can be ascribed to v_{C-S-C} stretching vibration⁹. This band shifted to lower values with 60-85 cm⁻¹, for all compounds, suggesting the involvement of the sulphur atom in bonding with the metal ions. The band observed at 673 cm⁻¹ in the ligand spectrum, assigned to the v_{C-S} stretching vibration, is similarly shifted. This also confirms that the thiophene ring sulphur is a donor atom¹⁰.

In the ¹H-NMR spectrum of the ligand, the thiophene ring proton 5-H appears at δ 7.4 ppm and the azomethyne proton (-CH=N-) at 8.7 ppm. These signals register downfield shifts (1-2 ppm) in the Zn(II) and Cd(II) complexes. These observations support the bonding of TNAPY through nitrogen and sulphur atoms.

The ¹³C-NMR spectra provide further support for the mode of coordination of TNAPY. In the complexes spectra, the signals due to azomethyne carbon, 2-C and 5-C (thiophene ring) show a distinct downfield shift by nearly 3-6 ppm clearly demonstrating the coordination of the ligand via the nitrogen and sulphur atoms.

Electronic and ESR spectra. Within the UV spectrum of the ligand, the existence of two absorption bands assigned to the transition $n \rightarrow \pi^*$ and $\pi \rightarrow \pi^*$ at 41 518 and 37 340 cm⁻¹, respectively, has been observed.

These transitions are to be found also in the spectra of the complexes, but they are shifted to lower frequencies ($\Delta v=2000-2500 \text{ cm}^{-1}$), confirming the coordination of the ligand to the metal ions. The relevant electronic spectral data are reported in the Table III.

20

C. Spinu, A. Kriza, A. Meghea & C. Tigae

Compound	Absorption maxima (cm ⁻¹)					
[Fe(TNAPY) ₂ Cl ₂]	12 800 11 200					
[Co(TNAPY) ₂ Cl ₂]	21 270	19 040	15 600	9 210	8 3 3 0	
[Ni(TNAPY) ₂ Cl ₂]		22 320	17 000	9 200		
[Cu(TNAPY) ₂ Cl ₂]			16 500			

Table III. Electronic Spectra of the Complexes

The electronic spectrum of the iron(II) complex consists of a pair of low intensity bands at 12800 and 11200 cm⁻¹ arising from ${}^{5}T_{2g} \rightarrow {}^{5}E_{g}$ transitions, similar to those found for distorted octahedral complexes. The doublet is attributed to Jahn-Teller distortion in the excited state¹¹. The room temperature magnetic moment (5.2 BM) corresponds with the octahedral symmetry.

The reflectance spectrum of the Co(TNAPY)₂Cl₂ complex exhibits five bands. The bands at 21270 and 19040 cm⁻¹ arise from the ${}^{4}T_{1g} \rightarrow {}^{4}T_{1g}(P)$ transition which is split in complexes of D_{4h} symmetry. That at 15600 cm⁻¹ arise from the ${}^{4}T_{1g} \rightarrow {}^{4}A_{2g}$ transition and those at 9210 and 8549 cm⁻¹ from the ${}^{4}T_{1g} \rightarrow {}^{4}T_{2g}(F)$ transition.

The ligand field spectrum of the Ni(II) compound could be assigned assuming that the stereochemistry is pseudo-octahedral. The bands may be assigned to ${}^{3}A_{2g} \rightarrow {}^{3}T_{2g}(F)$ (v_1) , ${}^{3}A_{2g} \rightarrow {}^{3}T_{1g}(F)$ (v_2) and ${}^{3}A_{2g} \rightarrow {}^{3}T_{1g}(P)$ (v_3) , respectively. The low energy band is broad indicating (tetragonal) distortion and the room temperature. A magnetic moment (3.1 BM) in the region is expected for the octahedral complexes of the Ni(II) ion.

The proposed structural formulas of Fe(II), Co(II), Ni(II) and Cu(II) complexes is given in figure 2a and those of the Zn(II) and Cd(II) complexes is show in figure 2b.

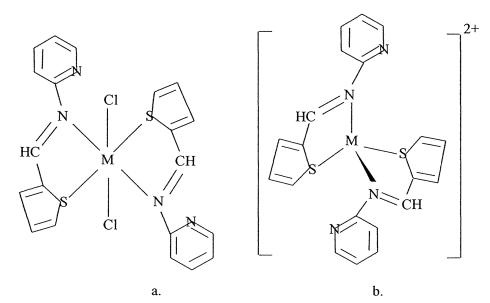


Figure 2. The proposed formulas of the complexes: $a.[M(TNAPY)_2Cl_2] (M = Fe^{II}, Co^{II}, Ni^{II} and Cu^{II});$ $b.[M(TNAPY)_2]Cl_2 (M = Zn^{II} and Cd^{II}).$

The electronic spectrum of Cu(TNAPY)₂Cl₂ complex shows only one broad absorption band at 16500 cm⁻¹ indicating probably a distorted octahedral configuration. The magnetic moment value is 1.88 BM. The ESR spectrum for this compound, measured in a polycrystalline sample at room temperature, gives the following values: $g_{II} = 2.067$ and $g_1 = 2.146$. The value $g_{11} < g_1$ is well consistent with a primarily d_{72} ground state and the spectrum is characteristic of axial (compressed octahedral) symmetry. The parameter G, determined as G = $(g_{II}-2)/(g_{\perp}-2)$, is found to be much less than 4 suggesting a considerable interaction in the solid state¹².

Zinc(II) and cadmium(II) complexes do not show d-d transitions hence their stereochemistry can not be determined from UV and visible reflectance spectra. From stoichiometry and other physicochemical evidence, a four-coordinated tetrahedral geometry is suggested for Zn(II) and Cd(II) complexes (see figure 2b).

The molar conductance of the complexes, in DMF (10^{-3} M) solution, is in the range 5.2-19.8 Ω^{-1} cm²mol⁻¹ indicating their nonelectrolytic nature, with the exception of the Zn(II) and Cd(II) compounds which are 1:2 electrolytes.

CONCLUSIONS

In this paper we report the preparation, isolation and characterisation of a new bidentate Schiff base ligand derived from 2-thiophenecarboxaldehyde and aminopyridine, and its complexes with Fe(II), Co(II), Ni(II), Cu(II), Zn(II) and Cd(II).

The products were characterised by elemental analysis, magnetic and spectroscopic measurements.

From the infrared and NMR spactral studies of the ligand and complexes it is obvious that the ligand act as bidentate coordinating through the azomethine nitrogen and the thiophene sulphur.

Correlating the experimental data, one can predict the stereochemistry of the prepared complexes: distorted octahedral for the $[M(TNATZ)_2Cl_2]$ (M = Fe^{II}, Co^{II}, Ni^{II} and Cu^{II}) and tetrahedral for the $[M(TNATZ)_2]Cl_2$ (M= Zn^{II} and Cd^{II}) compounds.

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23

A QUEUEING MODEL FOR SOME CATALYTIC REACTIONS

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ABSTRACT

The waiting model associated to the catalytical process given by the chemical equation $C + S \stackrel{k_1}{\hookrightarrow} CS \stackrel{k_3}{\longrightarrow} C + P$ (1), is described by the Markov process: $\{X_i(t); t \ge 0\}$, (i = 1, 2, 3, 4), where the random variables are the concentrations of the species C (the catalyst), S (the substrate), CS (the intermediate complex formed by the substrate S and the catalyst) and P (the reaction product) at time t. The equations, that describe the evolution of the process, have been obtained.

KEYWORDS: waiting model, catalytic processes, Markov process.

RESUMO

O modelo de "fila de espera" associado com o processo catalítico descrito pela equação

$$C + S \stackrel{k_1}{\underset{k_2}{\longrightarrow}} CS \stackrel{k_3}{\longrightarrow} C + P (1)$$

é descrito pelo processo de Markov $[X_i(t); t \ge 0],$ [i=l,2,3,4], onde as variáveis casuisticas são as concentrações das espécies C (catalizador), S (substrato), CS (o complexo intermediário formado entre o substrato e o catalizador) e P (o produto da reação) no tempo t. Foram obtidas

as equações que descrevem o processo (1) .

Queueing Model for Catalytic Reactions

1 Introduction

A catalytic reaction may be represented as follows

$$C + S \xrightarrow[k_2]{k_1} CS \xrightarrow{k_3} C + P \tag{1}$$

or, more explicitly,

$$\begin{cases} (T_1): C + S \xrightarrow{k_1} CS\\ (T_2): CS \xrightarrow{k_2} C + S\\ (T_3): CS \xrightarrow{k_3} C + P \end{cases}$$
(2)

We have denoted by C -the catalyst, S -the substrate, CS -the intermediate complex formed by the substrate S and the catalyst, P -the reaction product, k_i (i = 1, 2, 3) -the rate constants of reaction associated with each step of the process.

1. It is probable that the catalyst's reaction with the substrate S is reversible, forming the intermediate complex CS (the bimolecular process T_1) which may dissociate then into the initial reactants (the unimolecular transformation T_2) or may decompose into the reaction product and the catalyst in the initial form (the unimolecular decomposition T_3).

We suppose that the balance between the initial reactants and the complex CS involves very fast reactions with respect to the decomposition step (T_3) , *i.e.* $k_3 \ll k_1$ and $k_3 \ll k_2$, so that the balance is not interrupted by an ordinary decomposition.

Many deterministic models for the kinetics of the catalytic processes were suggested and studied. The deterministic approach still has some deficiencies. Thus, the catalytic processes are developed for the individual molecular species and for the complexes. Actually, the transformations take place only for groups and it is interesting to find a mathematical model for which the number of moles per second is considered, from the mathematical point of view, a continuous variable.

In all the formulations used for a catalytic process involving one or more intermediates probabilistic laws are employed and these should be included in the mathematical model. This is not the case for the deterministic models. The deterministic approach of the catalytic processes does not take into account all the random fluctuations which frequently appear in practice.

In the mathematical model considered, some of these deficiencies typical to the deterministic models are removed by describing more accurately the

24

P. Balea & G. Potcovaru

catalytic process.

We shall consider the catalytic process as a waiting phenomenon. If we take into consideration the action of a catalyst molecule we see that after an "effective" collision with a molecule of the substrate S, it will be free to collide with another molecule of the substrate S.

This leads us to the idea of considering the catalyst molecules as "serving stations" and the molecules of the substrate S as "clients". The transformation of a molecule of the S substrate into the complex means serving one client.

The mechanism of the catalytic processes being generally complicated, its description by a waiting model which takes into consideration all the intervening factors is difficult, and therefore we shall consider a simpler case. We suppose that we introduce in a container x_{10} catalyst molecules (the stations). We suppose that each catalyst molecule is capable at a certain moment of time to transform into intermediary complex CS only a molecule of the S substrate. From (2) we notice that the transformations (T_2) and (T_3) impose to the catalytic process a distinct feature from the point of view of the waiting theory namely the fact that the "serving" mechanism of the client by the station may be terminated either through the "unsatisfied" request (the complex CS may dissociate into the substances C and S which formed it), or through the "satisfied" request, namely the effective serving of the client (the complex CS may decompose in the reaction product P with the catalyst C). In both cases, the station remains free so that the next client may be served.

Another feature of this model is that the catalyst molecules (the stations) and the molecules of substrate S (the clients) have random motions, of Brownian type, changing permanently their positions. If we take into consideration that the number of inefficient collisions between a C and an S molecule is randomized, we deduce that serving is made on the principle "the first arrived is the first served". The whole arriving mechanism is hence random, because there might be more random collisions which did not lead to the formation of the complex before an effective collision. Queueing Model for Catalytic Reactions

2 Waiting Model

The waiting model associated with the catalytic process given by the chemical equations (1) or (2) is described by the Markov process:

$$\{X_i(t); t \geq 0\} \ (i = 1, 2, 3, 4)$$

where the random variables $X_i(t)$ (i = 1, 2, 3, 4) are the concentrations of the species C, S, CS and P at time t.

The state space X is the space of all the possible values x_i (i = 1, 2, 3, 4) which might be taken by the random variable $X_i(t)$ (i = 1, 2, 3, 4).

We suppose that during the infinitesimal interval of time $(t, t + \Delta t)$ either one of the three processes can take place: the formation of the complex CS (T_1) , or its dissociation (T_2) , or its decomposition to form the product (T_3) .

We denote by μ_1, μ_2, μ_3 the stochastic parameters corresponding to the reaction rate constants k_1, k_2, k_3 . The chemical process described by the equations (2) could be defined by using the following probabilities:

1°. $\mu_1 x_1 x_2 \Delta t + 0 (\Delta t)$, the probability that in the interval of time $(t, t + \Delta t)$ the complex CS is formed through the transformation (T_1) , knowing that at the initial time t = 0 there were x_{10} and x_{20} of the type C and S respectively and that at time t (t > 0) there were x_1 and x_2 molecules of C and S, respectively.

 2^{0} . $\mu_{2}x_{3}\Delta t + 0 (\Delta t)$, the probability that in the interval of time $(t, t + \Delta t)$ the complex CS dissociates by transformation (T_{2}) , knowing that at the time t (t > 0) there were x_{3} molecules of the type CS.

 3^{0} . $\mu_{3}x_{3}\Delta t + 0$ (Δt), the probability that in the interval of time $(t, t + \Delta t)$ the complex CS dissociates by means of transformation (T_{3}) , knowing that at the moment t (t > 0) there were x_{3} molecules of type CS.

 4° . $0(\Delta t)$, the probability that in the interval of time $(t, t + \Delta t)$ more than one molecule of the type CS is formed or that more than one molecule of the type CS reacts to form C and S or C and P.

 5^{0} . $1-(\mu_{1}x_{1}x_{2}+\mu_{2}x_{3}+\mu_{3}x_{3})\Delta t+0(\Delta t)$, the probability that in the time interval $(t, t + \Delta t)$ there is no change in the concentrations of the species C, S, CS and P, knowing that at the moment t (t > 0) there were x_{i} (i = 1, 2, 3) molecules of type C, S and CS.

The process defined above, not being linear with respect to the concentrations x_i of the reacting species, is not a simple process of birth and death. The concentrations of the species C, S, CS and P are statistically indepen-

P. Balea & G. Potcovaru

dent. Let

$$P(x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4; t) = P\{X_i(t) = x_i, i = 1, 2, 3, 4\}$$

be the probability that at the moment t (t > 0) there are in the system x_1 molecules of the catalyst species C, x_2 molecules of the substance S, x_3 CS complex molecules and x_4 molecules for the reaction product P.

Using the probabilities $1^0 - 5^0$ we may write the equation:

$$P(x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4; t + \Delta t) = [1 - (\mu_1 x_1 x_2 + \mu_2 x_3 + \mu_3 x_3) \Delta t] P(x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4; t) + (\mu_1 x_1 x_2 + \mu_2 x_3 + \mu_3 x_3) \Delta t]$$

$$+\mu_{1}(x_{1}+1)(x_{2}+1)\Delta tP(x_{1}+1,x_{2}+1,x_{3}-1,x_{4};t)+$$

$$+\mu_{2}(x_{3}+1)\Delta tP(x_{1}-1,x_{2}-1,x_{3}+1,x_{4};t)+$$

$$+\mu_{3}(x_{3}+1)\Delta tP(x_{1},x_{2},x_{3}+1,x_{4}-1;t)\Delta t$$

Taking into consideration also that

$$x_1 = x_{10} - x_3, \ x_4 = x_{20} - (x_2 + x_3)$$

it follows that:

$$P(x_2, x_3; t + \Delta t) = \{1 - [\mu_1 x_2 (x_{10} - x_3) + \mu_2 x_3 + \mu_3 x_3] \Delta t\} P(x_2, x_3; \Delta t) +$$

+ $\mu_1 (x_{10} - x_3 + 1) (x_2 + 1) \Delta t P(x_2 + 1, x_3 - 1; t) +$
+ $\mu_2 (x_3 + 1) \Delta t P(x_2 - 1, x_3 + 1; t) +$
+ $\mu_3 (x_3 + 1) \Delta t P(x_2, x_3 + 1; t) + 0 (\Delta t)$

Substituting in the first term $P(x_2, x_3; t)$, dividing by Δt and taking the limit $\Delta t \rightarrow 0$, we get the partial derivative equation:

$$\frac{\partial P(x_2, x_3; t)}{\partial t} = -\left[\mu_1 x_2 (x_{10} - x_3) + \mu_2 x_3 + \mu_3 x_3\right] P(x_2, x_3; t) + \\ +\mu_1 (x_{10} - x_3 + 1) (x_2 + 1) P(x_2 + 1, x_3 - 1; t) +$$
(3)

$$+\mu_{2}(x_{3}+1) P(x_{2}-1, x_{3}+1; t) + \mu_{3}(x_{3}+1) P(x_{2}, x_{3}+1; t)$$

Queueing Model for Catalytic Reactions

We introduce the generating function:

$$G(s_2, s_3; t) = \sum_{x_2=0}^{x_{20}} \sum_{x_3=0}^{x_{30}} P(x_2, x_3; t) s_2^{x_2} s_3^{x_3}, \ |s_2| \le 1, |s_3| \le 1$$

Multiplying in the equation (3) by $s_2^{x_2}s_3^{x_3}$ and suming over x_2 and x_3 , we obtain the partial derivative equation:

$$\frac{\partial G(s_2, s_3; t)}{\partial t} = \mu_1 x_{10} \left(s_3^2 - s_2 \right) \frac{\partial G(s_2, s_3; t)}{\partial s_2} + \left(\mu_3 + \mu_2 s_2 - \mu_2 s_3 - \mu_3 s_3 \right) \cdot$$

$$\frac{\partial G(s_2, s_3; t)}{\partial s_3} + \mu_1 s_3 \left(s_2 - s_3 \right) \frac{\partial^2 G(s_2, s_3; t)}{\partial s_2 \partial s_3}$$
(4)

Aplying the cumulative generating function:

$$K(u,v;t) = \log G(s_2,s_3;t)$$

to equation (4) we get:

$$\frac{\partial K(u,v;t)}{\partial t} = \mu_1 x_{10} \left(e^{2v-u} - 1 \right) \frac{\partial K(u,v;t)}{\partial u} + \left(\mu_2 e^{u-v} + \mu_3 e^{-v} + \mu_2 - \mu_3 \right) \frac{\partial K(u,v;t)}{\partial v} +$$

$$+ \left(\mu_1 \left(1 - e^{v-u} \right) \frac{\partial^2 K(u,v;t)}{\partial u \partial v} + \mu_1 \left(1 - e^{v-u} \right) \frac{\partial K(u,v;t)}{\partial u} \frac{\partial K(u,v;t)}{\partial v} \right)$$
(5)

On the other hand, using the relation between the differential cumulant generating function and the moments of the random variables $X_2(t)$ and $X_3(t)$ and the usual notations, we obtain:

$$K(u, v; t) = uM(X_{2}(t)) + vM(X_{3}(t)) + \frac{1}{2}u^{2}D^{2}(X_{2}(t)) + \frac{1}{2}v^{2}D^{2}(X_{3}(t)) + uvCov(X_{2}(t), X_{3}(t)) + \cdots$$

