

**Advances in Palladium-Catalyzed Allylation, Propargylation, and 1,3-Dienylation of
Acetonitrile Pronucleophiles**

By

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Submitted to the graduate degree program in Chemistry and the Graduate Faculty of the
University of Kansas in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of
Philosophy

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**Advances in Palladium-Catalyzed Allylation, Propargylation, and 1,3-Dienylation of
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Date Approved: July 28th, 2016

Abstract

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Presented herein is the development and application of palladium-catalyzed methods for allylation, propargylation and 1,3-dienylation of acetonitrile pronucleophiles. The developed methods focus on optimizing both atom- and step-economy during product formation thus resulting in a minimal production of waste. Further, ligand-controlled regiodivergent strategies are also presented which provide efficient access to various functionalities through a change in reaction mechanism controlled by the denticity of the coordinating ligand.

In regards to the developed methods for the propargylation and 1,3-dienylation of acetonitrile pronucleophiles, the presented work provides access to these functionalities using propargylic electrophiles that were rarely observed using previously known methods. In chapter 1, a brief review of commonly employed propargylation methods is presented which often occur under harsh reaction conditions or result in a large amount of byproduct formation. Further, few exceedingly difficult palladium-catalyzed propargylation strategies are also reported that overcome the large bias for the allenyl isomer or products arising from dinucleophilic addition.

Alternatively, in chapter 2, we present our ligand-controlled regiodivergent strategy for the propargylation and 1,3-dienylation of acetonitrile pronucleophiles. Specifically, we report the first palladium-catalyzed coupling of a butadiene synthon to generate 1,3-dienylated products. Further, each method provides significant advantages over commonly employed strategies to access such functionalities such as optimizing step-economy and avoiding the necessity for prefunctionalized starting materials.

In chapter 3 of this dissertation, we present our ongoing efforts to expand the substrate scope of the developed regiodivergent method to nitriles possessing a $pK_a > 17$. To achieve this goal, decarboxylative cross-coupling is employed to access the reactive intermediate *in situ* via irreversible decarboxylation thus generating CO_2 as the only byproduct. Once again, selective propargylation or 1,3-dienylation is ligand-controlled and can occur through changing the ligand from monodentate to bidentate, respectively.

Lastly, in chapter 4 we present a method for the *in situ* activation of allylic alcohols using CO_2 for the allylation of nitroalkanes, nitriles, and aldehydes. The developed method provides several advantages over commonly employed allylation strategies: (a) avoids the pre-activation of allylic electrophiles for successful cross-coupling, (b) avoids the use of additives for allylic alcohol activation, and (c) generates base *in situ* for pronucleophile activation thus providing an atom-economic alternative for allylic cross-coupling.

*Dedicated to my parents, Saverio and Diane Locascio,
for their unconditional love and support.*

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Abbreviations

AcOH	Acetic acid
AgBF ₄	Silver tetrafluoroborate
AgSbF ₆	Silver hexafluoroantimonate(V)
[(allyl)PdCl] ₂	Allylpalladium(II) chloride dimer
aq.	Aqueous
AuCl(PPh ₃)	Chloro(triphenylphosphine)gold(I)
Azocane	Heptamethylene imine
BuLi	Butyl lithium
Bu ₂ NH	Dibutylamine
B(O- <i>i</i> Pr) ₃	Triisopropyl borate
CDI	1,1'-Carbonyldiimidazole
CH ₂ Cl ₂	Dichloromethane
CH ₃ NO ₂	Nitromethane
Cs ₂ CO ₃	Cesium carbonate
CsF	Cesium fluoride
CO ₂	Carbon dioxide
Co ₂ (CO) ₆	Dicobalt hexacarbonyl
Cp	Cyclopentadienyl
CpRuCl(cod)	Chloro(pentamethylcyclopentadienyl)(cyclooctadiene) ruthenium(II)
Cp ₂ TiCl	Titanocene dichloride

CrCl ₂	Chromium(II) chloride
CuI	Copper(I) iodide
Cu(OTf) ₂	Copper(II) Triflate
CyJohnPhos	(2-Biphenyl)dicyclohexylphosphine
DBPC	2,6-Di- <i>tert</i> -butyl-4-methylphenol
DCE	Dichloroethane
DMEDA	<i>N,N'</i> -Dimethylethylenediamine
DMF	Dimethylformamide
DMSO	Dimethyl sulfoxide
Dppb	1,4-Bis(diphenylphosphino)butane
Dppe	1,2-Bis(diphenylphosphino)ethane
Dppf	1,1'-Ferrocenediyl-bis(diphenylphosphine)
Dppm	Bis(diphenylphosphino)methane
Dppp	1,3-Bis(diphenylphosphino)propane
Et ₃ B	Triethylborane
EtOAc	Ethyl acetate
EtOH	Ethanol
GC/MS	Gas chromatography mass spectroscopy
HBr	Hydrogen bromide
H ₂ O	Water
I ₂	Iodine
InBr ₃	Indium(III) bromide

$i\text{Pr}_2\text{NEt}$	<i>N,N</i> -Diisopropylethylamine
$i\text{Pr}_2\text{NH}$	Diisopropylamine
JohnPhos	(2-Biphenyl)di- <i>tert</i> -butylphosphine
K_2CO_3	Potassium carbonate
K_2HPO_4	Dibasic potassium phosphate
KIE	Kinetic isotope effect
KOH	Potassium hydroxide
K_3PO_4	Potassium phosphate tribasic
L	Ligand
LIC-KOR	Schlösser's base
$\text{LiO-}t\text{Bu}$	Lithium <i>tert</i> -butoxide
MeCN	Acetonitrile
MeOH	Methanol
MeONa	Sodium methoxide
MePhos	2-Dicyclohexylphosphino-2'-methylbiphenyl
Mesitol	2,4,6-Trimethylphenol
Mg	Magnesium
MgSO_4	Magnesium sulfate
Mn	Manganese
N_2	Nitrogen
Na	Sodium
NaH	Sodium hydride

NaHCO ₃	Sodium bicarbonate
Na ₂ SO ₄	Sodium sulfate
Na ₂ S ₂ O ₃	Sodium thiosulfate
NaO ₂ CCF ₂ Br	Sodium bromo(difluoro)acetate
NH ₄ BF ₄	Ammonium tetrafluoroborate
NHC	<i>N</i> -Heterocyclic carbene
NH ₄ PF ₆	Ammonium hexafluorophosphate
Ni(dppp)Cl ₂	[1,3-Bis(diphenylphosphino)propane]dichloronickel(II)
NMP	<i>N</i> -methyl-2-pyrrolidone
NMR	Nuclear magnetic resonance
Nu	Nucleophile
[O]	Oxidant
PCy ₃	Tricyclohexylphosphine
Pd(acac) ₂	Palladium(II) 2,4-pentanedionate
PdCl ₂	Palladium(II) chloride
PdCl ₂ (MeCN) ₂	Bis(acetonitrile)dichloropalladium(II)
P(2-furyl) ₃	Tri(2-furyl)phosphine
Pd ₂ (dba) ₃	Tris(dibenzylideneacetone)dipalladium(0)
Pd(dba) ₂	Bis(dibenzylideneacetone)palladium(0)
Pd ₂ (dba) ₃ •CHCl ₃	Tris(dibenzylideneacetone)dipalladium(0)-chloroform adduct
Pd(dmdba) ₂	Bis(3,5,3',5'-dimethoxydibenzylideneacetone)palladium(0)
Pd(OAc) ₂	Palladium(II) acetate

Pd(PPh ₃) ₄	Tetrakis(triphenylphosphine)palladium(0)
Ph ₃ B	Triphenylborane
PhONa	Sodium phenoxide
PhZnBr	Phenylzinc bromide
PPh ₃	Triphenylphosphine
Propofol	2,6-Bis(1-methylethyl)phenol
PTS	<i>p</i> -Toluenesulfonic acid
rac-BINAP	(±)-2,2'-Bis(diphenylphosphino)-1,1'-binaphthalene
rt	Room temperature
SET	Single electron transfer
SMe ₂	Dimethyl sulfide
SnCl ₄	Tin(IV) chloride
SPhos	2-Dicyclohexylphosphino-2',6'-dimethoxybiphenyl
(<i>S</i>)-TRIP	(<i>S</i>)-3,3'-Bis(2,4,6-triisopropylphenyl)-1,1'-binaphthyl-2,2'-diyl hydrogenphosphate
TBAF	Tetrabutylammonium fluoride
TBD	1,5,7-Triazabicyclo[4.4.0]dec-5-ene
<i>t</i> BuMePhos	2-Di- <i>tert</i> -butylphosphino-2'-methylbiphenyl
<i>t</i> Bu	<i>tert</i> -butyl
<i>t</i> -BuOK	Potassium <i>tert</i> -butoxide
THF	Tetrahydrofuran
Ti	Titanium
TLC	Thin-layer chromatography

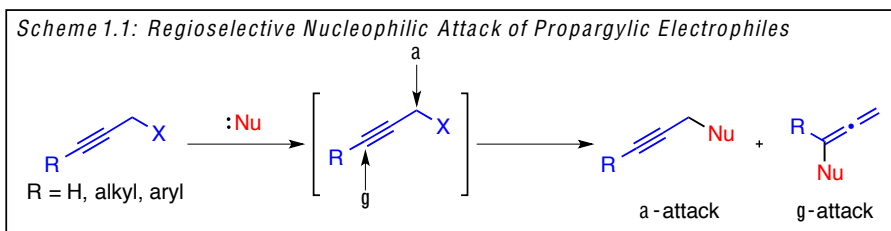
TMS	Trimethylsilyl
TMSCl	Chlorotrimethylsilane
XPhos	2-Dicyclohexylphosphino-2',4',6'-triisopropylbiphenyl
XantPhos	4,5-Bis(diphenylphosphino)-9,9-dimethylxanthene
Yb(OTf) ₃	Ytterbium(III) trifluoromethanesulfonate
ZnBr ₂	Zinc bromide
Zn(OTf) ₂	Zinc triflate

Chapter 1. Synthetic Methods for Propargylation and Propargylic Carbonate Reactivity.

1.1 Introduction to Propargylation Methods

The alkyne functional motif lies at the center of many synthetic efforts due to its ability to serve as a precursor to a diverse variety of functional group transformations.^{1,2} This characteristic leads to the broad application of alkynes as synthetic intermediates in both the development of synthetic methods and syntheses of biologically active compounds.^{3,4} Further, alkynes themselves are prevalent in many natural products, pharmaceuticals, and fine chemicals, which contributes to their overall chemical significance.^{5,6}

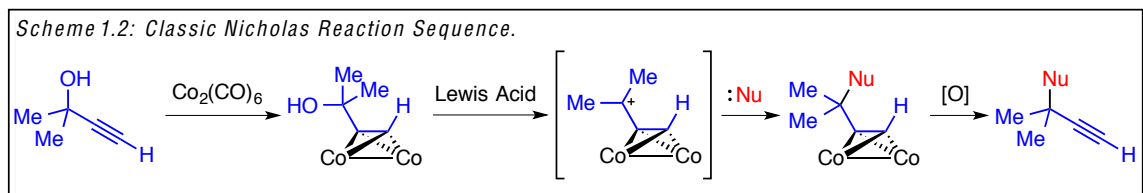
Electrophilic propargylation is one highly utilized method for alkyne incorporation into molecular scaffolds. In the most straightforward transformation, direct electrophilic propargylation can be achieved via S_N2 substitution of a propargylic halide.^{7,8} Although this method can be attractive in terms of simplicity, it often suffers from some inherent drawbacks such as low regioselectivity, poor reagent availability, toxicity of propargylic halides, and the lack of potential for an asymmetric variant.^{7,8,9} As an alternative, less reactive but more readily available propargyl alcohols, acetates, and carbonates can be employed in the presence of transition metals to promote selective propargylation while minimizing reagent toxicity. Further, transition metal controlled propargylation would also allow the use of chiral, non-racemic ligands as a potential source of asymmetric induction.



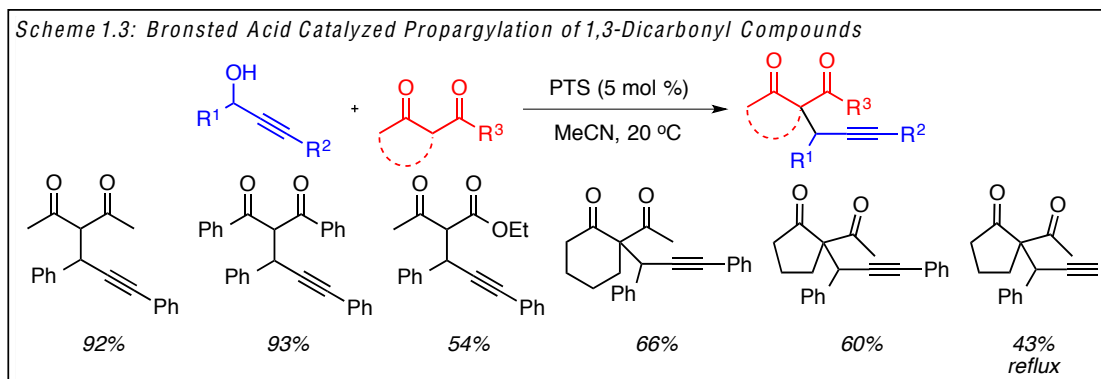
Unlike addition into allylic electrophiles, which yield alkene products,¹⁰ transition metal-catalyzed additions to propargylic electrophiles are much more complex since they can result in alkyne, allene, or cyclized products and therefore have been underdeveloped in comparison.¹¹ As alluded to previously, one characteristic that significantly contributes to the complexity of these reactions is the issue of regioselectivity. Similar to a transition metal-catalyzed allylation reaction, nucleophilic attack of a propargylic electrophile has the potential to occur at the α -carbon to the leaving group, to yield propargyl products, or at the γ -carbon, to yield allenyl products (Scheme 1.1). However, unlike allylation reactions that proceed through a similar metal-bound intermediate, propargylic electrophiles have the potential to generate numerous types of metal-bound intermediates, which substantially increases the difficulty in controlling product selectivity.

1.2 Lewis and Brønsted Acid Catalyzed Propargylation Reactions

Classically, the Nicholas reaction has been highly utilized as a reliable method to control regioselective addition to the α -carbon of propargyl alcohols (Scheme 1.2).^{12,13} Compatible nucleophiles include: alcohols, amines, thiols, ketones, silyl enol ethers, and electron-rich aromatic rings.¹³ However, the reaction lacks both step and atom-economy with the requirement of preformed, organometallic reagents using $\text{Co}_2(\text{CO})_8$, Lewis or Brønsted acid additives, and the need for a subsequent oxidative demetallation to obtain the desired propargylated product. Necessarily, these reactions also result in the production of a significant amount of metal waste.

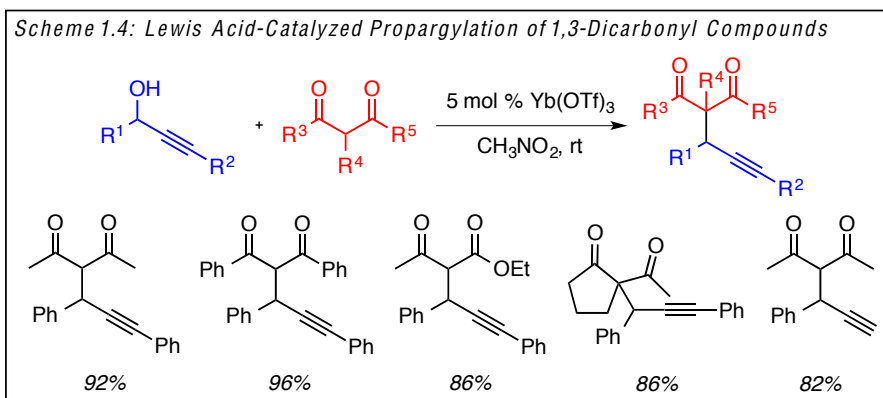


Alternatively, in attempt to provide a “greener” and more cost effective propargylation method, recent attention has focused on the development of Lewis or Brønsted acid catalysis to activate propargyl alcohols directly for S_N1 propargylic substitution and avoid the necessity for preformed organometallic compounds. For example, in 2007 Sanz and coworkers reported the use of *p*-toluenesulfonic acid monohydrate (PTS) in the Brønsted acid-catalyzed propargylation of 1,3-dicarbonyl compounds with internal propargylic alcohols resulting in water as the only byproduct (Scheme 1.3).¹⁴ Under the optimized reaction conditions, acyclic β-diketone nucleophiles underwent successful propargylation at room temperature and resulted in moderate isolated yields of the propargylated product. However, a decrease in yield was observed when the nucleophile was altered to cyclic β-diketones and even more so when β-ketoesters were employed. Further, the reaction was only tolerant of mono-substitution at the propargylic position of the starting propargyl alcohols. For tertiary alkynols, selective formation of the allenylated products was observed. Lastly, refluxing reaction conditions were required for the propargylation of 1,3-dicarbonyl compounds using singly activated, terminally unsubstituted propargyl alcohols.



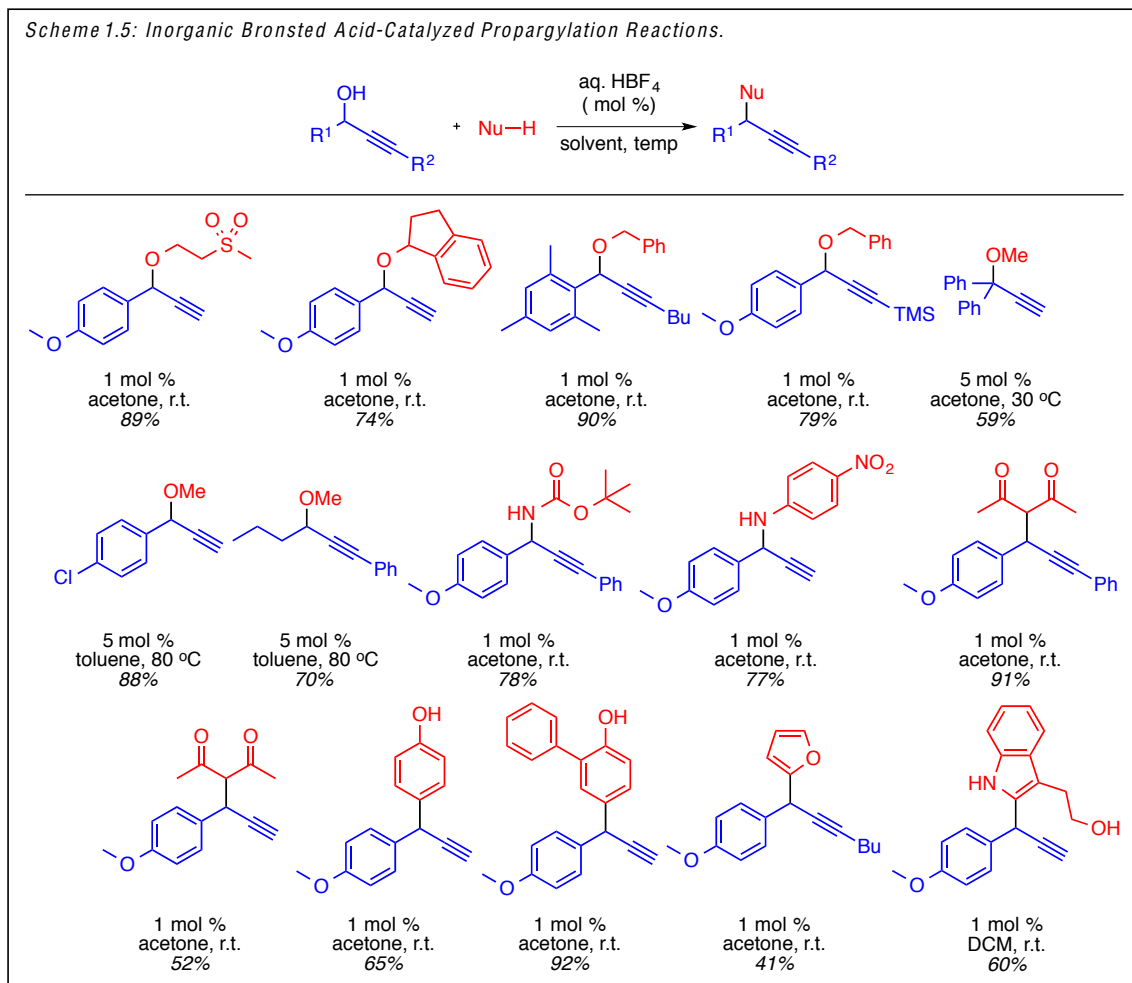
Shortly after Sanz’s report in 2007, Zhou and coworkers reported the use of Yb(OTf)₃ in the Lewis acid-catalyzed propargylation of 1,3-dicarbonyl compounds at room temperature (Scheme 1.4).¹⁵ In addition to successful propargylation of acyclic β-diketones with internal propargylic alcohols, Zhou’s method also tolerated cyclic β-diketones, β-ketoesters and the use of

terminal propargylic alcohols under the optimized reaction conditions without a significant decrease in product yield. However, the reaction remained intolerant of disubstituted alkynols, which again resulted in selective formation of the allenyl isomers. Further, in the report by Sanz, propargylic alcohol starting materials were still limited to those with aryl substitution at the propargylic position presumably to stabilize the forming cation and facilitate ionization for S_N1 substitution.



Recently, in 2015, Díez-González and coworkers reported the use of inorganic acid HBF_4 in the propargylation of oxygen-, nitrogen-, and carbon- nucleophiles with propargylic alcohols at room temperature (Scheme 1.5).¹⁶ Contrary to Lewis or organic Brønsted acid catalysts, inorganic Brønsted acids can be easily removed from the reaction media and are typically more stable to air and reagent-grade solvents. Despite being successful for the propargylation of oxygen-, nitrogen-, and carbon- nucleophiles using both terminal and internal propargylic alcohols, the developed method was restricted to electron-rich 1-aryl propargyl alcohols. However, when the reaction temperature and catalyst loading were both increased, the reaction scope could be expanded to a few substrates with alkyl or electron-poor aryl substituents and products were obtained in moderate yield. Surprisingly, a similar increase in reaction temperature and catalyst loading also lead to the successful propargylation from tertiary alkynols, which under the previously discussed methods lead to selective formation of the allene isomer. Lastly, in addition to β -diketones, the

scope of carbon nucleophiles was extended to both electron rich aryl and heteroaryl moieties to yield the products of Friedel-Crafts –type substitution.

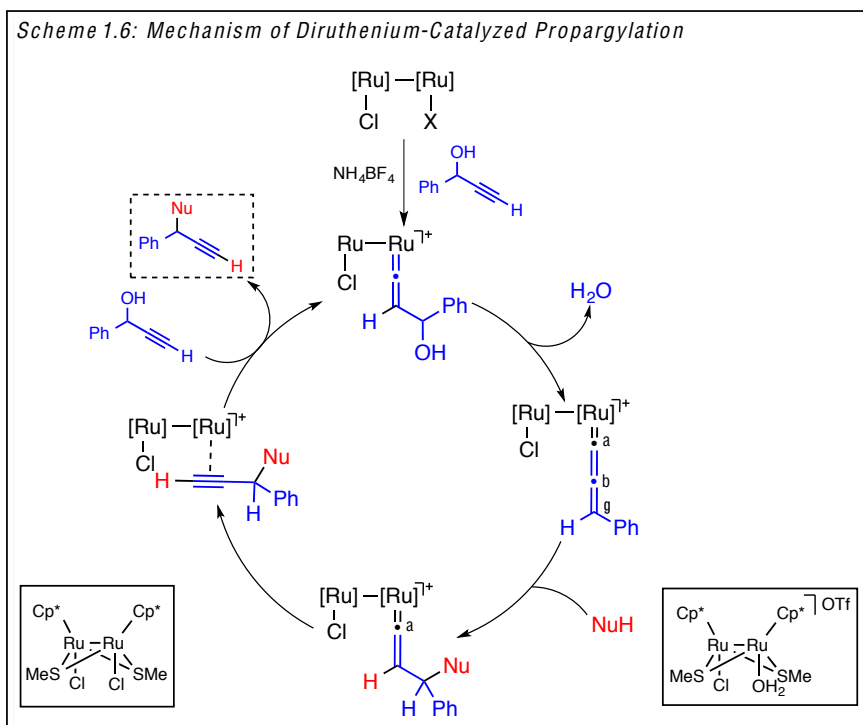


As illustrated above, both Lewis and Brønsted acid-catalysis can be a highly efficient method for the propargylation of various nucleophiles. However, the current methods are largely dependent on both the electronic and steric environment surrounding the starting materials. Further, the extended application of Lewis or Brønsted acid catalysis in larger, more structurally complex systems can lead to complications with chemoselectivity with other sensitive functionalities.¹⁷ As an alternative, transition metal-catalyzed propargylation methods have been employed as an attempt to tune the reactivity of the starting propargylic electrophile in order to

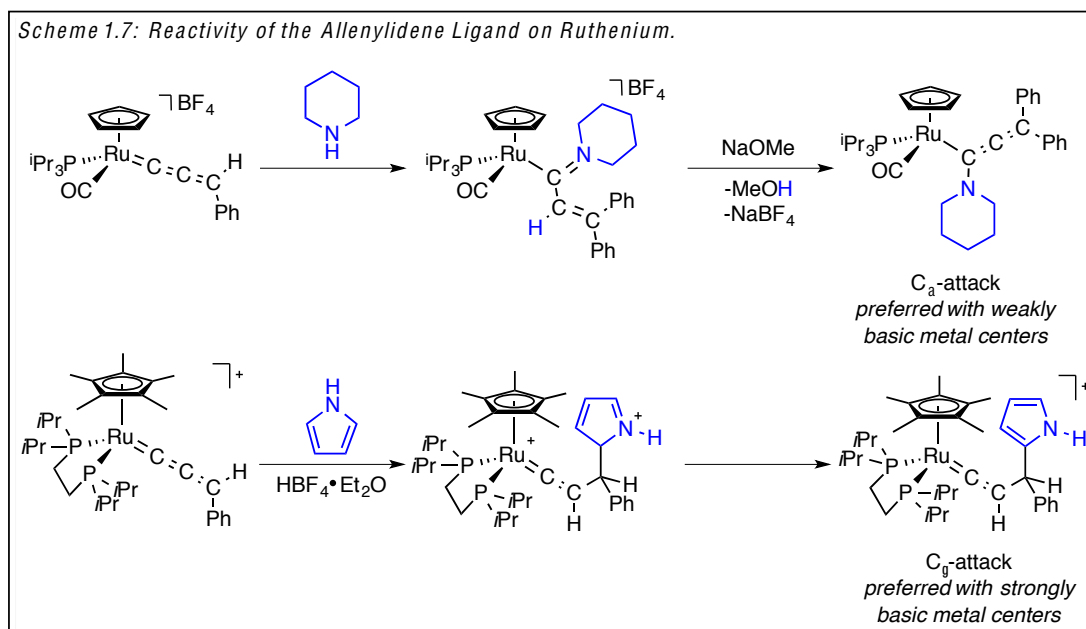
develop more generalized reaction methods. For conceptual simplicity, the following transition metal-catalyzed propargylation methods have been divided into sections according to the metal catalyst.^{18,19}

1.3 Ruthenium-Catalyzed Propargylation Reactions

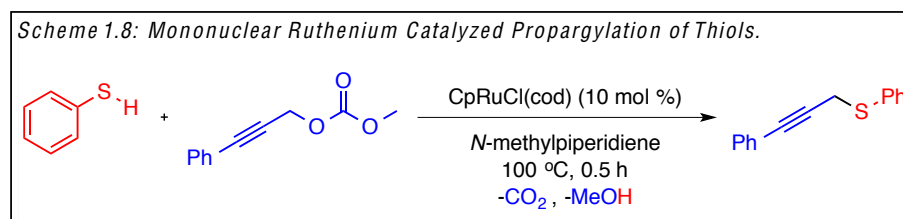
Beginning in 2000, Nishibayashi, Hidai, Uemura and coworkers began developing methods for the propargylation of various nucleophiles with propargylic alcohols using thiolate-bridged ruthenium (III,III) dimers.²⁰ Over the course of their studies, methods have been developed for the propargylation of carbon-,^{21,22,23} oxygen-, phosphonate-, thiols-, and nitrogen-nucleophiles.^{20, 24, 25, 26} Following initial coordination, rearrangement and dehydration, regioselective nucleophilic addition is reportedly controlled through formation of cationic ruthenium allenylidene intermediates, which undergo selective nucleophilic attack at the γ -carbon (Scheme 1.6).



Prior investigation of ruthenium allenylidene complexes conducted by Valerga,²⁷ Esteruelas and López²⁸ have demonstrated that cationic ruthenium allenylidene complexes are highly electrophilic in contrast to their neutral counterparts. Further, the allenylidene ligand itself has unique characteristics including electrophilic character at C_α and C_γ and nucleophilic character at C_β of monometallic species (Scheme 1.7). By tuning the basicity of the metal center through the choice of coordinating ligands, regioselective nucleophilic addition could favor either the C_α (weakly basic metal centers) or C_γ (strongly basic metal centers) position. However, when the cationic monometallic complexes were applied to selective propargylation in the presence of propargylic alcohols, the complexes were found to be inactive.^{27,28,29} This observation motivated Nishibayashi, Hidaï, Uemura and coworkers to evaluate other types of ruthenium catalysts (beyond monometallic species) for the activation of propargylic alcohols. Specifically, thiolate-bridged diruthenium catalysts were screened based on prior observations of their success in catalyzing the head-to-head dimerization of terminal alkynes³⁰ and ability to promote selective propargylation of various nucleophiles without any allene formation. However, due to the requirement of a ruthenium-allenylidene intermediate, the substrate scope and overall synthetic application was significantly restricted by the need for terminal propargylic alcohol starting materials.

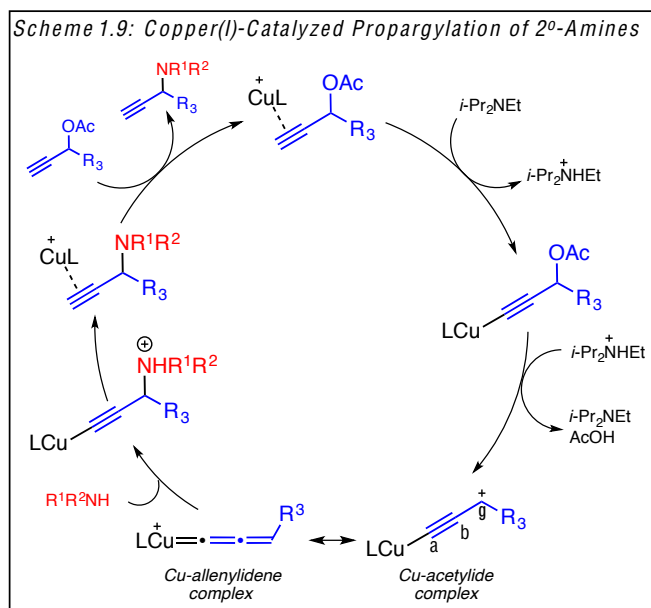


In attempt to overcome the restricted synthetic application to terminal propargylic electrophiles using diruthenium catalysts, some attention has been devoted toward the development of a mononuclear variant. Unfortunately, the developed methods continue to suffer from severe drawbacks. For example, in 2002 Mitsudo and coworkers were able to demonstrate that thio- nucleophiles underwent successful propargylation when propargylic carbonates were employed in the presence of 10 mol % CpRuCl(cod) (Scheme 1.8).³¹ However, the reaction was only successful in the presence of *N*-methylpiperidine as a solvent (necessary to retain catalyst activity) and at elevated reaction temperatures of 100 °C. Further, terminal propargylic electrophiles were unsuccessful and the reaction was intolerant of substitution at the propargylic position.



1.4 Copper-Catalyzed Propargylation Reactions

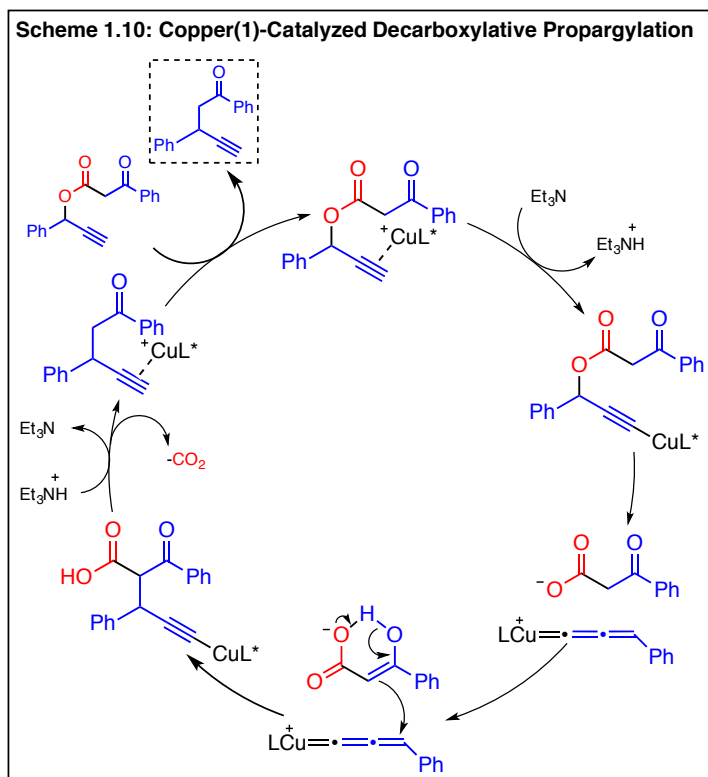
Similarly, a number of groups including Hennion and Hanzel,³² Murahashi,³³ Caporusso³⁴ and van Maarseveen³⁵ have developed methods for the copper(I)-catalyzed propargylation of various nucleophiles in which the regioselectivity determining step is proposed to occur through nucleophilic attack of a copper allenylidene intermediate (Scheme 1.9).³⁶ However, contrary to the diruthenium-catalyzed rearrangement and subsequent condensation of propargylic alcohols to generate a ruthenium-acetylidene intermediate, the use of copper(I) catalysts requires a stoichiometric or super stoichiometric amount of base to deprotonate the alkyne proton and generate a copper-acetylide or copper acetylidene intermediate. This mechanistic requirement of a metallic-acetylidene intermediate once again limits the synthetic utility of the copper(I)-catalyzed method to terminal propargylic electrophiles.

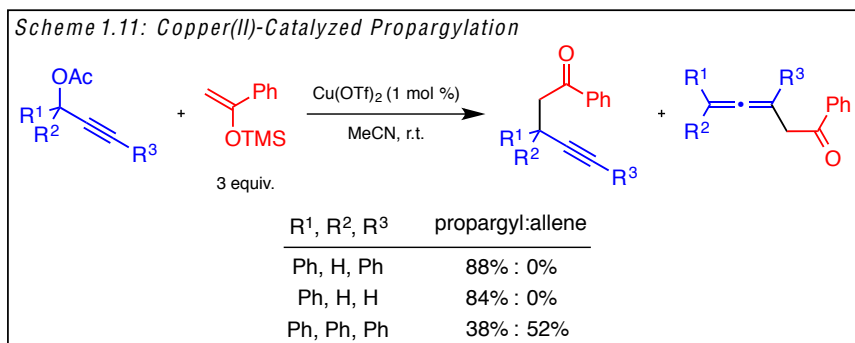


Despite the synthetic limitation of copper(I)-catalyzed propargylations using terminal propargylic electrophiles, Hu and coworkers were recently able to expand the scope of carbon nucleophiles to β -ketoesters which had only been mildly successful under previously developed transition metal-catalyzed methods (Scheme 1.10). Further, the use of propargylic carbonates as

their source of the propargylic electrophile allowed for *in situ* generation of ketone enolate equivalents rather than requiring preformation prior to submission to the propargylation reaction conditions.

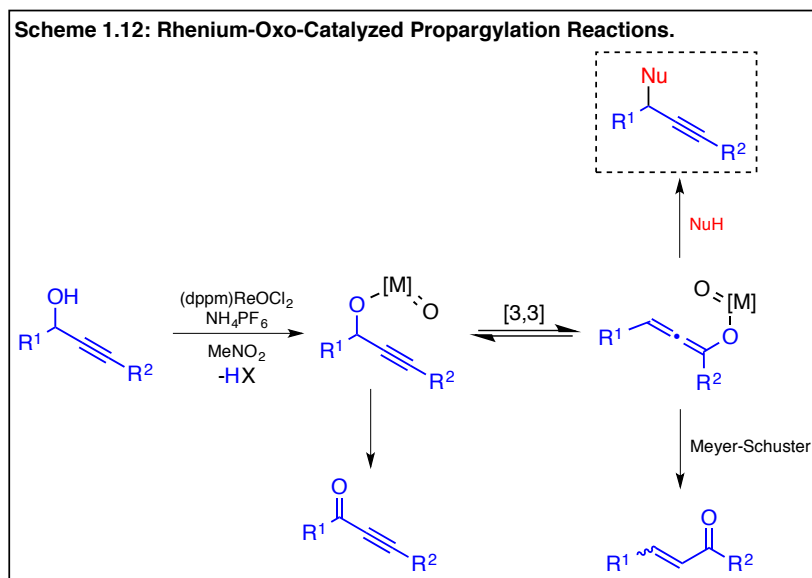
As an alternative to copper(I)-catalyzed propargylations, Zhan^{37,38} and coworkers have also explored the use of copper(II) in the S_N1 substitution of propargyl acetates (Scheme 1.11). However, similar to the substrate restrictions found in section 1.1.2, the developed reaction was sensitive to substitution on the starting propargylic electrophile. As typically found in the transition metal-catalyzed reactions covered thus far, an aryl substituent was required at the 1-position of the starting propargyl alcohol, but 1,1-diaryl substituted alcohols were found to preferentially form the allene isomer as opposed to the propargyl product.





1.5 Rhenium-Catalyzed Propargylation Reactions

In order to avoid the formation of metal allenidene intermediates and bypass the limitation of terminal propargylic electrophiles, Toste^{39,40,41} and Takai⁴² reported the use of a rhenium metal-oxo complex to promote the propargylation of carbon-, oxygen- and nitrogen nucleophiles (Scheme 1.12).¹⁸ The mechanism by which propargylation occurs, utilizes a known [3,3]-rearrangement of the metal-oxo species to form an allenolate intermediate. Next, S_N2' nucleophilic attack occurs to yield the propargylated product.



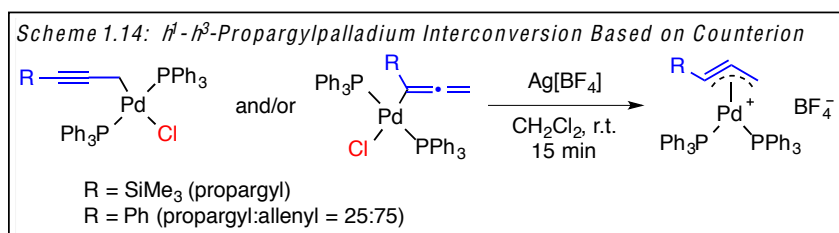
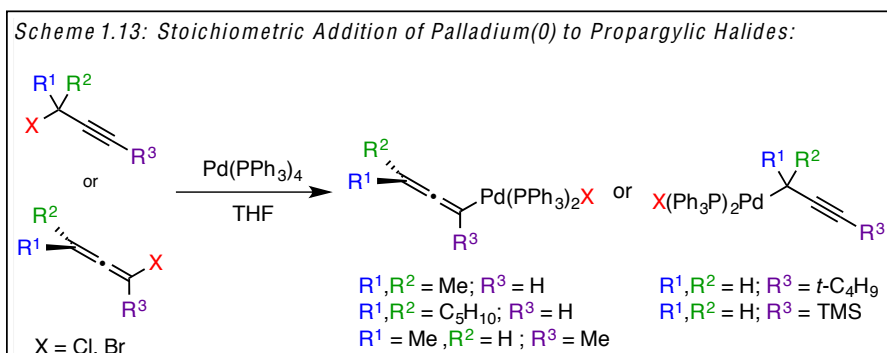
The use of a rhenium metal-oxo complex as a catalyst was found to produce moderate to good yields of the propargylated nucleophiles from secondary propargylic alcohols, although there was again a requirement for an aryl moiety at the propargylic position. Further, tertiary propargylic alcohols were unsuccessful, presumably due to steric hindrance between the two allenyl substituents and the incoming nucleophile in the transition state. Importantly, propargylation reactions with the rhenium-oxo catalyst were successful for alkyl, aryl and silyl terminally substituted propargylic alcohols without any effect on product yield.

1.6 Palladium-Catalyzed Reactions with Propargylic Electrophiles

Despite significant contributions involving transition metal-catalyzed propargylation reactions by other metals, palladium-catalyzed reactions with propargylic electrophiles possess unique reactivity owed to its ability to yield several different types of products. Bias toward formation of a specific product is known to arise through the tuning of various palladium-coordinated intermediates and the hard/soft character of the active nucleophile. Both will be discussed in the following.

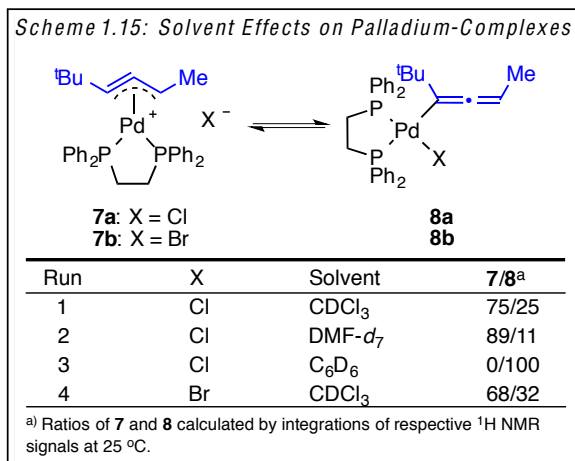
In 1999, Tsutsumi, Ogoshi, Kurosawa and coworkers conducted thorough studies on the synthesis and characterization of various palladium complexes resulting from the reaction of propargylic halides with $\text{Pd}(\text{PPh}_3)_4$.⁴³ It was observed that when $\text{Pd}(\text{PPh}_3)_4$ was added in a stoichiometric amount to either a propargyl halide or an allenyl halide, two isomeric products formed following initial oxidative addition of the halide—carbon bond: the η^1 -allenylpalladium complex and the η^1 -propargylpalladium complex. Preference for either of the η^1 -palladium-coordinated intermediates was dependent on competitive steric hindrance at the internal and terminal positions of the starting material (Scheme 1.13) however; both starting materials generated the same palladium-bound intermediates. It is important to realize that the nature of the

counterion on the palladium complex significantly contributes to its preferred configuration. For example, when both the η^1 -allenyl and η^1 -propargylpalladium complex were simultaneously treated with silver tetrafluoroborate, ligand exchange between the coordinating chloride ligand and the non-coordinating BF_4^- counterion lead to exclusive formation of a cationic η^3 -propargylpalladium complex (Scheme 1.14).



Further, when the cationic η^3 -propargylpalladium complex was subjected to a series of NMR solvent studies, it was found that the polarity of the solvent also had a significant effect on the preferred coordination mode of the palladium-bound complex (Scheme 1.15).⁴³ When polar solvents were employed, such as CDCl_3 or $\text{DMF-}d_7$, the cationic η^3 -propargylpalladium complex was largely favored over the neutral η^1 -allenylpalladium complex. In contrast, when non-polar C_6D_6 was used, exclusive formation of the neutral η^1 -allenylpalladium complex was observed. Therefore, the η^1 -allenylpalladium complex is preferred in the presence of coordinating counterions, such as chloride ions as well as in non-polar, aprotic solvents. Alternatively, in addition to the presented studies, subsequent reports have revealed that the η^3 -propargylpalladium

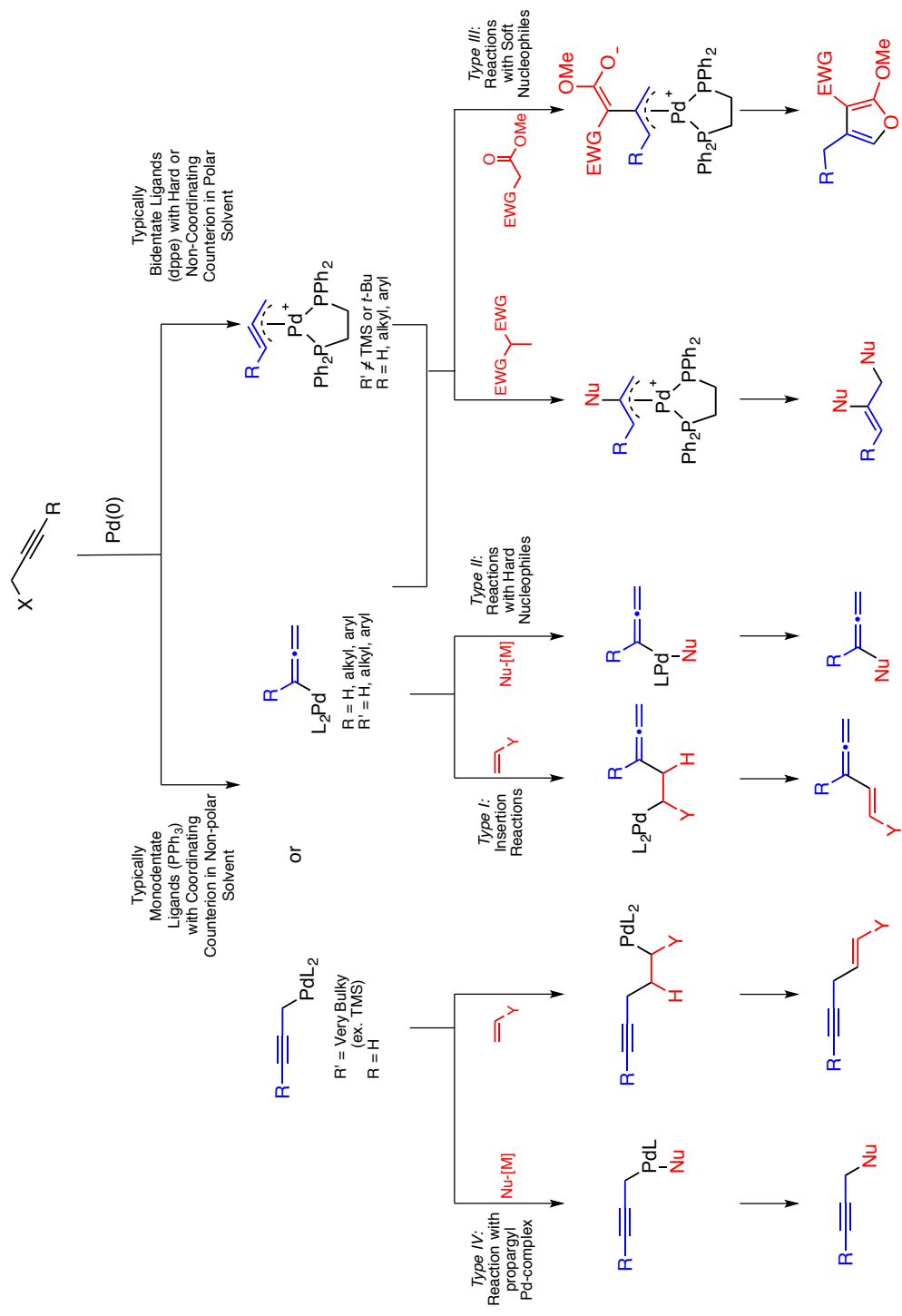
complex is preferred in the presence of bidentate phosphine ligands, hard or non-coordinating counterions, and in polar solvents.^{43,44,45,46}



In addition to the evaluation of reaction conditions that favor either a neutral η^1 -palladium or cationic η^3 -palladium complex, a large amount of work has been conducted by Chen,⁴⁷ Kurosawa,⁴⁸ Ogoshi,^{48,49} Wojcicki,⁵⁰ and Tsuji¹¹ that has provided invaluable information regarding the reactivity of these palladium-bound intermediates with various nucleophiles. For the purpose of this review, only carbon nucleophiles will be discussed. In general, palladium-catalyzed nucleophilic substitution of propargylic electrophiles can be categorized into four different types (Scheme 1.16).^{11,51} Typically, when considering nucleophilic additions of type I or type II, an η^1 -allenylpalladium complex is generated (largely biased through the lack of steric hindrance at the terminal position of the propargylic electrophile along with the soft-character of the palladium-catalyst). The intermediate complex can then undergo either insertion with a compatible alkene (type I) or transmetalation with an organometallic carbon nucleophile (type II), both of which result in allene products. Alternatively, soft-carbon nucleophiles (type III) are known to regioselectively attack the center carbon of a cationic η^3 -propargylpalladium complex. After subsequent protonation to yield a π -allyl palladium intermediate, these species can undergo a second attack either intermolecularly, to yield an alkene

product, or intramolecularly to yield a cyclization product and regenerate the active palladium(0) complex. Lastly, although very rare, type IV nucleophilic additions arise from the formation of an η^1 -propargylpalladium complex. In general, the η^1 -propargylpalladium complex can be biased when a bulky substituent is located at the terminal position of the allene thus promoting the palladium catalyst to proceed via oxidative addition of the carbon—halide bond rather than S_N2' displacement of the leaving group to generate the η^1 -allenylpalladium complex. Similar to the type I and type II additions, once the η^1 -propargylpalladium complex is formed, either insertion of an alkene or nucleophilic attack of an organometallic carbon nucleophile could occur to yield the respective alkene or propargyl product.

Scheme 1.16: Palladium-Catalyzed Nucleophilic Addition to Propargylic Electrophiles.



1.7 Reactivity of η^3 -Propargylpalladium Complexes

As mentioned in the previous section, addition to an η^3 -propargylpalladium complex has been shown to occur exclusively at the center carbon.⁵² In 1995, Ogoshi and Kurosawa reported that a phenyl substituted η^3 -propargyl ligand on palladium was not linearly coordinated to palladium with an angle of 154° .⁵³ Further, the η^3 -propargylpalladium ligand was located in approximately the same plane as the monodentate phosphine ligands to form a planar tetracoordinate palladium complex.^{53,54} Additional studies contributed by Delbecq and Sinou,⁵⁴ along with previous reports,⁵² revealed that in the η^3 -propargylpalladium, palladium is bound to the terminal carbons of the propargyl moiety through orbital overlap analysis. However the bond distances are not equal. A slightly longer bond distance exists between palladium and the substituted carbon (in this case 2.35 Å) compared to the unsubstituted terminal carbon (2.19 Å). Although no overlap population exists between C₂ and palladium (indicating no bond), the distance from the palladium center was found to be short (2.19 Å). Importantly, DFT calculations have suggested that the central carbon is positively charged whereas the terminal carbons of the propargyl ligand are negatively charged.⁵⁴ Further examination of orbital overlap populations were found to be highest at the center carbon of the propargyl ligand when NH₃ or MeO⁻ were employed as nucleophiles. Therefore, selective nucleophilic attack the center carbon of η^3 -propargylpalladium complexes is proposed to occur under both orbital and charge-control at the central carbon.

Of additional importance are the characteristics of the phosphine ligand. Specifically, the P-Pd-P angle⁵⁵ which has a direct affect on the bent angle of the η^3 -propargyl ligand. In 2014, Anderson and Paton reported that the charge distribution on each of the carbon atoms of the η^3 -propargyl moiety are not affected with an increase or decrease in the bite angle of the phosphine ligand.⁵⁶ However, the energy of the molecular orbitals changes significantly. Through DFT

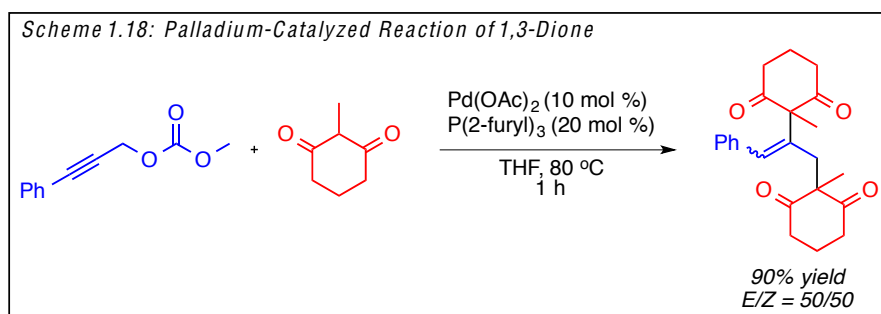
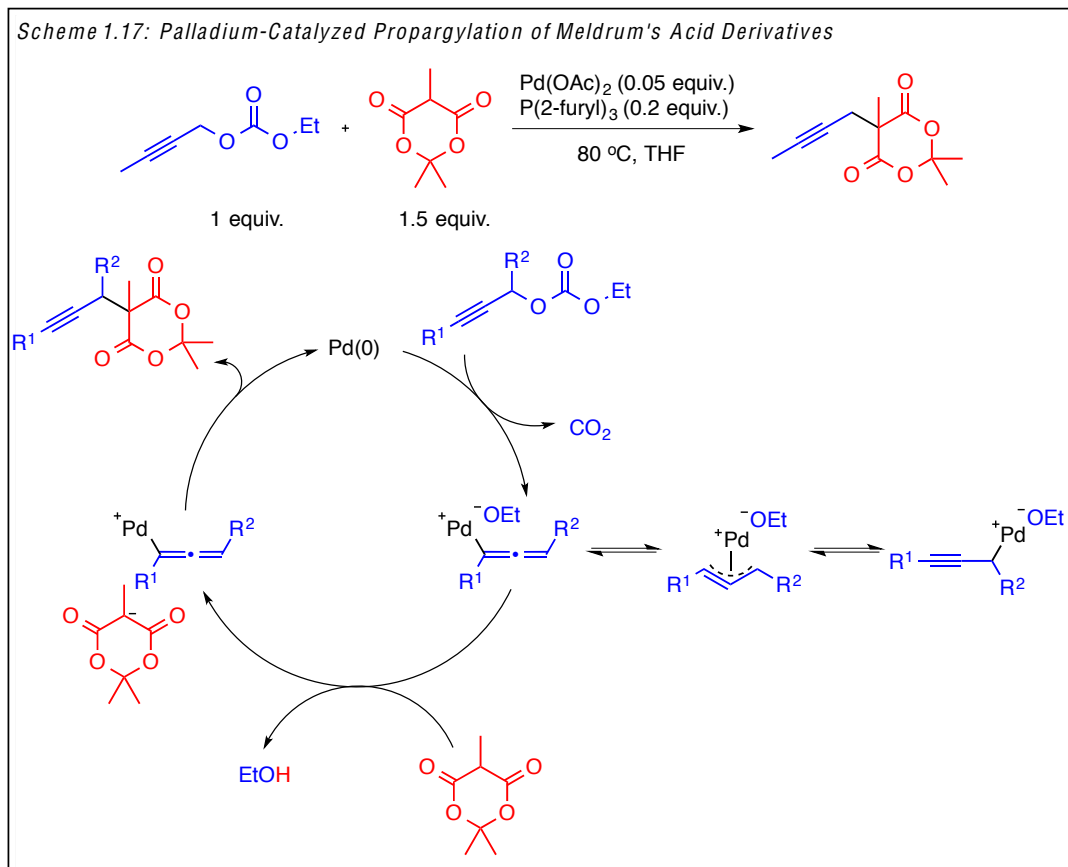
calculations it was found that bidentate ligands with larger bite angles cause an elongation, or bond lessening, between palladium and the terminal carbons of η^3 -propargyl ligand. As a result, a flattening of the η^3 -propargyl moiety occurs which lowers the LUMO of the terminal carbons to resemble an allenyl cation. The lowered LUMO orbitals promote favored attack at the unsubstituted terminal carbon as opposed to the center carbon of the η^3 -propargyl moiety as is commonly observed. Therefore, bidentate ligands possessing small bite angles are optimal for regioselective nucleophilic attack at the center carbon of η^3 -propargylpalladium complexes.

1.8 Palladium-Catalyzed Propargylation Reactions from Propargylic Electrophiles

As discussed in sections 1.1 – 1.5 of this chapter, current methods for selective propargylation of carbon nucleophiles often suffer from poor atom-economy, reagent toxicity, or, most importantly, selectivity among a diverse class of propargylic electrophiles or nucleophiles. Further, despite the advantages of palladium-catalyzed reactions with propargylic electrophiles, section 1.6 demonstrated that soft carbon nucleophiles most commonly lead to products of dinucleophilic addition or cyclization as opposed to propargyl products. Therefore, development of a palladium-catalyzed method that selectively yields propargylated soft carbon nucleophiles would significantly advance the realm of palladium-catalyzed reactions with propargylic electrophiles. However, reactions of this type remain scarce to date.

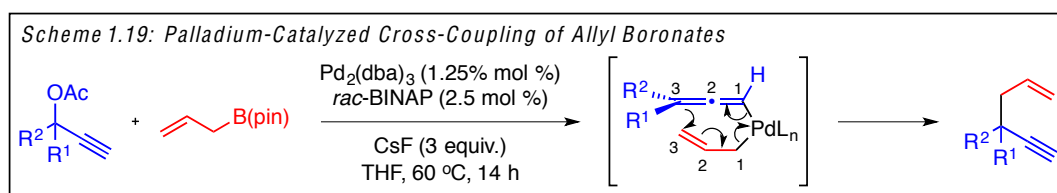
In 2015, Iazzetti and coworkers reported the successful propargylation of Meldrum's acid derivatives in the presence of 5 mol% Pd(OAc)₂, 20 mol% P(2-furyl)₃, in refluxing THF (Scheme 1.17).⁵⁷ It was found that both alkyl and aryl substitution was tolerated at the terminal and internal position of the propargyl carbonate starting materials without a significant effect yield. However, nucleophiles were strictly limited to highly stabilized, monosubstituted Meldrum's acid derivatives. When 2-methylcyclohexandione was employed instead, exclusive

formation of the dinucleophilic addition product was observed, clearly displaying the limitation of this method (Scheme 1.18).



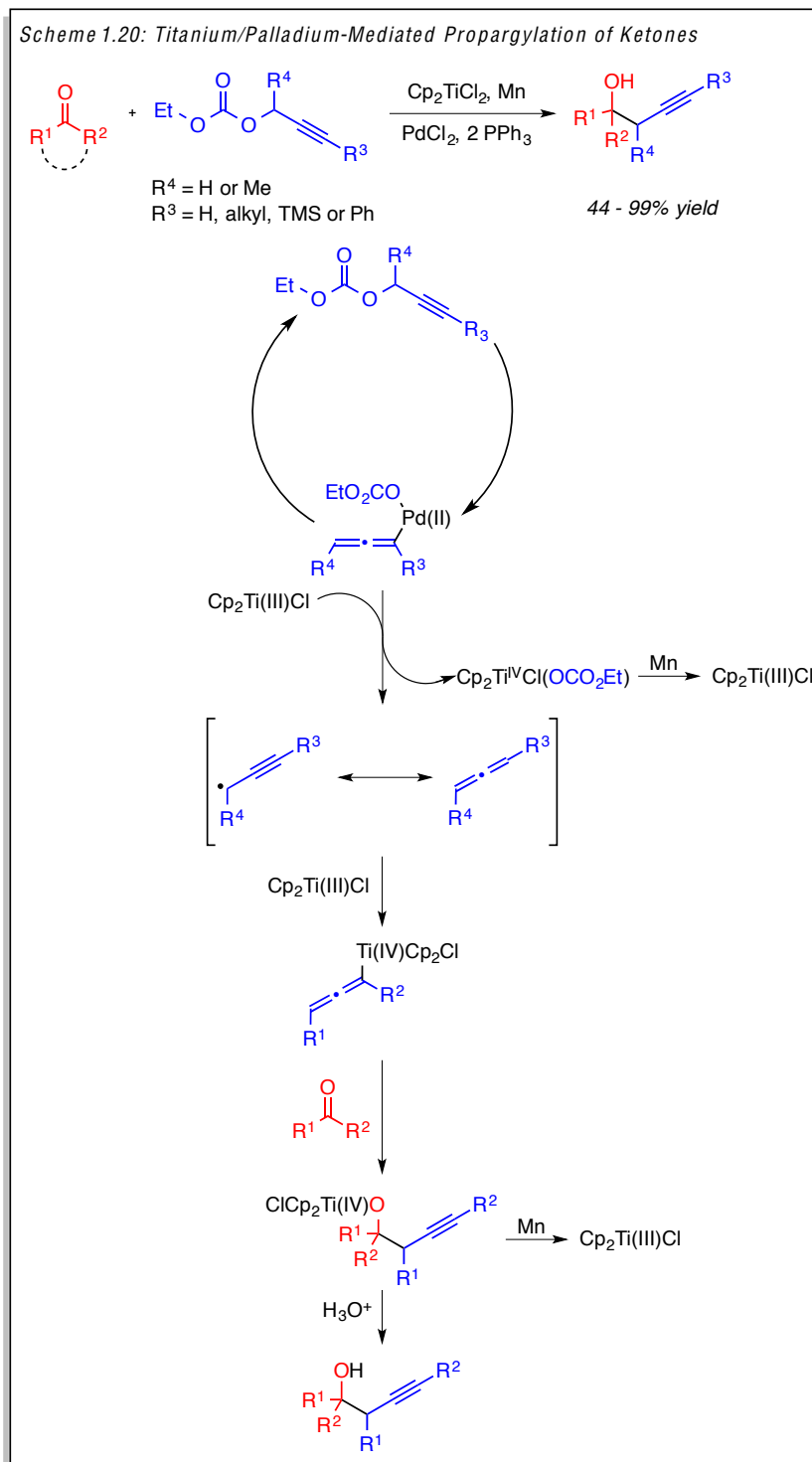
Due to the difficulty associated with direct nucleophilic addition of palladium-bound intermediates to yield propargyl products, Morken and coworkers designed a palladium-catalyzed cross-coupling reaction with allyl boronates where a 3,3'-reductive elimination yields a

propargylated product (Scheme 1.19).⁵⁸ Upon optimization of reaction conditions, it was found that allylation of various propargyl acetates proceeded stereospecifically with respect to the starting propargyl acetate. Further, mono- and disubstitution was tolerated at the propargylic position of the starting acetate materials, without a significant effect on product yields or contamination by the allene isomer. However, the reaction was intolerant of substitution at the terminal position of the propargyl acetate starting materials and also required three equivalents of CsF as an additive. Lastly, due to the mechanistic constraints of the developed reaction, only allyl moieties were sufficient coupling partners to obtain the propargylated products.



As one last alternative, in 2011, Álvarez de Cienfuegos and Cuerva reported a dual-catalytic system consisting of palladium and titanium for the nucleophilic propargylation of aldehyde and ketone moieties (Scheme 1.20).⁵⁹ As found in typical palladium-catalyzed reactions with propargylic electrophiles, the first suggested step in the mechanistic sequence was the oxidative addition of propargyl carbonate to palladium(0) will undergo oxidative addition into the propargyl carbonate to yield an η^1 -allenylpalladium complex (in equilibrium with the η^1 -propargyl and η^3 -propargylpalladium complexes). Subsequent fragmentation of the palladium(II) complex is then promoted by a single-electron transfer (SET) from the super-stoichiometric addition of Cp_2TiCl to yield an allenyltitanocene intermediate. Next, coordination of the electrophilic carbonyl compound occurs which undergoes regioselective nucleophilic attack to yield the resulting propargyl alcohol after an acid work-up. Although this method utilized a palladium(0) catalyst to promote initial activation of the propargylic carbonate, significant

drawbacks include the requirement of super-stoichiometric amounts of titanium and the limitation to carbonyl electrophiles to yield propargylation products.



1.9 Conclusion:

Throughout chapter 1, numerous methods have been presented that catalyze the propargylation of carbon-centered nucleophiles including the Nicholas reaction, Lewis acids, Brønsted acids, and transition metal catalysis. However, known propargylation methods still suffer from a limited substrate scope of substituted propargylic electrophiles and lack generality for a diverse class of carbon-centered nucleophiles. Additionally, in regard to palladium-catalyzed reactions, only a handful of methods exist that are able to override the large bias for the allenyl isomer or products arising from dinucleophilic addition to palladium-bound intermediates in favor of propargylation. Therefore, a more generalized atom-economical propargylation method would significantly advance the field of propargylation chemistry. Specifically, the method should expand the scope of carbon nucleophiles and provide access to propargylation reactions using substituted propargylic electrophiles.

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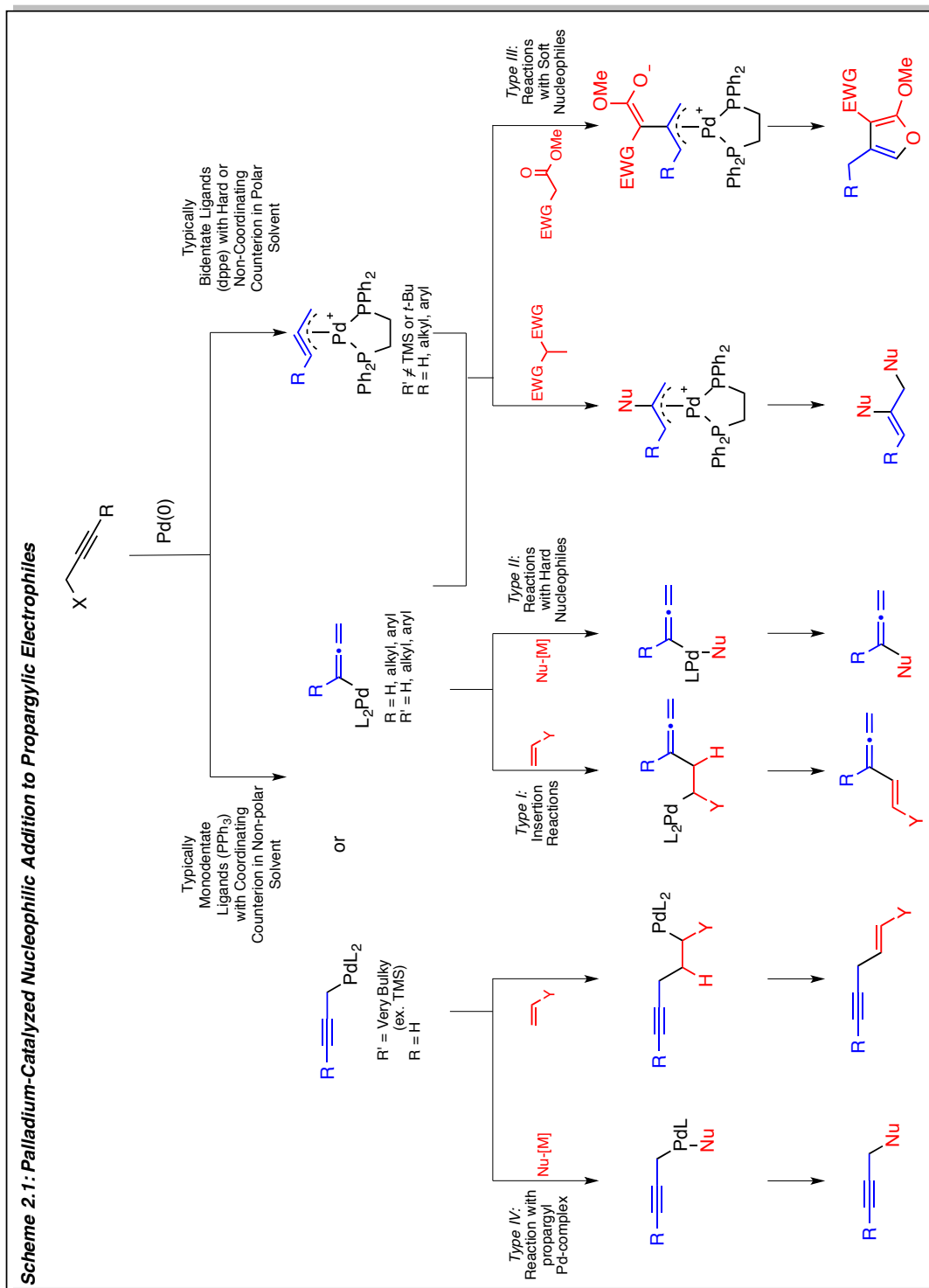
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Chapter 2. Palladium-Catalyzed Regiodivergent Substitution of Propargylic Carbonates.

2.1 Introduction:

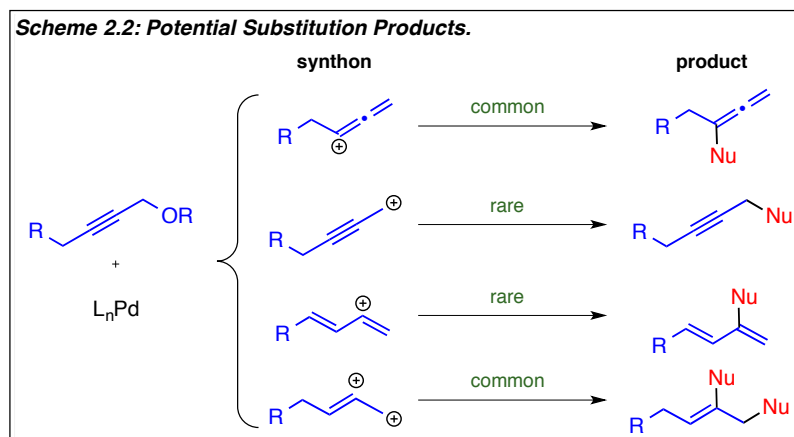
Chapter 1 of this dissertation was a review of electrophilic propargylic substitution to yield propargylated carbon-centered nucleophiles. Specifically, attention was focused on methods such as the Nicholas reaction or those mediated by Lewis acids, Brønsted acids, and catalysts using various transition metals. However it was stated that, in general, the developed methods suffer from detrimental drawbacks that prevent their widespread application including: (a) limited substrate scope, (b) limit to highly stabilized carbon-centered nucleophiles, or (c) production of a large amount of waste.

Chapter 1 also covered the unique reactivity of palladium-catalyzed substitutions of propargylic electrophiles and it was demonstrated that palladium has the potential to generate structurally diverse metal-bound intermediates (Scheme 2.1). As a result, various products can be selectively accessed by altering the reaction conditions to favor one of the metal-bound intermediates, along with judicious choice of the activated nucleophile. However, palladium-catalyzed propargylation of carbon-centered nucleophiles is rare.

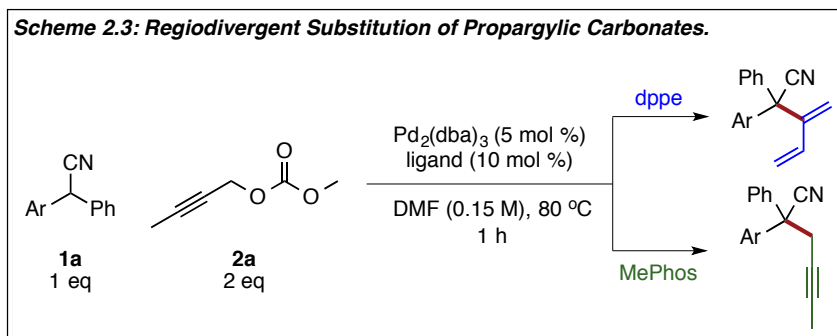


To briefly reiterate the typical reaction patterns of palladium-catalyzed substitutions of propargylic electrophiles, use of non-stabilized carbon nucleophiles ($pK_a > 20$) yield allene

products (Scheme 2.2). In contrast use of stabilized nucleophiles, such as malonates, commonly leads to *bis*-addition products, while selectivity for propargylic substitution is much more rare.^{1,2,3,4} Additionally, only under select circumstances, primarily controlled through cyclization, have diene products arisen from the substitution of propargyl electrophiles.



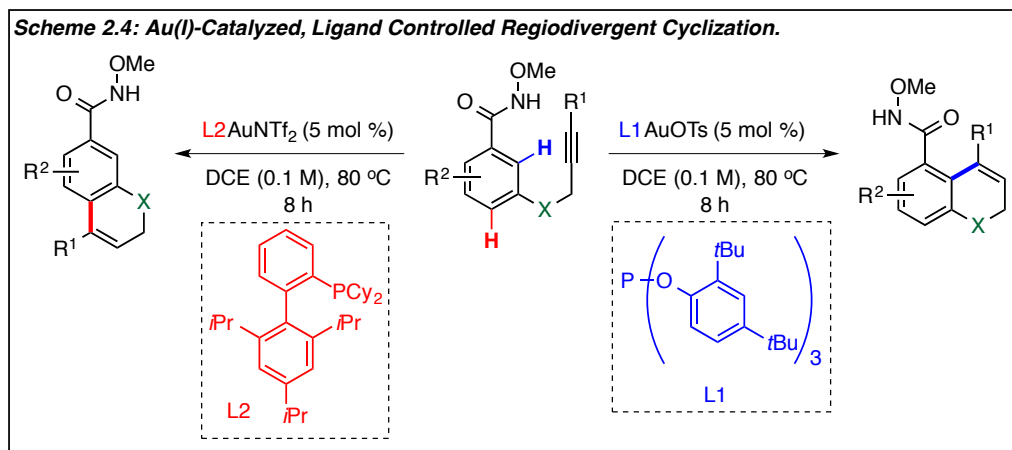
Based on the material presented above, palladium-catalyzed substitution of propargylic electrophiles offer the potential to develop a regiodivergent strategy to access functionally diverse products from a single class of starting materials. Chapter 2 of this dissertation will detail our contribution toward the development of a palladium-catalyzed, ligand-controlled, regiodivergent strategy to access both the rarely observed propargyl and dienyl isomers resulting from palladium-catalyzed propargylic substitution (Scheme 2.3). Further, in order to optimize the atom efficiency of the reaction, propargylic carbonates were employed as the electrophilic propargyl species to access both the activated electrophile and nucleophile *in situ*.



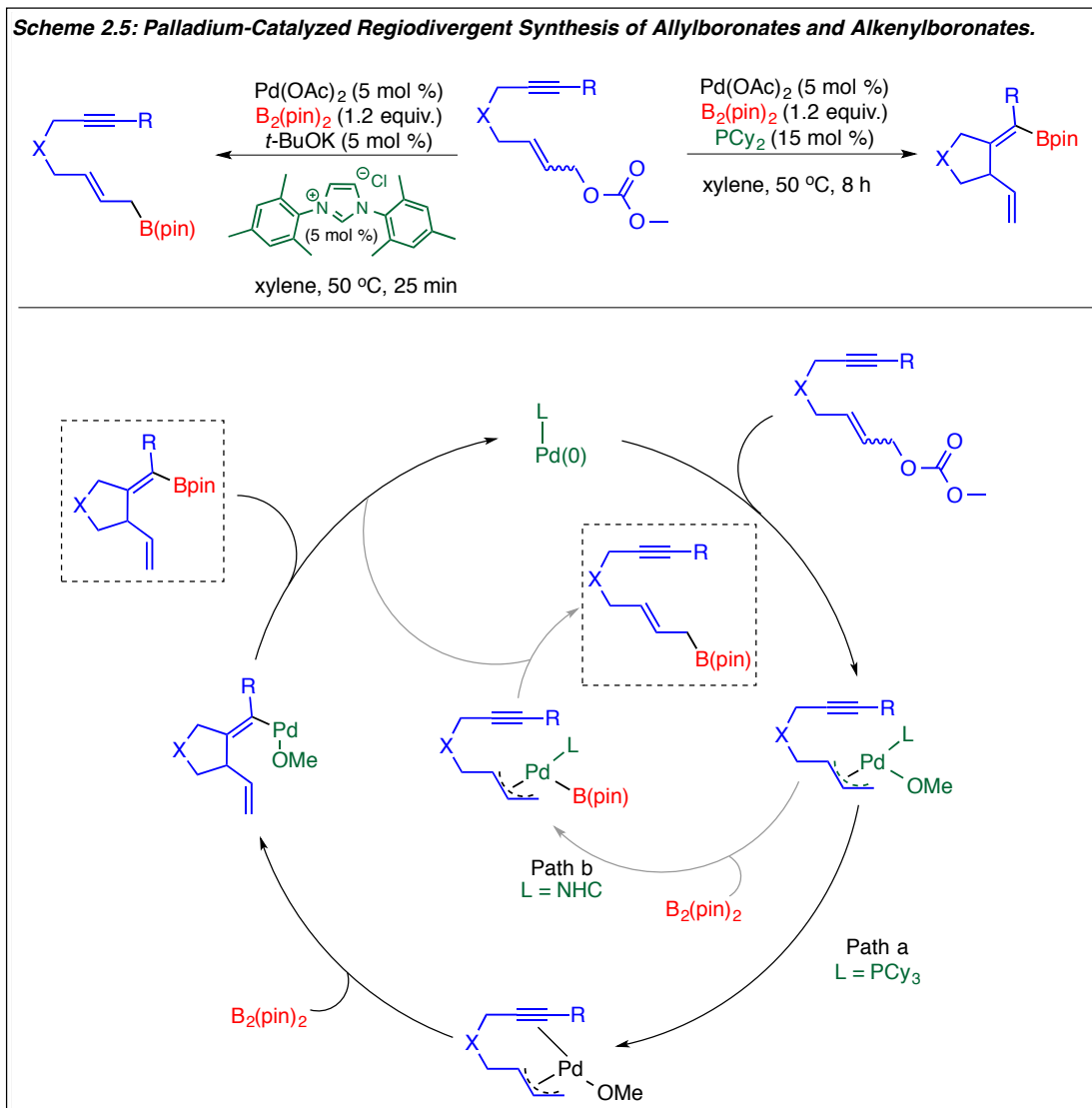
2.2 Ligand-Controlled Regiodivergent Strategies:

A major endeavor in the development of transition metal-catalyzed reactions typically entails the mass screening of various ligands for optimized reaction selectivity. Although effective, this protocol usually results in the optimized formation of one product class or bond-type. Occasionally, however, regiodivergent strategies arise in which orthogonal selectivity is observed for two or more products simply by changing the characteristics of the metal-coordinated ligand. Such examples optimize method development through production of various products with minimal reaction modification. However, development of ligand-controlled regiodivergent strategies is difficult since they must circumvent both steric and electronic properties of the substrate that typically govern product regioselectivity. In the following, a brief summary of recent regiodivergent strategies will be presented.

In 2016, Jiang and coworkers reported the gold-catalyzed, ligand-controlled regiodivergent hydroarylation of alkynes to access both *ortho*- and *para*-substituted cyclized products (Scheme 2.4).⁵ Selectivity was controlled through electronic variations at the gold-center through employment of either electron-deficient tris(2,4-di-*tert*-butylphenyl)phosphine or electron-rich XPhos as the ligand source. When electron-deficient tris(2,4-di-*tert*-butylphenyl)phosphine was employed, selective formation of the *ortho*-substituted product was observed. Due to the electron-deficient metal center, along with the weakly coordinating OTs counterion, it was proposed that the gold catalyst would “pull” the coordinated alkyne toward the methoxyl amide directing-group resulting in the *ortho*-cyclized product.^{6,7,8} Alternatively, employment of bulky, electron-rich XPhos would disfavor amide coordination through unfavorable steric interactions and “push” the coordinated alkyne away from the directing group resulting in the *para*-cyclized product.

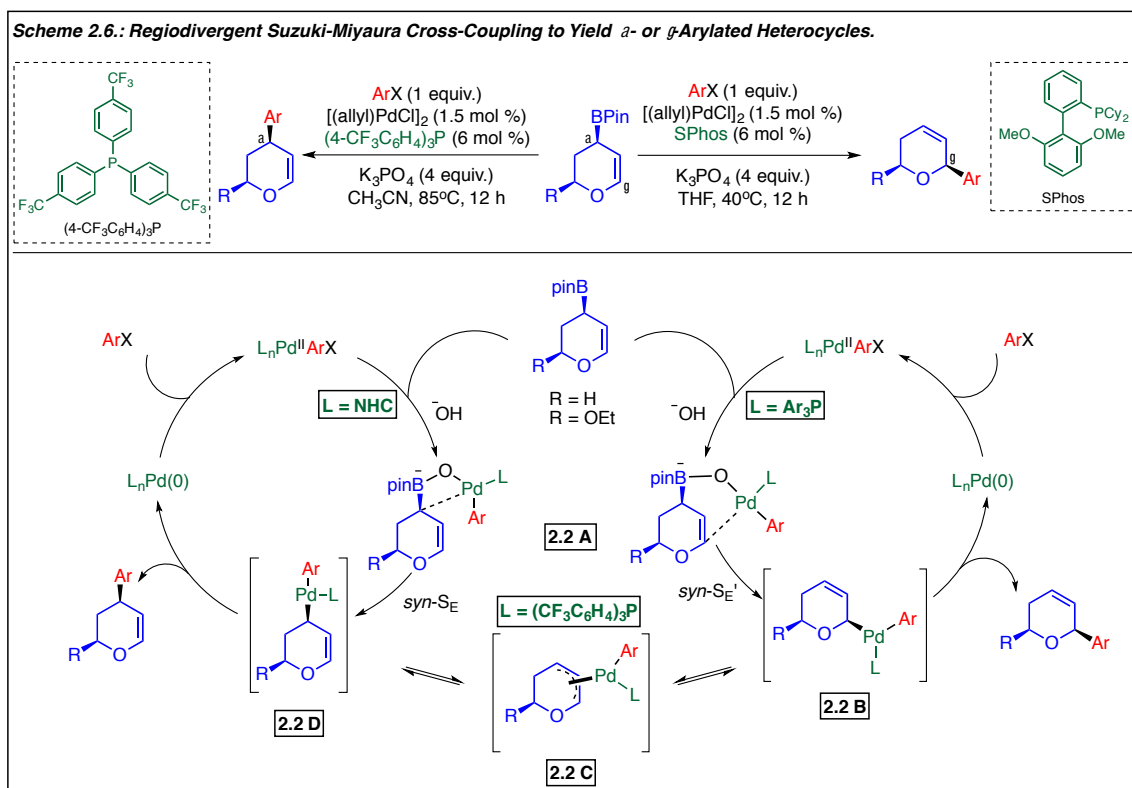


Alternatively, in regards to palladium-catalyzed regiodivergent methods, Cárdenas and coworkers reported the selective synthesis of allylboronates and alkenylboronates controlled by the coordinating strength of the employed ligand (Scheme 25).⁹ It was proposed that cyclization to generate the alkenylboronate could be favored with weaker, more labile trialkylphosphine ligands (path a) that enable a free coordination site on the metal center upon dissociation. The empty coordination site could allow coordination of the alkyne followed by transmetalation and reductive elimination to yield the alkenylboronate product. Alternatively, more strongly coordinating, non-labile NHC ligands prevent cyclization by perturbing alkyne coordination and thereby promote direct transmetalation resulting the allylboronate product.