Calculating the partial derivatives:

$$\frac{\partial K(u,v;t)}{\partial t}, \frac{\partial K(u,v;t)}{\partial u}, \frac{\partial K(u,v;t)}{\partial v}, \frac{\partial K(u,v;t)}{\partial v}, \frac{\partial^2 K(u,v;t)}{\partial u \partial v}$$

SOUTH. BRAZ. J. CHEM., Vol. 9 , Nº 10, 2001

P. Balea & G. Potcovaru

and substituting them into (5) we get:

- 11 March 1

$$\frac{d M (X_2(t))}{d t} = -\mu_1 x_{10} M (X_2(t)) + \mu_2 M (X_3(t)) + \mu_1 Cov (X_2(t), X_3(t)) + \mu_1 M (X_2(t)) M (X_3(t))$$

$$\frac{d M (X_3 (t))}{d t} = 2\mu_1 x_{10} M (X_2 (t)) - (\mu_2 - \mu_3) M (X_3 (t)) - \mu_1 Cov (X_2 (t), X_3 (t)) - \mu_1 M (X_2 (t)) M (X_3 (t)) + 2\mu_2 D^2 (X_3 (t))$$

$$\frac{d D^2 (X_2(t))}{d t} = 2\mu_1 [M (X_3(t)) - x_{10}] D^2 (X_2(t)) + \mu_1 x_{10} M (X_3(t)) - \mu_1 M (X_2(t)) M (X_3(t)) + [2\mu_2 - \mu_1 + 2M (X_2(t))] Cov (X_2(t), X_3(t))$$

$$\frac{d D^2 (X_3 (t))}{d t} = -2 \left[\mu_2 + \mu_3 + \mu_1 M (X_2 (t)) \right] D^2 (X_3 (t)) + 4 \mu_1 x_{10} M (X_2 (t)) + + (\mu_2 + \mu_3) M (X_3 (t)) - \mu_1 M (X_2 (t)) M (X_3 (t)) + + \mu_1 \left[4 x_{10} - 1 - 2 M (X_2 (t)) \right] Cov (X_2 (t), X_3 (t))$$

$$\frac{d Cov (X_2(t), X_3(t))}{d t} = \{\mu_1 [1 - x_{10} - M (X_2(t)) + M (X_3(t))] - \mu_2 - \mu_3\} \cdot Cov (X_2(t), X_3(t)) + \mu_1 [2x_{10} - M (X_3(t))] D^2 (X_2(t)) + [\mu_1 + x_{10}M (X_2(t)) + \mu_2 + \mu_1 M (X_2(t))] D^2 (X_3(t)) - 2\mu_1 x_{10}M (X_2(t)) - \mu_2 M (X_3(t))]$$

29

Queueing Model for Catalytic Reactions

which are exactly the equations describing the evolution of the catalytic process with time.

The stochastic model presented may be considered an extension of the deterministic model known in chemical kinetics.

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SOUTHERN BRAZILIAN JOURNAL OF CHEMISTRY SOUTH. BRAZ. J. CHEM., Vol. 9, Nº 10, 2001

CHROMIUM (III) COMPLEX ANIONS IN THE CHEMICAL ANALYSIS. 31 THIORIDAZINE DETERMINATION 31

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ABSTRACT

Complex anions of Cr(III) analogues of Reinecke's salt, $[Cr(NCS)_4(amine)_2]$ are good analytical reagents with high sensibility and selectivity for N-organic bases of pharmaceutical importance. We have observed that the phenothiazinic type drug, thioridazine, prescribed for the treatment of maniac-depressing psychosis precipitates with Cr(III) complex anions. Some new oxidative methods for the determination of thioridazine (10-[2-(1-methyl-2-piperidinyl)ethyl]-2-(methylthio)-10H-phenothiazine) are described. The results were evaluated statistically.

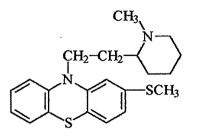
KEYWORDS : chromium (III), thioridazine, drugs, oxidimetric and spectrometric methods

RESUMO

Complexox aniônicos de Cr(III), análogos do sal de Reinecke, são reagentes analíticos excelentes e possuem sensibilidade e seletividade alta para para bases orgânicas de N que tem importância farmacéutica. O presente estudo demonstrou que a tioridazina, um medicamento do tipo fenotiazínico, receitado para tratamento de psicóse maniacodepressiva, forma precipitados com ânions complexos de Cr(III). Vários métodos oxidativos para a determinação de tioridazina (10- 2-(1-metil-2-piperdinil)etil -2-(metiltio)-10H-fenotiazina) sao descritos. Os resultados experimentais foram avaliados estatisticamente. Thioridazine Determination with Cr(III) Complexes

INTRODUCTION

Thioridazine is a piperidine phenothiazine with the structural formula:



that contains the methyl mercapto radical (-S-CH₃) at position 3 of the phenothiazine skeleton. Thioridazine, like the other three major groups of phenothiazine tranquilizers, is a drug that has principally a nonpsychotic sedative effect and is indicated for the treatment of acute or chronic schizophrenia, psychosis, maniac depressive psychosis, tension, anxiety, epileptic psychosis and old age psychosis.

Thioridazine is very useful drug in the apeutics and it less toxic than chlorpromazine. It is well absorbed by the alimentary tract and is eliminated both by the kidney and the intestine in 24 hours 1 .

The common qualitative analysis methods used for the identification of thioridazine are, in general, those used for the phenothiazine derivatives. Because of the piperidine function ($K_0=1.6\times10^{-3}$), thioridazine forms salts that are characterised by reduced solubility and high melting points with HClO₄, silicotungstic acid, sodium tetraphenyl borate etc. Oxidizing agents form compounds of different colours with thioridazine. Some common oxidizing agents are FeCl₃^{2,3}, persulfates, HNO₃, MnO₂, PbO₂, etc.

EXPERIMENTAL PROCEDDURE

Combinations analogous to Reineck's salts have been obtained by Gănescu's method⁸ using substitution reactions with $K_3[Cr(NCS)_6]$ without water and the respective amines in the absence of any solvent. Some combinations used involved aniline, morpholine, diethylphosphine, etc.

Complex salts of the type ThioridazineH[Cr(NCS)₄(amine)₂] were studied with respect to their thermal stability in combustion process, having in view the gravimetric determination of this drug. The study showed a remarkable stability up to 150° C.

For the synthesis of these complexes, samples of 10 mmole of thioridazine HCl in 100 mL of water were treated with a small excess of $K_3[Cr(NCS)_6]$ in 2% alcohol solution. The red – violet precipitates were filtered under vacuum and dried in air until the filtrate was colorless. Some of the new thioridazine salts prepared are summarized in Table 1.

I. Ganescu, G. Bratulescu, I. Papa, A. Ganescu, C. Tigae & D. Cartana 33

No	Formula	Molecular	Yield	Analysis [%]		
		Weight	[%]	Calcd.	Found	
		calcd.				
1	A ₃ H ₃ [Cr(NCS) ₆]	1515.16	97	Cr** 3.43	3.40	
				S** 16.93	16.86	
			•	N** 11.12	11.12	
2	AH[Cr(NCS)4(NH3)2]	689.98	96	Cr 7.53	7.50	
				S 18.58	18.52	
				N 16.24	16.20	
3	AH[Cr(NCS)4(aniline)2]	842.04	98	Cr 6.17	6.09	
				S 15.23	15.20	
				N 13.31	13.26	
4	AH[Cr(NCS)4(benzilamine)2]	870.08	95	Cr 5.97	5.92	
				S 14.74	14.70	
				N 12.88	12.76	
5	AH[Cr(NCS)4(morfoline)2]	830.16	93	Cr 6.26	6.15	
			•	S 15.45	15.41	
				N 13.50	13.44	
6	AH[Cr(NCS)4(imidazole)2]	792.08	89	Cr 6.56	6.50	
				S 16.19	16.05	
				N 17.68	17.60	
7	AH[Cr(NCS)4(benzimidazole)2]	892.16	92	Cr 5.82	5.76	
				S 14.37	14.24	
				N 15.70	15.61	
8	AH[Cr(NCS)4(benztriazole)2]	894.12	94	Cr 5.81	5.76	
				S 14.34	14.24	
				N 18.80	18.72	

Table I. New complex salts of the type ThioridazineH[Cr(NCS)4(aniline)2]

* The obtained combinations have a microcrystalline aspect and have red-violet colour. **Chromium was determined as Cr_2O_3 , sulphur as $BaSO_4$ and nitrogen by volumetric method.

A= Thioridazine

Indirect Oxidative Determination of Thioridazine after Precipitation in the Form of ThioridazineH[Cr(NCS)4(aniline)2]

A sample of 1.82 - 14.56mg of thioridazine HCl was precipitated from an aqueous alcohol solution (2%) in the form of Reinecke's salt. The precipitate was filtered under vacuum using a Büchner funnel with a 5 cm diameter and washed 3-4 times with 10 mL of water, until the filtrate was colorless. After washing, the precipitate was transferred to a Berzelius cup and the funnel was washed with 10 mL of 5% NaOH and 10 mL of water. This represent the initial volume (V_{initial}) in the relation below giving V_{HCl}. The cup was heated until the appearance of the green color of Cr(OH)₃. It was then cooled with tap water and concentrated HCl was added, the quantity being calculated according to the relation:

Thioridazine Determination with Cr(III) Complexes

$$V_{\text{HC1}} = \frac{1.7(V_{\text{initial}} + V_{\text{oxidizer}})}{10.4}$$

In each test the normality of HCl was constant (1.7N). The normality of concentrated HCl with a density of 1.19 g/cm^3 was 12.1N. After the addition of the calculated quantity of HCl, 5 mL of CCl₄ and 10 drops of ICl ¹⁷ indicator were added to the solution and NCS⁻ was titrated with 0.1N KMnO₄ under continuos stirring until the nonaqueous violet layer became colorless. The reaction that took place was the following:

$$5NCS^{-} + 6MnO_4^{-} + 13H^{+} \rightarrow 6Mn^{2+} + 5SO_4^{-2-} + 5HCN + 4H_2O$$

respectively:

$$2NCS^{-} + 3BrO_{3}^{-} + 4H^{+} \rightarrow 2SO_{4}^{2-} + 3Br^{+} + 2HCN + H_{2}O$$
$$2NCS^{-} + 3IO_{3}^{-} + 4H^{+} \rightarrow 2SO_{4}^{2-} + 3I^{+} + H_{2}O$$

A volume of 1mL KMnO₄ (KIO₃, KBrO₃) is equivalent with 1.54 mg thioridazine.

The experimental results are given in the Tables 2 and 3.

Table 2. PermanganteOxidativeDeterminationofThioridazineafterPrecipitationintheformThioridazineH[Cr(NCS)_4(aniline)_2] (A)andThioridazineH[Cr(NCS)_4(Et_2PhP)_2] (B), respectively.

No	The form of determination						
		A	B				
	Thioridazine mg taken	Thioridazine mg found	Error		Thioridazine mg found	E	TOP
			mg	%		mg	%
1	1.82	1.83	+0.01	0.54	1.81	-0.01	0.54
2	3.64	3.65	+0.01	0.27	3.62	-0.02	0.54
3	5.46	5.43	-0.03	0.54	5.48	+0.02	0.36
4	7.28	7.25	-0.03	0.41	7.30	+0.02	0.27
5	10.92	10.96	+0.04	0.36	10.93	+0.01	0.09
6	14.56	14.54	-0.02	0.14	14.60	+0.04	0.27

1 mL KMnO₄ 0.1N is equivalent to 1.544 mg thioridazine

I. Ganescu, G. Bratulescu, I. Papa, A. Ganescu, C. Tigae & D. Cartana

Α	В
x=14.57	x=10.93
$s=2.10^{-2}$	s=2.58 ^{-10⁻²}
$s^2 = 4.10^{-4}$	s ² =6.65 ¹⁰⁻⁴
t=0.5	t=0.39
$t_{n-1,\infty}=2,26$; $\infty=95\%$	t _{n-1,∞} =2,26 ; ∞=95%
$\overline{\mathbf{x}}$ - ts < A < $\overline{\mathbf{x}}$ + ts	$\overline{\mathbf{x}}$ - ts< A < $\overline{\mathbf{x}}$ + ts
14.55 < 14.56 <14.57	10.91 < 10.92 < 10.94

Table 3. Bromate Oxidative Determination of Thioridazine after Precipitation in the form ThioridazineH[Cr(NCS)₄ (NH₃)₂] (A) and ThioridazineH[Cr(NCS)₄(morfoline)₂] (B), respectively.

No	The form of determination								
		Α	В						
	Thioridazine mg taken	Thioridazine mg found	Error		Thioridazine mg found	Er	TOP		
			mg	%		mg	%		
1	1.82	1.83	+0.01	0.54	1.84	+0.02	1.09		
2	3.64	3.63	-0.01	0.27	3.66	+0.02	0.54		
3	5.46	5.44	-0.02	0.37	5.44	-0.02	0.36		
4	7.28	7.26	-0.02	0.27	7.25	-0.03	0.41		
5	10.92	10.95	+0.03	0.27	10.94	+0.02	0.18		
6	14.56	14.58	+0.02	0.13	14.60	+0.04	0.27		

1 mL KBrO₃ 0.1N is equivalent to 1.544mg thioridazine

Α	В
x=14.57	x=10.93
$s=2.66\cdot10^{-2}$	s=1.82·10 ⁻²
$s^2 = 7.07 \cdot 10^{-4}$	s ² =3.33 ⁻ 10 ⁻⁴
t=0.38	t=0.77
$t_{n-1,\infty}=2,26$; $\infty=95\%$	$t_{n-1,\infty}=2,26$; $\infty=95\%$
$\overline{\mathbf{x}}$ - ts< A < $\overline{\mathbf{x}}$ + ts	$\overline{\mathbf{x}}$ - ts< A < $\overline{\mathbf{x}}$ + ts
14.55 < 14.56 < 14.58	10.91 < 10.92 < 10.94

From statistic interpretation of the experimental data^{15,16} we conclude that oxidative methods are reproducible, rapid, sufficiently accurate, in comparison with other dosing methods of phenothiazine found in the literature. Titration is made without extra consumption of reagent. For these reasons we believe that this method may be of use and interest for laboratories concerned with drug analysis and control.

Spectrometric Determination of Thioridazine after Precipitation in the Form of Thioridazine H[Cr(NCS)4(aniline)2]

A stock solution of a thioridazine hydrochloride of known titre was first prepared. Samples containing 2.2-30.8 mg of thioridazine were precipitated with a small

Thioridazine Determination with Cr(III) Complexes

excess of the reagent in the form ThioridazineH[Cr(NCS)₄(aniline)₂]. After 10 - 15 minutes, the precipitate was filtered using a G₄ filter crucible and washed 2-3 times with 10 mL of water until the filtrate flowed colourless. The precipitate was then dissolved in acetone, the red-violet solution was transferred to a 50 mL volumetric flask and diluted with acetone to the mark. The absorbance of the respective solutions was then measured at 535-540 nm using a Spekol Zeiss Jena spectrophotometer.

The experimental absorbance values follow the Beer- Lambert law in the 0.088 to 1.232 mg of thioridazine/mL concentration range. The experimental results are illustrated in Figure 1 and Table 4. The molar absorptivity coefficient, ε , determined was at 218.44 L cm⁻¹ mol⁻¹.

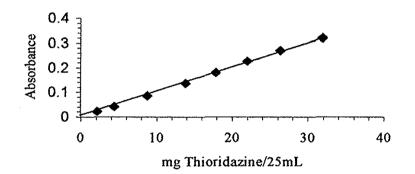


Figure 1. Calibration curve for the Spectrometric Determination of Thioridazine as ThioridazineH[Cr(NCS)4(aniline)2]

Table 4. Spectrometric Determination of Thioridazin after Precipitation in the Form of	
ThioridazineH[Cr(NCS)4(aniline)2]	

No	x	x ²	у	y ²	ху	x+y	$(x+y)^2$
	mg						
1	2.20	4.84	0.022	0.000484	0.0484	2.222	4.9373
2	4.40	19.36	0.045	0.002025	0.1980	4.445	19.7580
3	8.80	77.44	0.091	0.008281	0.8008	8.891	79.0499
4	13.20	174.24	0.136	0.018496	1.7952	13.366	177.8489
5	17.60	309,76	0.181	0.032761	3.1852	17.781	316.1639
6	22.00	484.00	0.227	0.051529	4.9940	22.227	494.0395
7	26.40	696.96	0.272	0.073984	7.1808	26.672	711.3956
8	30.80	948.64	0.320	0.102400	9.8560	31.120	968.4544
Total	125.40	2715.24	1.294	0.28996	28.0588	126.694	2771.6475

I. Ganescu, G. Bratulescu, T. Popa, A. Ganescu, C. Tigae & D. Cartana

The statistical analysis presented in Table 4 was done using the following equations:

37

$$\sum (x+y)^2 = \sum (x^2 + 2xy + y^2) = \sum x^2 + \sum y^2 + 2\sum xy$$

So $\Sigma (x + y)^2 = 2771.647$

 $\sum x^{2} + \sum y^{2} + 2\sum xy = 2715.24 + 0.28996 + 2x28.0588 = 2771.647$

The comparison of the experimental results from Table 2 and Table 4 shows that the spectrometric method proposed in the present study for dosing thioridazine is reproducible and exact and can be applied in the laboratory for the analysis and control of this drug.

The equation that gave the best agreement between the absorbance and the concentration of the active product (Thioridazine) in the test samples expressed in mg or μg obtained by linear regression analysis ¹⁵⁻¹⁶ was the following:

 $y-\bar{y}=r\frac{\sigma_y}{\sigma_x}(x-\bar{x})$ where $\bar{y}=0.16175$; σ_x and σ_y are standard calculated with the help of

the relations:

$$\sigma_x = \sqrt{\frac{\sum x^2}{n} - \overline{x}^2}$$
 in our case:

 σ_x being equal with 9.6798 and \overline{x} =15.675

$$\sigma_y = \sqrt{\frac{\Sigma y^2}{\Pi} - \overline{y^2}}$$
 in our case:

 $\sigma_v = 0.10004$

y=0.01037x-0.00083 respectively x=96.4123y+0.08030

$$-\bar{x}=r\frac{\sigma_x}{\sigma_v}(y-\bar{y})$$

The calculation of the correlation (regression) coefficient is done according to the relation:

$$r = \frac{\left[\frac{1}{n} \sum xy\right] - xy}{\sigma_x \sigma_y}$$

The angle between the two straight lines was very small, the dependence between the absorbance and the concentration of thioridazine was linear and the correlation coefficient r was 1.000. Thioridazine Determination with Cr(III) Complexes

Using the same method we determined the thioridazine concentrations shown in Tables 2 and 3. (One tablet contains 0.05g thioridazide hydrochloride). Twenty samples were weighed on an analytical balance and pulverized in a mortar. A sample of this powder, about one gram in weight (representing the average weight of a tablet) was placed in a porcelain capsule, 10 mL of water were added, followed, by stirring for 15-20 minutes. The contents of the capsule was filtered, and the capsule was washed several times with water. The filtrate and all the washings were collected in a 100 mL volume flask and diluted to the mark.

A 10 mL aliquot was transferred to a Berzelius cup and the active principle was precipitated according to the reaction mentioned above. The precipitate was filtered, washed with water and dissolved in acetone or absolute methanol. The red-violet solution was transferred to 50 mL volumetric flask and diluted to the mark with acetone. The absorbance was measured at λ =540nm and the amount of thioridazine was determined using the calibration curve shown in Figure 1. The tablets contained between 0.048 g and 0.050 g of thioridazine.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

Researching the analytical characteristics of thioridazine, the specialized literature mentions some methods of determination of this drug, a lot of them being the same as for the other phenothiazine derivatives. R. Semionovici and his collaborators⁴ as well as Karkhuff and his collaborators⁵, dose Melleril (Thioridazine HCl) by means of the surfactant, sodium laurylsulfonate and Morait and his collaborators dose this pharmaceutical product using sodium tetraphenylborate⁶.

Because of its basic function, thioridazine is also determined in nonaqueous solvents such as acetonitrile, chloroform, dioxane, acetone, etc., using HClO₄ in dioxane as a reagent and methyl and blue methylene, as an indicator (1:1). Since the drug under consideration is a hydrochloride, mercury acetate is added to the titration medium in order to bind the halogen ion ⁷ in the form of undissociated HgCl₂.

Gănescu and his collaborators noticed that all the drugs with phenothiazine skeleton precipitate in acid medium with Cr(lll) anions complex like $[Cr(NCS)_6]^3$, Reinecke salt and its analogous of the type $[Cr(NCS)_4(amine)_2]$, where amine = Py, aniline, toluidine, imidazole and even urotropine, resulting in heavy soluble violet crystalline complexes ⁸⁻¹⁴. This led to the possibility of establishing new gravimetric, volumetric and spectroscopic methods for the determination of these drugs ⁸⁻¹⁴.

Like other phenothiazine drugs studied by us thioridazine forms stable crystalline salts soluble in water with $K_3[Cr(NCS)_6]$, $NH_4[Cr(NCS)_4(NH_3)_2]$, and respectively $NH_4[Cr(NCS)_4(amine)_2]$. These salts can be easily filtered washed with water and dried at 110°C and directly weighed. The great SCN content of the reagents used has allowed the elaboration of new oxidative methods (permanganometric, bromatometric and iodometric) that are very sensible and have a clear and point in CCl₄, using ICl as an indicator ¹⁰. Thioridazine complex salts with the reagents already mentioned are slightly soluble in acetone forming red-violet solution. This allowed the elaboration of spectrophotometric methods for the dosing of this drug.

39

CONCLUSIONS

Eight new complexes, salts of the ionic type association have been obtained. New oxidative and spectrophotometric methods, for the determination of thioridazine were developed.

Statistical analysis of our results showed that the new methods are very reliable compared to others described in the Romanian Farmacopea and specialized literature.

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SOUTH. BRAZ. J. CHEM., Vol. 9, Nº 10, 2001

FLUORIDES EVALUATION IN SPENT POT LINER: 41 TOXICITY CHARACTERISTIC LEACHING PROCEDURE LIMITATIONS

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ABSTRACT

The spent potliner (SPL) is a solid waste generated in the process of aluminum production and is considered hazardous because of its fluoride and cyanide content. The purpose of this study was to analyze the SPL fraction with low cyanide coming from Aluminio Brasileiro S.A. (ALBRAS). For all the pots studied the pH of the spent potliner (SPL) was very high and ranged from 10 to 11.80. The total fluoride content determined at high pH varied from 5.13 to 11.41 %, while the total fluoride determined in leached fluid at pH 5.0 had low values that ranged from 0.26 to 3.46 %, indicating the low solubility of waste fluorides at low pH values. With leaching fluid above pH 12, the total fluoride content varied from 6.45 to 9.39 %. The experimental results indicate that the Brazilian Standard NBR 10.004, based on leaching at pH 5.0 is not adequate for classification of hazardous waste, since it underestimates fluoride content.

Keywords: Fluoride, Spent potliner, Solid Waste, Ion Selective Electrode, Leaching Test.

RESUMO:

O resíduo gasto de cuba (RGC) é um resíduo sólido gerado no processo de produção de alumínio e é considerado perigoso devido ao seu teor de fluoreto e cianeto. O objetivo deste estudo foi analisar a fração do RGC com baixo teor de cianeto proveniente da empresa Alumínio Brasileiro S. A. (ALBRAS). Para todas as cubas estudadas o pH do RGC foi muito elevado e variou entre 10 e 11,80. O teor de fluoretos totais determinado em pH alto variou de 5,13 a 11,41 %, enquanto que o teor de fluoretos totais determinado em fluido de lixiviação com pH 5,0 teve valores baixos que variaram de 0,26 a 3,46 %, indicando a baixa solubilidade dos fluoretos do resíduo em baixos valores de pH. Com fluido de lixiviação em pH acima de 12, o teor de fluoretos totais variou de 6,45 a 9,39 %. Os resultados experimentais indicam que a Norma Brasileira NBR 10.004, com base na lixiviação em pH 5,0, não é adequada para a classificação de resíduos perigosos, pois subestima o teor de fluoretos.

Fluorides Evaluation in Spent Pot Liner

INTRODUCTION

In the process of aluminum production, alumina is dissolved in cryolite in electrolytic cells, called pots, which consist of a steel shells lined with carbon. A number of pots, more than 100, are arranged in series to form a potline. In a typical aluminum production plant there are several potlines. The pots contain a molten electrolyte consisting primarily of cryolite (Na_3AlF_6) and operate at approximately 930 to 1000 °C. Other materials are added to the electrolyte to improve the efficiency of the operation or to reduce power consumption, such as alumina, aluminum fluoride, sodium fluoride, soda ash, calcium fluoride, lithium carbonate and magnesium oxide.

The hearth or lining of the cell is composed of carbon, which is backed by insulation and contained within a steel container called a potshell. The carbon portion of the lining serves as the cathode and contains the molten electrolyte. The carbon lining is composed of prefabricated carbon blocks joined together by a carbon paste, which is hydraulically rammed in the seams between the carbon blocks. The sidewalls of the lining are typically formed with carbon paste, but may contain prefabricated carbon blocks. The carbon blocks. The carbon material within the lining, both blocks and paste, is predominantly anthracite-based material. It may contain some graphite to improve its electrical and thermal properties. Insulation packages for a cell are mostly of insulating and refractory bricks.

During the life of the cathode and its cell lining, the carbon and insulating materials become impregnated with fluoride-containing salts. As the addition of salts continues, the integrity of the lining is adversely affected. Sodium, in particular, can actually intercalate within the crystalline lattice of the carbon materials, causing distortion and stresses within the lining. The insulating materials become more thermally conductive as they are impregnated by these fluoride salts. Failure can occur by cracking or excessive heaving of the lining. When these failures occur, the cell is taken off the line and the cathode lining material is removed from the potshell by mechanized digging equipment. This spent cathodic material is referred to as spent potliner (SPL). The life cycle of a cathode varies about three to about ten years. Since there are numerous pots located at a single aluminum reduction plant, the decommissioning and relining of cathodes is a continuous process. In addition to containing fluoride salts, SPL contains cyanides that are formed by the entrance of air through openings in the potshell and subsequent reaction of nitrogen with the carbon lining. Due to the fluorides and cyanides content, spent potliner was listed by the Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) on Sep. 13, 1988 (53 Fed. Reg. 35412) as a hazardous waste (K088) and it is not allowed to be deposited on normal deposits. There has been proposed a number of methods for treatment this waste of such way it can be safely deposited 1,2 . Alumínio Brasileiro S. A. (ALBRAS) industry, located at Barcarena, Pará state, produces about 350.000 tons per year of aluminum and generates several tons of spent potliner which has been maintained in controlled deposits. Seeking for a more viable destination for this waste, the SPL was separated in two fractions, one of which composed of material without the cathode, with low cyanide content. The purpose of this work was to determine the fluoride content of this SPL fraction following the Brazilian Standards and discuss critically the results considering the limitations of the toxicity characteristic leaching procedure.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

a) Sampling and Sample Preparation

The waste to be studied was arranged in piles and the material was collected by simple random sampling ³⁻⁵. The waste mass collected was fragmented and homogenized, random sampling again was used. This material was taken to laboratory and was prepared for analysis according to extraction procedure requirements.

b) pH Measurement

Waste sample pH was measured by electrometric procedure according to the EPA Method 9.045C⁶, where 20 g of solid sample was placed in a 50 ml beaker, added 20 ml of reagent water, and at 25 ± 1 °C stirred the suspension for 5 minutes. The waste suspension was let stand for about 15 minutes, filtered off aqueous phase, and measured the pH.

c) Leaching and Solubilization Tests

The leaching and solubilization tests were carried out according to the procedures established by Brazilian Standards NBR 10.005⁷ and NBR 10.006⁸, respectively. In the leaching test procedure 100 g of the waste were mixed with a leaching fluid at $pH = 5,0 \pm 0,2$. The solubilization test was done by mixing 250 g of the solid waste with 1.000 ml of distilled water and leaving it rest for 7 days. Considering the waste pH and the low solubility of the waste fluorides in acidic solutions, the leaching tests were also carried out under a more aggressive conditions, where the pH of the leaching fluid was maintained above 12 during the experiments.

d) Total Fluoride Extraction

Total fluoride extraction was done by alkaline fusion, where a sample of 0.5 g of the solid waste was mixed with 15 ml of 10 % (w/w) Ca(OH)₂ solution and heated until completely dry. To this mixture was added 3 g of solid NaOH and heated to 800 °C for 30 minutes. After cooling, 40 ml of distilled water were added, heated gently until complete dissolution. Then 40 ml more of distilled water were added and distilled ^{9,10}.

e) Fluoride Determination

The extracts obtained from the steps c) and d) were distilled following the procedure as established by the Standard Methods ¹¹ and the distilled fluorides evaluation carried using the ion selective electrode method, instrument Orion Model 96-09 ¹².

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The pH of the solid wastes generated by pots with different operation times is presented in the Figure 1.

Fluorides Evaluation in Spent Pot Liner

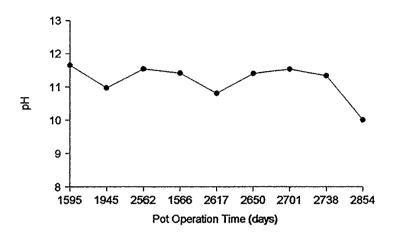


Fig. 1 - Behavior of the inorganic fraction of SPL pH as a function of the pot operation time (days)

The SPL total fluorides, fluoride concentrations of the extracts obtained by using a leaching fluid with pH = 5,0 and pH > 12 and fluoride concentrations of the extract obtained from the waste solubilization as a function of the pot operation time are presented in the Figure 2.

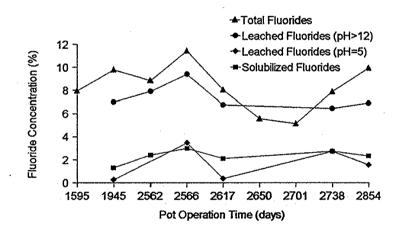


Fig. 2 - Changes of total fluoride, leached fluorides (pH > 12), leached fluorides (pH = 5) and solubilized fluorides concentrations (% w/w) as a function of the pot operation time (days).

From the results shown in the Figure 1 it can be observed that the SPL pH is very high, changing from 10 to 11.80, with an average value of 11.18 and very little oscillation with operation time of the pots. These very high pH values influenced the results of the leaching and solubilization tests.

B.I. Silveira, J.E. Blasquez, A.E. Dantas & R.K.P. Santos

In Figure 2 it is observed that the total fluoride concentration of the waste changed from 5.13 to 11.41 %, with an average value equal to 8.29%, but from the results obtained for the leaching test carried out according to Brazilian Standard NBR 10.005, where the extraction fluid was maintained at pH = 5.0, the leached fluoride concentration changed from 0.26 to 3.46 %, with an average value equal to 1.67 %, much lower than the actual fluoride content of the waste. These values are very close to those ones obtained from the solubilization tests, where the average value was 2.33%. This indicates that at low pH values the fluorides of this waste have low solubility.

Under a more aggressive conditions, where the leaching fluid pH was maintained above 12, it can be observed the leached fluoride concentration varying from 6.45 to 9.39 %, with an average value of 7.41 %. These values are close to those obtained for total fluoride, indicating the high solubility of the waste fluorides under alkaline conditions.

According to the Brazilian Standard "Solid Waste Classification - NBR 10.004" a fluoride content above 150 ppm or 0.015 % (w/w) of an extract obtained following the procedure established by NBR 10.005 would classify the waste as hazardous. From the results presented in the Figure 2 it can be seen that some pots could have their waste classified as non hazardous, but based on the average value, all of them would be hazardous. If the waste is non- hazardous, it is necessary to check if it is inert or not. The extract obtained from the solubilization tests (NBR 1.006) must have a fluoride concentration below 1.5 ppm. From the results it can be seen that none of the pots studied generated an inert waste.

From the leaching test results it can be concluded that the spent potliner studied as a whole is a hazardous waste, but this is not a safe classification for some pots due to the proximity between the concentration values obtained for the waste and the limit established by Brazilian Standards. These doubts only appeared because the leaching test underestimated the waste fluoride content, as it was shown by comparing the total and leached fluorides. Moreover, considering the pH of the waste, the leaching under natural environment conditions would be different from that done with a leaching fluid at pH equal to 5. The leaching procedure as established by Brazilian Standard (NBR 10.005) is not an adequate test for the evaluation of spent potliner fluoride contents.

Acknowledgements

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SOUTHERN BRAZILIAN JOURNAL OF CHEMISTRY SOUTH. BRAZ. J. CHEM., Vol. 9, Nº 10, 2001

47

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CHEMICAL ELEMENTS, ALLOYS AND MINERALS OCCURRING NATURALLY IN METEORITES

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ABSTRACT

The present article deals with some interesting aspects of meteorites, their origin, formation, impact on Earth and their possible role in the origin of life. In particular, chemical elements, alloys and minerals present in meteorites are considered.

KEY WORDS: meteorites; minerals of meteorites; natural alloys; mineralogy; origin of life.

RESUMO

O presente trabalho trata de alguns aspectos importantes sobre meteoritos, incluindo sua origem, formação, impactos com a Terra e o possível papel na origem da vida. Em particular, são considerados os elementos químicos, ligas e minerais presentes em meteoritos.

This article deals with chemical elements, alloys and compounds occurring naturally, present in meteorites. There are eighty nine known mineralogic species that have been confirmed as making part of meteorites. Of these, forty seven minerals are exclusively present in meteorites and are not found in the Earth's crust¹⁻⁶.

Meteorites are stony or metallic bodies that ocasionally are seen to fall on Earth from outer space or from the sky. It is generally believed that they formed from solar matter and for this reason meteorites have undergone less chemical change than any type of material on the surface of the Earth⁷⁻¹³.

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The word meteorite comes from the Greek terms $\mu \dot{\epsilon} \tau \alpha$ (meta) meaning within or between and $\dot{\epsilon} o \rho \alpha$ or $\dot{\alpha} \iota \omega \rho \alpha$ meaning suspension air or mist. It is not to be confused with meteors which are the luminous shooting stars seen in the night sky, especially during the months of August and November.

The spectacular light flashes across the night sky are seen when swarms of small particles called meteoroids enter the Earth's upper atmosphere at high speed (up to 45 miles per second) and upon collision dissipate their kinetic energy in the form of light, heat and ionized gases. Most meteoroids are extremely small, the average size being that of a grain of sand and their origin are the swarms of particles formed during the last phase of a comet's life. Sometimes the orbit of a planet comes moderately close to the path of the Earth and in such cases the small particles (meteoroids) strike the terrestrial atmosphere producing the spectacular streaks of light. The coincidence between various comets (Tempel, Biela, Halley, Encke and Giacobini-Zinner) and the showers of meteors (Tears of St. Laurence-Perseids, Bielids, Orionids, Aquarids, Lyrids and Draconids) is well known^{10,14-16}.

The comets are generally believed to be material left over from the primaeval process in which the Sun and the planets were formed. According to Fred Hoyle¹⁰, "when we see the momentary flash of a meteor in the sky, we might remember that the particle responsible for it was an old particle, a survivor from the episode in which the Earth itself was born".

Meteorites, on the other hand, are lumps of solid matter that reach the surface of the Earth and generally weigh from a few grains to several tons and occasionally their impact causes violent explosions and leads to the formation of meteorite craters. Meteorites are formed from solar matter. Radioactive age determinations show that no significant changes have taken place in most meteorites since the Solar System was formed 4.6×10^9 years ago¹⁷⁻¹⁹.

Meteorites are impressive objects, being of celestial origin and coming from the heights, the sky or Heaven^{20,21}. Long before the smelting of iron, man valued meteoritic iron and knew of its celestial origin. The use of meteoritic iron marks the beginning of metallurgy on Earth, long before metals like gold, copper and silver²². In many languages the name of iron contains references to the sky and the meteorites, coming from the gods, became objects of cult and were venerated in temples²⁰⁻²¹. The oldest word used to designate iron is "An Bar" and comes from the Sumerian sky and fire and may be interpreted as "celestial metal", "metal star" or "celestial lightning". When Ferdinand Cortez asked the Aztecs from where they obtained their knives, they pointed to the sky.

In other cultures, like the aborigenes from Australia the sky was made up of rock crystals and the throne of the God of the heavens was made of quartz. Among the best known cases of worship of meteorites are the Palladion of Troy, the statue of Artemis (Diana) in Ephesus that fell from the sky; the meteorite of Pessinontes in Phrigia venerated as an image of Cybele; the holy stone in Delphi along with Apollo, the "iron shield" that fell in Rome during the reign of Numa Pompilius and the "black stone" of Ka'aba in Meca (Saudi Arabia), the holiest of holies of the Muslims. There are cases of L.G. Ionescu & P.C.P. das Neves

meteorites guarded in churches and stones in India that are worshipped, decked with flowers and anointed daily.

In a more mythological sense, meteorites are "lighting stones", "teeth of lighting" or "God's axes"^{20,21}, that cleaved or opened the Earth and represented the union between Earth and Heaven. Earth is generally associated with fertility, the feminine principle, and the Sky represents masculinity. Delphus, the most famous abyss in Greece owes its name to a mythical image. Delphus ($\delta \epsilon \lambda \varphi u \sigma$) in fact, means uterus.