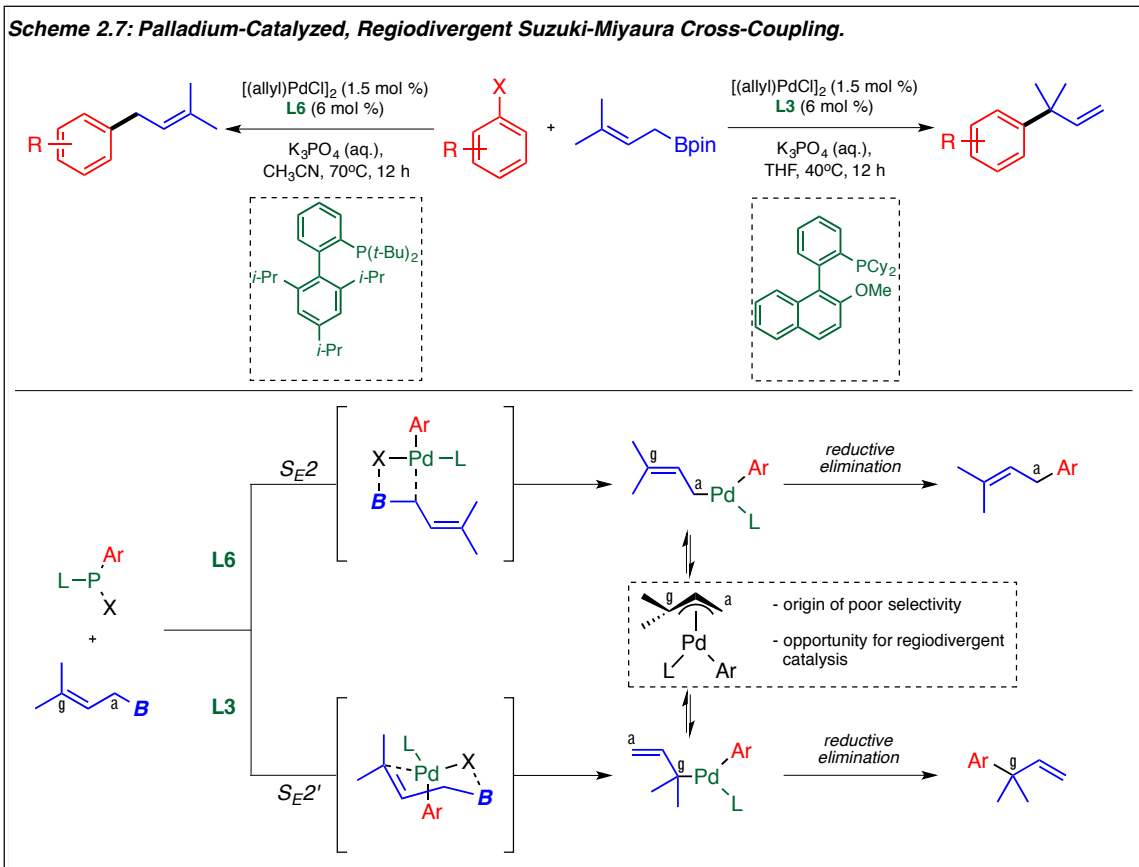


In 2014, and subsequent reports in 2015, Hall and coworkers reported a regiodivergent Suzuki-Miyaura cross-coupling to produce 2- and 4-substituted dihydropyrans and dehydropiperidines (Scheme 2.6).^{10,11} As reported by Cárdenas, regioselective product formation was again attributed to the strength and steric environment about the coordinating ligand. For phosphine-based ligands, it was previously reported that the S_{E}' pathway is favored to generate intermediate **2.2 B**.^{12,13} Further, use of more weakly coordinating trialkylphosphine ligands was reported to promote the σ - π - σ interconversion from intermediate **2.2 B** to the more stabilized

heteroatom conjugated σ -bond palladium(II) species **2.2 D** prior to reductive elimination to form the α -arylated product.¹⁰ In contrast, more electron-rich and sterically bulky SPhos promotes rapid reductive elimination of the arylated palladium intermediate **2.2 B** to yield the γ -arylated product.



Lastly, most recently in 2016, Buchwald further expanded the known methods of regiodivergent Suzuki-Miyaura cross-coupling reactions to yield both substituted linear and branched prenyl functionalities (Scheme 2.7).¹⁴ Initially, it was proposed, and eventually supported, that optimal product selectivity could be achieved by minimizing the σ - π - σ interconversion of palladium-bound intermediates through the employment of strongly coordinating ligands. Further, bias for a 6-membered transition-state could be favored with smaller ligands to yield the branched product while more sterically bulky ligands would disfavor the 6-membered transition-state to yield the linear isomer.



The above examples display methods in which both steric and electronic characteristics of the ligand are utilized to promote selective product formation. Such strategies can be invaluable to further predict substrate reactivity and potentially reveal alternative reaction pathways for new product formations.

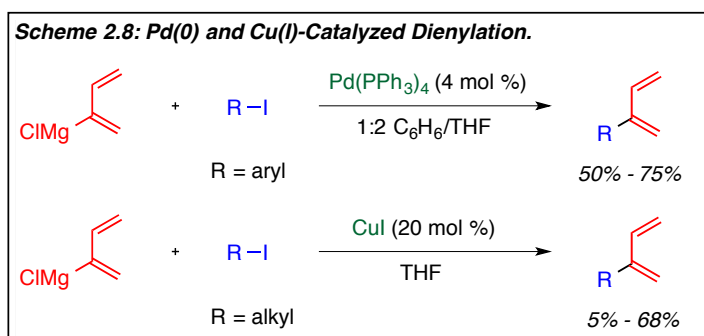
2.3 Synthetic Significance and General Synthetic Methods that Yield 1,3-Butadiene Motifs:

Conjugated butadiene motifs are highly valuable synthetic targets for organic chemists. Much of their significance stems from their use as functional handles in total syntheses,^{15,16} syntheses of biologically active compounds¹⁷ and complex molecule syntheses.^{18,19} Specifically, conjugated butadienes are known to undergo versatile and highly utilized synthetic transformations such as

inter- and intramolecular Diels-Alder reactions,^{20,21,22,23} cycloadditions,^{24,25,26} hydrogenations,²⁷ Sharpless epoxidation,^{28,29} etc. Further, 1,3-dienes themselves are prevalent sub-structural motifs in natural products,^{30,31,32} biologically active pharmaceuticals,³³ and materials.³⁴

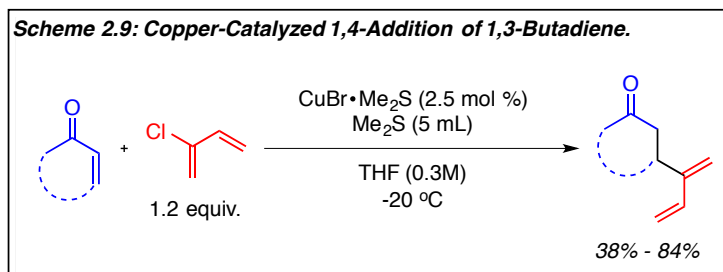
In general, current synthetic methods to synthesize 1,3-dienes rely heavily on transition metal-catalyzed cross-coupling reactions,³⁵ transformations from allene derivatives,³⁶ olefination reactions,³⁷ or cyclization reactions.³⁸ However, very few methods utilize the direct cross-coupling of butadiene synthons for diene incorporation. Furthermore, methods that report direct butadiene cross-coupling often require pre-formed organometallic or organoborane reagents and produce a large amount of waste. A brief summary of butadiene coupling methods will be presented in the following.

In 1981, Nunomoto, Kawakami, and Yamashita reported the dienylation of aryl and alkyl iodides with palladium tetrakis and copper iodide respectively (Scheme 2.8).^{35g} However, the presented method suffered from a very limited substrate scope of both alkyl and aryl iodides. Further, the method also suffered from low to moderate isolated yields and some substrate dependent polymerization was also reported. Lastly, the presented methods were limited to aryl or alkyl-iodides and were incompatible with bromo- and chloro- derivatives.

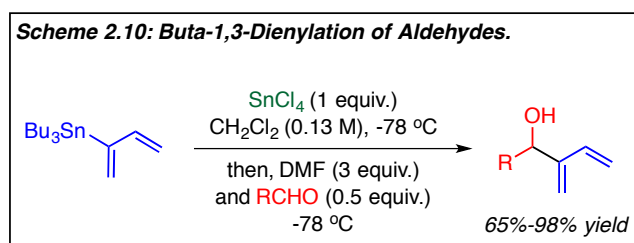


Two-years later in 1983, Shea and Pham reported an expansion of the substrate scope of 1,3-dienylation to selective 1,4-addition of α,β -unsaturated ketones along with cross-coupling of alkyl bromides and alkyl tosylates (Scheme 2.9).^{35h} Unlike previous observations, the authors

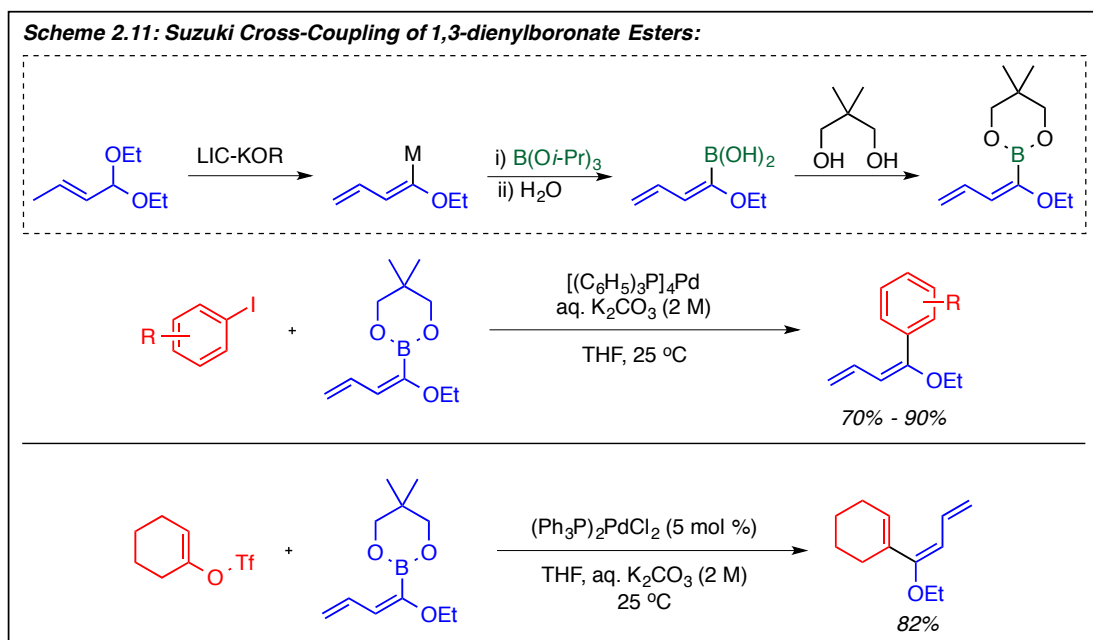
report that selective dienylation occurred without contamination by the allene isomer. However, in general, product yields remained low to moderate and extended reaction times of 24-48 hours were required for successful 1,3-dienylation of alkyl bromides or tosylates.



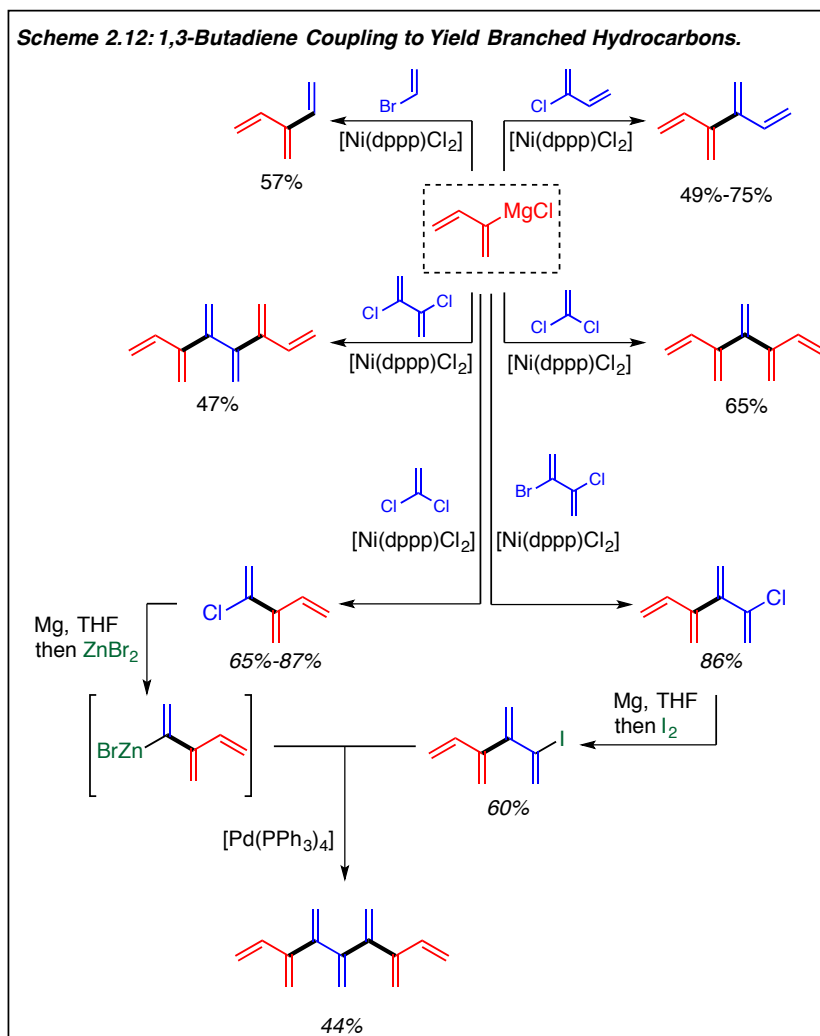
Alternatively, in 1999, Hatakeyama and coworkers reported the use of tributylstannylbuta-1,3-diene in the dienylation of aldehyde derivatives (Scheme 2.10).³⁵ⁱ Although the reaction appeared to be selective, high yielding and could be conducted at room temperature, a stoichiometric amount of SnCl_4 was required to generate the homoallenyl intermediate required for subsequent 1,3-dienylation. Further, along with the narrow scope of alkyl and aryl aldehydes, tin reagents are toxic which promotes the development of more amiable reaction conditions.



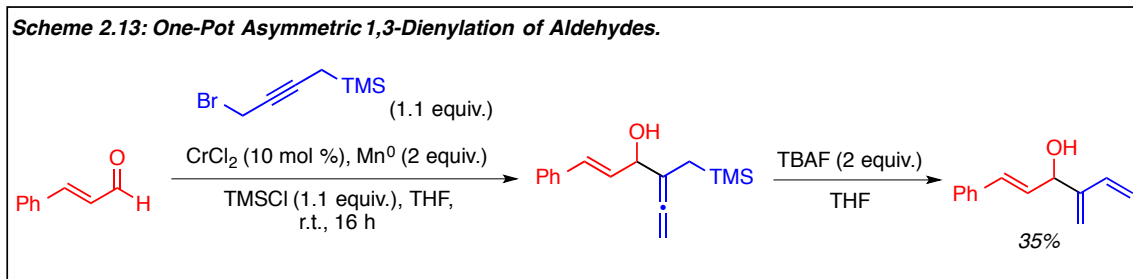
As an alternative, subsequent studies conducted by Venturello revealed that 1,3-dienylboronate esters could be used in the Suzuki cross-coupling of aryl or alkenyl iodides, bromides, chlorides and triflates (Scheme 2.11).^{35d} In general, the developed method produced the 1,3-dienylated aryl species in moderate yields except for reactions of aryl chlorides which produced low yields of products.



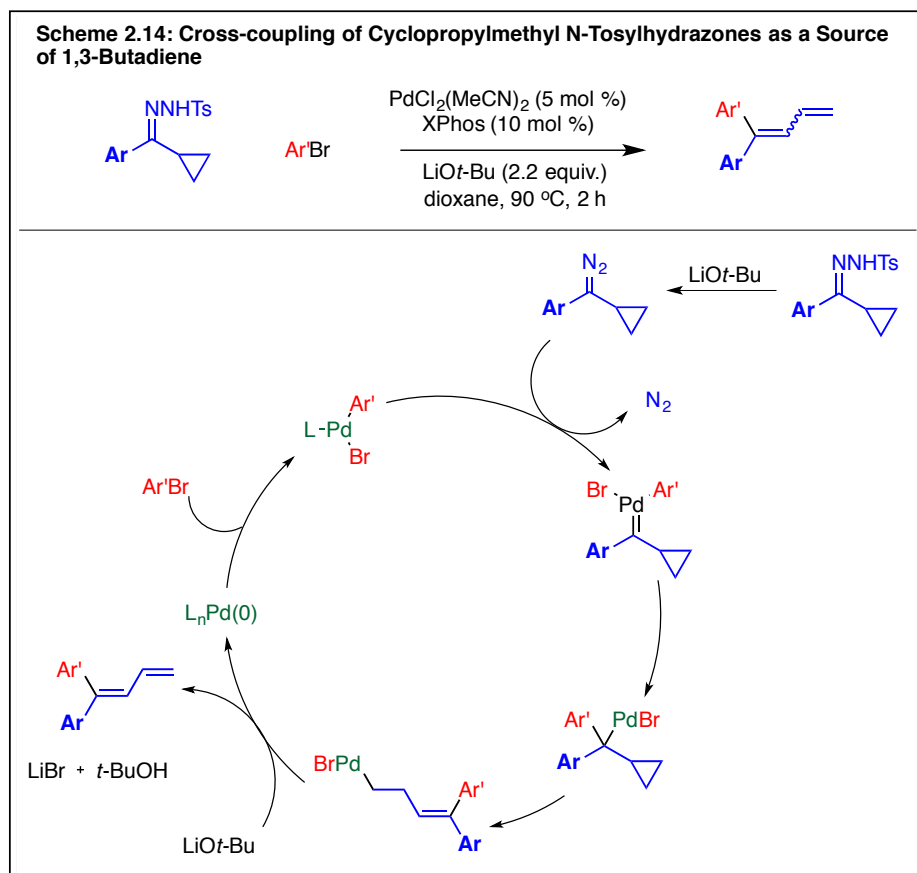
Similarly, Sherburn and Paddon-Row reported the utility of both the Kumada-Tamao-Corriu reaction and the Negishi reaction in the coupling of 1,3-dienes to efficiently synthesize dendralene hydrocarbons (Scheme 2.12).^{35f} Specifically, these coupling methods provided a synthetic route to produce branched hydrocarbons in moderate yields and high selectivity as opposed to previously utilized methods. However, despite the obvious importance of these coupling reactions, one drawback lies in the production of a stoichiometric amount of metal waste along with the necessity for preformed organometallic species.



In attempt to circumvent the requirement of preformed organometallic compounds and expand the functional group tolerance of 1,3-dienylation methods, Connell and coworkers reported the asymmetric 1,3-dienylation of aldehyde derivatives from propargylic halides (Scheme 2.13).^{36a} However, the method suffers from numerous inefficiencies compared to the previous presented methods. Although it does not require preformed organometallic compounds, successful dienylation occurs over a two-step process in which stoichiometric and super-stoichiometric amounts of numerous additives are employed. Further, attempts to develop a one-pot procedure resulted in low yields of the desired product.



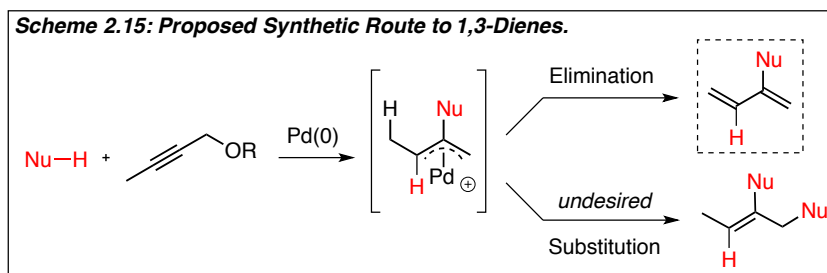
Alternatively, in 2013 Yu and coworkers reported the use of cyclopropylmethyl *N*-tosylhydrazones as butadiene surrogates in the palladium(0)-catalyzed 1,3-dienylation of aryl and heteroaryl motifs (Scheme 2.14).^{35c} Their protocol bypasses the need for pre-formed organometallic species and occurs in one-step with moderate to high overall yields of the desired product. However, the method is limited to unsubstituted cyclopropyl rings and requires superstoichiometric amounts of base. Further, in general, isolated products are formed with poor E/Z selectivity.



2.4 Development of Regiodivergent Synthesis of 1,3-Dienes

Current synthetic methods that achieve the direct cross-coupling of butadiene synthons rely heavily on pre-formed organometallic or organoborane reagents. Consequently, these methods lack step-economy and produce a significant amount of waste. Therefore, it would be useful to develop alternative methods to cross-couple 1,3-dienyl motifs via reaction of readily available starting materials under mild reaction conditions, while minimizing overall byproduct formation. To address this need, we hypothesized that propargyl carbonates could serve as diene electrophiles if, after mono-substitution to generate a palladium π -allyl intermediate,^{39,40,41} elimination occurred instead of the more common attack by a second nucleophile (Scheme 2.15).⁴² This method would provide facile access to 1,3-dienes in an atom and step economic

fashion via the formal coupling of an electrophilic 1,3-diene synthon. To the best of our knowledge, the use of a propargyl carbonate as a source of butadiene electrophile for cross-coupling has not been reported.⁴³



Given our experience with allylic alkylations of acetonitriles,⁴⁴ our optimization studies began by examining the effects of palladium catalyst, ligand, and solvent on the cross-coupling of methyl propargyl carbonate with commercially available diphenyl acetonitrile (Table 2.1). Initially, reaction conditions that previously provided high yields for allylation of tertiary acetonitriles with allylic alcohols were employed (entry 1).^{44b} Under these conditions, GC/MS analysis revealed the formation of three isomeric products. Upon isolation and characterization of each product, it was confirmed that the major products were the 1,3-dienyl and propargyl isomers, with only minor formation of the allene. In order to optimize reaction conversion, we next conducted a solvent screen, which revealed that polar, aprotic solvents provided optimal conversion (entry 1, 3) compared to non-polar solvents (entries 2, 17, 18). In an attempt to determine the ligand effect on product ratios, several bidentate ligands were examined (entries 4-9). Excitingly, (diphenylphosphino)ethane (dppe) displayed optimal selectivity for the 1,3-diene product (entry 5). This result was in sharp contrast to previous accounts that report cyclization,⁴³ *bis*-addition,⁴² or allenylation⁴⁵ as the major products arising from palladium-catalyzed substitution of propargylic carbonates using bidentate ligands.^{45m46}

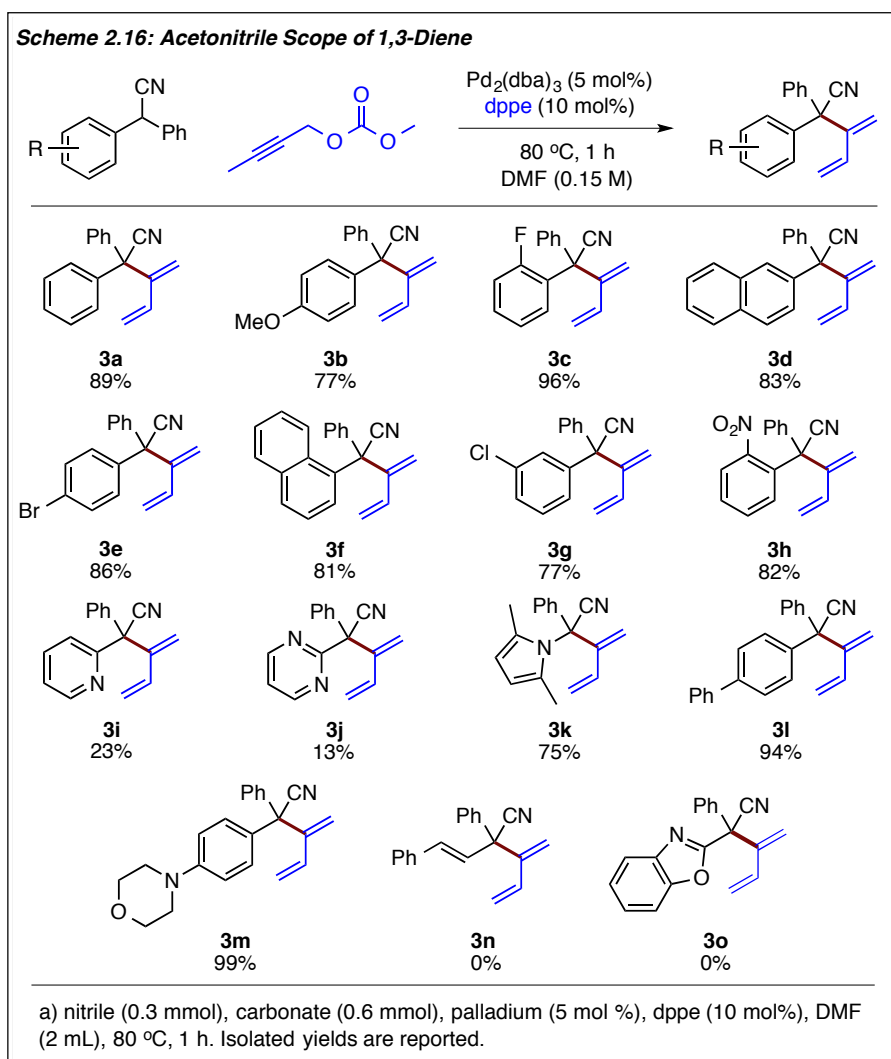
Table 2.1: Optimization of Reaction Conditions:

entry ^a	catalyst	ligand	solvent	1a ^b	allene ^b	diene ^b	propargyl ^b
1	Pd(PPh ₃) ₄	--	DMSO	26	3	40	31
2	Pd(PPh ₃) ₄	--	THF	62	1	15	22
3	Pd(PPh ₃) ₄	--	DMF	3	0	55	39
4	Pd ₂ (dba) ₃	dppm	CH ₃ CN	28	4	42	27
5	Pd₂(dba)₃	dppe	CH₃CN	3	0	94	3
6	Pd ₂ (dba) ₃	dppp	CH ₃ CN	5	0	87	8
7	Pd ₂ (dba) ₃	dppb	CH ₃ CN	2	0.2	85	13
8	Pd ₂ (dba) ₃	dppf	CH ₃ CN	1	0.5	74	24
9	Pd ₂ (dba) ₃	XantPhos	CH ₃ CN	1	11	7	31
10	Pd ₂ (dba) ₃	rac-BINAP	CH ₃ CN	4	0.5	70	24
11 ^c	Pd ₂ (dba) ₃	JohnPhos	CD ₃ CN	45	20	2	33
12 ^c	Pd ₂ (dba) ₃	tBu-MePhos	CD ₃ CN	22	29	2	47
13 ^c	Pd ₂ (dba) ₃	Cy-JohnPhos	CD ₃ CN	56	4	15	25
14 ^c	Pd ₂ (dba) ₃	MePhos	CD ₃ CN	11	3	19	67
15 ^c	Pd ₂ (dba) ₃	MePhos	DMSO-d ₆	51	5	9	35
16^c	Pd₂(dba)₃	MePhos	d-DMF	43	3	7	47
17 ^c	Pd ₂ (dba) ₃	MePhos	toluene-d ₈	87	6	0.3	6
18 ^c	Pd ₂ (dba) ₃	MePhos	1,4-dioxane	87	5	1	8
19	Pd ₂ (dba) ₃	MePhos	DMF	10	3	6	81
20	Pd ₂ (dba) ₃	dppe	DMF	3	0	95	2
21	Pd ₂ (dba) ₃	MePhos	DMF	10	3	6	81
22 ^d	Pd ₂ (dba) ₃	dppe	DMF	9	0	91	0
23 ^e	Pd ₂ (dba) ₃	dppe	CH ₃ CN	3	0	95	2
24^f	Pd₂(dba)₃	dppe	CH₃CN	1	0	98	1
25^g	Pd₂(dba)₃	MePhos	DMF	1	3	6	90
26 ^{f,g}	Pd ₂ (dba) ₃	--	DMF	--	--	--	--

a) diphenylacetonitrile (0.3 mmol), carbonate (0.3 mmol), catalyst (2.5 mol %), ligand (5 mol%), 0.15 M, 90 °C, 14 h. b) % conv. determined by GC/MS. c) diphenylacetonitrile (0.1 mmol), carbonate (0.1 mmol), reaction monitored by ¹H NMR spectroscopy. d) isolated yield 24%. e) 0.3 M f) 80 °C g) 0.6 mmol carbonate

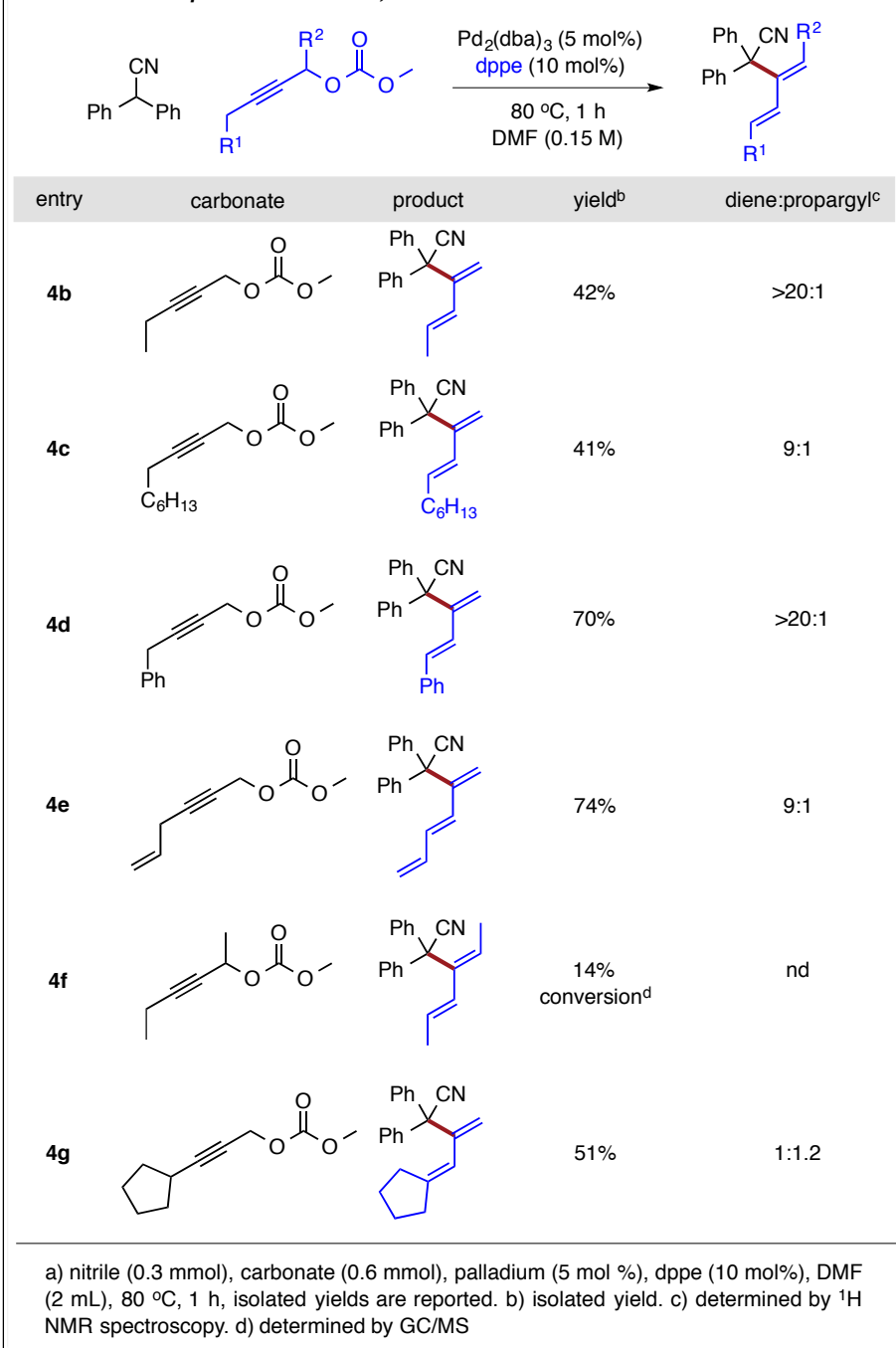
With the optimized reaction conditions established for 1,3-dienylation of diphenylacetonitrile, we next evaluated the scope of α,α -diaryl acetonitrile derivatives in the substitution of methyl propargyl carbonate to synthesize 1,3-dienes (Scheme 2.16).⁴⁷ A variety of unsymmetric diarylacetonitrile reactants with electron-donating or withdrawing substituents provided product in good to excellent yields (**3b**, **3c**, **3h**, **3m**). Further, *meta*-chloro and *para*-bromo substituted arenes, which can be prone to other coupling reactions, were well tolerated (**3g**,

3e). Notably, a variety of substitution patterns were tolerated and even increased steric bulk at the *ortho*-position did not hinder product formation (**3c**, **3f**, **3h**). Unfortunately, basic heteroaryl moieties, while requiring reduced reaction time, lead to poor isolated yields (**3i**, **3j**). In contrast, the non-basic heteroaromatic 1,5-(dimethyl)pyrrole reactant provided product in good yield, as did arene substituents that contained extended conjugation (**3d**, **3f**, **3k**). Lastly, styrene and benzoxazole derivatives were unsuccessful and only degradation of the starting material was observed (**3n**, **3o**).



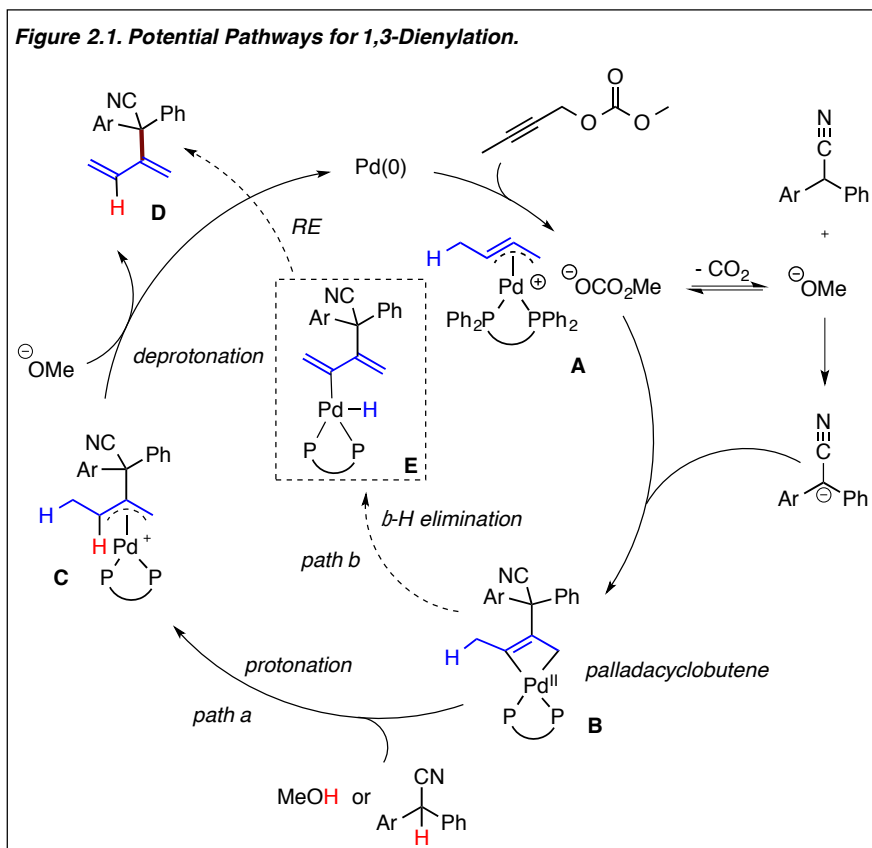
With the functional group tolerance evaluated for the acetonitrile reaction component, other propargylic carbonates were examined to see if they could be used to form substituted diene products (Scheme 2.17). It was found that nucleophilic substitution of a terminally substituted ethyl or heptyl propargylic carbonate resulted in decreased isolated yields (**4b**, **4c**) compared to the model substrate **3a**. However, terminally substituted benzyl propargylic carbonate produced the substituted 1,3-diene product in moderate yield (**4d**). In attempt to access more intricate triene functionalities, an allyl substituent was utilized at the terminus of the propargylic carbonate, and the resulting triene was isolated in good yield (**4e**). Unfortunately, both terminal carbocyclic substituents along with internal alkyl substituents on the propargylic carbonate significantly hindered product formation (**4f-4g**).

Scheme 2.17: Scope of Substituted 1,3-Dienes.

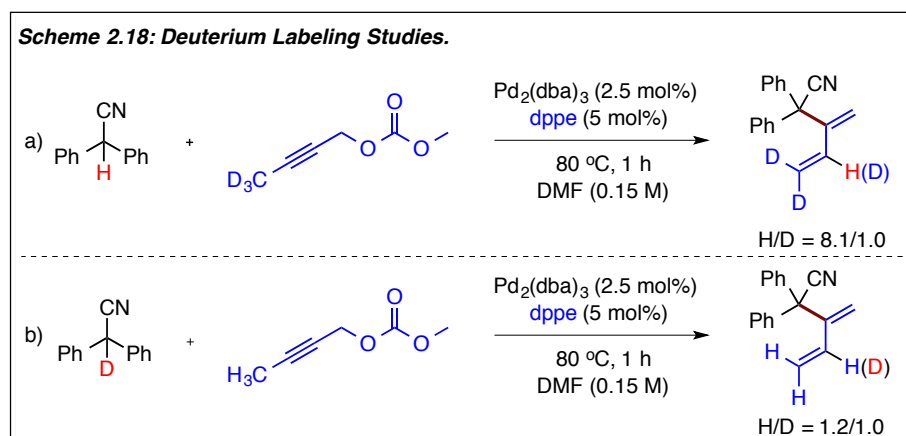


Fueled by the selective formation of the terminal 1,3-diene analogues, we next examined the potential pathways that could give rise to dienylation. It has been reported that palladium catalysts, in the presence of bidentate ligands, favor oxidative addition to form an η^3 -propargyl

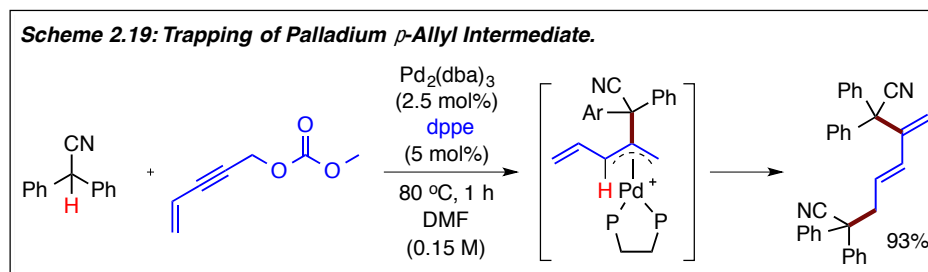
palladium intermediate.^{41,48} Further, outer-sphere nucleophilic attack of η^3 -propargyl palladium species often occurs exclusively at the center carbon.⁴⁹ Therefore, we envisioned that 1,3-dienylation could arise via two potential mechanistic pathways (Figure 2.1). In both cases, initial oxidative addition of the propargylic carbonate and subsequent loss of CO₂ would yield an η^3 -propargyl palladium intermediate along with methoxide. Next, deprotonation of the pronucleophile would promote nucleophilic attack at the center carbon of the palladium intermediate to generate the corresponding palladacyclobutene (**B**).⁵⁰ If the mechanism proceeds via *path a*, protonation could occur from either methanol or nitrile, leading to π -allyl palladium intermediate **C**. Base-induced elimination would regenerate the palladium(0) catalyst and yield the 1,3-diene product.^{51,52} Alternatively, β -hydride elimination from the palladacycle **B** could produce intermediate **E** followed by reductive elimination of the 1,3-diene product.



To determine which pathway is more likely, two isotopic labeling experiments were performed (Scheme 2.18). The terminally deuterated propargylic carbonate produced product with an 8.1:1.0 H/D ratio at the internal carbon of the diene as determined by ^1H NMR spectroscopy (Scheme 2.18a). A similar reaction that coupled deuterated diphenyl acetonitrile with protio methyl propargyl carbonate resulted in an H/D ratio of 1.2/1.0 (Scheme 2.18b). The differing ratios result from a primary KIE for protonation combined with the competitive protonation from nitrile and liberated methanol. These results are inconsistent with a mechanism involving β -hydride elimination/reductive elimination. Thus, we favor *path a* which involves protonation of the palladacyclobutene to form π -allyl palladium intermediate **C**.



In attempt to trap a putative π -allyl intermediate, the palladium-catalyzed acetonitrile cross-coupling was performed with a propargylic carbonate that was unable to undergo elimination (Scheme 2.19). The observation of bis-substituted 1,3-diene product in 93% yield supports the kinetic feasibility of the formation of a π -allyl palladium intermediate required for *path a*.



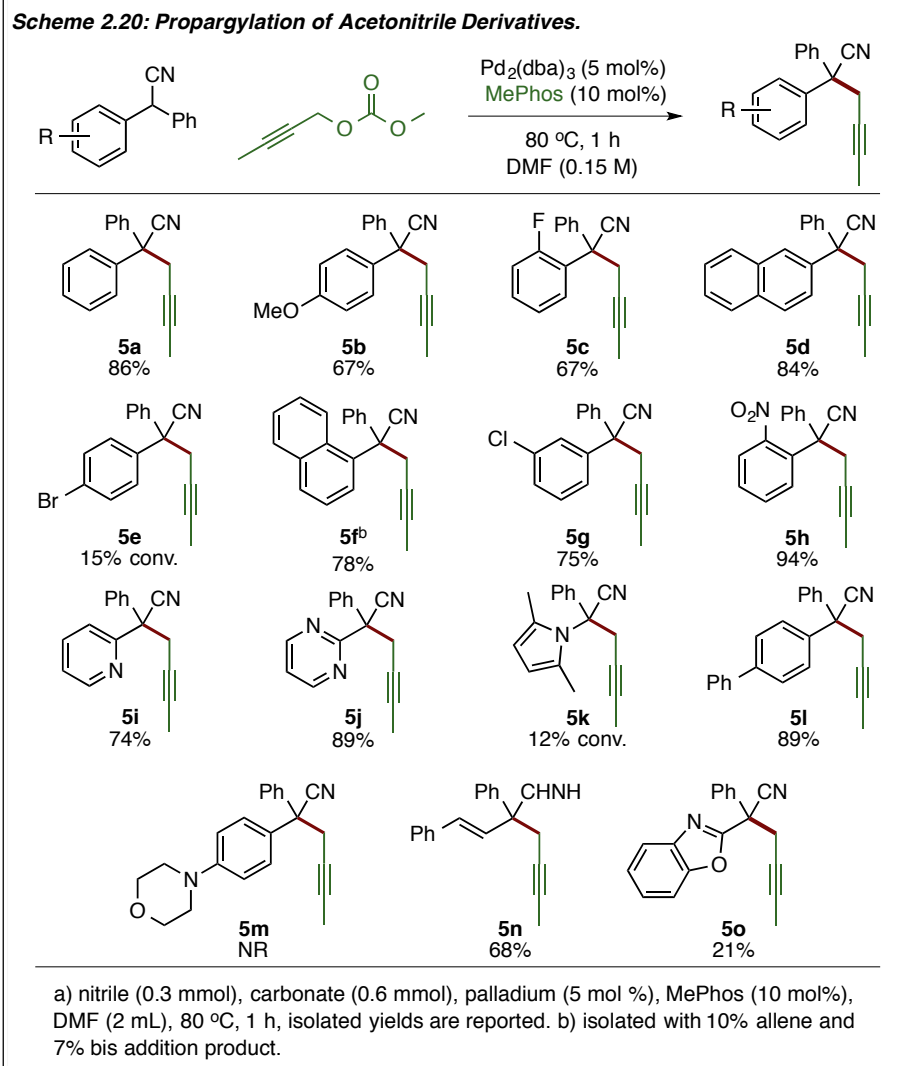
2.5 Development of Regiodivergent Synthesis of Propargylated Diaryl Acetonitrile Derivatives

As discussed previously, palladium-catalyzed substitution of methyl propargyl carbonate with α, α -diaryl acetonitrile pronucleophiles selectively forms 1,3-dienyl products in the presence of bidentate ligand dppe. During our reaction optimization studies, a change from bidentate (dppe) to monodentate (MePhos) ligand was accompanied by a switch in selectivity from the 1,3-dienyl isomer to the propargyl isomer under otherwise identical reaction conditions (Table 2.1). The development of palladium-catalyzed substitution of propargylic carbonates to selectively yield propargylated nucleophiles would not only expand on the limited strategies known for catalytic propargylation from internal propargylic electrophiles,⁵³ but also allow for a regiodivergent synthesis of 1,3-dienyl and propargyl acetonitrile derivatives solely by altering the denticity of the coordinating ligand.

Classically, the Nicholas reaction has been utilized as a method for propargylation utilizing propargylic alcohol reactants. Despite this, its utility has been limited by the requirement for stoichiometric organometallic reagents.⁵⁴ Recent focus on propargylation has been concentrated on the development of alternative methods using catalytic transition metals. For example, propargylic alkylation using internal propargylic carbonates was only recently reported by Iazzetti in 2015.⁵⁵ However, the reaction is limited to highly stabilized Meldrum's acid-like nucleophiles. Most other cases report palladium-catalyzed nucleophilic substitution of

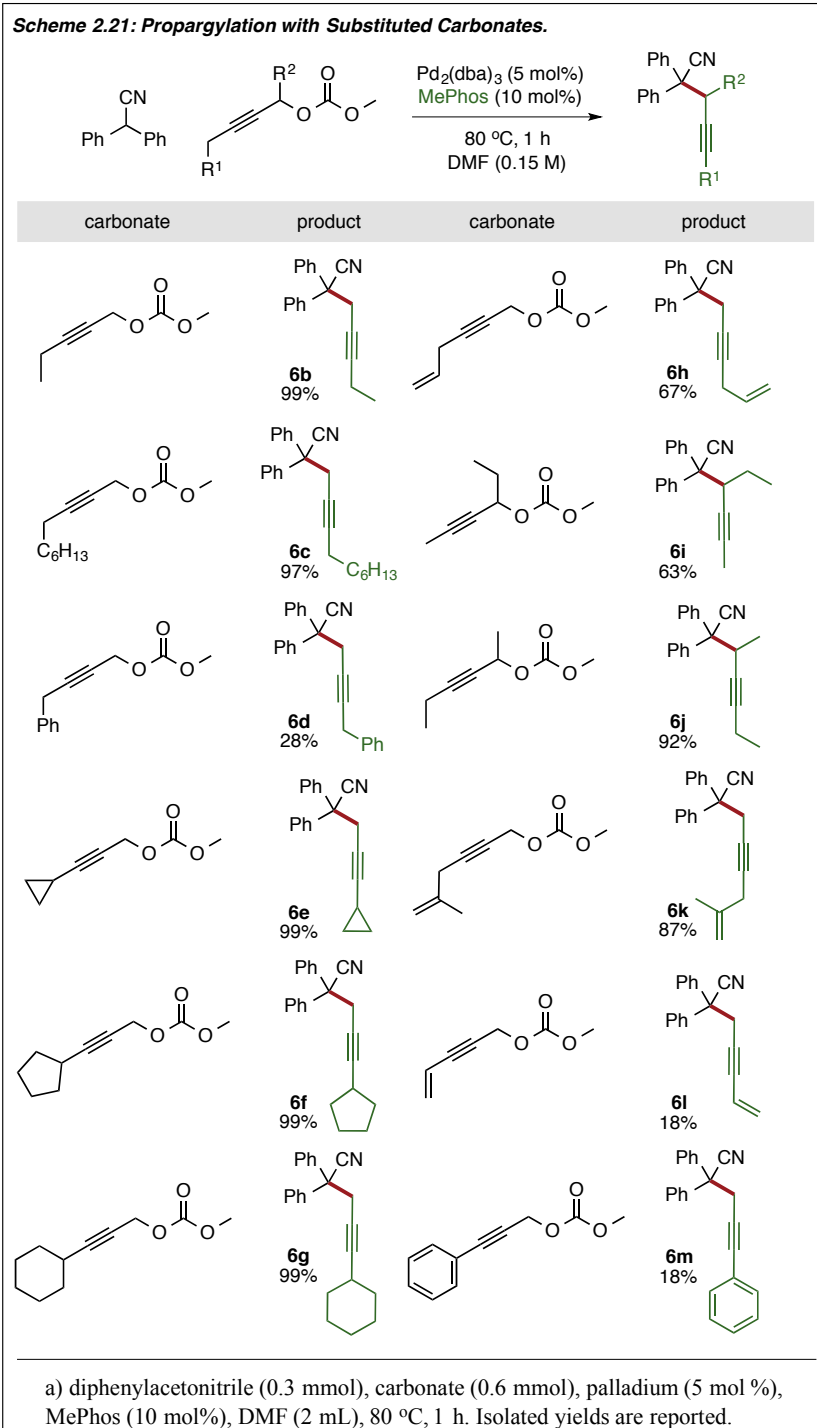
propargylic carbonates that result in cycloaddition^{42b,56} or formation of allene⁴⁵ derivatives. The method outlined herein aims to expand the scope of palladium-catalyzed propargylation to weakly acidic α,α -diaryl acetonitrile motifs that give rise to functionalized quaternary diarylmethane products.

Beginning with the same optimized reaction conditions developed for the 1,3-dienylation method, we merely changed the coordinating ligand from bidentate dppe to monodentate MePhos and evaluated the scope of diarylacetonitriles that undergo propargylation (Scheme 2.20). Analogous to results of 1,3-diene syntheses, the propargylation of acetonitriles containing 1-naphthyl, 2-naphthyl and *para*-substituted biphenyl derivatives provided very good yields without being influenced by steric hindrance (**5a**, **5d**, **5f**, **5l**). When *para*-methoxy, *ortho*-fluoro and *meta*-chloro-substituted phenyl rings were screened, all corresponding products were obtained in moderate-good isolated yields (**5b**, **5c**, **5g**). Altering the *ortho*-substituent to a nitro moiety resulted in an excellent isolated yield of 94% (**5h**). In contrast to their poor reactivity for dienylation, heterocyclic pyridine and pyrimidine derivatives were tolerated under the general reaction conditions and resulted in good isolated yields (**5i**, **5j**). However, when the heterocycle was changed to a benzoxazole functionality, a dramatic decrease in yield was observed (**5o**, Scheme 8). A styrene derivative proceeded smoothly to the propargylated product albeit slightly lower yield compared to the polycyclic and bicyclic analogues (**5n**). Lastly, a *para*-morpholine substituted acetonitrile failed to undergo reaction (**5m**).

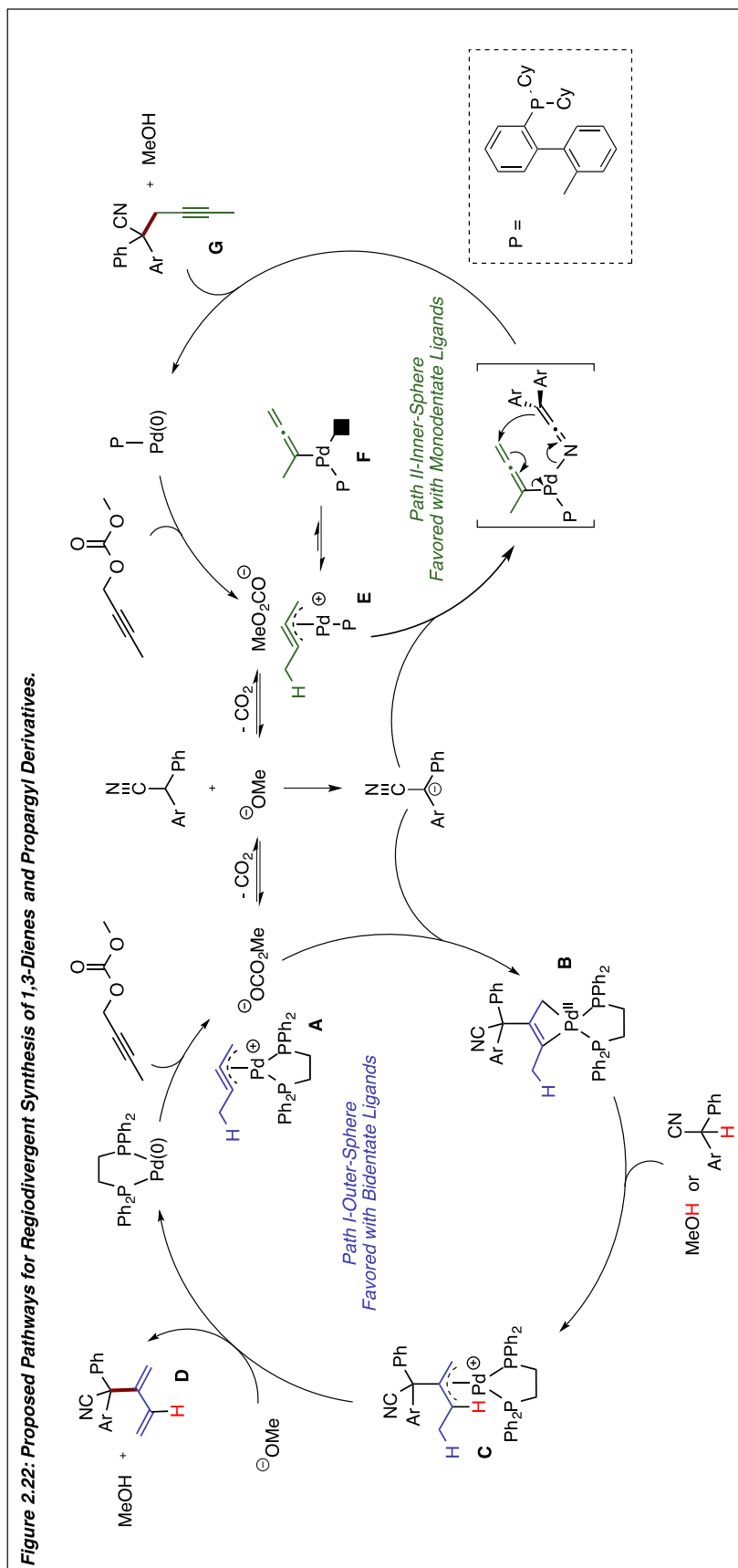


With the propargylation of various diaryl acetonitrile substrates examined, we next sought to apply our propargylation method to substituted propargylic carbonates (Scheme 2.21). Nucleophilic substitution of terminally substituted ethyl or heptyl propargylic carbonates was well tolerated (**6b**, **6c**). However, a decrease in isolated yield was observed with using a benzyl propargylic carbonate (**6d**). Gratifyingly, excellent isolated yields were obtained from propargylic carbonates that are terminally substituted by carbocycles (**6e-6g**). Further, allyl and internally substituted methyl and ethyl propargylic carbonates resulted in moderate-high isolated yields of

the propargylated products (**6h**, **6i**, **6j**, **6k**). Unfortunately, vinyl and phenyl propargylic carbonates were not well-tolerated under the standard reaction conditions (**6l**, **6m**).



Having studied the synthetic scope of the dienylation and propargylation reactions, we aimed to convert our observation of denticity-dependent regioselectivity into a more formal mechanistic hypothesis. Beginning with Pd(0) and monodentate MePhos, we propose that oxidative addition of the propargylic carbonate would initially favor a cationic η^3 -propargyl palladium intermediate **E** similar to intermediate **A** in the dienylation pathway (Figure 2.22). Contrary to bidentate ligand dppe, which forces outer-sphere nucleophilic attack of the activated nitrile, we propose that the mono-coordination of the MePhos ligand provides an open coordination site for binding of the activated nitrile.^{44a,57} Binding of an anionic ligand has been observed to typically favor the η^1 -allenyl species (in this case **G**).^{41,48,52} Subsequent inner-sphere nucleophilic attack at the terminal allenyl carbon could then occur to provide the propargylated product.^{44a,57}



2.6 Conclusion

In conclusion, we report the regiodivergent synthesis of substituted 1,3-dienyl and propargyl quarternary diaryl methanes. We propose that regioselective nucleophilic substitution to palladium-bound intermediates occurs through two distinct reaction mechanisms that are controlled by the denticity of the ligand. Bidentate ligands block coordination of the nitrile nucleophile, favoring outer-sphere attack of the nucleophile, leading to dienylation. In contrast, a monodentate ligand allows coordination of the nucleophile to palladium, resulting in propargylation via inner sphere nucleophilic attack.

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Chapter 2. Appendix

Experimental Methods and Spectral Analysis for Chapter 2 Compounds

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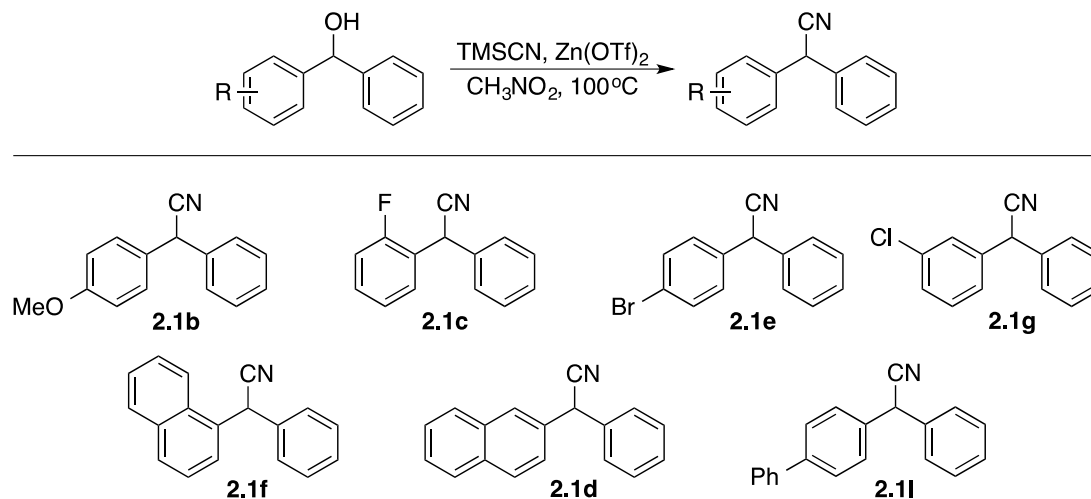
General Information:

Purified compounds, unless otherwise stated, were obtained by column chromatography using 60 Å porosity, 230 x 400 mesh standard grade silica gel from Sorbent Technologies. TLC analysis was performed on silica gel HL TLC plates w/UV254 from Sorbent Technologies. Gas chromatography/mass spectrometry data was obtained using a Shimadzu GCMS-QP2010 SE. NMR spectra were obtained on a Bruker Advance 500 DRX equipped with a QNP cryoprobe. ¹H and ¹³C spectra were normalized using residual undeuterated solvent signals as a reference (CDCl₃ = 7.28 ppm for ¹H and 77.36 ppm for ¹³C).¹ ¹⁹F NMR spectra were referenced to α,α,α-trifluorotoluene (purchased from Sigma Aldrich) at -62.7 ppm.

N,N-Dimethylformamide (DMF) and nitromethane were purchased from Sigma Aldrich and stored in a glove box. Dichloromethane (DCM), tetrahydrofuran (THF), and toluene were either purified by an Innovative Technology Pure Solv™ solvent purification system or purchased from Sigma Aldrich and stored in a glove box. Tris(dibenzylideneacetone)dipalladium(0) (Pd₂(dba)₃) was purchased from Strem as were ethylenebis(diphenylphosphine) (dppe) and 2-dicyclohexylphosphino-2'-methylbiphenyl (MePhos). All were stored in a glove box. Diphenylacetonitrile was purchased from Sigma Aldrich and used without further purification.

Synthesis of Starting Materials

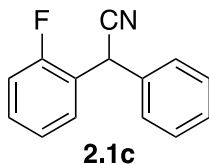
Acetonitrile **2.1b**,^{2,3} **2.1c**, **2.1d**,⁴ **2.1e**,² **2.1f**, **2.1g** and **2.1h**:



General Procedure for direct cyanation of benzylic alcohols in the synthesis of diaryl nitriles

2.1b-2.1g and 2.1h: In a glove box under an argon atmosphere, an oven or flame dried 20 mL Biotage microwave vial (#355458) equipped with a magnetic stir bar was charged with benzylic alcohol (2 mmol), $\text{Zn}(\text{OTf})_2$ (0.11 g, 0.3 mmol, 15 mol %), and CH_3NO_2 (20 mL, 10 M) then sealed and removed. TMSCN (0.24 g, 2.4 mmol, 1.2 eq) was then added using a syringe before heating the vessel at 100°C overnight. The mixture was diluted with distilled water (100 mL) and extracted into ethyl acetate (50 mL x 2) and washed with brine (20 mL). The organic layer was dried over sodium sulfate and concentrated before purification by column chromatography in a gradient of 5% - 10% ethyl acetate in hexanes.

Characterization of 2.1c:



Yield: .36 g, 1.7 mmol, 85%

Appearance: off-white solid

¹H NMR Spectra (500 MHz, CDCl₃): δ 7.77 (td, *J* = 7.6, 1.8 Hz, 1H), 7.68 (m, 6H), 7.51 (td, *J* = 7.5, 1.2 Hz, 1H), 7.42 (ddd, *J* = 9.7, 8.2, 1.2 Hz, 1H), 5.77 (s, 1H).

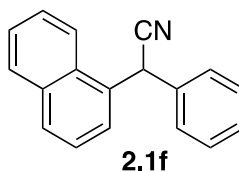
¹³C NMR Spectra (126 MHz, CDCl₃): δ 160.00 (d, *J* = 248.5 Hz), 135.01, 130.72 (d, *J* = 8.2 Hz), 129.60 (d, *J* = 2.7 Hz), 129.55, 128.70, 127.83 (d, *J* = 1.3 Hz), 125.28 (d, *J* = 3.6 Hz), 123.78 (d, *J* = 13.9 Hz), 119.19, 116.37 (d, *J* = 21.2 Hz), 36.42 (d, *J* = 4.0 Hz).

¹⁹F NMR Spectra (376 MHz, CDCl₃): δ -117.2 (s, 1F).

HRMS: [M-H]⁻ calcd for C₁₄H₁₀FN: 210.0719. Found: 210.0740.

IR: 3087, 3064, 3031, 2246, 1589, 1492, 1456, 1236, 1093, 1031, 804, 756, 725, 696cm⁻¹

Characterization of 2.1f:



ref. 5

Yield: 0.48 g, 1.97 mmol, 98%

Appearance: white solid

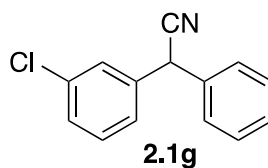
¹H NMR Spectra (500 MHz, CDCl₃): δ 7.92 (m, 3H), 7.66 (m, 1H), 7.53 (m, 3H), 7.36 (m, 5H), 5.86 (s, 1H).

¹³C NMR (126 MHz, CDCl₃): δ 135.58, 134.47, 131.11, 130.64, 129.89, 129.53, 129.49, 128.61, 128.12, 127.51, 127.38, 126.56, 125.77, 123.38, 120.08, 77.61, 40.25.

HRMS: [M]⁺ calcd for C₁₈H₁₃N: 243.1048. Found: 243.1052.

IR: 3085, 3062, 2962, 2927, 2904, 2632, 2416, 2358, 2331, 2241, 1681, 1650, 1625, 1598, 1512, 1494, 1454, 1396, 1159, 1029, 862, 796, 775, 750, 725, 696, 642, 561 cm⁻¹

Characterization of 2.1g:



ref. 6

Yield: 26 mg, 1.12 mmol, 28%

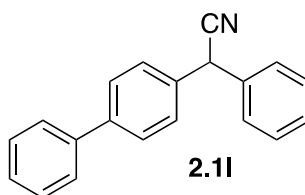
Appearance: dark yellow oil

¹H NMR Spectra (500 MHz, CDCl₃): δ 7.37 (m, 9H), 5.13 (s, 1H).

¹³C NMR Spectra (126 MHz, CDCl₃): δ 137.82, 135.18, 130.54, 129.46, 128.66, 128.65, 127.98, 127.79, 125.98, 119.15, 42.30.

HRMS: [M+H]⁺ calcd for C₁₄H₁₀ClN: 228.0580. Found: 228.0598.

Characterization of 2.1l:



Yield: 0.38 g, 1.4 mmol, 48%

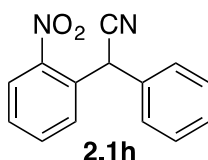
Appearance: white solid

¹H NMR Spectra (500 MHz, CDCl₃): δ 7.60 (m, 4H), 7.43 (m, 10H), 5.21 (s, 1H).

^{13}C NMR (126 MHz, CDCl_3): δ 141.61, 140.49, 136.16, 135.16, 129.60, 129.20, 128.66, 128.48, 128.24, 128.09, 128.00, 127.44, 119.99, 42.66.

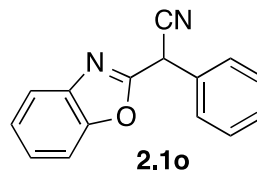
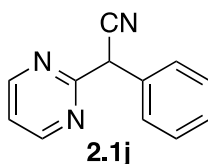
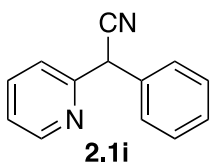
HRMS: $[\text{M}+\text{H}]^+$ calcd for $\text{C}_{20}\text{H}_{15}\text{N}$: 270.1283. Found: 270.1307.

Preparation 2.1h:⁷



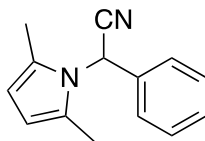
To a 50 mL round bottom flask equipped with a magnetic stir bar, 1-fluoro-2-nitrobenzene (0.7 g; 5 mmol), benzyl cyanide (0.6 g; 5 mmol), tetrabutylammonium bromide (1.6 g; 5 mmol), and toluene (21 mL) were added and allowed to stir for 10 min. Next, 50% w/w NaOH (2 mL, 2.5 M) was added to the solution and the mixture was stirred overnight at 50 °C. The mixture was diluted with toluene (15 mL) and washed with distilled water (50 mL x 3) and brine (20 mL) then dried using Na_2SO_4 . The purified product was obtained after column chromatography in 10 % - 20% ethyl acetate:hexane. Yield 0.42 g (35%). ^1H NMR (500 MHz, CDCl_3): δ 8.09 (dd, $J = 8.2, 1.4$ Hz, 1H), 7.74 (m, 2H), 7.58 (m, 1H), 7.37 (m, 5H), 6.20 (s, 1H). ^{13}C NMR (126 MHz, CDCl_3): δ 148.02, 134.51, 134.43, 131.31, 130.91, 130.05, 129.69, 129.08, 128.24, 126.15, 118.98, 38.66.

Synthesis of 2.1i,^{8,9} 2.1j,⁹ and 2.1o:¹⁰



General procedure for aryl chloride coupling with benzyl cyanide in the synthesis of 2.1i, 2.1j, 2.1o:⁶ In a 10 mL oven or flame dried Schlenk flask purged with argon, potassium hydroxide (KOH) (1.2 g, 20 mmol) and dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO) (2.5 mL) were added and stirred for 30 minutes. In a separate flask, benzyl cyanide (7.5 mmol, 0.89 g) was diluted with DMSO (1 mL) and the solution was added dropwise via syringe to the KOH mixture then stirred for 30 minutes. Aryl chloride was then added in portions and the mixture was stirred at room temperature overnight. Upon reaction completion, the vessel contents were poured into ice water (20 mL) and extracted into ethyl acetate (20 mL x 2) and washed with brine. The organic layer was dried over sodium sulfate and concentrated before purification by column chromatography with a gradient of 5%, 10%, 15% ethyl acetate:hexanes.

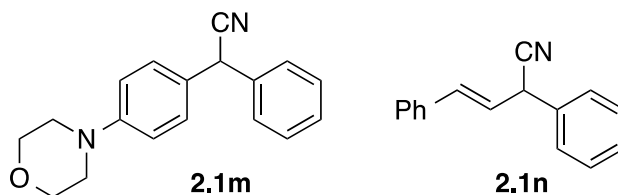
Synthesis of 2,5-dimethyl- α -phenyl-1H-Pyrrole-1-acetonitrile:¹¹



2.1k

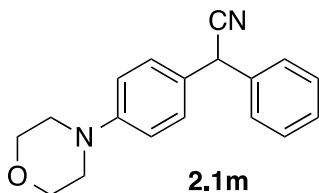
In a 50 mL round bottom flask, 2-amino-2-phenylacetonitrile (2.6 mmol, 0.34 g), hexane-2,5-dione (3.1 mmol, 0.35 g), and THF (13 mL) were added and stirred at room temperature for 5 minutes. Iodine (0.26 mmol, 0.076 g) was added to the solution and stirred overnight. The mixture was then diluted with ethyl acetate (30 mL) and washed with saturated $\text{Na}_2\text{S}_2\text{O}_3$ (20 mL) then NaHCO_3 (20 mL) and brine. The organic layer was then dried over sodium sulfate and concentrated. The crude product was purified by column chromatography in a gradient of 5% - 10% ethyl acetate:hexanes. Yield 77% (0.42 g). ^1H NMR (500 MHz, CDCl_3): δ 7.41 (m, 3H), 7.17 (m, 2H), 6.35 (s, 1H), 5.90 (s, 2H), 2.19 (s, 6H). ^{13}C NMR (126 MHz, CDCl_3): δ 133.82, 129.62, 129.37, 128.80, 125.80, 166.61, 108.05, 48.72, 13.30. HRMS: $[\text{M}+\text{H}]^+$ calcd for $\text{C}_{14}\text{H}_{14}\text{N}_2$: 211.1235. Found: 211.1233.

General procedure for the synthesis of Acetonitrile 2.1m and 2.1n.³



In an oven or flame dried 25 mL Schlenk flask a solution of indium(III) bromide (0.17 mmol, 0.06 g) and TMS-CN (3.4 mmol, 0.33 g) in DCM (4 mL) was stirred for 30 minutes. In a separate flask, the alcohol (1.7 mmol) was diluted with DCM (4 mL) and the solution was added dropwise to the InBr₃ mixture and stirred overnight. The reaction was quenched with distilled water (20 mL) and diluted with DCM (20 mL). The organic layer washed with distilled water (2 x 20 mL) then brine (20 mL). The crude product was dried over sodium sulfate and concentrated before purification by column chromatography in 5%, 10%, 15% ethyl acetate:hexane.

Characterization of 2-(4-morpholinophenyl)-2-phenylacetonitrile **2.1m**:



Yield: 53% (25 mg).

Appearance: orange solid

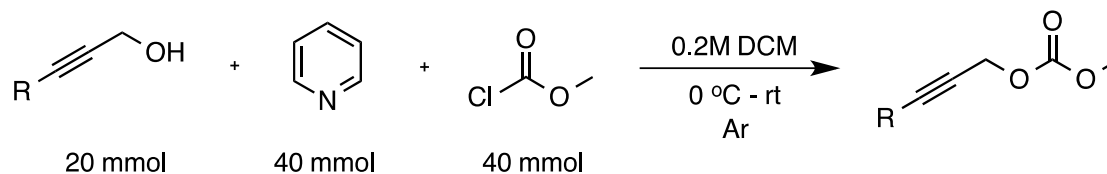
¹H NMR (500 MHz, CDCl₃): δ 7.37 (m, 5H), 7.25 (m, 2H), 6.90 (m, 2H), 5.10 (s, 1H), 3.87 (m, 4H), 3.17 (m, 4H).

¹³C NMR (126 MHz, CDCl₃): δ 151.34, 136.65, 129.45, 128.94, 128.43, 127.98, 127.13, 120.30, 116.13, 67.14, 49.21, 42.14,

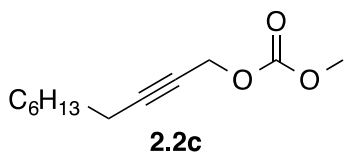
HRMS: [M+H] calcd for C₁₈H₁₈N₂O: 279.1497. Found: 279.1498.

IR: 2966, 2856, 2835, 2358, 1643, 1596, 1446, 1284, 1118, 923, 833, 740, 703, 644 cm⁻¹

Synthesis and Characterization of Propargyl Carbonates:



A 200 mL flame dried Schlenk flask was placed under an argon atmosphere and charged with propargyl alcohol (20 mmol) and DCM (100 mL) then stirred for 5 minutes at room temperature. Next, pyridine (3.3 mL, 40 mmol) was added to the solution and the mixture was stirred for 15 minutes. The solution was then cooled to 0 °C using an ice water bath followed by the dropwise addition of methyl chloroformate (3.3 mL, 40 mmol) over ten minutes. The resulting mixture was allowed to stir for 1 hour at 0 °C then warmed to room temperature and stirred for an additional hour. The reaction was quenched with a saturated solution of ammonium chloride (50 mL) and extracted into DCM (100 mL) and washed with water (50 mL x 3) then brine (100 mL x 1). The crude product was dried over sodium sulfate and concentrated before purification by column chromatography in 2-10% ethyl acetate in hexane. **2.2a**,^{12,14} **2b**,¹² **2i**,¹³ **2j**,¹⁴ **2m**.¹⁵



ref. 16

Yield: 0.25 g, 1.2 mmol, 60%

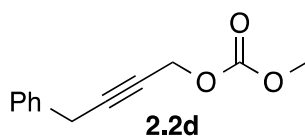
Appearance: clear liquid

¹H NMR (500 MHz, CDCl₃): δ 4.74 (t, *J* = 2.2 Hz, 2H), 3.82 (s, 3H), 2.23 (tt, *J* = 7.3, 2.2 Hz, 2H), 1.53 (m, 2H), 1.32 (m, 8H), 0.90 (t, *J* = 6.9 Hz, 3H).

¹³C NMR (126 MHz, CDCl₃): δ 155.66, 88.96, 73.64, 56.65, 55.36, 32.05, 29.13, 29.12, 28.67, 22.97, 19.09, 14.44.

GC/MS: *m/z* [M+H]⁺ calcd for C₁₂H₂₀O₃: 213.1; found: 213.1.

IR: 2956, 2929, 2858, 2235, 1755, 1444, 1377, 1261, 1151, 950, 790 cm⁻¹



Yield: 18 mg, 1 mmol, 33%

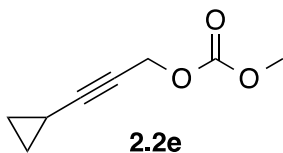
Appearance: clear liquid

¹H NMR (500 MHz, CDCl₃): δ 7.35 (m, 4H), 7.27 (m, 1H), 4.82 (t, *J* = 2.2 Hz, 2H), 3.83 (s, 3H), 3.67 (t, *J* = 2.2 Hz, 2H).

¹³C NMR (126 MHz, CDCl₃): δ 155.51, 136.14, 128.74, 128.08, 126.93, 85.98, 75.83, 56.31, 55.24, 25.25.

GC/MS: *m/z* [M]⁺ calcd for C₁₂H₁₂O₃: 204.1; found 204.1.

IR: 3062, 3029, 3008, 2956, 2235, 2202, 1747, 1731, 1703, 1600, 1583, 1494, 1444, 1421, 1377, 1267, 1203, 1143, 948, 902, 790, 732, 696 cm⁻¹



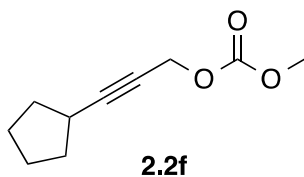
Yield: 0.77g, 5 mmol, 45%

Appearance: clear liquid

¹H NMR (500 MHz, CDCl₃): δ 4.71 (d, *J* = 2.1 Hz, 2H), 3.82 (s, 3H), 1.28 (m, 1H), 0.76 (m, 4H),

¹³C NMR (126 MHz, CDCl₃): δ 155.63, 91.92, 69.00, 56.64, 55.34, 8.62, -0.22.

GC/MS: *m/z* [M]⁺ calcd for C₈H₁₀O₃: 154.1; found: 154.1.



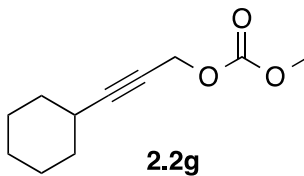
Yield: 55 mg, 3 mmol, 60%

Appearance: clear liquid

¹H NMR (500 MHz, CDCl₃): δ 4.75 (d, *J* = 2.1 Hz, 2H), 3.82 (s, 3H), 2.64 (qt, *J* = 7.6, 2.1 Hz, 1H), 1.93 (m, 2H), 1.73 (m, 2H), 1.60 (m, 4H).

¹³C NMR (126 MHz, CDCl₃): δ 155.64, 93.01, 73.13, 56.74, 55.34, 33.85, 30.40, 25.31.

GC/MS: *m/z* [M]⁺ calcd C₁₀H₁₄O₃: 182.1; found: 182.1.



Yield: 1.76 g, 9.0 mmol, 83%

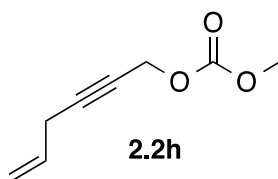
Appearance: clear liquid

¹H NMR (500 MHz, CDCl₃): δ 4.76 (d, *J* = 2.1 Hz, 2H), 3.82 (s, 3H), 2.41 (m, 1H), 1.80 (m, 2H), 1.70 (m, 2H), 1.47 (br m, 3H), 1.30 (m, 3H).

¹³C NMR (126 MHz, CDCl₃): 155.63, 92.81, 73.54, 56.70, 55.33, 32.63, 29.38, 26.12, 25.14.

GC/MS: *m/z* [M]⁺ calcd for C₁₁H₁₆O₃: 196.1; found: 196.1.

IR: 2931, 2854, 2235, 1755, 1446, 1375, 1265, 1157, 1020, 948, 900, 790 cm⁻¹



Yield: 2 g, 13 mmol, 70%

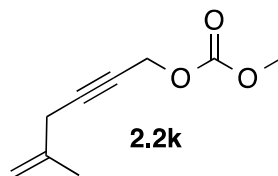
Appearance: clear liquid

¹H NMR (500 MHz, CDCl₃): δ 5.81 (m, 1H), 5.33 (dq, *J* = 17.1, 1.8 Hz, 1H), 5.14 (dq, *J* = 10.0, 1.6 Hz, 1H), 4.78 (t, *J* = 2.2 Hz, 2H), 3.83 (s, 3H), 3.03 (dp, *J* = 6.0, 2.0 Hz, 2H).

¹³C NMR (126 MHz, CDCl₃): δ 155.63, 132.02, 116.86, 85.19, 76.09, 56.43, 55.40, 23.38.

GC/MS: *m/z* [M]⁺ calcd for C₈H₁₀O₃: 154.1; found: 154.1.

IR: 3016, 2983, 2958, 2358, 2341, 1747, 1714, 1444, 1421, 1377, 1263, 1149, 1107, 1020, 993, 950, 919, 900, 790, 648 cm⁻¹



Yield: 1.7 g, 10.1 mmol, 56%

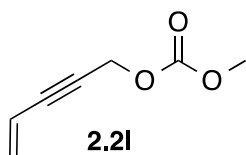
Appearance: clear liquid

¹H NMR (500 MHz, CDCl₃): δ 5.00 (br m, 1H), 4.86 (br m, 1H), 4.78 (t, 2H), 3.83 (s, 3H), 2.96 (m, 2H), 1.80 (m, 3H).

¹³C NMR (126 MHz, CDCl₃): δ 155.64, 140.14, 112.36, 85.65, 76.03, 56.47, 55.40, 27.82, 22.40.

GC/MS: *m/z* [M]⁺ calcd for C₉H₁₂O₃: 168.1; found: 168.1.

IR: 2958, 2887, 2858, 2235, 1755, 1652, 1444, 1375, 1261, 1228, 1149, 948, 900, 790 cm⁻¹



Yield: 1.3 g, 9 mmol, 62%

Appearance: clear liquid

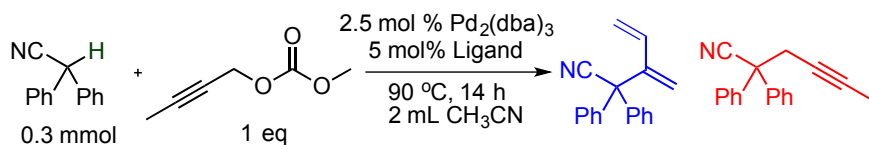
¹H NMR (500 MHz, CDCl₃): δ 5.83 (ddt, *J* = 17.6, 11.0, 1.9 Hz, 1H), 5.71 (dd, *J* = 17.5, 2.2 Hz, 1H), 5.56 (dd, *J* = 11.0, 2.2 Hz, 1H), 4.87 (d, *J* = 2.0 Hz, 2H), 3.84 (s, 3H).

¹³C NMR (126 MHz, CDCl₃): δ 155.58, 128.86, 116.52, 86.14, 83.15, 56.40, 55.49.

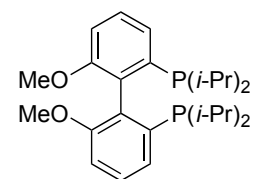
GC/MS: *m/z* [M]⁺ calcd for C₇H₈O₃: 140.0; found: 140.1.