The collision of cometary material (meteors) with the Earth is different and and should not be confused with the collision of meteorites. Meteorites are pieces of solid material that weigh from a few grams to tens of tons and usually vary in size from a few centimeters to meters in diameter. The originate in the region between Mars and Jupiter, the region of the asteroids belt¹⁰⁻¹⁴. Generally, they do not follow orbits that cross the path of the Earth, but occasionally they are disturbed by Mars, Jupiter and each other into new trajectories that have a chance of intersecting the Earth⁷⁻¹². Rare collisions, when they occur, usually have a speed of 15 km per second and the impact velocity has sufficient kinetic energy to volatilize the meteorite. If the energy is released in a very short time it causes violent explosions and results in the formation of meteorite craters.

The passage of a meteorite through the atmosphere is often marked by a very bright trail and audible bangs. Often they explode before reaching the ground and scatter fragments over a large area.

One unusual meteorite reported recently is the Portales Valley that exploded and scattered materials near the city of Portales, home Eastern New Mexico University, on June 13, 1998 (Figure 1).

It was preliminarly classified as an ordinary "H-type chondrite"²³ Chondrites consist of chondrules, small millimiter-sized spheres of rocks that once were molten drops of solar nebula dust. The letter "H" refers to the high iron content. This meteorite is believed to have originated in the asteroid belt between Mars and Jupiter. The belt, between the orbits of the two planets originated 4,6 billion years ago when small just-forming planets collided with each other and pulverized.

The most unusual feature of this meteorite are the very large number of veins of an iron-nickel alloy. Meteorites usually contain small veins that form upon impact or collisions that heat the rocks and separate the metals from the silicate base. The very large metal streaks present in the Portales Valley meteorite are something new and different²³.

Another interesting meteorite is the Allende that fell in February, 1969 near the town of Allende, Chihuahua, Mexico and showered more than 2 tons of carbonaceous chondrites over a region of more than 150 km^2 of Northern Mexico (Figure 2).

Its age determined with K and Ar isotopes was estimated to be 4,5 billion years ago, approximately the age of the Solar System. It was probably in the interior part of an asteroid and became subject to cosmic radiation 4 or 5 million years ago as indicated by He^3 dating. It composition is intermediary between C₃ and C₄ chondrites and it

contained short lived isotopes of Na^{24} and Mn^{52} . Formaldehyde was among the organic compounds found in the Allende meteorite.

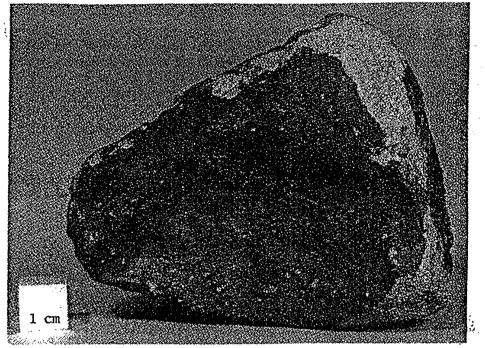


Figure 1. Fragment of the Portales Valley meteorite (1998) that contains large veins of nickel-iron alloy. (Courtesy of Sarmisegetusa Research Group, Las Cruces and Santa Fe, New Mexico, USA).

Among the meteorites that have fallen on Brazilian soil the most common ones are: Putinga fallen in State of Rio Grande do Sul in 1937, in Encantado County (a stonyiron exposed in the Science Museum of Passo Fundo University), Bendegó fallen in State of Bahia (1784) in the region of Vaza-Barris River in Monte Santo County (an iron meteorite that contains Fe, Ni and traces of Co, P, C, Ga, Ge, Ir, Zn, Cr and troilite exposed in the National Museum in Rio de Janeiro - the biggest meteorite found in Brazil with 5.3 tons.) and Nova Petrópolis that fell in Nova Petrópolis County in the State of Rio Grande do Sul (a stony-iron meteorite chemically similar to Putinga meteorite, containing troilite, kamacite, taenite and Ga, Ge and Ir as traces elements). Others of minor importance are: Itatinga that fell in Itatinga County in the State of Minas Gerais (a stony-iron-nickel meteorite with traces of Ga, Ge and Ir); Avanhanduva a stony-iron meteorite that fell in Avanhanduva County, São Paulo in 1952, containing silicates and oxides of magnesium, iron, aluminium, titanium, chromium, manganese, calcium, sodium and potassium; Ipitinga (a chondrite that fell in the State of Pará in 1989 composed of silicates and oxides); Santa Luzia (an iron meteorite that fell in Santa Luzia de Goiás in 1921 similar to Bendengó meteorite); Soledade I and II (iron-nickel

SOUTH. BRAZ. J. CHEM., Vol. 9, Nº 10, 2001

L.G. Ionescu & P.C.P. das Neves

51

meteorites); Cratheus (an iron-nickel meteorite that fell in the State of Ceará); Paranaíba (a stony-iron meteorite that fell in Sant'Ana in the State of Mato Grosso composed of silicates and oxides of iron, aluminium, sodium and very fine crystals of olivine).

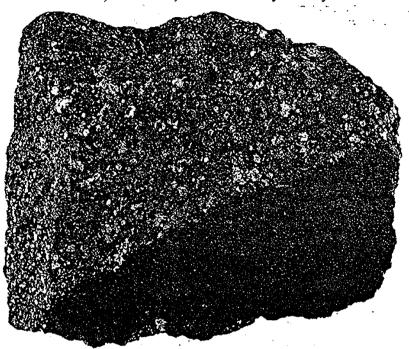


Figure 2. Fragment of the Allende meteorite that fell in the State of Chihuahua, Mexico in 1969. This carbonaceous chondrite contained much organic matter, including formaldehyde (Courtesy of Sarmisegetusa Research Group, Las Cruces and Santa Fe, New Mexico, USA).

Small fragments of the Nova Petrópolis and Bendegó meteorites are exposed in the Mineralogy Museum of the Lutheran University of Brazil in Canoas, in the State of Rio Grande do Sul. Also exposed in that Museum are small fragments of the Nandan meteorite a siderite (octahedrite), that fell in Nandan, Lihu Province, Popular Republic of China, containing akaganéite, feroxhyte, goethite, lepidocrocite, cohenite, iron, nickel, kamacite, lawrencite, maghemite, schreibersite and taenite; Vaca Muerta meteorite, a mesosiderite, that fell in Taltal, Atacama Desert, Chile, composed of troilite, osbornite, schereibersite, cohenite and olivine; Cape York meteorite (a siderite), that fell in Agpalik, Greenland, composed by plessite an intergrowth of kamacite and taenite; Moldavite meteorite, a vitreous meteorite that fell in the Czech Republic; Thailandite meteorite, a tektite composed of silica and Al₂O₃, that fell in Konkai Province, Thailand.

An interesting crater formed by the impact of a meteorite on Brazilian soil is found in Colonia (about 35 km south of the city of São Paulo). Its consists of a ring

52

feature, with 3.64 km in diameter and is filled by at least 263 m of sediments within Precambrian crystaline basement. Probably the meteorite fell in Colonia during the Tertiary Period in the Oligocene Epoch^{24} .

As mentioned above, meteorites are relatively rare and since there is much more sea than land on Earth, most of them fall into the oceans. Some large ones, however, such as the Huba West meteorite of South Africa that weighs 60 tons and the Ahnighitu meteorite of Greenland, weighing 36 tons have been found¹⁰⁻¹¹.

When a meteorite fell in the valley of the Stony Tunguska River, Siberia in 1908 the impact blew trees flat for 60 miles around; the explosions were heard up to 600 miles away and the shock waves were very strong more than 100 miles away. Some think it was the nucleus of a small comet.

Meteor Crater near Winslow, Arizona is three-quarters of a mile in diameter, 600 feet deep and its rim of uptilted and broken strata rises 120-150 feet above the surrounding plain. Masses of meteoritic iron strewed the whole area outside the crater for several miles but no iron was found in it. Meteor Crater in Arizona is the result of a prehistoric meteorite that must have weighed about 50,000 tons (Figure 3).

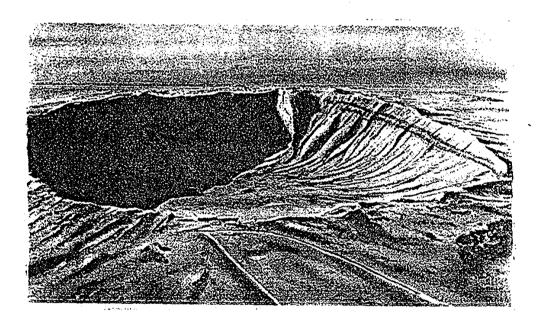


Figure 3. Meteor Crater near Winslow, Arizona (Courtesy of Sarmisegetusa Research Group, Las Cruces and Santa Fe, New Mexico, USA).

Other examples of meteorite craters are found in Henbury, Central Australia; Boe Hole, Dulgavanga and Wolf Creek, Australia; Wabar, Saudi Arabia; öesel, Estonia; L.G. Ionescu & P.C.P. das Neves

A cataclysmic collision that triggered widespread extinction of life on Earth 65 million years ago is believed to have been caused by an asteroid. A huge circular structure about 180 km in diameter is centered beneath the town of Chicxulub near Merida in the northern Yucatán Peninsula. Among the most compelling evidence are crystals of quartz found at the Cretaceous-Tertiary (K-T) boundary²⁵. Chicxulub means "horns of the devil" in the Mayan languages and the discovery of the meteoritic material was found during the drilling of an exploratory well by Petroleos Mexicanos (Pemex)²⁵.

Meteorites are generally classified into four classes: stony meteorites, composed principally of rock called aerolites or chondrites, nickel-iron meteorites known as siderites (Figure 4), stony-iron meteorites known as siderolites and tektites.

Tektites are generally regarded as glass meteorites and there are many theories concerning their origin. They are small round pieces of a glass-like substance and vary in color from botlle green glass to deep brown. They are found in Moldavia, ex-Czechoslowakia, Australia, Island of Tasmania, Indonesia, Thailand, Philippines, Malay Peninsula, Ivory Coast, Mauritania and Texas, USA (Figure 5).

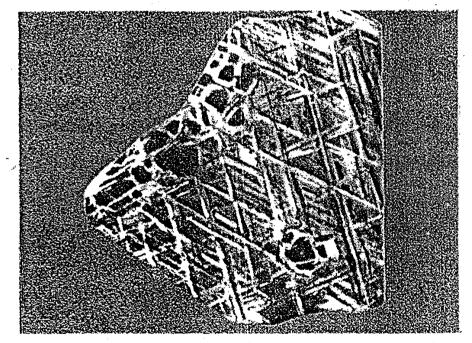


Figure 4. Fragment of an iron meteorite showing the characteristic Widmanstätten pattern (Courtesy of Sarmisegetusa Research Group, Las Cruces and Santa Fe, New Mexico, USA).

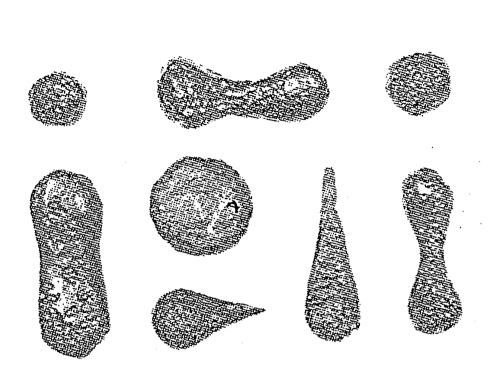


Figure 5 - Some examples of tektites (Photograph courtesy of Griffith Observatory - Astronomical Society of Las Cruces, New Mexico, USA).

They usually contain 70-80% SiO₂, 10-13% Al₂O₃, 2-5% Fe₂O₃ and 1-3% K₂O. The most generally accepted view is that tektites are glass meteorites, but they differ considerably in appearance and composition from ordinary stony meteorites. They are found at various geological horizons on Earth and most tektite fields are found near known or probable meteorite craters of comparable age. Detailed studies of australites indicate that they are remains of larger glassy lumps that have undergone ablation during the passage at high velocity through the atmosphere.

A lunar origin has also been proposed for tektites. Supposedly they were formed from lunar material after collisions of the surface of the Moon with asteroids. Subsequently the fragments were attracted by the gravity of the Earth.

On the other hand, the large masses of silica glass present in the Libyan Desert are believed to be of terrestrial origin and more similar to the first man made "mineral" trinitite, formed by the explosion of the first atomic bomb in 1945 and found around the crater at Trinity Site near Alamogordo and Socorro, New Mexico, USA.

Meteorites contain the same elements that are present in terrestrial matter. The isotopic composition of many elements is constant in terrestrial and meteoritic materials. In a few cases there are exceptions; the bombardment of cosmic rays produces a variety of stable and unstable isotopes. This difference may yield valuable information about the history of meteorites ^{8,17}. The elements present in iron meteorites

L.G. Ionescu & P.C.P. das Neves

are Fe, Ni, Co, P, S, C, Cu, Cr, Ga, Ge and Ir; in stoney meteorites are O, Fe, Si, Mg, Al, Ni, Ca, Na, Cr, P, Mn, Co, K and Ti.

A more comprehensive classification of meteorites, excluding tektites and the newly discovered meteorites in Antarctic ice is given in Table $I^{7,8,26}$.

Table I. General Classification of Meteorites

I. Irons-Main phases: kamacite (Fe.Ni), α-nickel (4-7.5%)-iron, body-centered Cubic System taenite (Ni,Fe), y-nickel-iron, face-centered Cubic System troilite FeS - Hexagonal System graphite C - Hexagonal/Trigonal Systems Classification: a) Nickel-rich ataxites (42 known): generally nickel greater than 12%. Fine crystals. b) Octahedrites (442 known): nickel 6-12% (mostly 7-10%). Extended interleaved crystals of kamacite and taenite (Widmanstätten figures). c) Hexahedrites (69 known): nickel less than 6%. Mainly kamacite. II. Stony-irons - Main phases: as above. Also: olivine $A^{2+}_{2}SiO_{4}$, $A^{2+} = Fe$, Mg, Mn, Ni; pyroxene ABZ₂ - A = Ca, Fe^{2^+} , Li, Mg, Mn²⁺, Na, Zn; B = Al, Fe^{2^+} , Fe^{3^+} , Mg, Mn²⁺, Se, Ti, V^{3+} ; Z = Al, Si. feldspars (complex Na, Ca and K aluminosilicates). Classification: a) Pallasites (43 known): mostly metal (exterior phase) like octahedrites. Olivine. b) Mesosiderites (25 know): metal, pyroxene, feldspar. III. Stones-Main phases as above, with silicates predominant. Classification: Chondrites (1004 known): contain chondrules, millimeter-scale spheroidal bodies a) of uncertain origin. All but carbonaceous have olivine, pyroxene, feldspar, metal phases and troilite. a1) Clinoenstatite Mg2Si2O6 - Monoclinic System - chondrites (17 known): highly reduced, all iron in metal and troilite. a 2) Ordinary chondrites: H-group (459 known). Less reduced, some iron in olivine and pyroxene also. Total iron about 28%; L-group (459 known): less iron and less metal than H-group. Total iron about 21%; LL-group (67 known): little free metal; total iron about 19%. a3) Carbonaceous chondrites (33 known): contain organic matter, H2O, hydrated minerals, little or no free metal; magnetite (Fe²⁺Fe³⁺₂O 4), sulfate. Subdivided further into types I, II, and III; type I having organic and H₂O content. Total iron about the same as in the H-group. b) Achondrites (69 known): many classes, some with only one member. The more abundant classes are: b₁. Aubrites-diogenites (calcium-poor; 16 known): mainly pyroxene.

b2. Eucrites-howardites (calcium-rich; 44 known): feldspar and pyroxene.

The type of chemical fractionation that apparently occured during the formation of most of the meteorites in the separation into three mineralogical phases: a metal pahse, a sulfide phase and a silicate phase.

Goldschmidt^{27,28} divided the chemical elements of the Periodical Table into three groups present in meteorites: siderophile, chalcophile and lithophile. A fourth group, not present in meteorites he called atmophiles. Such a classification, however, is not vigorous, as many elements are distributed among two or three phases in varying proportions, depending on oxygen fugacity.

One difficulty that arises in calculating the composition of primordial solar matter from elemental composition of meteorites comes from our ignorance about the relative amounts of the three phase in present bodies of meteorites. Iron meteorites are better preserved during their fall and on the surface of the Earth than are stony meteorites and pallasites.

Therefore, meteorites that reach the surface of the Earth cannot readily serve as a basis of estimation of the relative amounts of mineralogical phases.

The high abundance of Fe in meteorites led von Tamman²⁹ to propose the "blast furnace model" for the Earth in 1923. Table II summarizes the metal content estimated for Planet Earth. Information about the Earth's composition at moderate depths near the surface (10 km) has been obtained the Hot Dry Rock Geothermal Power Project³⁴ of the Los Alamos Laboratory, Los Alamos, New Mexico, USA and by similar classified studies in Siberia, Russia. The radius of the Earth is 6,370 km.

	Metal	Sulfide	
Noddack ³⁰	68	9.8	
Fersman ³¹	20	. 4	
Goldschmidt ²⁷	20	10	
H. Brown ³²	67	0	
Urey ³³	10.6	7	

Table II. Metal Content of Planet Earth*

There is a logical combination between the three main classes of meteorites and the more common model for Planet Earth. The chondrite, silicate meteorites or assiderites are mineralogically similar to the Earth's crust^{35,36}. The stony-iron meteorites or lithosiderites have a chemical composition similar to that of volcanic lava that comes from the mantle and eventually forms basaltic rocks and the third group, the iron meteorites that consist mainly of Fe and about 8% Ni are associated with the nucleus or the interior of the Earth, or the "blast furnace model".

There are about 2,000 individual meteorites described in the literature, excluding the several thousands. newly recovered meteorites from Antarctic ice. The chemical elements present in them are mostly combined in the form of well-defined chemical compounds and a few are present as free elements or alloys.

Many of these minerals are formed in terrestrial rocks and others are only present in meteorites.

Table III presents a list of 89 mineralogic species related to meteorites. Those marked by an asterisk are present only in meteorites. The crystal systems and chemical compositions follow the classification of Mandarino³.

The minerals listed include silicates, sulfides, chlorides, carbonates, oxides, hydroxides, phosphates, sulphates, chromates, native elements and metallic alloys, phosphites, silicides, nitrides and carbides.

Table III. Mineralogic Species Related to Meteorites

- a. SILICATES
- 1. Aegirine NaFe³⁺SiO₆ Monoclinic System Pyroxene Group.
- 2. Albite NaAlSi₃O₈ Triclinic System Feldspar Group.
- 3. Anorthite CaAl₂Si₂O₈ Triclinic System Feldspar Group.
- 4. Augite (Ca,Na)(Mg,Fe,Al,Ti)(Si,Al)₂O₆ Monoclinic System Pyroxene Group.
- 5. *Calderite (Mn²⁺,Ca)₃(Fe³⁺,Al)₂(SiO₄)₃ Cubic System Garnet Group.
- 6. *Clinoenstatite Mg₂Si₂O₆ Monoclinic System Pyroxene Group.
- 7. *Clinoferrosilite $(Fe^{2+},Mg)_2Si_2O_6$ Monoclinic System Pyroxene Group.
- 8. Coesite SiO₂ Monoclinic System.
- 9. Cristobalite SiO₂ Tetragonal System.
- 10. Diopside CaMgSi₂O₆ Monoclinic System Pyroxene Group.
- 11. Enstatite Mg₂Si₂O₆ Orthorhombic System Pyroxene Group.
- 12. Forsterite Mg₂SiO₄ Orthorombic System Olivine Group.
- 13. *Knorringite Mg₃Cr₂(SiO₄)₃ Cubic System Garnet Group.
- 14. *Krinovite Na₂Mg₄Cr₂Si₆O₂₀ Triclinic System Aenigmatite Group.
- *Kosmochlor (*Ureyite variety) NaCr³⁺Si₂O₆ Monoclinic System Pyroxene Group.
- 16. *Majorite Mg₃(Fe,Al,Si)₂(SiO₄)₃ Cubic System Garnet Group.
- 17. Orthoclase KAlSi₃O₈ Monoclinic System Feldspar Group.
- 18. *Perrierite (Ca,Ce,Th)₄(Mg,Fe²⁺)₂(Ti,Fe³⁺)₃Si₄O₂₂ Monoclinic System.
- 19. Stishovite SiO₂ Tetragonal System Rutile Group.
- 20. Tridymite SiO₂ Monoclinic System.
- 21. Yagiite (Na,K)1.5Mg2(Al,Mg)3(Si,Al)12O30 Hexagonal System Osumilite Group.
- 22. Zircon ZrSiO₄ Tetragonal System.
- **b.** SULFIDES
- 23. Alabandite Mn²⁺S Cubic System.
- 24. *Brezinaite Cr₃S₄ Monoclinic System.
- 25. Chalcopyrite CuFeS₂ Tetragonal System.

- 26. *Daubréelite $Fe^{2+}Cr_2S_4$ Cubic System Linnaeite Group.
- 27. *Djerfisheerrite K₆(Fe,Cu,Ni)₂₅S₂₆Cl Cubic System.
- 28. Marcasite FeS₂ Orthorombic System Marcasite Group.
- 29. Millerite NiS Trigonal System.
- 30. *Niningerite (Mg,Fe²⁺,Mn)S Cubic System.
- 31. *Oldhamite (Ca,Mg,Fe,Mn)S Cubic System.
- 32. Pentlandite (Fe,Ni)₉S₈ Cubic System.
- 33. Pyrite FeS₂ Cubic System Pyrite Group.
- 34. Pyrrhotite Fe_{1-x}S Monoclinic and Hexagonal Systems.
- 35. *Troilite FeS Hexagonal System.

c. CHLORIDES

- 36. *Lawrencite (Fe²⁺,Ni)Cl₂ Trigonal System.
- d. CARBONATES
- 37. Dolomite CaMg(CO₃)₂ Trigonal System.
- e. OXIDES
- 38. *Ferrihydrite 5Fe₂O₃.9H₂O Trigonal System.
- 39. Ilmenite Fe²⁺TiO₃ Trigonal System Hematite Group.
- 40. *Maghemite γ-Fe₂O₃ Trigonal System.
- 41. Magnetite $Fe^{2+}Fe^{3+}_{2}O_4$ Cubic System Spinel Group.
- 42. Perovskite CaTiO₃ Orthorombic System Perovskite Group.
- 43. Rutile TiO_2 Tetragonal System Rutile Group.
- 44. Spinel MgAl₂O₄ Cubic System Spinel Group.

f. HYDROXIDES

- 45. *Akaganéite β -Fe³⁺(O,OH,Cl) Monoclinic System.
- 46. *Feroxyhyte δFe³⁺O(OH) Hexagonal System.
- 47. *Lepidocrocite γ-Fe³⁺O(OH) Orthorhombic System.

g. PHOSPHATES

- 48. *Arupite Ni₃(PO₄)₂.8H₂O Monoclinic System Vivianite Group.
- 49. *Brianite Na₂CaMg(PO₄)₂ Monoclinic System.
- 50. *Chladnnite Na2CaMg7(PO4)6 Trigonal System.
- 51. Chlorapatite Ca₅Mg(PO₄)₃Cl Monoclinic Syystem Apatite Group.
- 52. *Farringtonite Mg₃(PO₄)₂ Monoclinic System.
- 53. *Galileiite NaFe²⁺₄(PO₄)₃ Trigonal System.
- 54. *Johnsonmervilleite Na₂Ca(Mg,Fe²⁺,Mn)₇(PO₄)₆ Trigonal System.
- 55. *Mundrabillaite (NH₄)₂Ca(HPO₄)_{2.H2}O Monoclinic System.
- 56. *Stanfieldite Ca₄(Mg,Fe²⁺,Mn²⁺)₅(PO₄)₂
- 57. Vivianite Fe²⁺₃(PO₄)₂.8H₂O Monoclinic System Vivianite Group.
- 58. Whitlockite (*Merrilite variety) Ca₉(Mg,Fe²⁺)(PO₄)₆(PO₃OH) Trigonal System. h. SULPHATES
- 59. Epsomite MgSO₄.7H₂O Orthorombic System.
- 60. Gypsum CaSO₄.nH₂O Monoclinic System.

L.G. Ionescu & P.C.P das Neves

- 61. Jarosite $K_2Fe^{3+}_{6}(SO_4)_4(OH)_{12}$ Trigonal System Alunite Group
- i. CHROMATES
- 62. Chromite $Fe^{2+}Cr_2O_4$ Cubic System Spinel Group.
- j. NATIVE ELEMENTS AND NATURAL METALLIC ALLOYS
- 63. Awaruite Ni₂Fe to Ni₃Fe Cubic System.
- 64. *Chaoite C Hexagonal System.
- 65. Copper Cu Cubic System.
- 66. Diamond C Cubic System.
- 67. Gold Au Cubic System.
- 68. Graphite C Hexagonal and Trigonal Systems.
- 69. Iron α-Fe Cubic System.
- 70. *Kamacite (Fe,Ni) Cubic System.
- 71. Londslaeite C Hexagonal System.
- 72. Nickel Ni Cubic System.
- 73. Sulfur S Orthorrhombic System.
- 74. *Taenite (Ni,Fe) Cubic System.
- 75. *Tetrataenite FeNi Cubic System.
- 76. *Zhanghengite CuZn Cubic System.

k. PHOSPHIDES

- 77. *Barringerite (Fe,Ni)₂P Hexagonal System.
- 78. *Perryite (Ni,Fe)₈(Si,P)₃ Trigonal System.
- 79. *Schereibersite (Fe,Ni)₃P Tetragonal System.

I. SILICIDES

- 80. *Suessite (Fe,Ni)₃Si Cubic System.
- **m. NITRITES**
- 81. *Carlsbergite CrN Cubic System.
- 82. *Osbornite TiN Cubic System.
- 83. *Roaldite Fe₄N Cubic System.

n. CARBIDES

- 84. *Cohenite (Fe,Ni,Co)₃C Orthorombic System.
- 85. *Haxonite (Fe,Ni)₂₃C₆ Cubic System.
- 86. *Moissanite SiC (?) Unknown System.
- 87. *Niocarbide (Nb,Ta)C Cubic System.
- 88. *Tantalcarbide (Ta,Nb)C Cubic System.
- 89. *Tongbaite Cr_3C_2 Orthorombic System

The existence of approximatelly 200 different molecules in interstellar space comets and asteroids has been confirmed. They range from simple commom diatomic and triatomic molecules such as H₂, OH, CO, CN, H₂O, CO₂, NH₃ to polyatomic ones including amino acids, aromatics and a wide variety of chemical compounds including

60

most functional organic groups and inorganic compounds such as silicates and carbonates. Among the more complex ones are fullerene and porphyrin, discovered by Fred M. Johnson and Charles E. Castro of the University of California, Riverside^{37,38}.

Simple sugars such as glucose and many polyols have been found in the Murchison meteorite which fell in Australia in 1969 and the Murray meteorite that fell in Kentucky, USA in 1950^{39,40}.

The idea that simple compounds may be converted to move complex ones related to the origin of life was originally proposed by the Moldavian scientist A. I. Oparin, and many primordial conditions have been simulated in the laboratory^{41,42}.

As far as the terrestrial origin of life is concerned^{37,38,41-48} there are three hypotheses, the first one, "the primordial soup", being the more accepted one. According to this theory life originated in the oceans after the cooling of the Planet Earth. The second one involves "the primordial clay" and the third one suggests that life may have originated near "hydrothermal vents", in the bottom of the oceans near regions of volcanic activity.

The extraterrestrial origin of life may not be excluded^{37,38,43,44}. The most common theory is Whipple's ball of "dirty ice" according to which life originated in comets. Other hypotheses include the Nebulosity of Orion, near the cradle or birthplace of stars or even meteorites^{47,48}.

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SOUTH. BRAZ. J. CHEM., Vol. 9, Nº 10, 2001

63

NEW Cr(III) COMPOUNDS IN ANALYTICAL CHEMISTRY. BI(III) CONDUCTOMETRIC DETERMINATION

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ABSTRACT

This study presents the synthesis and characterization of the complex $[Bi(Rhodanine)_3][Cr(NCS)_4(Aniline)_2]_3$. The new complex was analyzed by thermogravimetric, oxidation, infra red and other spectrometric techniques and was used for the determination of bismuth in drugs. The dosage of Bi(III) in Ulcerotrat was done by conductometric titration with rhodanine and complex anions of Cr(III), respectively.

RESUMO:

Este estudo trata da síntese e caracterização do complexo $[Bi(Rhodanine)_3][Cr(NCS)_4(Aniline)_2]_3$. O novo complexo foi analisado através de vários métodos, incluindo termogravimetria, oxidação, infravermelho e outros e foi usado para quantificar Bi(III) em medicamentos. A dosagem de Bi(III) no Ulcerotrat foi obtida attravés de titulação conductimétrica com rodanina e ânions complexos de Cr(III), respectivamente.

KEYWORDS: Cr(III) Complexes, Rhodanine, Bismuth Determination, Conductometric Titrations

Chromium Complexes in Analytical Chemistry

64

INTRODUCTION

Bismuth based drugs are used as dressings in the treatment of gastro-duodenal affections.

The determination of bismuth in drugs by classic laborious methods implies a previous destruction of the organic compound. A direct approach to avoid these operations is based on complexometric titration with EDTA. For bismuth dosage in Dermatol and Airol drugs pirocathehine violet it is used as indicator¹, and its dosage from Gastrosedol and Ulcerotrat is made in the presence of taron².

Because at the equivalence point the color change is not very clear and cannot be easily observed, we propose the determination of Bi(III) from Ulcerotrat by conductometric titration with Rhodanine and with complex anions of Cr(III) with which bismuth forms stable

complex combinations. Rhodanine is (2-thio-4-keto-thiazolidine), SCH₂C(O)NHCS

EXPERIMENTAL

The synthesis and characterization of $[Bi(Rhodanine)_3][Cr(NCS)_4(Aniline)_2]_3$ complex. A sample of 100 mL Bi(III) (pH=1.8) solution was treated with 1 % Rhodanine alcoholic solution in excess. A yellow complex compound $[Bi(Rhodanine)_3]^{3+}$ which remained stable with time and also at high temperatures was formed. We studied the structure of this complex and also the influence of various factors on its stability.³

The sample was brought to a constant volume of 25 mL with distilled water followed by the precipitation with complex anions of Cr(III), 3% aqueou-alcoholic solution.

A red-orange precipitate was obtained which was filtered with a filtering crucible G_4 , it was washed tow or three times with distilled water, subsequently it was dried for 1 hour at 105 °C.

The complex salt obtained, [Bi(Rhodanine)₃][Cr(NCS)₄(Aniline)₂]₃, was analyzed termogravimetrically, oxidimetrically and by spectrometric methods.⁴

The I.R. analysis of the complex was performed with a Perkin-Elmer 1600 spectrometer and the results are presented in Table 1.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The I.R. spectral studies of the complex anions of $[Cr(NCS)_4(Aniline)_2]_3$ type⁵⁻⁸ show that the vibration frequencies $v_{C=N}$ of the NSC group appears at 2110-2140 cm⁻¹, and the vibration frequencies v_{C-S} at 760-810 cm⁻¹, respectively, which proves the covalent nature of the Cr(III)-NCS bond. The bond between Cr(III) and SCN is through the N atom and not the S atom⁹.

The very intense absorption maximum at the vibration frequency of 2079 cm^{-1} is assigned to the SCN group.

The data mentioned in the literature¹⁰⁻¹² confirm that the coordination effect has an insignificant influence on the line of the complexes of $NH_4[Cr(NCS)_4(Aniline)_2]$ type. The $v_{C=N}$ and v_{C-S} bands do not shift if there are aliphatic or aromatic amines in the internal sphere of coordination.

In the case of combinations with aniline in the internal sphere of coordination the vibration frequencies of the N-H bond are around $3100-3200 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ (the shift being

O. Rusu, M. Pleniceanu, M. Mureseanu, Al. Popescu & I. Mitrache

65

insignificant (120-200 cm⁻¹) in comparison with free uncoordinated amines). This confirms that the Cr-N bond (with amines) had a strong covalent character.

Table 1. The I.R. absorbtion maximum for [Bi(Rhodanine)3][Cr(NCS)4(Aniline)2]3.

Vibration attribution	Frequency (cm ⁻¹)	
 Vс-н	3396 v.w.	
$v_{\rm NH2} + v_{\rm C=S-NH2}$	3190 m.	
v ^{as} CH2-S	3114 m.	
VCH ₂ OR	2920 v.w.	
V _{SCN}	2079 v.i.	
V _{C=0}	1601 w.	
δ _{NH}	1576 m.	
$\delta_{\rm NH} + \delta_{\rm CN}$	1526 m.	
δ _{CH2}	1492 m.	
$\delta_{\rm CN} + v_{\rm NH}$	1283 m.	
VC=s	1130 i.	
	1026 w.	
vc≖n	693 w. and 481 m.	

w. - weak; m - medium; i - intense; v.w. - very weak; v.i. - very intense; as - antisymmetric; s - symmetric; v - valence vibration; δ - deformation vibration

The Bi(III) dosage from Ulcerotrat by conductometric titration with Rhodanine. Ulcerotrat is a drug used as a dressing in gastric injuries. It appears in the form of tablets (1.1022 g/tablet).

To 1 g Ulcerotrat 20 mL of concentrated HNO₃ is added and then the solution is diluted with distilled water is up to 1L. A sample of 100 mL of the solution obtained is titrated under magnetic stirring with 1% Rhodanine alcoholic solution. The results obtained are presented in Figure 1. From the graphic representation the volume at the equivalence point, $V_e = 3.2$ mL was determined in perfect concordance with the calculated value ($V_e = 3.215$ mL).

The experiments was repeated 5 times using sample with the same content of Bi(III) and the experimental data were statistically interpreted. The results are presented in Table 2.

Table 2. Statistic interpretation of the experimental data for Bi(III) dosage from Ulcerotrat by conductometric titration with Rhodanine.

No.	V Rhodanine (mL)	X Bi(III) found (mg)	X-X _i	$(X-X_i)^2$	
1	3.15	16.4819	0.2093	0.0438	$S^2 = 0.0222$
2	3.20	16.7435	-0.0523	0.0027	S = 0.1490
3	3.175	16.6127	0.0785	0.0062	$S_x = 0.06$
4	3.20	16.7435	-0.0523	0.0027	t = 4.616
5	3.225	16.8743	-0.1831	0.0335	
		$\bar{x} = 16.691$			

Chromium Complexes in Analytical Chemistry

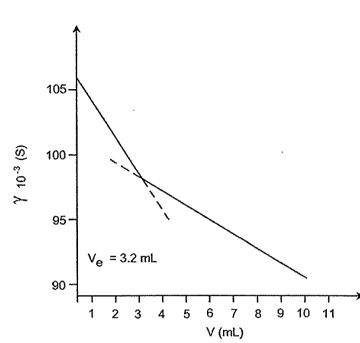


Fig. 1. The Bi(III) conductometric titration from Ulcerotrat using Rhodanine.

The Bi(III) dosage from Ulcerotrat after complexation with Rhodanine by conductometric titration with $[Cr(NCS)_4(Aniline)_2]^-$.

To 100 mL Ulcerotrat solution, prepared as above, 10 mL Rhodanine (in excess) is added and it is titrated under magnetic stirring with 3% alcoholic solution $NH_4[Cr(NCS)_4(Aniline)_2]H_2O$. The experimental results are presented in Figure 2.

In this case, too, the $V_e = 5.6 \text{ mL}$ obtained by experimental methods is in agreement with the one determined by calculations ($V_e = 5.65 \text{ mL}$).

The data obtained by repeating the titration five times using samples with the same content of Bi(III) were statistically interpreted. The results are presented in Table 3.

No.	V Rhodanilate (mL)	X Bi(III) found (mg)	X-X _i	$(X-X_i)^2$	
1	5.650	16.7487	0.03854	0.001485	$S^2 = 1.27582 \times 10^{-3}$
2	5.670	16.8080	-0.0208	0.000433	S = 0.03572
3	5.650	16.7487	-0.03854	0.001485	$S_x = 0.01597$
4	5.670	16.7487	-0.0208	0.00433	t = 4.616
5	5.675	16.8228	-0.0356	0.001267	
		$\bar{x} = 16.787$			

Table 3. Statistic interpretation of the experimental data for Bi(III) dosage from Ulcerotrat after complexation with Rhodanine by conductometric titration with $[Cr(NCS)_4(Aniline)_2]$.

O. Rusu, M. Pleniceanu, M. Mureseanu, Al. Popescu & I. Mitrache

67

Comparing the experimental data from both cases presented one can observe that the better result was with the titration with Rhodanine. This may be explained by a more reduced mobility of the complex salt obtained following the titration, in the second case.

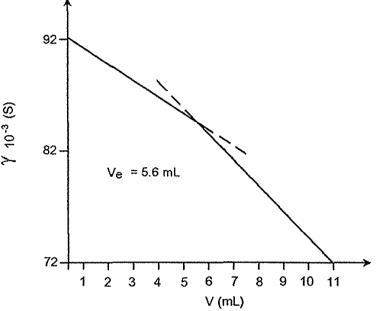


Fig. 2. . The Bi(III) conductometric titration from Ulcerotrat as $[Bi(Rhodanine)_3]^{3^+}$ using $NH_4[Cr(NCS)_4(Aniline)_2]H_2O$.

The suggested method for the determination of Bi(III) in drugs (Ulcerotrat) is, rapid, particularly, sensitive and accurate.

The method used for determination the Bi(III) could be used also in the presence of other ions⁴.