IR: 3014, 2958, 2235, 1749, 1712, 1602, 1444, 1413, 1375, 1263, 1199, 1168, 1107, 1018, 950, 900, 792 cm⁻¹

Ligand Screen:



entry	Ligand	starting material	allenylation	dienylation	propargylation
1	XantPhos	2%	22%	14%	62%
2	dppe	3%	0%	94%	3%
3	dppm	28%	4%	42%	27%
4	dppb	2%	0%	85%	13%
5	dppp	5%	0%	87%	8%
6	dppf	1%	1%	74%	24%
7	(<i>R</i>)-SEGPHOS	5%	0%	76%	23%
8	tri- <i>o</i> -tolylphosphine	48%	3%	41%	9%
9	rac-BINAP	4%	1%	70%	24%
10	(<i>R</i>)-C ₃ -tunephos	1%	0%	86%	13%
11	XPhos	11%	1%	36%	53%
12	dppbz	3%	0%	93%	3%
13 ^b	SPhos	13%	2%	24%	60%
14 ^b	(<i>R</i>)-DM-BINAP	3%	1%	80%	17%
15 ^b	tri-1- <i>n</i> -ap phosphine	52%	3%	37%	9%
16 ^b	Ligand 1	44%	1%	48%	7%
17 ^b	JohnPhos	45%	20%	2%	33%
18 ^b	Cy-JohnPhos	56%	4%	15%	25%
19 ^b	<i>t</i> Bu-MePhos	22%	29%	2%	47%
20 ^b	<i>t</i> Bu-XPhos	43%	18%	7%	37%
21^b	MePhos	11%	3%	19%	67%
22	MePhos	10%	3%	6%	81%

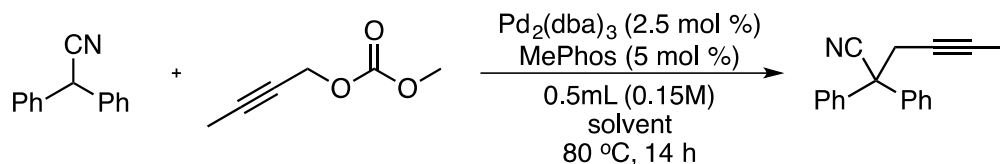


Ligand 1
1,1'-[(1*S*)-6,6'-dimethoxy[1,1'-biphenyl]-2,2'-diyl]bis[1,1'-bis(methylethyl)-phosphine]

^a Determined by GC/MS analysis.

^b NMR Scale - 0.078 mmol, 80 °C, 0.5 mL CD₃CN

Solvent Screen:



entry	solvent	starting material	allene	dienylation	propargylation
1	CD ₃ CN	11%	3%	19%	67%
2	DMSO-d ₆	51%	5%	9%	35%
3	toluene-d ₈	87%	6%	0%	6%
4	d-DMF	43%	3%	7%	47%
5	MeOD-d ₄	90%	1%	2%	5%
6	1,4-dioxane-d ₈	87%	5%	1%	8%

References:

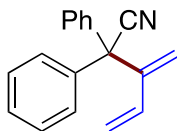
- 1) Gottlieb, H. E.; Kotlyar, V.; Nudelman, A. *J. Org. Chem.* **1997**, *62*, 7512.
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Experimental Procedure for the dienylation and propargylation of tertiary nitriles:

In an oven or flamed dried Biotage microwave reaction vial (part no. 354624) equipped with a magnetic stir bar, catalyst ($\text{Pd}_2(\text{dba})_3$, 0.0137 g, 5 mol %), ligand (dppe, 0.012 g, 10 mol % or MePhos, 0.011 g, 10 mol %), and diaryl acetonitrile (0.3 mmol if solid) were added under an argon atmosphere in a glovebox. The solid mixture was dissolved in 2 mL anhydrous DMF followed by addition of diaryl acetonitrile (0.3 mmol if liquid) and propargyl carbonate (0.6 mmol). The vessel was sealed, removed from the glovebox, and placed in a preheated oil bath at 80 °C for 1 hr. After reaction completion, the vessel was unsealed and solid lithium hydroxide (0.6 mmol) was added to the solution followed by 1 mL distilled water. The resulting mixture was stirred for an additional hour. The crude product was diluted with DCM (50 mL) and the organic layer was washed with distilled water (50 mL x 3) then brine (50 mL) before being dried over sodium sulfate. The organic phase was concentrated via rotary evaporation and purified via column chromatography in 0-5% ethyl acetate in hexane.

Characterization of Dienylated and Propargylated Tertiary Nitriles:



2.3a

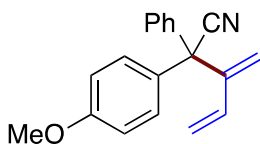
Yield: 66 mg, 0.27 mmol, 89%

Appearance: yellow oil

¹H NMR (500 MHz, CDCl₃): δ 7.48 (m, 10H), 6.46 (dd, *J* = 17.6, 11.2 Hz, 1H), 5.79 (s, 1H), 5.55 (d, *J* = 17.5 Hz, 1H), 5.33 (d, *J* = 11.2 Hz, 1H), 4.82 (s, 1H).

¹³C NMR (126 MHz, CDCl₃): δ 145.87, 138.35, 135.07, 128.99, 128.91, 128.51, 122.39, 120.51, 118.55, 56.94.

GC/MS: *m/z* [M]⁺ calcd for C₁₈H₁₅N: 245.1; found: 245.2.



2.3b

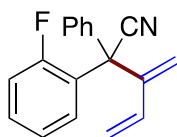
Yield: 64 mg, 0.23 mmol, 77%

Appearance: yellow oil

¹H NMR (500 MHz, CDCl₃): δ 7.38 (m, 5H), 7.26 (m, 2H), 6.91 (m, 2H), 6.35 (m, 1H), 5.67 (s, 1H), 5.45 (d, *J* = 17.5 Hz, 1H), 5.23 (d, *J* = 11.2 Hz, 1H), 4.72 (s, 1H), 3.83 (s, 3H).

¹³C NMR (126 MHz, CDCl₃): δ 159.59, 146.11, 138.67, 135.10, 130.30, 130.11, 128.95, 128.81, 128.43, 122.55, 120.21, 118.45, 114.27, 56.28, 55.61.

GC/MS: m/z $[M]^+$ calcd for $C_{19}H_{17}NO$: 275.1; found: 275.2.



2.3c

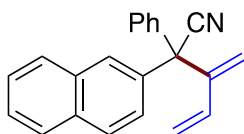
Yield: 76 mg, 0.29 mmol, 96%

Appearance: yellow oil

1H NMR (500 MHz, $CDCl_3$): δ 7.42 (m, 6H), 7.14 (m, 2H), 6.95 (td, $J = 7.9, 1.7$ Hz, 1H), 6.36 (dd, $J = 17.5, 11.2$ Hz, 1H), 5.70 (s, 1H), 5.52 (d, $J = 17.5$ Hz, 1H), 5.25 (d, $J = 11.1$ Hz, 1H), 4.83 (s, 1H).

^{13}C NMR (126 MHz, $CDCl_3$): δ 160.75 (d, $J = 252.4$ Hz), 144.05, 136.89, 134.77, 131.06 (d, $J = 8.5$ Hz), 130.57 (d, $J = 2.2$ Hz), 129.15, 128.79, 128.60, 126.36 (d, $J = 11.3$ Hz), 124.43 (d, $J = 3.7$ Hz), 120.81, 119.25, 118.49, 117.00 (d, $J = 21.7$ Hz), 52.94.

GC/MS: m/z $[M]^+$ calcd for $C_{18}H_{14}FN$: 263.1; found: 263.1.



2.3d

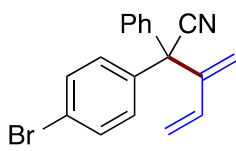
Yield: 74 mg, 0.25 mmol, 83%

Appearance: yellow oil

¹H NMR (500 MHz, CDCl₃): δ 7.87 (m, 2H), 7.80 (m, 2H), 7.52 (m, 3H), 7.40 (m, 5H), 6.39 (dd, *J* = 17.5, 11.2 Hz, 1H), 5.73 (s, 1H), 5.48 (d, *J* = 17.5 Hz, 1H), 5.24 (d, *J* = 11.2 Hz, 1H), 4.77 (s, 1H).

¹³C NMR (126 MHz, CDCl₃): δ 145.77, 138.35, 135.72, 135.13, 133.29, 133.09, 129.08, 129.05, 128.86, 128.70, 128.62, 128.16, 127.91, 127.20, 126.97, 126.52, 122.41, 120.74, 118.70, 57.12.

GC/MS: *m/z* [M]⁺ calcd for C₂₂H₁₇N: 295.1; found: 295.2.



2.3e

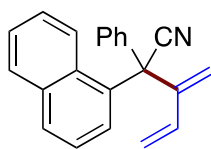
Yield: 84 mg, 0.26 mmol, 86%

Appearance: yellow oil

¹H NMR (500 MHz, CDCl₃): δ 7.53 (m, 2H), 7.38 (m, 5H), 7.24 (m, 2H), 6.33 (dd, *J* = 17.5, 11.2 Hz, 1H), 5.69 (s, 1H), 5.44 (d, *J* = 17.5 Hz, 1H), 5.24 (d, *J* = 11.2 Hz, 1H), 4.71 (s, 1H).

¹³C NMR (126 MHz, CDCl₃): δ 145.44, 137.82, 137.56, 134.79, 132.17, 130.64, 129.15, 128.78, 128.75, 122.84, 121.91, 120.80, 118.89, 56.50.

GC/MS: *m/z* [M]⁺ calcd for C₁₈H₁₄BrN: 323.0. Found: 323.1.



2.3f

Yield: 72 mg, 0.24 mmol, 81%

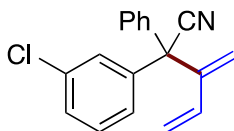
Appearance: yellow oil

¹H NMR (500 MHz, CDCl₃): δ 8.15 (m, 1H), 7.91 (m, 2H), 7.47 (m, 8H), 7.13 (m, 1H), 6.43 (dd, *J* = 17.4, 11.1 Hz, 1H), 5.80 (s, 1H), 5.63 (d, *J* = 17.5 Hz, 1H), 5.28 (d, *J* = 11.1 Hz, 1H), 4.87 (s, 1H).

¹³C NMR (126 MHz, CDCl₃): δ 145.33, 138.25, 135.22, 134.88, 133.84, 130.89, 130.43, 129.33, 129.20, 128.99, 128.79, 128.65, 126.57, 126.48, 126.16, 124.90, 122.21, 119.70, 118.30, 55.91.

GC/MS: *m/z* [M]⁺ calcd for C₂₂H₁₇N: 295.1; found: 295.2.

IR: 3087, 3060, 3029, 2925, 2248, 2239, 1591, 1487, 1448, 1398, 1076, 1010, 914, 815, 757, 734, 698, 649, 538 cm⁻¹



2.3g

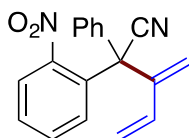
Yield: 75 mg, 0.23 mmol, 77%

Appearance: yellow oil

¹H NMR (500 MHz, CDCl₃): δ 7.38 (m, 8H), 7.28 (m, 1H), 6.33 (dd, *J* = 17.5, 11.2 Hz, 1H), 5.70 (s, 1H), 5.44 (d, *J* = 17.6 Hz, 1H), 5.25 (d, *J* = 11.2 Hz, 1H), 4.72 (s, 1H).

¹³C NMR (126 MHz, CDCl₃): δ 145.35, 140.43, 137.66, 135.09, 134.77, 130.24, 129.18, 129.03, 128.87, 128.81, 127.21, 121.84, 120.91, 118.92, 56.63.

GC/MS: *m/z* [M]⁺ calcd for C₁₈H₁₄CIN: 279.1; found: 279.2.



2.3h

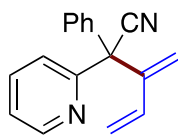
Yield: 71 mg, 0.25 mmol, 82%

Appearance: orange oil

¹H NMR (500 MHz, CDCl₃): δ 7.82 (m, 1H), 7.47 (m, 2H), 7.29 (m, 5H), 7.17 (m, 1H), 6.18 (dd, *J* = 17.4, 11.1 Hz, 1H), 5.60 (s, 1H), 5.35 (d, *J* = 17.4 Hz, 1H), 5.11 (d, *J* = 11.1 Hz, 1H), 4.75 (s, 1H).

¹³C NMR (126 MHz, CDCl₃): δ 150.00, 144.88, 136.96, 134.53, 132.85, 132.36, 131.32, 130.30, 129.21, 128.90, 128.37, 126.38, 119.70, 119.47, 118.97, 55.33.

GC/MS: *m/z* [M]⁺ calcd for C₁₈H₁₄N₂O₂: 290.1. Found: [M⁺] – NO₂: 245.1.



2.3i

Yield: 17 mg, 0.070 mmol, 23%

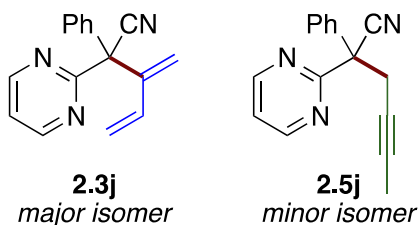
Appearance: orange-red oil

¹H NMR (500 MHz, CDCl₃): δ 8.72 (ddd, *J* = 4.8, 1.9, 0.9 Hz, 1H), 7.72 (td, *J* = 7.8, 1.9 Hz, 1H), 7.39 (m, 6H), 7.28 (m, 1H), 6.36 (dd, *J* = 17.6, 11.2 Hz, 1H), 5.69 (s, 1H), 5.39 (d, *J* = 17.6 Hz, 1H), 5.20 (d, *J* = 11.2 Hz, 1H), 4.73 (s, 1H).

¹³C NMR (126 MHz, CDCl₃): δ 157.66, 150.07, 145.30, 137.51, 137.39, 135.06, 129.09, 128.85, 128.67, 123.52, 123.27, 121.53, 120.67, 118.45, 59.39.

GC/MS: *m/z* [M]⁺ calcd for C₁₇H₁₄N₂: 246.1; found: 246.2.

IR: 3085, 3058, 3006, 1585, 1571, 1492, 1463, 1448, 1431, 1153, 1031, 995, 918, 777, 750, 698, 667 cm⁻¹



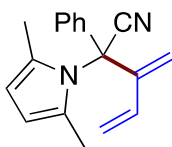
Yield: 9.6 mg, 0.04 mmol, 13%

Appearance: orange-red oil

¹H NMR (500 MHz, CDCl₃) *major isomer:* δ 8.85 (d, *J* = 4.9 Hz, 2H), 7.52 (m, 2H), 7.39 (m, 4H), 6.38 (dd, *J* = 17.6, 11.3 Hz, 1H), 5.70 (s, 1H), 5.31 (d, *J* = 17.6 Hz, 1H), 5.17 (d, *J* = 11.3 Hz, 1H), 4.85 (s, 1H).

¹³C NMR (126 MHz, CDCl₃) *major isomer:* δ 167.30, 158.13, 144.90, 136.43, 135.05, 129.04, 128.80, 128.76, 120.78, 120.53, 120.29, 118.03, 60.83.

GC/MS: *m/z* [M]⁺ calcd for C₁₆H₁₃N₃: 247.1; found: 247.1.



2.3k

Yield: 59 mg, 0.23 mmol, 75%

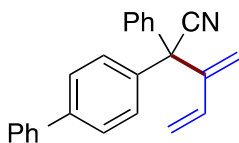
Appearance: orange oil

¹H NMR (500 MHz, CDCl₃): δ 7.44 (m, 3H), 7.32 (m, 2H), 6.51 (dd, *J* = 17.6, 11.3 Hz, 1H), 5.88 (s, 2H), 5.72 (s, 1H), 5.63 (d, *J* = 17.5 Hz, 1H), 5.39 (d, *J* = 11.2 Hz, 1H), 4.68 (s, 1H), 2.11 (s, 6H).

¹³C NMR (126 MHz, CDCl₃): δ 144.35, 136.94, 134.35, 131.55, 129.78, 129.22, 128.77, 120.69, 119.77, 118.76, 109.86, 66.92, 16.76.

GC/MS: *m/z* [M]⁺ calcd for C₁₈H₁₈N₂: 262.1; found: 262.2.

IR: 3099, 3062, 3029, 2960, 2927, 2898, 1712, 1593, 1523, 1492, 1450, 1375, 1271, 1186, 1064, 985, 923, 898, 756, 698 cm⁻¹



2.3l

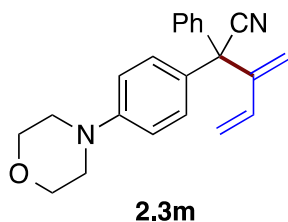
Yield: 91 mg, 0.28 mmol, 94%

Appearance: yellow oil

¹H NMR (500 MHz, CDCl₃): δ 7.64 (m, 5H), 7.45 (m, 10H), 6.40 (dd, *J* = 17.5, 11.2 Hz, 1H), 5.73 (s, 1H), 5.50 (d, *J* = 17.5 Hz, 1H), 5.27 (d, *J* = 11.1 Hz, 1H), 4.80 (s, 1H).

¹³C NMR (126 MHz, CDCl₃): δ 145.80, 141.32, 140.31, 138.30, 137.34, 135.04, 129.35, 129.17, 129.05, 128.89, 128.57, 127.99, 127.62, 127.37, 122.35, 120.55, 118.65, 56.70.

GC/MS: *m/z* [M]⁺ calcd for C₂₄H₁₉N: 321.2; found: 321.2.



Yield: 99 mg, 0.3 mmol, 99%

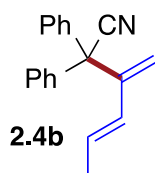
Appearance: orange-red oil

¹H NMR (500 MHz, CDCl₃): δ 7.37 (m, 5H), 7.22 (m, 2H), 6.90 (m, 2H), 6.35 (dd, *J* = 17.5, 11.2 Hz, 1H), 5.66 (s, 1H), 5.45 (d, *J* = 17.5 Hz, 1H), 5.21 (d, *J* = 11.2 Hz, 1H), 4.73 (s, 1H), 3.87 (m, 4H), 3.20 (m, 4H).

¹³C NMR (126 MHz, CDCl₃): δ 150.94, 146.10, 138.73, 135.11, 129.73, 128.99, 128.87, 128.78, 128.33, 122.54, 120.05, 118.32, 115.29, 67.05, 56.21, 48.89.

GC/MS: *m/z* [M]⁺ calcd for C₂₂H₂₂N₂O: 330.2; found: 330.2.

IR: 2962, 2910, 2893, 2854, 2827, 2235, 1608, 1514, 1490, 1448, 1380, 1263, 1238, 1184, 1122, 1051, 927, 819, 759, 730, 700, 648, 547 cm⁻¹



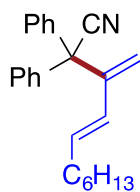
Yield: 33 mg, 0.13 mmol, 42%

Appearance: light yellow oil

¹H NMR (500 MHz, CDCl₃): δ 7.37 (m, 10H), 6.03 (m, 1H), 5.94 (dq, *J* = 15.8, 6.5 Hz, 1H), 5.54 (s, 1H), 4.53 (s, 1H), 1.73 (dd, *J* = 6.4, 1.5 Hz, 3H).

¹³C NMR (126 MHz, CDCl₃): δ 145.70, 138.64, 130.31, 129.41, 128.97, 128.93, 128.41, 122.66, 118.37, 57.33, 18.91.

GC/MS: *m/z* [M]⁺ calcd for C₁₉H₁₇N: 259.1; found: 259.2.



9:1

diene:propargyl isomer

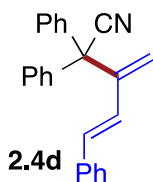
Yield: 41 mg, 0.12 mmol, 41%

Appearance: yellow oil

¹H NMR (500 MHz, CDCl₃) major isomer: δ 7.37 (m, 10H), 6.00 (m, 1H), 5.90 (dt, *J* = 15.8, 6.8 Hz, 1H), 5.55 (s, 1H), 4.56 (s, 1H), 2.04 (m, 2H), 1.25 (m, 8H), 0.88 (t, *J* = 7.2 Hz, 3H).

¹³C NMR (126 MHz, CDCl₃) δ 145.80, 138.69, 135.96, 129.00, 128.90, 128.38, 128.14, 122.64, 118.47, 57.28, 33.31, 31.96, 29.23, 28.96, 22.91, 14.43.

GC/MS: *m/z* [M]⁺ calcd for C₂₄H₂₇N: 329.2; found: 329.2.



Yield: 49 mg, 0.21 mmol, 70%

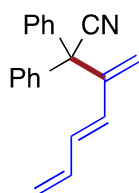
Appearance: yellow oil

¹H NMR (500 MHz, CDCl₃): δ 7.22 (m, 15H), 6.69 (d, *J* = 16.2 Hz, 1H), 6.60 (d, *J* = 16.2 Hz, 1H), 5.68 (s, 1H), 4.63 (s, 1H).

¹³C NMR (126 MHz, CDCl₃): δ 145.55, 138.49, 136.82, 132.85, 129.06, 128.99, 128.88, 128.57, 128.40, 127.05, 126.75, 122.53, 119.83, 57.40.

GC/MS: *m/z* [M]⁺ calcd for C₂₄H₁₉N: 321.2; found: 321.2.

IR: 3082, 3060, 3028, 2927, 2250, 2237, 1639, 1633, 1598, 1492, 1448, 1334, 1074, 1031, 962, 912, 750, 734, 698, 648 cm⁻¹



9:1

diene:propargyl isomer

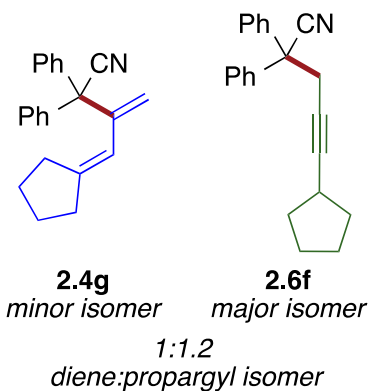
Yield: 60 mg, 0.22 mmol, 74%

Appearance: yellow oil

¹H NMR (500 MHz, CDCl₃): δ 7.35 (m, 10H), 6.48 (dd, *J* = 15.6, 10.5 Hz, 1H), 6.32 (dt, *J* = 17.0, 10.3 Hz, 1H), 6.19 (d, *J* = 15.6 Hz, 1H), 5.70 (s, 1H), 5.24 (d, *J* = 16.9 Hz, 1H), 5.15 (d, *J* = 9.9 Hz, 1H), 4.68 (s, 1H).

^{13}C NMR (126 MHz, CDCl_3): δ 145.34, 138.44, 136.94, 133.60, 130.76, 129.03, 128.98, 128.56, 122.46, 119.54, 119.46, 57.35.

GCMS: m/z $[\text{M}]^+$ calcd for $\text{C}_{20}\text{H}_{17}\text{N}$: 271.1. Found: 271.2.



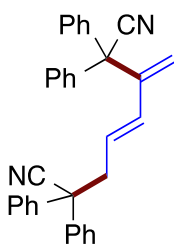
Yield: 45 mg, 0.15 mmol, 51%

Appearance: yellow oil

^1H NMR (500 MHz, CDCl_3): product **5f** only: δ 7.38 (m, 10H), 5.82 (m, 1H), 5.43 (s, 1H), 4.85 (s, 1H), 2.43 (m, 2H), 2.33 (m, 2H), 1.74 (m, 2H), 1.62 (m, 2H).

^{13}C NMR (126 MHz, CDCl_3): product **5f** only: δ 151.24, 145.39, 138.68, 129.05, 128.85, 128.38, 122.79, 118.61, 118.25, 59.29, 35.49, 32.11, 27.01, 25.77.

GC/MS: m/z $[\text{M}]^+$ calcd for $\text{C}_{22}\text{H}_{21}\text{N}$: 299.2; found: 299.2.



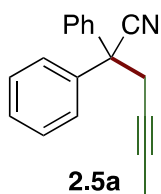
Yield: 63 mg, 0.14 mmol, 93%

Appearance: off-white solid

¹H NMR (500 MHz, CDCl₃): δ 7.31 (m, 20H), 6.20 (d, *J* = 15.8 Hz, 1H), 5.78 (dt, *J* = 15.9, 7.2 Hz, 1H), 5.56 (s, 1H), 4.64 (s, 1H), 3.14 (dd, *J* = 7.3, 1.4 Hz, 2H).

¹³C NMR (126 MHz, CDCl₃): δ 144.73, 139.76, 138.19, 133.45, 129.12, 129.00, 128.83, 128.42, 128.17, 127.91, 127.20, 122.27, 122.00, 121.11, 56.83, 52.03, 43.69.

GCMS: *m/z* [M]⁺ calcd for C₃₃H₂₆N₂: 450.2; found: 450.3.



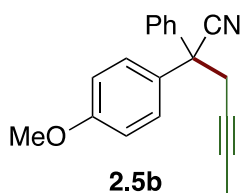
Yield: 64 mg, 0.26 mmol, 86%

Appearance: yellow oil

¹H NMR (500 MHz, CDCl₃): δ 7.39 (m, 10H), 3.21 (q, *J* = 2.5 Hz, 2H), 1.76 (t, *J* = 2.51 Hz, 3H).

¹³C NMR (126 MHz, CDCl₃): δ 139.62, 129.05, 128.40, 127.40, 122.30, 81.08, 73.56, 51.94, 31.54, 3.86.

GC/MS: *m/z* [M]⁺ calcd for C₁₈H₁₅N: 245.1; found: 245.2.



Yield: 55 mg, 0.20 mmol, 67%

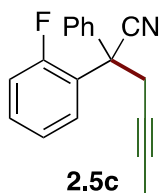
Appearance: yellow oil

¹H NMR (500 MHz, CDCl₃): δ 7.38 (m, 7H), 6.91 (m, 2H), 3.82 (s, 3H), 3.17 (q, *J* = 2.5 Hz, 2H), 1.76 (t, *J* = 2.5 Hz, 3H).

¹³C NMR (126 MHz, CDCl₃): δ 159.49, 139.98, 131.62, 129.01, 128.66, 128.33, 127.33, 122.50, 114.32, 81.00, 73.68, 55.60, 51.27, 31.72, 3.89.

GC/MS: *m/z* [M]⁺ calcd for C₁₉H₁₇NO: 275.1; found: 275.2.

IR: 3002, 2956, 2920, 2839, 2237, 1608, 1583, 1512, 1494, 1461, 1448, 1299, 1255, 1184, 1033, 912, 827, 732, 698, 594, 543 cm⁻¹



Yield: 53 mg, 0.20 mmol, 67%

Appearance: yellow oil

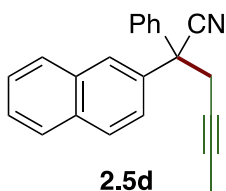
¹H NMR (500 MHz, CDCl₃): δ 7.63 (td, *J* = 7.9, 1.7 Hz, 1H), 7.37 (m, 6H), 7.25 (td, *J* = 7.6, 1.3 Hz, 1H), 7.07 (ddd, *J* = 11.5, 8.2, 1.3 Hz, 1H), 3.28 (m, 2H), 1.75 (t, *J* = 2.5 Hz, 3H).

¹³C NMR (126 MHz, CDCl₃): δ 160.64 (d, *J* = 251.1 Hz), 138.79, 130.91 (d, *J* = 8.7 Hz), 129.02, 128.91 (d, *J* = 2.8 Hz), 128.49, 126.76, 126.42 (d, *J* = 10.8 Hz), 124.51 (d, *J* = 3.6 Hz), 120.94, 117.13 (d, *J* = 21.7 Hz), 81.35, 73.31, 48.92, 30.50 (d, *J* = 2.2 Hz), 3.86.

¹⁹F (376 MHz, CDCl₃): δ -108.8 (s, 1F).

GC/MS: *m/z* [M]⁺ calcd for C₁₈H₁₄FN: 263.1; found: 263.2.

IR: 3062, 2920, 2854, 2241, 1612, 1598, 1581, 1490, 1450, 1226, 1112, 1035, 810, 757, 732, 698, 514 cm⁻¹



Yield: 74 mg, 0.25 mmol, 84%

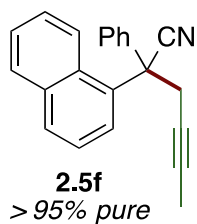
Appearance: yellow oil

¹H NMR (500 MHz, CDCl₃): δ 8.02 (d, *J* = 2.1 Hz, 1H), 7.87 (m, 3H), 7.55 (m, 2H), 7.42 (m, 6H), 3.31 (q, *J* = 2.5 Hz, 2H), 1.75 (t, *J* = 2.5 Hz, 3H).

¹³C NMR (126 MHz, CDCl₃): δ 139.60, 136.80, 133.26, 133.03, 129.16, 129.12, 128.68, 128.54, 127.93, 127.57, 127.12, 127.03, 126.37, 125.26, 122.30, 81.32, 73.55, 52.12, 31.48, 3.96.

GC/MS: *m/z* [M]⁺ calcd for C₂₂H₁₇N: 295.1; found: 295.2.

IR: 3058, 2920, 2852, 2239, 1598, 1494, 1448, 1434, 1274, 1124, 910, 815, 748, 734, 698, 478 cm⁻¹



Yield: 68 mg, 0.23 mmol, 78%

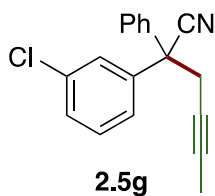
Appearance: yellow oil

¹H NMR (500 MHz, CDCl₃): δ 7.89 (m, 4H), 7.59 (t, *J* = 7.8 Hz, 1H), 7.35 (m, 7H), 3.43 (dq, *J* = 16.4, 2.5 Hz, 1H), 3.28 (dq, *J* = 16.4, 2.5 Hz, 1H), 1.80 (t, *J* = 2.5 Hz, 3H).

¹³C NMR (126 MHz, CDCl₃): 140.70, 135.03, 132.71, 130.69, 130.51, 129.37, 129.11, 128.27, 126.65, 126.61, 126.04, 125.90, 125.80, 124.94, 121.96, 81.60, 73.67, 50.37, 33.63, 3.94.

GCMS: *m/z* [M]⁺ calcd for C₂₂H₁₇N: 295.1. Found: 295.2.

IR: 3085, 3055, 3029, 2918, 2237, 1600, 1510, 1490, 1448, 1434, 1398, 1161, 1031, 910, 796, 777, 761, 732, 700, 640, 565, 513 cm⁻¹



Yield: 64 mg, 0.23 mmol, 75%

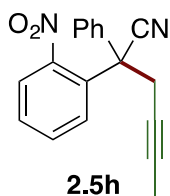
Appearance: yellow oil

¹H NMR (500 MHz, CDCl₃): δ 7.37 (m, 9H), 3.18 (p, *J* = 2.5 Hz, 2H), 1.76 (t, *J* = 2.5 Hz, 3H).

¹³C NMR (126 MHz, CDCl₃): δ 141.62, 138.94, 135.08, 130.32, 129.30, 128.78, 128.76, 127.79, 127.38, 125.79, 121.80, 81.63, 73.14, 51.72, 31.53, 3.90.

GC/MS: *m/z* [M]⁺ calcd for C₁₈H₁₄ClN: 279.1; found: 279.2.

IR: 3062, 3029, 2920, 2852, 2239, 1593, 1573, 1492, 1475, 1448, 1421, 1190, 1168, 1089, 999, 879, 783, 740, 717, 696, 669, 416 cm^{-1}



Yield: 81 mg, 0.28 mmol, 94%

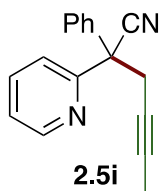
Appearance: orange oil

$^1\text{H NMR}$ (500 MHz, CDCl_3): δ 8.00 (dd, $J = 8.0, 1.3$ Hz, 1H), 7.74 (m, 2H), 7.58 (td, $J = 7.7, 1.3$ Hz, 1H), 7.32 (m, 5H), 3.40 (m, 2H), 1.76 (t, $J = 2.5$ Hz, 3H).

$^{13}\text{C NMR}$ (126 MHz, CDCl_3): δ 150.17, 137.55, 132.52, 131.49, 130.89, 130.19, 128.98, 128.78, 126.96, 126.15, 120.40, 82.40, 73.05, 50.31, 32.30, 3.85.

GC/MS: m/z $[\text{M}]^+$ calcd for $\text{C}_{18}\text{H}_{14}\text{N}_2\text{O}_2$: 290.1; found: 290.1.

IR: 3062, 2920, 2852, 2241, 1749, 1600, 1577, 1535, 1492, 1448, 1440, 1359, 1031, 912, 854, 781, 732, 698, 649, 416 cm^{-1}



Yield: 54 mg, 0.22 mmol, 74%

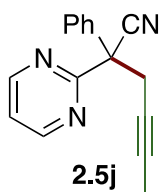
Appearance: orange-red oil

$^1\text{H NMR}$ (500 MHz, CDCl_3): δ 8.55 (m, 1H), 7.39 (m, 8H), 3.33 (m, 2H), 1.61 (m, 3H).

¹³C NMR (126 MHz, CDCl₃): δ 157.52, 149.58, 138.71, 137.47, 129.06, 128.45, 126.96, 123.28, 122.80, 121.80, 80.30, 73.95, 54.42, 30.55, 3.87.

GC/MS: *m/z* [M]⁺ calcd for C₁₇H₁₄N₂: 246.1; found: 246.1.

IR: 3058, 2920, 2854, 2241, 1587, 1573, 1494, 1467, 1448, 1431, 1298, 1153, 1054, 1033, 993, 777, 757, 746, 698, 619, 538, 416 cm⁻¹



Yield: 67 mg, 0.27 mmol, 89%

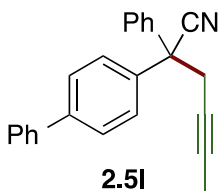
Appearance: red oil

¹H NMR (500 MHz, CDCl₃): δ 8.79 (d, *J* = 4.9 Hz, 2H), 7.56 (m, 2H), 7.32 (m, 4H), 3.61 (dq, *J* = 16.5, 2.5 Hz, 1H), 3.32 (dq, 16.4, 2.5 Hz, 1H), 1.70 (t, *J* = 2.5 Hz, 3H).

¹³C NMR (126 MHz, CDCl₃): δ 166.79, 158.01, 137.59, 129.15, 128.67, 126.66, 120.88, 120.40, 80.25, 73.69, 56.75, 30.42, 3.88.

GC/MS: *m/z* [M]⁺ calcd for C₁₆H₁₃N₃: 247.1; found: 247.2.

IR: 3087, 3060, 3039, 3960, 2920, 2854, 2244, 1566, 1494, 1450, 1434, 1409, 1058, 1033, 912, 811, 757, 730, 698, 634 cm⁻¹



Yield: 87 mg, 0.27 mmol, 89%

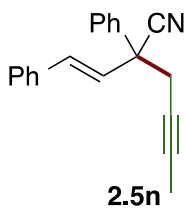
Appearance: yellow oil

$^1\text{H NMR}$ (500 MHz, CDCl_3): δ 7.62 (m, 4H), 7.44 (m, 10H), 3.26 (q, $J = 2.5$ Hz, 2H), 1.78 (t, $J = 2.5$ Hz, 3H).

$^{13}\text{C NMR}$ (126 MHz, CDCl_3): δ 141.28, 140.38, 139.61, 138.60, 129.17, 129.14, 128.50, 127.97, 127.90, 127.73, 127.44, 127.39, 122.31, 81.22, 73.58, 51.76, 31.57, 3.92.

GC/MS: m/z $[\text{M}]^+$ calcd for $\text{C}_{24}\text{H}_{19}\text{N}$: 321.2; found: 321.2.

IR: 3058, 3029, 2918, 2239, 1598, 1487, 1448, 1434, 1407, 1006, 910, 833, 763, 730, 696, 675, 649, 563, 520 cm^{-1}



Yield: 54 mg, 0.20 mmol, 68%

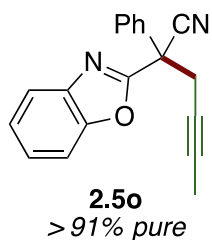
Appearance: dark yellow oil

$^1\text{H NMR}$ (500 MHz, CDCl_3): δ 7.55 (m, 2H), 7.44 (m, 4H), 7.37 (m, 3H), 7.32 (m, 1H), 6.91 (d, $J = 16$ Hz, 1H), 6.39 (d, $J = 16$ Hz, 1H), 3.02 (q, $J = 2.5$ Hz, 2H), 1.80 (t, $J = 2.5$ Hz, 3H).

$^{13}\text{C NMR}$ (126 MHz, CDCl_3): δ 138.38, 135.95, 132.76, 129.27, 129.02, 128.72, 128.65, 127.78, 127.14, 126.78, 120.99, 81.10, 73.08, 49.38, 31.91, 3.91.

GC/MS: m/z $[\text{M}]^+$ calcd for $\text{C}_{20}\text{H}_{17}\text{N}$: 271.1; found: 271.1.

IR: 3060, 3028, 2918, 2852, 2239, 1714, 1577, 1494, 1448, 1434, 1157, 1072, 1029, 966, 748, 694, 416 cm^{-1}



Yield: 18 mg, 0.063 mmol, 21%

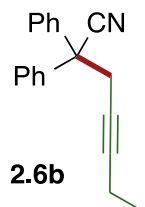
Appearance: orange oil

¹H NMR (500 MHz, CDCl₃) *major isomer:* δ 7.83 (m, 1H), 7.55 (m, 3H), 7.42 (m, 5H), 3.62 (dq, *J* = 16.6, 2.5 Hz, 1H), 3.34 (dq, *J* = 16.6, 2.5 Hz, 1H), 1.76 (t, 3H).

¹³C NMR (126 MHz, CDCl₃) *major isomer:* δ 161.44, 151.52, 140.81, 135.09, 129.52, 129.50, 126.54, 126.37, 125.32, 121.06, 118.03, 111.50, 81.51, 72.30, 49.55, 31.17, 3.95.

GC/MS: *m/z* [M]⁺ calcd for C₁₉H₁₄N₂O: 286.1; found: 286.2.

IR: 2956, 2921, 2852, 2243, 1610, 1560, 1492, 1452, 1238, 1166, 1002, 761, 748, 696 cm⁻¹



Yield: 78 mg, 0.3 mmol, 99%

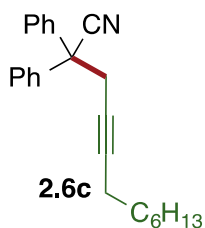
Appearance: clear yellow oil

¹H NMR (500 MHz, CDCl₃): δ 7.40 (m, 10H), 3.22 (t, *J* = 2.4 Hz, 2H), 2.12 (qt, *J* = 7.4, 2.3 Hz, 2H), 1.06 (t, *J* = 7.5 Hz, 3H).

¹³C NMR (126 MHz, CDCl₃): δ 139.61, 128.99, 128.38, 127.46, 122.26, 87.19, 73.91, 51.95, 31.54, 14.04, 12.65.

GC/MS: m/z $[M]^+$ calcd for $C_{19}H_{17}N$: 259.1; found: 259.2.

IR: 3060, 2975, 2935, 2920, 2237, 1598, 1585, 1494, 1448, 1319, 1033, 1002, 754, 698, 651, 624, 538 cm^{-1}



Yield: 96 mg, 0.29 mmol, 97%

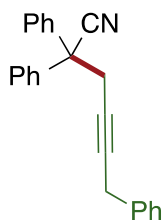
Appearance: yellow oil

1H NMR (500 MHz, $CDCl_3$): δ 7.39 (m, 10H), 3.24 (t, $J = 2.4$ Hz, 2H), 2.11 (tt, $J = 7.0, 2.4$ Hz, 2H), 1.31 (m, 10H), 0.92 (t, $J = 7.2$ Hz, 3H).

^{13}C NMR (126 MHz, $CDCl_3$): δ 139.64, 129.01, 128.37, 127.48, 122.30, 85.93, 74.51, 52.02, 32.03, 31.63, 29.09, 28.87, 28.84, 22.96, 18.92, 14.43.

GC/MS: m/z $[M]^+$ calcd for $C_{24}H_{27}N$: 329.2; found: 329.2.

IR: 3060, 2954, 2927, 2856, 2237, 1598, 1494, 1465, 1448, 1434, 1330, 1033, 1002, 754, 698, 651, 624, 538 cm^{-1}



2.6d
85% pure with 15%
allene isomer

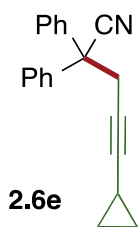
Yield: 27 mg, 0.084 mmol, 28%

Appearance: yellow oil

¹H NMR (500 MHz, CDCl₃): δ 7.33 (m, 15H), 3.56 (t, *J* = 2.4 Hz, 2H), 3.33 (t, *J* = 2.4 Hz, 2H).

¹³C NMR (126 MHz, CDCl₃): δ 139.48, 136.80, 129.15, 128.67, 128.49, 128.12, 127.50, 126.73, 122.31, 83.09, 76.98, 51.97, 31.75, 25.33.

GC/MS: *m/z* [M]⁺ calcd for C₂₄H₁₉N: 321.2; found: 321.2.



Yield: 81 mg, 0.3 mmol, 99%

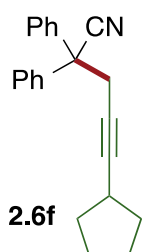
Appearance: yellow oil

¹H NMR (500 MHz, CDCl₃): δ 7.39 (m, 10H), 3.20 (d, *J* = 2.0 Hz, 2H), 1.15 (m, 1H), 0.68 (m, 2H), 0.55 (m, 2H).

¹³C NMR (126 MHz, CDCl₃): δ 139.56, 128.97, 128.38, 127.44, 122.19, 88.98, 69.63, 51.96, 31.58, 8.33, -0.23.

GC/MS: *m/z* [M]⁺ calcd for C₂₀H₁₇N: 271.1; found: 271.2.

IR: 3089, 3060, 3026, 2918, 2237, 1598, 1494, 1448, 1359, 1053, 1031, 877, 754, 698, 624 cm⁻¹



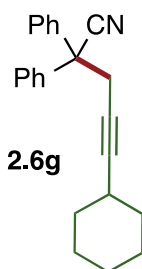
Yield: 90 mg, 0.3 mmol, 99%

Appearance: yellow oil

¹H NMR (500 MHz, CDCl₃): δ 7.39 (m, 10H), 3.23 (d, *J* = 2.2 Hz, 2H), 2.56 (m, 1H), 1.79 (m, 2H), 1.63 (m, 2H), 1.51 (m, 4H).

¹³C NMR (126 MHz, CDCl₃): δ 139.64, 128.95, 128.35, 127.51, 122.26, 90.42, 74.19, 52.04, 33.89, 31.65, 30.38, 24.97.

GC/MS: *m/z* [M]⁺ calcd for C₂₂H₂₁N: 299.2; found: 299.2.



Yield: 93 mg, 0.3 mmol, 99%

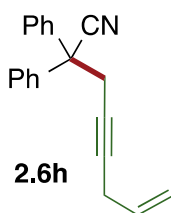
Appearance: yellow oil

¹H NMR (500 MHz, CDCl₃): δ 7.39 (m, 10H), 3.24 (d, *J* = 2.2 Hz, 2H), 2.34 (br m, 1H), 1.65 (br m, 2H), 1.57 (br m, 2H), 1.31 (m, 6H).

¹³C NMR (126 MHz, CDCl₃): δ 139.62, 128.97, 128.36, 127.53, 122.29, 90.05, 74.71, 52.09, 32.63, 31.65, 29.04, 26.15, 24.68.

GC/MS: m/z $[M]^+$ calcd for $C_{23}H_{23}N$: 313.2; found: 313.3.

IR: 3060, 3029, 2929, 2852, 2237, 1731, 1598, 1494, 1448, 1317, 1033, 754, 698, 624, 538 cm^{-1}



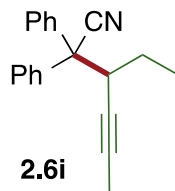
Yield: 54 mg, 0.20 mmol, 67%

Appearance: yellow oil

1H NMR (500 MHz, $CDCl_3$): δ 7.41 (m, 10H), 5.73 (m, 1H), 5.16 (dq, $J = 16.9, 1.8$ Hz, 1H), 5.04 (dq, $J = 10.0, 1.7$ Hz, 1H), 3.29 (t, $J = 2.3$ Hz, 2H), 2.91 (dp, $J = 4.3, 2.1$ Hz, 2H).

^{13}C NMR (126 MHz, $CDCl_3$): δ 139.51, 132.43, 129.10, 128.47, 127.46, 122.26, 116.36, 82.08, 77.13, 51.93, 31.64, 23.23.

GC/MS: m/z $[M]^+$ calcd for $C_{10}H_{17}N$: 271.1; found: 271.2.



Yield: 52 mg, 0.19 mmol, 63%

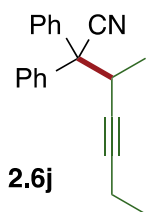
Appearance: clear yellow oil

¹H NMR (500 MHz, CDCl₃): δ 7.49 (m, 2H), 7.27 (m, 8H), 3.24 (m, 1H), 1.65 (d, *J* = 2.3 Hz, 3H), 1.46 (m, 2H), 1.00 (t, *J* = 7.3 Hz, 3H).

¹³C NMR (126 MHz, CDCl₃): δ 139.68, 139.37, 129.13, 128.71, 128.12, 128.03, 127.92, 127.25, 121.56, 82.22, 77.54, 57.70, 42.42, 25.37, 12.71, 3.92.

GC/MS: *m/z* [M]⁺ calcd for C₂₀H₁₉N: 273.2; found: 273.2.

IR: 3064, 2964, 2921, 2877, 2239, 1596, 1494, 1450, 1326, 1031, 767, 754, 734, 698, 536 cm⁻¹



Yield: 77 mg, 0.28 mmol, 92%

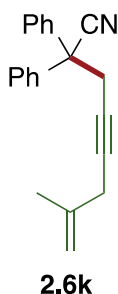
Appearance: clear light yellow oil

¹H NMR (500 MHz, CDCl₃): δ 7.51 (m, 2H), 7.38 (m, 2H), 7.26 (m, 6H), 3.52 (qt, *J* = 6.8, 2.2 Hz, 1H), 2.01 (m, 2H), 1.23 (d, *J* = 6.9 Hz, 3H), 0.93 (t, *J* = 7.5 Hz, 3H).

¹³C NMR (126 MHz, CDCl₃): δ 139.45, 139.11, 129.09, 128.62, 128.16, 128.05, 127.99, 127.31, 121.26, 87.21, 79.39, 58.13, 34.75, 18.61, 14.05, 12.66.

GC/MS: *m/z* [M]⁺ calcd for C₂₀H₁₉N: 273.2; found: 273.2.

IR: 3060, 3033, 2977, 2937, 2918, 2877, 2237, 1598, 1494, 1450, 1377, 1319, 1033, 1002, 914, 765, 750, 698, 657, 540 cm⁻¹



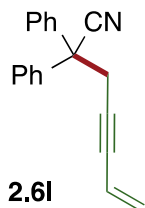
Yield: 74 mg, 0.26 mmol, 87%

Appearance: clear yellow oil

¹H NMR (500 MHz, CDCl₃): δ 7.40 (br m, 10H), 4.84 (m, 1H), 4.76 (m, 1H), 3.28 (t, *J* = 2.4 Hz, 2H), 2.84 (m, 2H), 1.67 (m, 3H).

¹³C NMR (126 MHz, CDCl₃): δ 140.68, 139.55, 129.13, 128.48, 127.48, 122.31, 111.92, 82.66, 76.86, 51.98, 31.70, 27.80, 22.32.

GC/MS: *m/z* [M]⁺ calcd for C₂₁H₁₉N: 285.2; found: 285.2.



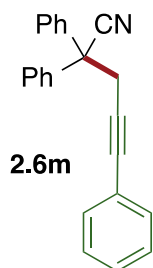
Yield: 14 mg, 0.054 mmol, 18%

Appearance: clear yellow oil

¹H NMR (500 MHz, CDCl₃): δ 7.40 (br m, 10H), 5.71 (ddt, *J* = 17.5, 11.0, 2.0 Hz, 1H), 5.55 (dd, *J* = 17.6, 2.2 Hz, 1H), 5.43 (dd, *J* = 11.1, 2.2 Hz, 1H), 3.38 (d, *J* = 2.0 Hz, 2H).

¹³C NMR (126 MHz, CDCl₃): δ 139.41, 129.15, 128.58, 127.68, 127.47, 122.08, 117.05, 84.65, 84.12, 51.73, 32.08.

GC/MS: *m/z* [M]⁺ calcd for C₁₉H₁₅N: 257.1; found: 257.2.



Yield: 16 mg, 0.054 mmol, 18%

Appearance: clear yellow oil

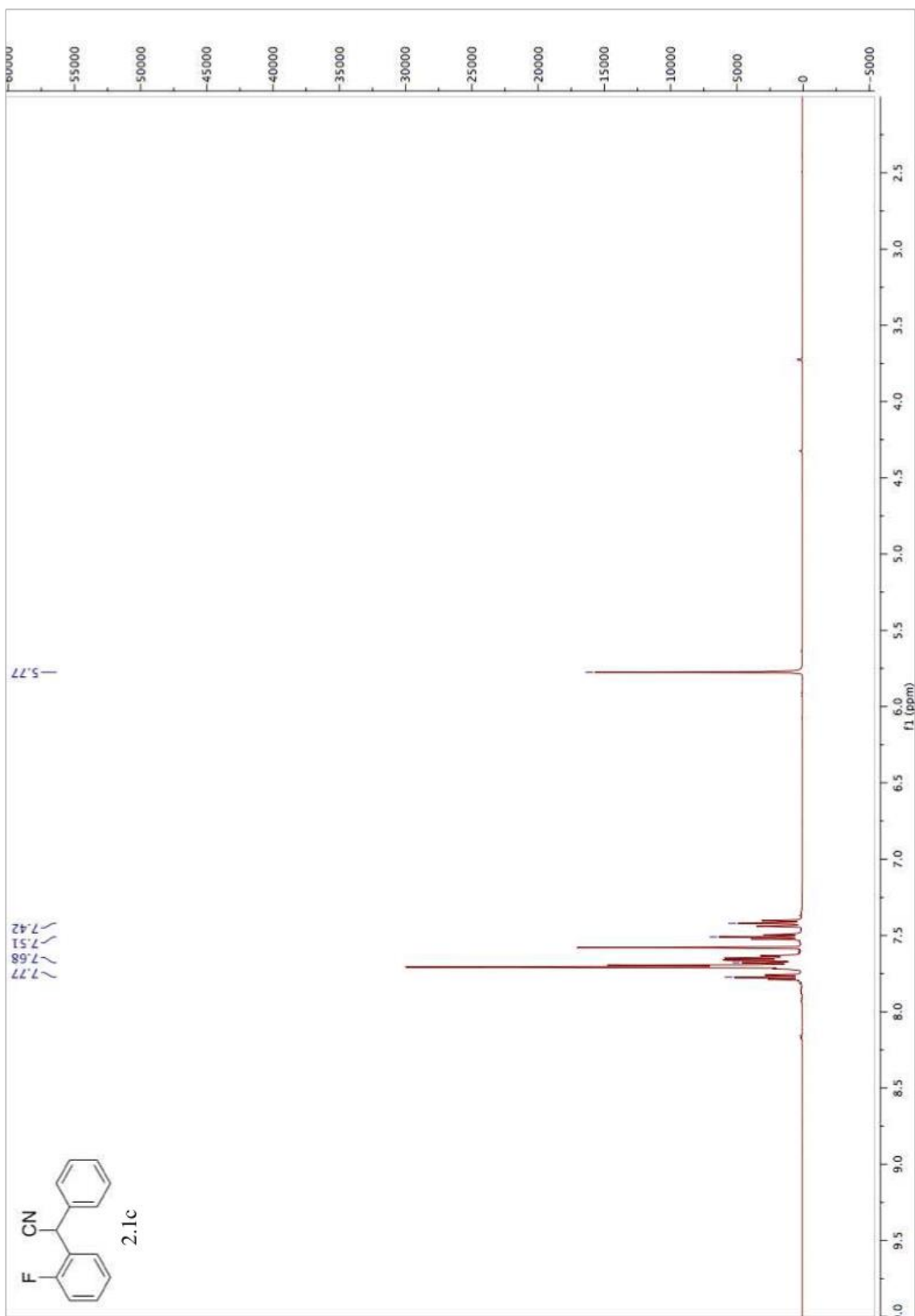
^1H NMR (500 MHz, CDCl_3): δ 7.40 (m, 15H), 3.49 (s, 2H).

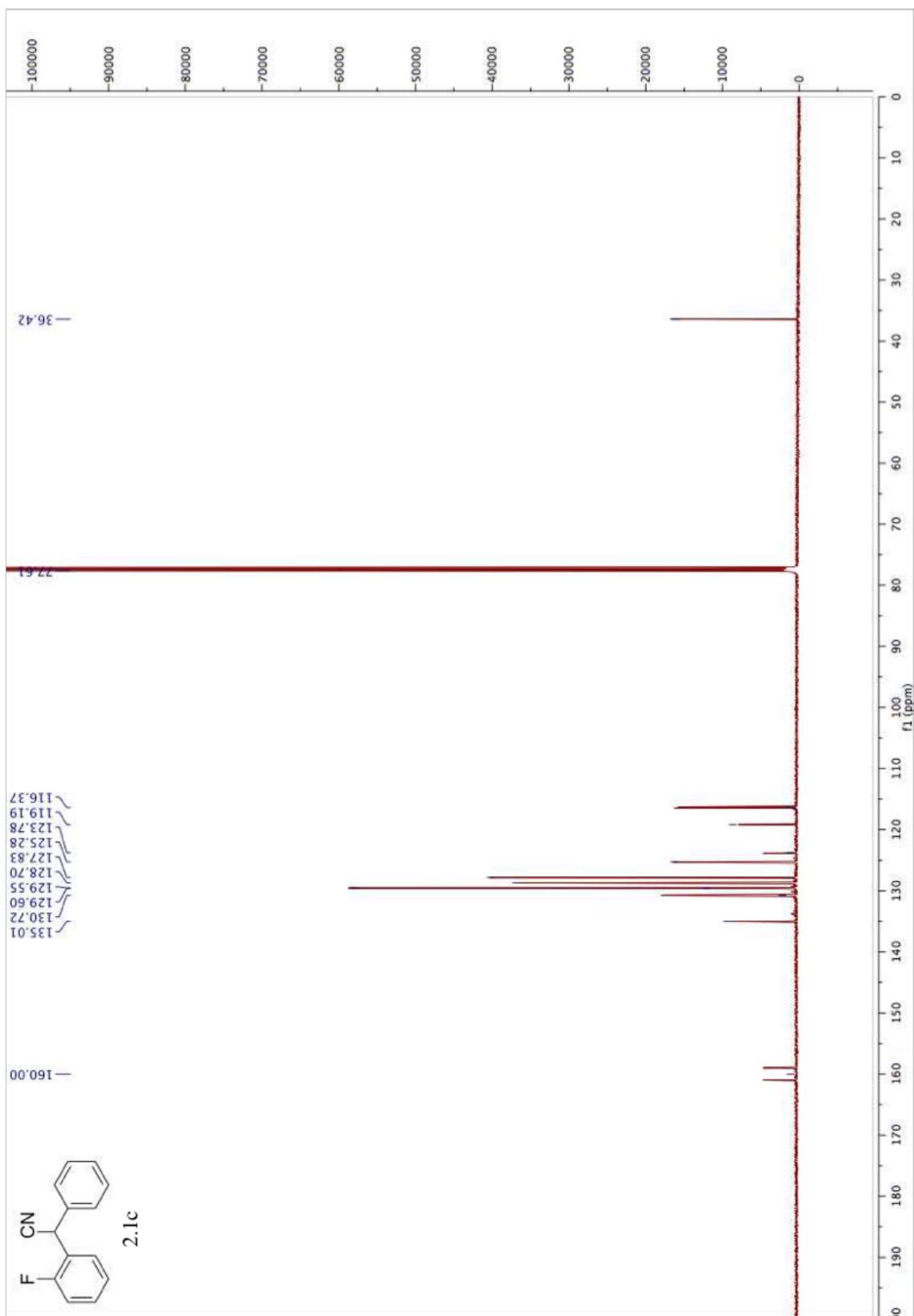
^{13}C NMR (126 MHz, CDCl_3): δ 139.44, 131.96, 129.14, 128.59, 128.53, 128.48, 127.53, 123.08, 122.13, 85.53, 84.17, 51.80, 32.17.

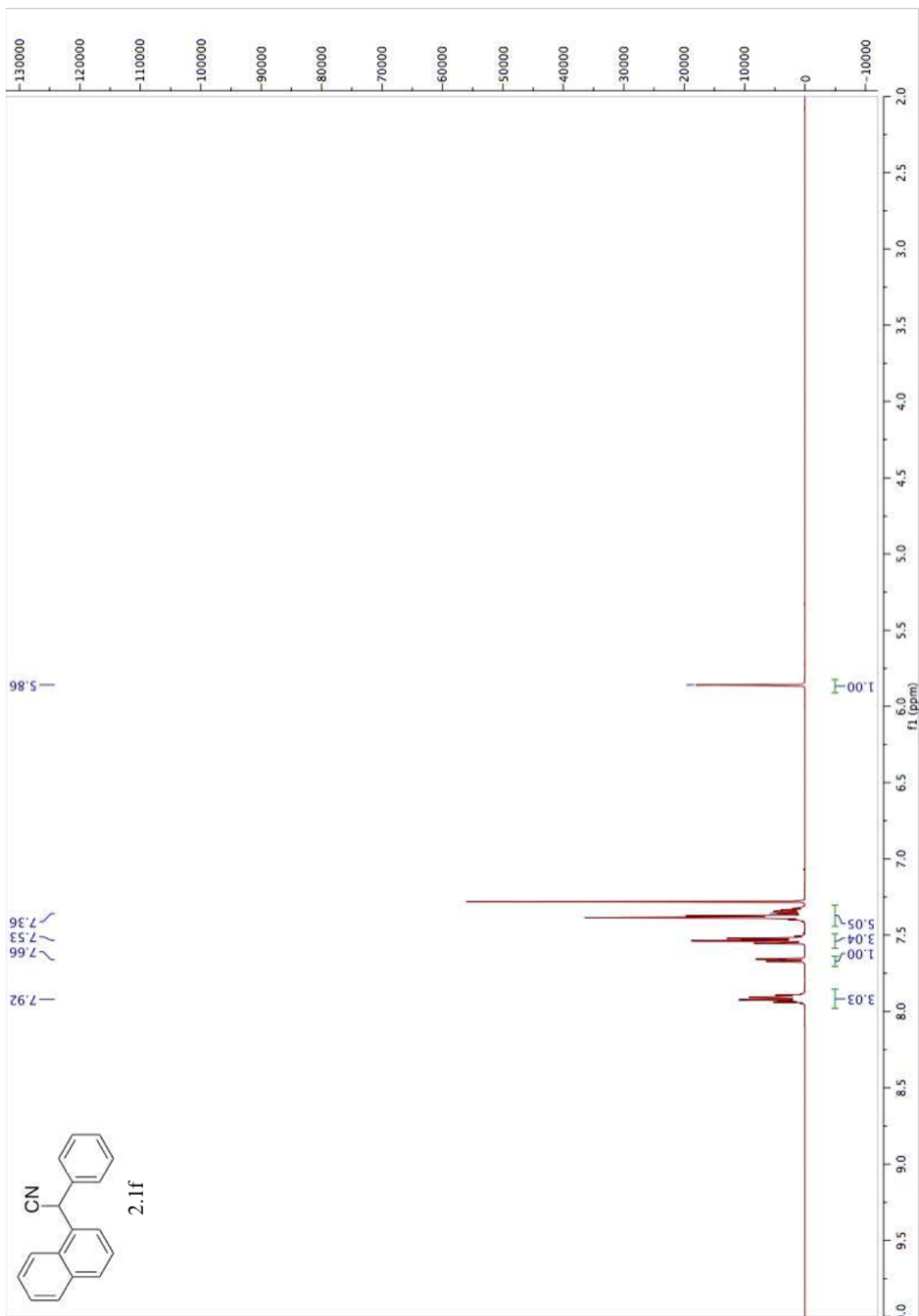
GC/MS: m/z $[\text{M}]^+$ calcd for $\text{C}_{23}\text{H}_{17}\text{N}$: 307.1; found: 307.2

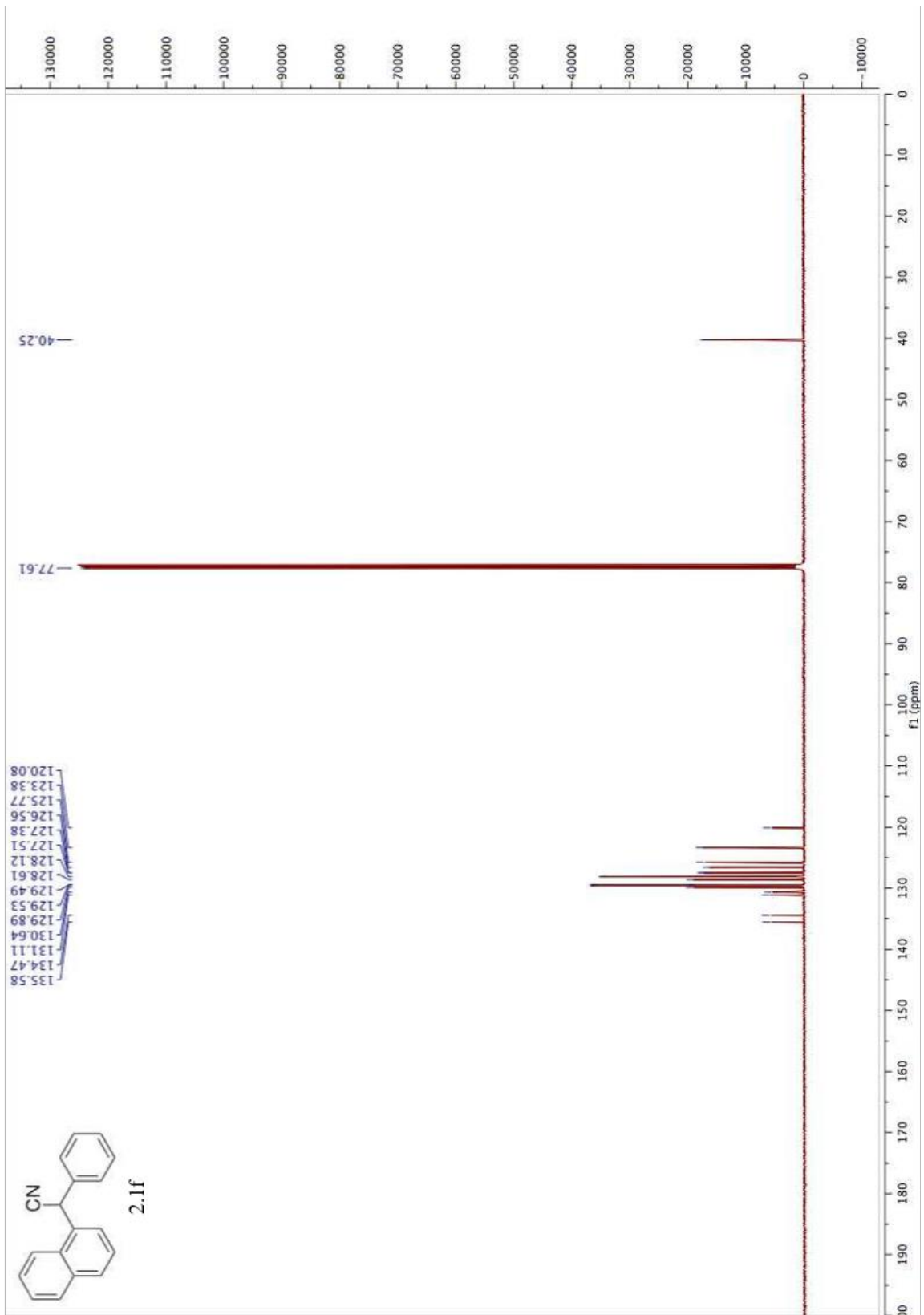
IR: 3060, 3031, 2954, 2923, 2852, 2239, 1596, 1583, 1490, 1448, 1313, 1031, 912, 756, 694, 655, 626, 541, 532 cm^{-1}

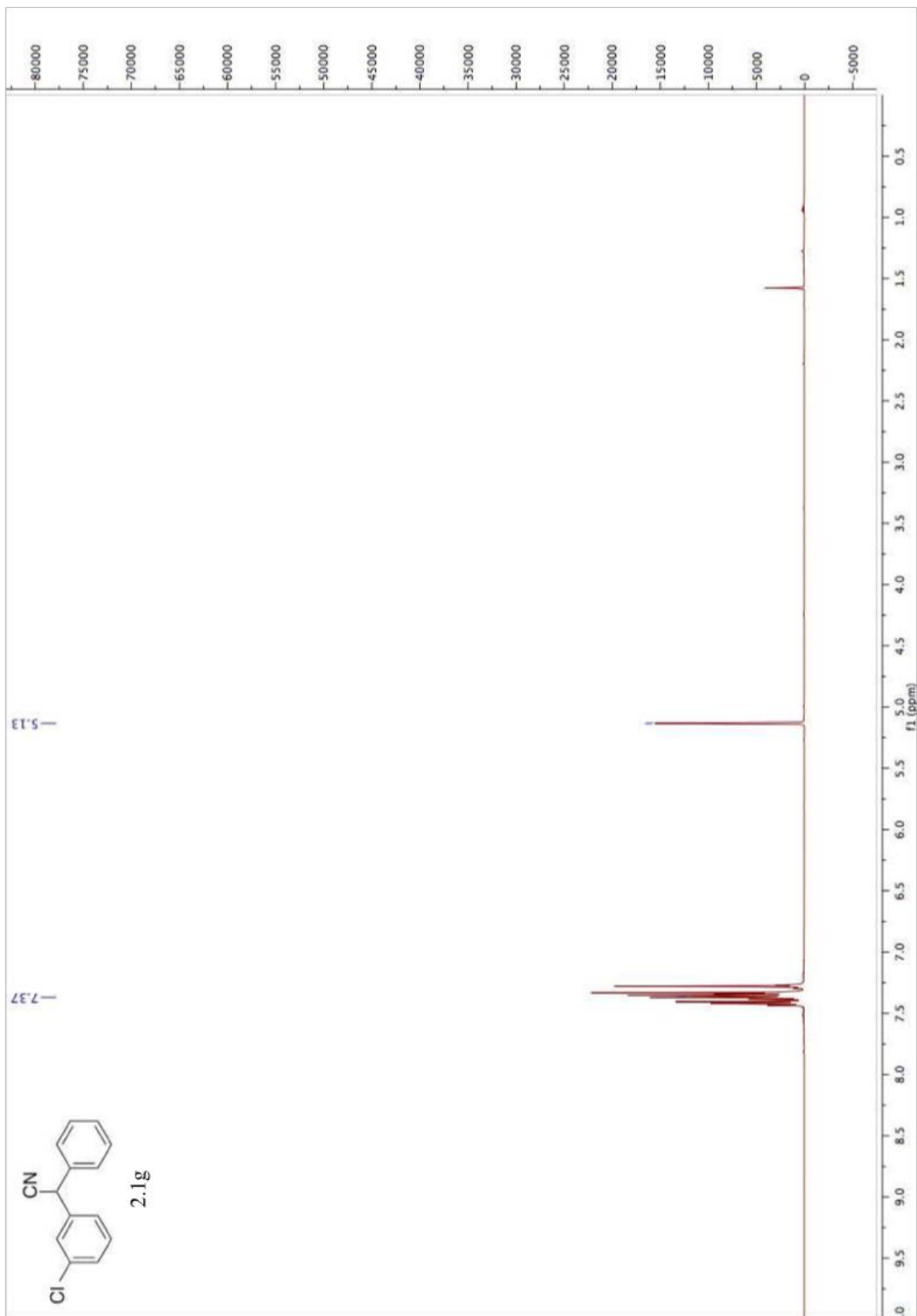
^1H and ^{13}C NMR Spectra:

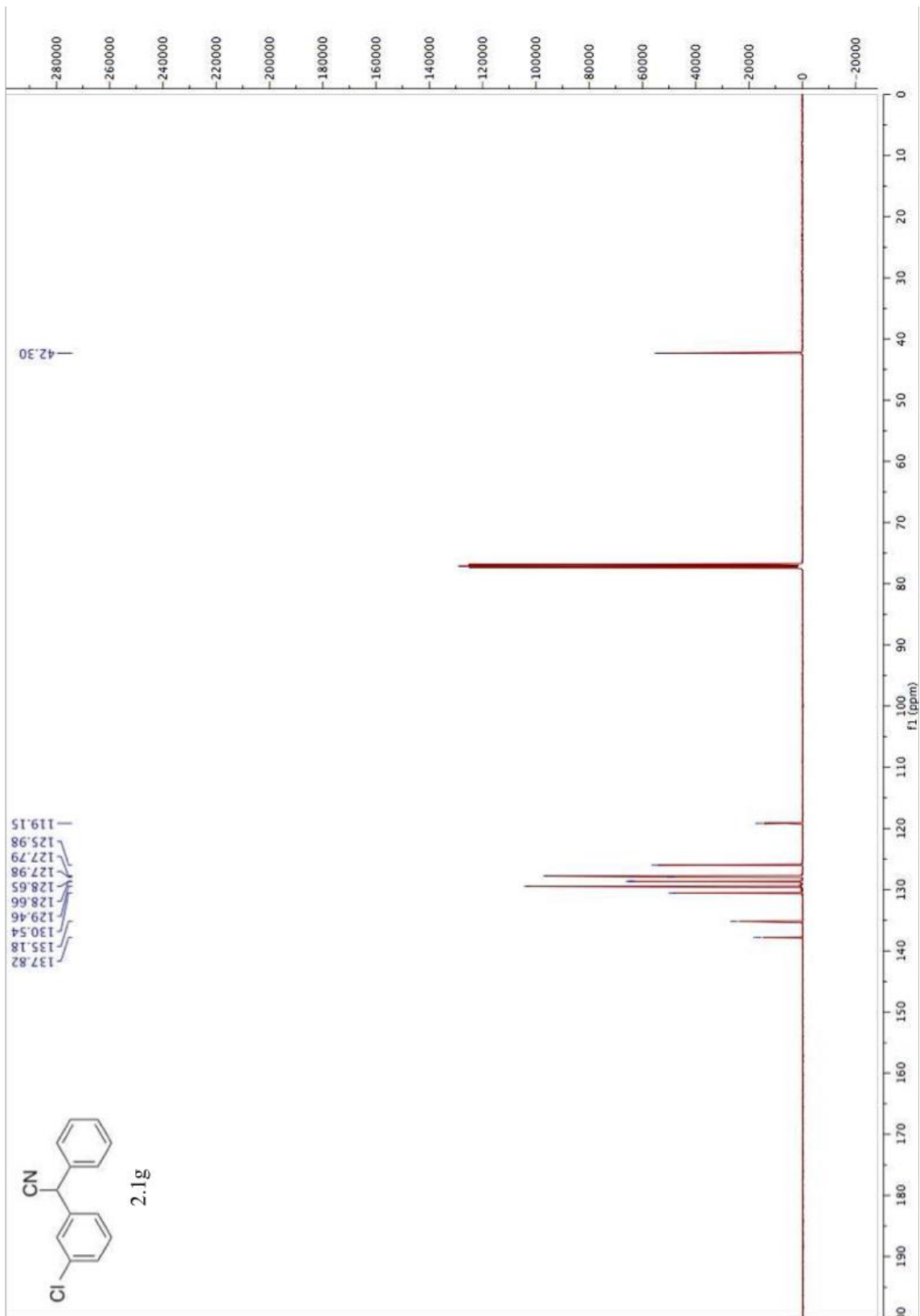


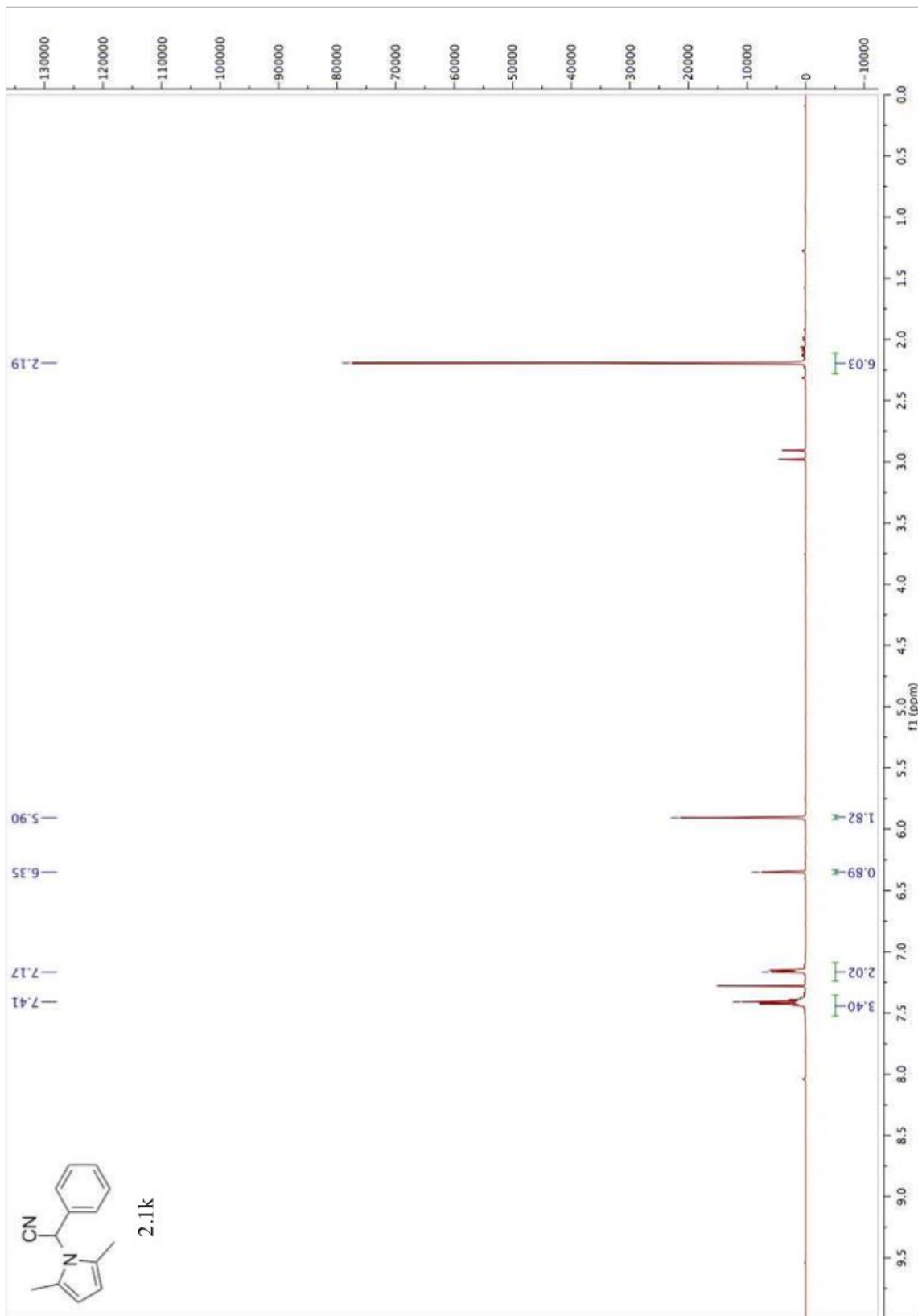


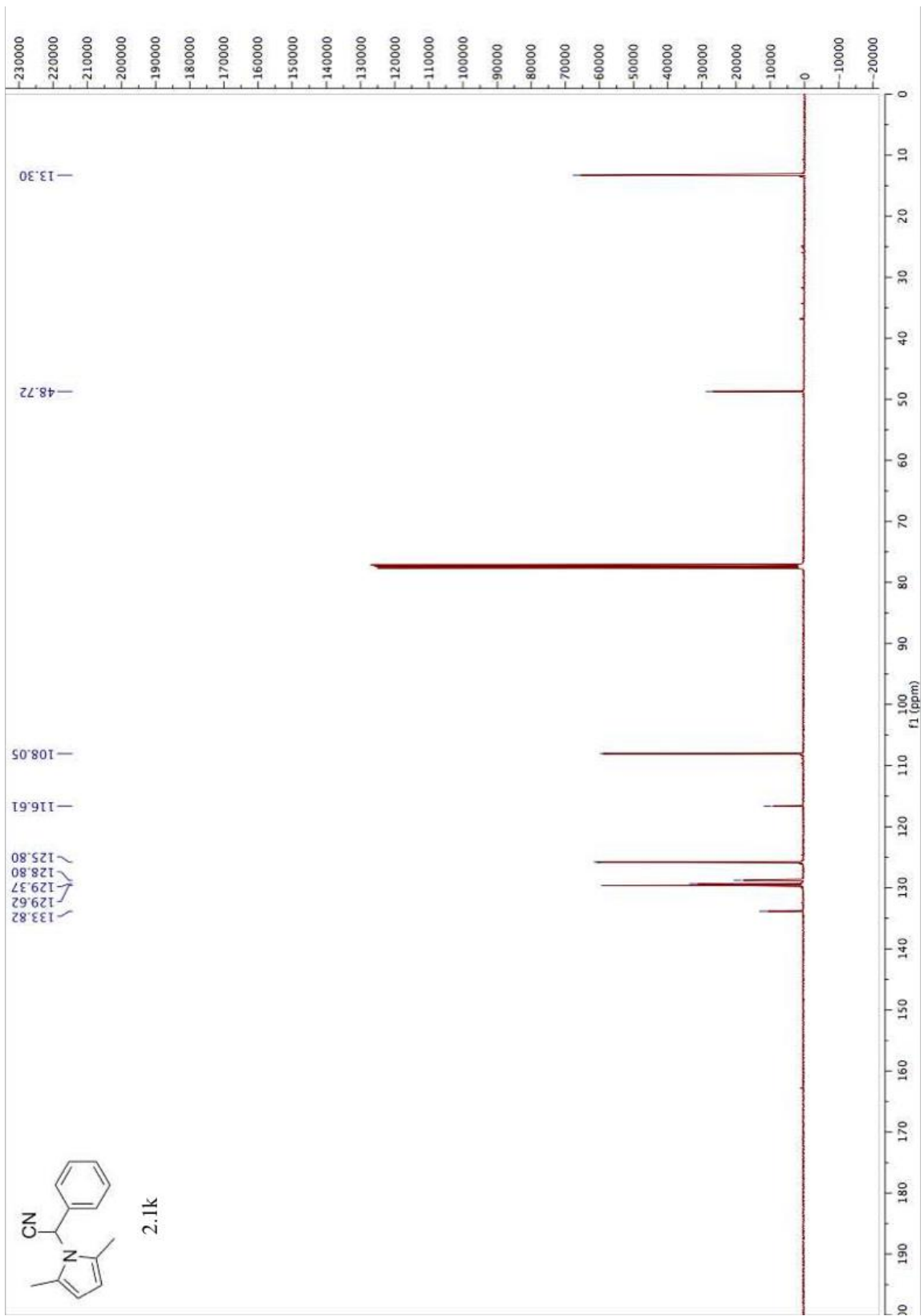


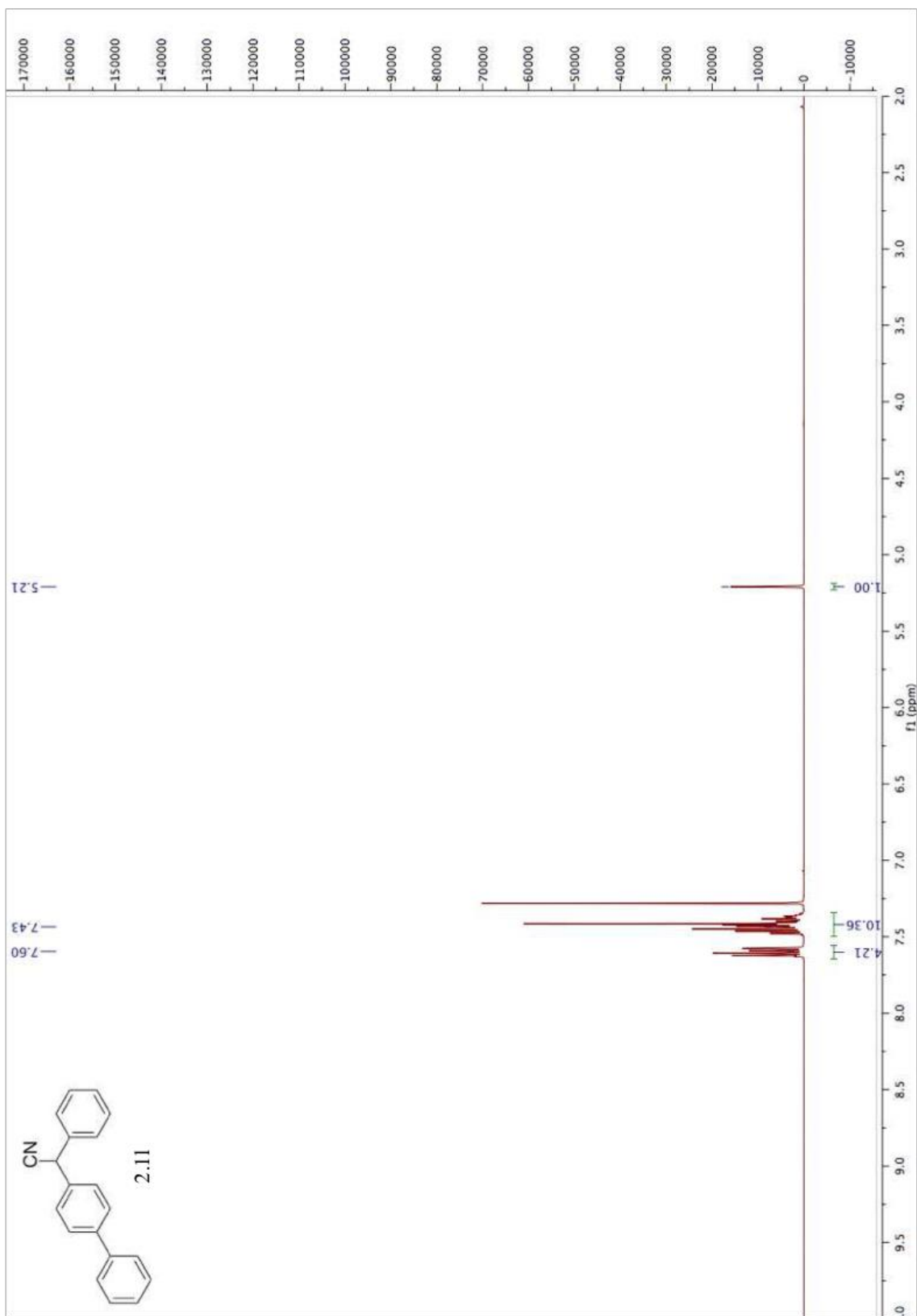


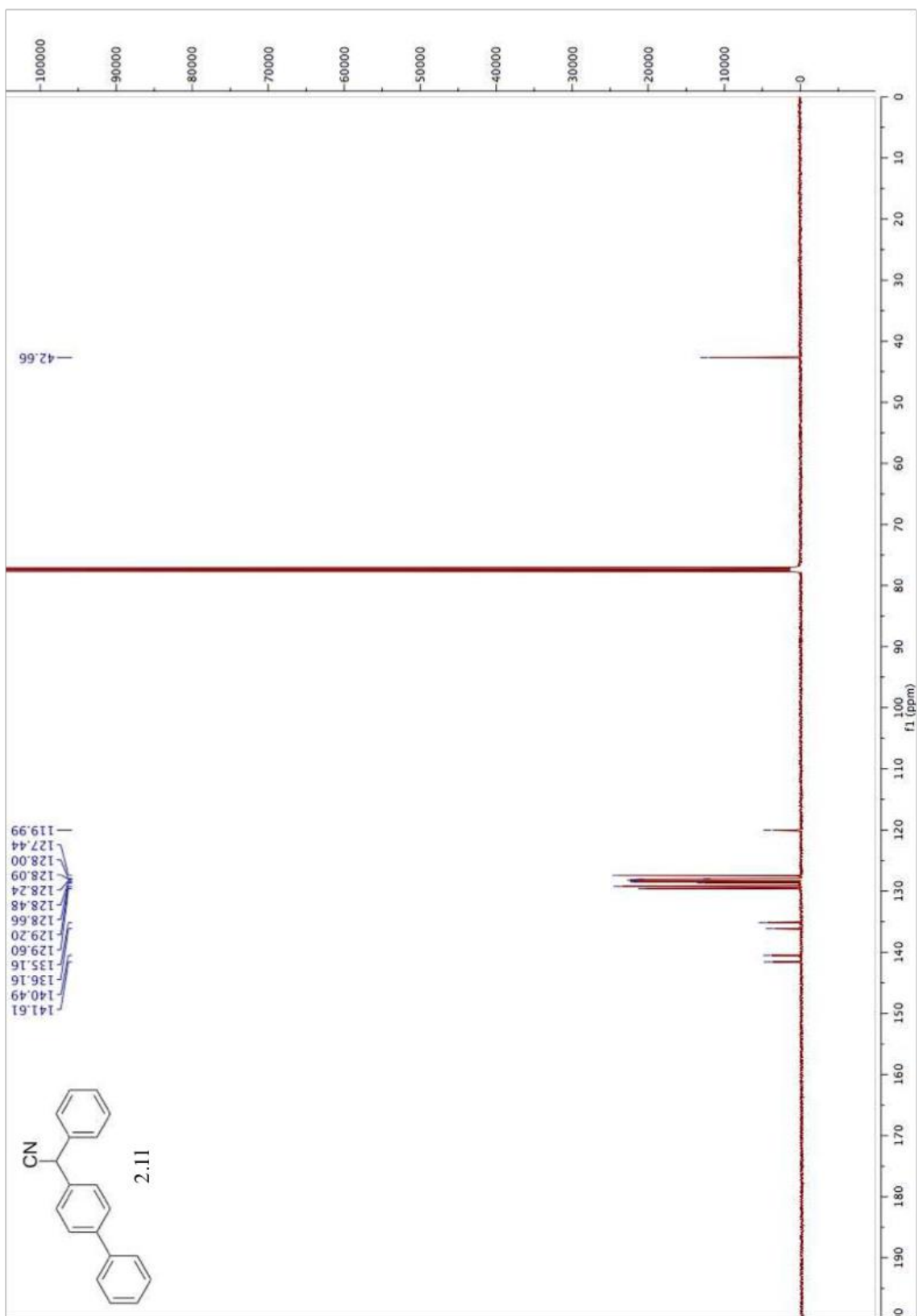


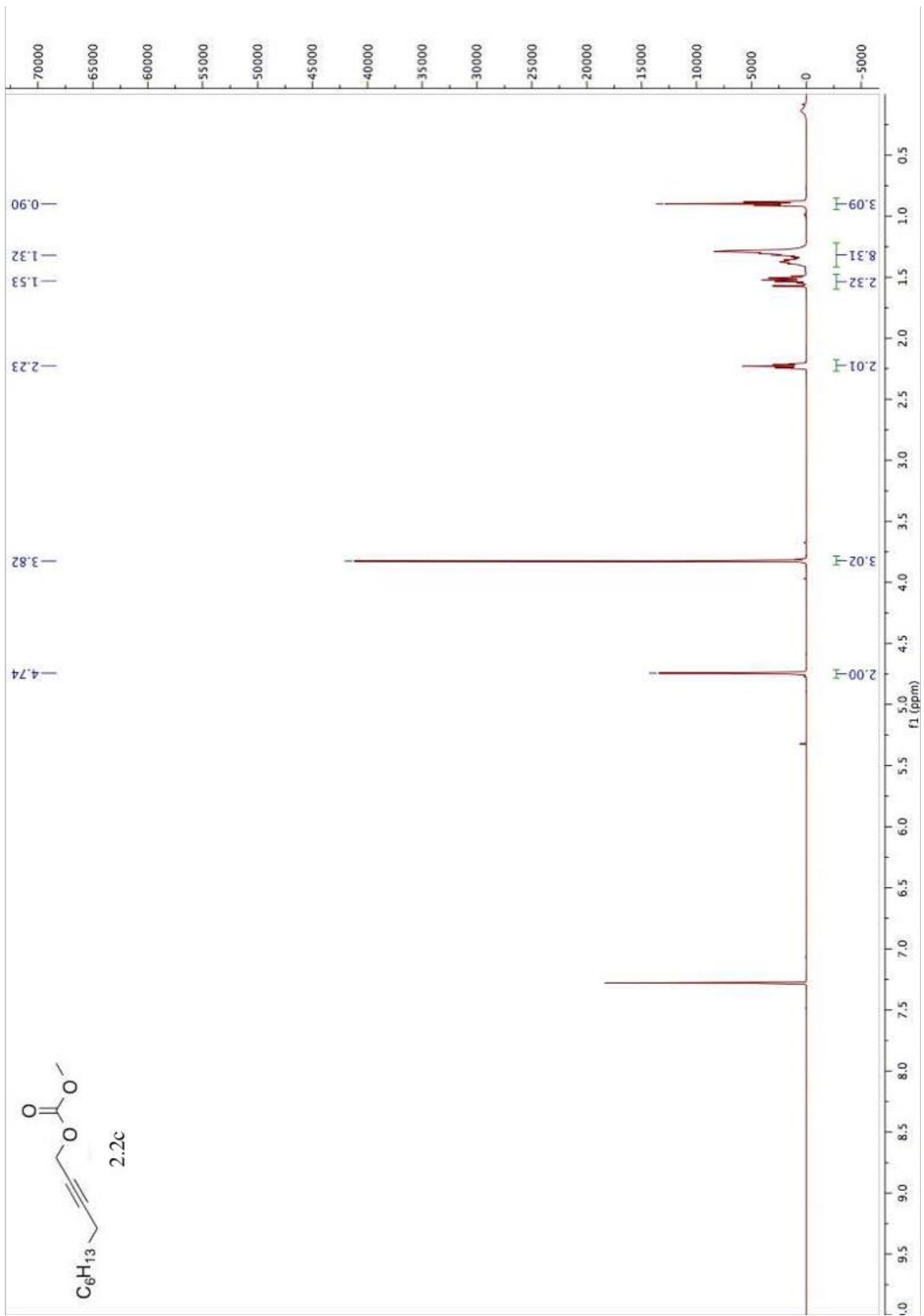


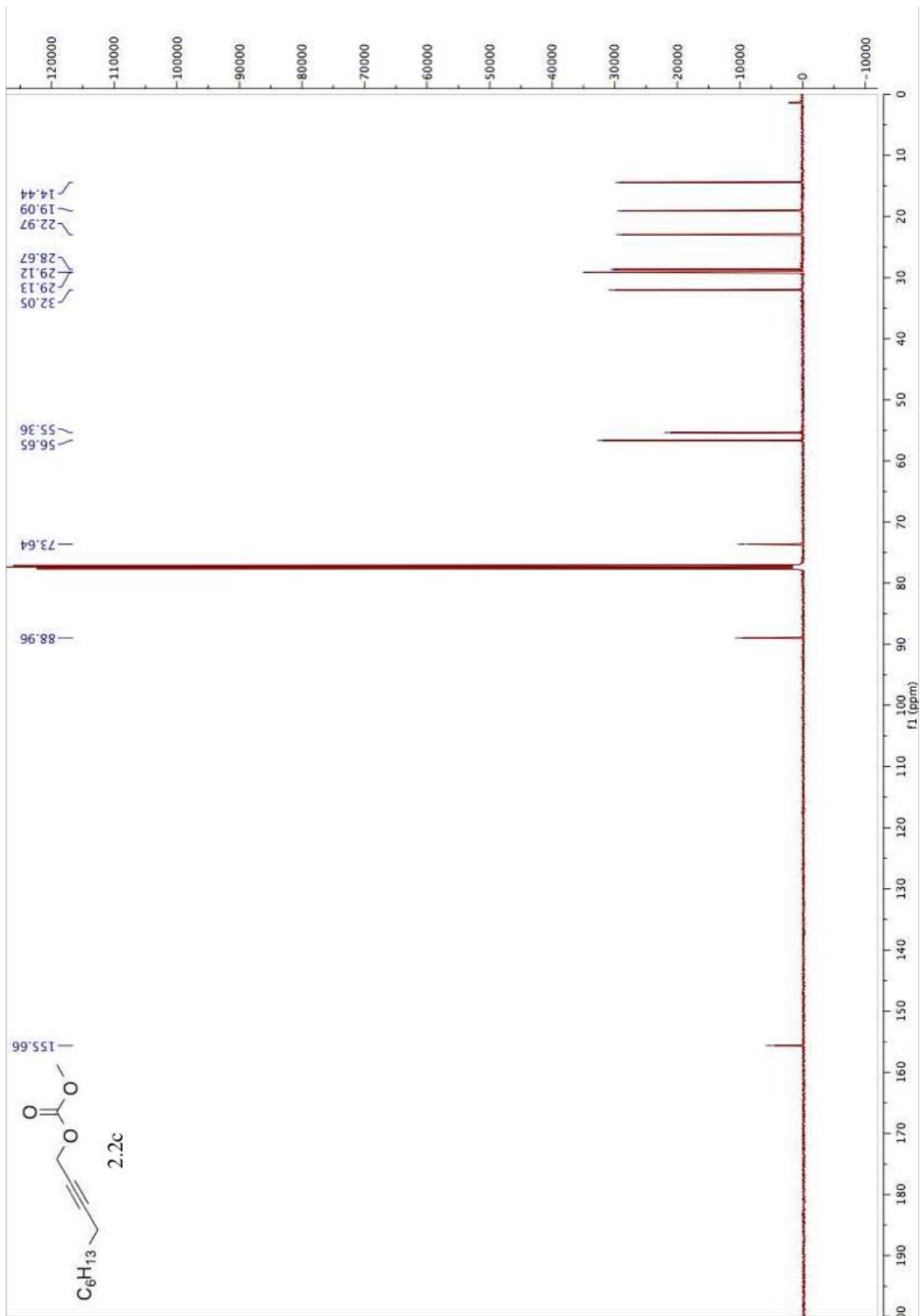


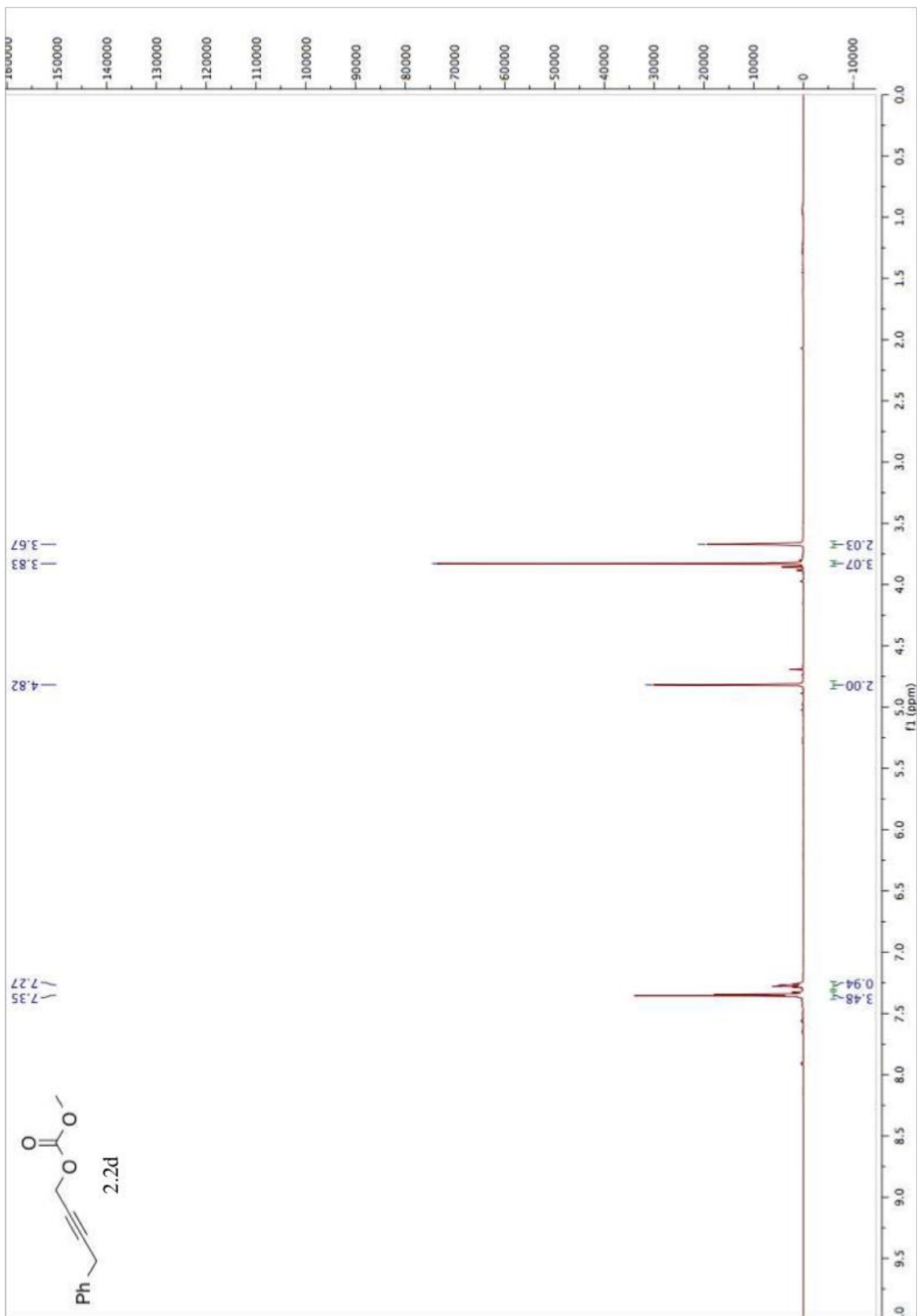


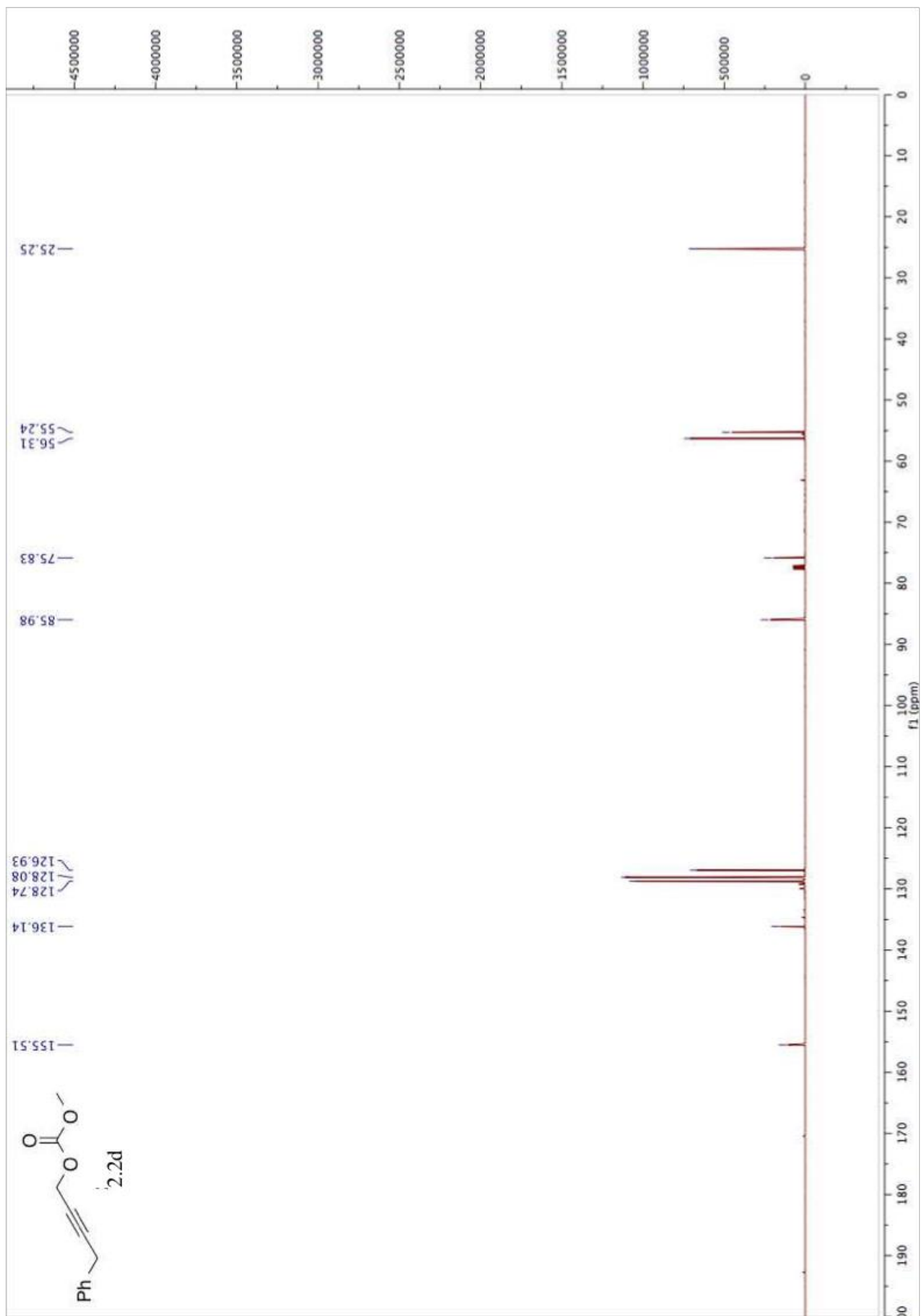


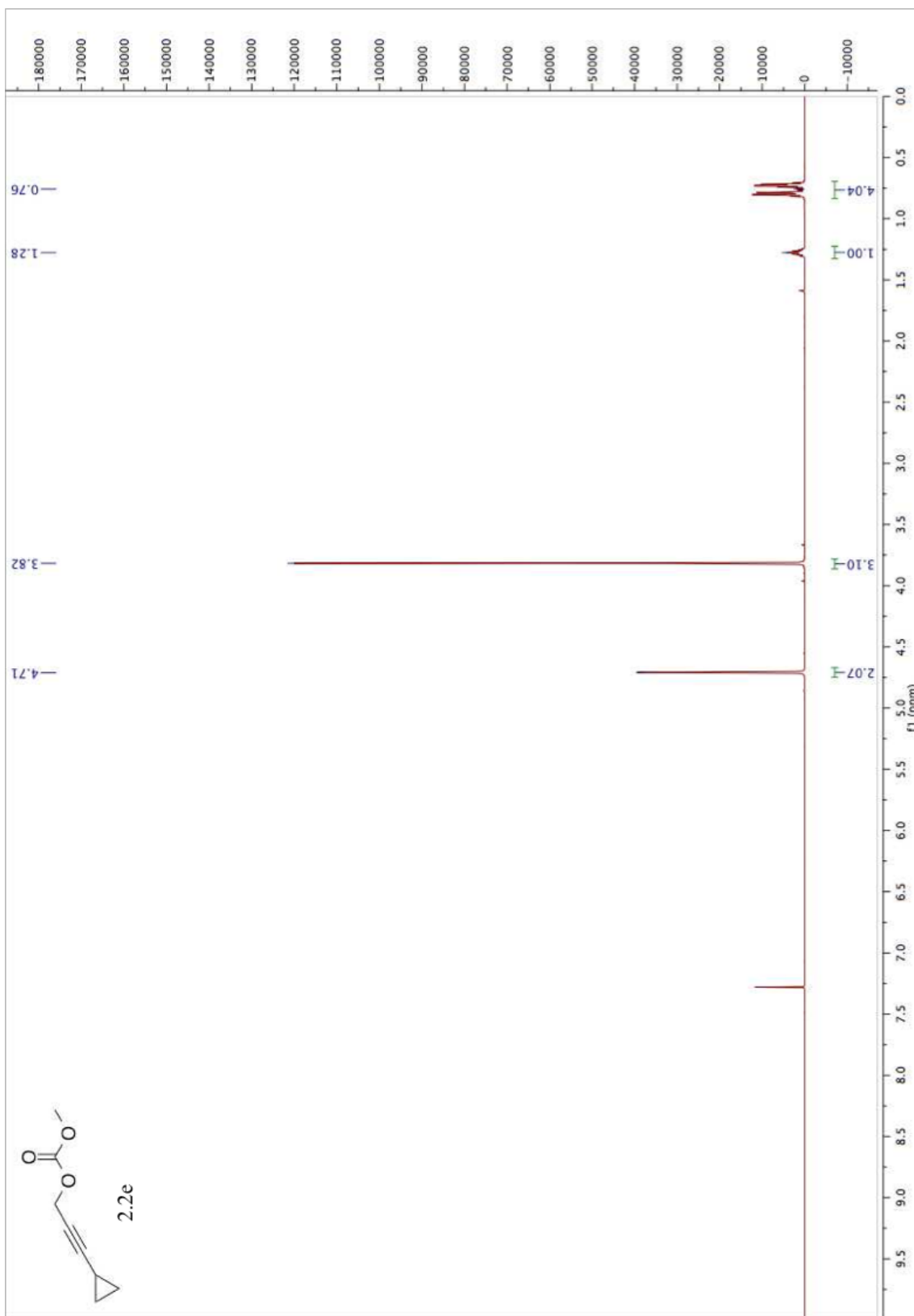


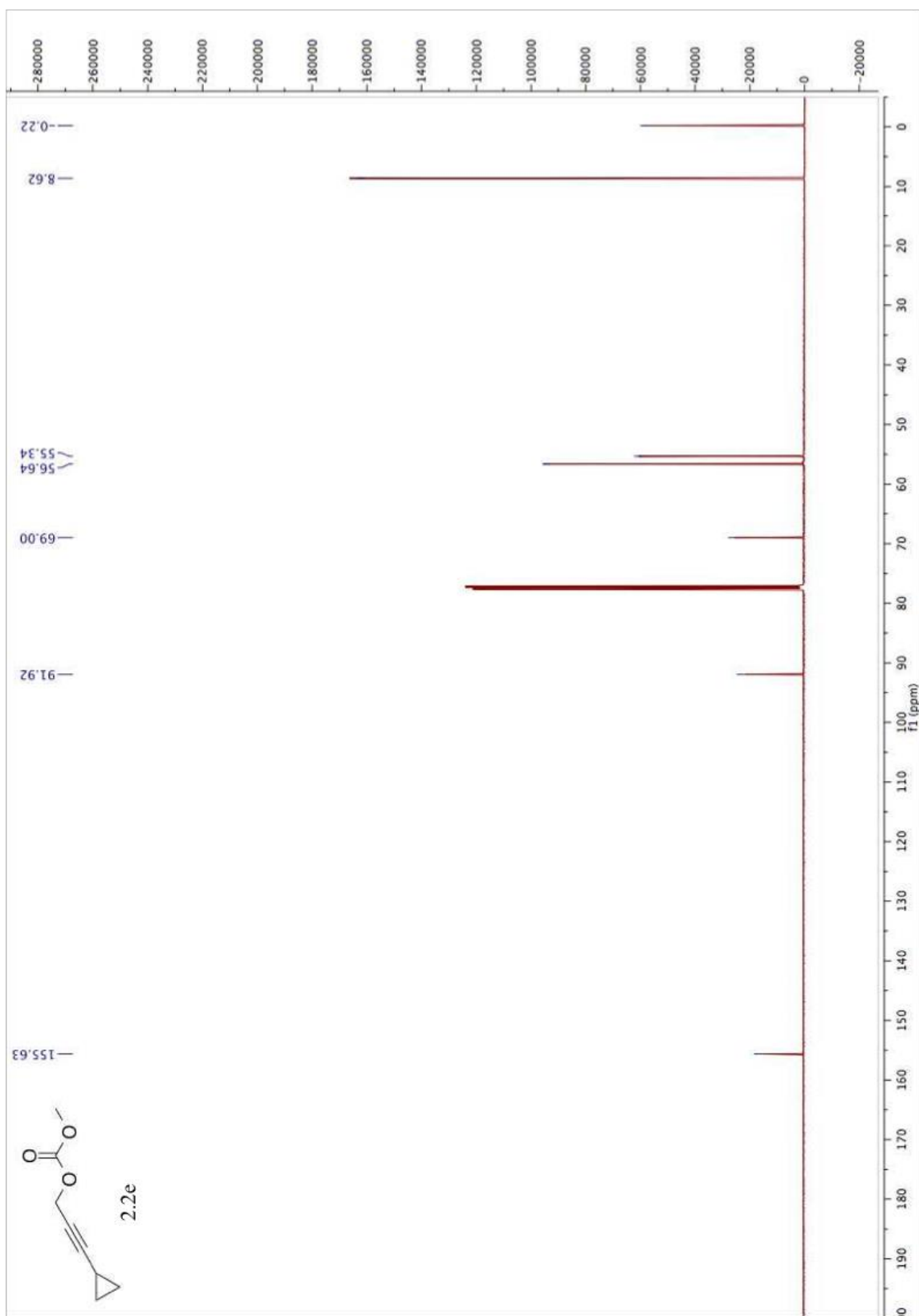


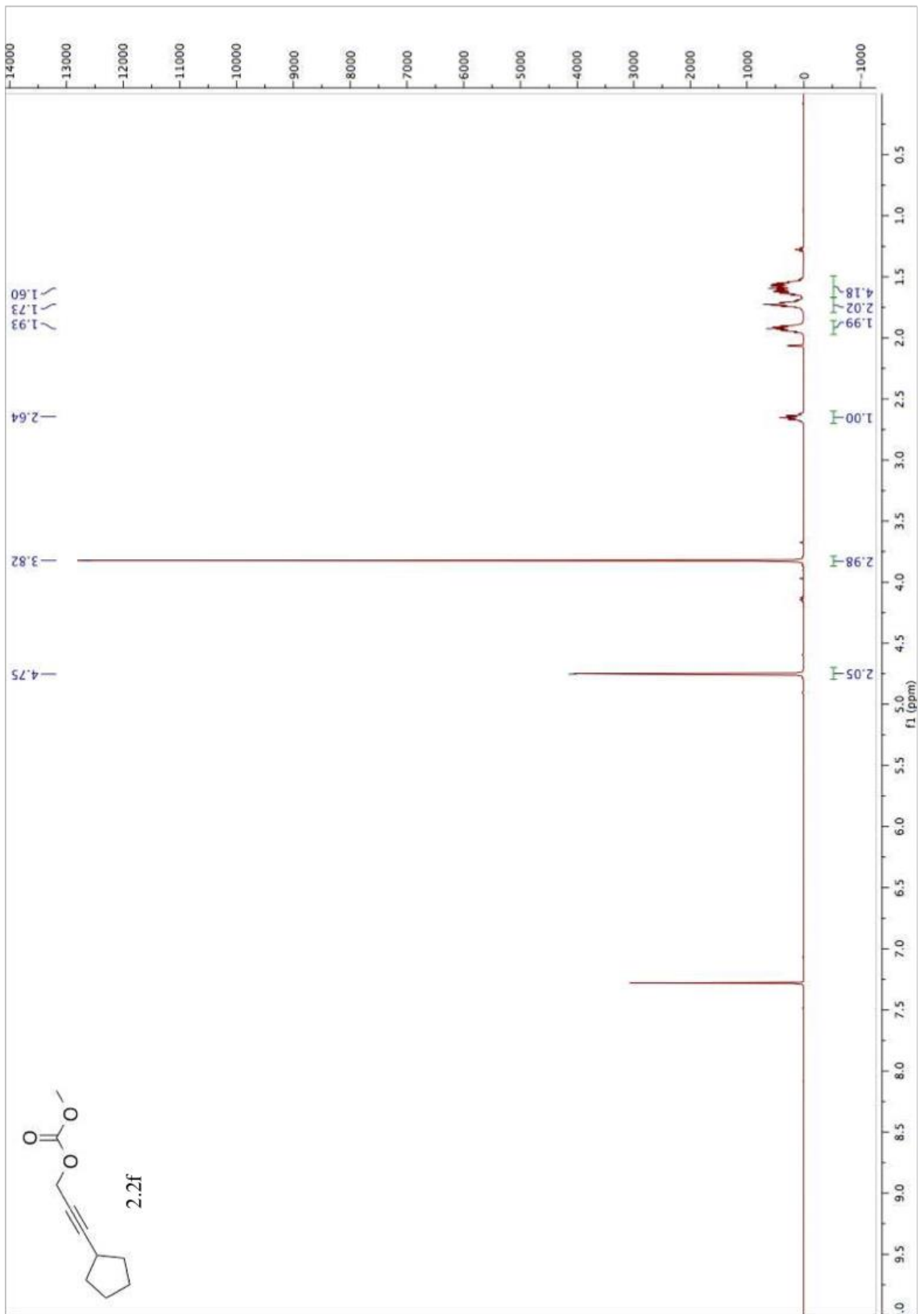


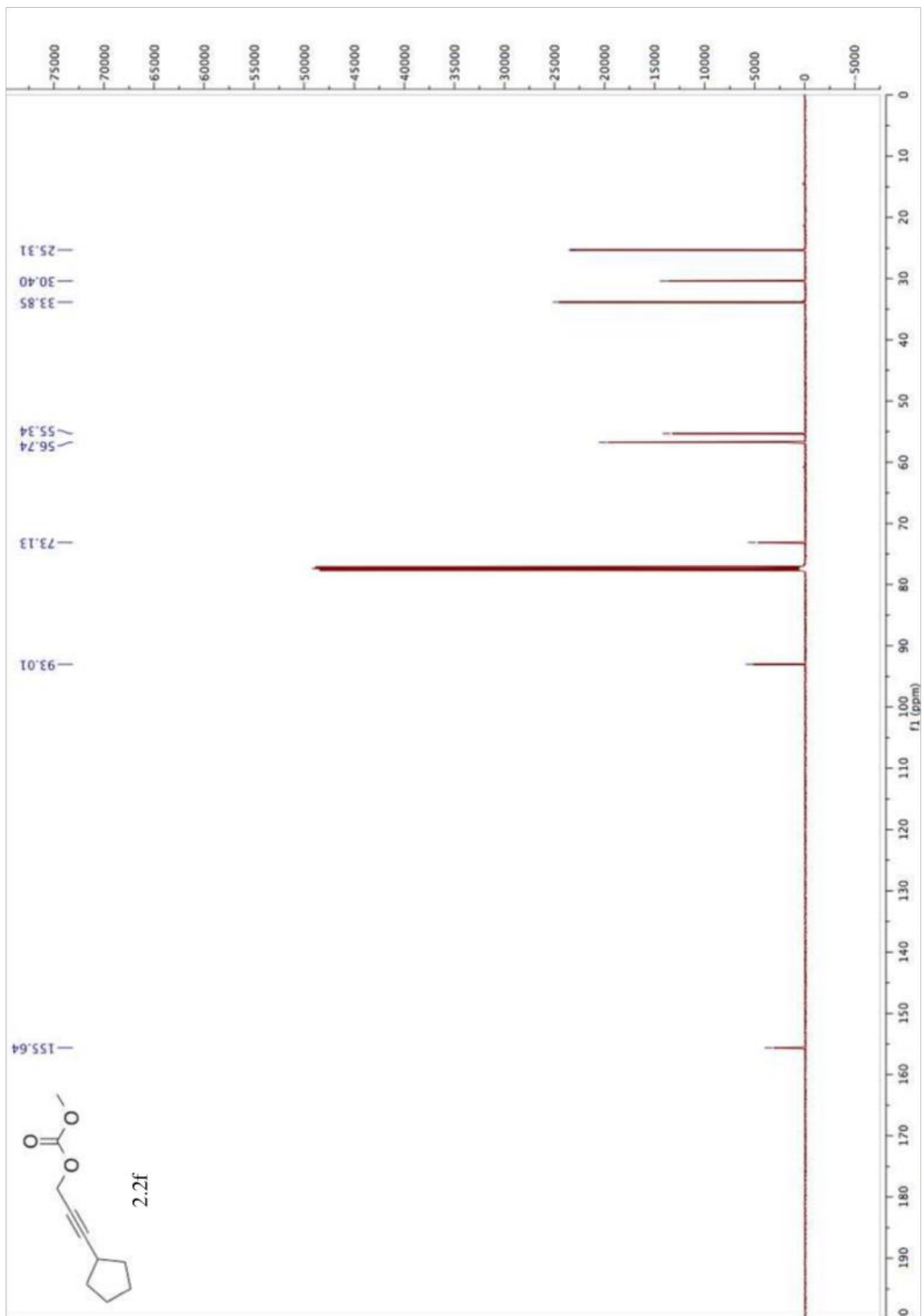


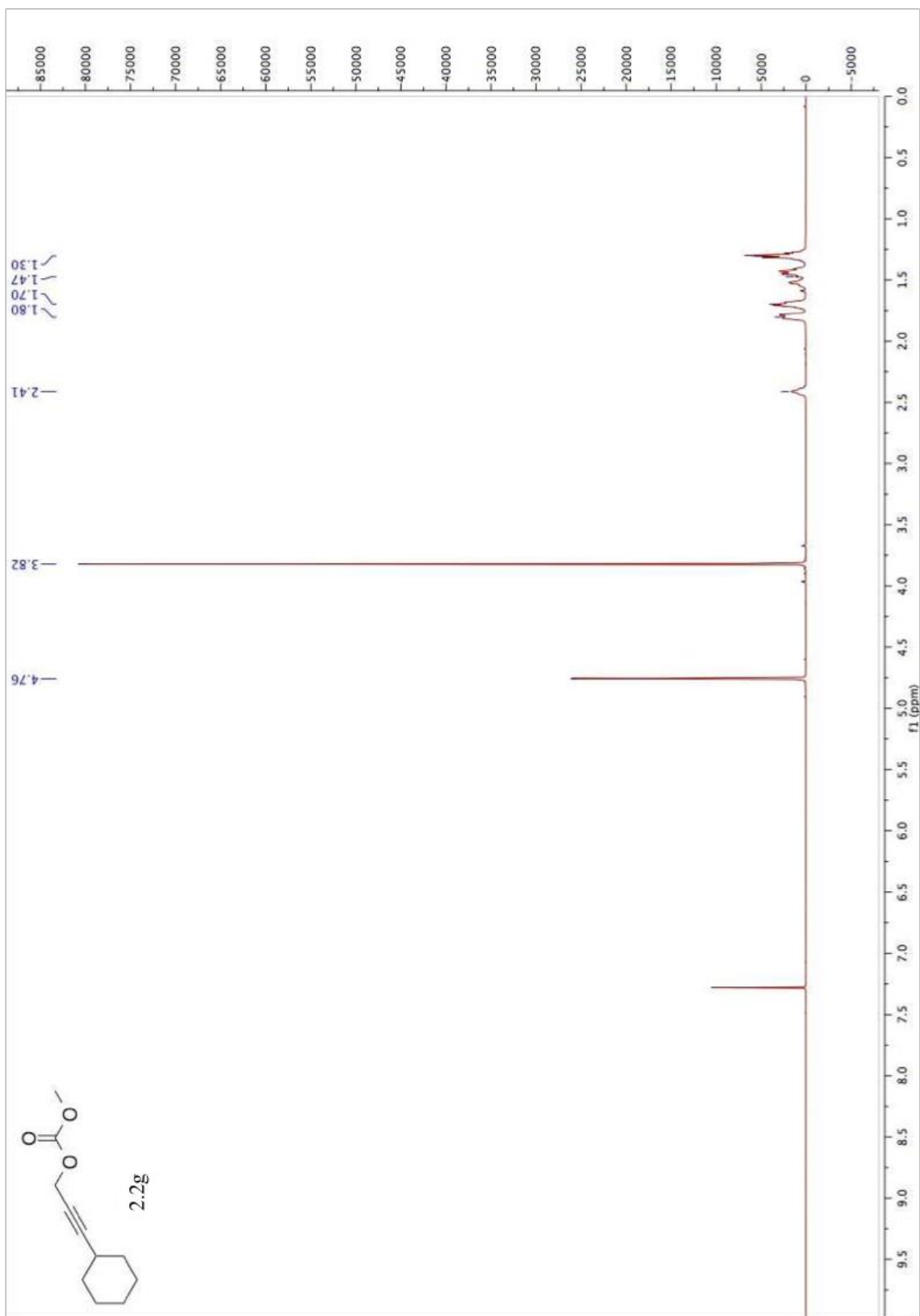


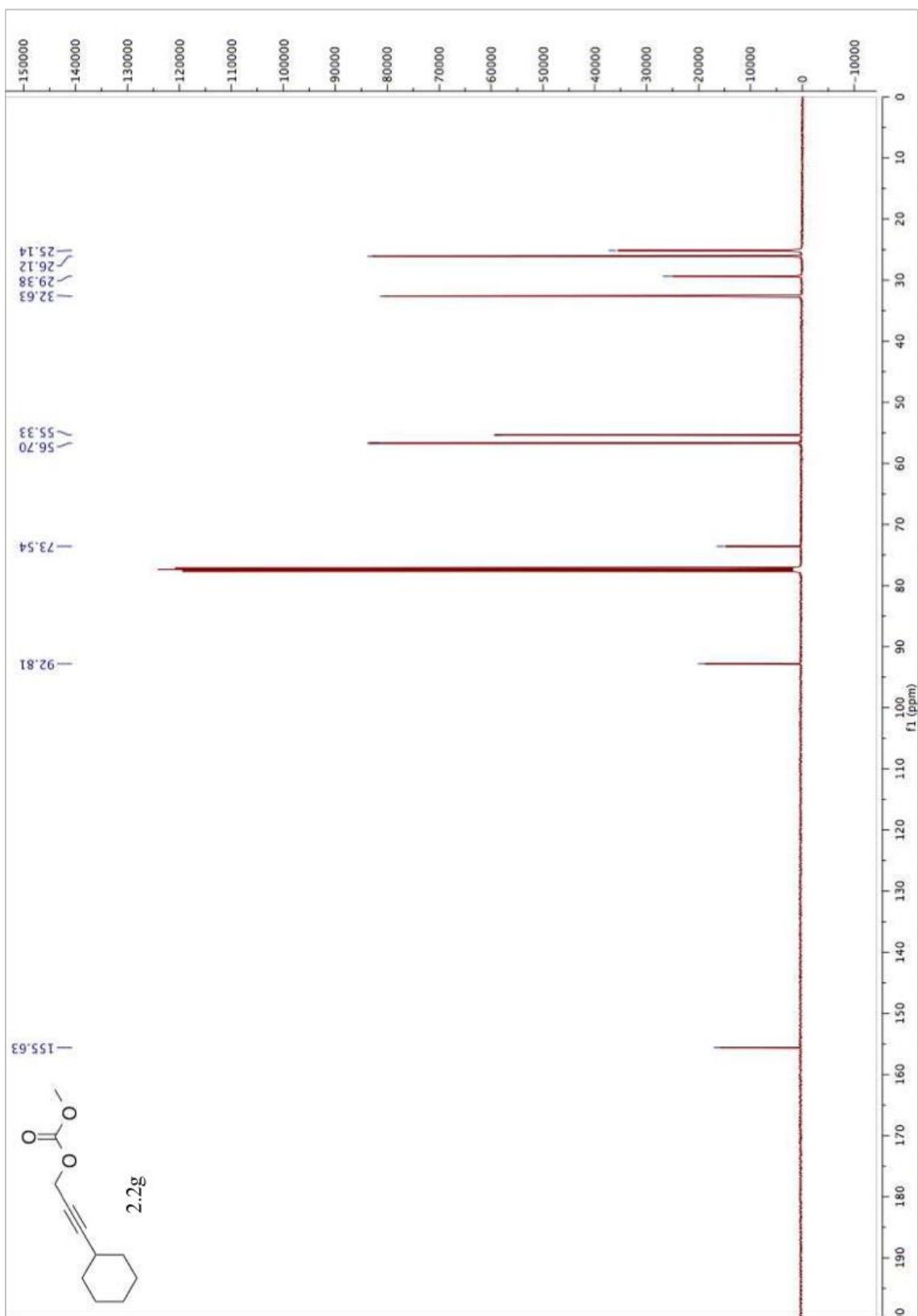


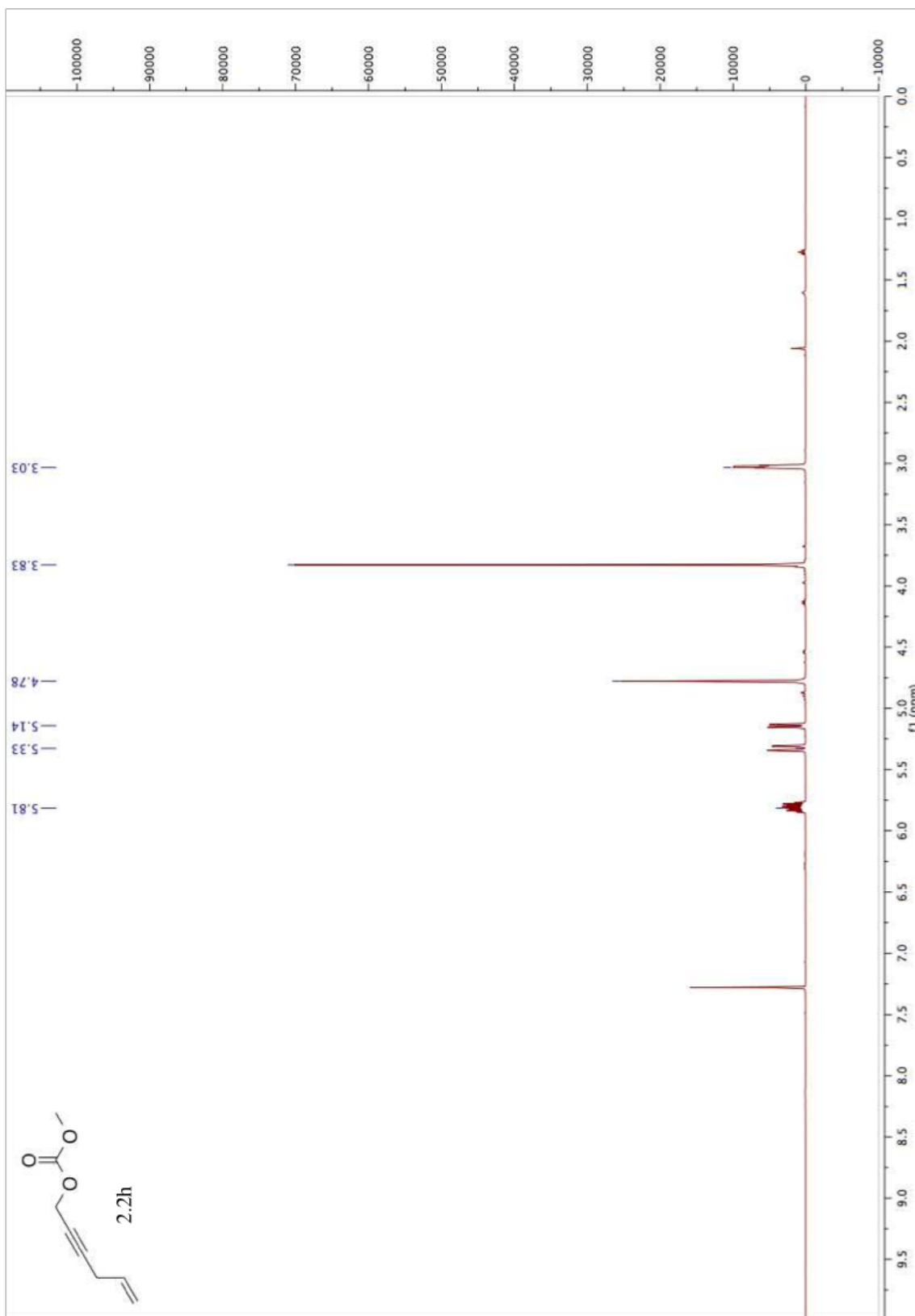


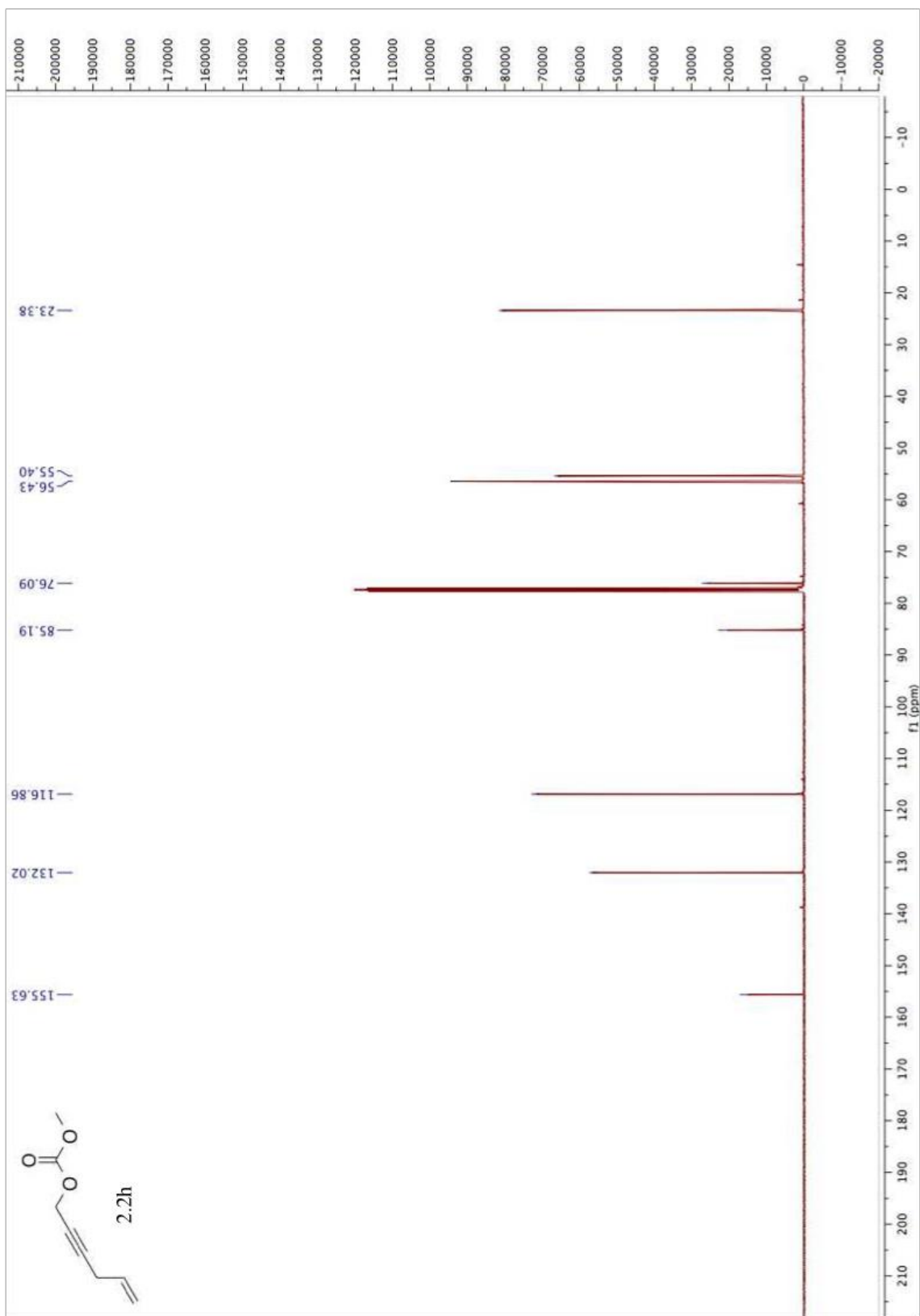


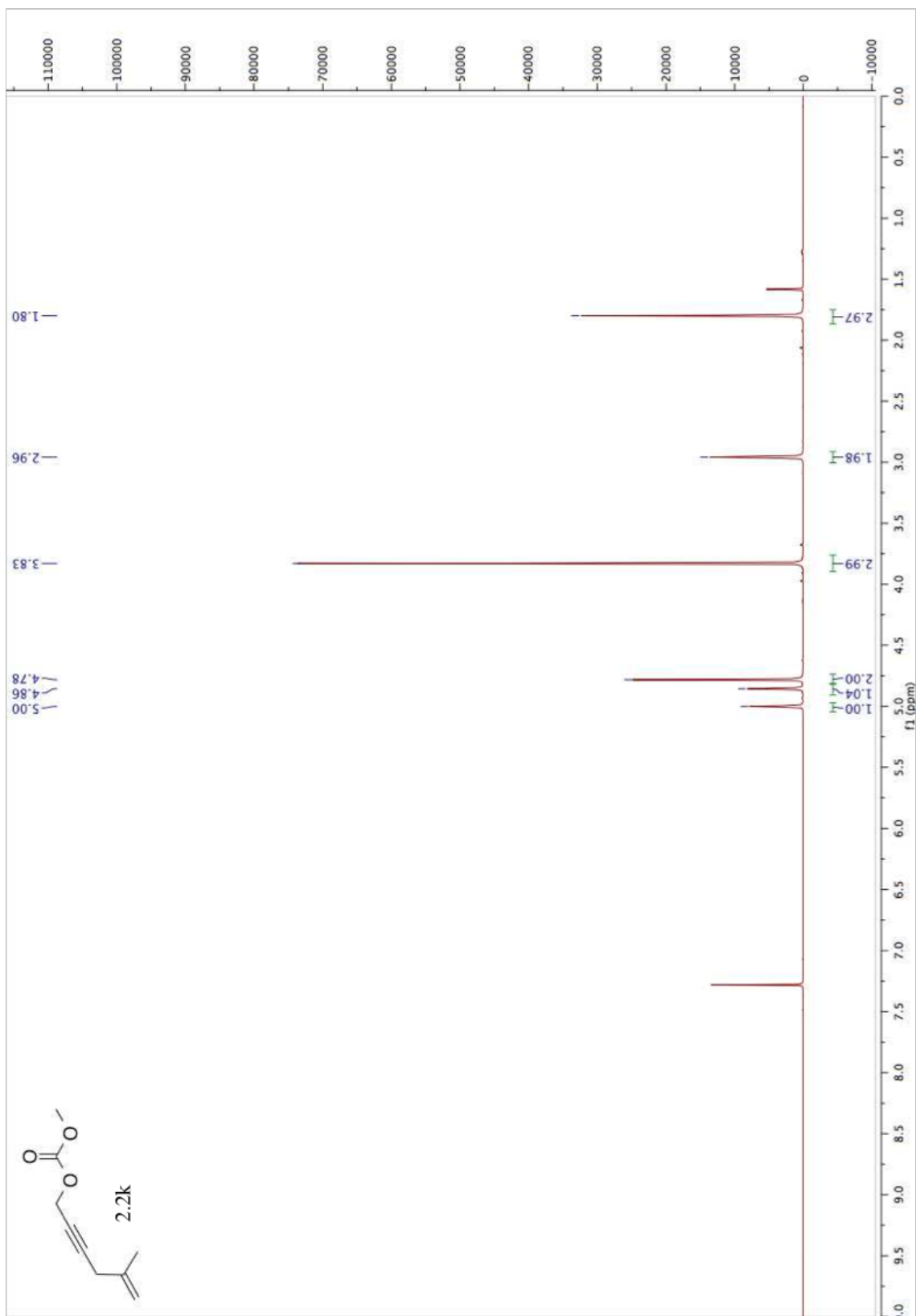


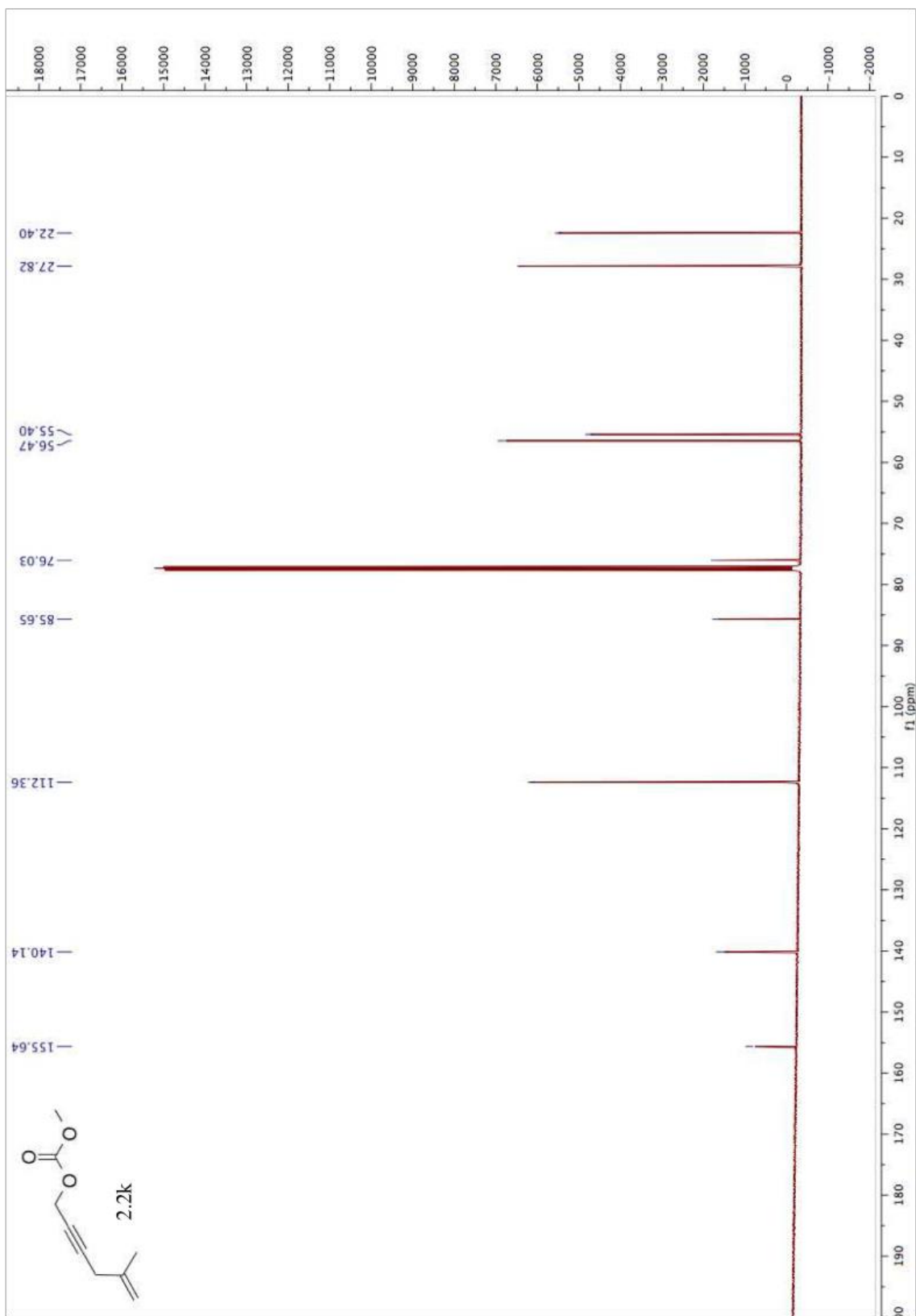




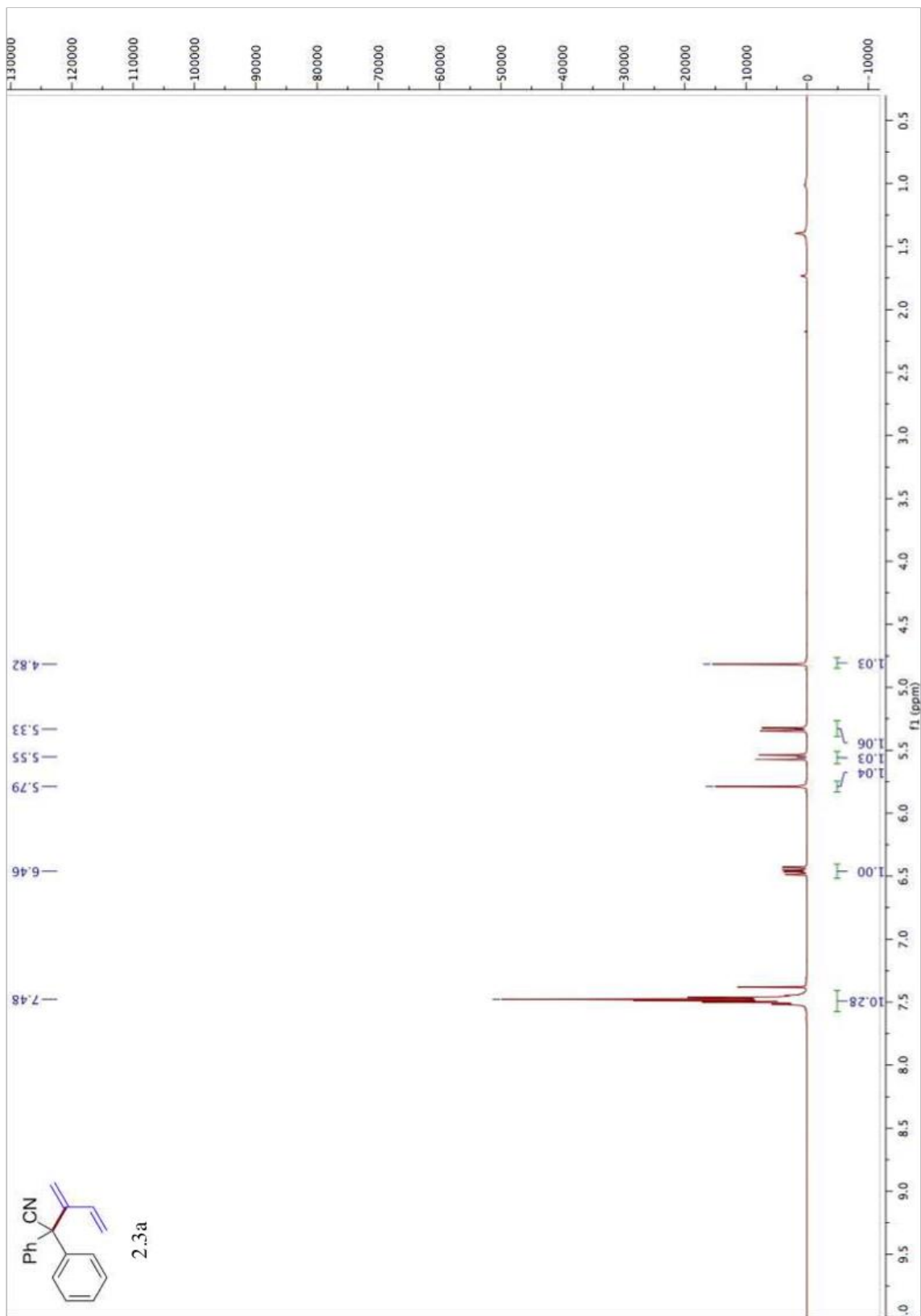


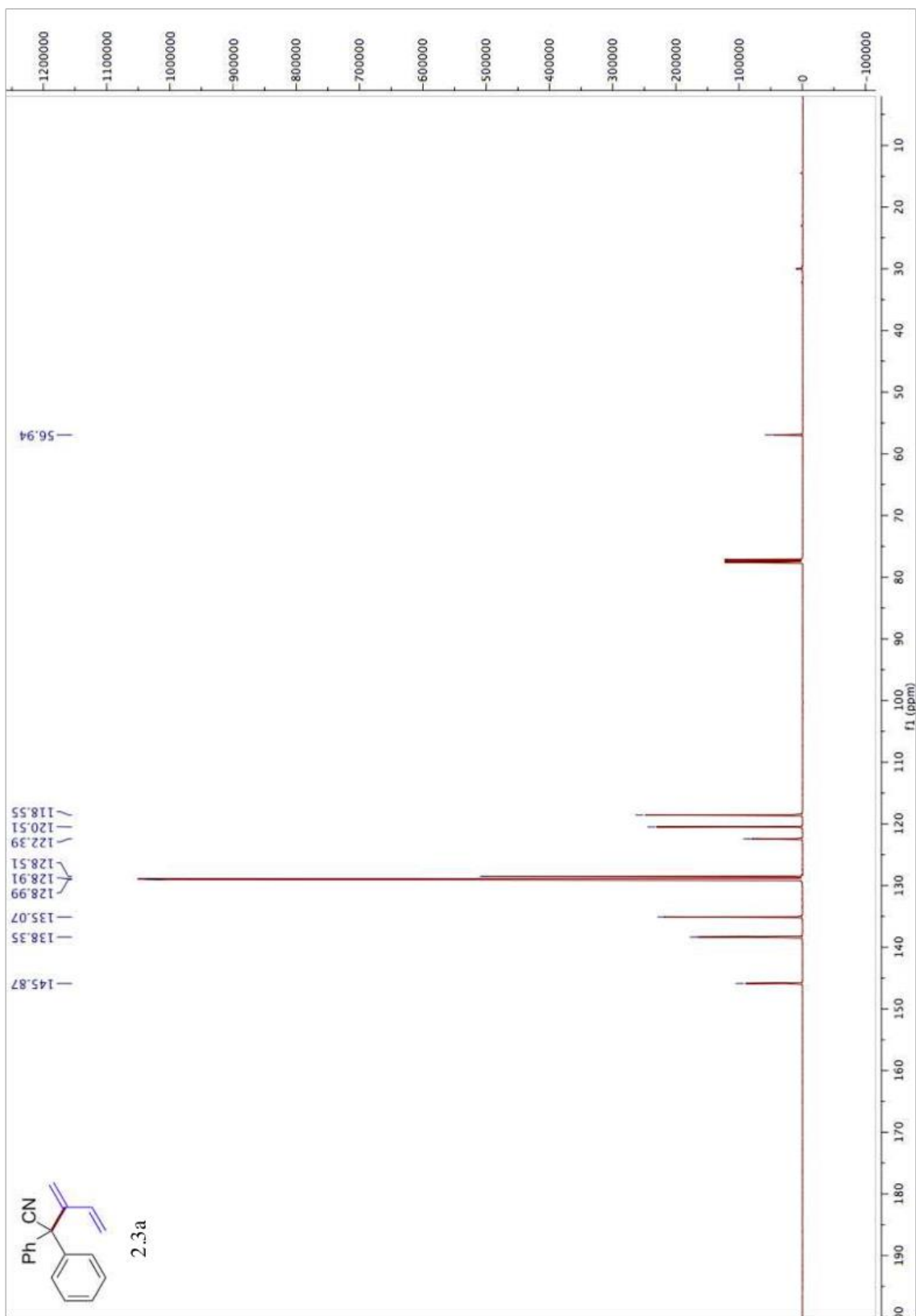


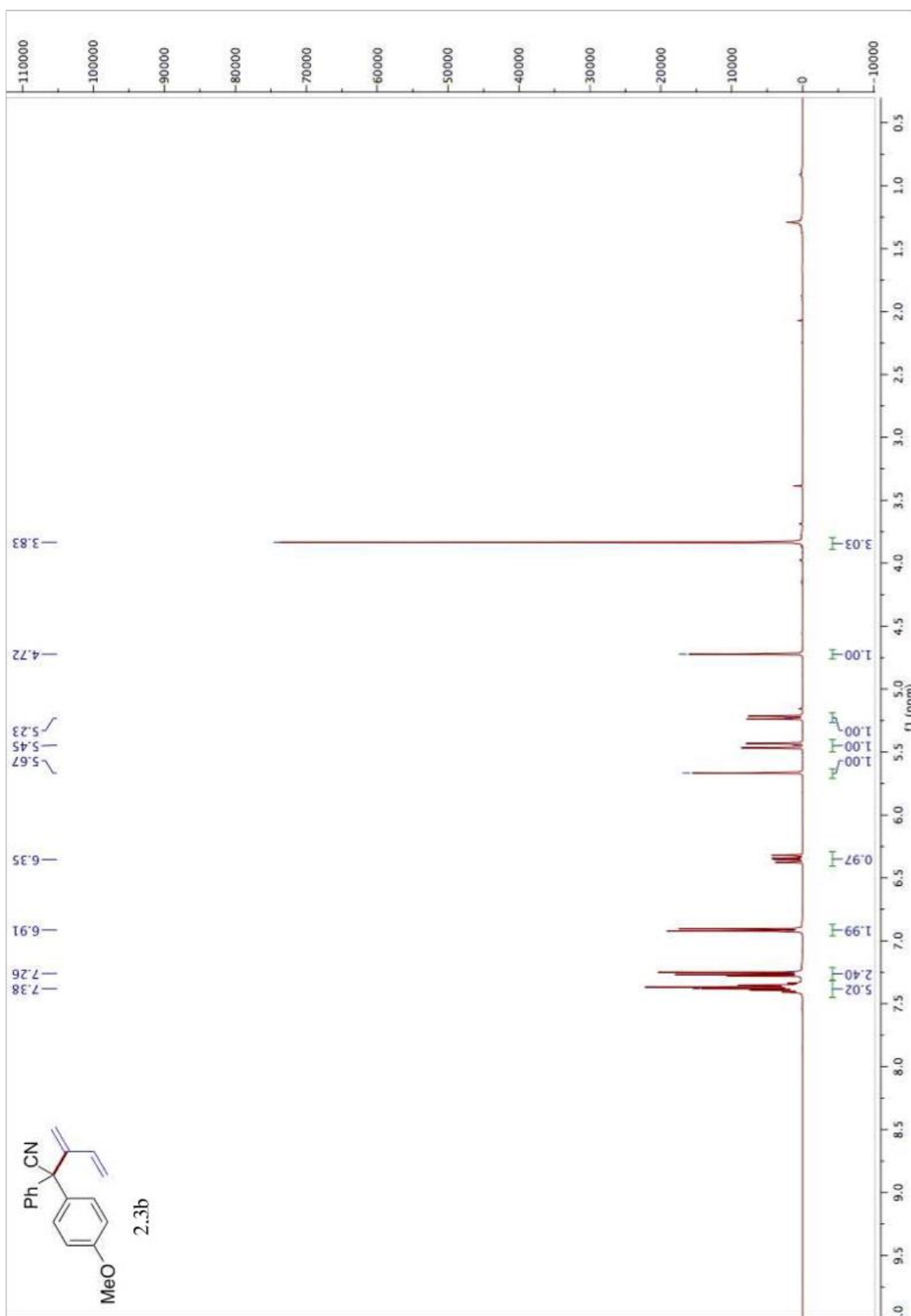


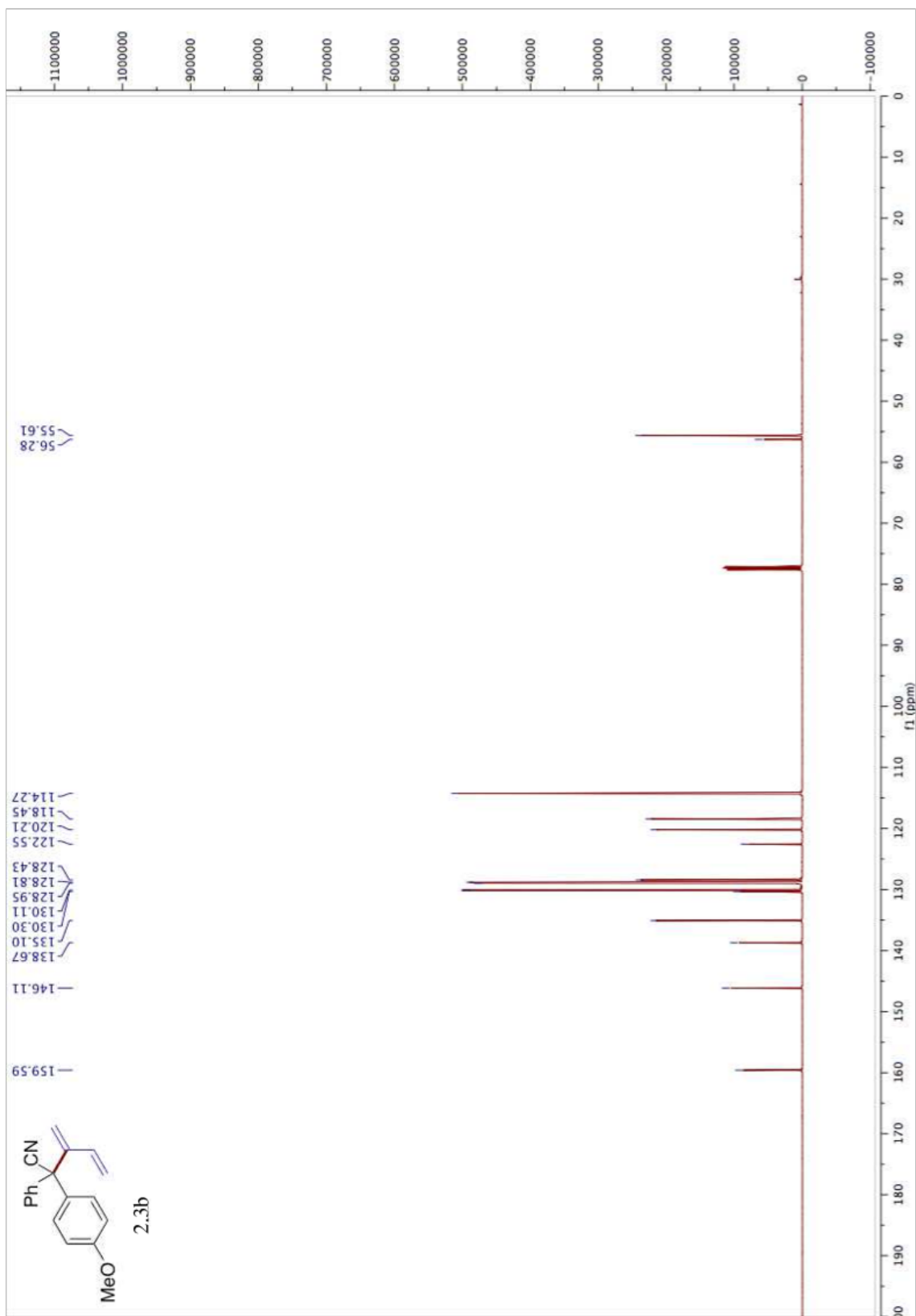


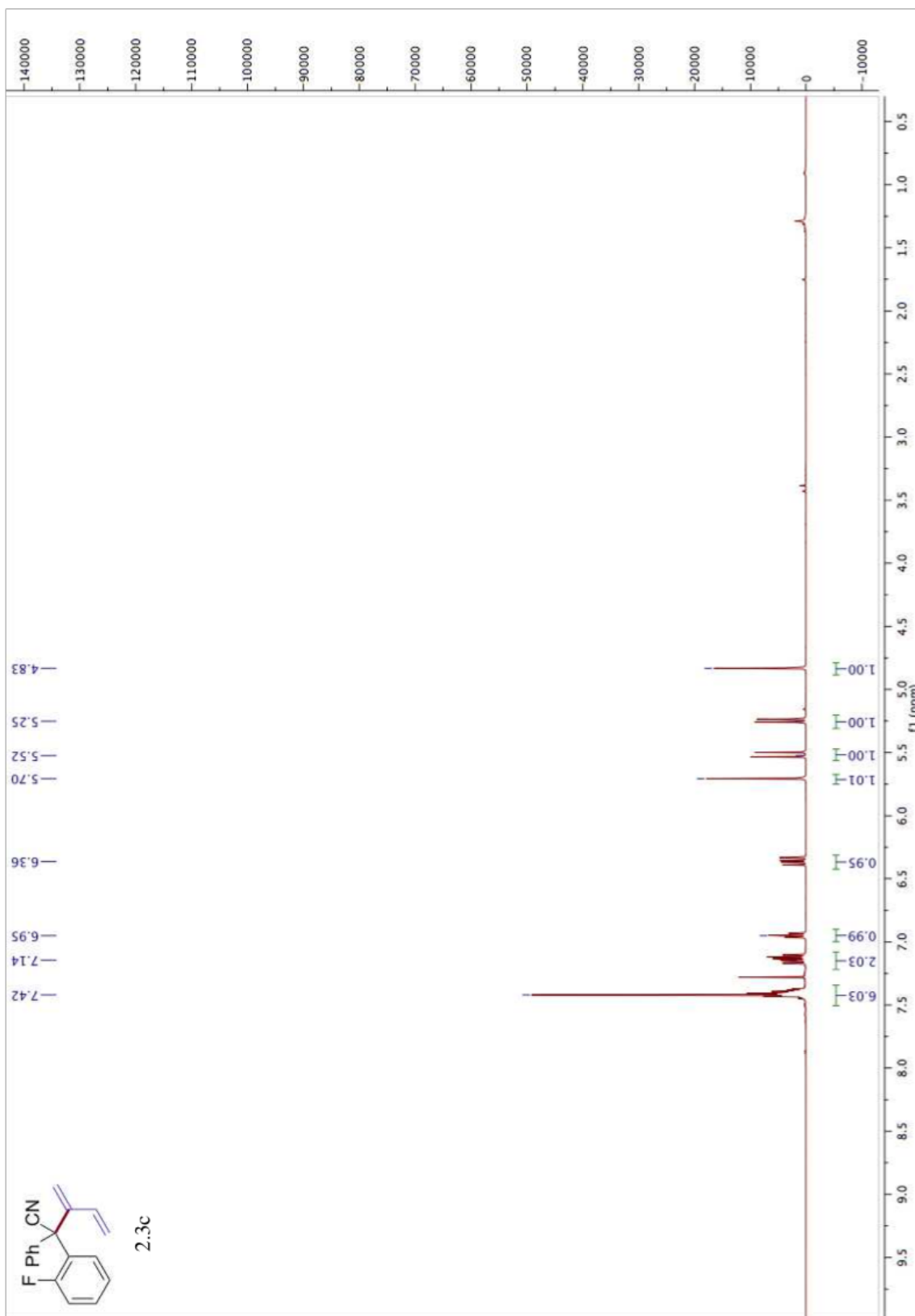


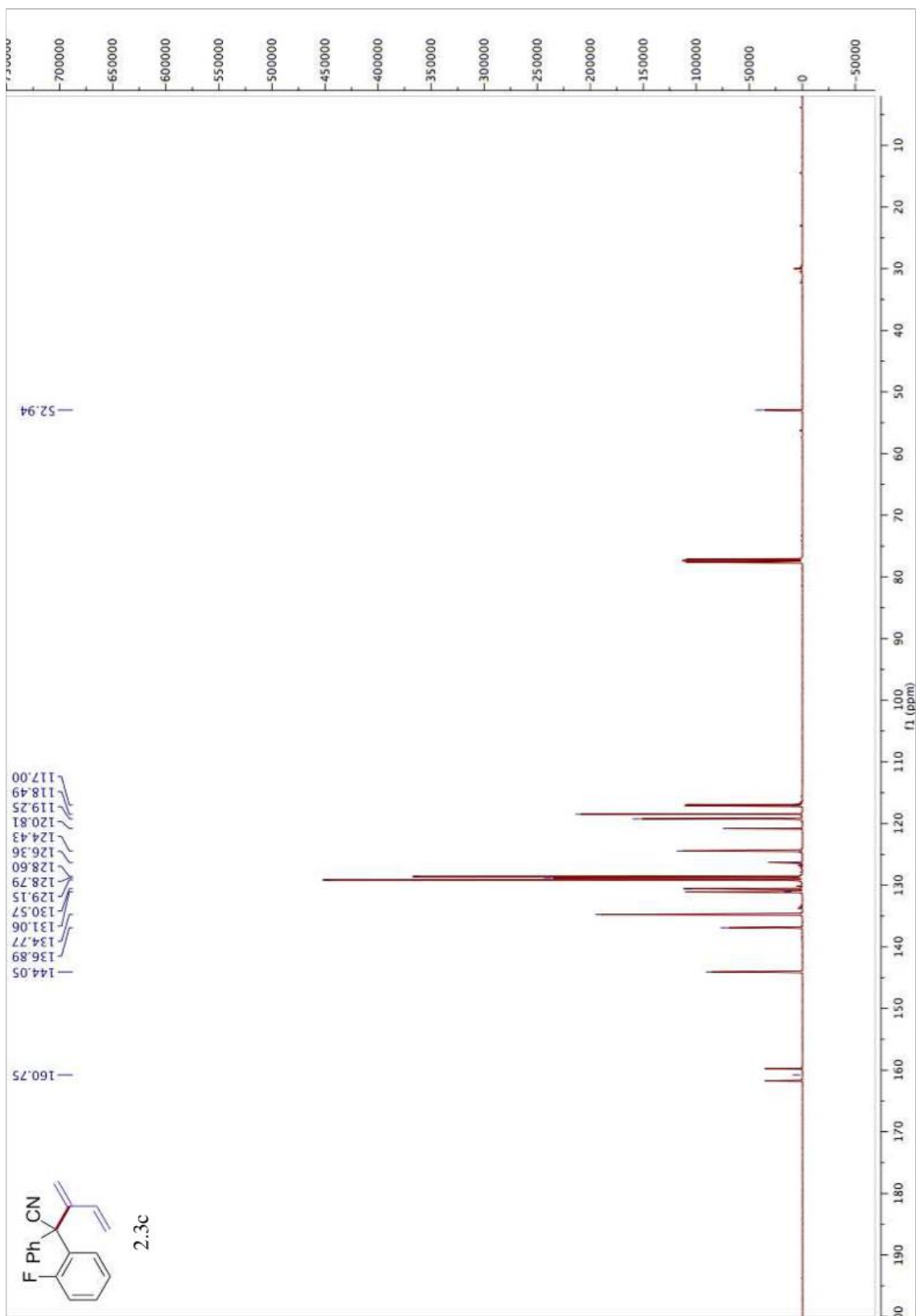


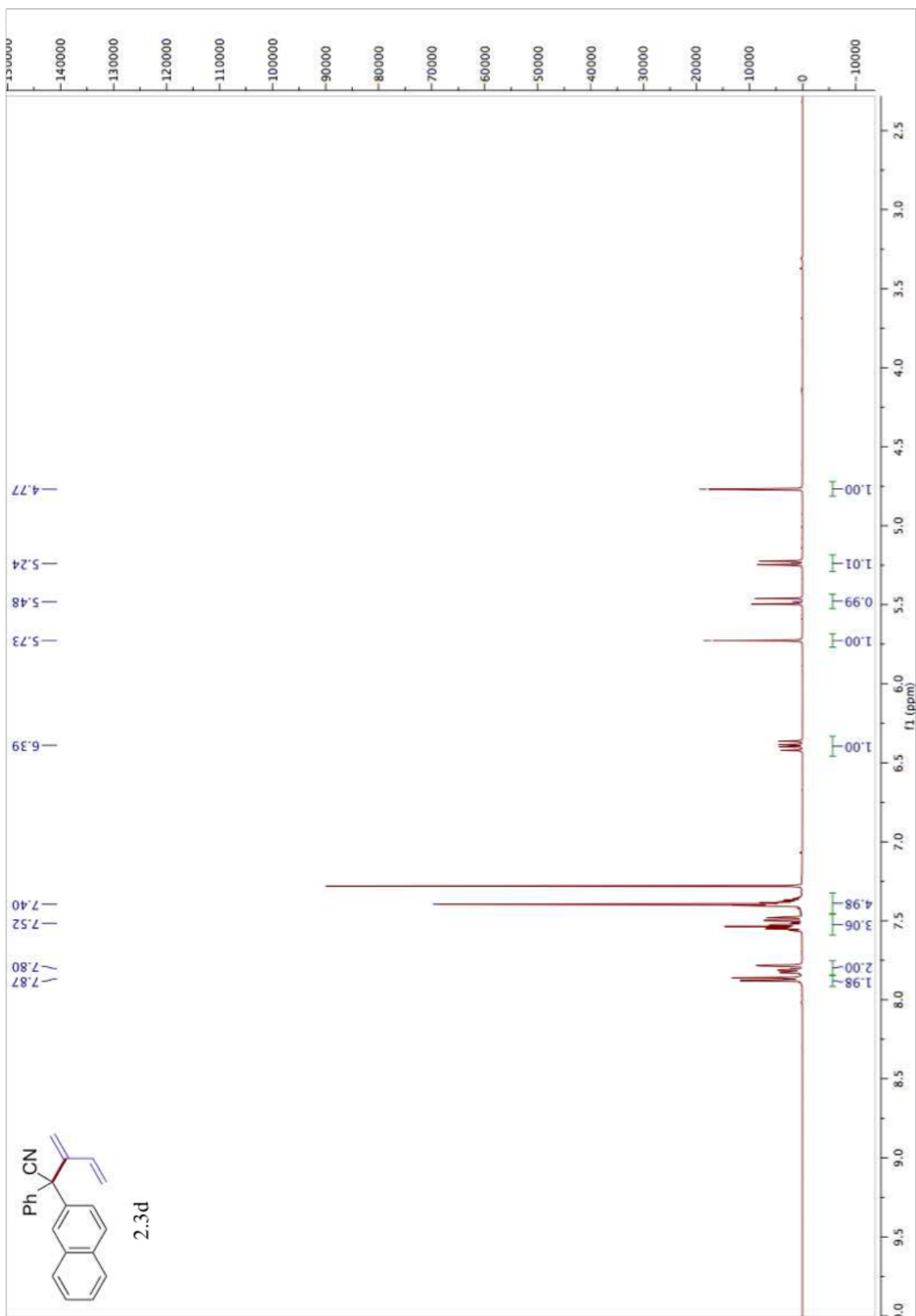


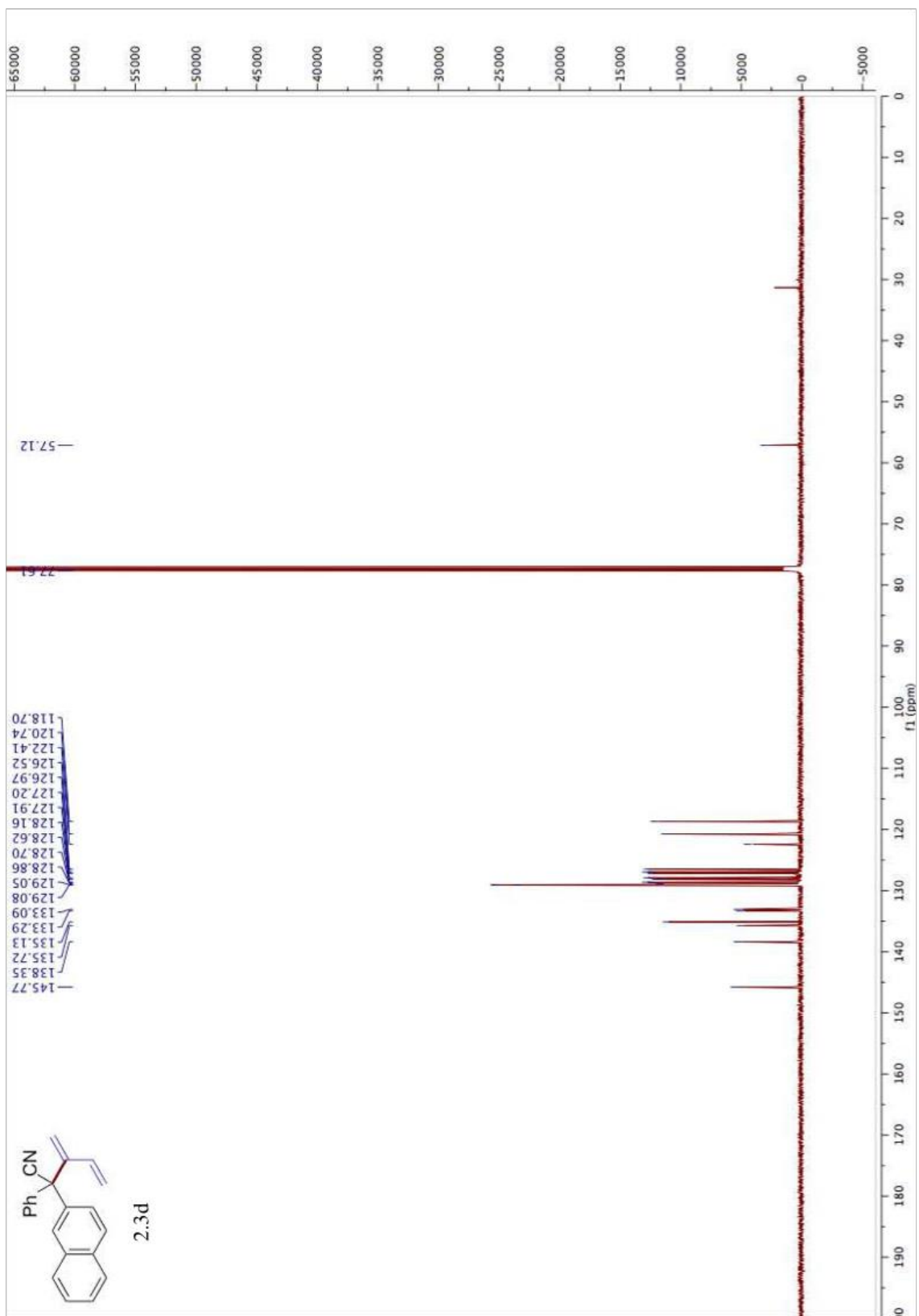


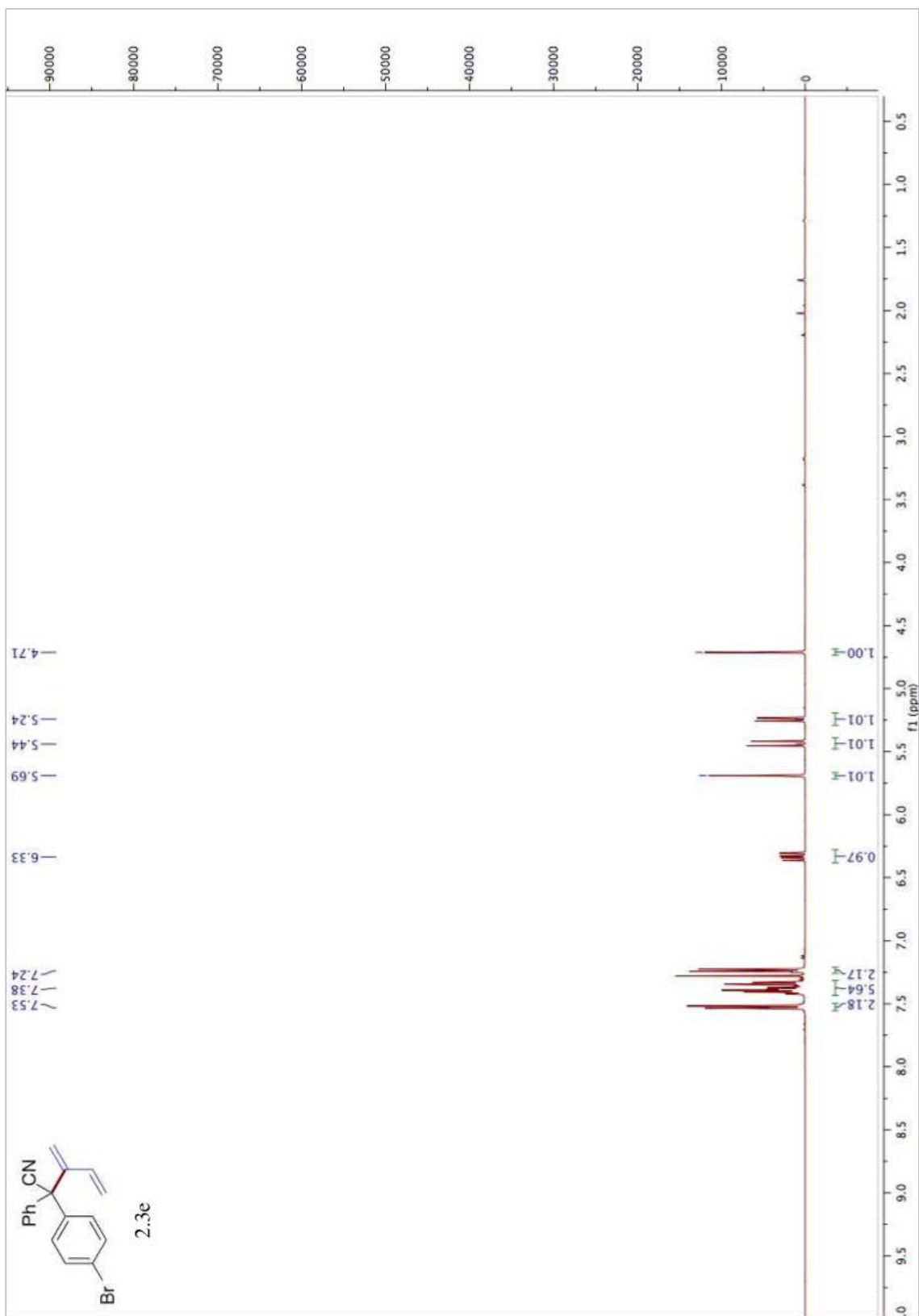


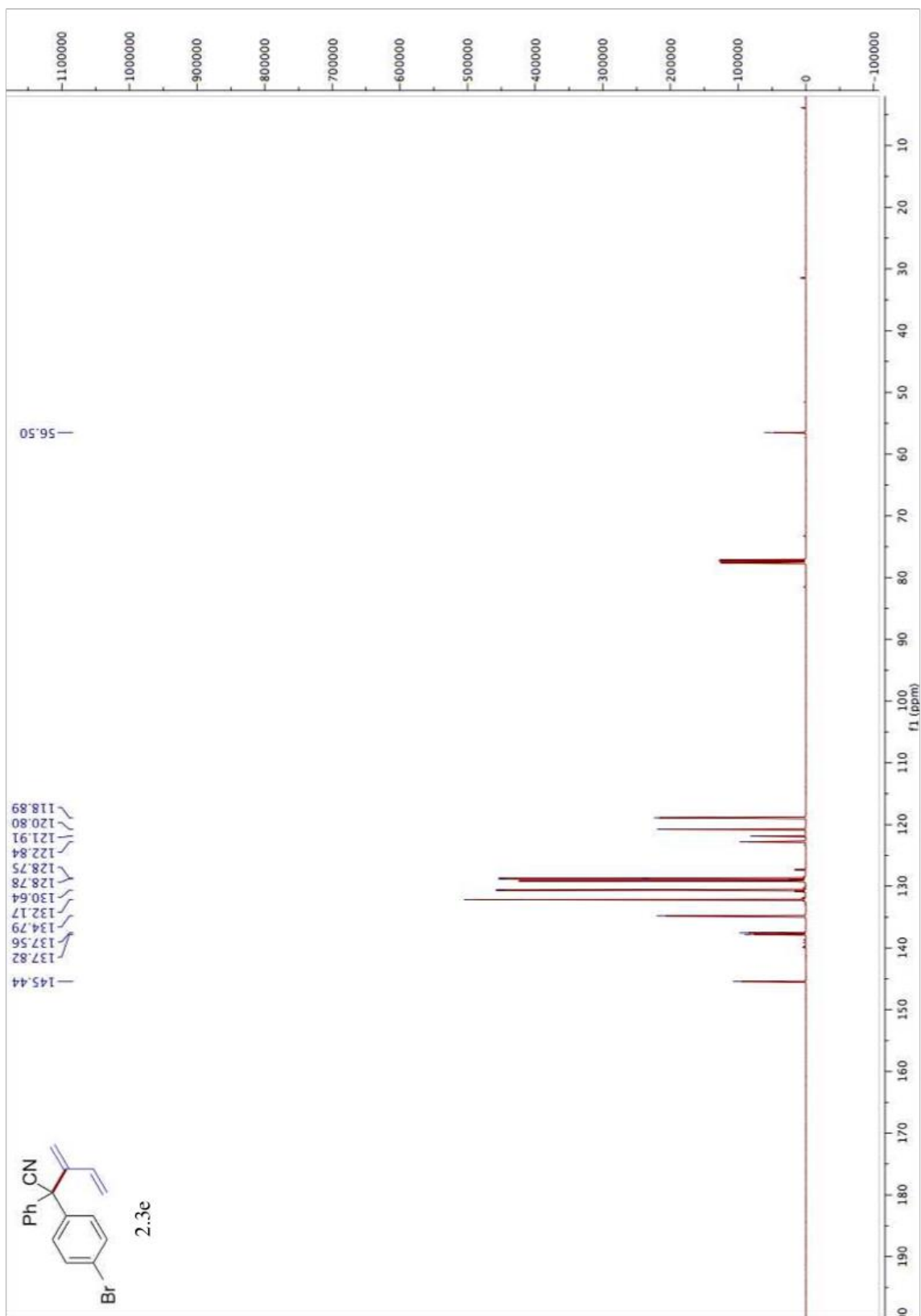


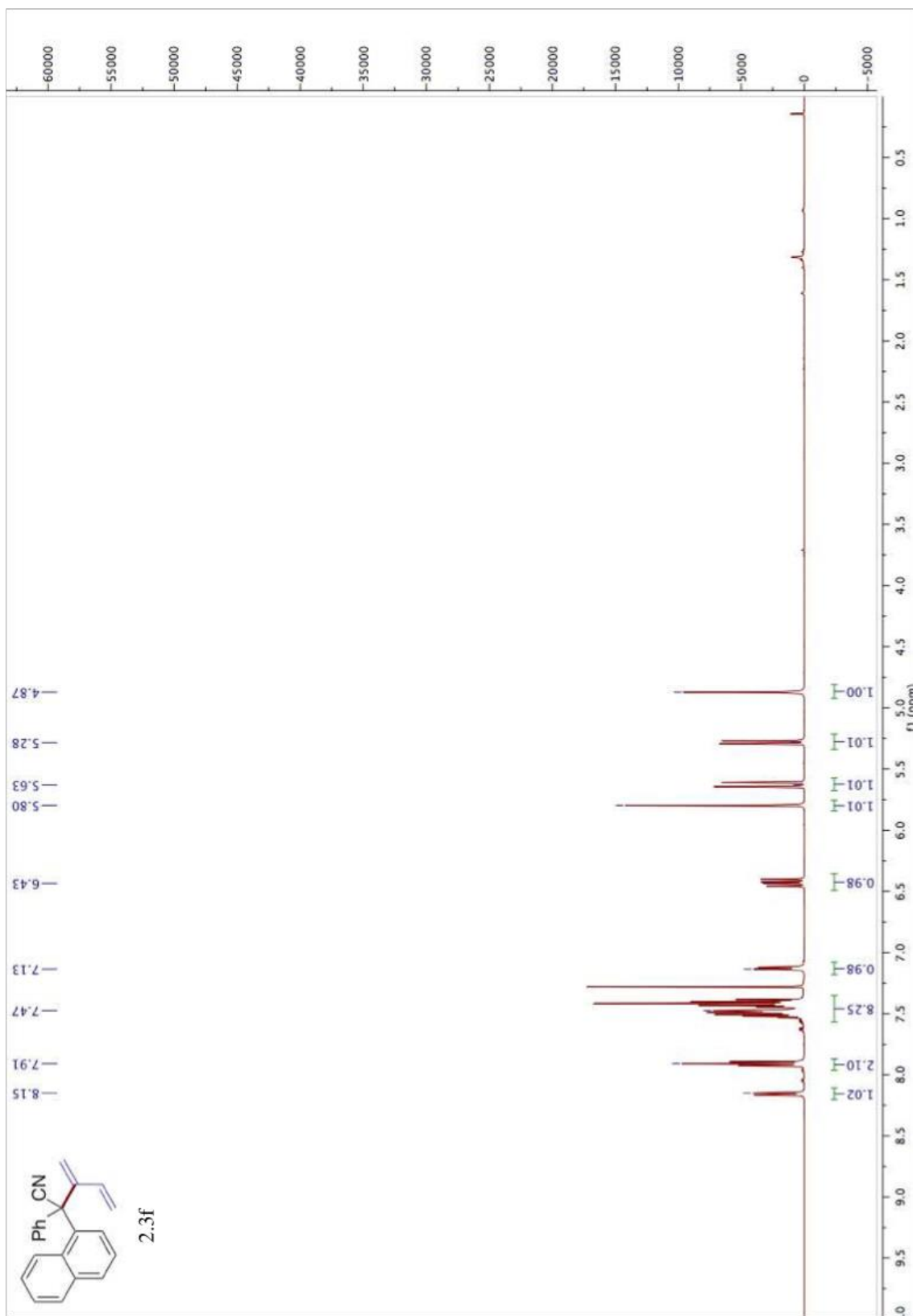


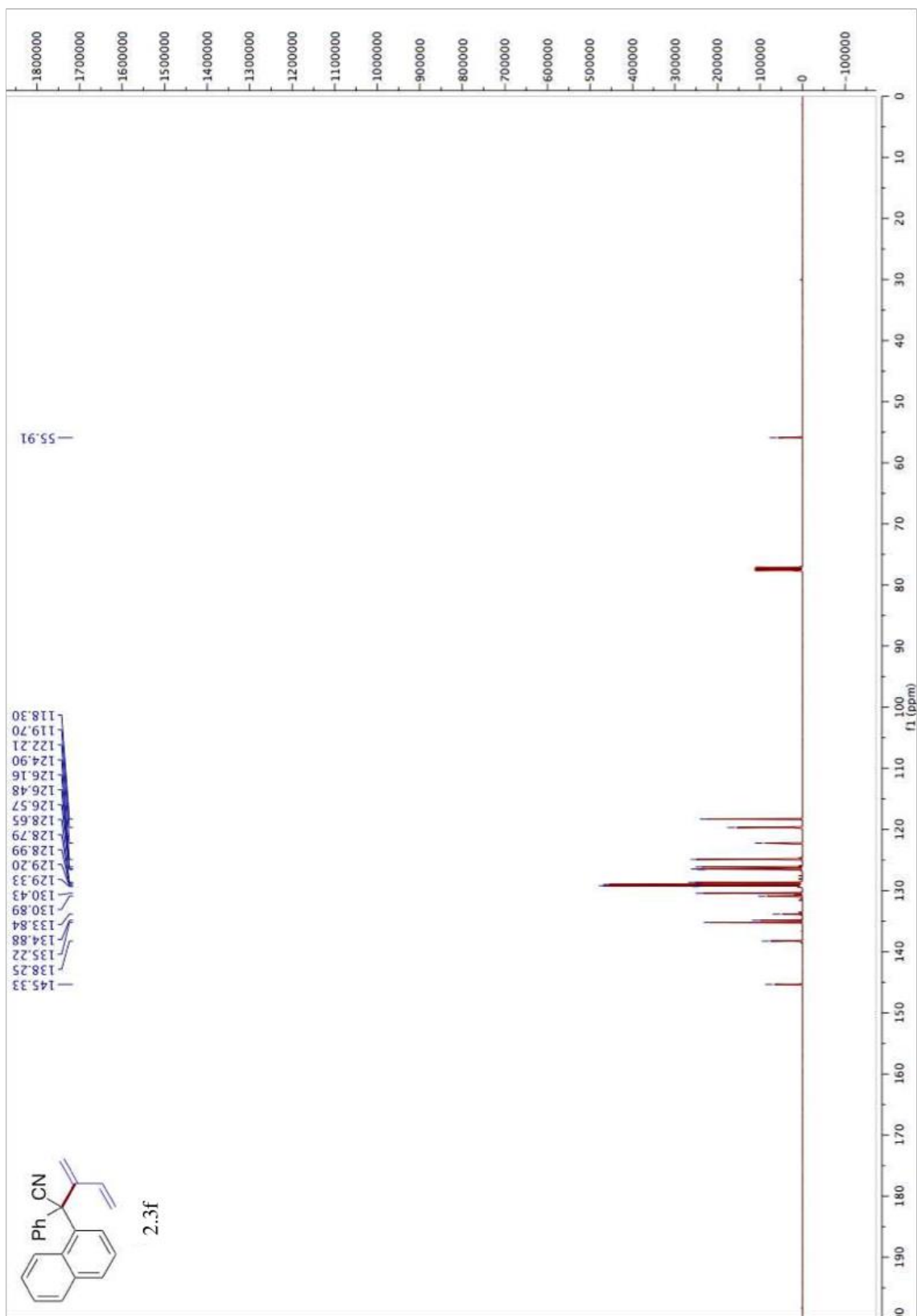


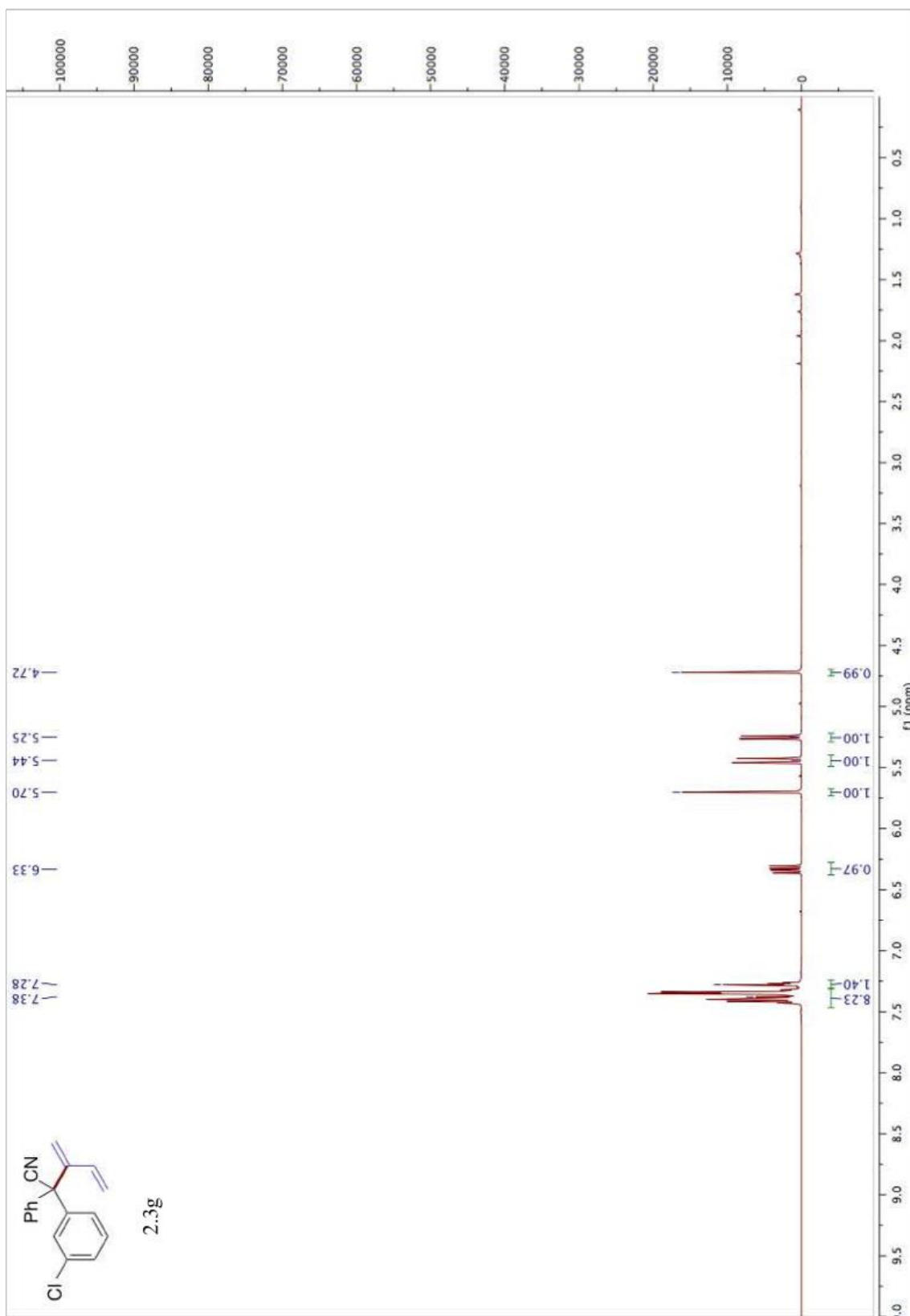


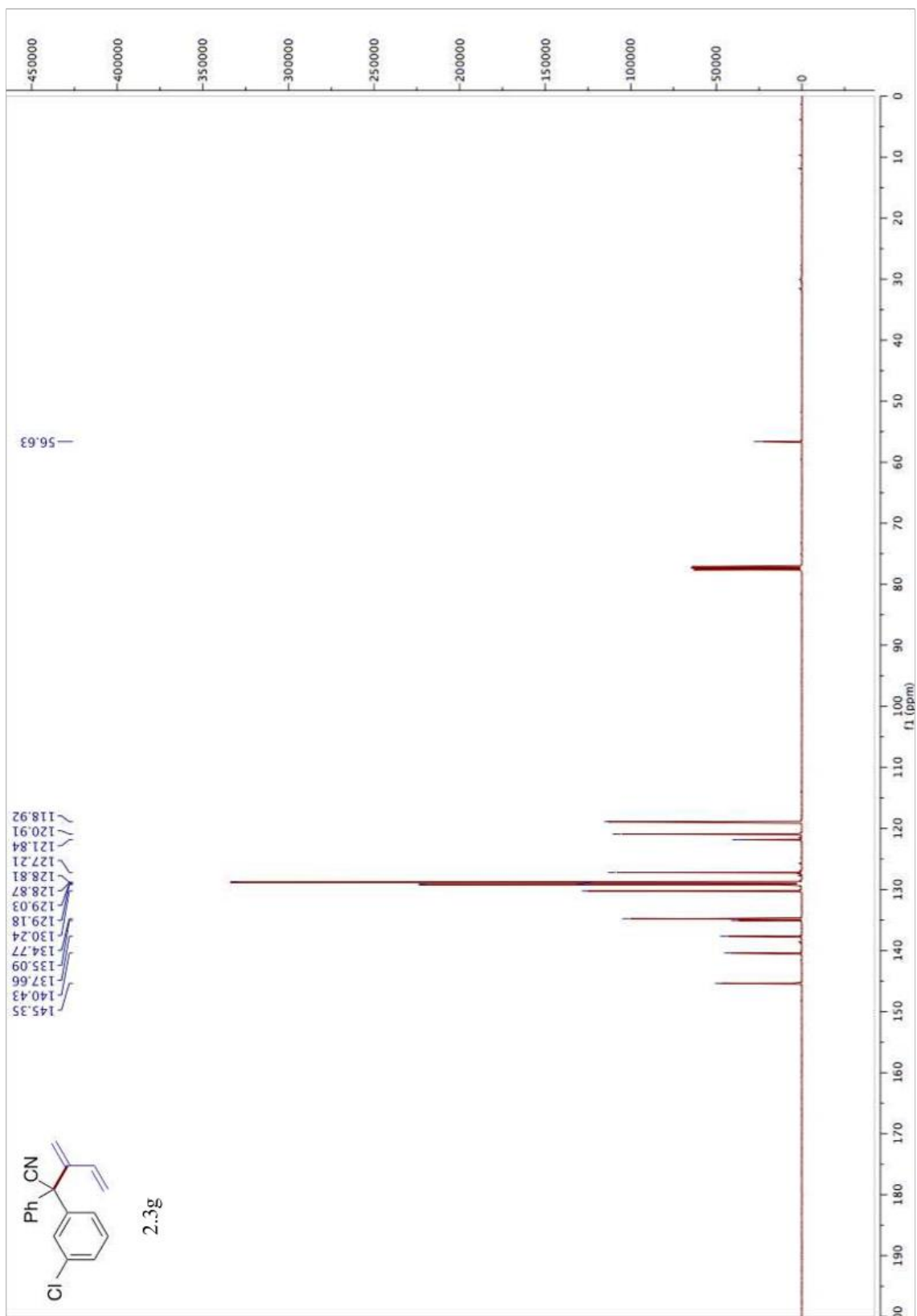


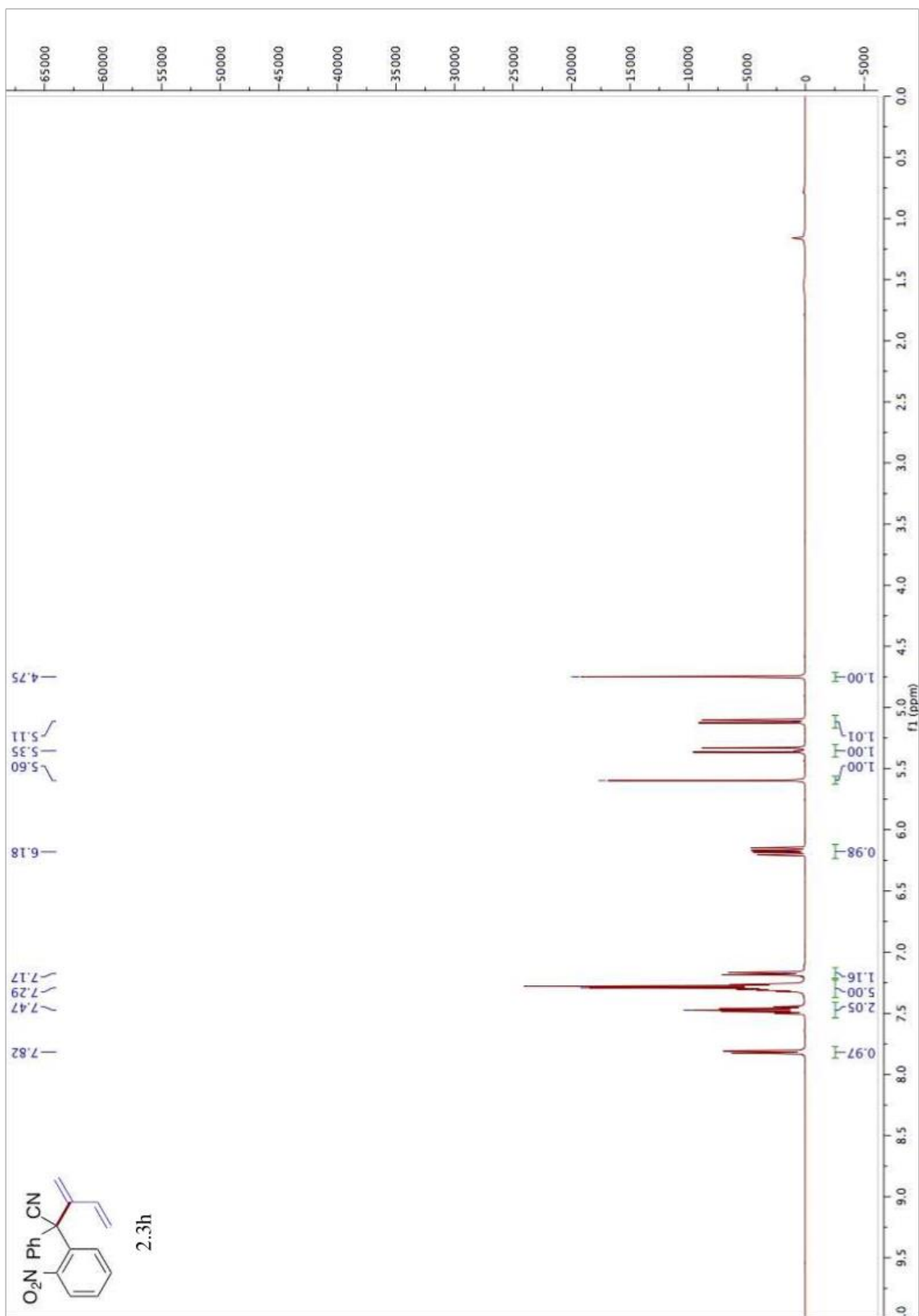


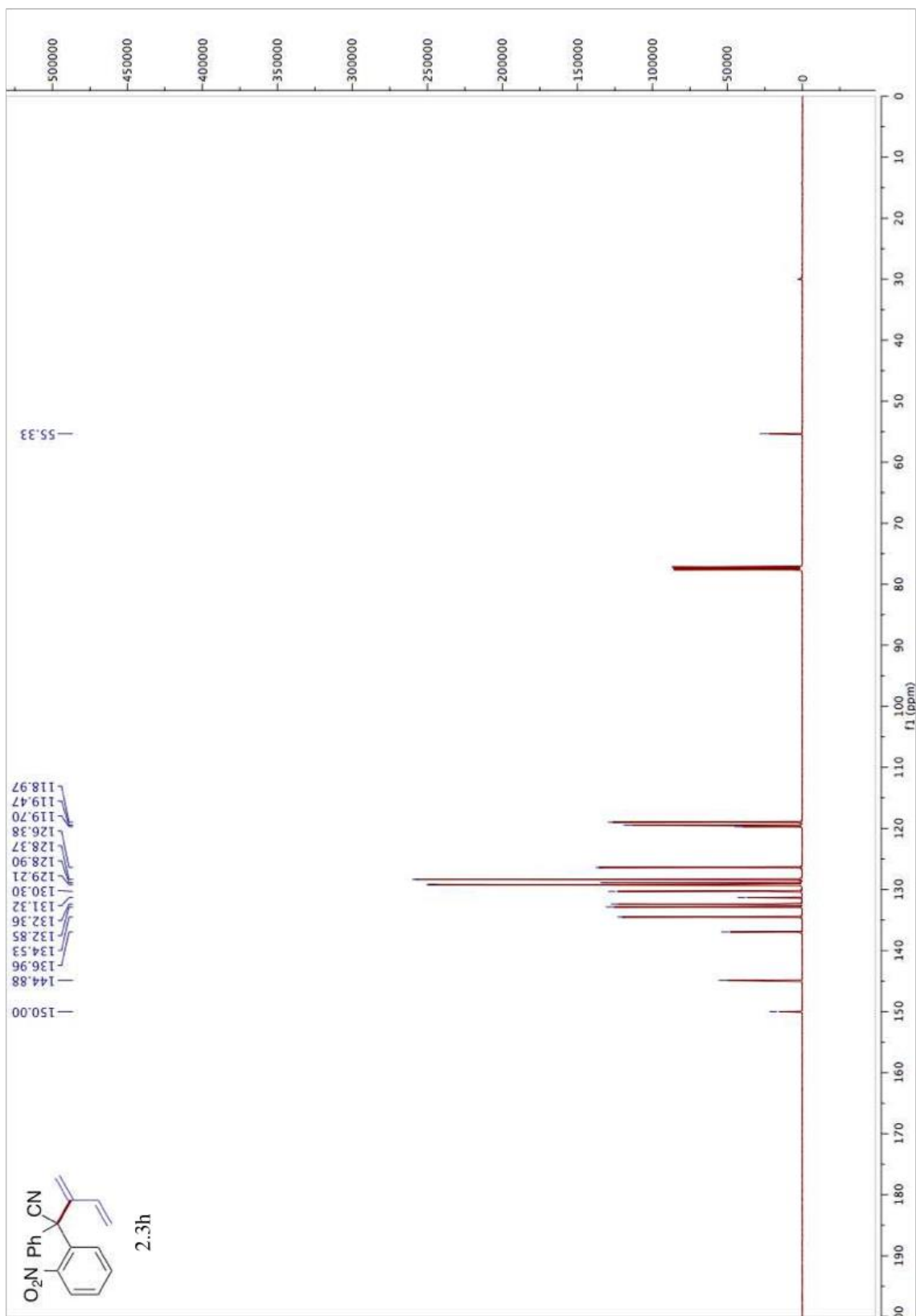


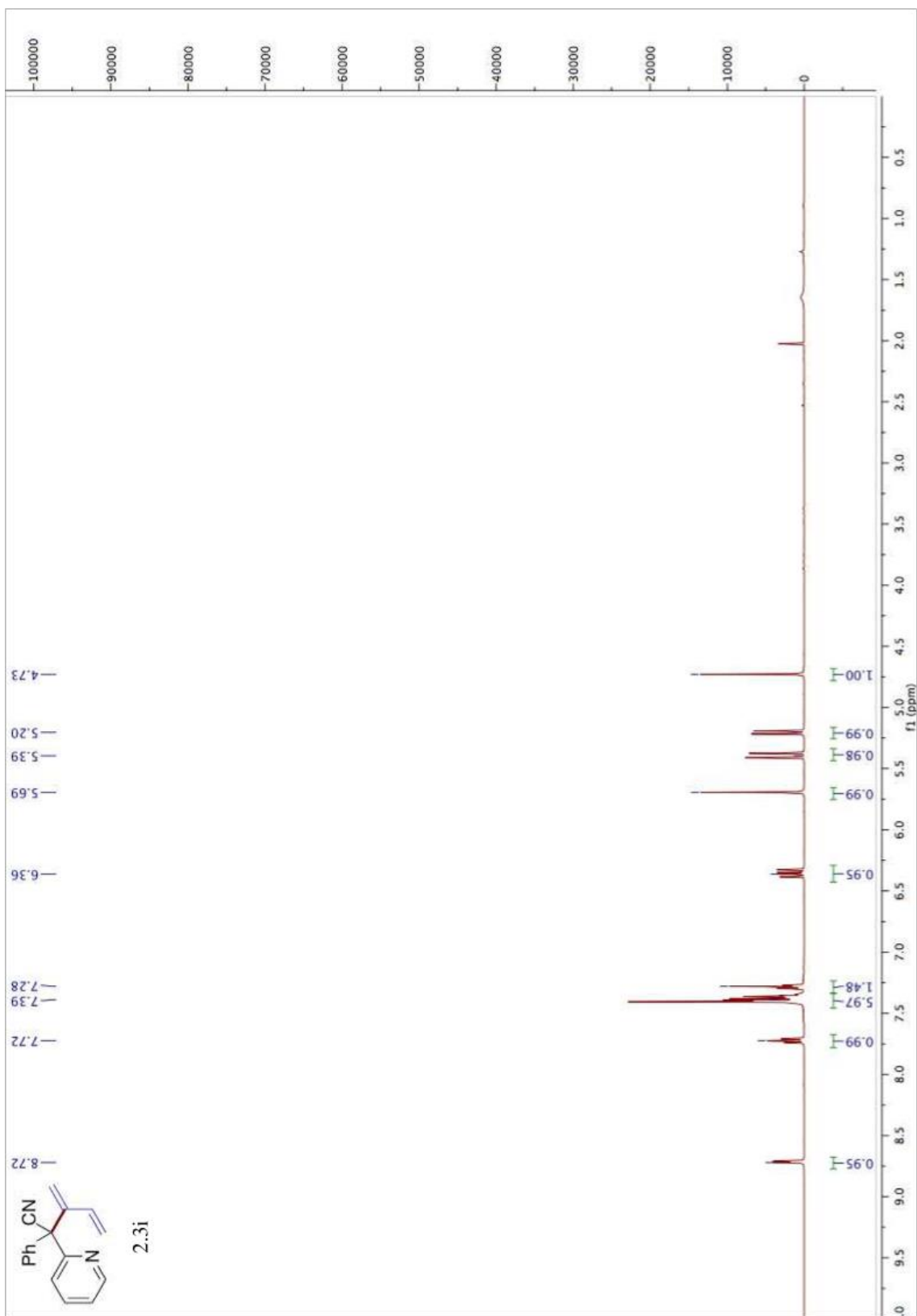


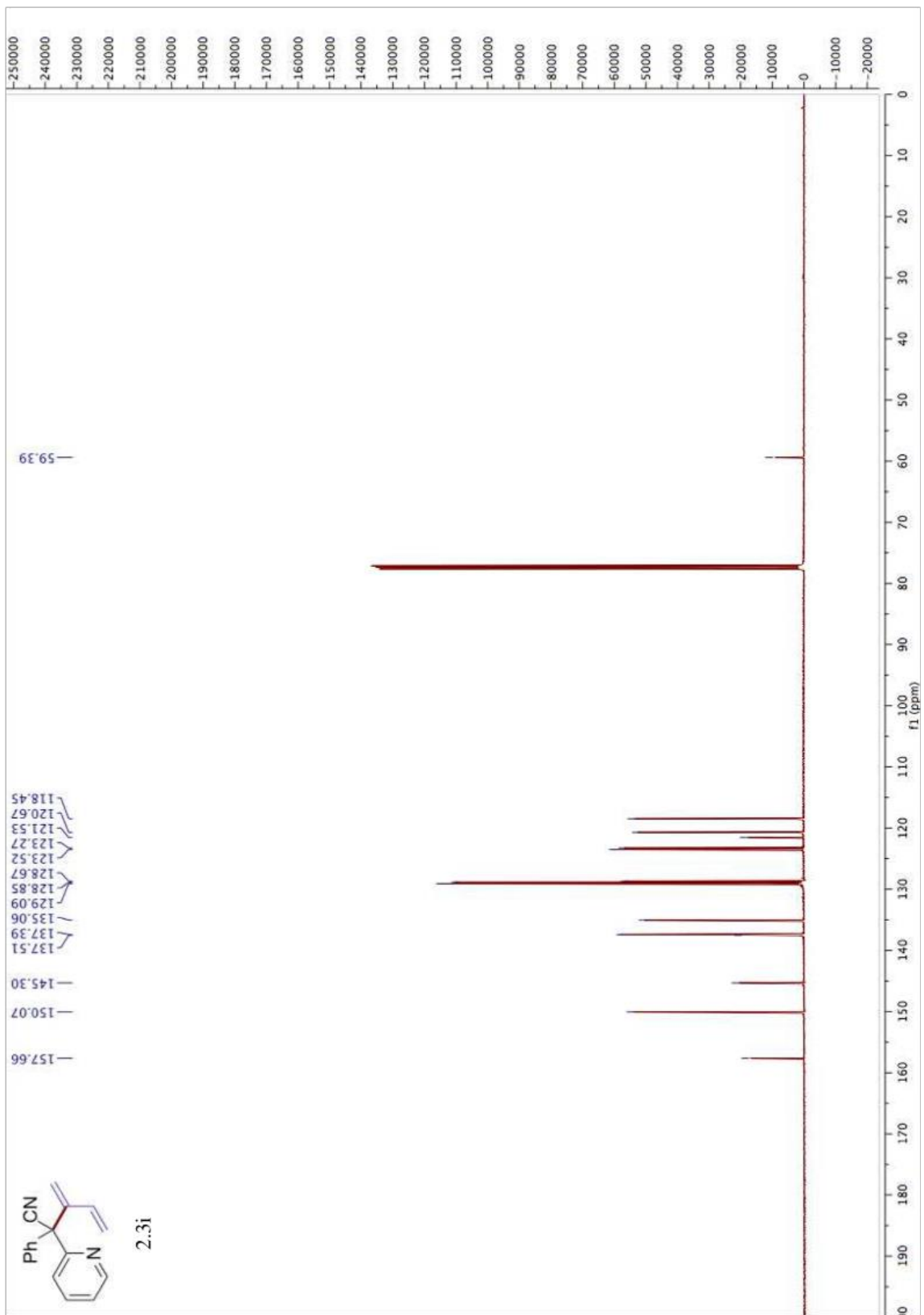


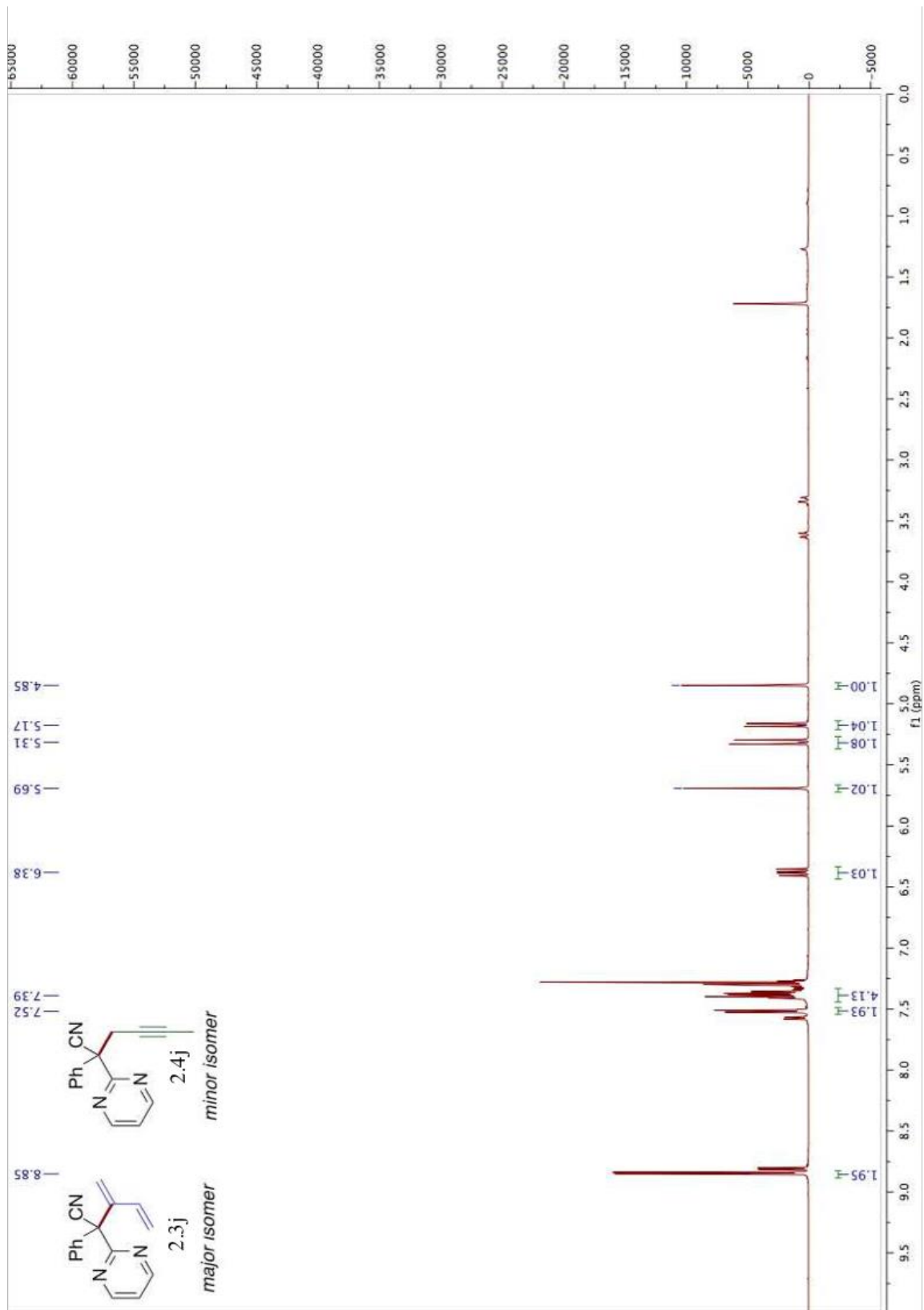


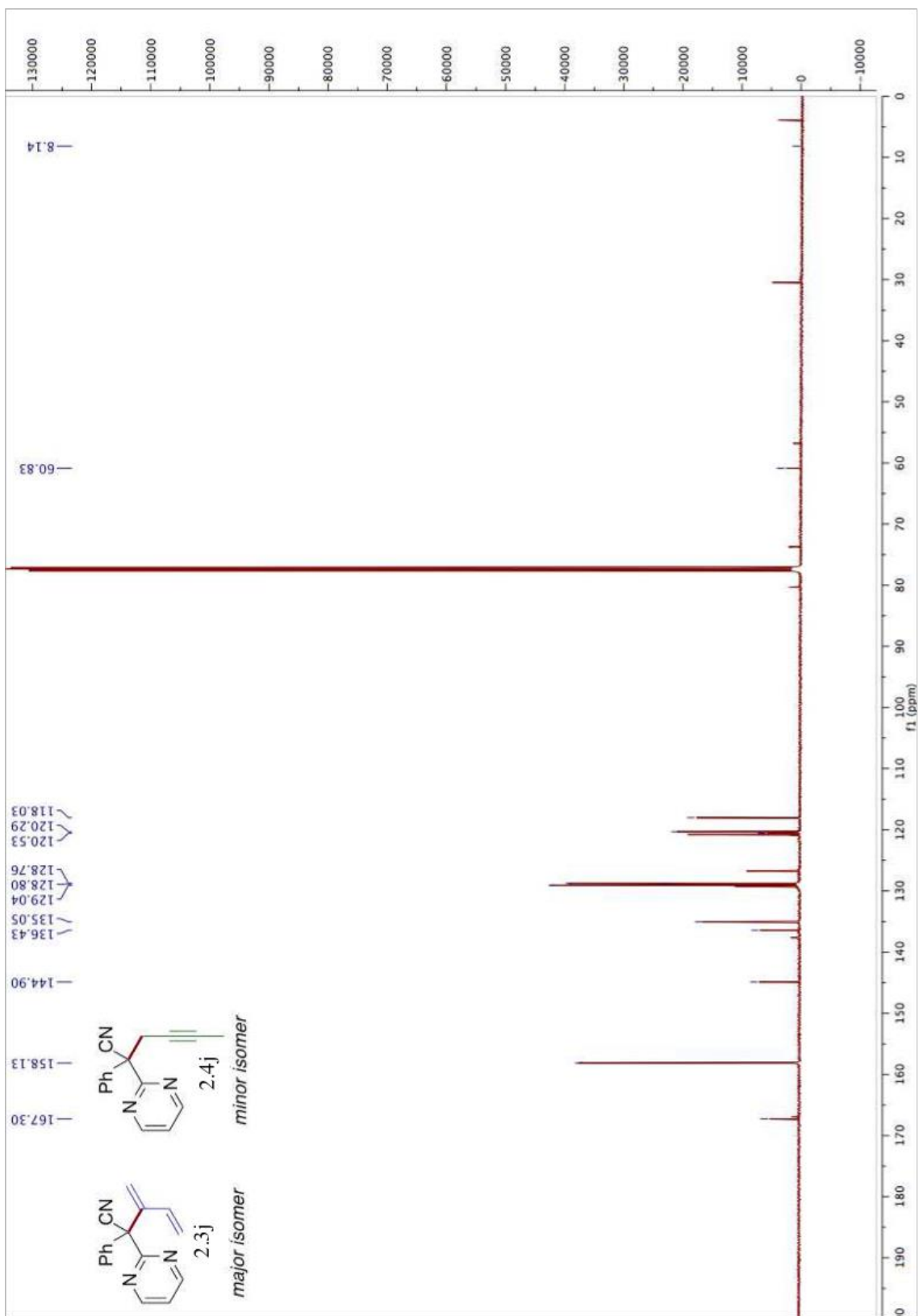


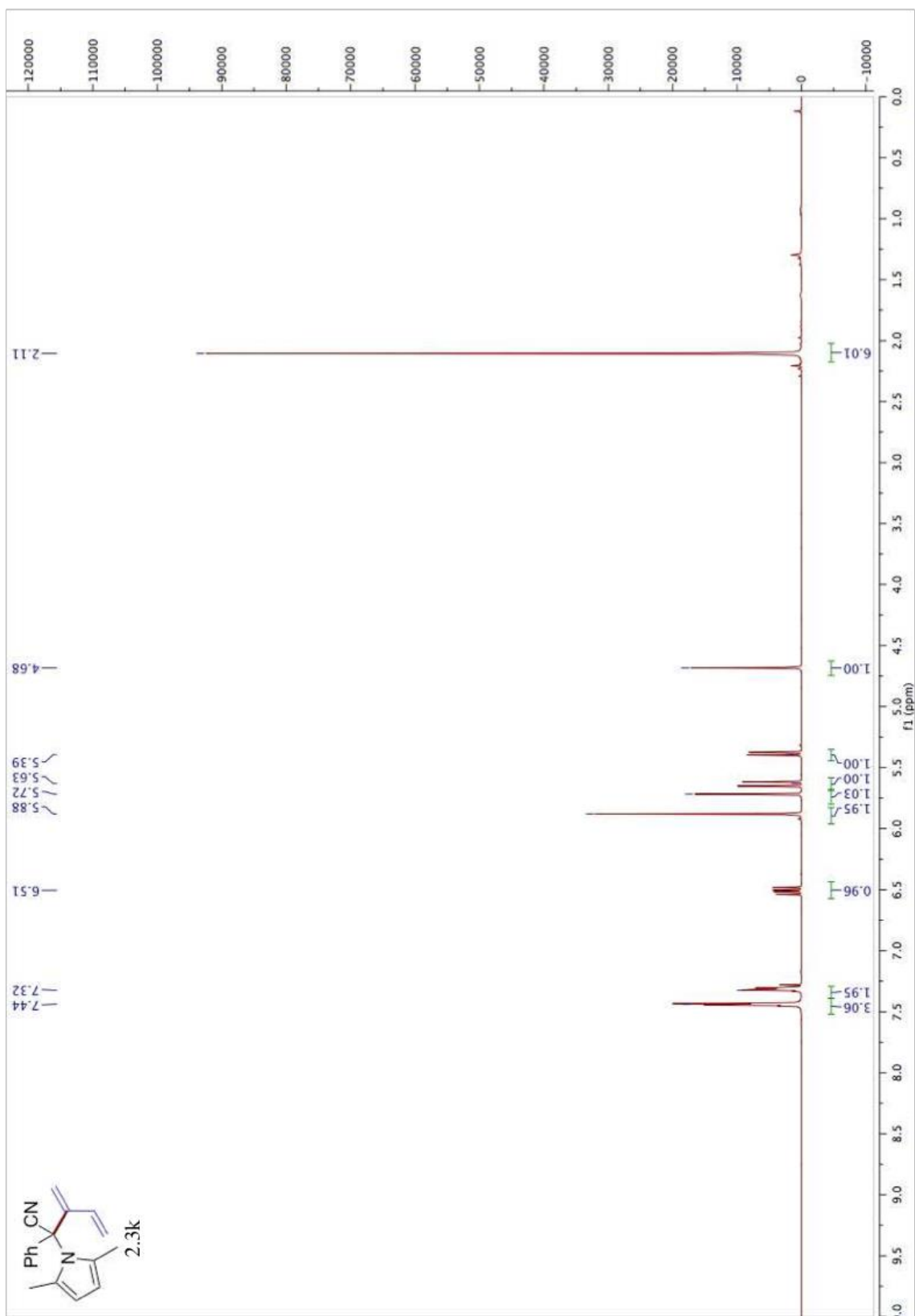


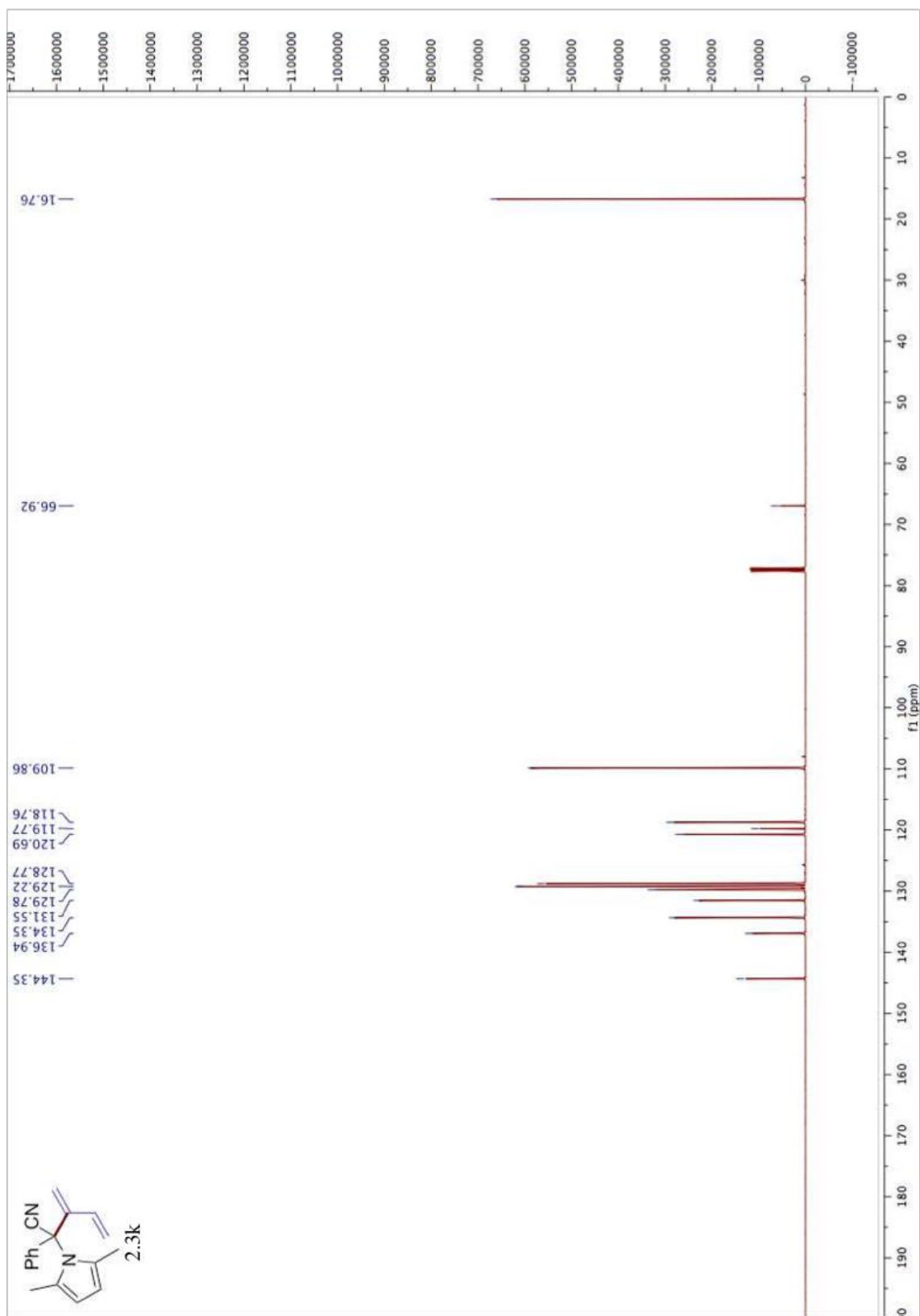


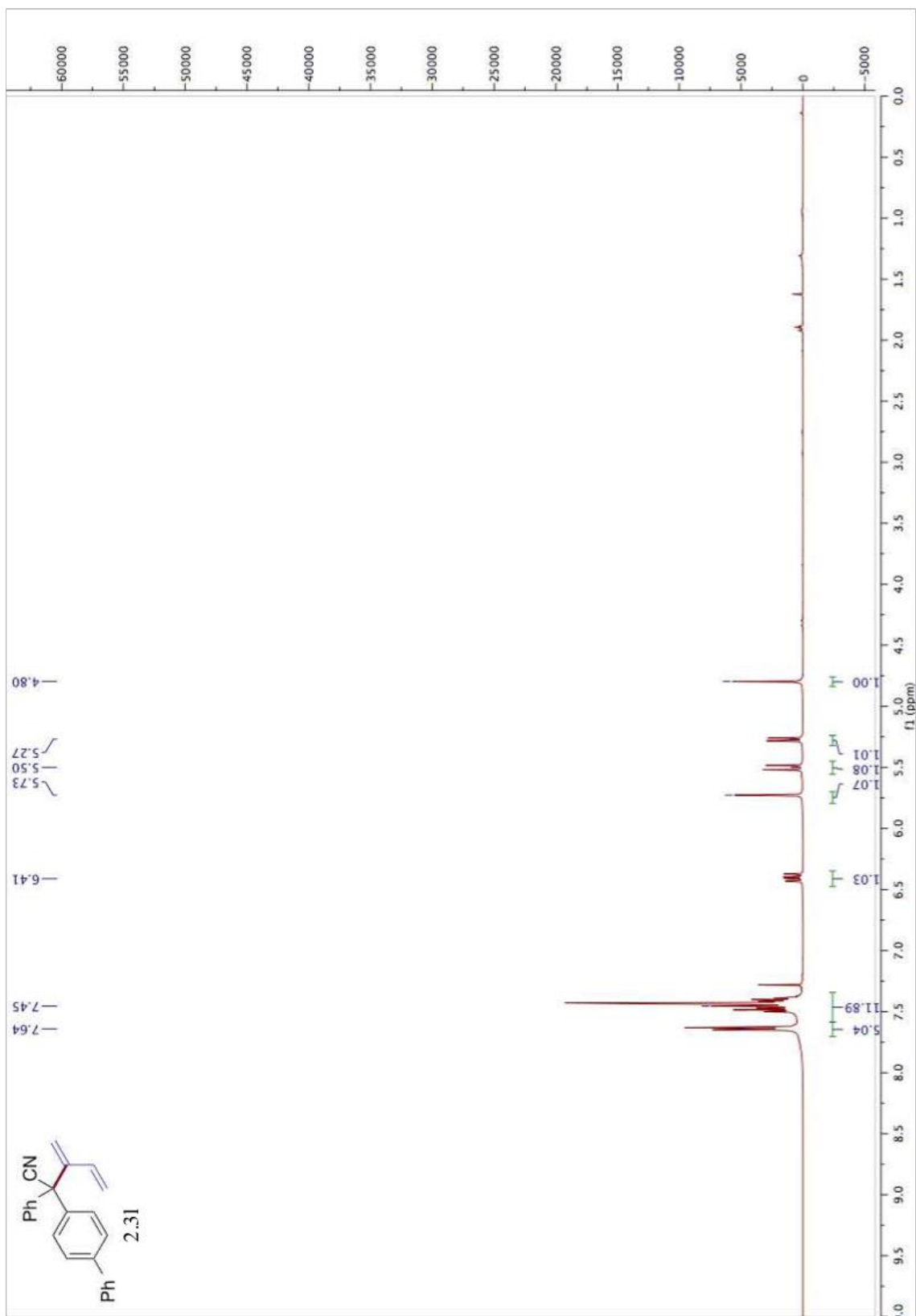


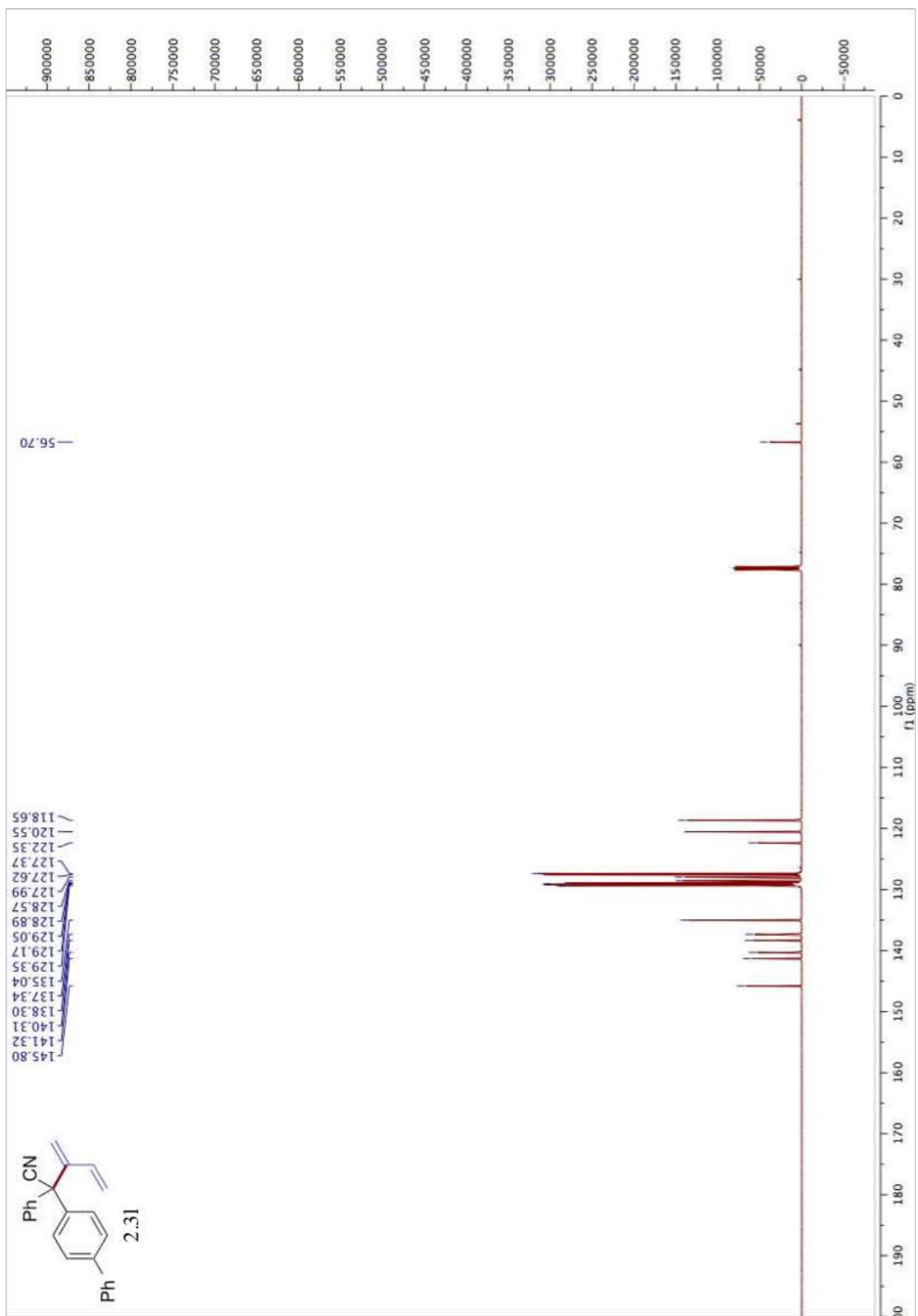


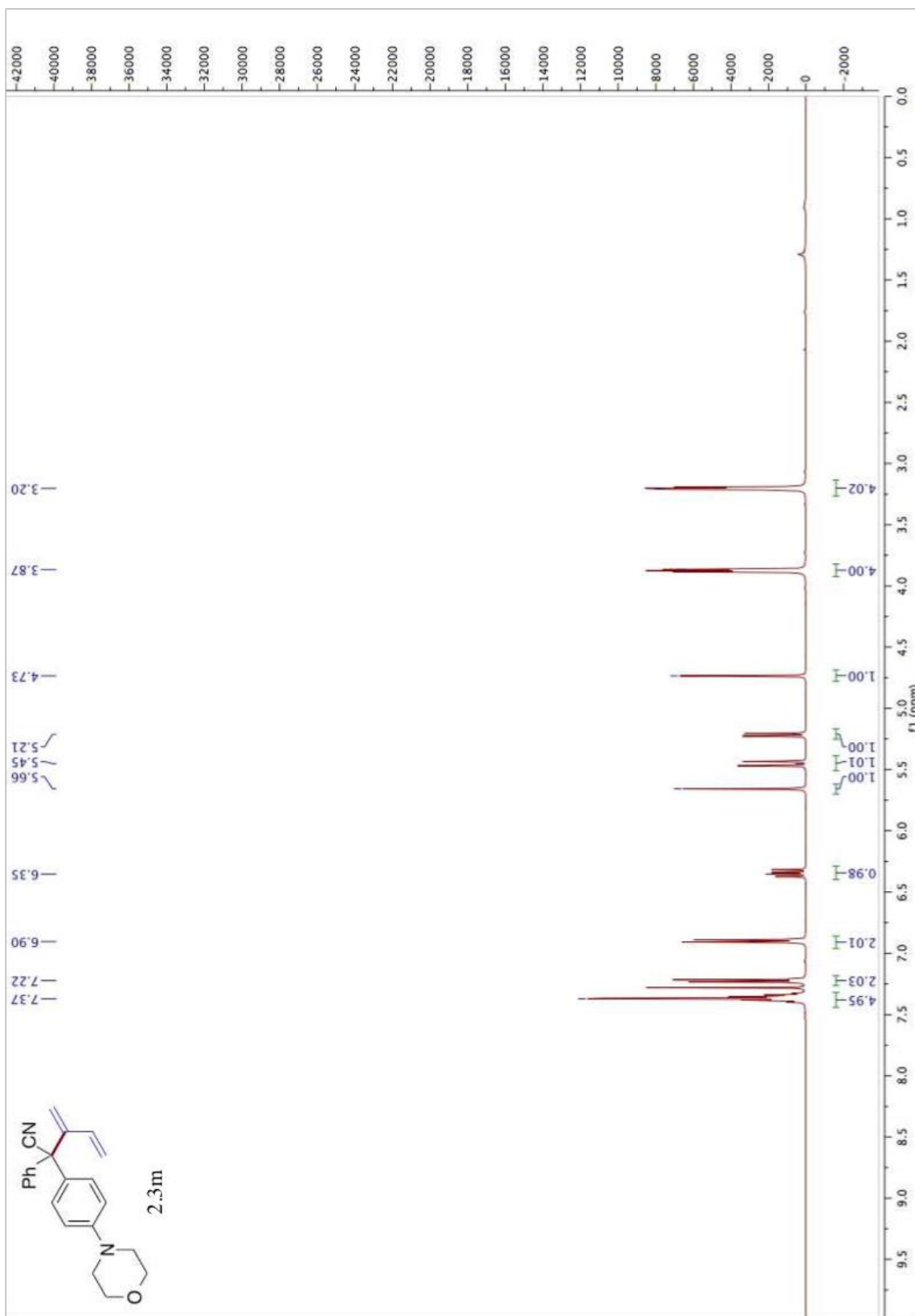


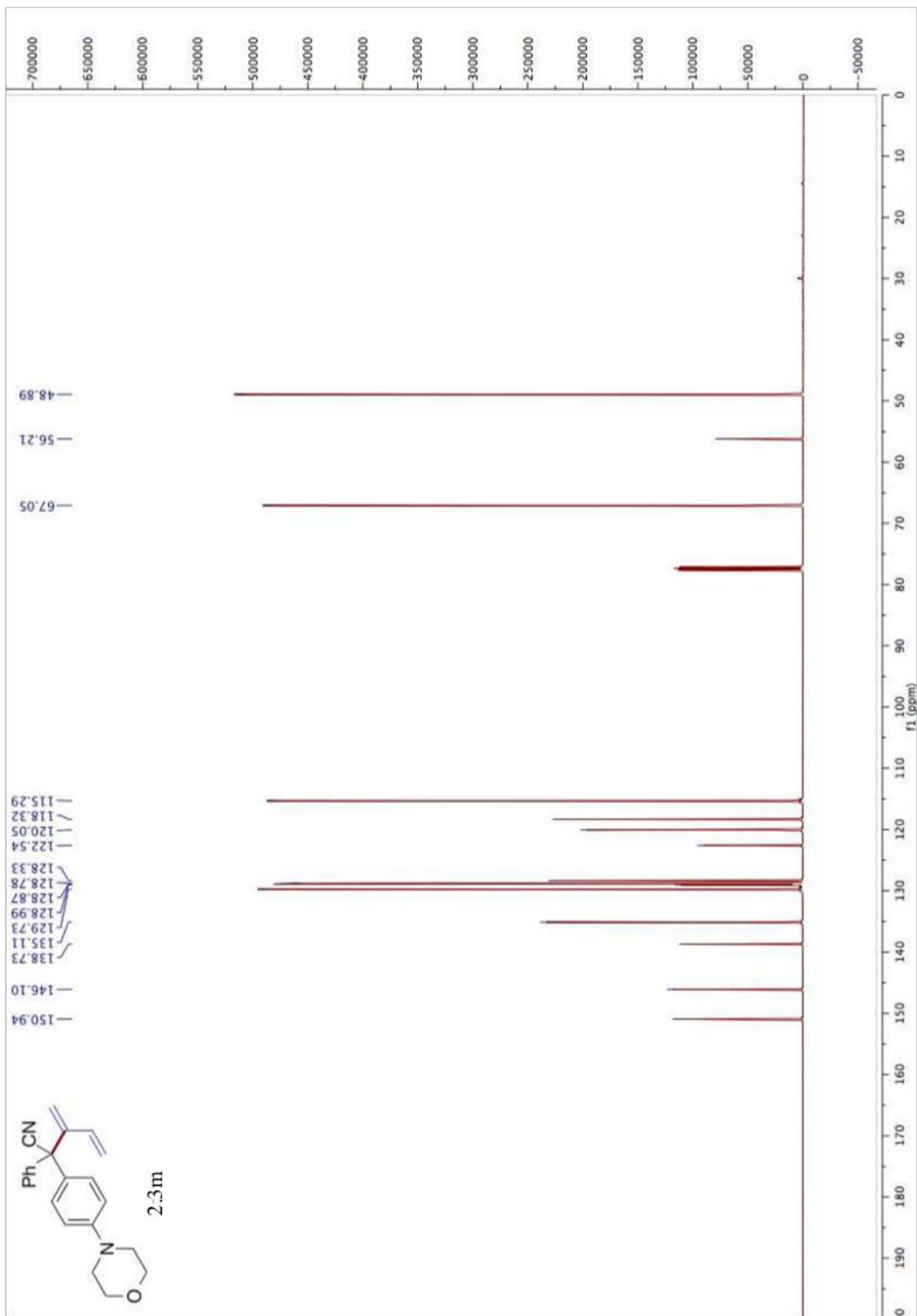


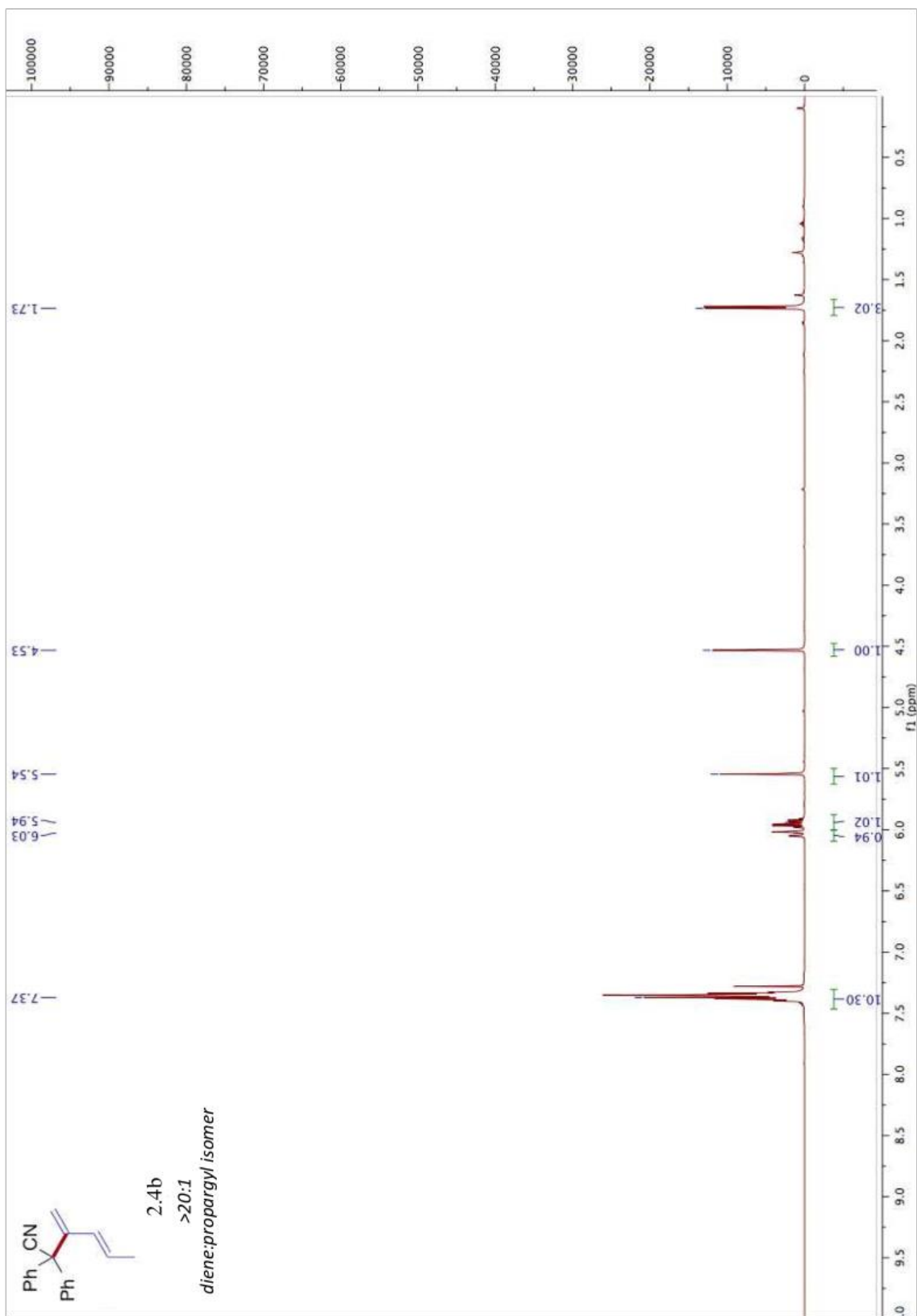


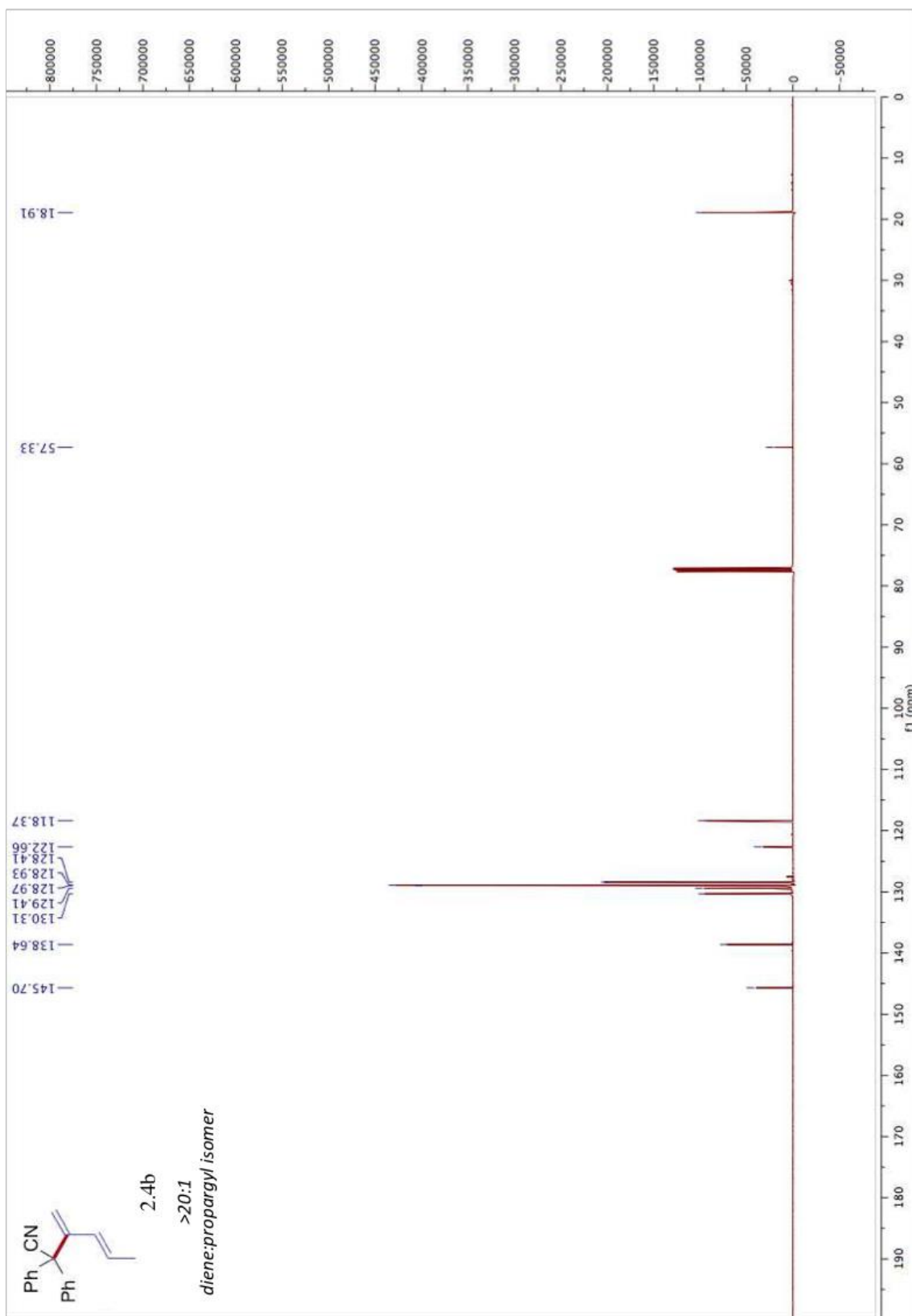


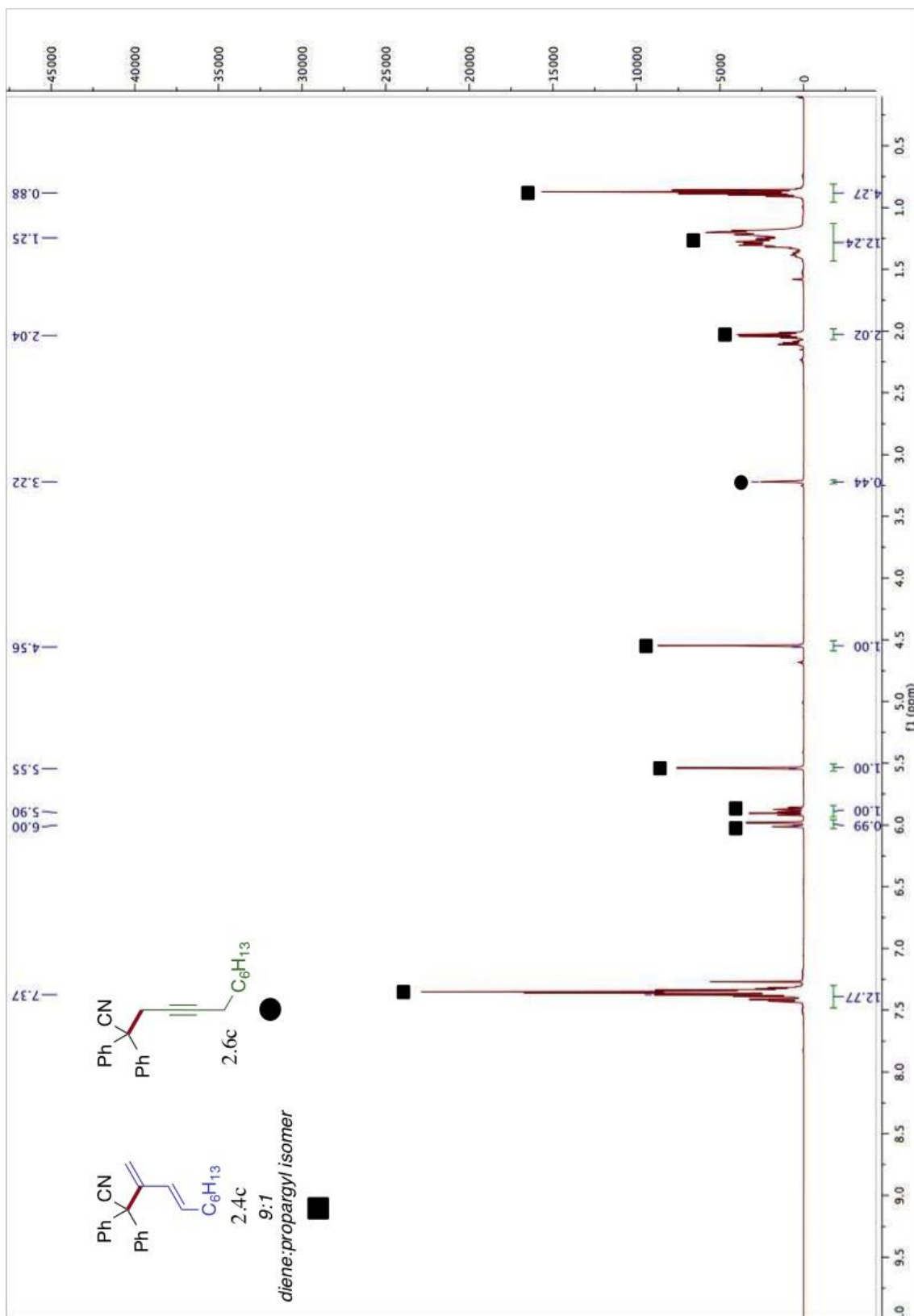


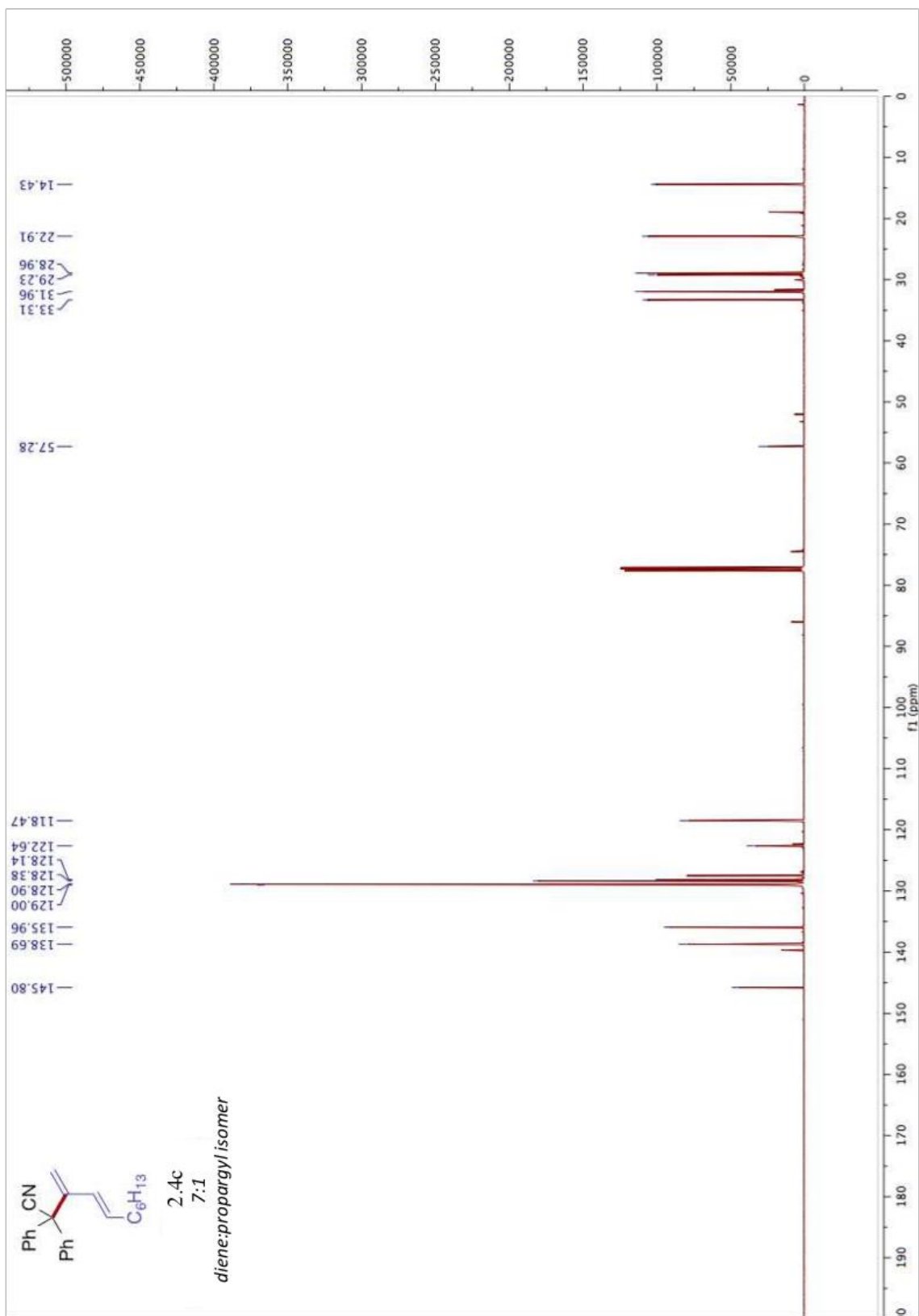


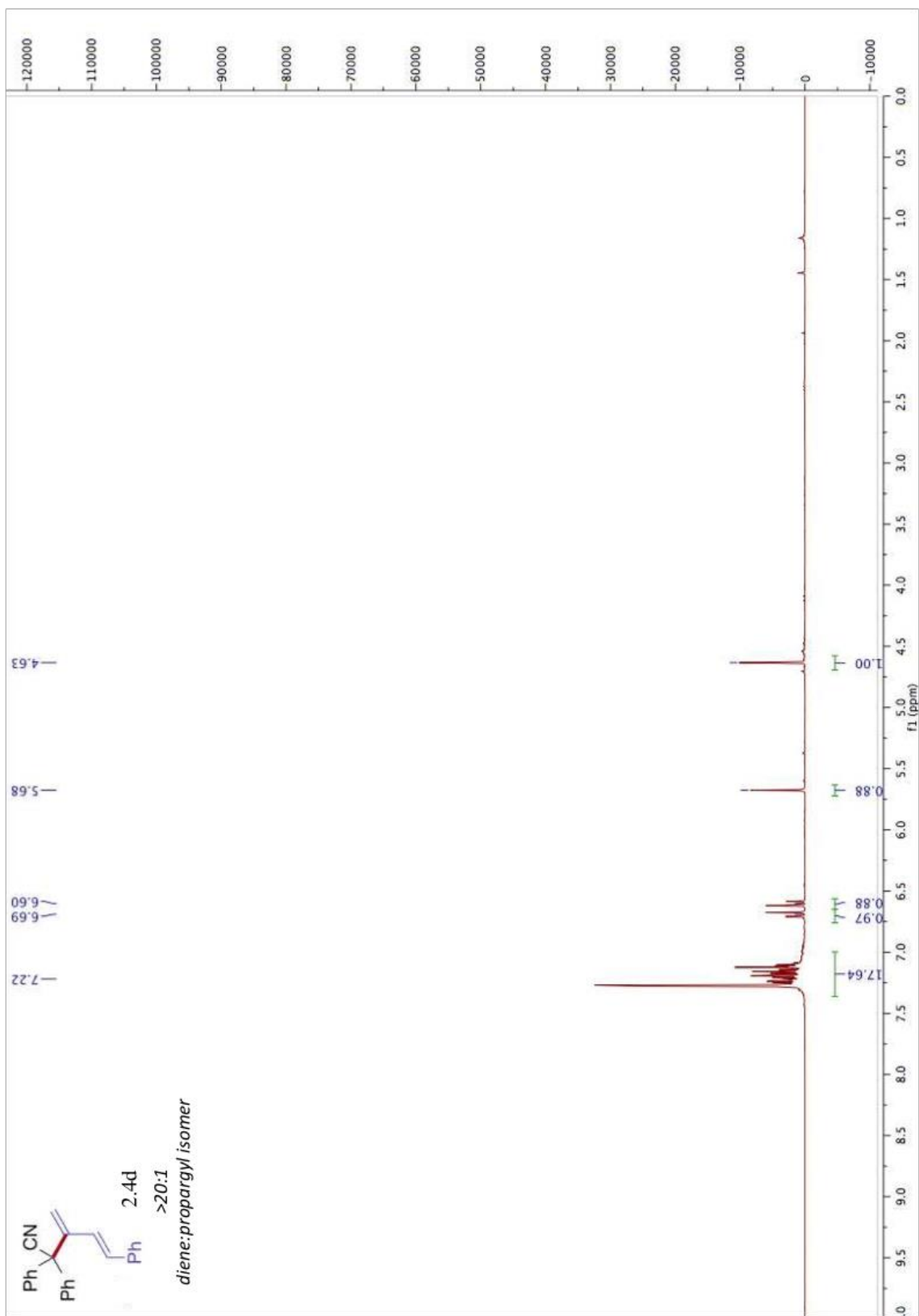


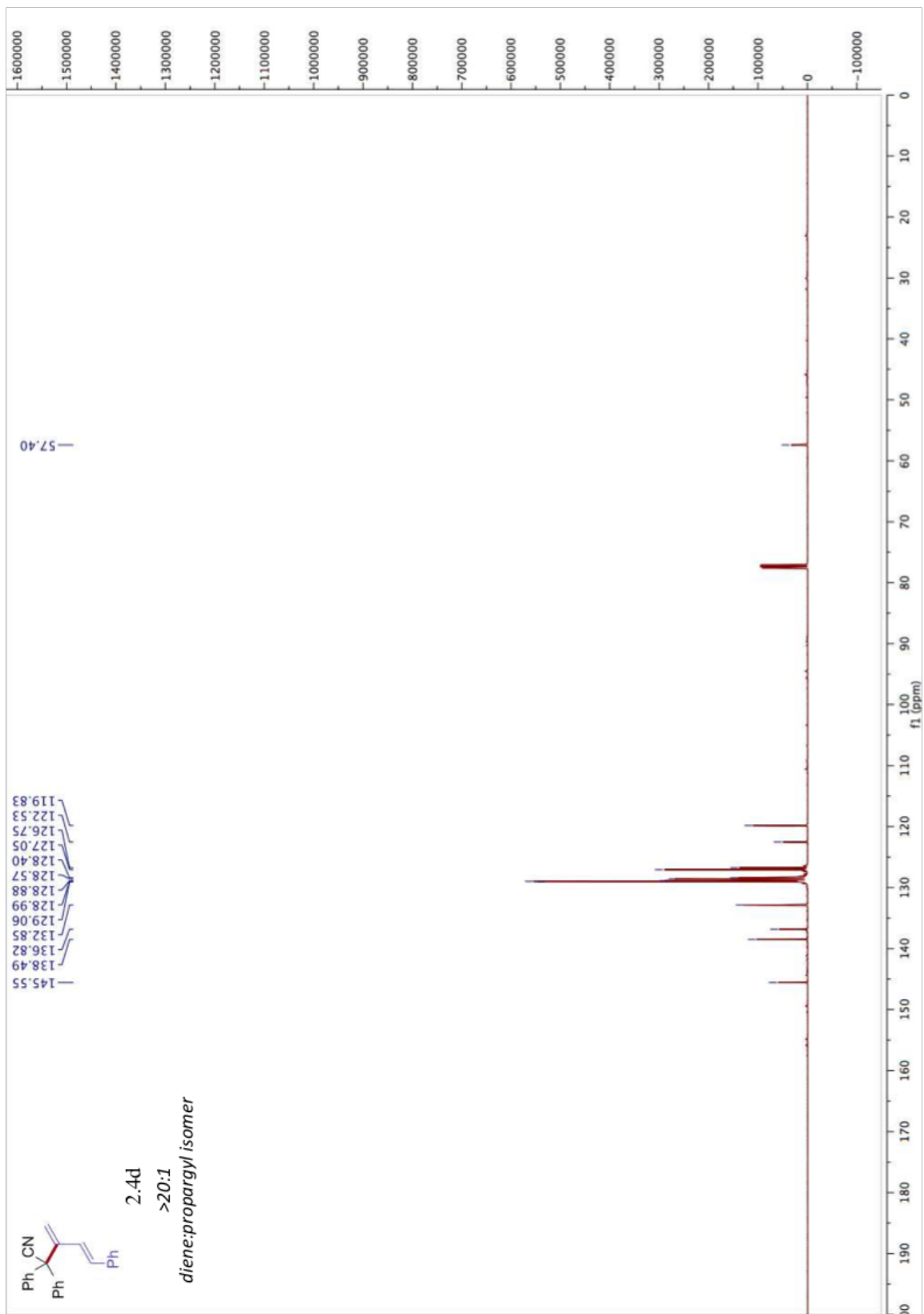


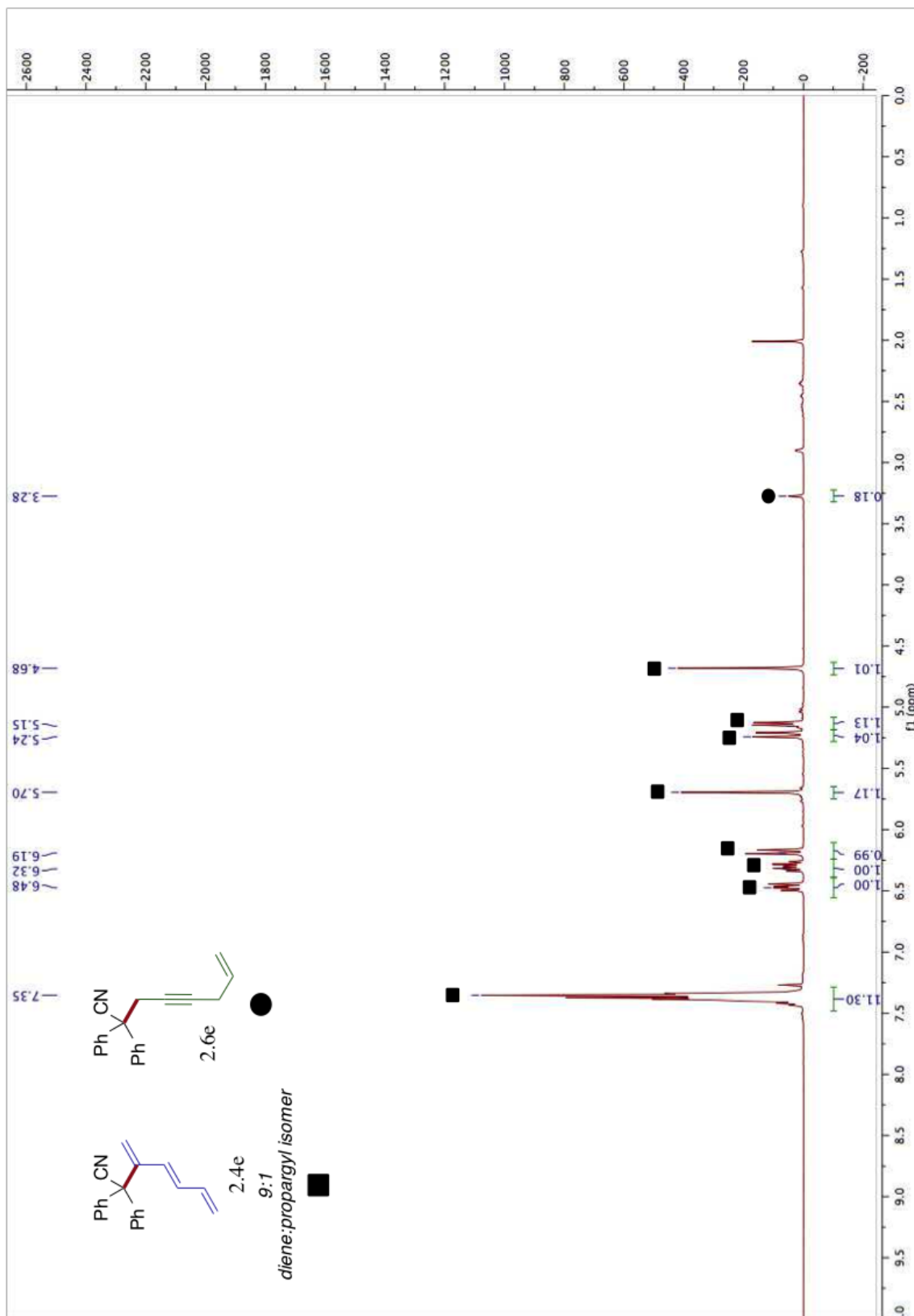


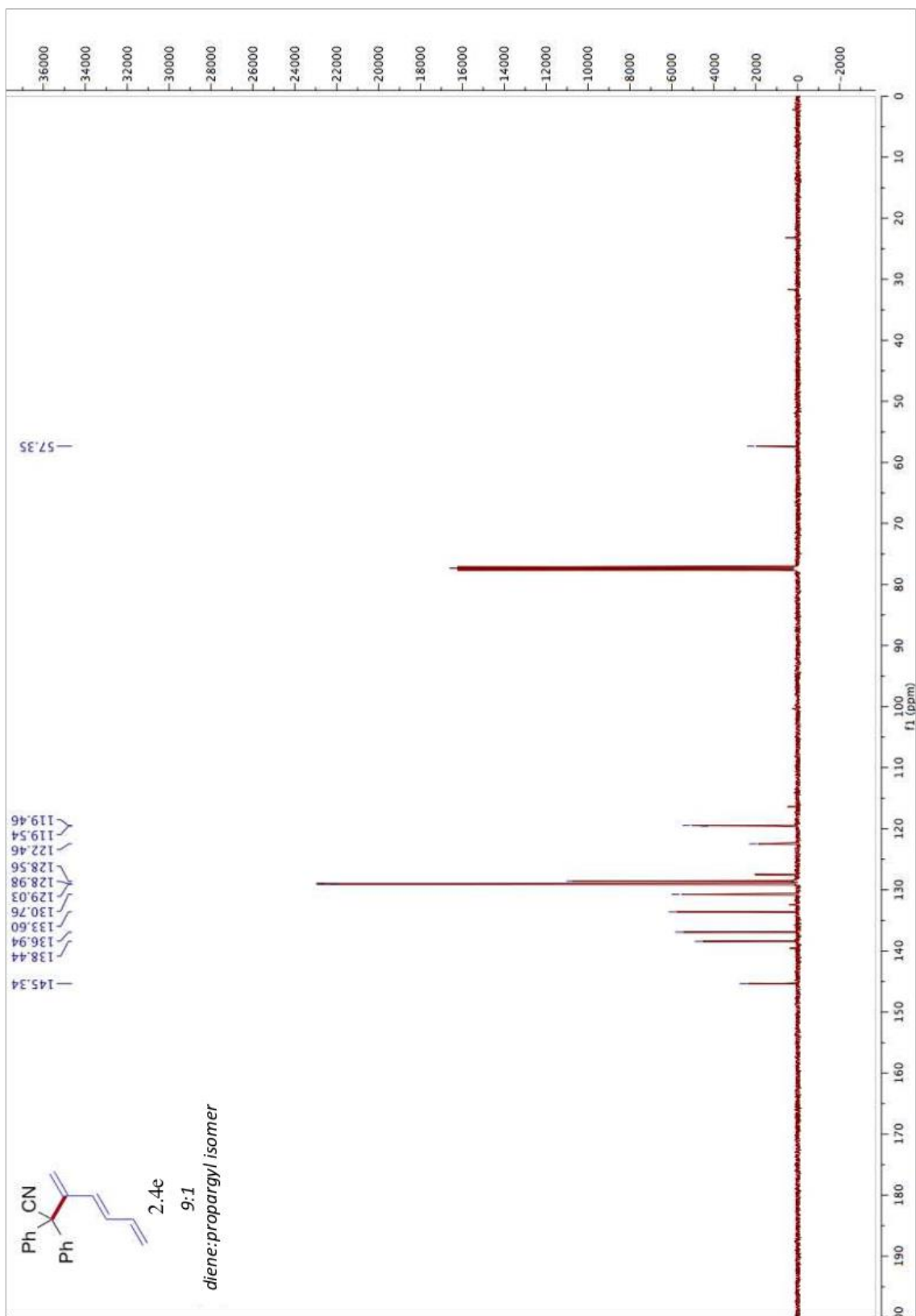


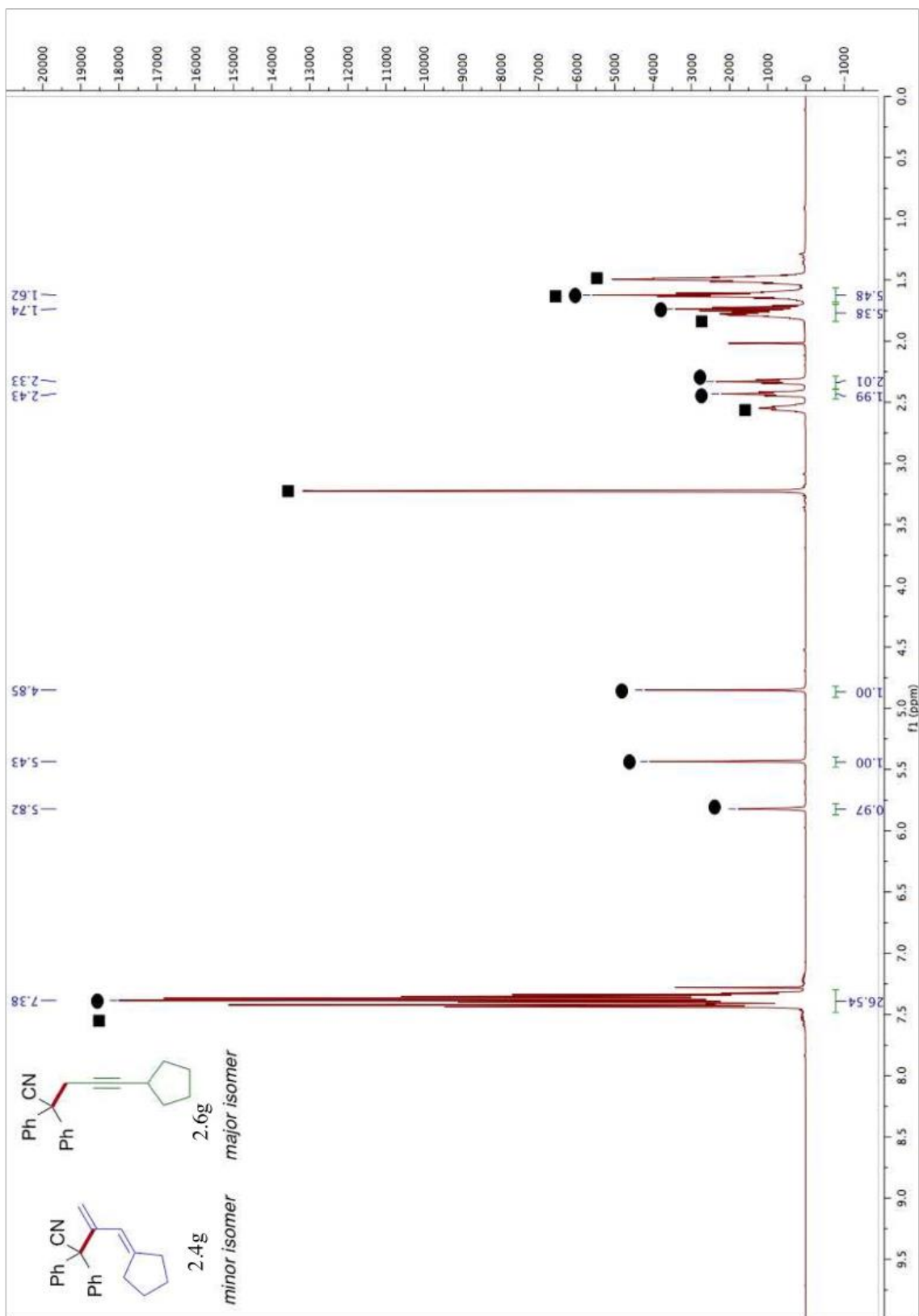


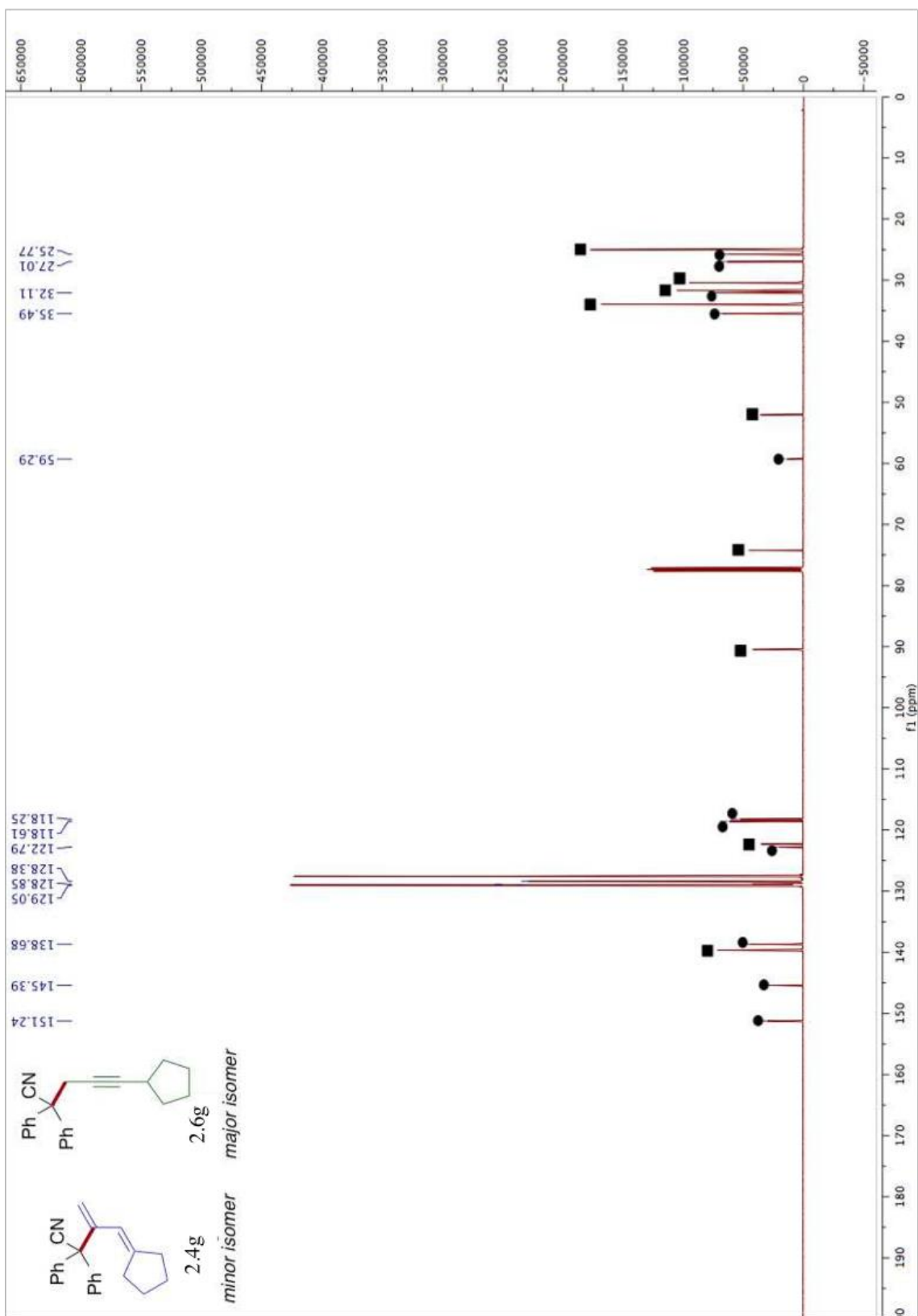


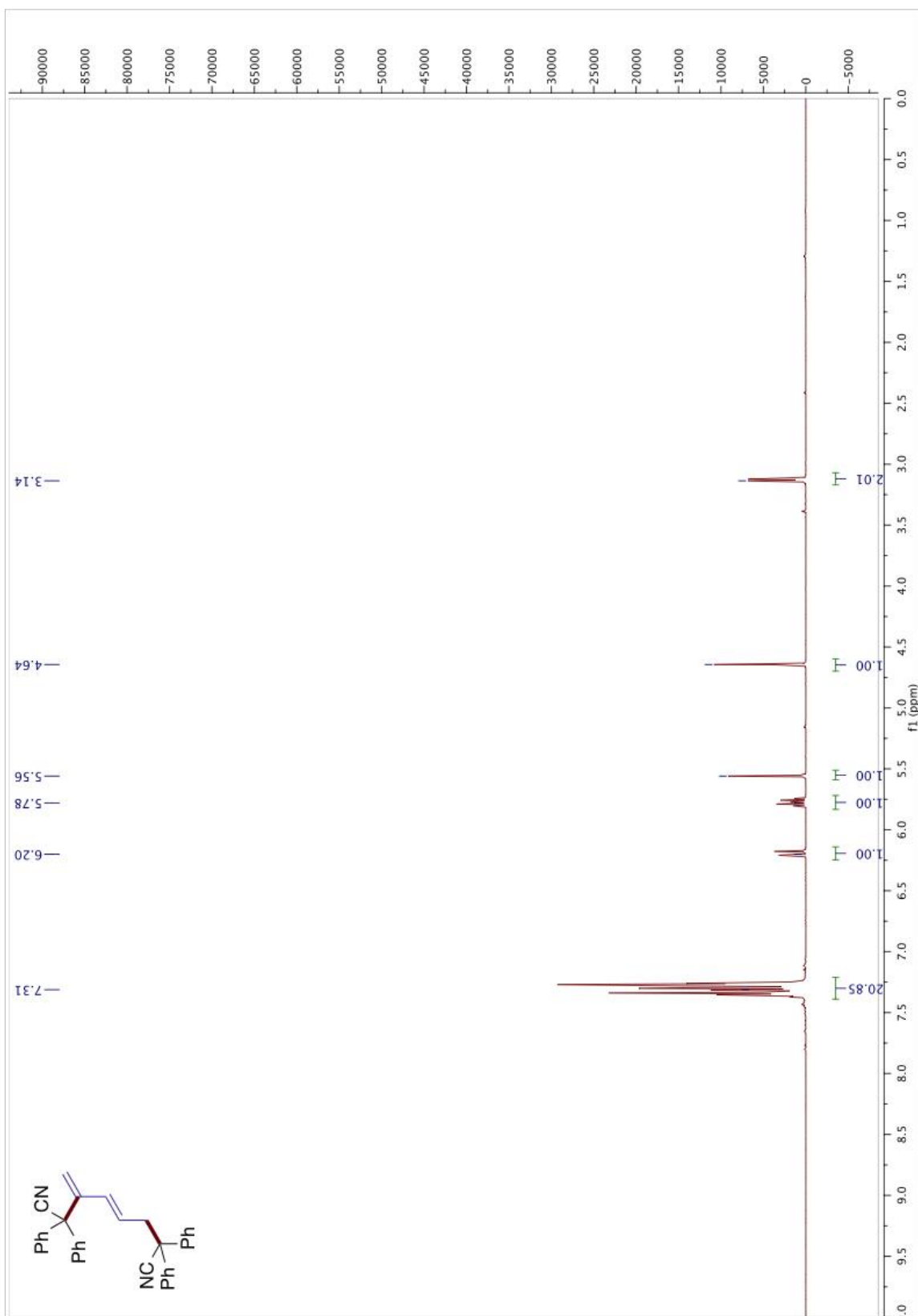


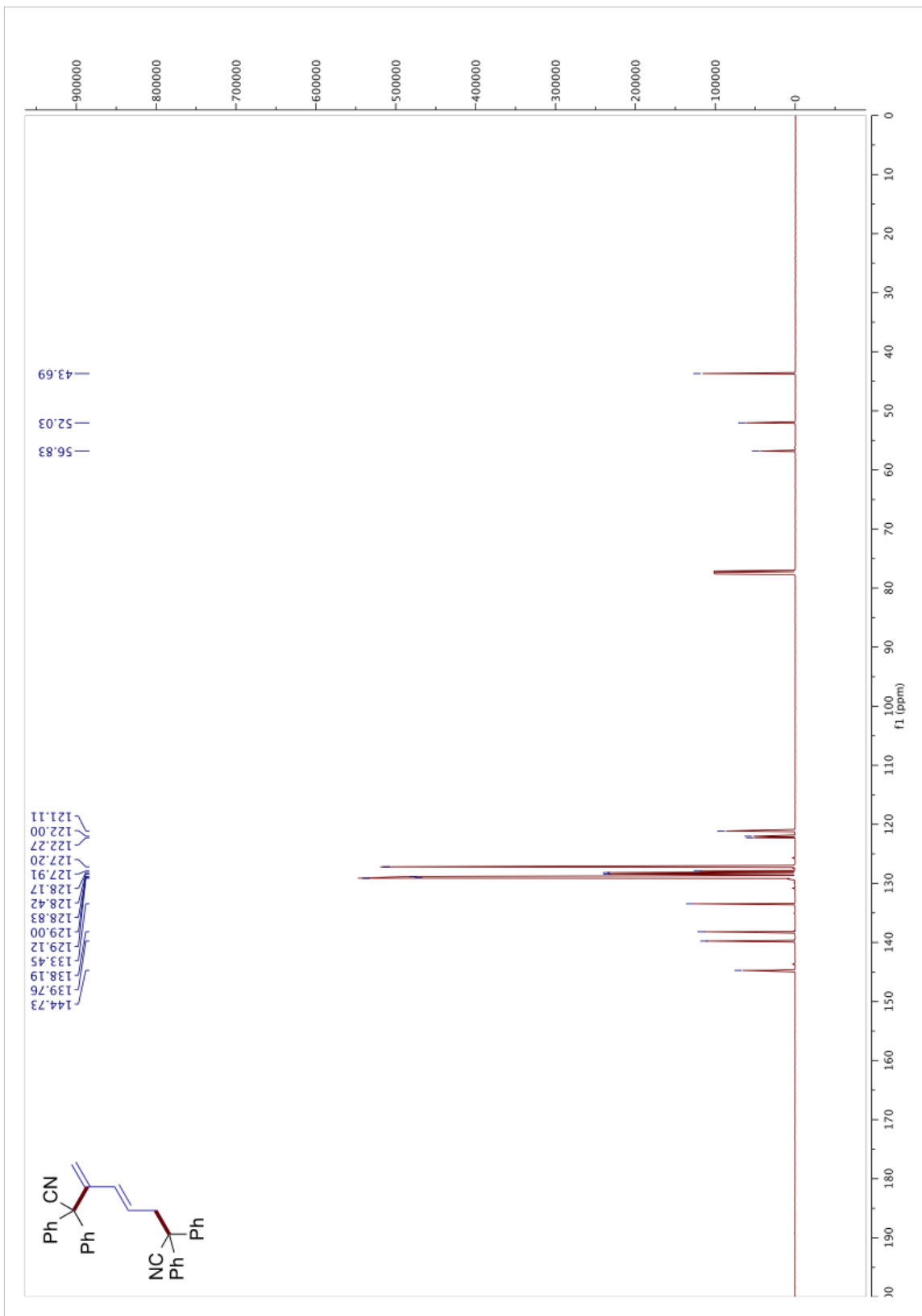


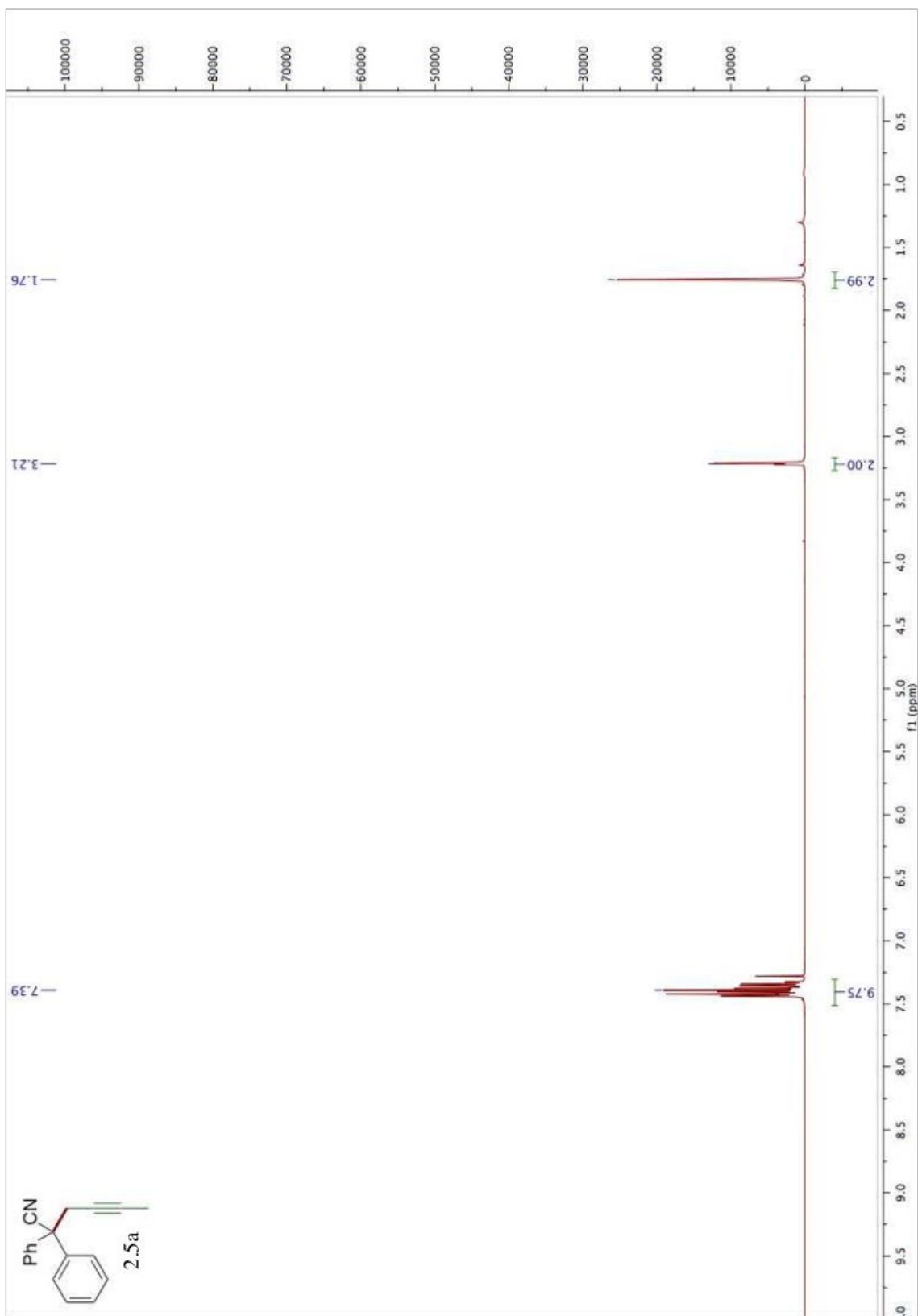


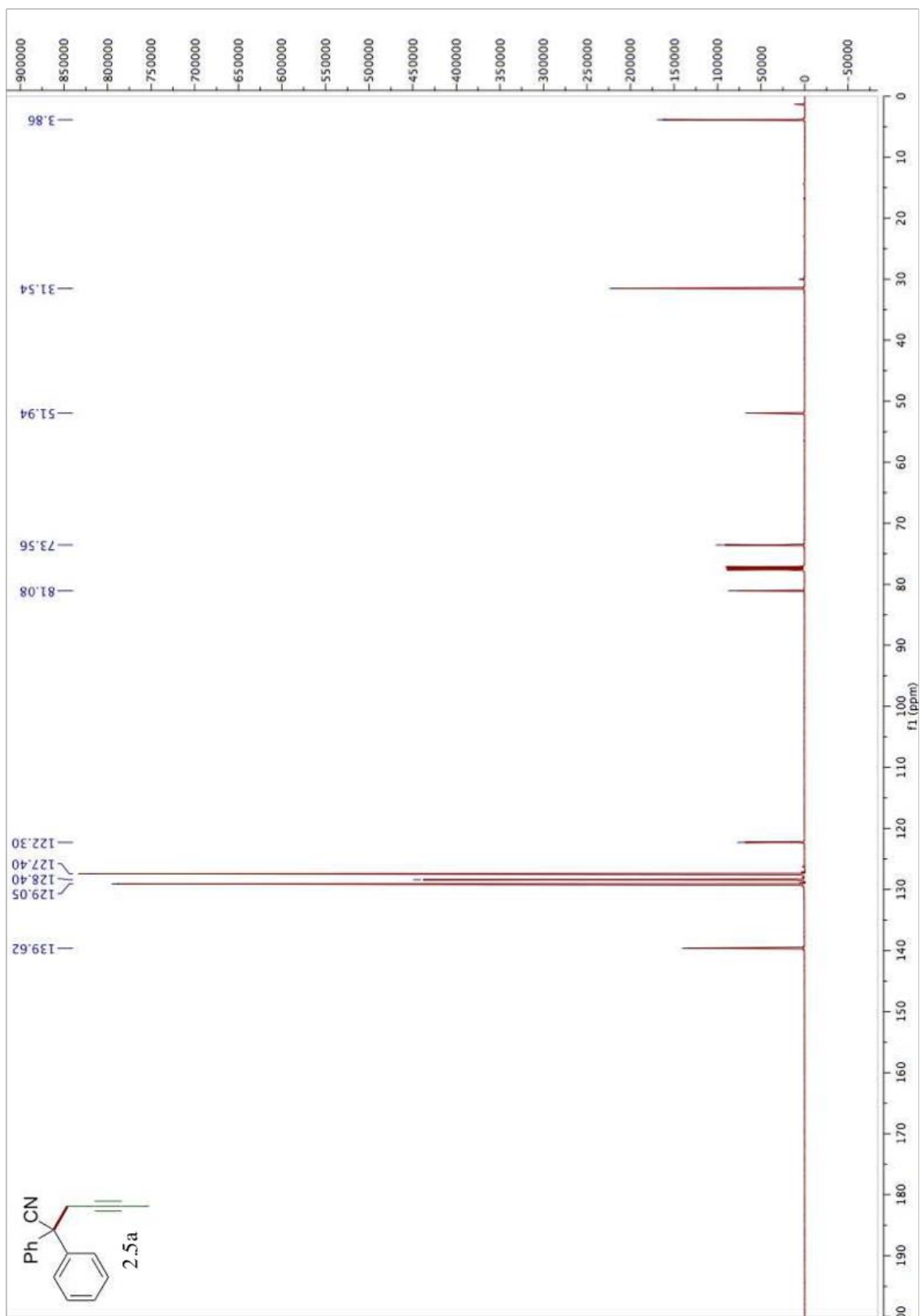


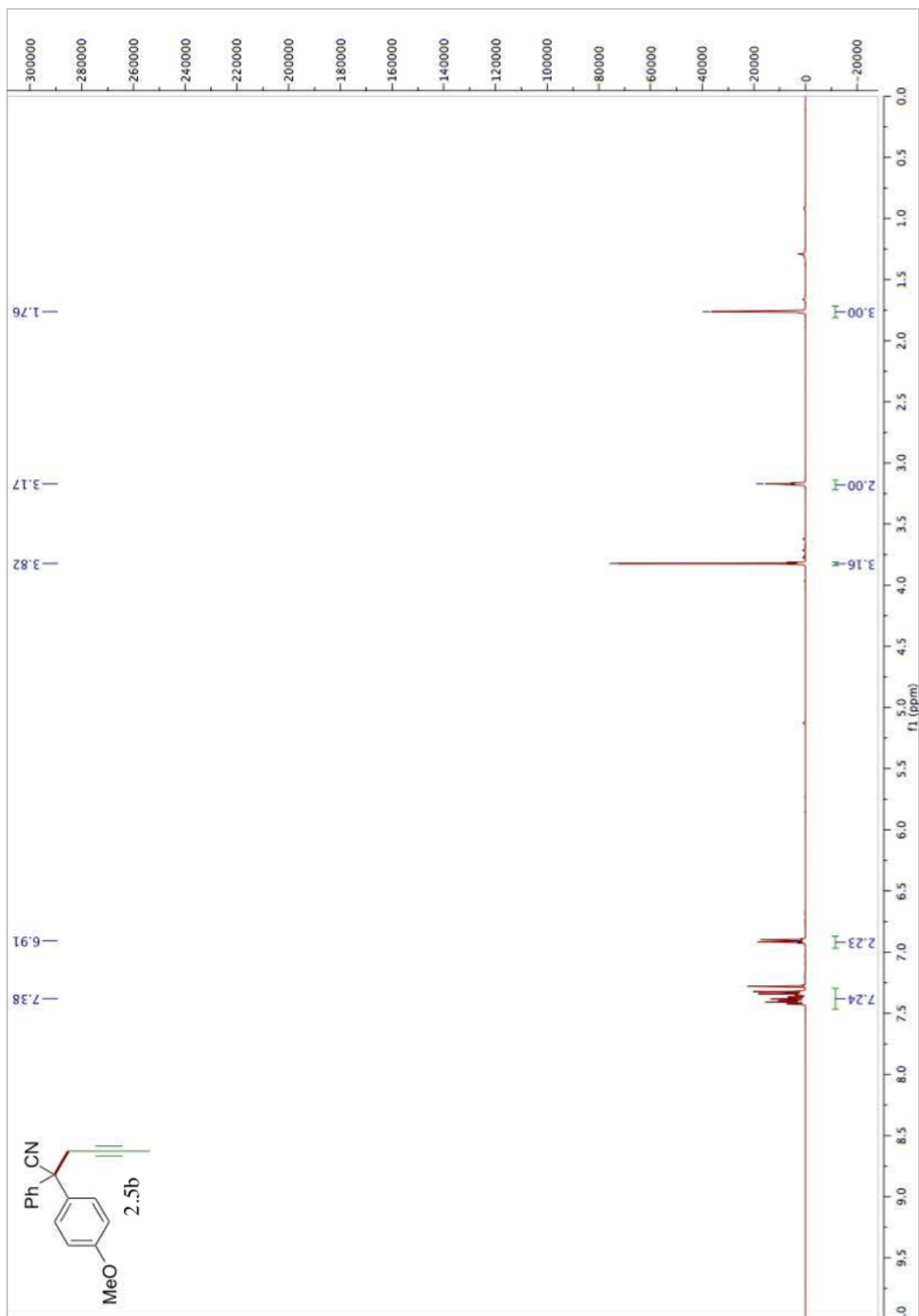


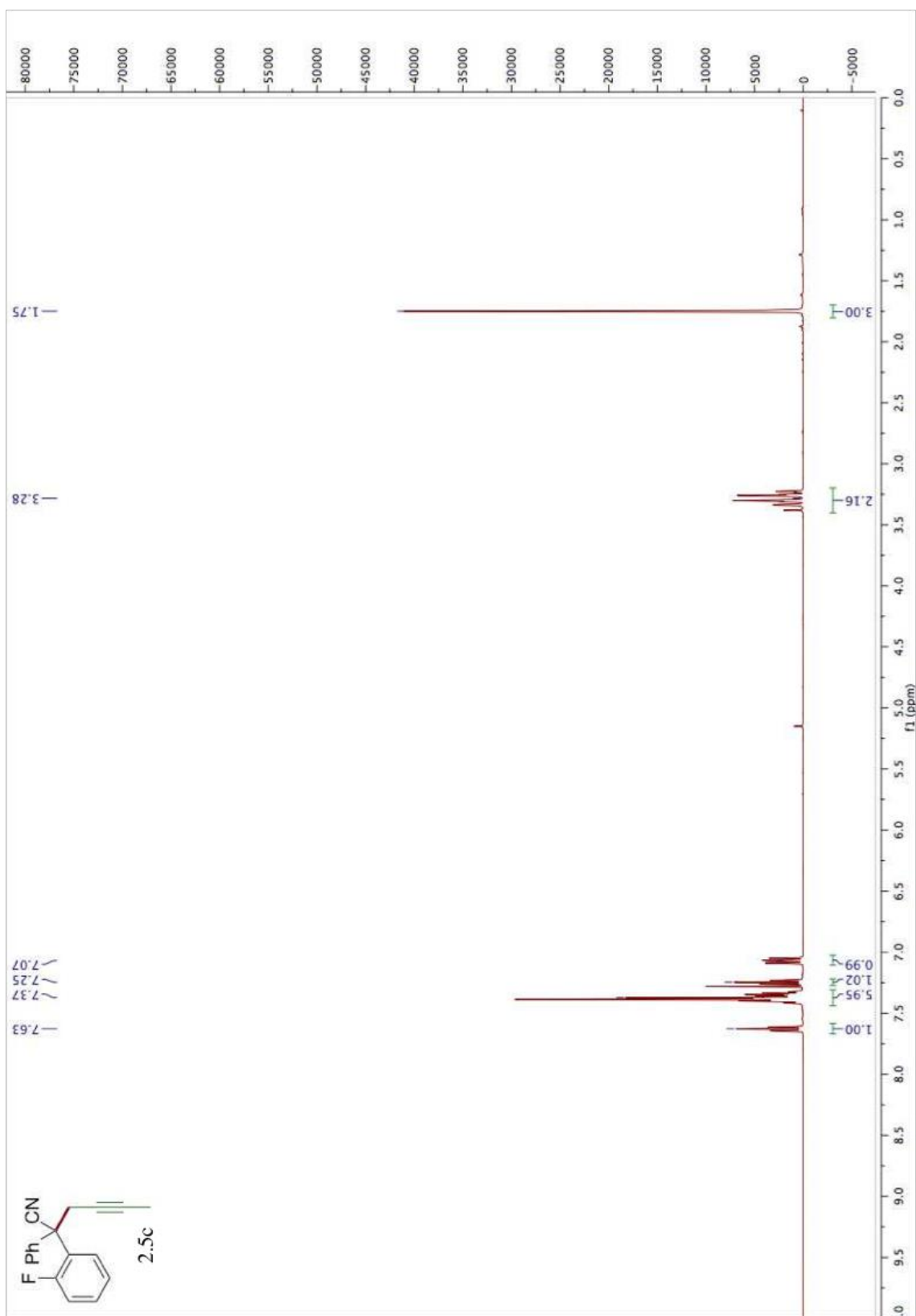


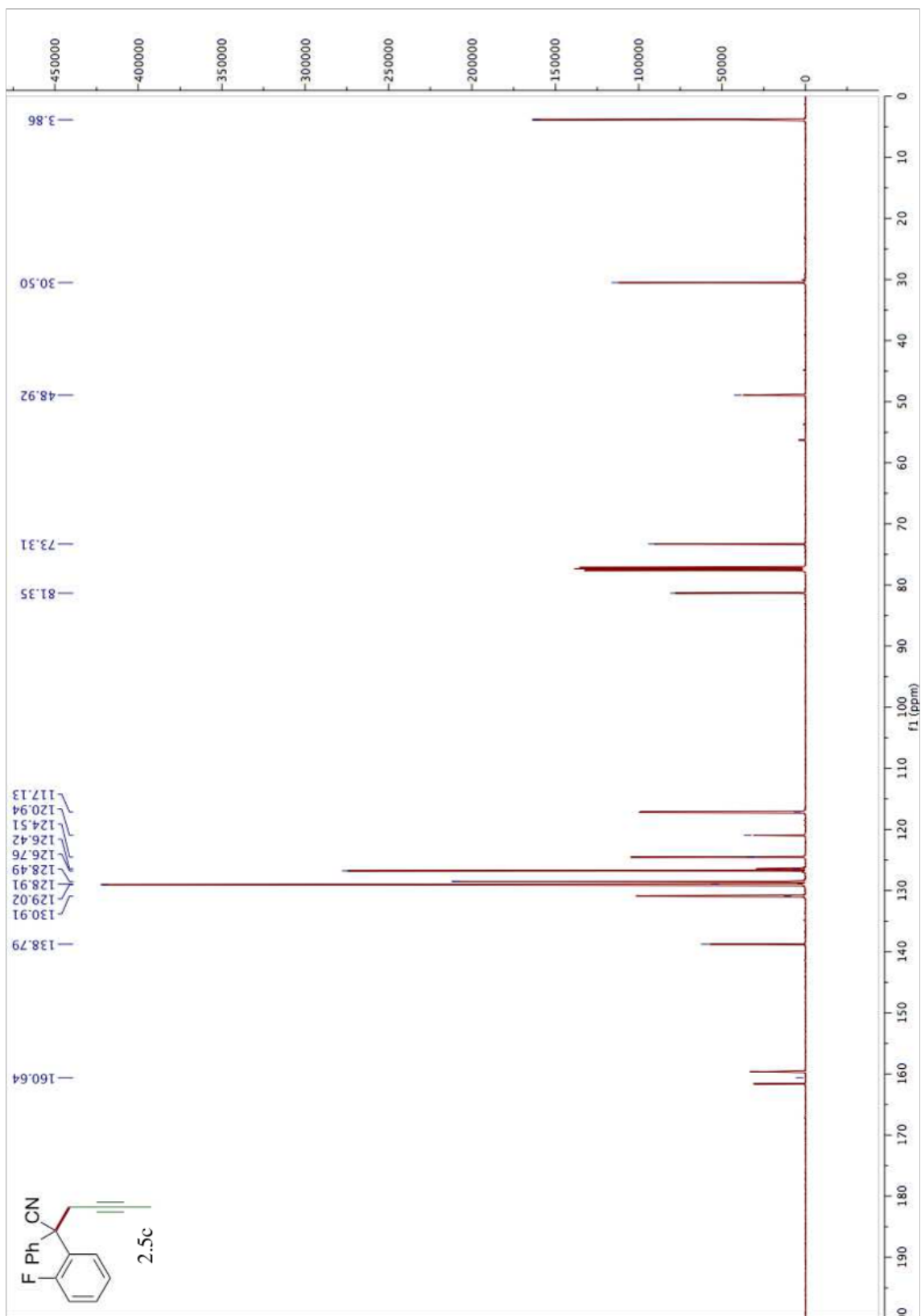


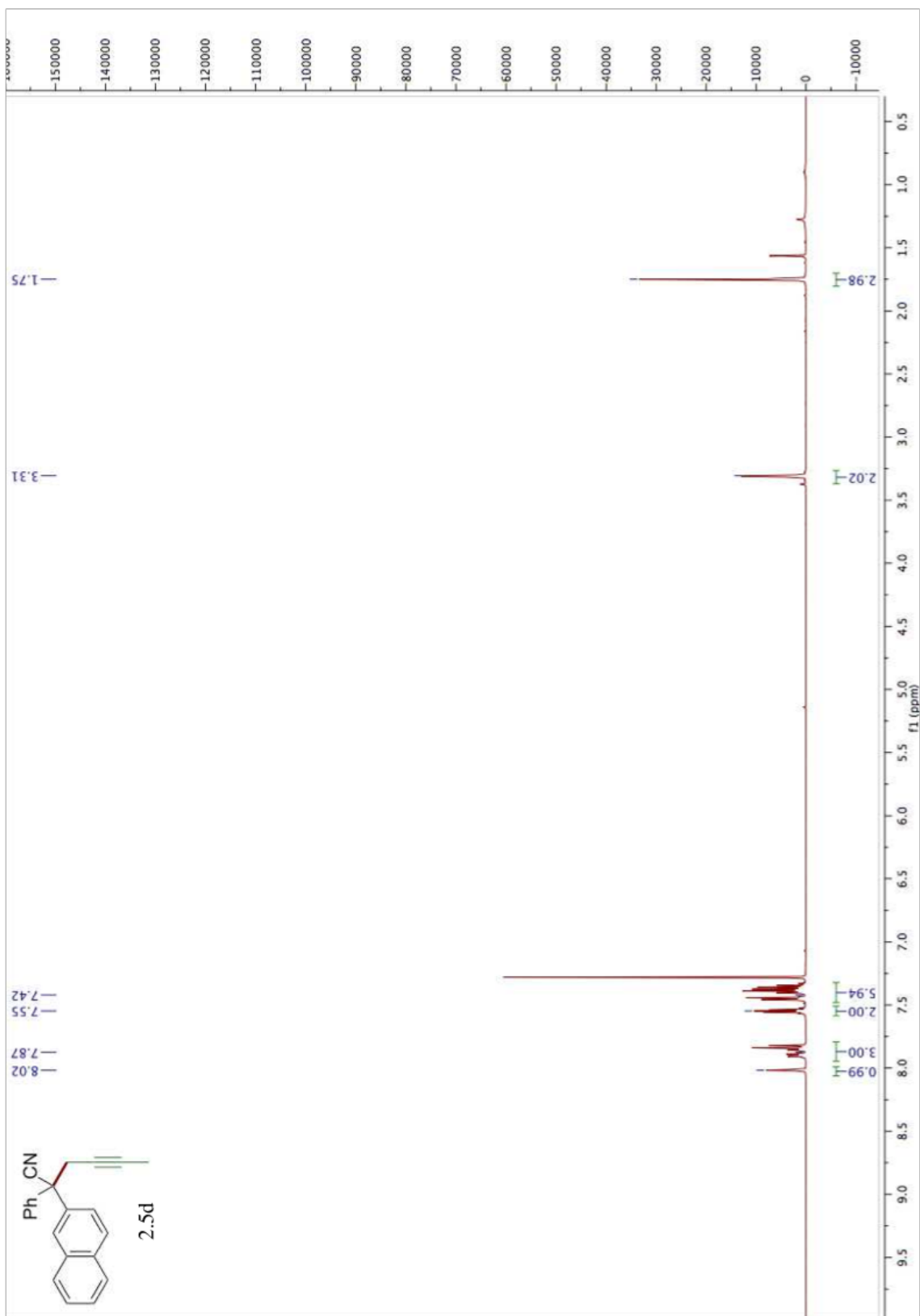


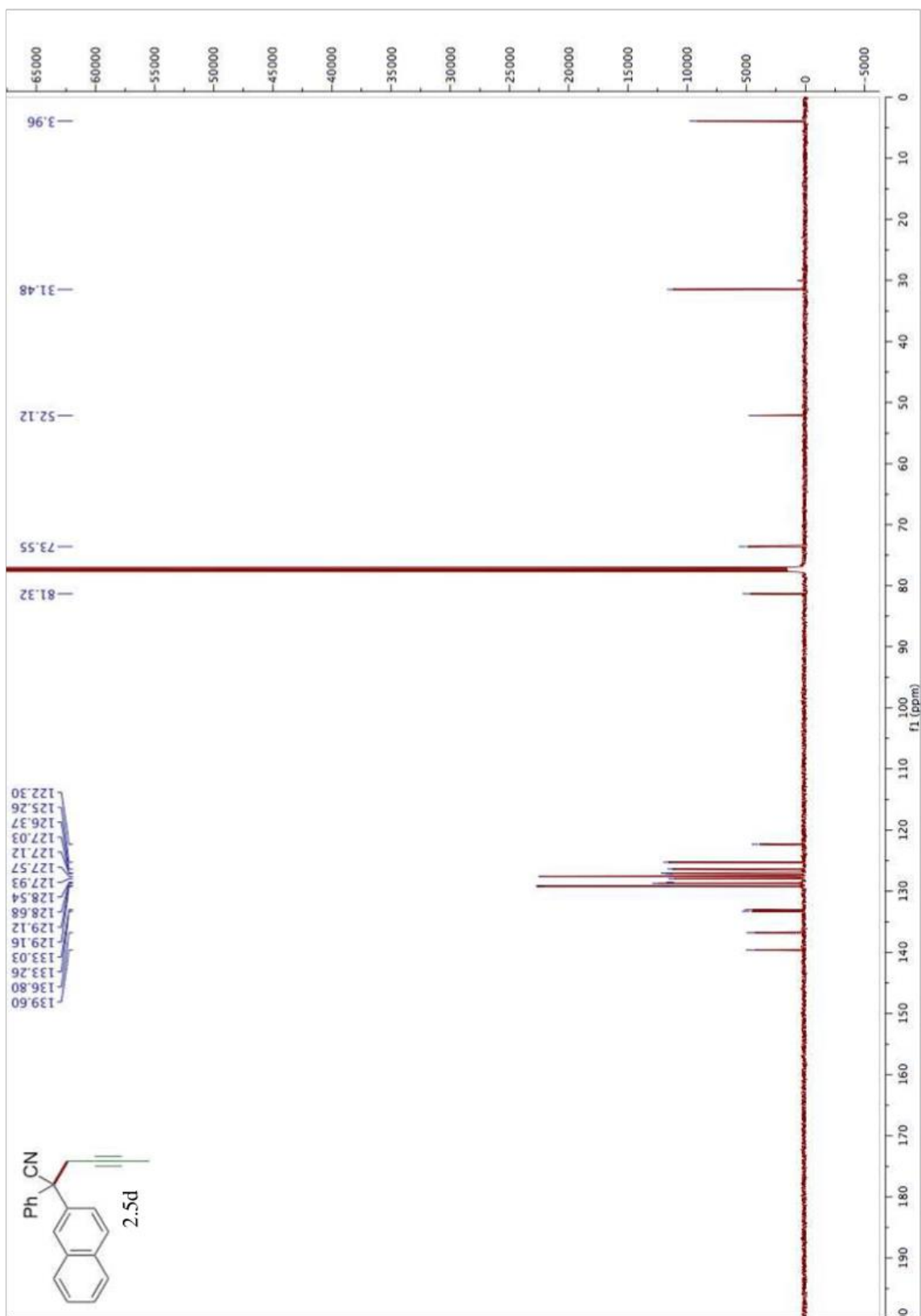


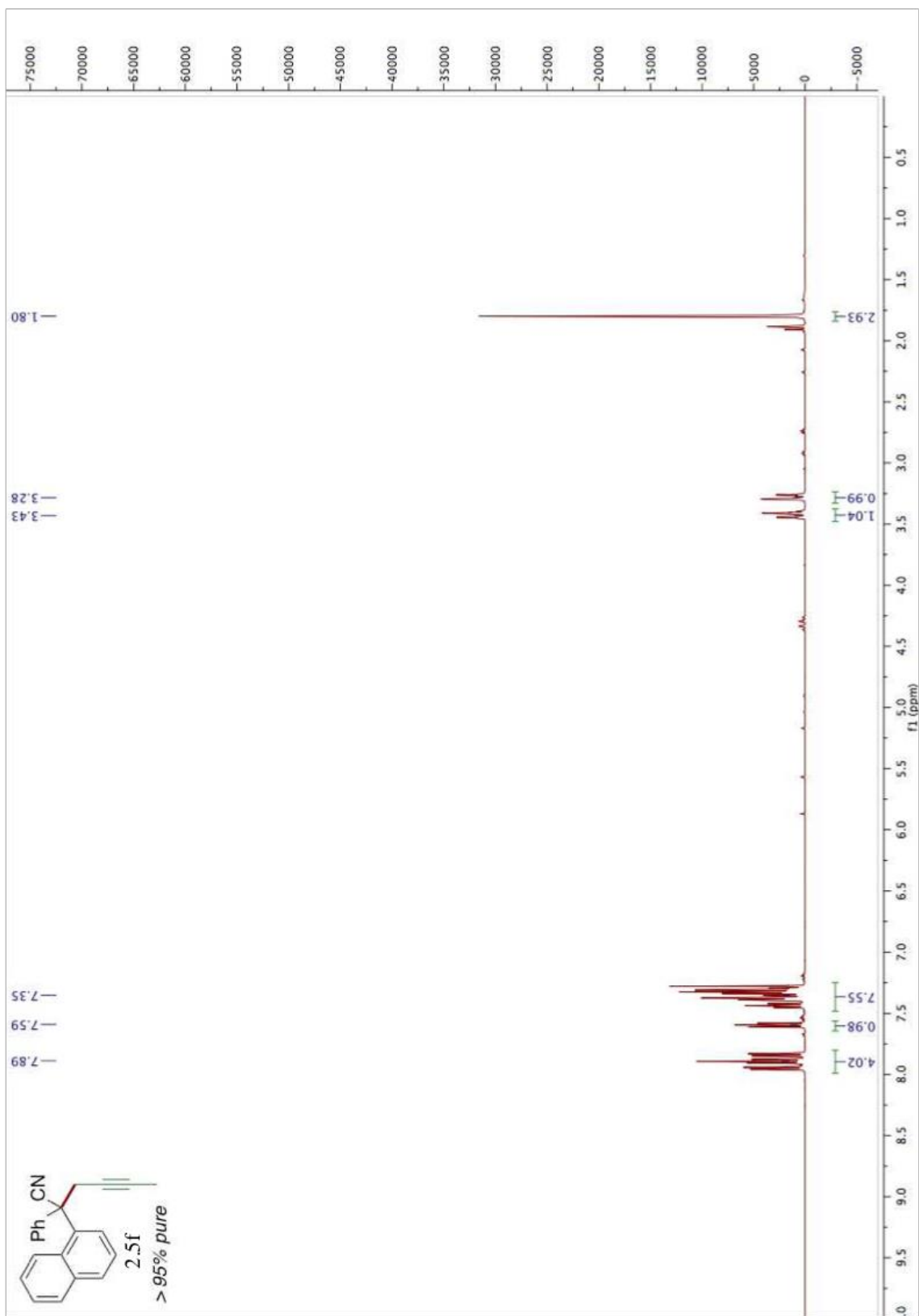


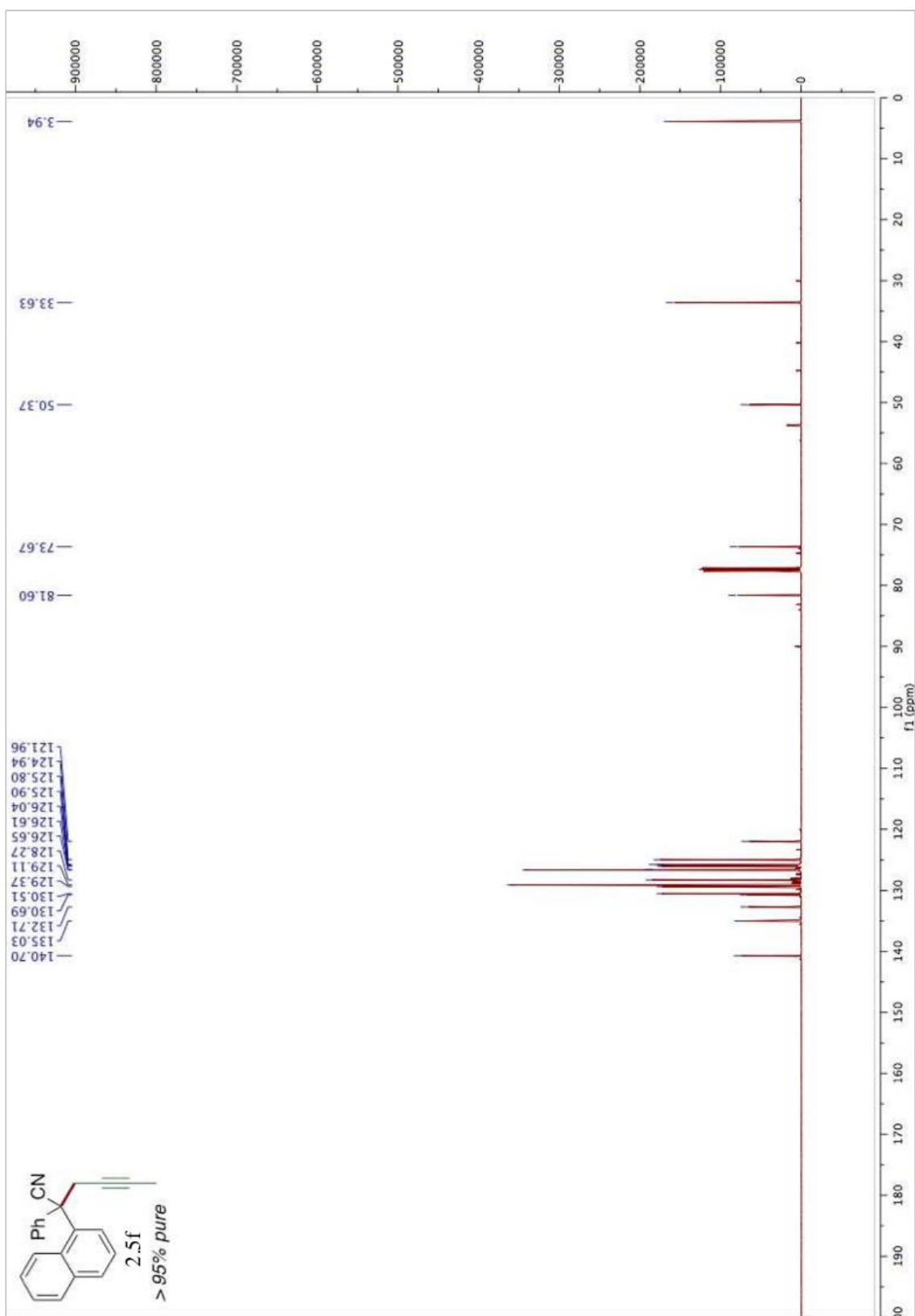


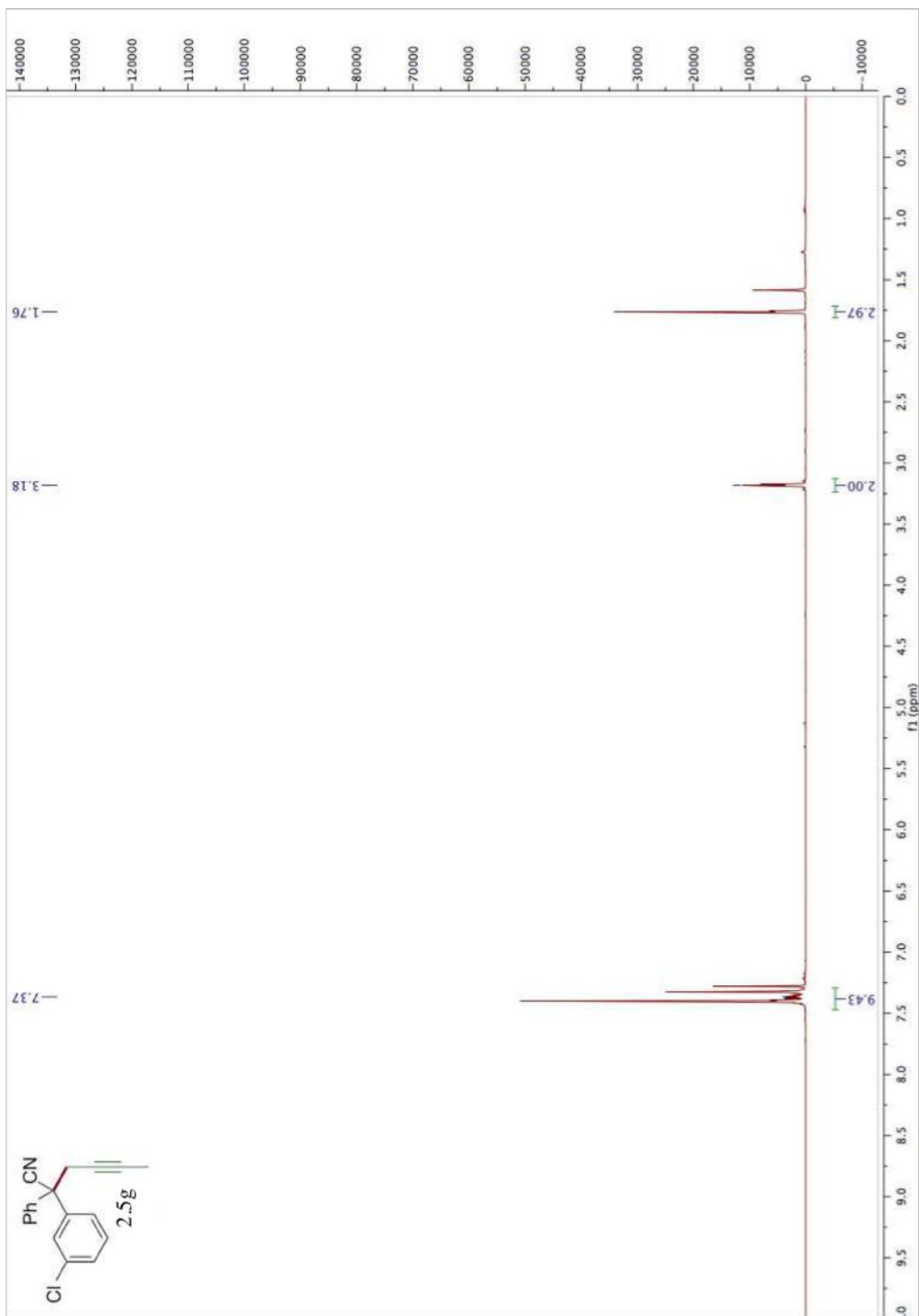


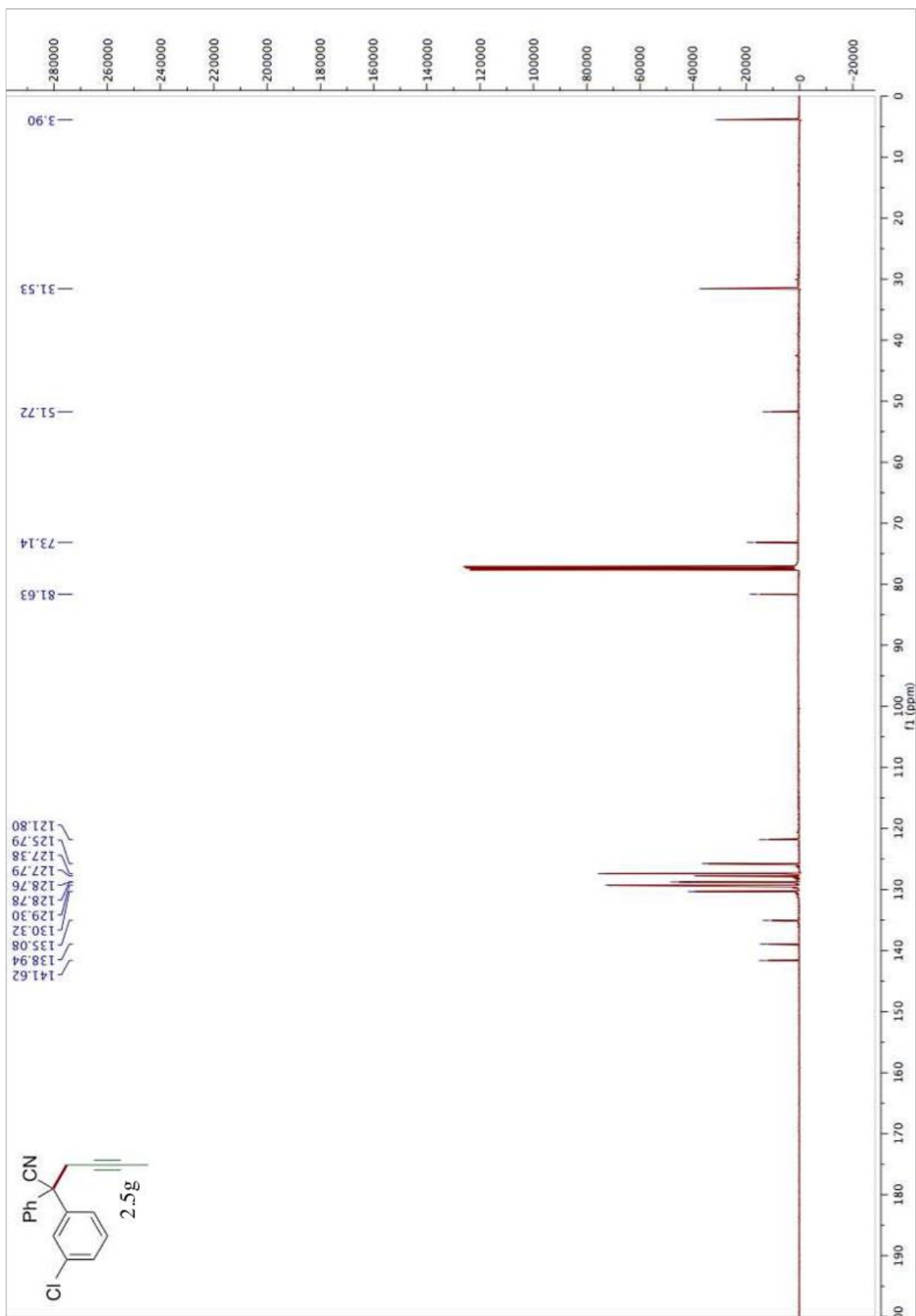


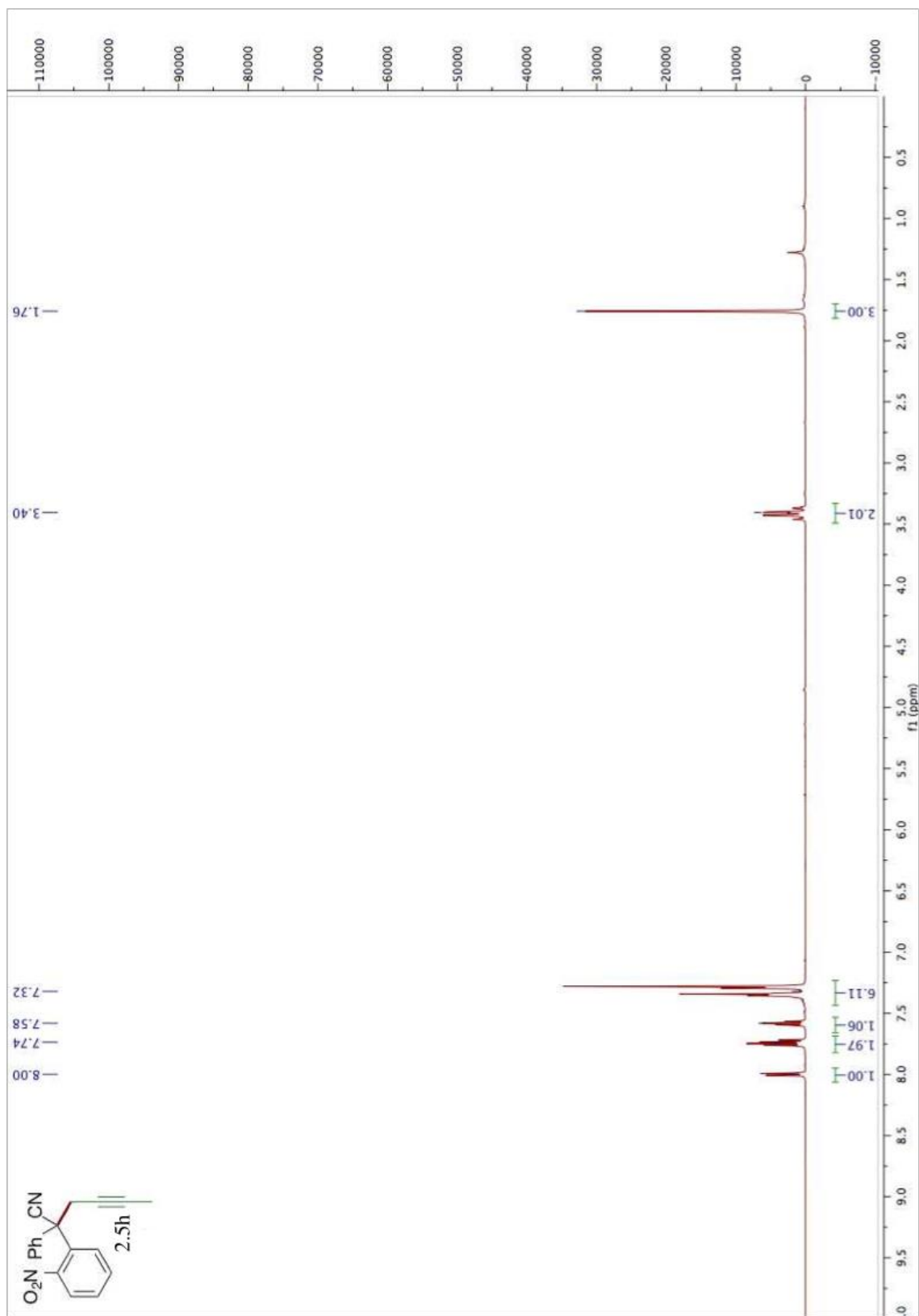


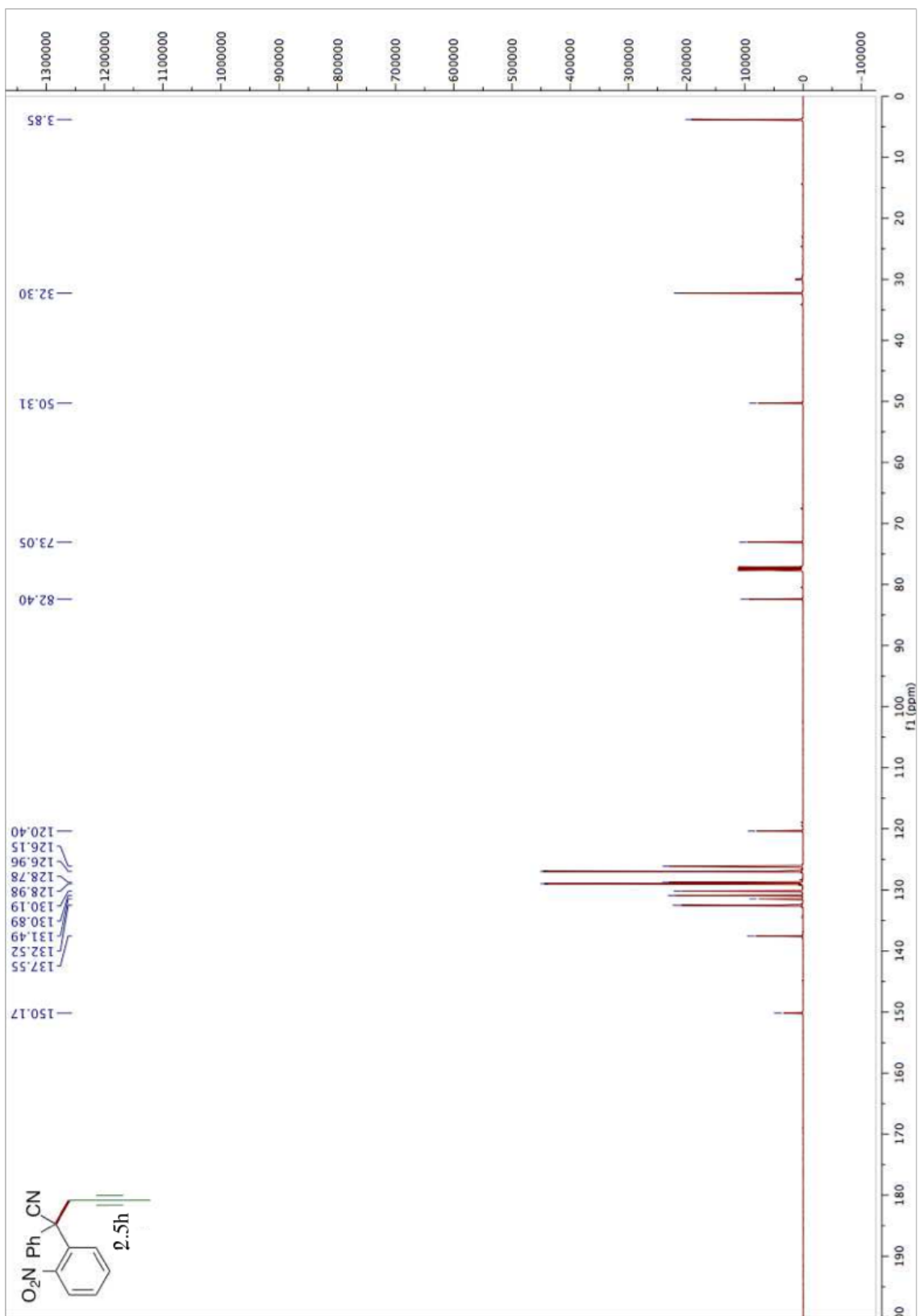


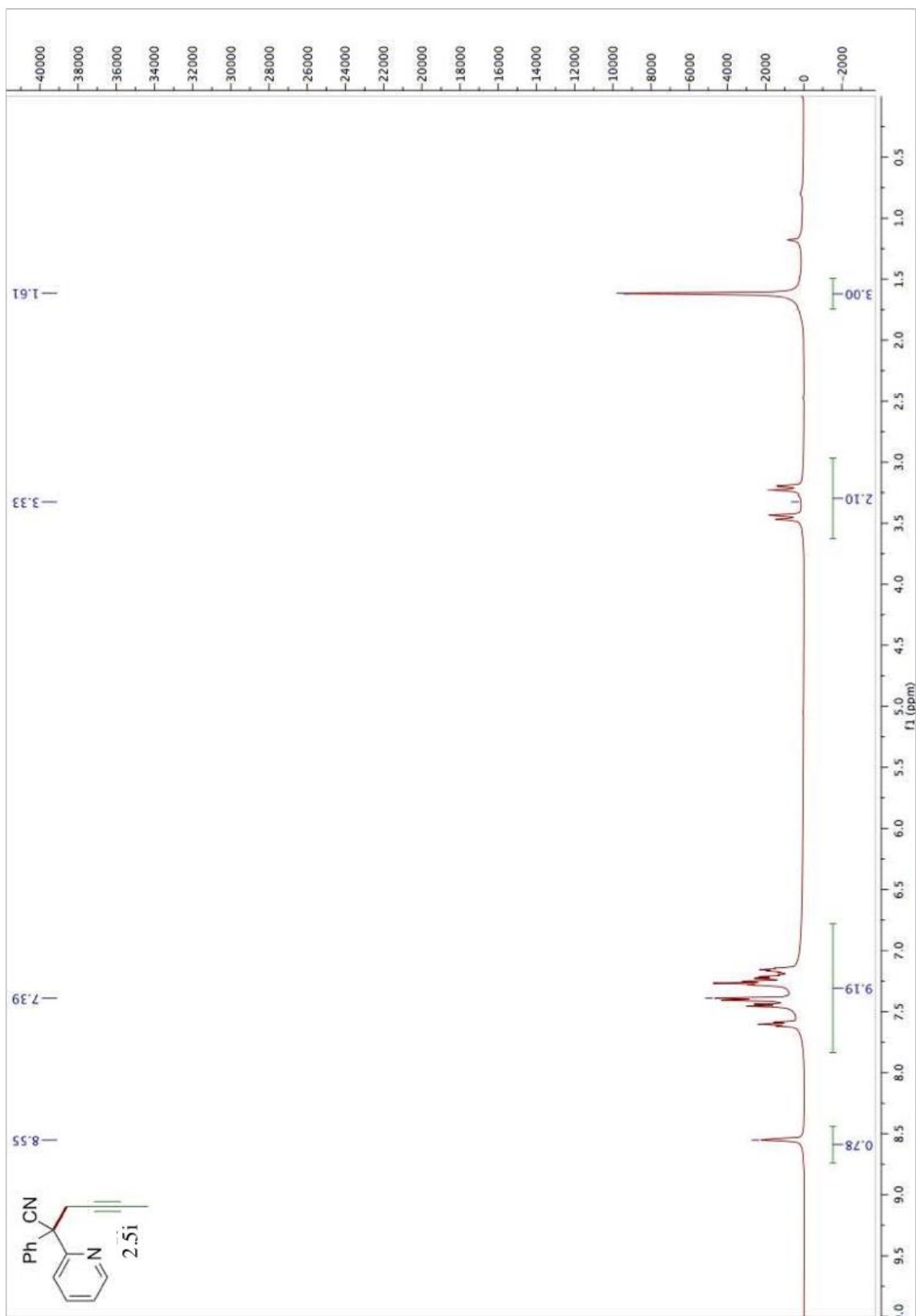


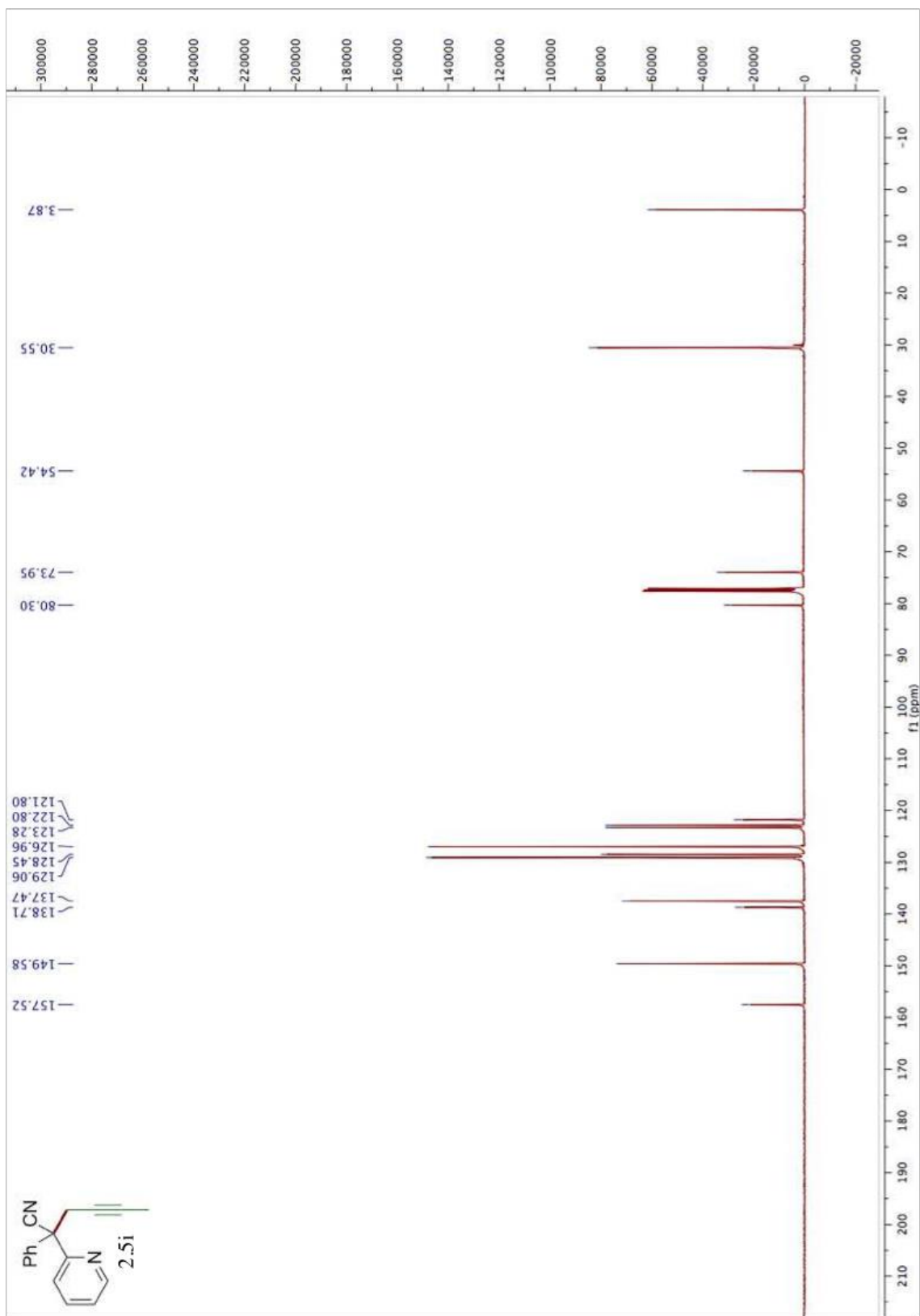


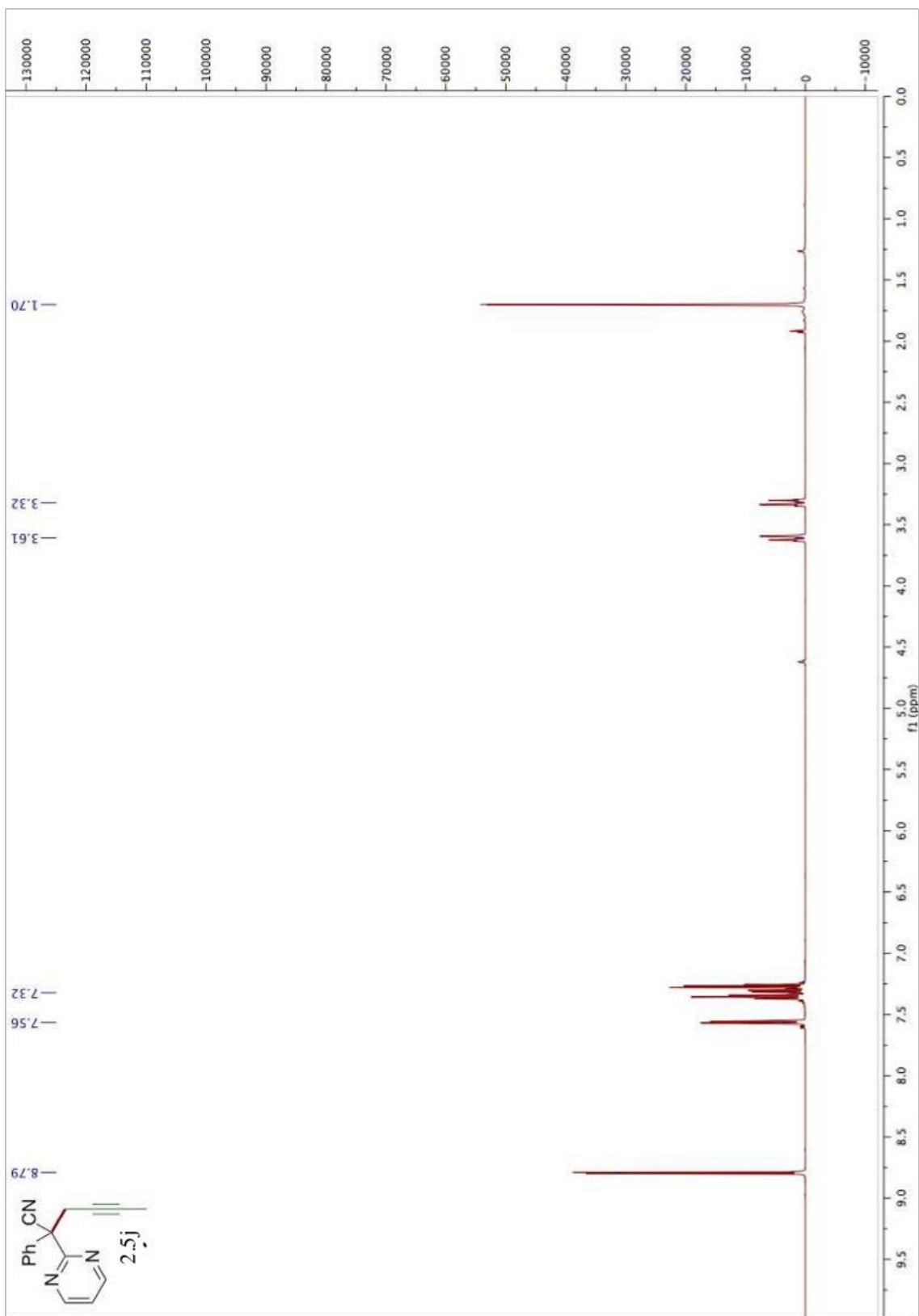