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ISSN 0104-5431

VOLUME NINE, NUMBER TEN DECEMBER 2001

AUTHOR INDEX / ÍNDICE DE AUTORES

Almeida, Vitor	9
Badea, Irinel	1,5
Balea, Paraschiv	23
Blasquez, J. E	41
Bratulescu, George	31
Cartana, Daniela	31
Catteau, Jean Pierre	1,5
Cotelle, Philippe	1,5
Dantas, A.E	41
Favero, Bortotti Otilia Luiza	9
Ganescu, Anca	31
Ganescu, Ion	31
Ionescu, Lavinel G	47
Kriza, Angela	17
Lenzi, Ervim	9
Meghea, Aurelia	17
Mitrache, Ioana	63
Mureseanu, Mihaela	63
Neves, Paulo César Pereira das	47
Papa, Ion	31
Pleniceanu, Maria	63
Popescu, Al	63
Potcovaru, Gheorghe	23
Rusu, Olimpia	63
Santos, R.K.P	41
Silveira, B.I	41
Spinu, Cezar	17
Tigae, Cristian	17,31

ISSN 0104-5431

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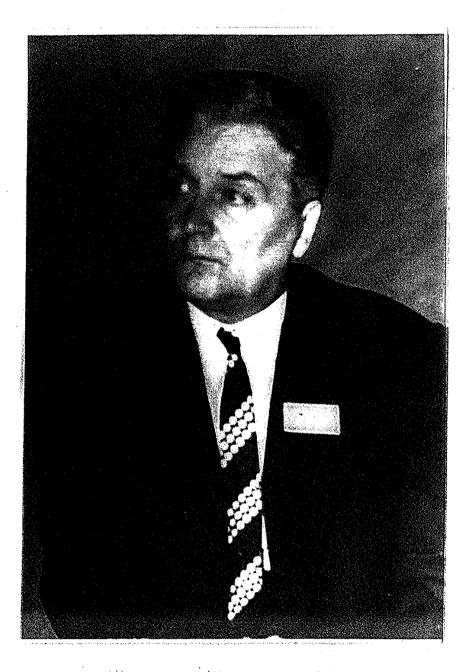
ISSN 0104-5431

VOLUME ONE, NUMBER ONE DECEMBER 1993

71

CONTENTS / CONTEMPO

The Birth of a Journal	i
ILIE G. MURGULESCU, A PROMINENT SCIENTIST AND EDUCATOR Lavinel G. Ionescu	1
CARBON-13 NMR OF SOME S-METHYLTHIOLESTERS Paulo Irajara Borba Carneiro, Roberto Rittner and Rogério Custódio	5
FLAVONOIDS IN CULTIVARS OF SOYBEAN: ANTIOXIDANT ACTION Tanus Jorge Nagem, Tânia Toledo de Oliveira e Albuquerque and Marilda Conceição da Silva	11
ELASTOMERIC COMPOSITIONS FOR PRODUCTION OF RUBBER ARTIFACTS USED IN SHOE MANUFACTURING AND CIVIL CONSTRUCTION José Cláudio Del Pino, Anildo Bristoti and Mário Pinheiro	23
AN INTERESTING CASE OF CONSECUTIVE REACTIONS José Schifino	29
THE KNIGHT'S MOVE IN THE PERIODIC TABLE: A REGULARITY AMONGST THE d ¹⁰ METALS ON THE LOWER RIGHT-HAND SIDE Michael Laing	33
TORNBERN BERGMAN'S THUNDERSTORM LECTURES Joseph A. Schufle	49
USE OF POLLUTION BIOINDICATORS FOR FLUORIDE IN THE VICINITY OF COAL THERMOELECTRIC POWER PLANTS Érico M. M. Flores and Ayron F. Martins	61
MICELLAR CATALYZED HYDROLYSIS OF A PHOSPHATE ESTER IN AQUEOUS SOLUTIONS CONTAINING DIMETHYL SULFOXIDE Lavinel G. Ionescu and Elizabeth Fátima de Souza	75
INFLUENCE OF FILM THICKNESS, TEMPERATURE AND INORGANIC FILLERS ON THE VOLUME ELECTRIC RESISTIVITY OF HEAT- CURING EPOXY VARNISH	6 7
Minodora Leca and Ovidiu Segarceanu	



PROF. ACAD. ILIE G. MURGULESCU PROMINENT PHYSICAL CHEMIST AND EDUCATOR (1902 - 1991)

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SOUTHERN BRAZILIAN JOURNAL OF CHEMISTRY Vol. 1, No. 1, 1993

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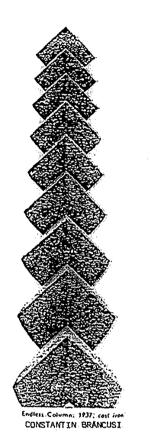
73

AUTHOR INDEX / ÍNDICE DE AUTORES

Bristoti, A. 23 Carneiro, P. I. B. 5 Custódio, R. 5 Del Pino, J. C. 23 Flores, E. M. M. 61 Ionescu, L. G. 1,75 Laing, M. 33 Leca, M. 97 Martins, A. F. 61 Nagem, T. J. 11 Pinheiro, M. 23 Rittner, R. 5 Segarceanu, O. 97 Schifino, J. 29 Schufle, J.A. 49 Silva, M. C. 11 Souza, E. F. 75	Albuquerque, T. T. O	11
Custódio, R. 5 Del Pino, J. C. 23 Flores, E. M. M. 61 Ionescu, L. G. 1,75 Laing, M. 33 Leca, M. 97 Martins, A. F. 61 Nagem, T. J. 11 Pinheiro, M. 23 Rittner, R. 5 Segarceanu, O. 97 Schifino, J. 29 Schufle, J.A. 49 Silva, M. C. 11	Bristoti, A	23
Del Pino, J. C. 23 Flores, E. M. M. 61 Ionescu, L. G. 1,75 Laing, M. 33 Leca, M. 97 Martins, A. F. 61 Nagem, T. J. 11 Pinheiro, M. 23 Rittner, R. 5 Segarceanu, O. 97 Schifino, J. 29 Schufle, J.A. 49 Silva, M. C. 11	Carneiro, P. I. B	5
Flores, E. M. M. 61 Ionescu, L. G. 1,75 Laing, M. 33 Leca, M. 97 Martins, A. F. 61 Nagem, T. J. 61 Pinheiro, M. 23 Rittner, R. 5 Segarceanu, O. 97 Schifino, J. 29 Schufle, J.A. 49 Silva, M. C. 11	Custódio, R	5
Ionescu, L. G. 1,75 Laing, M. 33 Leca, M. 97 Martins, A. F. 61 Nagem, T. J. 61 Pinheiro, M. 23 Rittner, R. 5 Segarceanu, O. 97 Schifino, J. 29 Schufle, J.A. 49 Silva, M. C. 11	Del Pino, J. C	23
Ionescu, L. G. 1,75 Laing, M. 33 Leca, M. 97 Martins, A. F. 61 Nagem, T. J. 11 Pinheiro, M. 23 Rittner, R. 5 Segarceanu, O. 97 Schifino, J. 29 Schufle, J.A. 49 Silva, M. C. 11	•	61
Leca, M. 97 Martins, A. F. 61 Nagem, T. J. 11 Pinheiro, M. 23 Rittner, R. 5 Segarceanu, O. 97 Schifino, J. 29 Schufle, J.A. 49 Silva, M. C. 11	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	1,75
Martins, A. F. 61 Nagem, T. J. 11 Pinheiro, M. 23 Rittner, R. 5 Segarceanu, O. 97 Schifino, J. 29 Schufle, J.A. 49 Silva, M. C. 11	Laing, M	33
Nagem, T. J. 11 Pinheiro, M. 23 Rittner, R. 5 Segarceanu, O. 97 Schifino, J. 29 Schufle, J.A. 49 Silva, M. C. 11	Leca, M	97
Pinheiro, M. 23 Rittner, R. 5 Segarceanu, O. 97 Schifino, J. 29 Schufle, J.A. 49 Silva, M. C. 11	Martins, A. F	61
Rittner, R. 5 Segarceanu, O. 97 Schifino, J. 29 Schufle, J.A. 49 Silva, M. C. 11	Nagem, T. J	11
Segarceanu, O. 97 Schifino, J. 29 Schufle, J.A. 49 Silva, M. C. 11	Pinheiro, M	23
Schifino, J. 29 Schufle, J.A. 49 Silva, M. C. 11	Rittner, R	5
Schufle, J.A. 49 Silva, M. C. 11	Segarceanu, 0	97
Silva, M. C	Schifino, J.	29
· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	Schufle, J.A.	49
Souza, E. F	Silva, M. C	11
	Souza, E. F.	75

74

ISSN 0104-5431



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ISSN 0104-5431

.

VOLUME TWO, NUMBER TWO DECEMBER 1994

75

CONTENTS / CONTENDO

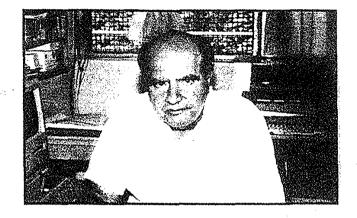
XORGE ALEJANDRO DOMINGUEZ, MEXICO'S FOREMOST ORGANIC CHEMIST Lavinel G. Ionescu	1
EXPERIMENTAL AND PREDICTED ISOELECTRIC POINTS FOR NIOBIUM AND VANADIUM PENTOXIDE Gaspar González, Sandra M. Saraiva and Washington Aliaga	5
MICRO-HPLC SEPARATION OF SOME THENOYLTRIFLUOROACETONATES Florentin Tache, Andrei Medvedovici and George-Emil Bãiulescu	21
THERMOGRAVIMETRIC STUDY OF THE OXIDATION KINETICS OF COPPER José Schifino and Matheus A. G. Andrade	33
USE OF SURFACTANTS ADDED TO REFRACTORY SLURRY IN PRECISION FOUNDRY AND INVESTMENT CASTINGS WITH ALUMINUM Arno Müller, Jorge Luiz S. Barcelos and Lavinel G. Ionescu	41
NIOBIUM AS A POTENTIOMETRIC SENSOR IN REDOX TITRATIONS WITH AND WITHOUT PASSIVATION BY AMMONIUM MOLYBDATE Claudete J. Valduga, Eunice Valduga, Martha Adaime and	
Nádia Viaro THE INFRARED SPECTRA OF METALLOTETRANAPHTHYLPORPHYRINS Rodica Mariana Ion, Dumitru Licsandru, Florin Moise and	
Cristina Mandravel	61
E. A. Lissi and E. B. Abuin AN ATTEMPT TO DEVELOP A NEW FIRE-RESISTANT HYDRAULIC	71
FLUID BASED ON WATER-IN-OIL MICROEMULSIONS N. Garti, A. Aserin and S. Ezrahi	83
FLOW INJECTION ANALYSIS FOR METHANOL WITH ALCOHOL OXIDASE AND CHEMILUMINESCENT DETECTION Andrei F. Danet, Mihaela Oancea, Silviu Jipa and Tanta Setnescu	105
REDOX REACTIONS INVOLVING N-ALKYLDIHYDRONICOTINAMIDES Nadir Ana Wiederkehr	
Author Index	137

..

76

۰.

يون .



XORGE ALEJANDRO DOMINGUEZ (1926 - 1991)



AZTEC CALENDAR. SYMBOL OF PERIODIC ONDULATORY BEHAVIOR OF THE UNIVERSE AND TOKEN OF THE ETERNITY OF KNOWLEDGE.

Vol. 2, No.2, 1994

and the second second

77

AUTHOR INDEX / ÍNDICE DE AUTORES

Abuin, E. B	71
Adaime, Martha	55
Aliaga, Washington	5
Andrade, Matheus A. G.	33
Aserin, A	83
Bãiulescu, George-Emil	21
Barcelos, Jorge Luiz S	41
Danet, Andrei F	105
Ezrahi, S	83
Garti, N	83
González, Gaspar	5
Ion, Rodica Mariana	61
Ionescu, Lavinel G	1,41
Jipa, Silviu	105
Licsandru, Dumitru	61
Lissi, E. A	71
Mandravel, Cristina	61
Medvedovici, Andrei	21
Müller, Arno	41
Oancea, Mihaela	105
Saraiva, Sandra M	5
Schifino, José	33
Setnescu, Tanta	105
Tache, Florentin	21
Valduga, Claudete J.	55
Valduga, Eunice	55
Viaro, Nádia	55
Wiederkehr, Nadir Ana	121

78



SANTUÁRIO DÁCICO DE SARMISEGETUSA, ROMÊNIA DACIAN SANCTUARY IN SARMISEGETUSA, ROMANIA

ISSN 0104-5431

79

VOLUME THREE, NUMBER THREE DECEMBER 1995

CONTENTS / CONTEÚDO

LUIS FREDERICO LELOIR - SOUTH AMERICA'S ONLY NOBEL LAUREATE IN CHEMISTRY Lavinel G. Ionescu and Clovis Antônio Perazzolo	1
DETERMINATION OF ACETATE IN FOODS BY ION CHROMATO- GRAPHY-FLOW INJECTION E.Esteve-Juan, R. Puchades and A. Maquieira	9
CHARACTERIZATION OF GEOCHEMICAL PARAMETERS OF AN ORGANIC SOIL FROM TERRA DE AREIA, NORTHERN COASTAL	
PLAIN, RIO GRANDE DO SUL, BRAZIL Adriana Olmos da Rocha and Paulo César Pereira das Neves	23
MATHEMATICAL CORRELATION BETWEEN MASS TRANSFER COEF-	
FICIENTS AND PARAMETERS INFLUENCING THE PENICILLIN G EXTRACTION PROCESS Dan Cascaval, Corneliu Oniscu and Adina Dumitrascu	37
KINETICS OF OXIDATION WITH HYDROGEN PEROXIDE AND IRON(II) COMPLEX WITH A MACROCYCLIC BINUCLEATING LIGAND	
Lourdes T.Kist, Bruno Szpoganicz, Manuel G. Basallote, Maria J. F. Trujillo and Maria A. Máñez	55
INTERNAL PRESSURE OF LIQUIDS AND THE RATE OF A MICELLAR CATALYZED REACTION	
Lavinel G. Ionescu and Elizabeth Fatima de Souza SYNTHESIS OF SOME PHENOXATHIIN DERIVATIVES WITH ANTI-	63
MICROBIAL ACTIVITY O. Maior, D. Gavriliu and S. Stoia	79
CARBON-13 NMR OF ALIPHATIC TERTIARY AMINES Paulo Irajara Borba Carneiro and Roberto Rittner	89
Author Index	93

.80



LUIS FREDERICO LELOIR ARGENTINA'S NOBEL LAUREATE IN CHEMISTRY (1906 - 1987)

ISSN 0104-5431

· · · · ·

,

DECEMBER 1995 VOLUME THREE, NUMBER THREE

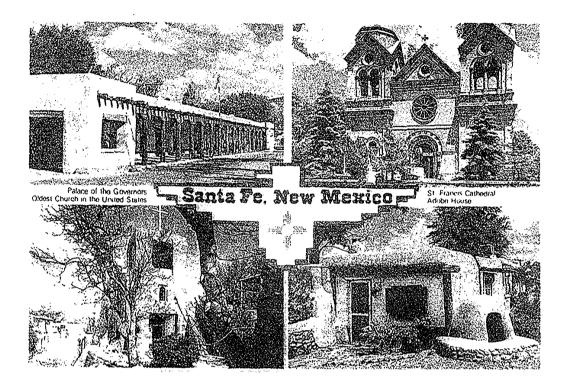
81

AUTHOR INDEX / ÍNDICE DE AUTORES

Basallote, Manuel G 55
Carneiro, Paulo Irajara Borba
Cascaval, Dan
Da Rocha, Adriana Olmos 23
Das Neves, Paulo Cesar Pereira
De Souza, Elizabeth Fátima
Dumitrascu, Adina
Esteve-Juan, E
Gavriliu, D
Ionescu, Lavinel G 1,63
Kist, Lourdes T 55
Maior, O
Maquieira, A
Máñez, Maria A 55
Oniscu, Corneliu 37
Perazzolo, Clóvis Antônio 1
Puchades, R
Rittner, Roberto 89
Stoia, S
Szpoganicz, Bruno 55
Trujillo, Maria J. F 55

82

ISSN 0104-5431



VIEWS OF SANTA FE, CAPITAL OF NEW MEXICO FOUNDED BY THE SPANISH IN 1610.

VISTAS DE SANTA FÉ, CAPITAL DO NOVO MÉXICO FUNDADA PELOS ESPANHÓIS EM 1610.

ISSN 0104-5431

VOLUME FOUR, NUMBER FOUR DECEMBER 1996

CONTENTS / CONTEÚDO

ERNESTO GIESBRECHT, GREAT CHEMICAL EDUCATOR AND FATHER OF BRAZILIAN INORGANIC CHEMISTRY
Lavinel G. Ionescu 1
GLUCOSE AND LACTOSE BIOSENSORS COUPLED WITH MICRO- DIALYSIS PROBE FOR CONTINUOUS MONITORING
Mihaela Cheregi, Cristina Matachescu, Danila Moscone and Anton Ciucu
MODELS FOR THE ACTIVE SITE STRUCTURE OF PURPLE ACID
PHOSPHATASES Marcos Aires De Brito 19
HIGH SERUM LIPID PEROXIDES AND THEIR SIGNIFICANCE IN
PATIENTS WITH LIVER DEFICIENCY Maria Greabu and R. Olinescu
USE OF MONTMORILLONITE (SMECTITE) AS CATALYST FOR
OLEFIN POLYMERIZATION AND TRANSFORMATION OF SULFUR COMPOUNDS
Rogério Gomes Rodrigues, Graziela Finger and Paulo
César Pereira Das Neves
THE ELECTRICAL BEHAVIOUR OF THE M _x HgI4 INORGANIC COMBI-
NATION AND SOME STRUCTURAL ALTERATIONS VERSUS THE
PRESSURE
Tudor Rosu, Lidia Paruta and Anca Emandi 45
MICELLAR CATALYZED HYDROLYSIS OF LITHIUM p-NITRO-
PHENYL ETHYL PHOSPHATE (LIPNEF) AND THE PSEUDO PHASE
ION EXCHANGE MODEL Lavinel G. Ionescu, D. A. R. Rubio and Elizabeth
Fatima De Souza
SYNTHESIS OF SOME THEOPHYLLINE DERIVATIVES
Corneliu Oniscu, Adina Dumitrascu, Eugen Horoba and Dan Cascaval
CARBON-13 NMR OF ALIPHATIC TERTIARY AMIDES
Paulo Irajara Borba Carneiro and Roberto Rittner 93
DUNCAN ARTHUR MACINNES, FOREMOST AMERICAN ELECTRO-
CHEMIST
Joseph A. Schufle 97
SYNTHESIS OF NEW BENZO(E)DIBENZOFURO(2,3-b)-OXEPIN-
5(14H)-ONES
Stelian Florea, Anca Nicolae and Ovidiu Maior 101
Author Index 109

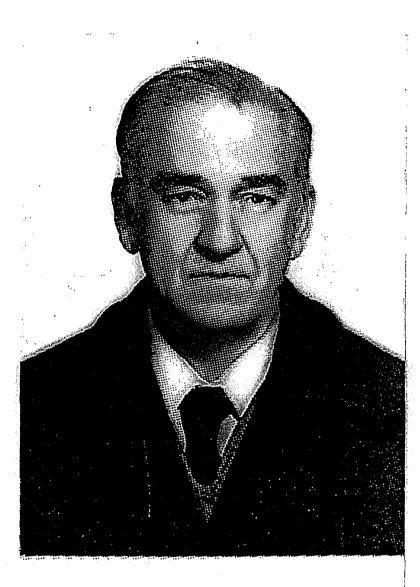
83

.

ISSN 0104-5431

.

84



ERNESTO GIESBRECHT (1921-1996)

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ISSN 0104-5431

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85

VOLUME FOUR, NUMBER FOUR DECEMBER 1996

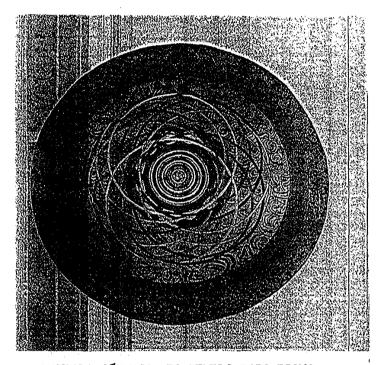
AUTHOR INDEX / ÍNDICE DE AUTORES

Carneiro, Paulo Irajara Boba	93
Cascaval, Dan	83
Cheregi, Mihaela	9
Ciucu, Anton	9
Das Neves, Paulo César Pereira	35
De Brito, Marcos Aires	19
De Souza, Elizabeth Fátima	59
Dumitrascu, Adina	83
Emandi, Anca	45
Finger, Graziela	35
Florea, Stelian	101
Greabu, Maria	27
Horoba, Eugen	83
Ionescu, Lavinel G	1,59
Maior, Ovidiu	101
Matachescu, Cristina	9
Moscone, Danila	9
Nicolae, Anca	101
Oniscu, Corneliu	83
Olinescu, R	29
Paruta, Lidia ,	45
Rodrigues, Rogério Gomes	35
Rosu, Tudor	45
Rittner, Roberto	93
Rubio, Danil A. R	59
Schufle, Joseph A	97

the second second

86

e



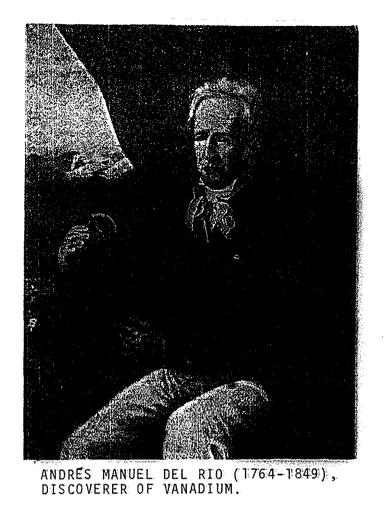
MANDALA COSMICA DO TEMPLO PARO DZONG, BUTÃO OCCIDENTAL COSMIC MANDALA OF PARO DZONG TEMPLE, WESTERN BHUTAN

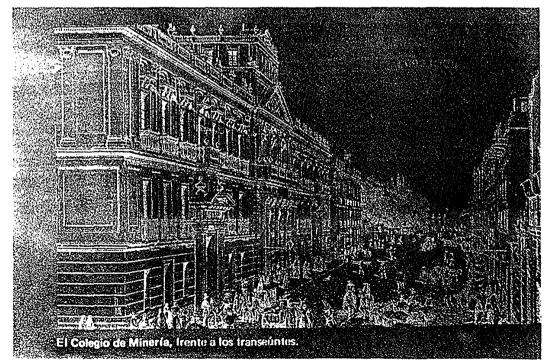
ISSN 0104-5431

VOLUME FIVE, NUMBER FIVE DECEMBER 1997

CONTENTS / CONTEÚDO

ANDRÉS MANUEL DEL RIO, DISCOVERER OF VANADIUM Lavinel G. Ionescu 1
STUDY OF SOME ENVIRONMENTAL IMPLICATIONS DUE TO THE DISPOSAL AF ASHES FROM THE SÃO JERONIMO POWER STATION-RS Haídi D. Fiedler, Manuel Carneiro and Elba C. Teixiera 7
X-RAY STUDIES ON TI, HgI, PbHgI, CdHgI, AND Au2HgI INORGANIC COMBINATIONS Tudor Rosu, Lidia Paruta, Mirela Calinescu and Anca Emandi 21
SOLID SUBSTRATE FERMENTATION OF CACTUS PULP BY ASPERGILLUS NIGER Arnaldo D.S. Júnior, Rosangela B. García, Dina G. Rodrigues
and Jorge Nozaki
Tudor Rosu, Viorel Cârcu, Maria Negoiu, Ovidiu Maior and Niculina Badicu
THE PÉRCIO DE MORAES BRANCO COLLECTION OF RARE MINERALS OF THE UNIVERSIDADE LUTERANA DO BRASIL (ULBRA) Paulo César Pereira das Neves, Pércio de Moraes Branco and Paulo Anselmo Matioli
TRANSITION METAL COMPLEXES OF THE FORMYL VANILLINE DERIVATIVES LIGAND FAMILY Tudor Rosu, Angela Kriza, Viorel Cârcu and Anca Nicolae 67
SORPTION AND SEPARATION OF Cu(II), Co(II) AND Ni(II) ON 1(4'-AZOBENZYLCELLULOSE)-2-NAPHTHOL Tinca Onofrei, Cecilia Arsene and Carmen Mita
COORDINATION COMPOUNDS OF Cu(II) AND Ni(II) WITH SCHIFF BASES DERIVED FROM FORMYLCARVONE AND o,p-AMINOBENZOIC ACID Adalgiza Ciobanu, Florica Zalaru, D. Albinescu and
Christina Zalaru
THE PHOTODEGRADATION REACTION OF SOME PORPHYRINS Rodica Mariana Ion and Cristina Mandravel
CHARACTERIZATION OF SOME NODULAR CAST IRONS BY THERMAL ANALYSIS Dumitru Fatu and María Muscalu
AUTHOR INDEX 143





THE SCHOOL OF MINES OF MEXICO IN AN ENGRAVING OF THE TIME.

ISSN 0104-5431

VOLUME FIVE, NUMBER FIVE

..

DECEMBER 1997

AUTHOR INDEX / ÍNDICE DE AUTORES

	Albinescu, D	87
	Arsene, Cecilia	79
	Badicu, Niculina	43
	Branco, Pércio de Moraes	51
	Calinescu, Mirela	21
	Cârcu, Viorel	43,67
	Carneiro, Manuel	7
	Cascaval, Dan	97
	Ciobanu, Adalgiza	87
	Emandi, Anca	21
	Fatu, Dumitru	131
	Fiedler, Haidi D	7
	Garcia, Rosangela G	35
	Ionescu, Lavinel G	1
	Ion, Rodica Mariana	111
	Júnior, Arnaldo D.S	35
	Kriza, Angela	67
	Maior, Ovidiu	43
	Mandravel, Cristina	111
	Matioli, Anselmo	51
	Mita, Carmen	79
:	Muscalu, Maria	131
	Negoiu, Maria	43
	Neves, Paulo César Pereira das	51
	Nicolae, Anca	67
	Nozaki, Jorge	35
	Oniscu, Corneliu	97
	Onofrei, Tinca	79
	Paruta, Lidia	21
	Rodrigues, Dina G	35
	Rosu, Tudor 21	,43,67
	Teixeira, Elba C	7
	Tudose, Radu	97
	Zalaru, Florica	87
	Zalaru, Christina	87



MEXICO CITY. CRISTOPHER COLUMBUS SQUARE AND LA REFORMA BOULEVARD. CIDADE DO MÉXICO. PRAÇA CRISTOBAL COLON E PASEO DE LA REFORMA.



THE AMAZING EQUINOX NATURAL SPECTACLE: THE SERPENT COMING DOWN THE PYRAMID. CHICHEN-ITZÁ, YUCATÁN, MEXICO.

O ASSOMBROSO ESPETÁCULO NATURAL DO EQUINÓCIO: A SERPENTE DESCENDO A PIRAMIDE. CHICHEN-ITZÁ, YUCATÁN, MÉXICO.

ISSN 0104-5431

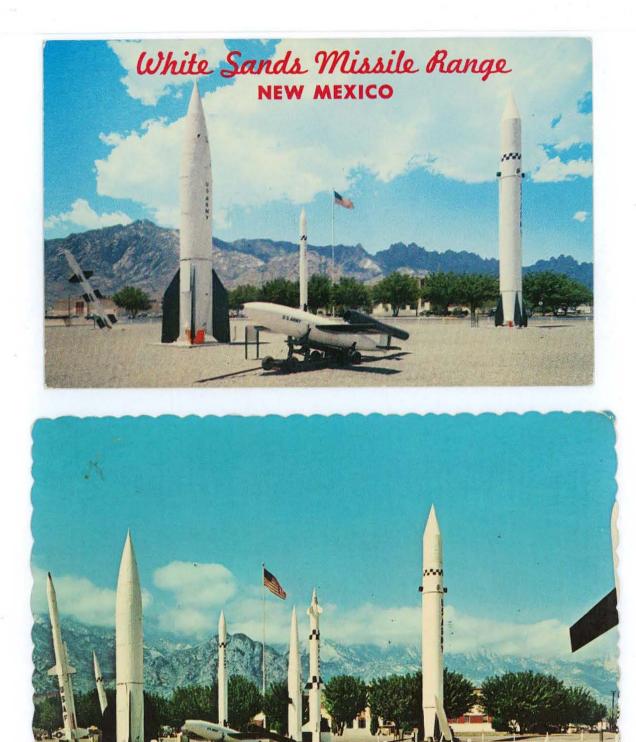
VOLUME SIX, NUMBER SIX JULY 1998

91

CONTENTS / CONTEÚDO

A TRIBUTE TO PROFESSOR LAVINEL G. IONESCU ON HIS 55th BIRTHDAY	
UMA HOMENAGEM AO PROF. DR. LAVINEL G. IONESCU NO SEU 55º ANIVERSÁRIO	
A.D. Martinez and B. J. Kid	1
EVALUATION OF AIR QUALITY IN A REGION OF COAL PROCESSING AND SIDERURGIC ACTIVITIES IN THE STATE OF RIO GRANDE DO SUL, BRAZIL	
Elba Calesso Teixeira, Josete Dani Sanchez and Daniela Montanari Migliavacca	11
COMPARATIVE STUDY OF THE CHEMILUMINESCENCE PRODUCED BY THE ACTIVATED POLYMORPHONUCLEAR LEUKOCYTES IN PHYSIO- LOGICAL AND VARIOUS PATHOLOGICAL CONDITIONS	
R. M. Olinescu, Maria Greabu, D. Crocnan, E.A. Kummerow, Valy Constantinescu and Fraga Paveliu	25
COMPARATIVE STUDY OF BIOSORPTION OF METALLIC CATIONS BY DIFFERENT BACTERIA T. Gavriloaiei, Raluca Mocanu, Maria Calistru and	
R. Olariu	33
EXTRACTION OF COLORED SUBSTANCES FROM MATE (ILEX PARAGUARIENSIS) Vania Regina Gabbi Polli, Alnei Ramos Prochnow and	
Juliane Zimmerman Tamaninini	45
NEW COMPLEXES OF Pr(III), Sm(III), Gd(III), HO(III), La(III) 1-(2'-BENZTHYAZOLYL)-3-METHYL-4-AZO-(4"-NITRO- PHENYL)-PYRAZOLYN-5-ONE	~ _
Anca Emandi, Mariana Balasoiu and Tudor Rosu	53
SnO ₂ - BASED INERT ANODES FOR ALUMINIUM ELECTROLYSIS. THE INFLUENCE OF CeO ₂ ADDITION ON THE ELECTRICAL RESISTIVITY	
Rodica Galasiu, Ioan Galasiu, Niculae Popa and Vasilica Chivu	63
EFFECTIVENESS OF CERTAIN STABILIZERS ON THE AGEING OF POLYETYLENE FILMS	
S. Jipa, R. Setnescu, T. Setnescu, C. Podina and I. Mihalcea	71
IMMOBILIZATION OF ALCOHOL OXIDASE IN SiO ₂ MATRIX PREPARED BY SOL-GEL METHOD	
Lia Stanciu, Melania-Liliana Arsene and Constanta Parlog	77
AUTHOR INDEX	87

ISSN 0104-5431



Missile Display at White Sands

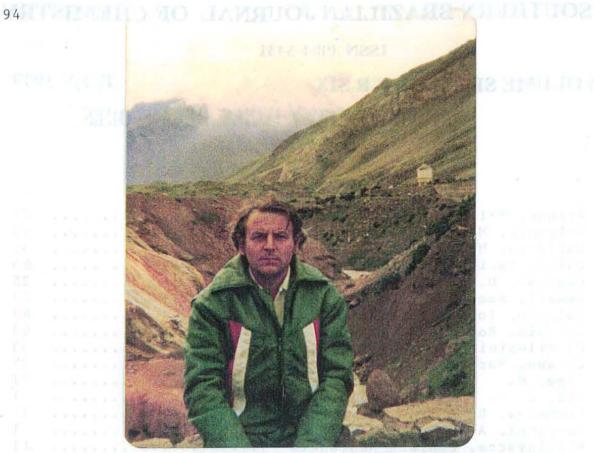
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ISSN 0104-5431

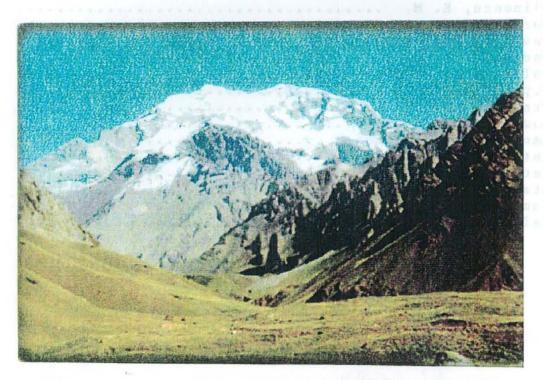
JULY 1998

VOLUME SIX, NUMBER SIX JUL AUTHOR INDEX / ÍNDICE DE AUTORES

Arsene, Melania Liliana	77
	53
Calistru, Maria	33
Chivu, Vasilica	63
Crocnan, D	25
	53
Galasiu, Ion	63
	63
Gavriloaiei, T	33
Greabu, Maria	25
Jipa, S	71
Kid, B. J	1
Kummerow, E. A	25
Martinez, A. D	1
Migliavacca, Daniela Montanari	11
Mihalcea, I	71
Mocanu, Raluca	33
Olariu, R	33
Olinescu, R. M	25
Parlog, Constanta	77
Paveliu, Fraga	25
Podina, C	71
Polli, Vania Regina Gabbi	45
	63
	45
Rosu, Tudor	53
Sanchez, Josete Dani	11
Setnescu, R	71
Setnescu, T	71
Stanciu, Lia	77
	45
Teixeira, Elba Calesso	11



AT THE FEET OF ACONCAGUA, PUENTE DEL INCA, PROVINICIA DE MENDOZA, REPUBLICA ARGENTINA.



ACONCAGUA, SOUTH AMERICA'S HIGHEST PEAK IN THE CORDILLERA OF THE ANDES (6958 or 7035m).

ISSN 0104-5431

95

VOLUME SIX, NUMBER SEVEN DECEMBER 1998

contents / conteúdo

ANTONIO DE ULLOA, DISCOYERER OF PLATINUM	
Lavinel G. Ionescu	ŗ
ADSORPTION OF GASEOUS SUBSTANCES ON CHEMICAL AND ELECTROLYTIC MANGANESE DIOXIDE	
Jorge Nozaki, Edîvaldo Egea Garcia and Jojî Suguita	7
SOME COMPLEXES OF COPPER(II) WITH N,N'-DISUBSTITUTED DITHIOOXAMIDES DERIVED FROM α -AMINOACIDS AND α -AMINOACID	
ESTERS Maria Negoiu, Tudor Rosu, Liliana Stoicescu, Viorel Cârcu	
and Mihai Contineanu	17
DIFFERENTIAL PULSE POLAROGRAPHIC DETERMINATION OF ARSENIC IN BITUMINOUS COAL	
Eurica M. Nogami, Gracinda M. Dálmeida and Jorge Nozaki	27
PHENOXATHIIN CHEMISTRY. SYNTHESIS BASED ON 2-ω-BROMO- ACETYLPHENOXATHIIN	
Anca Nicolae, Daniela Gavriliu, Ovidiu Maior and	
Constantin Draghici	33
PHENOXATHIIN CHEMISTRY. NEW CARBONYL COMPOUNDS AND DERIVATIVES	
Anca Nicolae, Daniela Gavriliu and Ovidiu Maior	47
THE PREPARATION AND SOME REACTIONS OF 2,2-DIPHENYL- 1-(3,6-DINITRO-4-COUMARINYL)HYDRAZYL FREE RADICAL	
Petre Ionita, Marcela Rovinaru and Ovidiu Maior	59
FORMATION OF MICELLES OF CETYLTRIMETHYLAMMONIUM BROMIDE IN WATER-GLYCEROL SOLUTIONS	
Lavinel G. Ionescu, Sonia M. Hickel Probst and	
Elizabeth Fátima de Souza	67
STUDY OF RENAL SORBITOLDEHYDROGENASE IN EXPERIMENTAL DIABETIC NEPHROPATHY	
Catalina Pisoschi, Yirgil Darie and Mihai Serban	77
SYNTHESIS OF NEW 2-SUBSTITUTED IMIDAZOLINES WITH POTENTIAL HYPOTENSIVE ACTIVITY	
Adina Dumitrascu. Mircea Constantinescu, Corneliu Oniscu	•
and Dan Cascaval	83
SYNTHESIS AND CHARACTERIZATION OF NEW OXOVANADIUM(IV) COMPOUNDS WITH PYRAZOL-5-ONE AZO DERIVATIVES	
Anca Emandî	91
THE REACTION BETWEEN 2,2-DIPHENYL-1-PICRYLHYDRAZYL FREE STABLE RADICAL AND N-BROMOSUCCINIMIDE	
Petre Ionita 1	101
AUTHOR INDEX	

ISSN 0104-5431

96

"En el Partido del Chocó, habiendo muchas minas de Lavadero, como las que se acaban de explicar, se encuentran también algunas, en donde por estar disfrazado, y envuelto el Oro, con otros cuerpos metálicos, Jugos y Piedras, necesita para su beneficio el auxilio del Azogue; y tal vez se hallan minerales, donde la Platina (Piedra de tanta resistencia, que no es fácil romperla, ni desmenuzarla con la fuerza del golpe sobre Yunque de Acero), es causa de que se abandonen; porque ni la calcinación la vence, ni hay arbitrio para extraer el Metal que encierra, sino a expensas de mucho trabajo y costo" **.