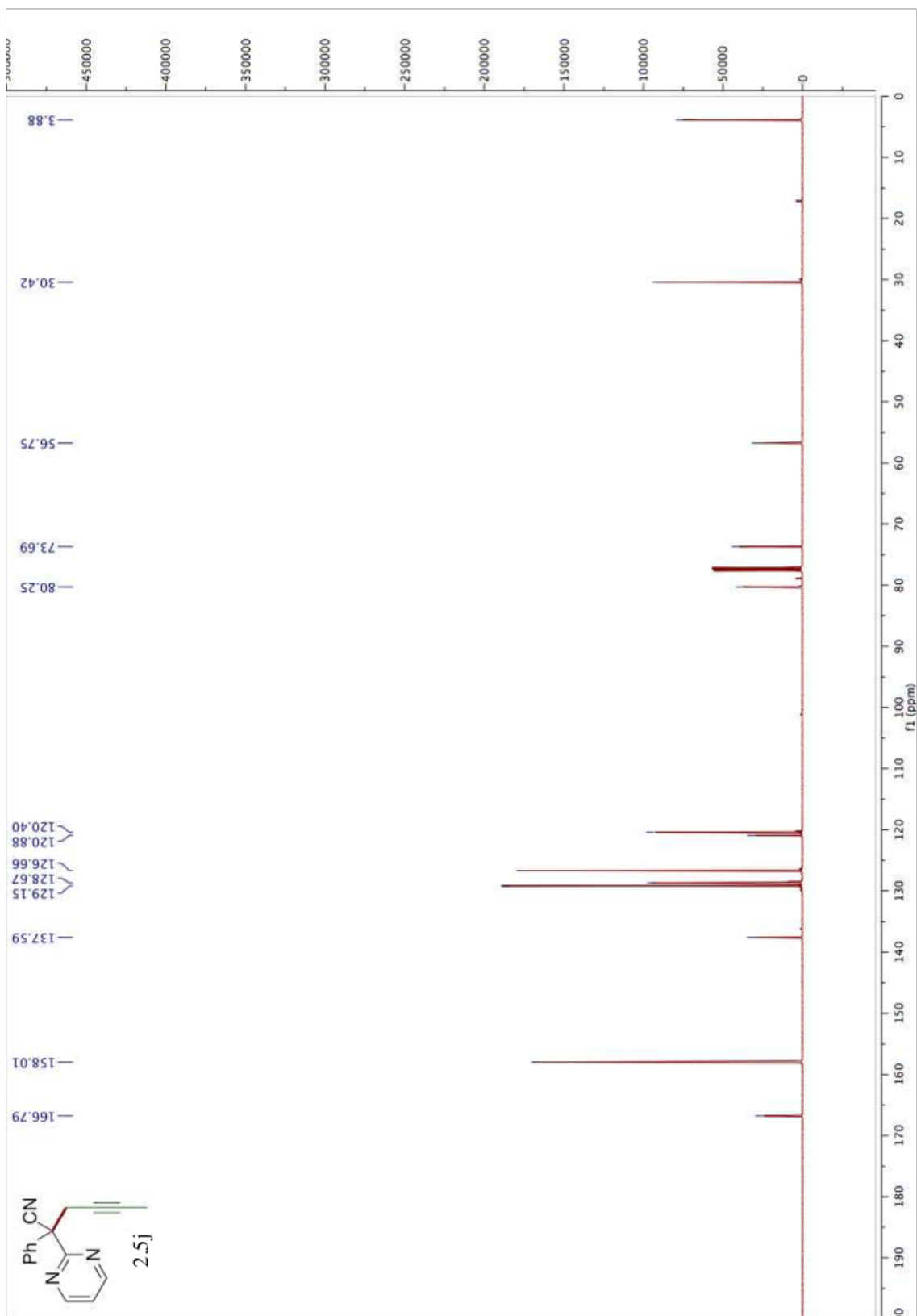


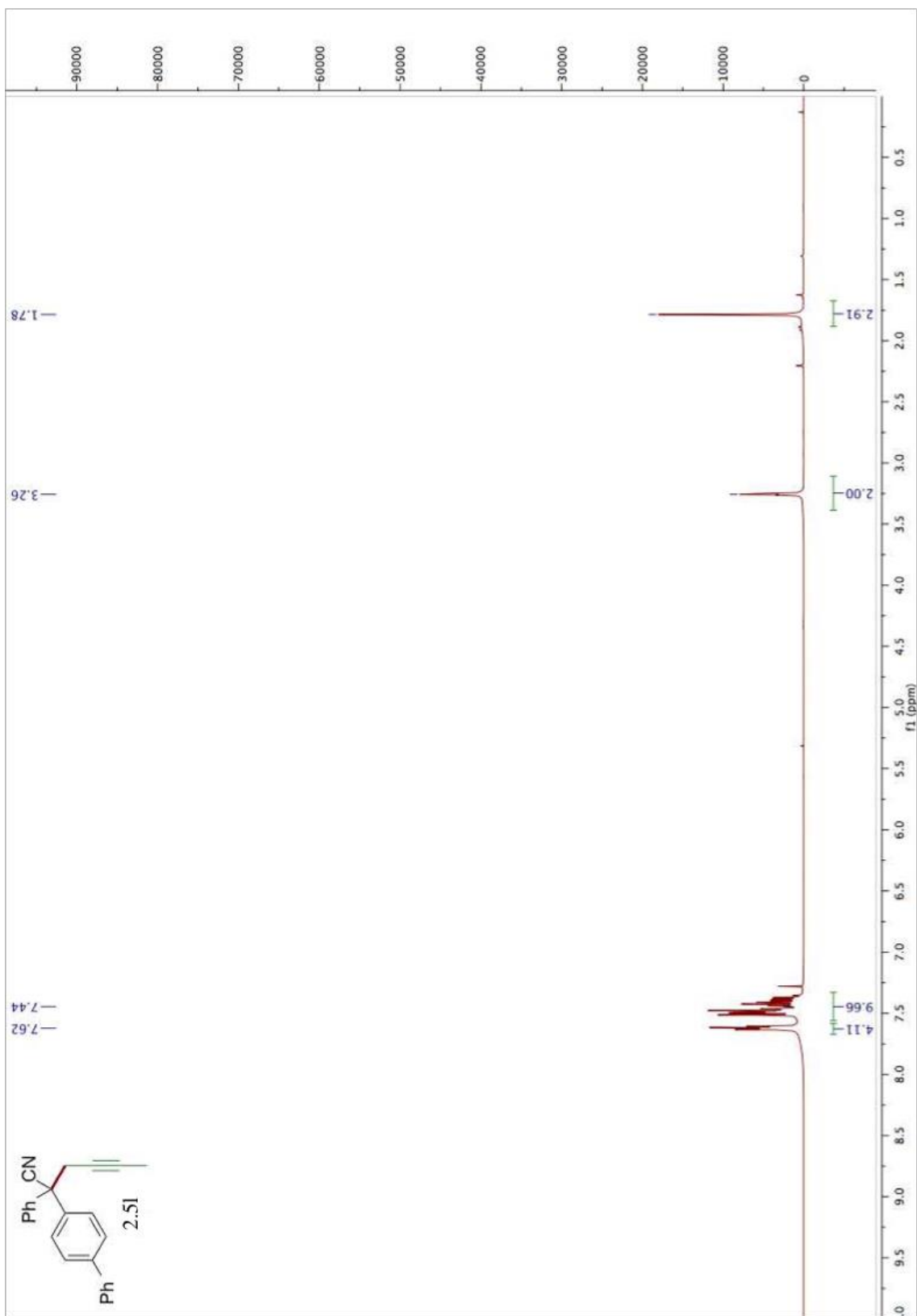


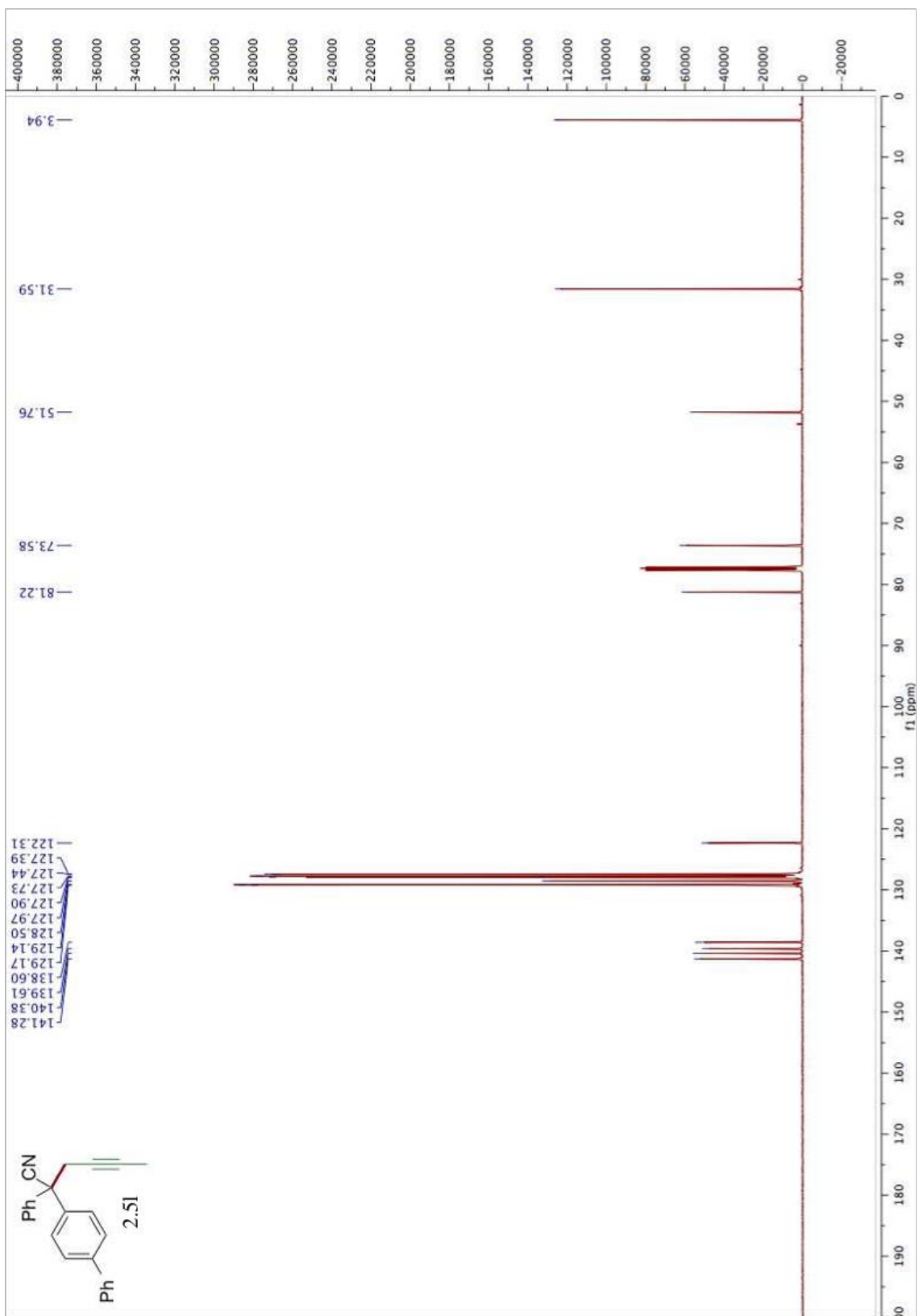


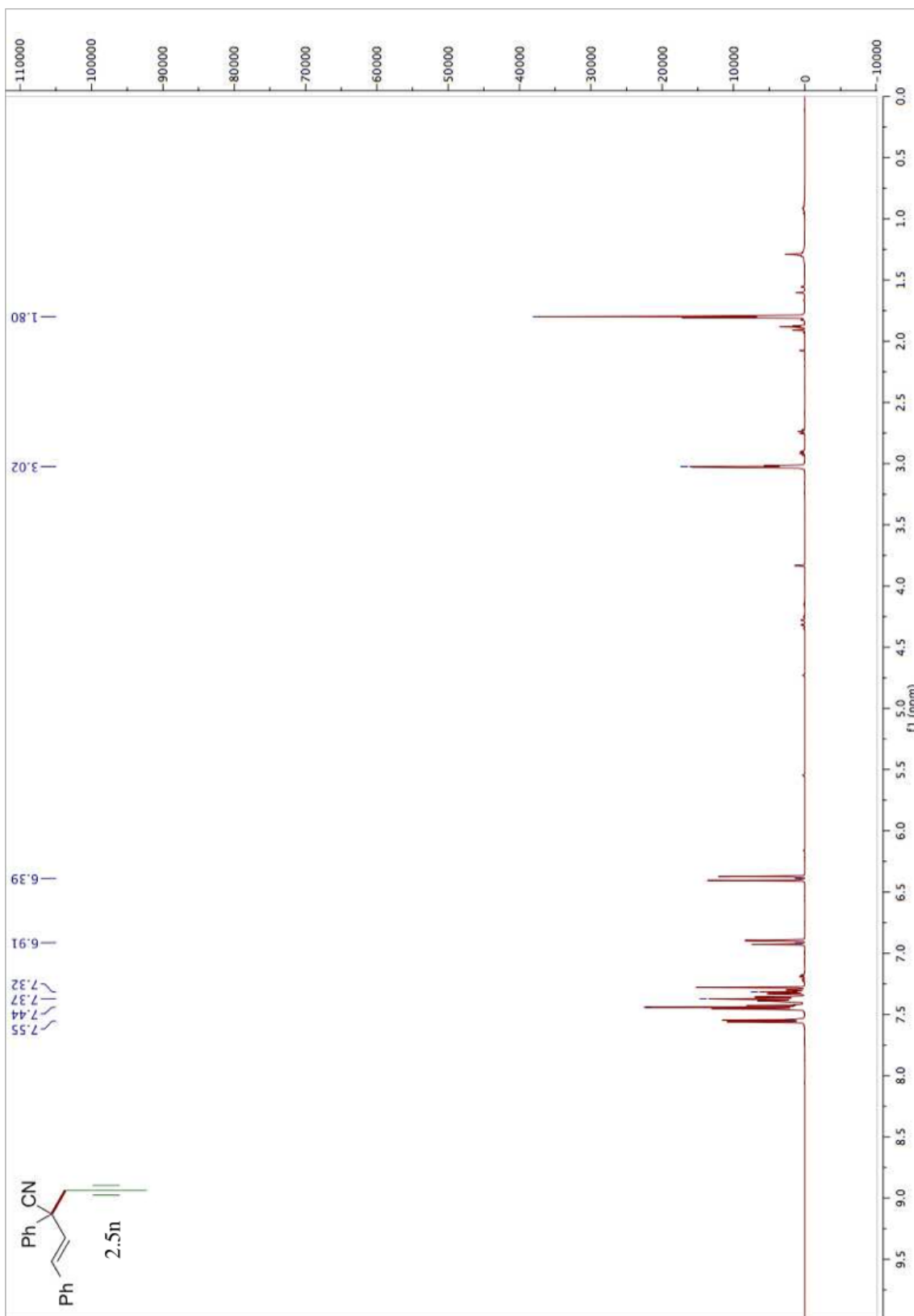


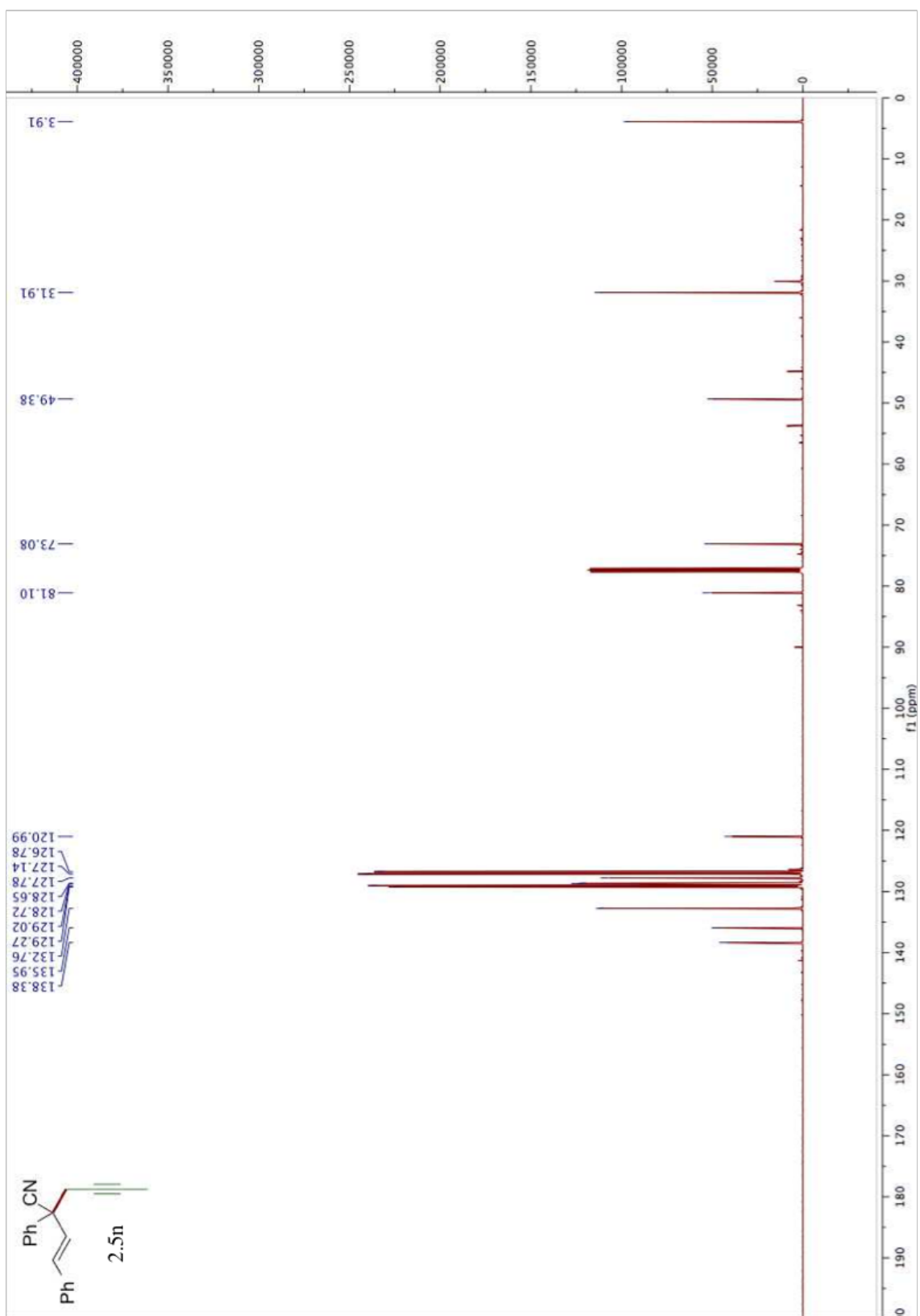


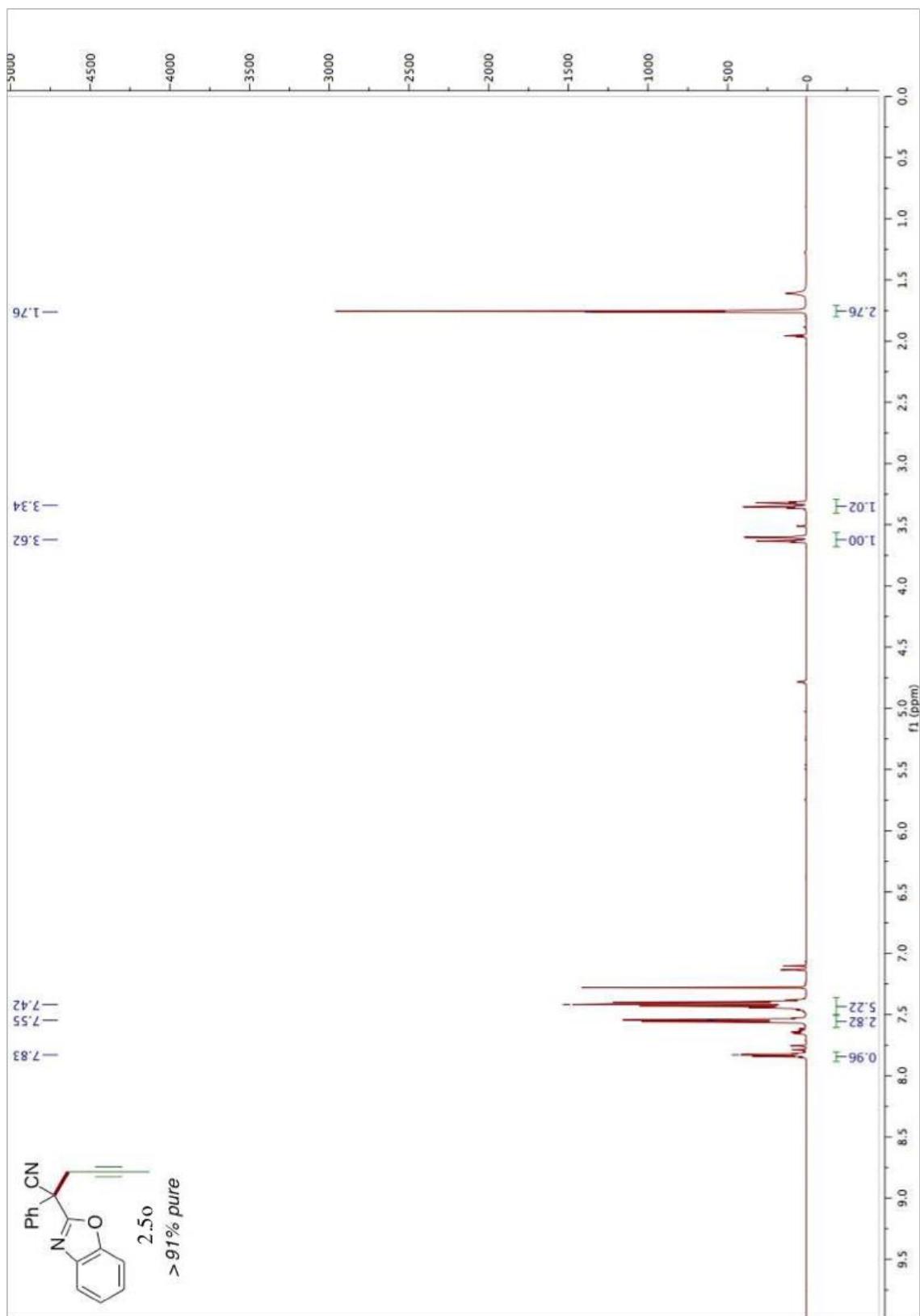


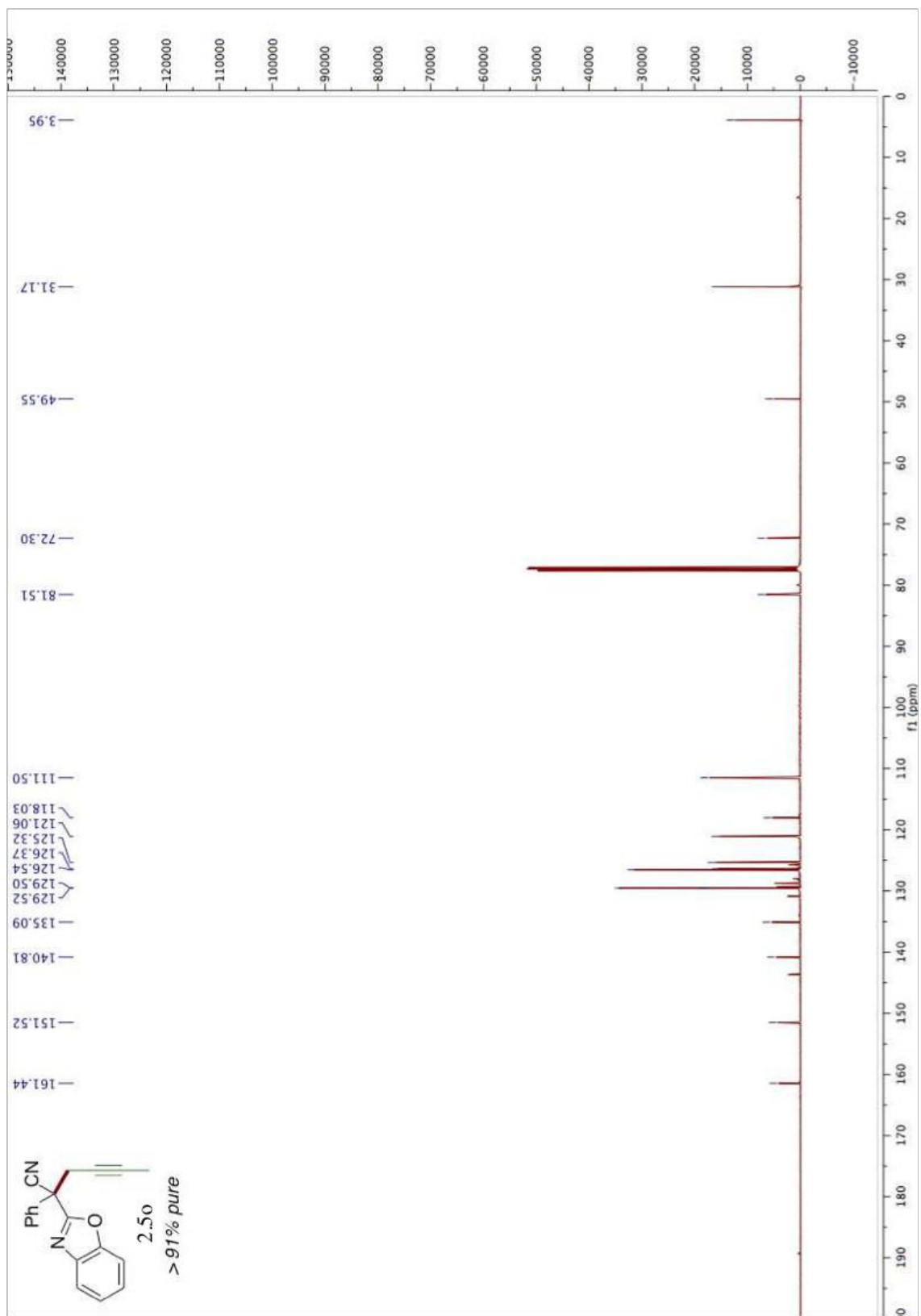


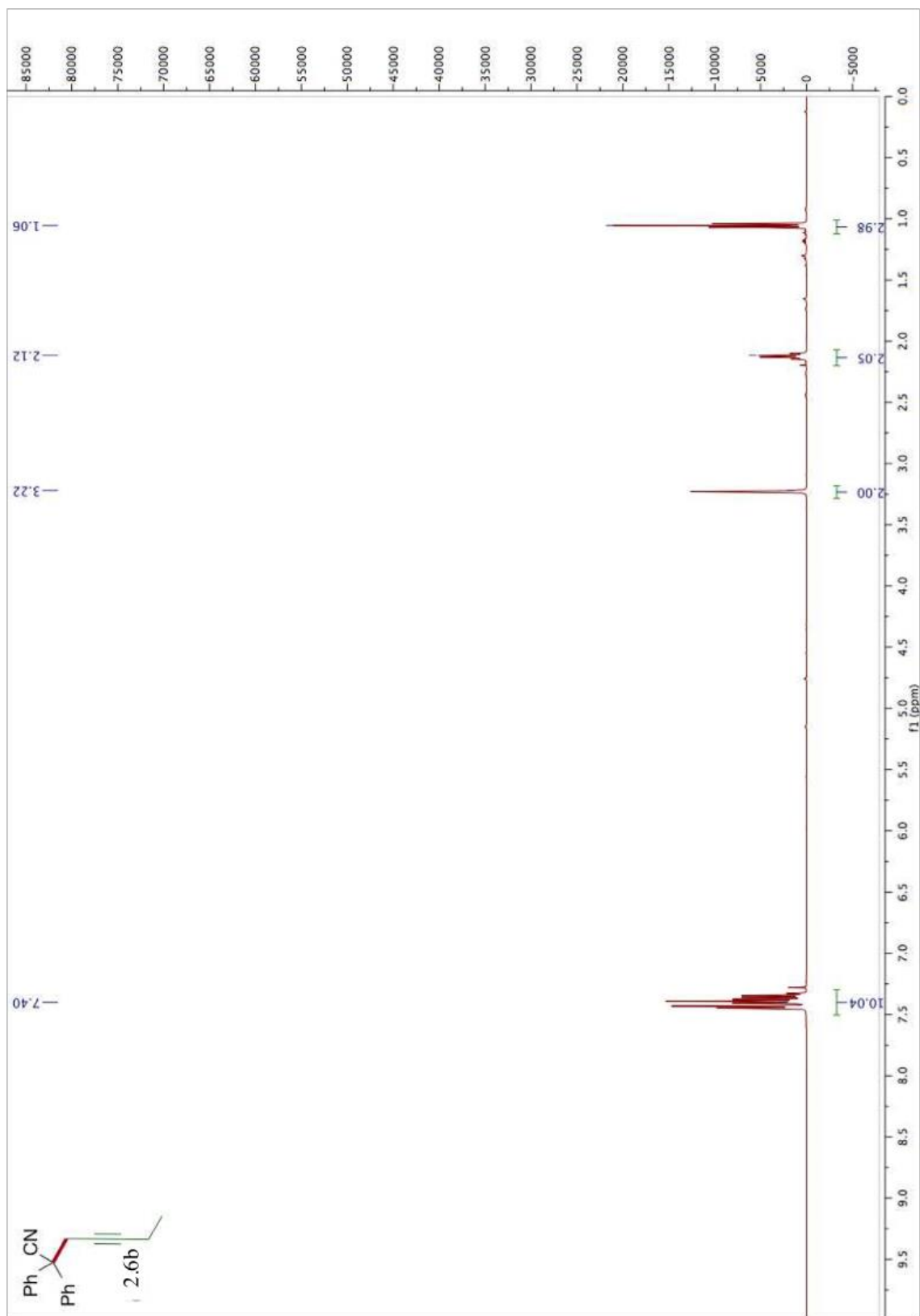


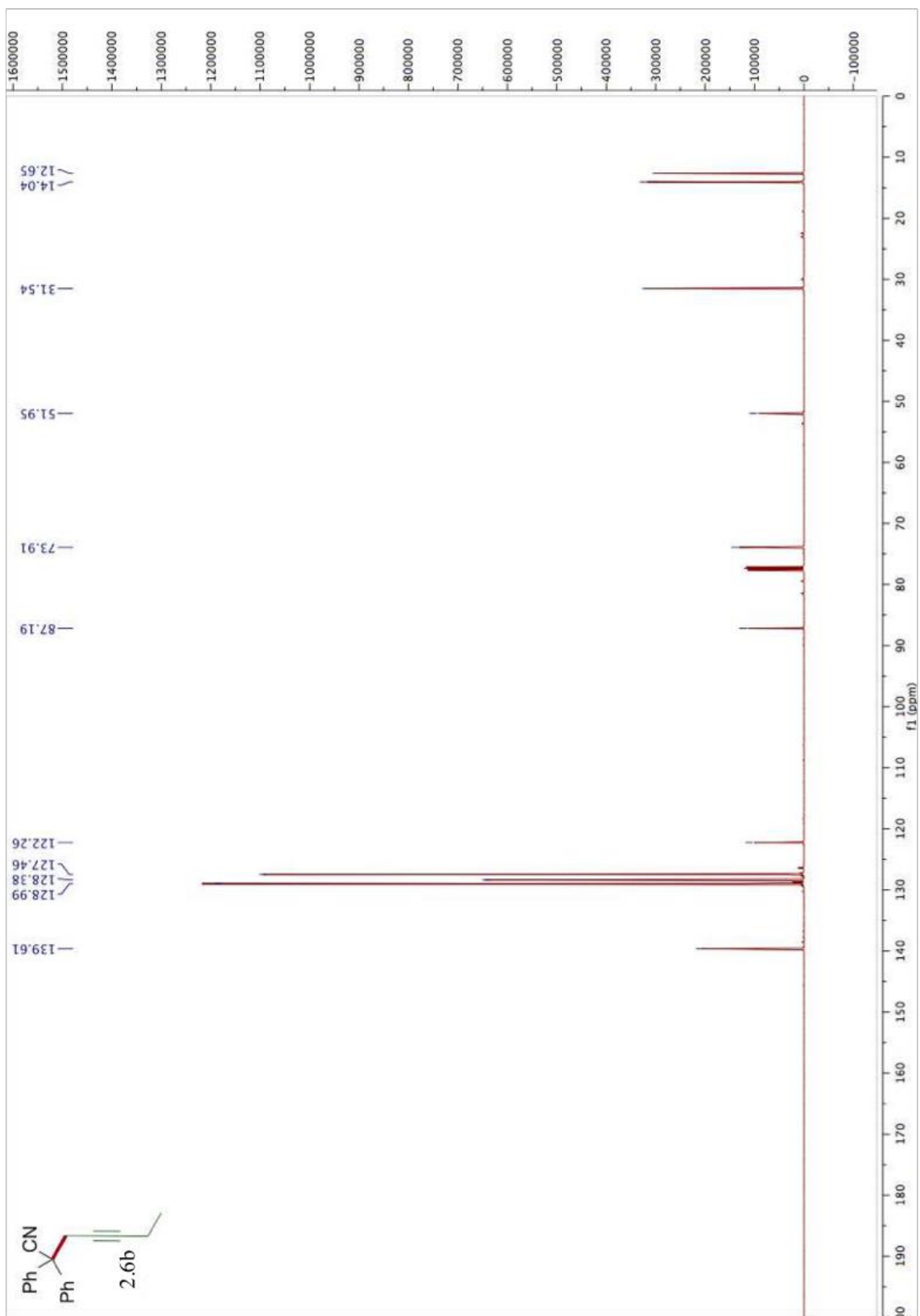


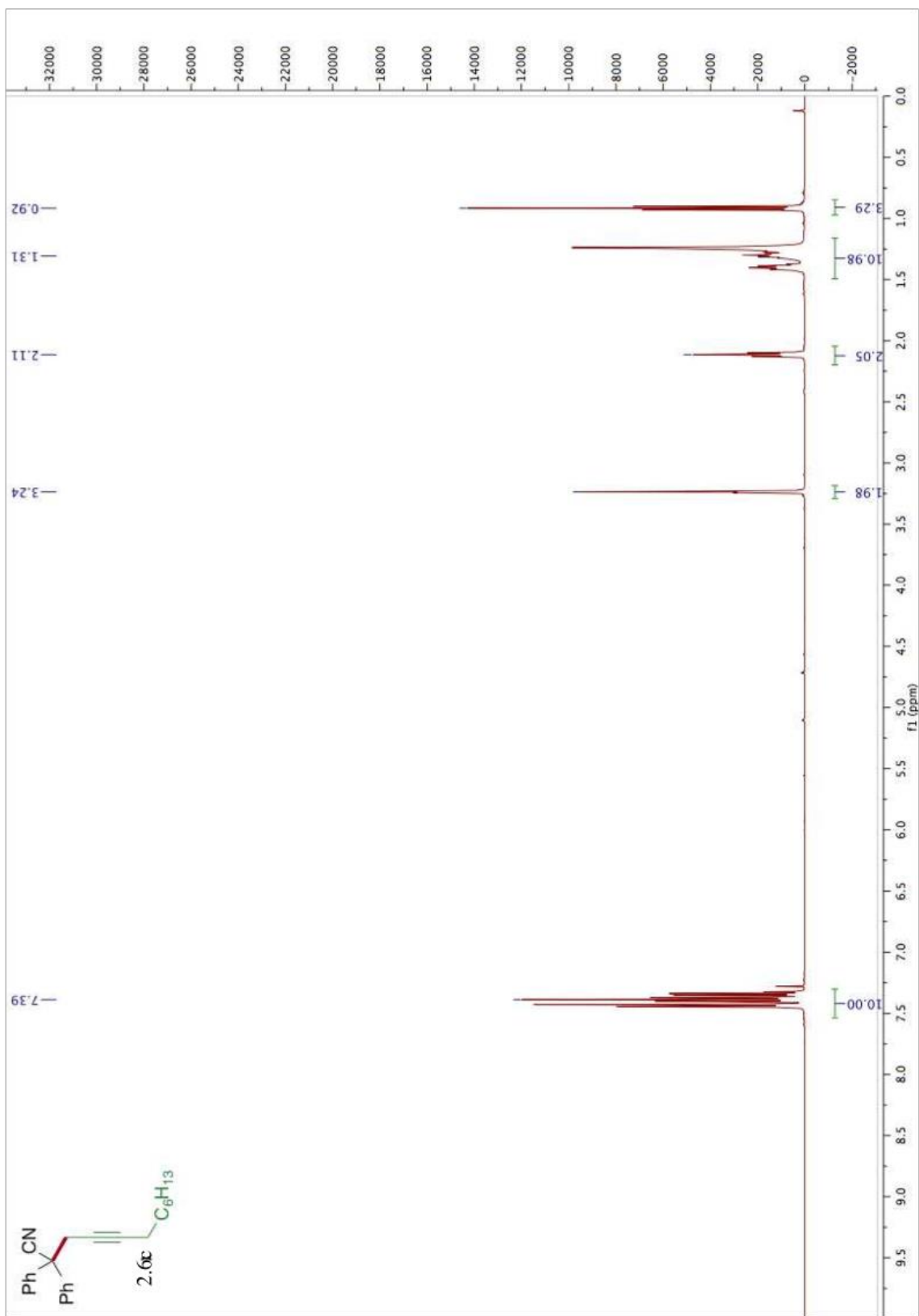


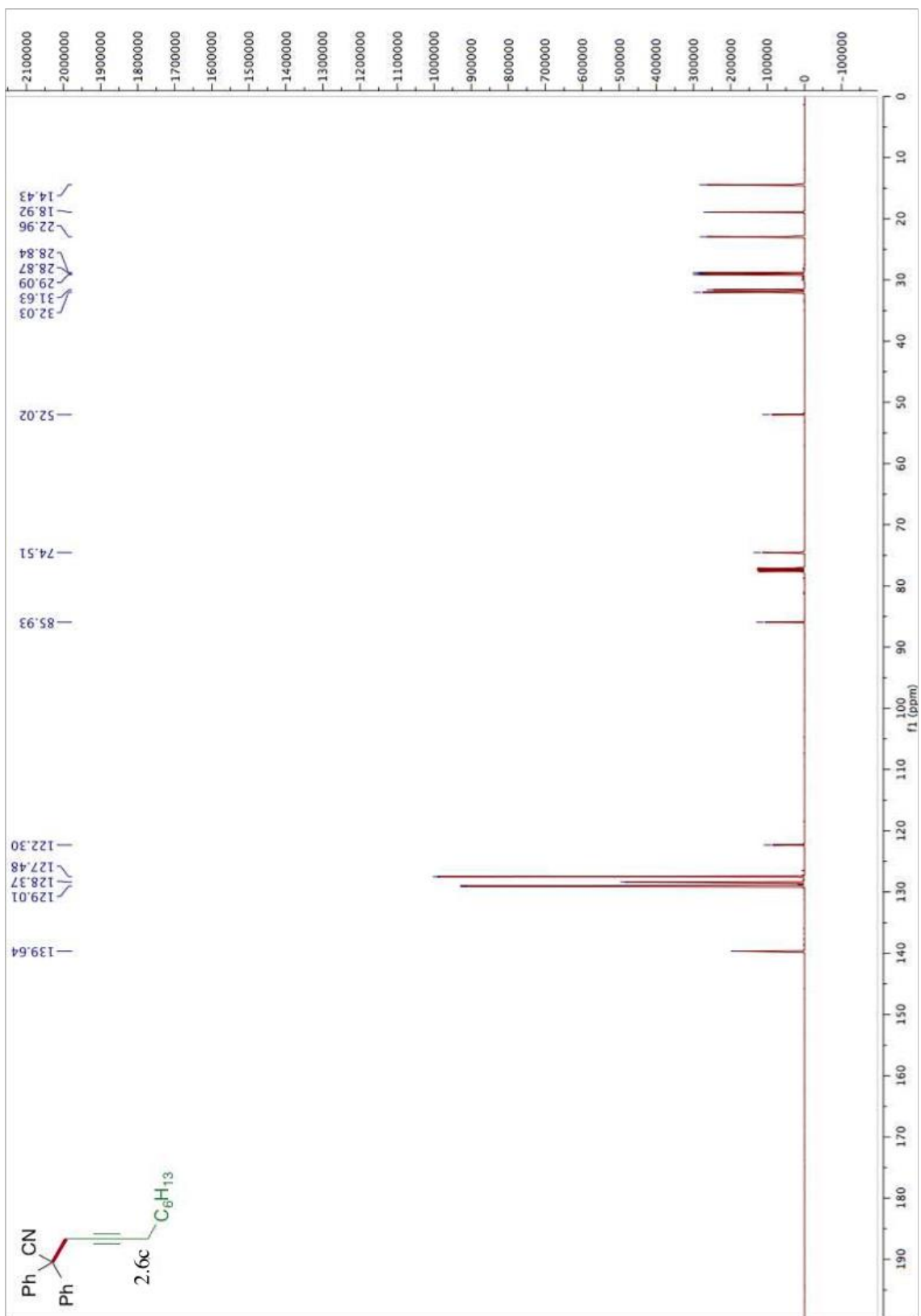


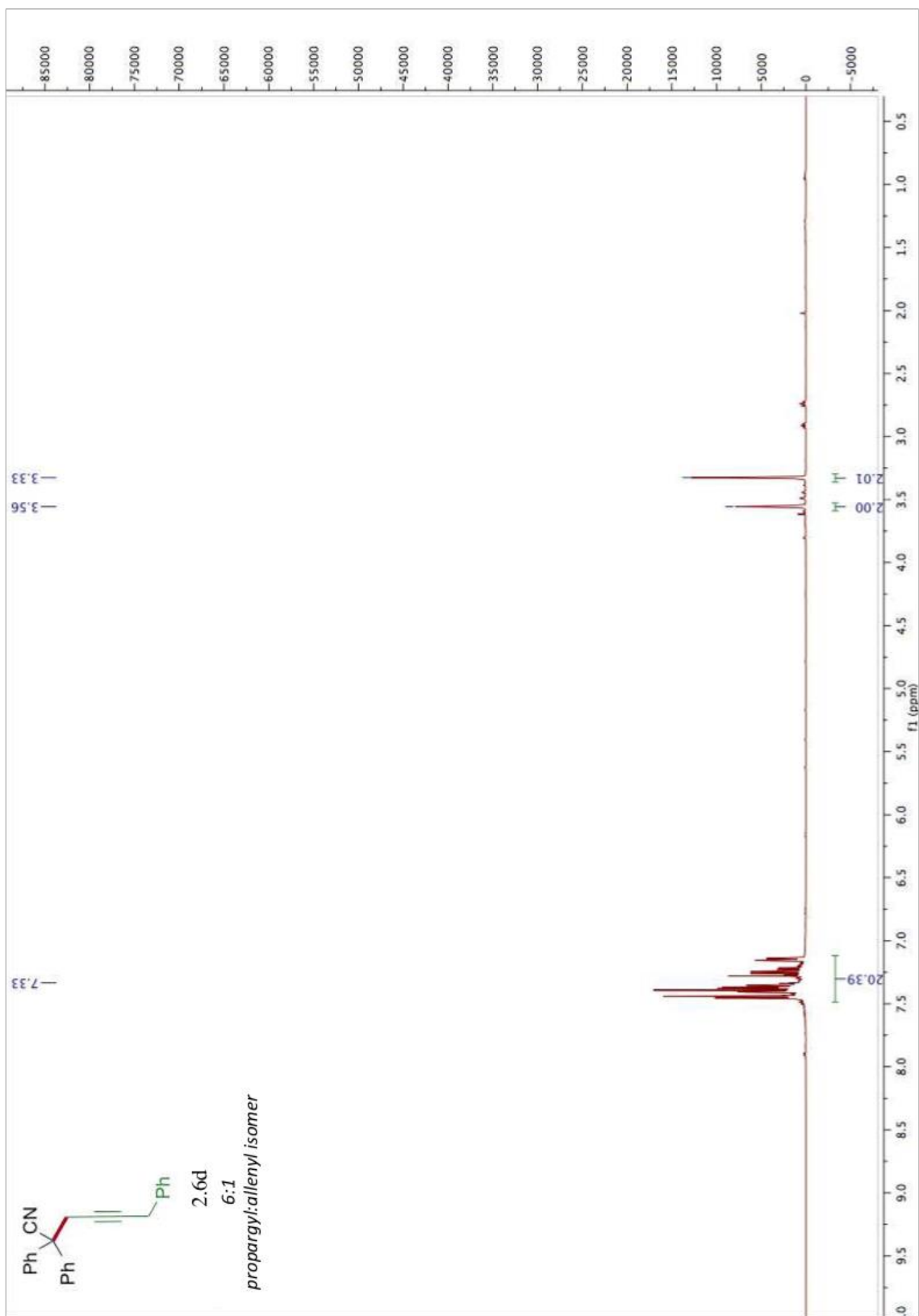


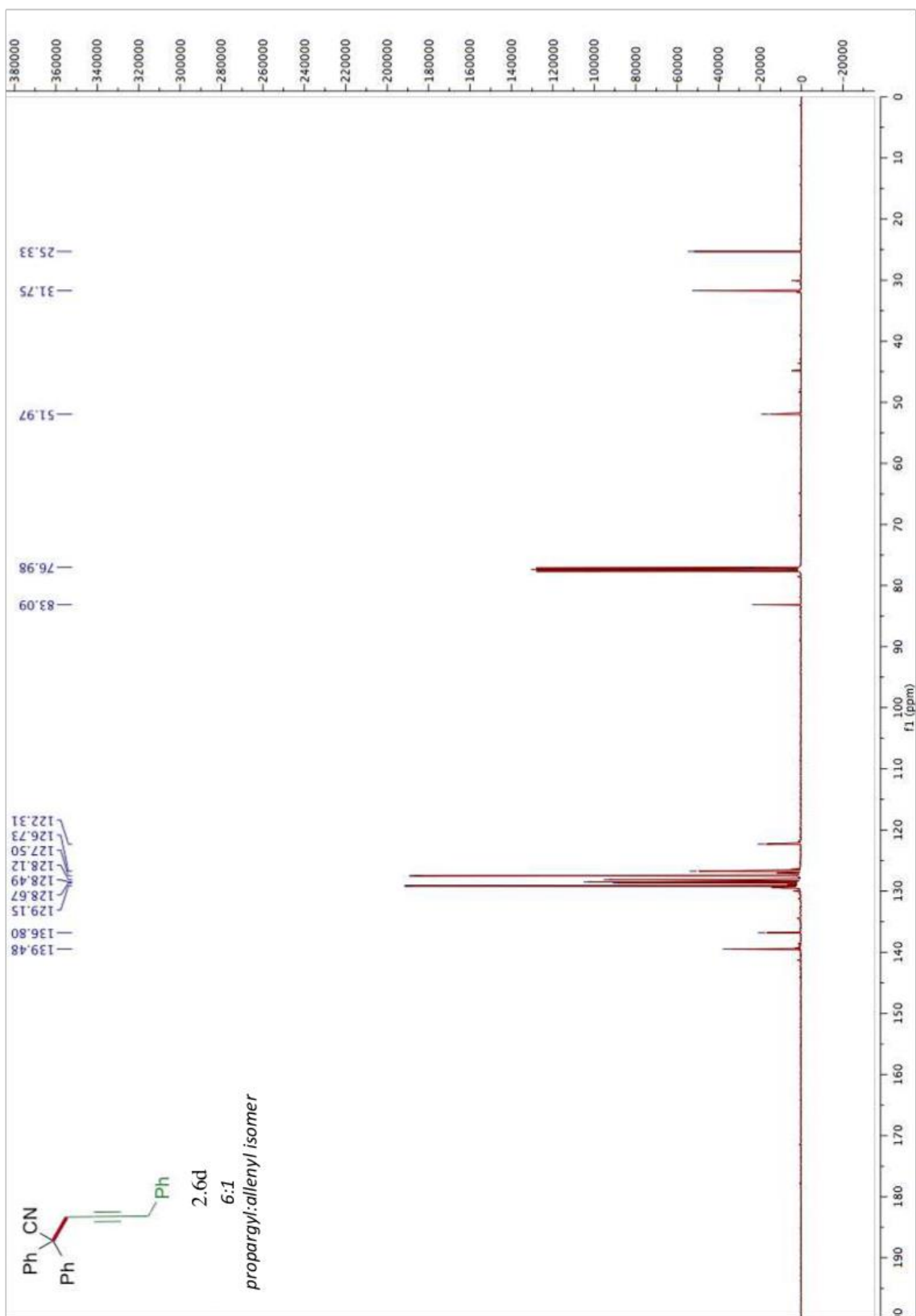


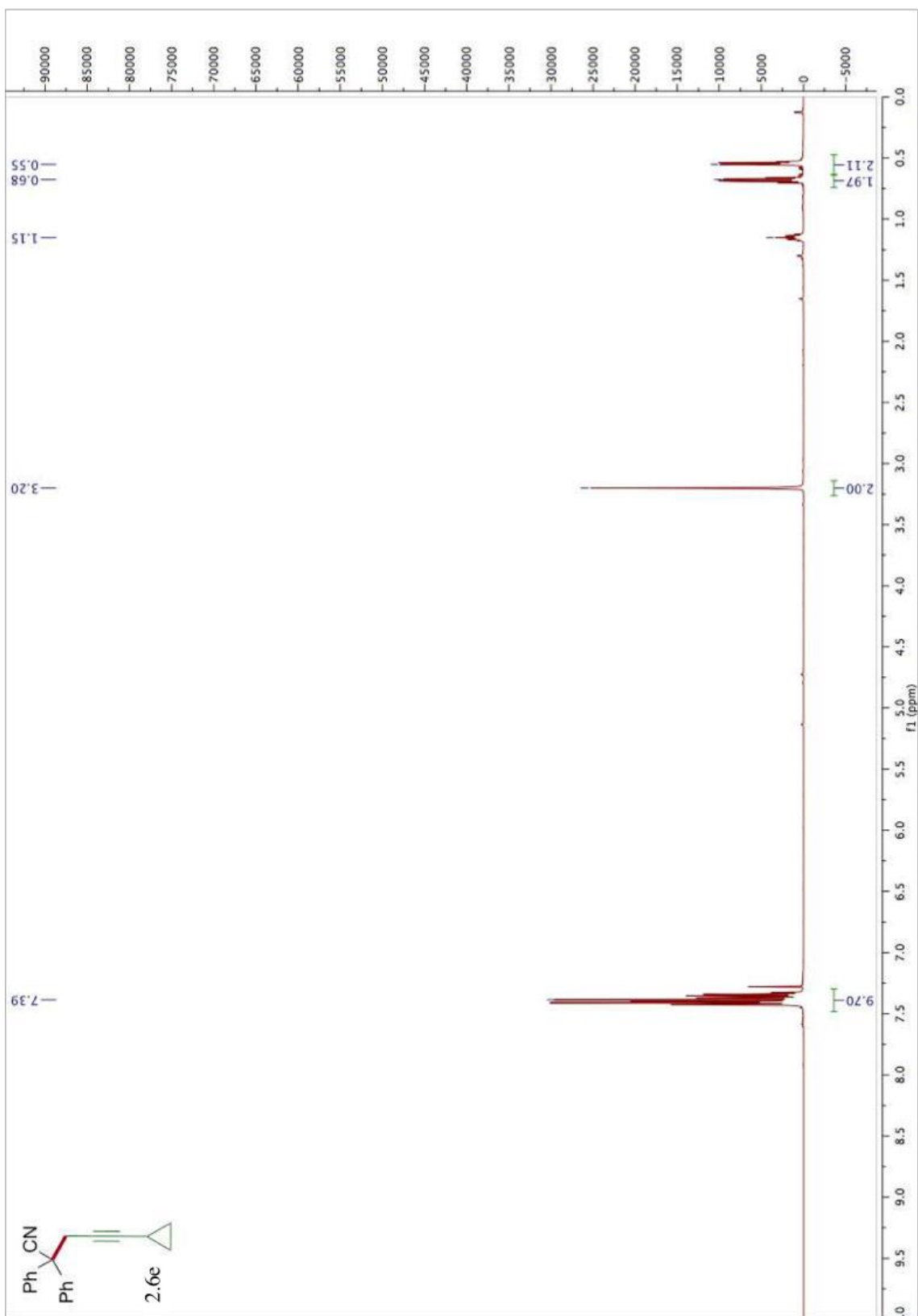


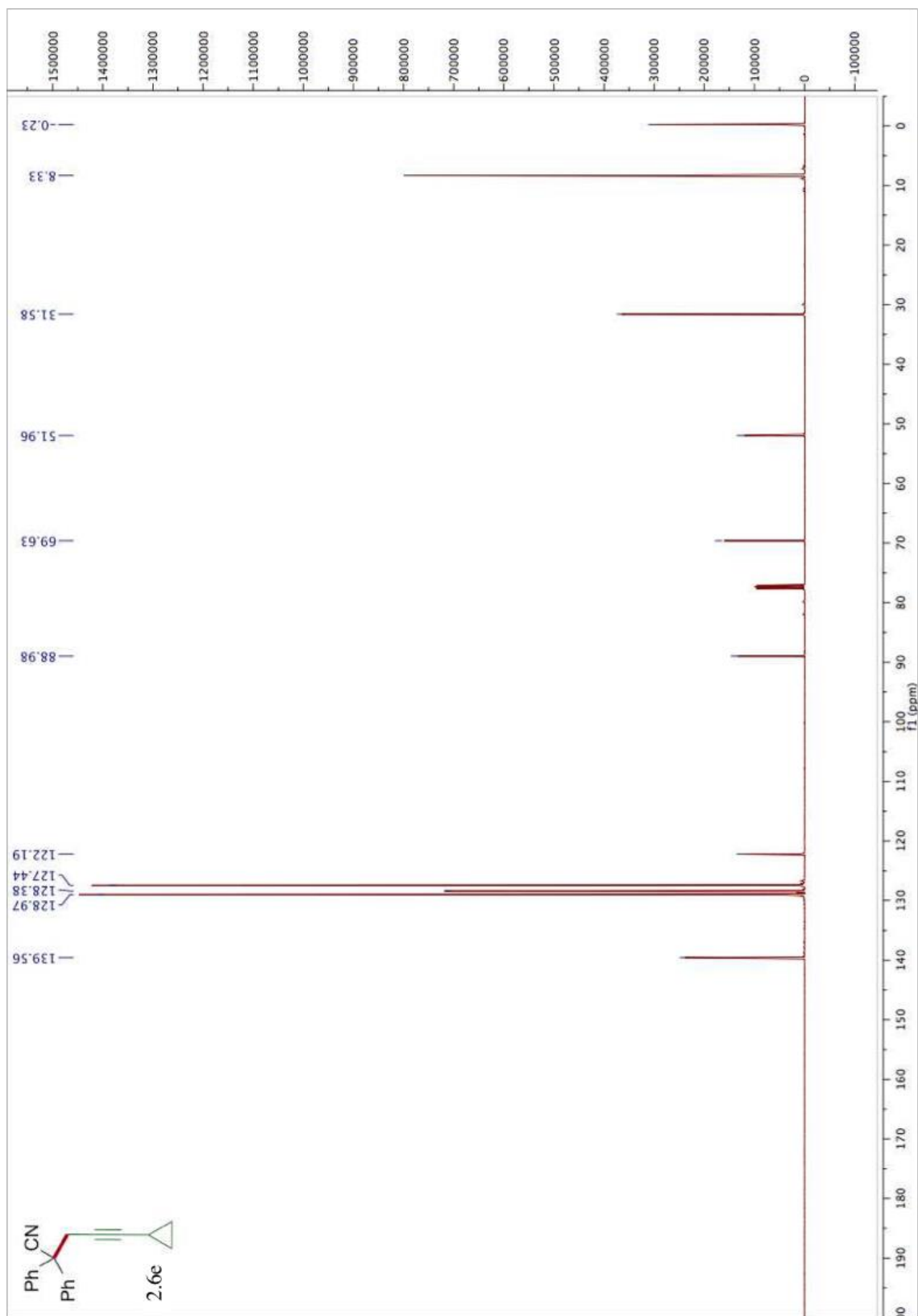


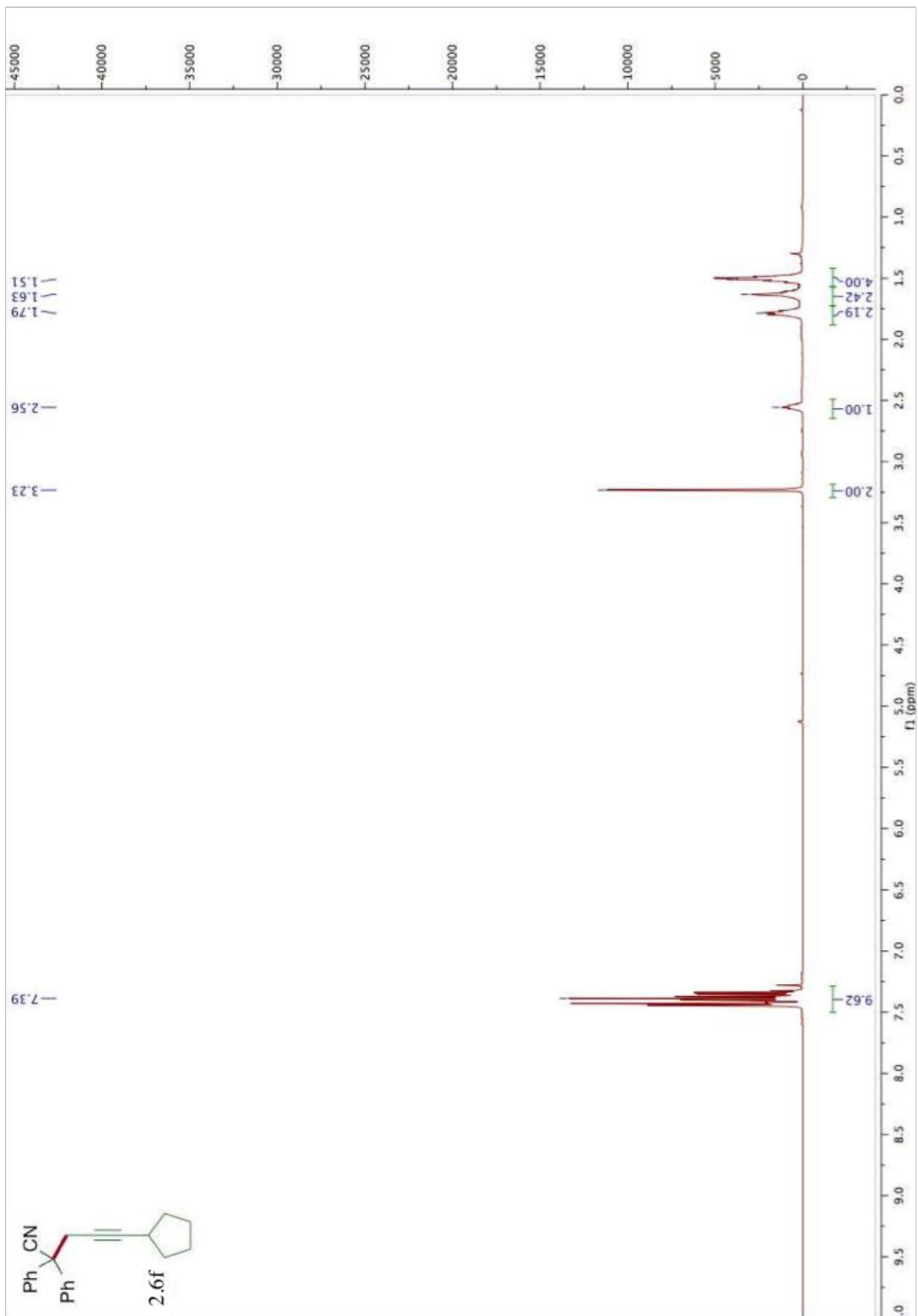


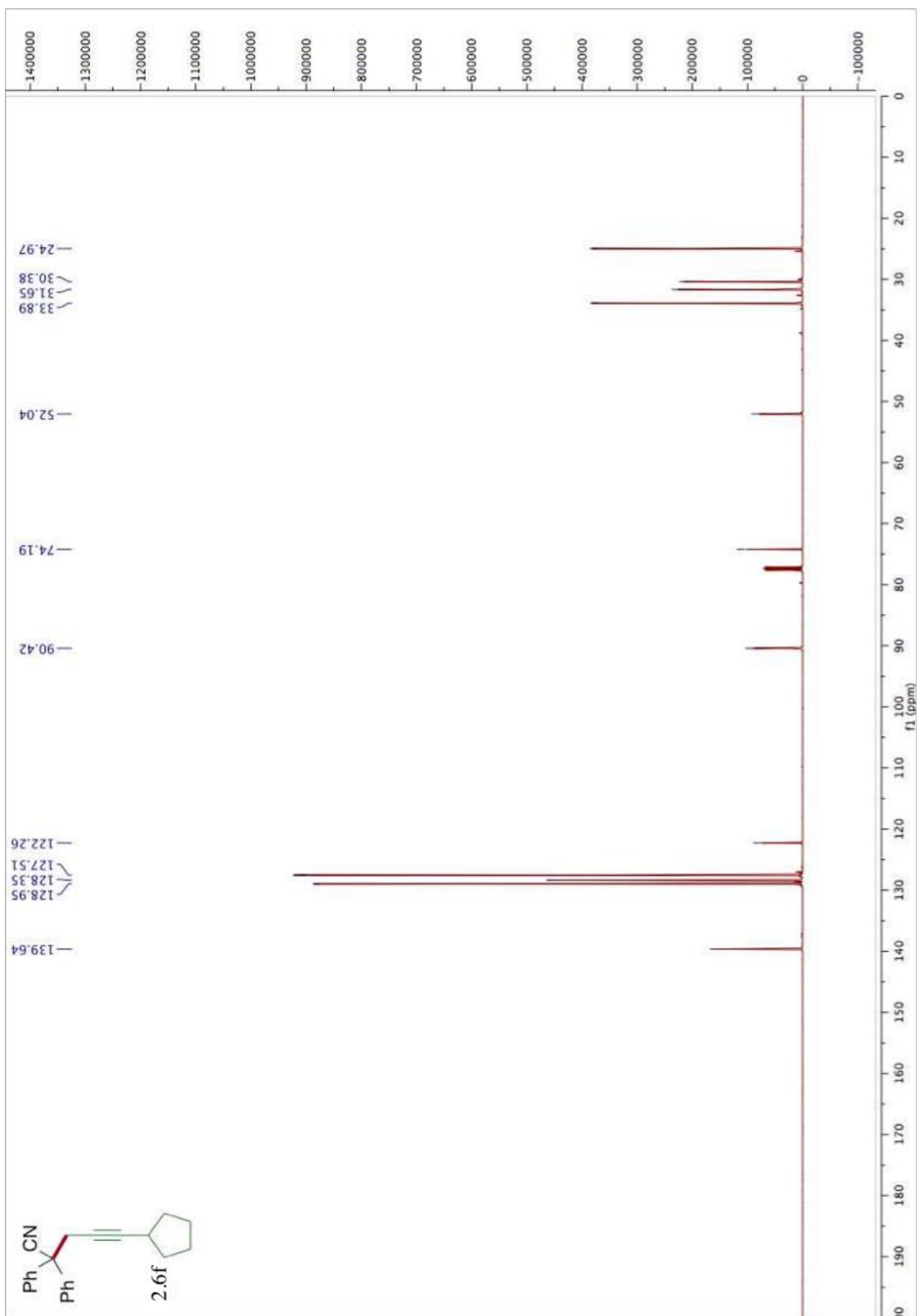


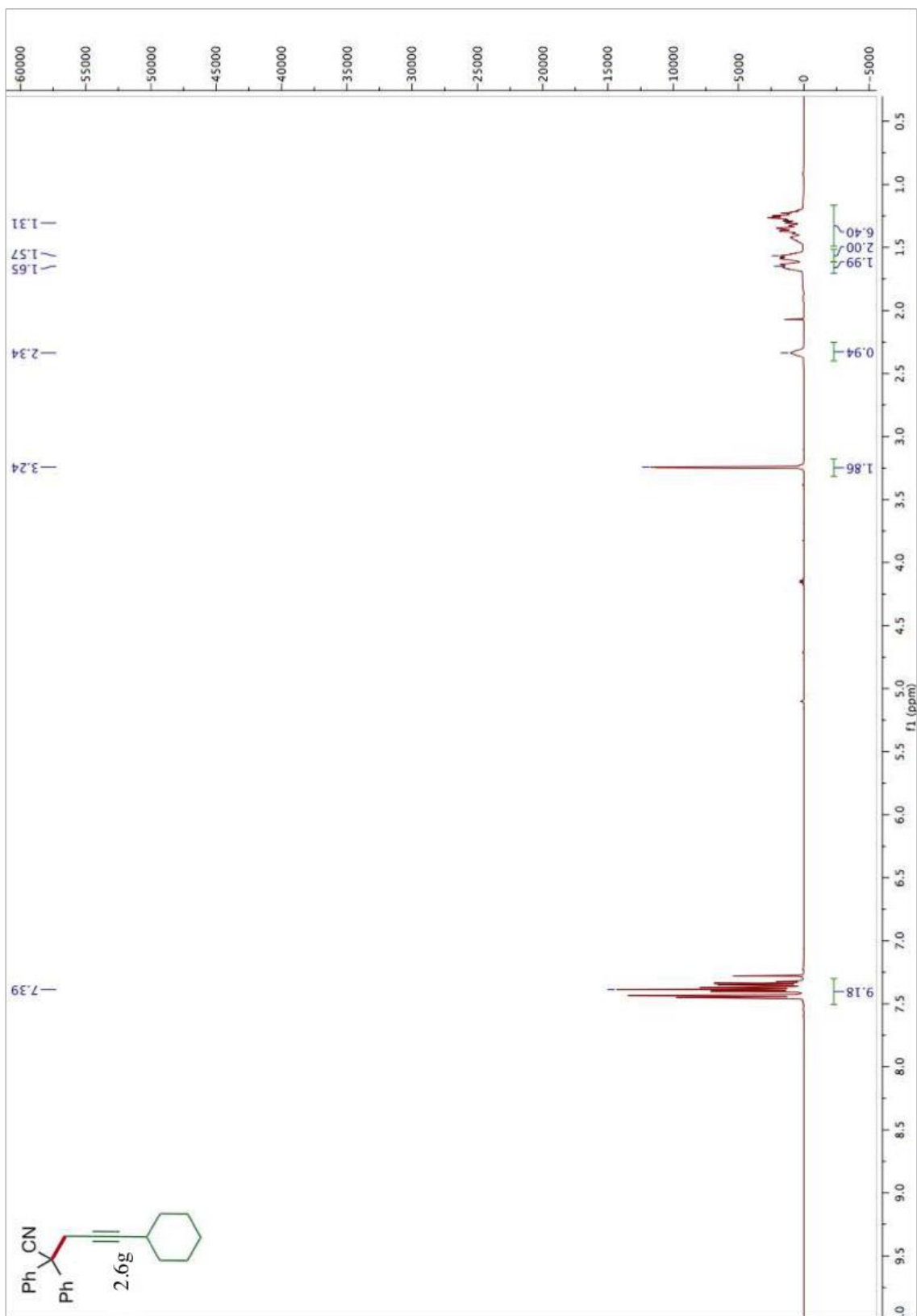


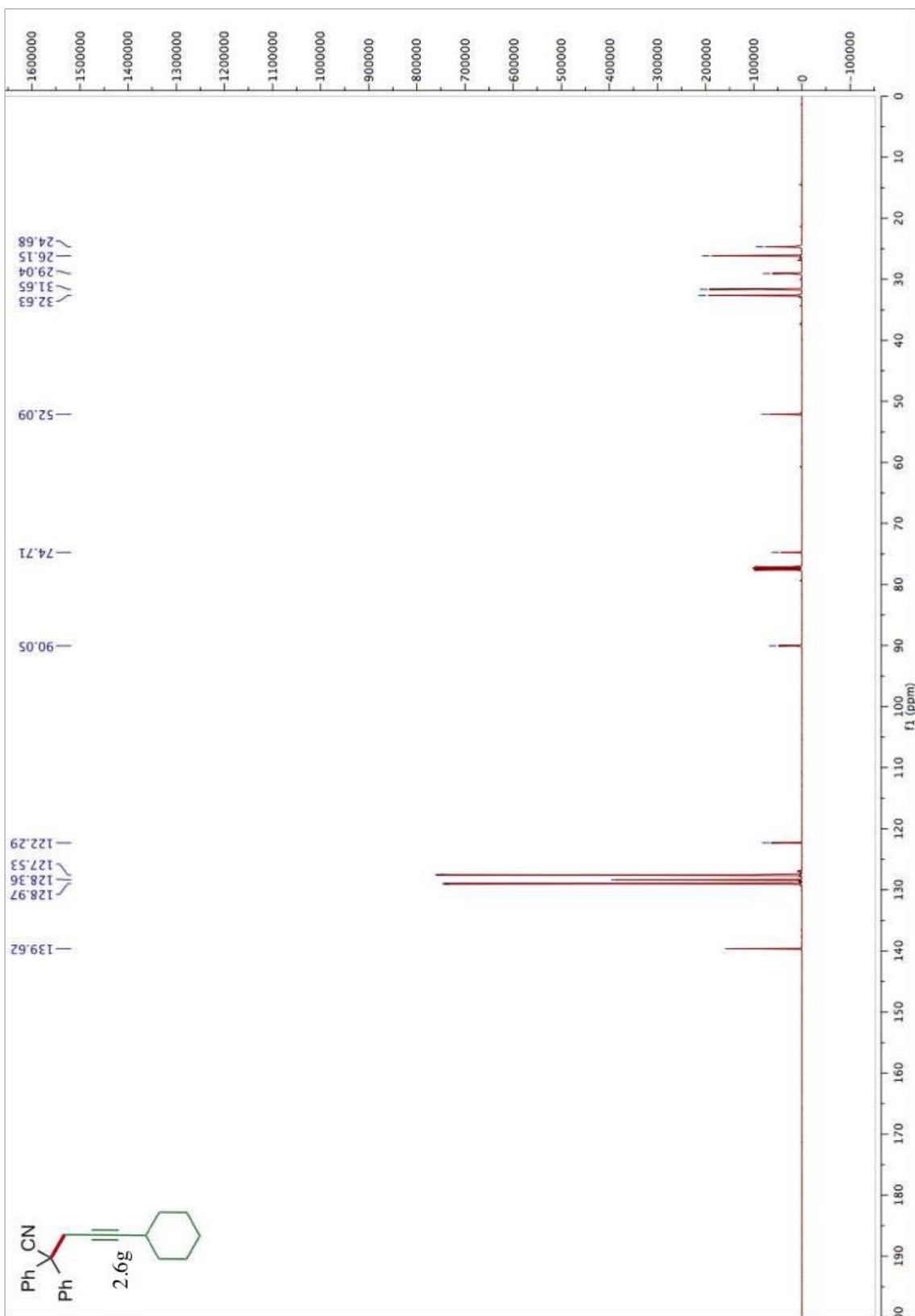


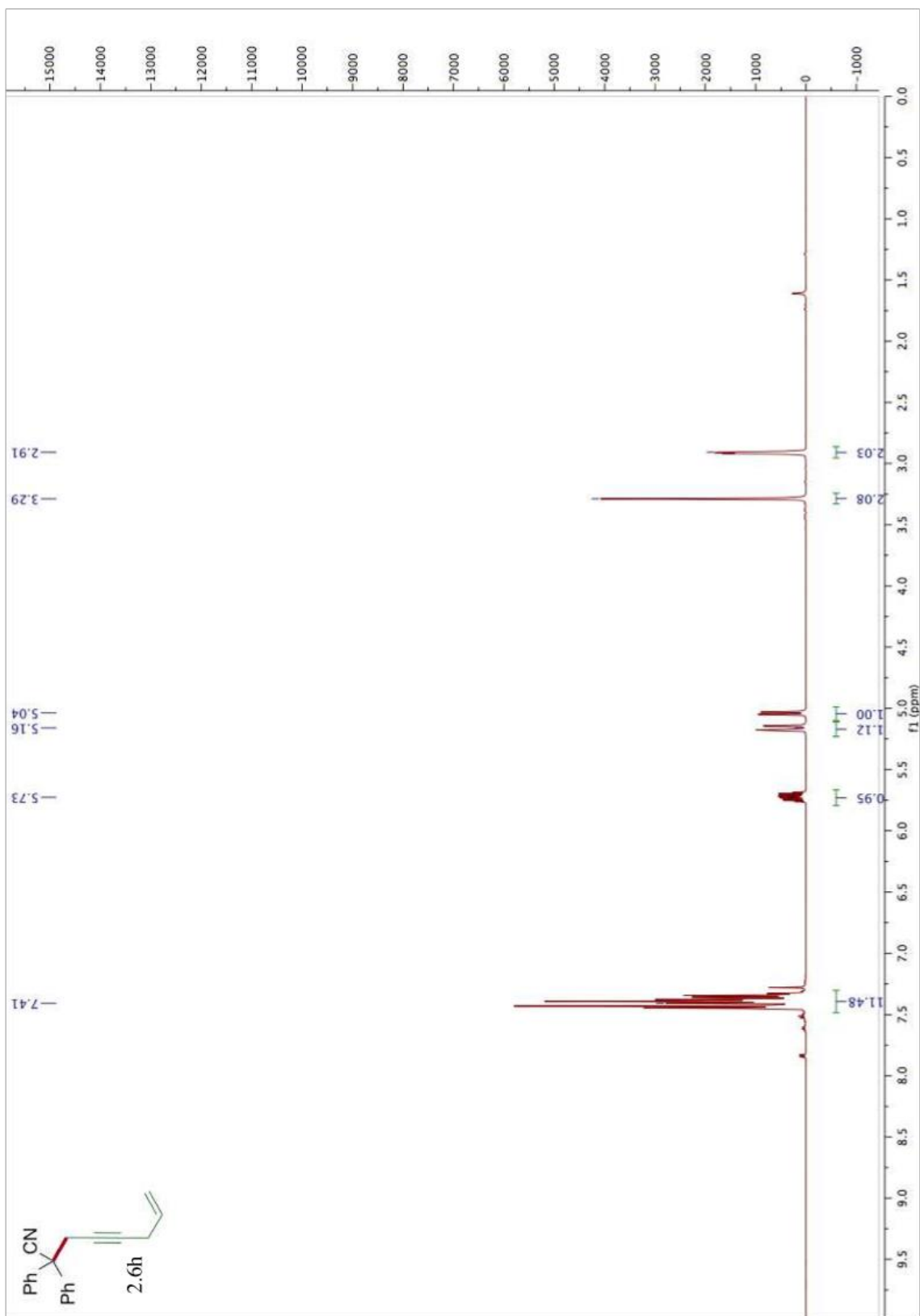


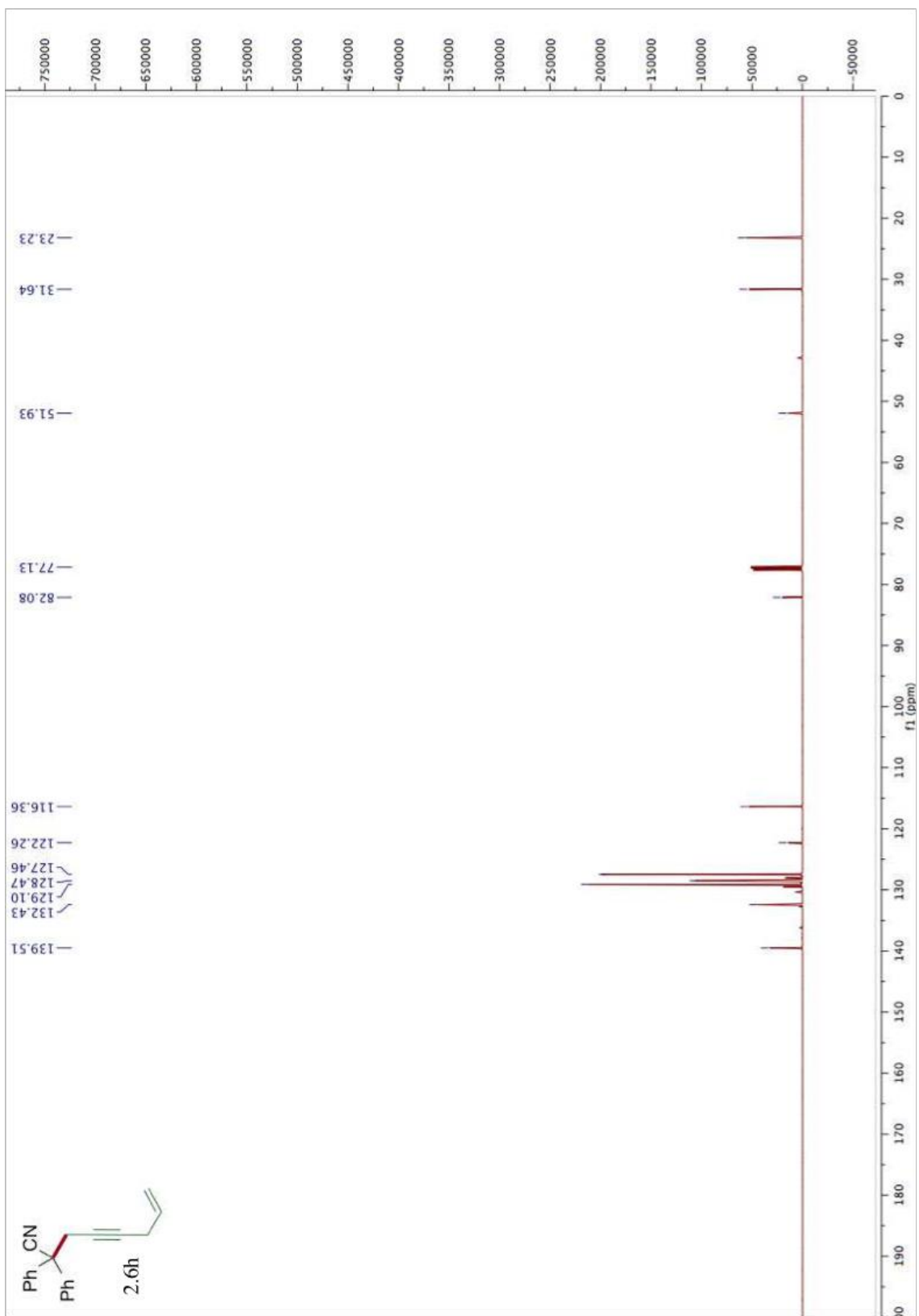


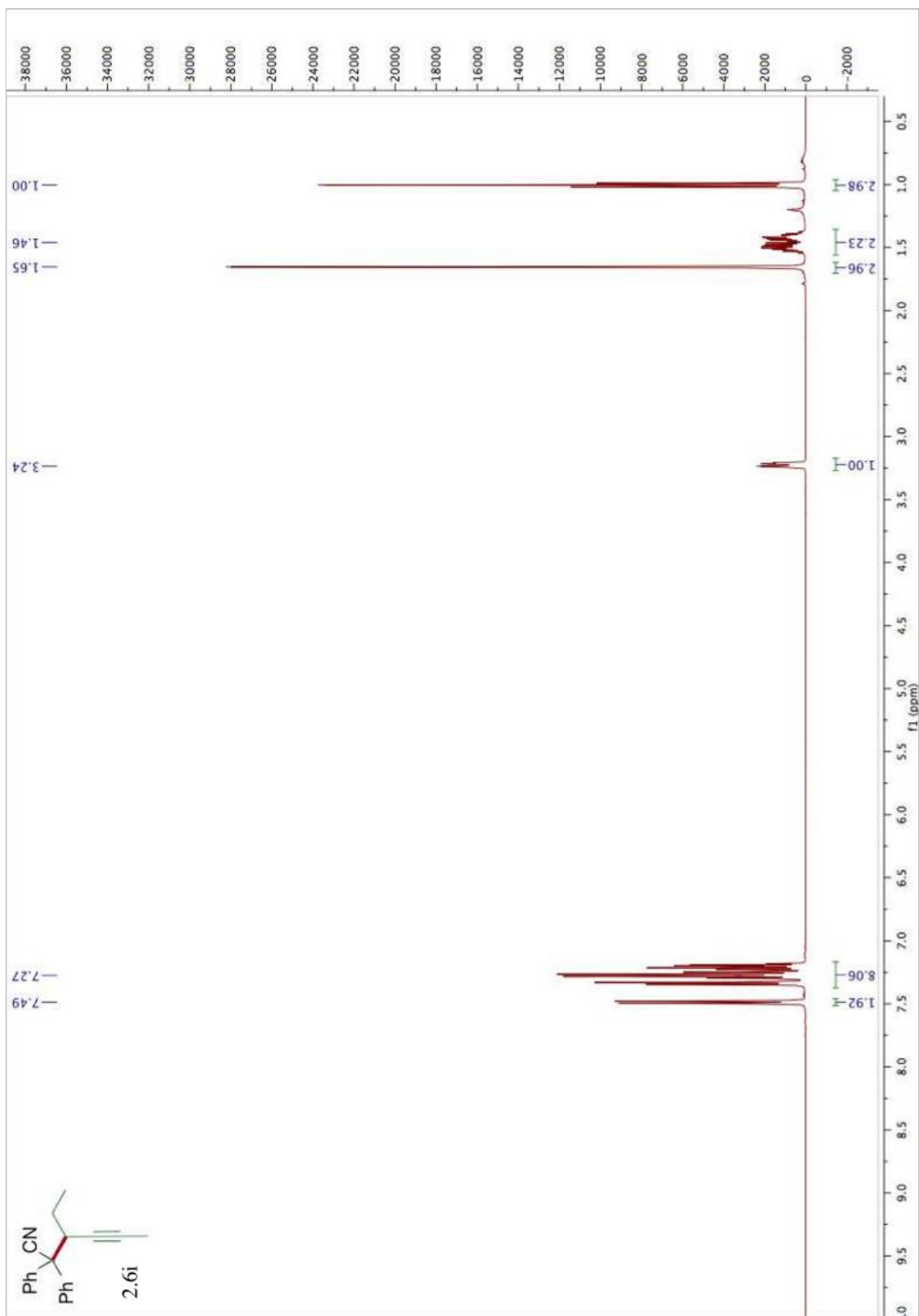


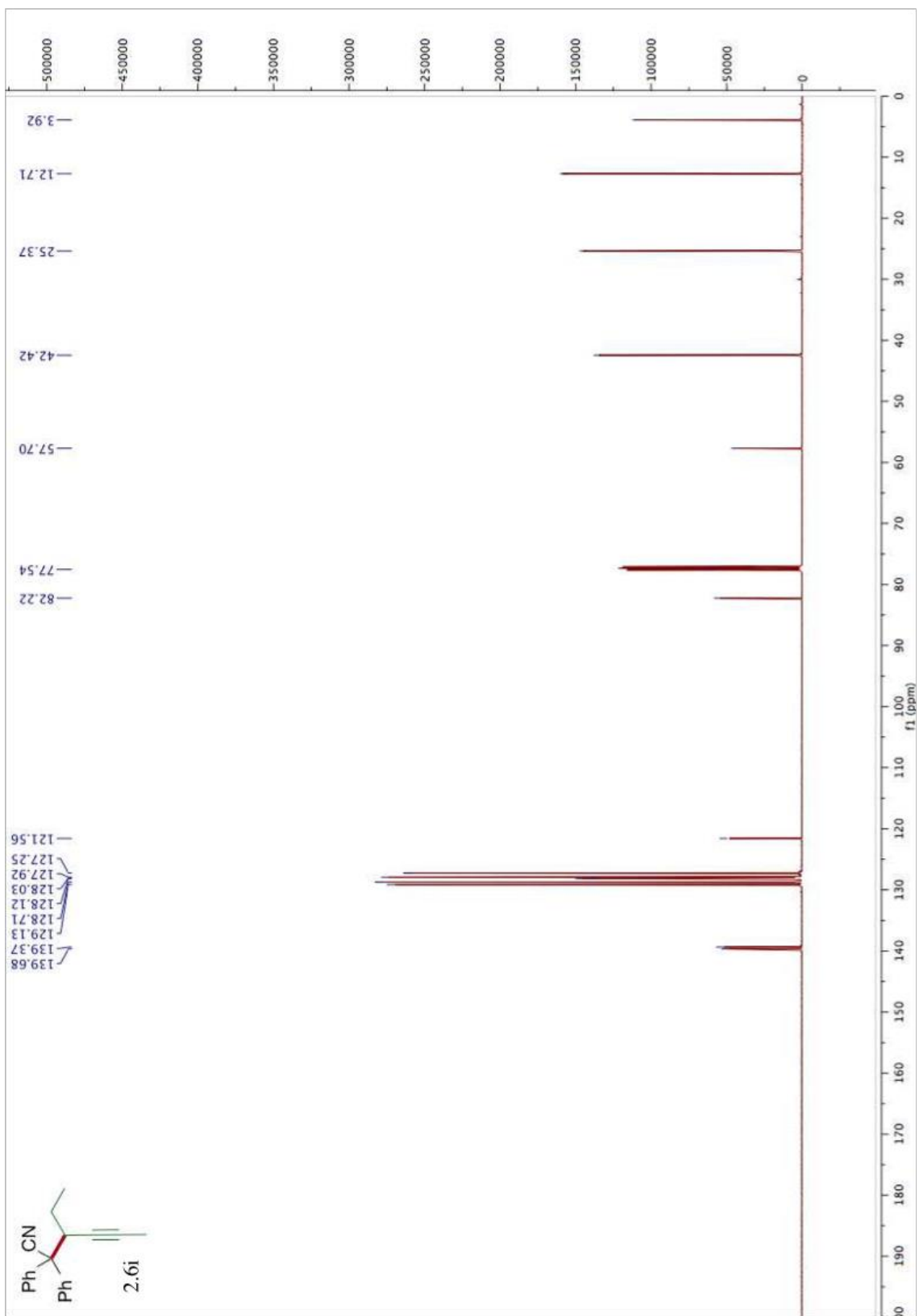


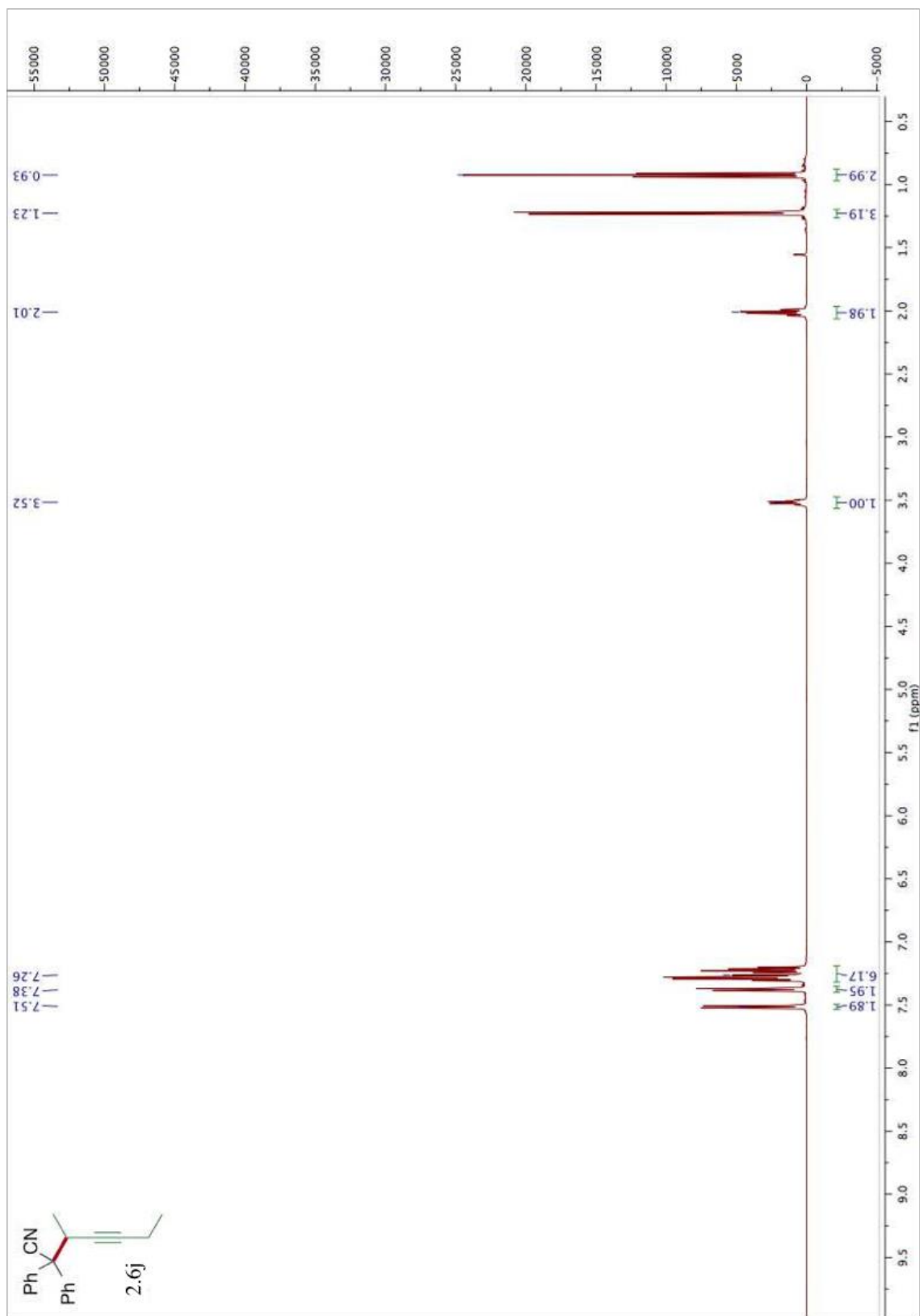


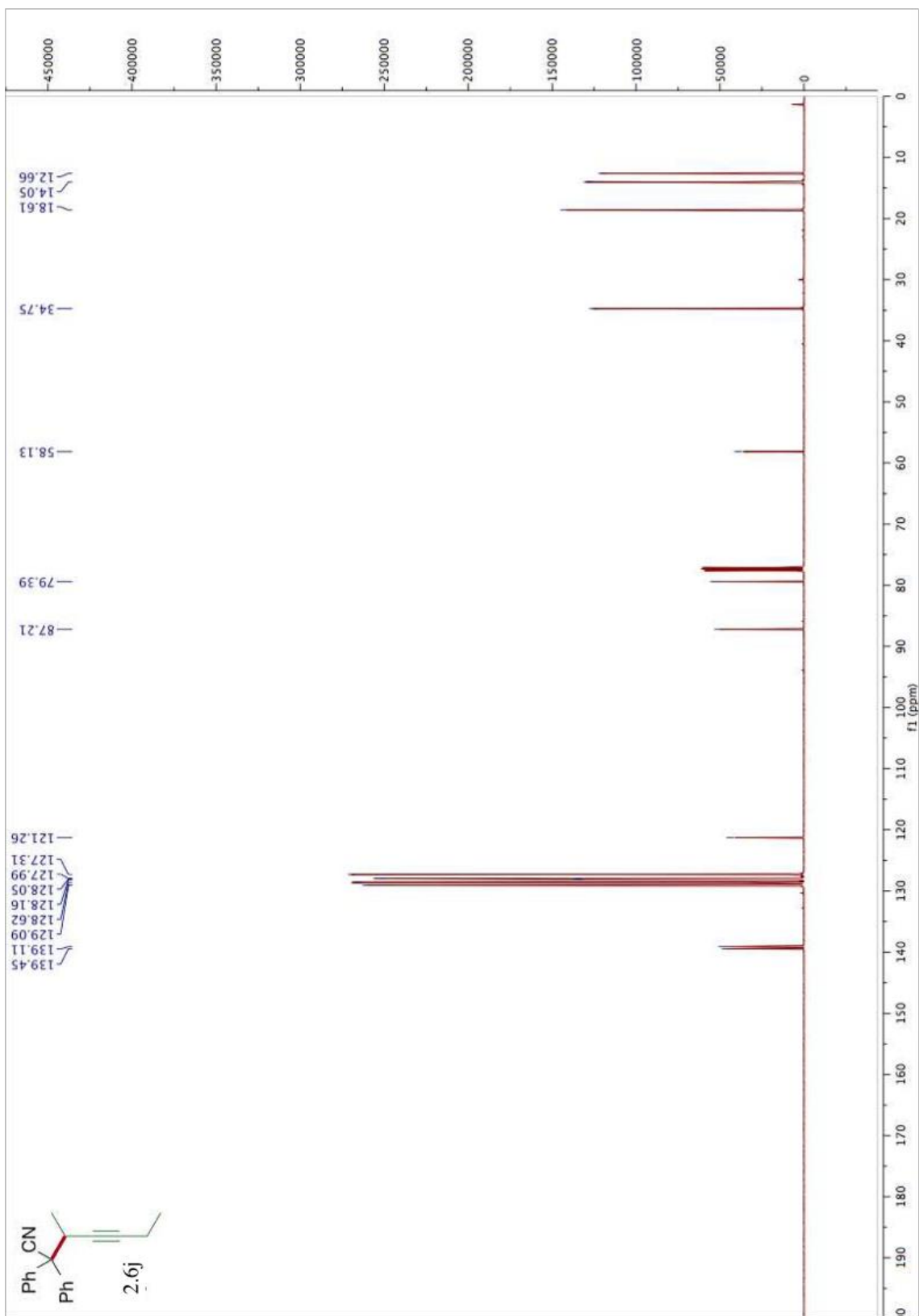


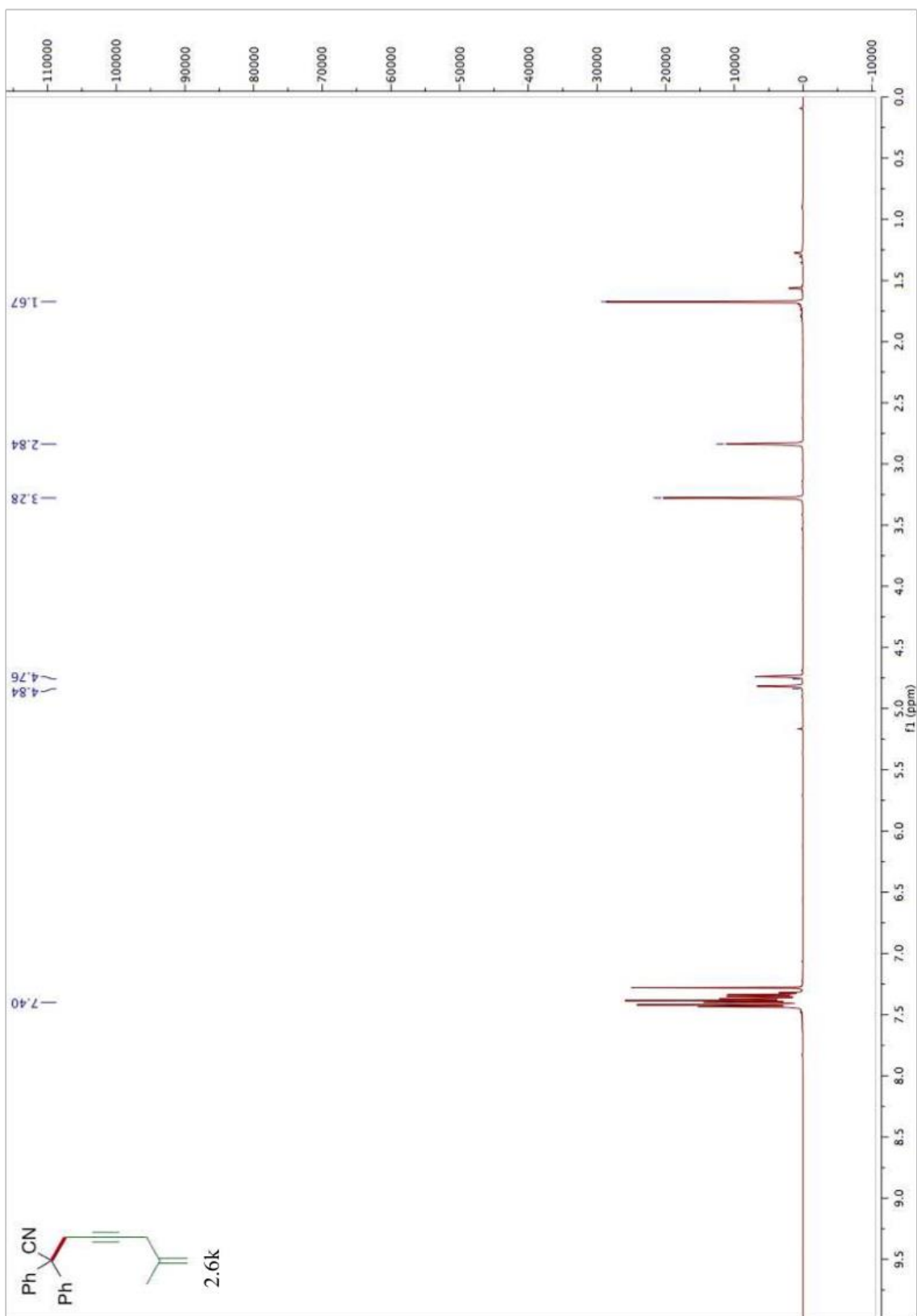


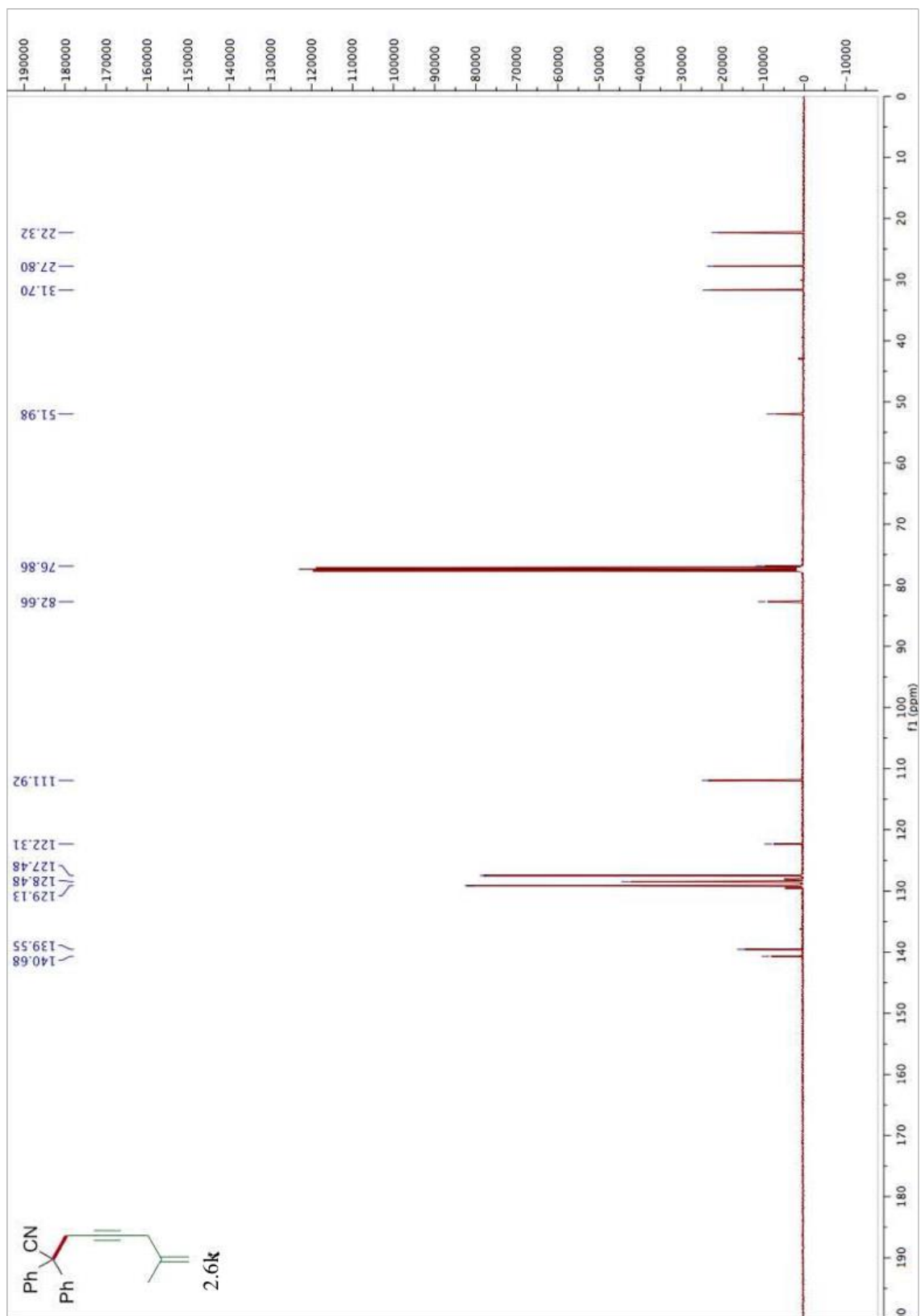


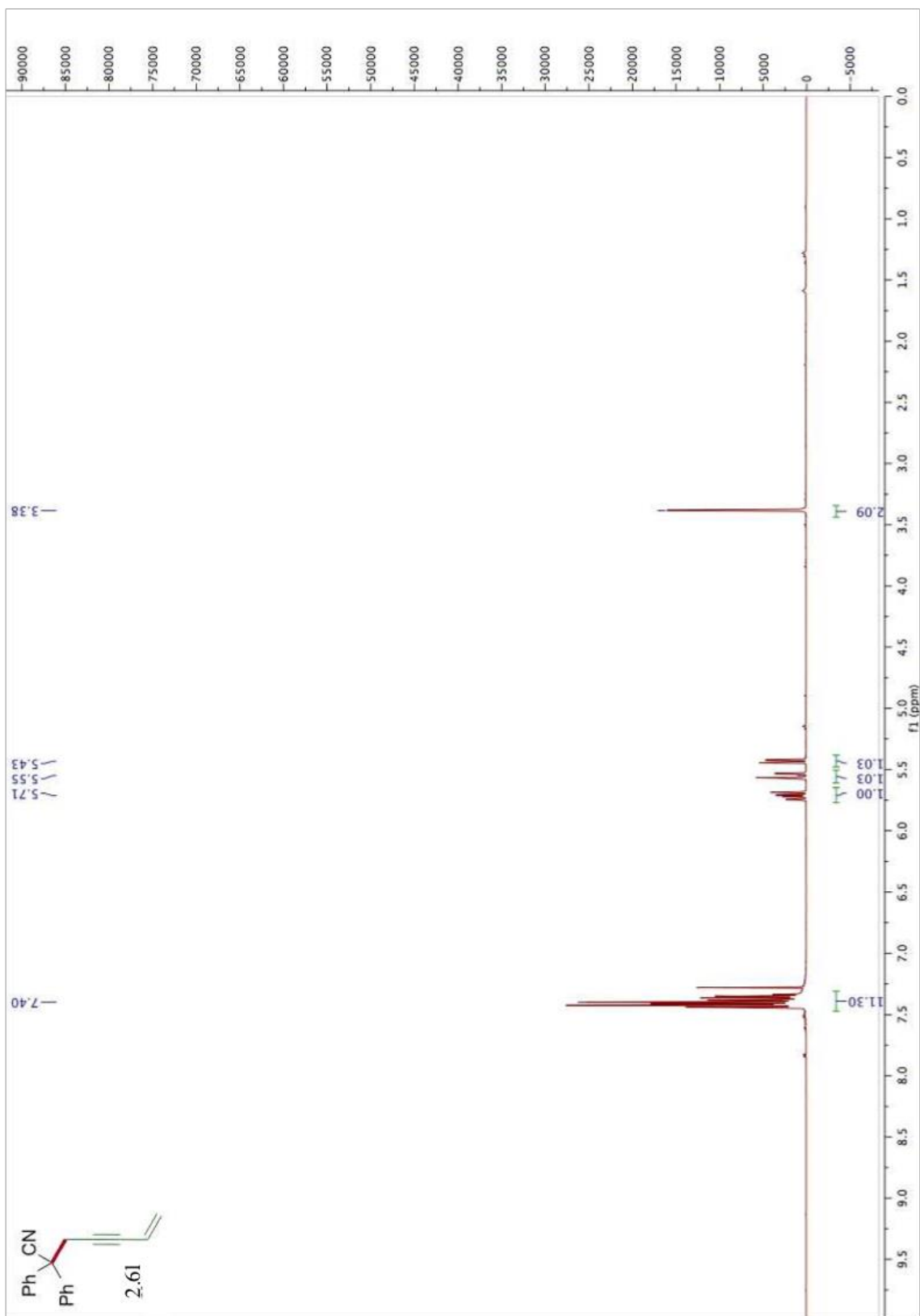


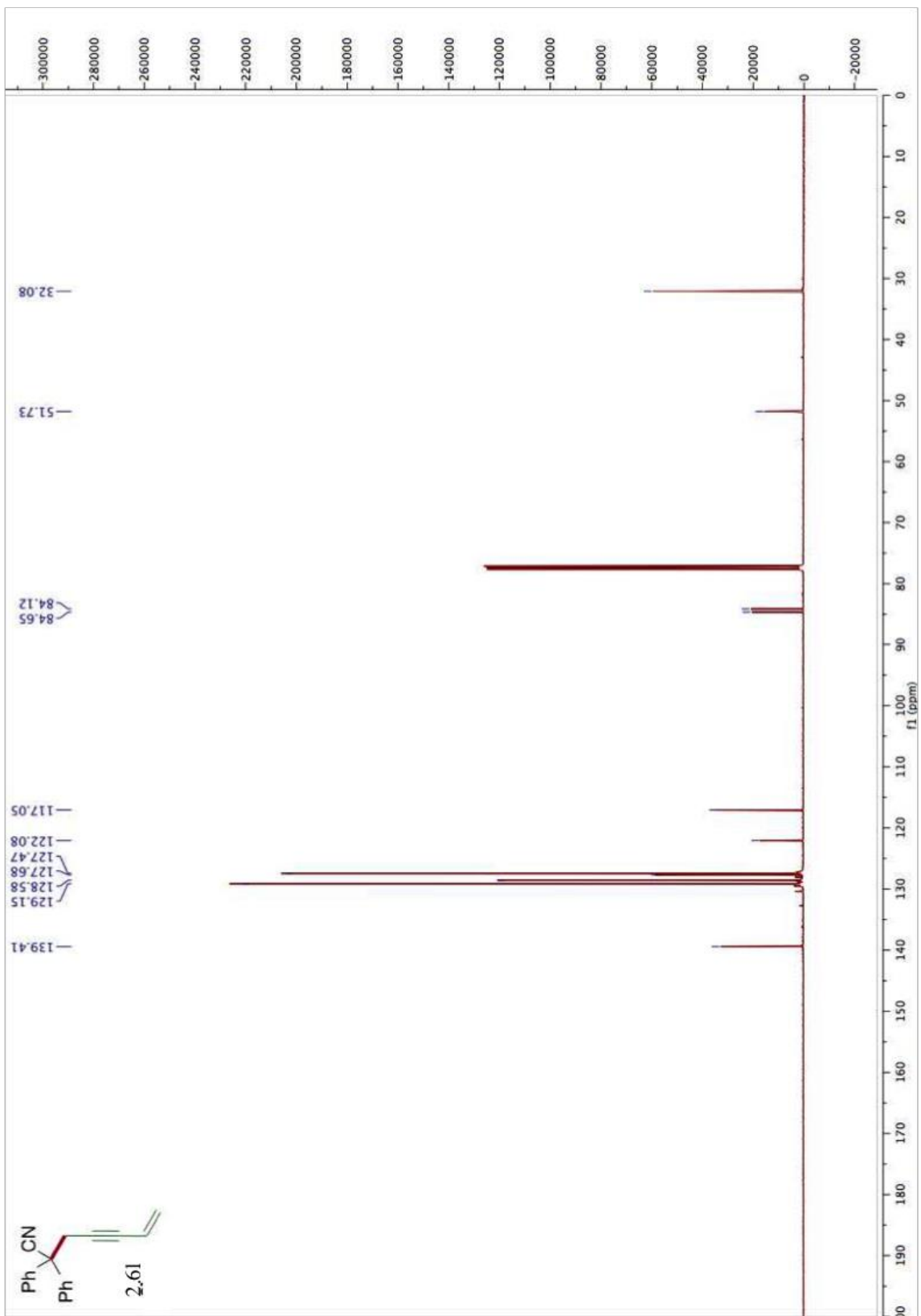


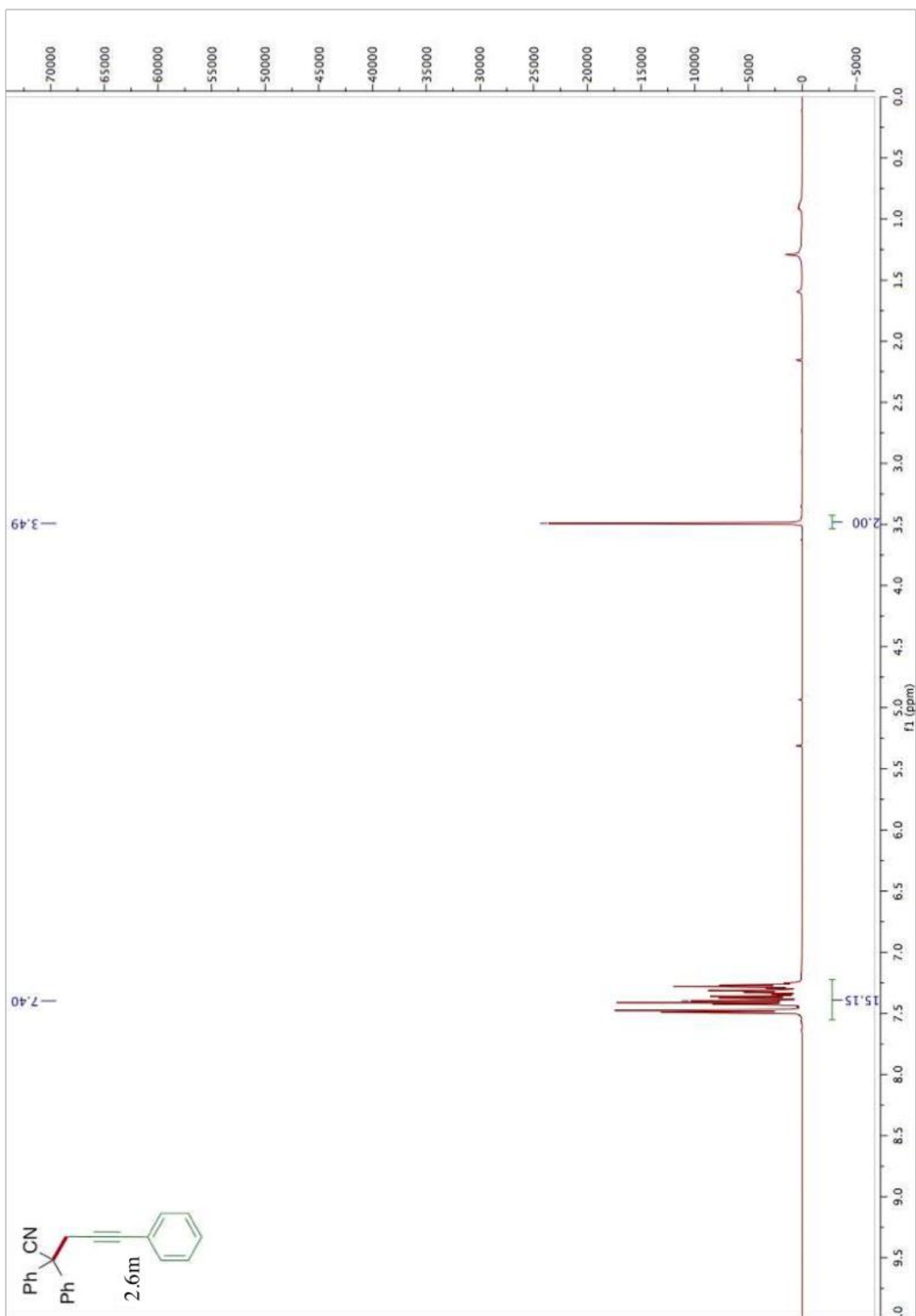


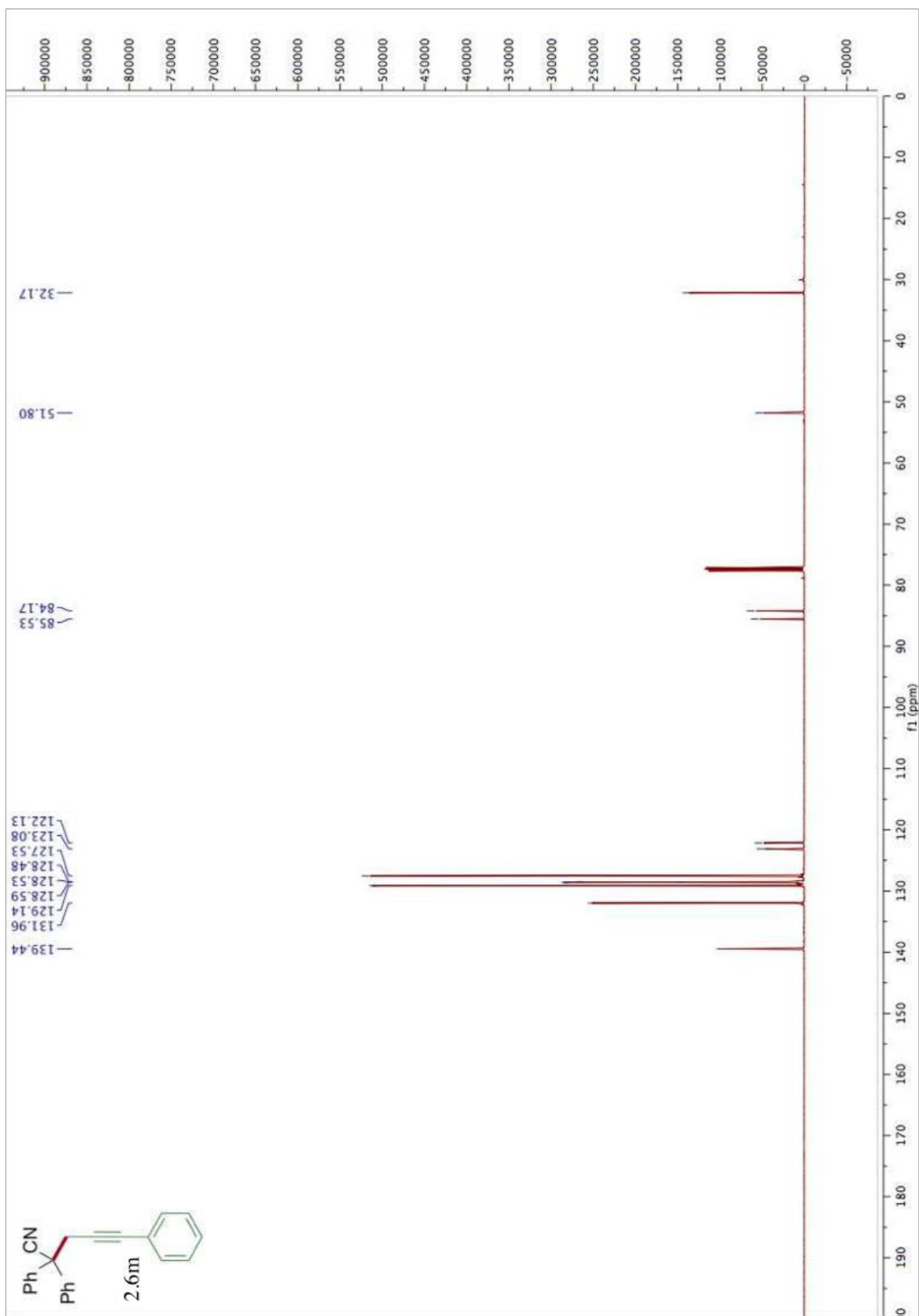








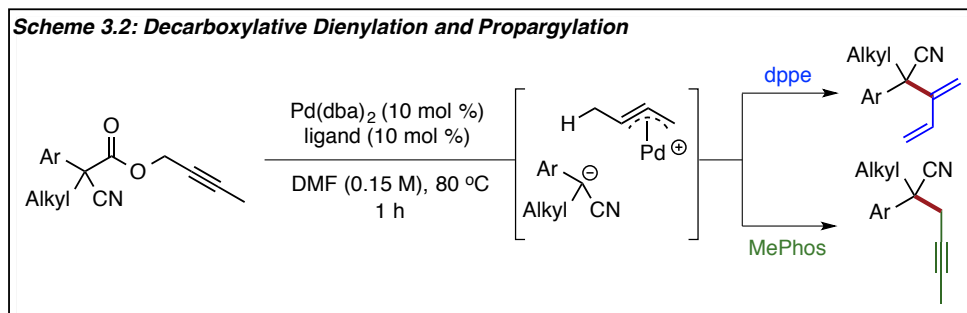
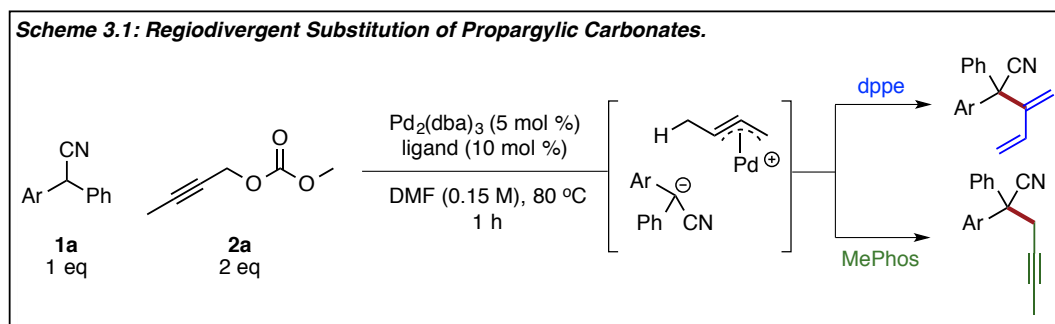




Chapter 3. Palladium-Catalyzed Decarboxylative Propargylation and 1,3-Dienylation

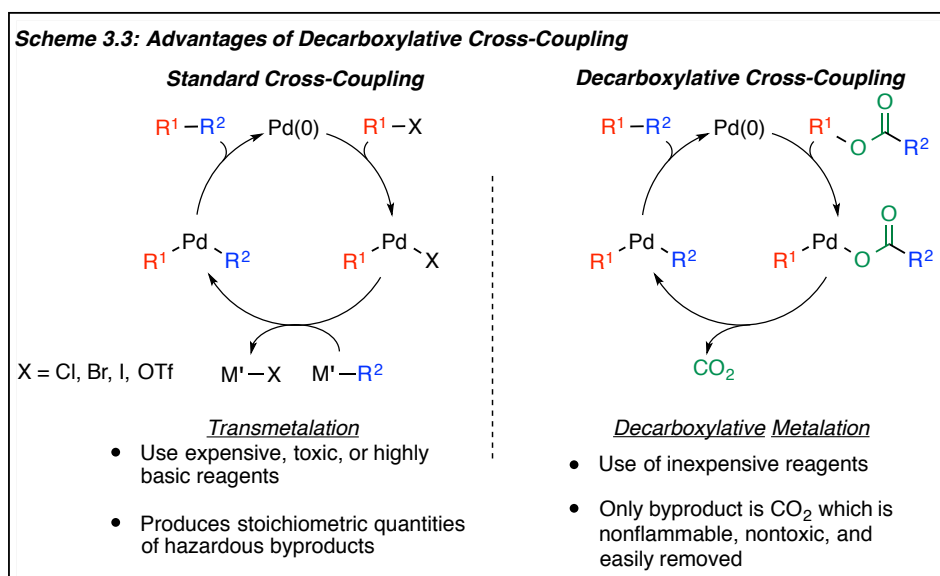
3.1 Introduction to Metal-Catalyzed Decarboxylation

Chapter 2 of this dissertation presented methods developed for the intermolecular dienylation and propargylation of α,α -diaryl acetonitrile pronucleophiles (Scheme 3.1).¹ However, the substrate scope was limited to *weakly* stabilized α,α -diaryl acetonitriles with a pK_a similar to that of methanol ($pK_a = \leq 17$). In order to expand the substrate scope to less stable nucleophiles ($pK_a > 17$) we envisioned the development of an intramolecular variant that would generate the activated nucleophile *in situ* via decarboxylation (Scheme 3.2).^{2,3,4,5,6,7}



In standard transition metal-catalyzed cross-coupling methods both activation of the nucleophile and electrophile are required prior to bond formation (Scheme 3.3).⁸ Activation is typically achieved using an external base or preformed organometallic species. The employed reagents are often expensive, toxic or highly basic. Further, a necessary result of these standard cross-coupling methods is the production of a stoichiometric amount of waste. Alternatively,

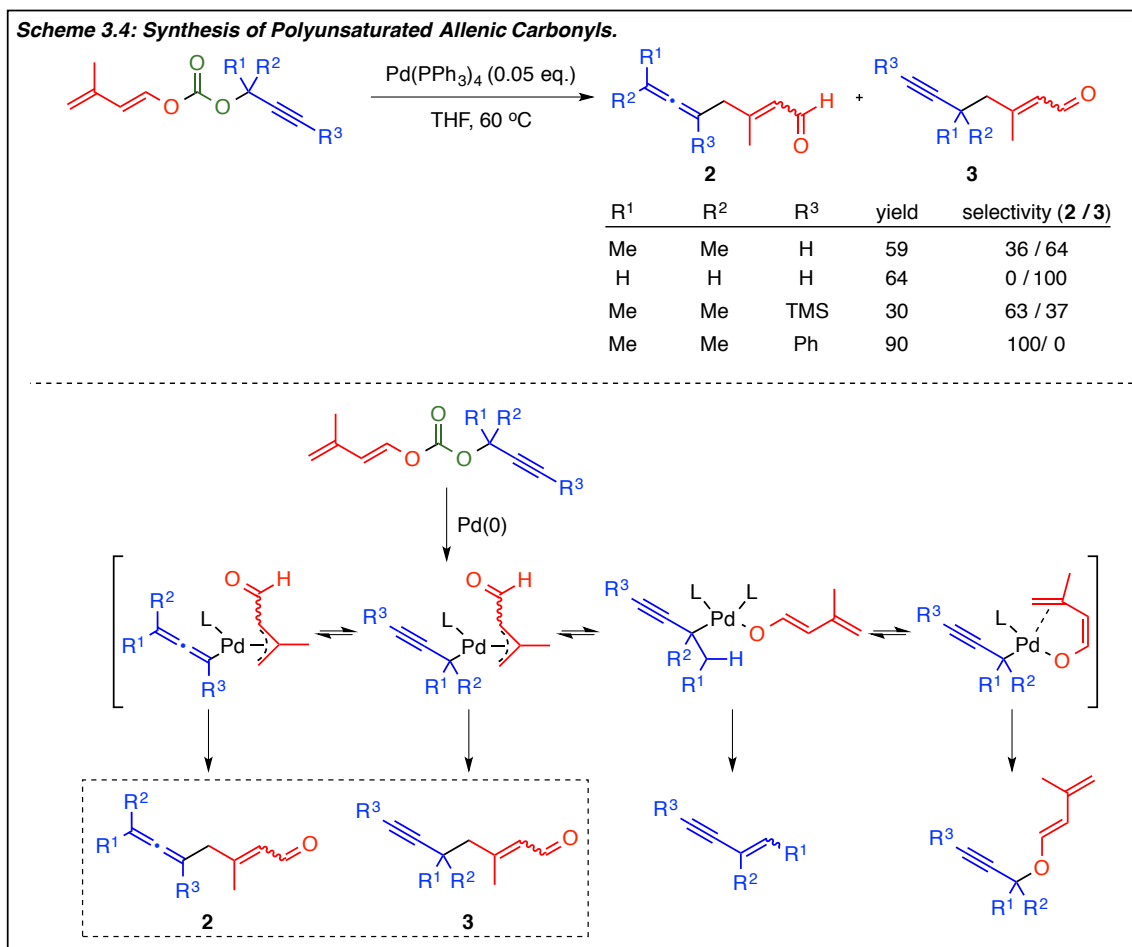
decarboxylative cross-coupling reactions possess significant advantages (Scheme 3.3).⁸ For example, the required starting materials can be easily and efficiently synthesized from readily available reagents and irreversible decarboxylation can drive the formation of reactive intermediates while generating CO₂ as the only byproduct. Despite these significant advantages, only a handful of methods have been developed for decarboxylative propargylation, which will be presented in the following sections of this dissertation.



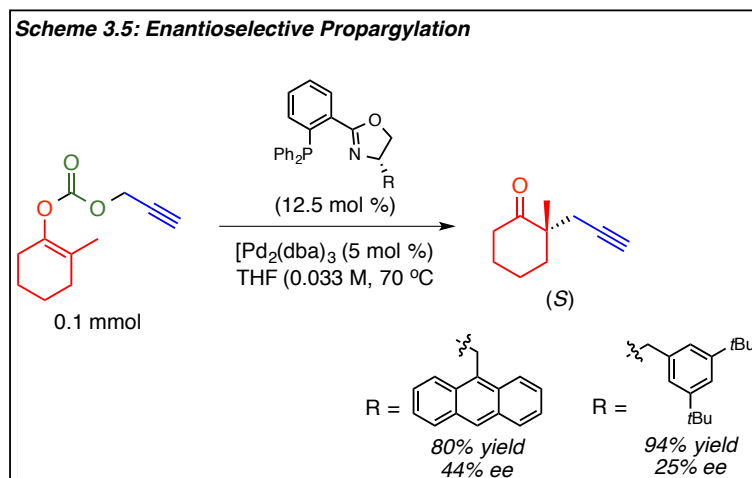
3.2 Decarboxylative Propargylation Methods

In 1994, Bienaymé reported that decarboxylative propargylation of substituted propargylic carbonates could be achieved using Pd(PPh₃)₄ (Scheme 3.4).⁹ However, the method was not optimized for selective product formation and contamination by the allenyl isomer was frequently observed. Further, product ratios were largely affected by the substitution patterns on the starting carbonate. Specifically, terminal acetylene derivatives were found to favor the propargyl isomer while the addition of substituents, such as TMS or Ph, favored the allenyl isomer. The observed selectivity was suggested to arise from a change in the favored palladium-

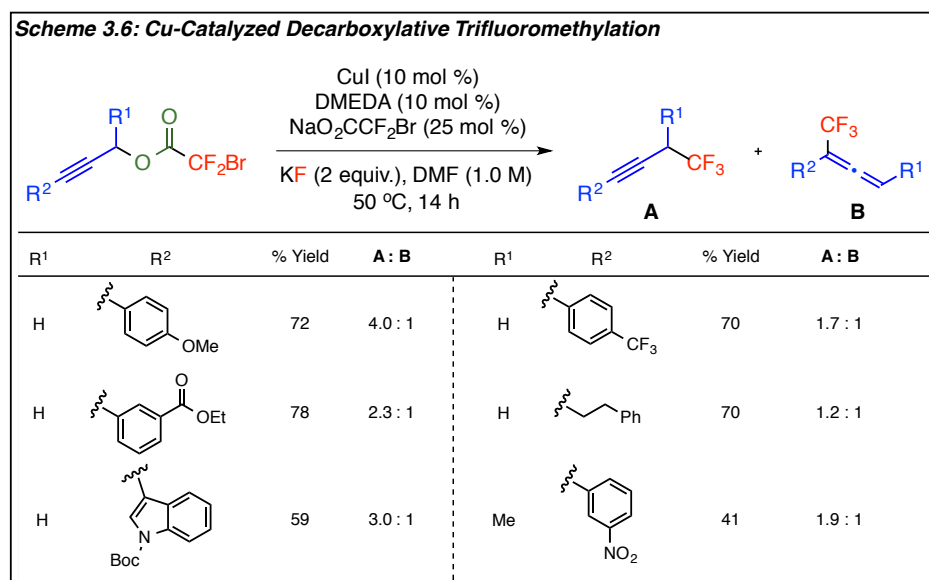
bound intermediate from an η^1 -propargylpalladium species to an η^1 -allenylpalladium species which avoids unfavorable steric interactions with R^3 (Scheme 3.4). Lastly, in addition to the reported lack in selectivity, only poor to moderate yields of the product mixtures were obtained.



In 2011, Stoltz and coworkers reported a single example of the enantioselective decarboxylative propargylation of a cyclohexanone derivative (Scheme 3.5).¹⁰ However, only a brief ligand screen was reported which resulted in poor enantiomeric excess and produced only moderate yields. Further, the reported product was not isolated and observed yields were determined by GC analysis with an internal standard.

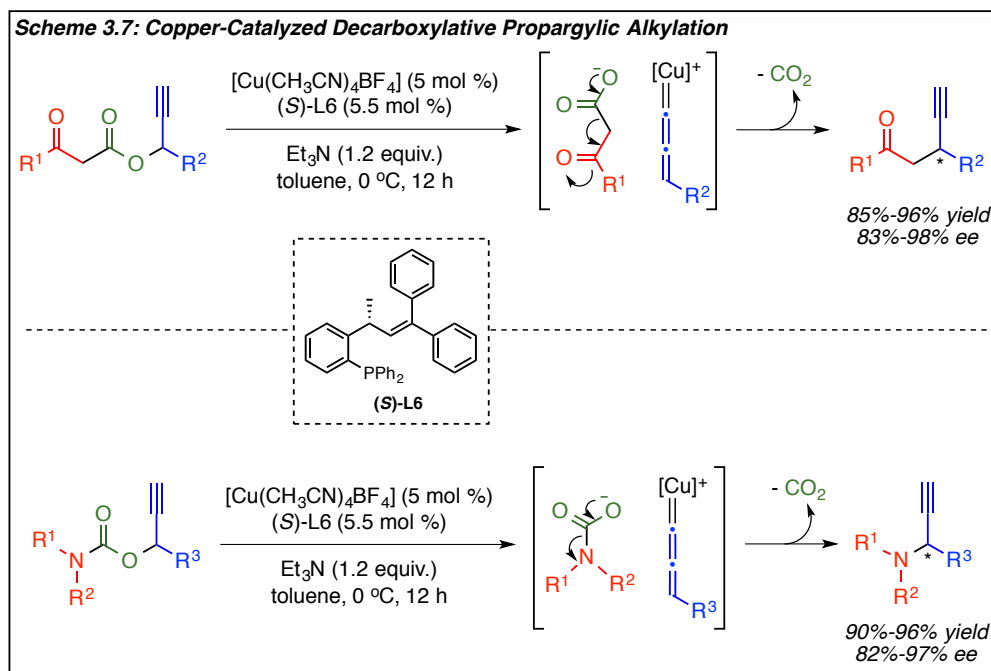


Later, in 2014, Altman and coworkers reported the copper-catalyzed decarboxylative trifluoromethylation of propargylic electrophiles to access substituted propargyl and allenyl products (Scheme 3.6).¹¹ However, like the method reported by Bienaymé, selective formation of the propargyl isomer was not obtained and reactions suffered from competitive formation of the allenyl isomer. Additionally, the propargyl products could not be successfully purified and were isolated in poor ratios with the allenyl isomer.

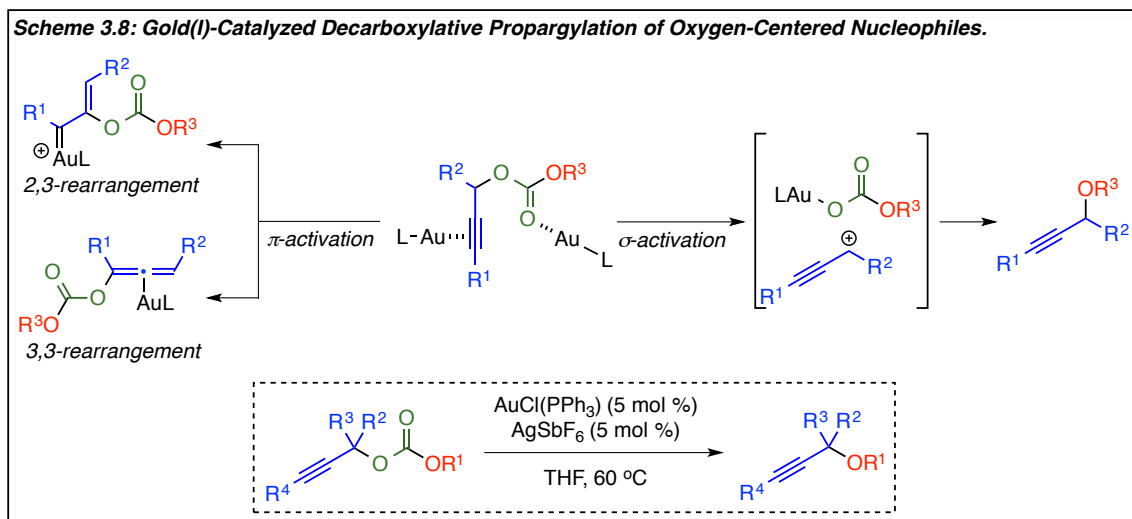


Through use of a cationic copper complex and chiral ligand, Xu¹² and Hu¹³ were able to demonstrate the successful decarboxylative propargylation of ketone enolate equivalents, tertiary,

and secondary amines (Scheme 3.7). Overall, good yields and enantioselectivities were observed. However, the methods were restricted to 1-aryl propargylic carbonates and, as discussed previously in Chapter 1, limited to terminal acetylene derivatives that enable formation of the copper-acetylide and copper-allenylidene intermediates *in situ*.



Lastly, Wu recently demonstrated the gold(I)-catalyzed decarboxylative propargylation of oxygen-centered nucleophiles (Scheme 3.8).¹⁴ Substrates were once again limited to 1-aryl propargylic carbonates although 1,1-disubstituted propargylic carbonates were also tolerated and resulted in moderate isolated yields. Further, 3-substituted propargylic carbonates with either alkyl or aryl substituents resulted in low yields of the propargylated product, unless the aryl moiety was *ortho*-substituted. The *ortho*-substituent is proposed to perturb coordination of the gold catalyst to the π -bond and promote σ -activation resulting in the propargylated product (Scheme 3.8).