** Relación Histórica del Viale a la América Meridional hecho de orden de S. Mag. para medir algunos grados del meridiano terrestre y venir por ellos en conocimiento de la verdadera figura y magnitud de la Tierra, con otras observaciones astronómicas y físicas: Por Don Jorge Juan, Comendador de Aliaga en el Orden de San Juan, socio correspondiente de la Real Academia de Ciencias de París y Don Juan Antonio de Ulioa, de la Real Sociedad de Londres: Ambos capitanes de Fragata de la Armada. Impresa de orden del Rey Nuestro Señor en Madrid por Antonio Marín. Año de MDCCXLVIII -Primera Parte Tomo IL p. 606.



ANTONIO DE ULLOA(1716-1796)

SPANISH PHYSICIST, MATHEMATICIAN, NAVAL COMMANDER, DISCOVERER OF PLATINUM, GOVERNOR OF LOUISIANA AND FLORIDA, EXPLORER OF THE AMERICAS.

ISSN 0104-5431

97

VOLUME SIX, NUMBER SEVEN

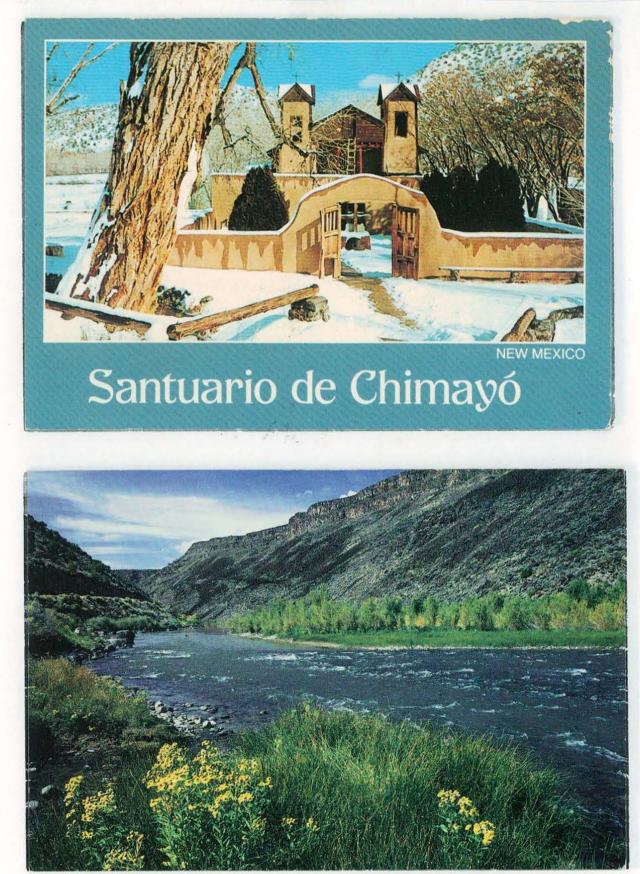
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DECEMBER 1998

AUTHOR INDEX / ÍNDICE DE AUTORES

Cârcu, Viorel	17
Cascaval, Dan	83
Constantinescu, Mircea	83
Dālmeida, Gracinda M	27
Darie, Virgil	77
De Souza, Elizabeth Fátima	67
Draghici, Constantin	33
Dumitrascu, Adina	83
Emandi, Anca	91
Garcia, Edivaldo Egea	7
Gavriliu, Daniela	33
Ionescu, Lavinel G 1,	,67
Ionita, Petre 59,1	01
Maior, Ovidiu 33,47	,59
Negoiu, Maria	17
Nicolae, Anca	,47
Nogami, Eurica M	27
Nozaki, Jorge 7.	,27
Oniscu, Corneliu	83
Pisoschi, Catalina	77
Probst, Sonia M. Hickel	67
Rosu, Tudor	17
Rovinaru, Marcela	59
Serban, Mihai	77
Stoicescu, Liliana	17
Suguita, Joji	7

ISSN 0104-5431



RIO GRANDE RIVER NEAR ESPAÑOLA, NEW MEXICO, USA. RIO GRANDE DEL NORTE (RIO BRAVO) PERTO DE ESPAÑOLA, NOVO MÉXICO, ESTADOS UNIDOS.

ISSN 0104-5431

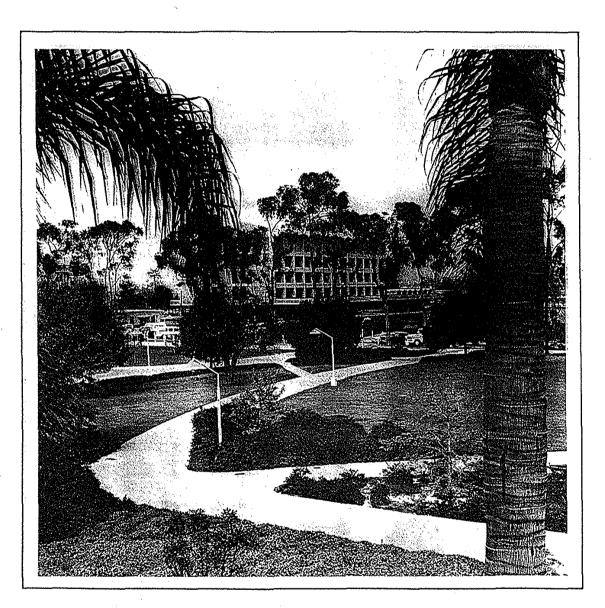
VOLUME SEVEN, NUMBER EIGHT DECEMBER 1999

CONTENTS / CONTEUDO

A TRIBUTE TO PROFESSOR CLIFFORD A. BUNTON ON HIS 80th BIRTHDAY Lavinel G. Ionescu 1
EQUILIBRIUM AND HYDROLYSIS STUDIES OF PHOSPHATE ESTERS MODEL MOLECULES AND DNA CATALYZED BY OBISDIEN-Zn(II) COMPLEXES
Marcia M. Meier, Patricia Karloh, Hernán Terenzi and Bruno Szpoganicz 11
BIOLOGICAL ACTIVE ACYLHYDRAZIDE I. THE O-ACYL-DERIVATIVE NATURE OF MONOACYLATION PRODUCTS OF CYCLIC MALEIC AND PHTHALIC HYDRAZIDE
I. Panea, Lucia Bodochi, Teodora Panea, Daniela Zinveliu and Violeta Pascalau 25
BORON EXTRACTORS EVALUATION Luzia Otilia Bortotti Favero, Ervim Lenzi, Eduardo Bernardi Lucheses and Luciano Márcio de Moraes
QUANTITATIVE DETERMINATION OF FURANOCOUMARINS AND IDENTI- FICATION OF OTHER CHEMICAL CONSTITUTENTS OF RHIZOMES AND LEAVES FROM DORSTENIA TUBICINA AND COMMERCIAL SAMPLES
Claudia A. L. Cardoso, Wagner Vilegas and Neli K. Honda 51 FUNGITOXIC ACTIVITY OF COMPOUNDS ISOLATED FROM LICHENS
Neli K. Honda, Rosenei L. Brum and Maria Rita Marques 61
LIQUID MEMBRANE ION-SELECTIVE ELECTRODES FOR POTENTIO- METRIC DOSAGE OF SOME METAL IONS Maria Pleniceanu, Luninita Simoiu, Marian Isvoranu and
Mihaela Baniceru 67 RECOVERY OF MERCURY FROM DENTAL AMALGAMS COLLECTED IN
THE NORTHWEST REGION OF PARANÁ STATE, BRAZIL Rogerio B. Brasil, Claudenice Rodrigues and Jorge Nozaki 79
HEIGHT MEASUREMENTS OF THE SPECTRUM AS AN ALTERNATIVE TO CONVENTIONAL SPECTROPHOTOMETRIC ANALYSIS OF A KMnO ₄ - K ₂ Cr ₂ O ₇ MIXTURE
Cármén'D. Cardoso, Martha R. Adaime and Nádia S. Viaro 87
COORDINATION COMPOUNDS OF $Cu(II)$ AND $Ni(II)$ WITH SCHIFF BASES DERIVED FROM FORMYLMENTHONE AND $o-,m-,$ p-TOLUIDINE
Adalgiza Ciobanu, Florica Zalaru, D. Albinescu and Christina Zalaru
PHYSICAL CHEMICAL STUDIES OF THE AGGREGATION AND CATALYTIC PROPERTIES OF THE SURFACTANT'CETYLDIMETHYLETHYLAMMONIUM BROMIDE (CDEAB)
Lavinel G. Ionescu, Silvia Dani and Elizabeth Fátima de Souza

100

ISSN 0104-5431



CHEMISTRY BUILDING, UNIVERSITY OF CALIFORNIA, SANTA BARBARA, USA.

ISSN 0104-5431

101

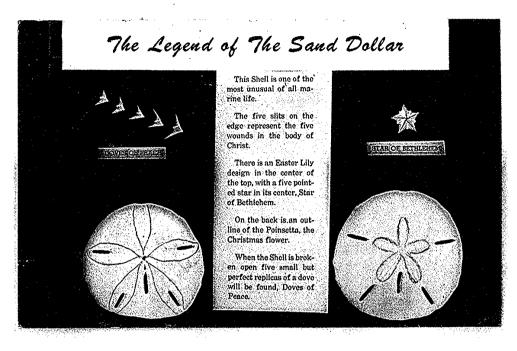
VOLUME SEVEN, NUMBER EIGHT DECEMBER 1999

AUTHOR INDEX / ÍNDICE DE AUTORES

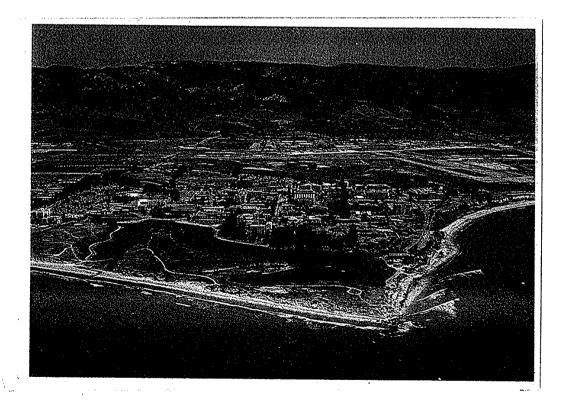
Adaime, Martha	87
Albinescu, D	95
Baniceru, Mihaela	
Bodochi, Lucia	25
Brasil, Rogério B,.,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,	
Brum, Rosenei L.	61
Cardoso, Carmen D	
Cardoso, Claudia A.	51
Ciobanu, Adalgiza	
Dani, Silvia	105
Favero, Luzia Otília Bortotti	
Honda, Neli K.	
Ionescu, Lavinel G.	1 105
Isvoranu, Marian	
Karloh, Patricia	
Lenzi, Ervim	
Luchese, Eduardo Bernardi	
Marques, Maria Rita	
Meier, Marcia M.	
Moraes, Luciano Marcio de	
Nozaki, Jorge	
Panea, I	
Panea, Teodora	
Pascalau, Violeta	
Pleniceanu, Maria	
Rodrigues, Claudenice	
Simoiu, Luminita	
Souza, Elizabeth Fátima de	
Szpoganicz, Bruno	
Terenzi, Hernán	
Viaro, Nádia S	
Vilegas, Wagner	
Zalaru, Christina	
Zalaru, Florica	
Zinveliu, Daniela	25

102

ISSN 0104-5431



A LENDA DA BOLACHA DE AREIA



UNIVERSITY OF CALIFORNIA, SANTA BARBARA, USA.

ISSN 0104-5431

103

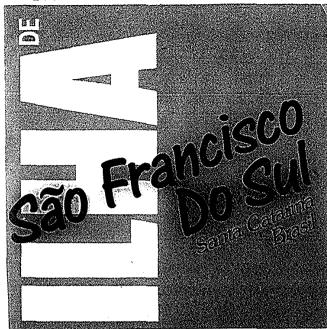
VOLUME EIGHT, NUMBER NINE DECEMBER 2000

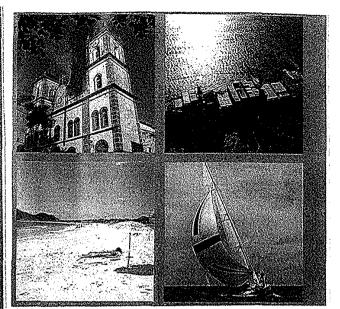
CONTENTS / CONTEÚDO

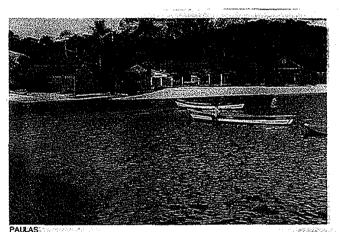
ADSORPTION OF ETHYL ACETATE FROM ALIPHATIC ALCOHOLS ON	
ACTIVATED CHARCOAL	-
S.Göktürk, M. Mahramanlioglu and M. Tunçay	1
SYNTHESIS OF S-OXIDES AND S,S-DIOXIDES OF SOME 4-NITRO-	
AND 4-AMINO-3-HYDROXY-10-PHENOTHIAZINES AND 3H-PHENO-	
THIAZIN-3-ONES	
Radu Gropeanu, Ioan Panea and Teodora Panea	13
OPTIMIZATION OF ETHYLENE POLYMERIZATION CONDITIONS WITH	
METALLOCENE CATALYST USING EXPERIMENTAL DESIGN	
METHODOLOGY	
Luciano Endres and Carlos R. Wolf	25
THE ROLE OF FIBRINOGEN IN CORONARY HEART DISEASE AND ITS	
POSSIBLE DEPENDENCE ON ACTIVATED POLYMORPHONUCLEAR	
LEUKOCYTES -	
R. Olinescu, D.O. Crocnan and Maria Greabu	37
SPECTROPHOTOMETRIC STUDY OF THE BINARY SYSTEM Ru(III)-	
SOLOCHRON VIOLET RS AND THE DETERMINATION OF Ru(III)	
Maria Pleniceanu, Mihaela Mureseanu, Ion Ganescu and	
	45
Olimpia Rusu	15
CARBON-13 NMR OF ALIPHATIC KETONES	
Paulo Irajara Borba Carneiro and Roberto Rittner	53
SYNTHESIS AND STRUCTURAL CHARACTERIZATION OF N-(2'-	
HYDROXY-1'-NAPHTHALEN METHIN)-2-AMINOANILINE COMPLEXES	
Dumitru Negoiu, Mirela Calinescu, Ana Emandi and	
Tudor Rosu	57
XUAUT 1020	• •
MAGNETIC AND SPECTRAL STUDIES ON CHROMIUM (III), NICKEL	
(II) AND COPPER (II) COMPLEXES OF 4-HYDROXY-5-METHOXY	
ISOPHTHALDEHYDE BIS DIMETHYLHYDRAZONE	
Mirela Calinescu, Ana Emandi, Anca Nicolae and	
Lidia Paruta	71
PHYSICAL CHEMICAL STUDIES OF THE AGGREGATION AND	
CATALYTIC PROPERTIES OF THE SURFACTANT METHYLDODECYL-	
BENZYLTRIMETHYLAMMONIUM CHLORIDE (MBDTAC1)	
Lavinel G. Ionescu, Silvia Dani and	
Blizabeth Fátima de Souza	85
CHEMILUMINESCENCE, AN OUTSTANDING PHYSICOCHEMICAL	
METHOD	97
Maria Greabu, D.O. Crocnan and R. Olinescu	31
PRE-CONCENTRATION OF Cd, Cu, Ni, Pb AND Zn FROM FUEL	
ETHANOL AND NATURAL WATER SAMPLES BY SORPTION ON p-AMINO-	
BENZOIC MODIFIED CELLULOSE AND SUBSEQUENT FLAME AAS	
DETERMINATION	
Pedro de Magalhães Padilha, Ariovaldo de Oliveira Flor	
rentino, Fabrício Vieira de Moraes, Fábio Arlindo Silva,	
Cilene C.F. Padilha and Julio C. Rocha	113
AUTHOR INDEX	125

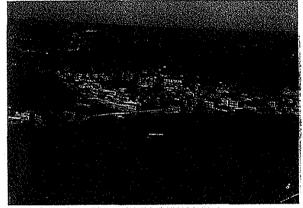
104.

SOUTHERN BRAZILIAN JOURNAL OF CHEMISTRY











VISTA AÉREA CENTRO



PREFEITURA MUNICIPAL SÃO FRANCISCO DO SUL

15 de Abril de 1504

CENTRO

SÃO FRANCISCO DO SUL, SANTA CATARINA, BRAZIL'S THIRD OLDEST CITY. (FOUNDED APRIL 15, 1504) SÃO FRANCISCO DO SUL, SANTA CATARINA, A TERCEIRA CIDADE MAIS ANTIGA DO BRASIL. (FUNDADA EM 15 DE ABRIL DE 1504)

SOUTHERN BRAZILIAN JOURNAL OF CHEMISTRY ISSN 0104-5431 **DECEMBER 2000 VOLUME EIGHT, NUMBER NINE**

AUTHOR INDEX / ÍNDICE DE AUTORES

125

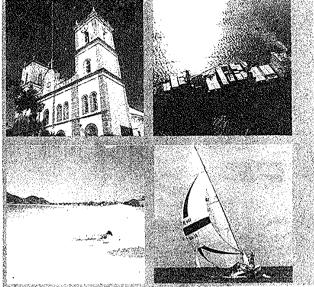
15

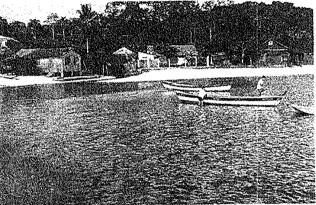
Calinescu, Mirela 57,71
Carneiro, Paulo Irajara Borba
Crocnan, D. O
Dani, Silvia 85
Emandi, Ana 57,71
Endres, Luciano
Florentino, Ariovaldo de Oliveira
Ganescu, Ion
Göktürk, S 1
Gropeanu, Radu 13
Greabu, Maria 37,97
Ionescu, Lavinel G 85
Mahramanlioglu, M 1
Moraes. Fabrício Vieira de
Mureseanu, Mihaela 45
Negoiu, Dumitru
Nicolae, Anca
Olinescu, R
Padilha, Cilene C. F
Padilha, Pedro de Magalhães 113
$Panea, Ioan \dots 13$
Panea, Teodora
Paruta, Lidia \dots 71
Pleniceanu, Maria
Rittner, Roberto
Rocha, Julio C
$\begin{array}{cccc} \text{Rocha}, & \text{Julio} & \text{C}, & \text{II}, \\ \text{Rosu}, & \text{Tudor} & \text{III}, \\ \text{Solution} & \text{Solution} & \text{Solution} \\ \end{array}$
Rusu, Olimpia
Souza, Elizabeth Fátima de 85
Tunçay, M
Wolf, Carlos R

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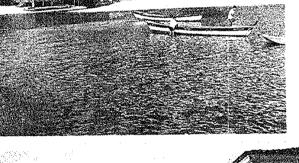
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