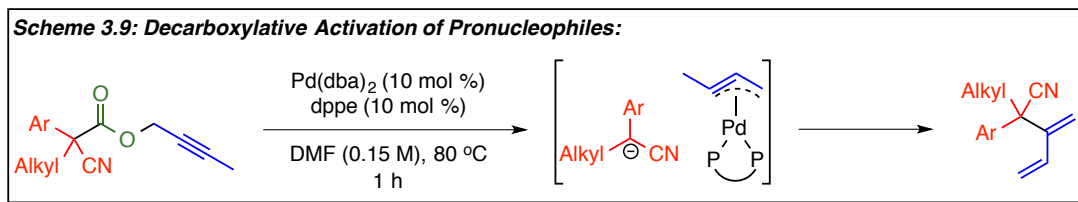
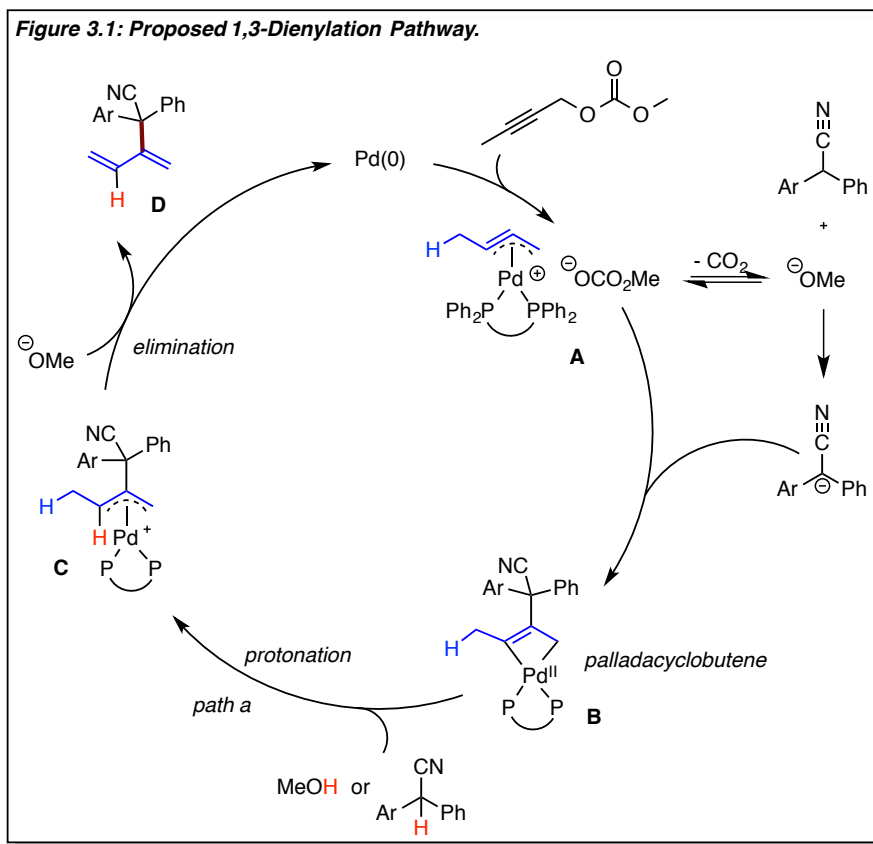


In the following, ongoing efforts to develop a generalized and selective method for the palladium-catalyzed decarboxylative propargylation and dienylation of acetonitrile derivatives will be presented. Development of such methods is necessary to provide facile, efficient, and selective access to propargyl and dienyl functionalities for application as synthetic intermediates in complex molecule synthesis.

3.3 Decarboxylative Propargylation and Dienylation of Acetonitrile Pronucleophiles

Decarboxylative cross-coupling minimizes the use of additives and provides efficient access to reactive intermediates via irreversible decarboxylation. As a result, these methods provide an environmentally friendly and atom-economic alternative to commonly employed coupling methods. Initially, we hypothesized that we could adopt decarboxylation as a way to expand on our previously developed methods for propargylation and dienylation of acetonitrile pronucleophiles in which substrates were limited to those with a pK_a of ≤ 17 . We proposed that the source of this limitation was in pronucleophile activation by liberated methoxide, which would necessitate that the pronucleophile have a pK_a similar to that of methanol (Figure 3.1). Alternatively, if we employed a decarboxylation pathway starting from a propargylic ester, the

nucleophile would be generated *in situ*, after decarboxylation thus potentially providing access to a larger range of nucleophiles for coupling to the butadiene synthon (Scheme 3.9).



To begin, we subjected but-2-yl 2-cyano-2-phenylpropanoate to the reaction conditions developed for intermolecular dienylation of acetonitrile derivatives at elevated reaction temperatures (Table 3.1, entry 3).¹ Disappointingly, we observed only minimal reaction conversion in favor of the protonated product. Screening studies revealed that monomeric Pd(dba)₂ was a more efficient pre-catalyst as opposed to Pd₂(dba)₃ and conversion to product

could be increased after extended reaction times (Table 3.1 entry 4). However, only poor yields of the isolated product were obtained after purification via column chromatography.

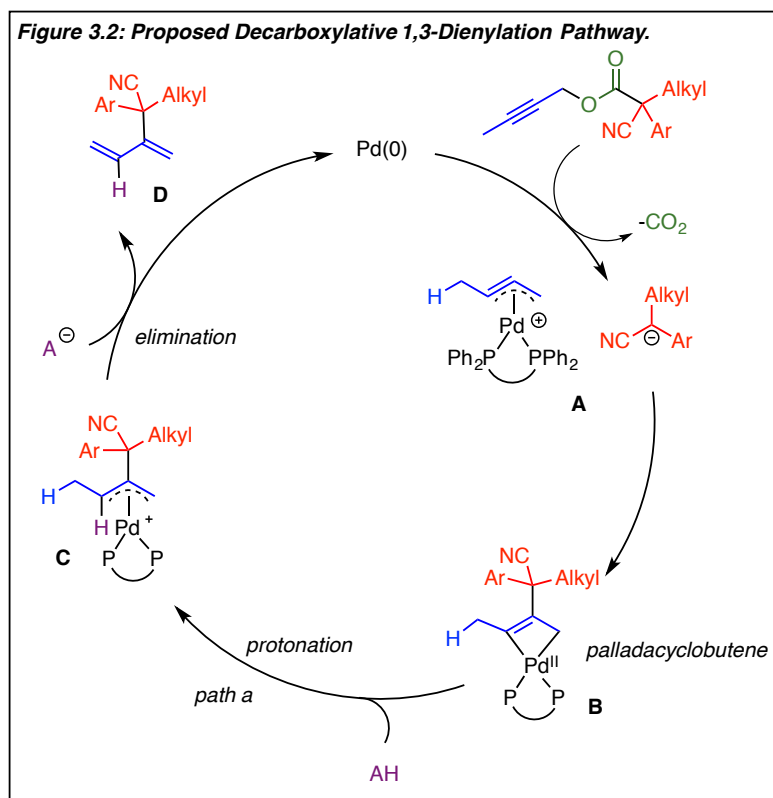
Table 3.1: Optimization of Decarboxylative Dienylation

entry	cat.	mol %	ligand	mol %	additive	mol%	solvent	mL	temp	time	sm %	A%	B%	C% and D%
1	Pd(dba) ₂	10	MePhos	10	---	---	DMF	0.5	40	1h	37	18	22	23
2	Pd(dba) ₂	2.5	MePhos	2.5	---	---	DMF	0.5	80	1h	58	20	6	16
3	Pd ₂ (dba) ₃	5	dppe	10	---	---	DMF	0.5	100	1h	83	15	3	0
4	Pd(dba) ₂	10	dppe	10	---	---	DMF	0.5	100	6h	0	5	83	12
5	Pd(dba) ₂	2.5	dppe	2.5	---	---	DMF	0.5	100	6h	88	11	1	0
6	Pd(dba) ₂	10	dppe	10	---	---	DMF	1	150mw	10m	0	17	69	14
7	Pd(dba) ₂	10	dppe	10	---	---	DMF	1	150mw	4m	0	15	71	14
8	Pd(dba) ₂	10	dppe	10	---	---	DMF	1	150mw	1m	0	13	73	14
9	Pd(dba) ₂	10	dppe	10	---	---	DMF	1	100mw	5m	72	11	16	2
10	Pd(dba) ₂	10	dppe	10	---	---	DMF	1	120mw	1m	0	5	86	10
11	Pd(dba) ₂	10	dppe	10	NaHCO ₃	1	DMF	1	120mw	1m	23	7	62	8
12	Pd(dba) ₂	10	dppe	10	---	---	DMF	0.25	120mw	1m	68	10	13	9
13	Pd(dba) ₂	10	dppe	10	morpholine	1	DMF	1	100	4h	only	protonated	material	
14	Pd(dba) ₂	10	dppe	10	Bu ₂ NH	1	DMF	1	100	4h	0	77	23	0
15	Pd(dba) ₂	10	dppe	10	Bn ₂ NH	1	DMF	1	100	4h	0	74	23	2
16	Pd(dba) ₂	10	dppe	10	pyrrolidine	1	DMF	1	100	4h	0	61	39	0
17	Pd(dba) ₂	10	dppe	10	azocane	1	DMF	1	100	4h	0	65	14	21
18	Pd(dba) ₂	10	dppe	10	<i>i</i> -Pr ₂ NH	1	DMF	1	100	4h	0	8	92	0
19	Pd(dba) ₂	10	dppe	10	TBD	1	DMF	1	100	4h	0	94	6	0
20	Pd(dba) ₂	10	dppe	10	K ₂ HPO ₄	1	DMF	1	100	4h	0	5	95	0
21	Pd(dba) ₂	10	dppe	10	NaHCO ₃	1	DMF	1	100	4h	0	11	89	0
22	Pd(dba) ₂	10	dppe	10	mesitol	1	DMF	1	100	4h	0	40	60	0
23	Pd(dba) ₂	10	dppe	10	2-nitroethanol	1	DMF	1	100	4h	62	38	0	0
24	Pd(dba) ₂	10	dppe	10	2,2,2-trifluoroethanol	1	DMF	1	100	4h	very	Very	messy	
25	Pd(dba) ₂	10	dppe	10	DBPC	1	DMF	1	100	4h	0	23	5	71
26	Pd(dba) ₂	10	dppe	10	propofol	1	DMF	1	100	4h	0	35	5	60
27	Pd(dba) ₂	10	dppe	10	benzoic acid	1	DMF	1	100	4h	48	47	0	5
28	Pd(dba) ₂	10	dppe	10	MeOH	1	DMF	1	100	4h	0	22	54	14
29	Pd(dba) ₂	10	dppe	10	H ₂ O	1	DMF	1	100	4h	0	61	39	0
30	Pd(dba) ₂	10	dppe	10	<i>tert</i> -butanol	1	DMF	1	100	4h	0	8	92	0
31	Pd(dba) ₂	10	dppe	10	<i>tert</i> -butanol	1	DMF	1	100	3h	0	50	50	0
32	Pd(dba) ₂	10	dppe	10	K ₂ HPO ₄	1	DMF	1	100	3h	59	19	22	0

Ratios were determined by GC/MS analysis.

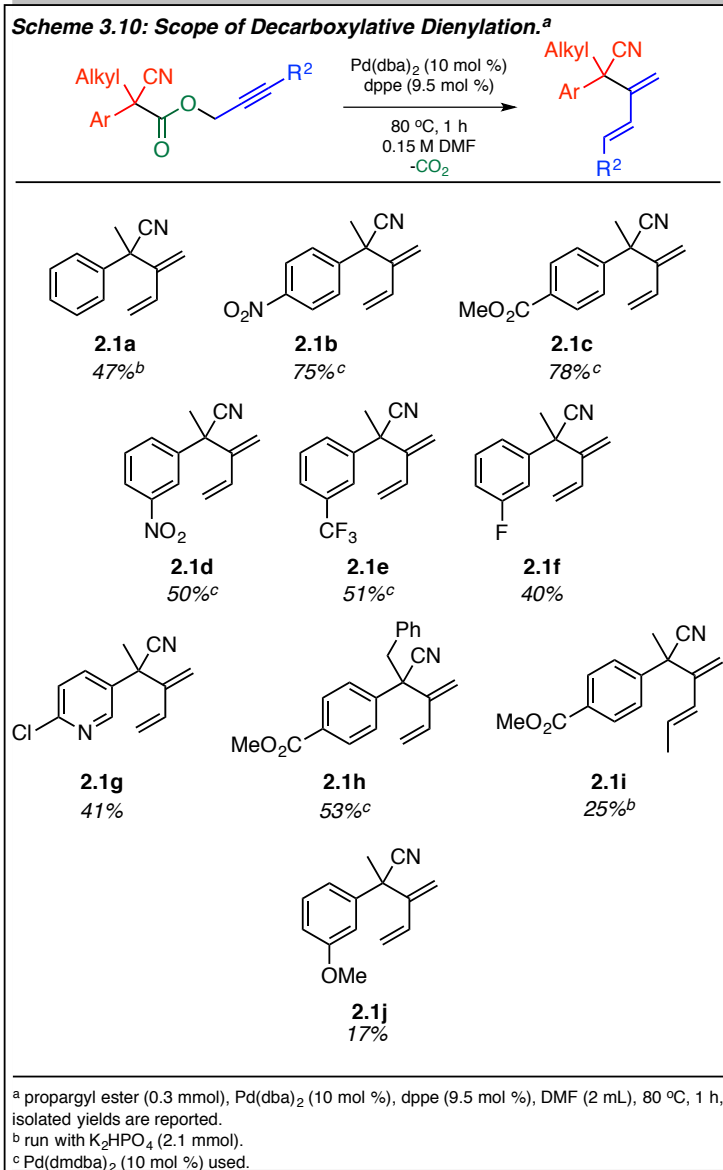
Next, we evaluated the potential decarboxylative dienylation reaction pathway in order to optimize isolated yields of the dienylated product (Figure 3.2). Initially, we envisioned that palladium(0) would undergo oxidative addition to generate an η^3 -propargylpalladium intermediate and activated nucleophile. As previously proposed, the activated nucleophile would then regioselectively attack the center carbon of the palladium complex to generate a palladacyclobutene.¹⁵ However, unlike in the intermolecular variant, which could undergo protonation by

a molecule of methanol or substrate, neither is possible in the decarboxylation pathway since both compounds are absent from the reaction media. Therefore, we proposed that a proton source could be needed. Further, the proton source would also have to act as a competent base to deprotonate intermediate C (Scheme 3.2) for optimal product formation.



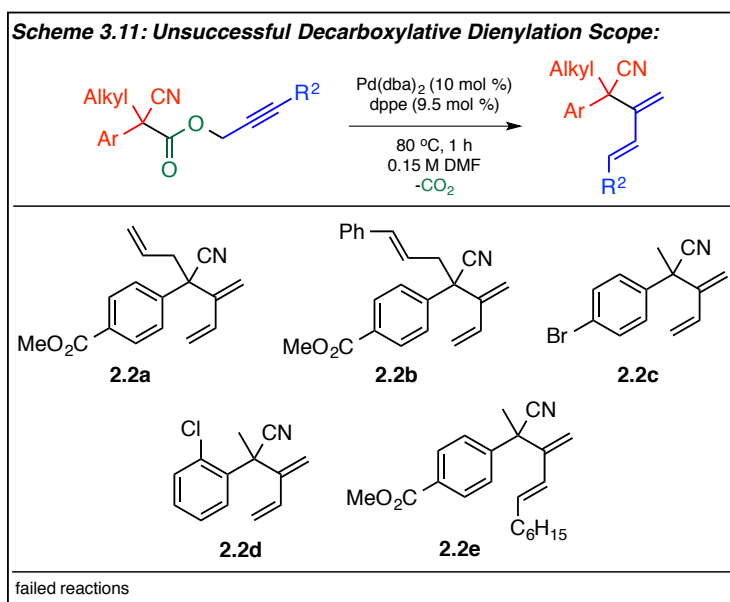
We next screened a variety of proton sources (Table 3.1) and found that K₂HPO₄ provided the optimal conversion to the diene product after 4 h. However, significantly decreased yields of the isolated product were still obtained compared to the suggested product formation by GC/MS analysis using mesitylene as an internal standard. It was next proposed that although acetonitrile derivatives are readily activated via decarboxylation in allylation-type chemistry,⁸ activation utilizing propargylic esters might be more problematic. Further, if deprotonation of intermediate C (Scheme 3.10) occurred by the activated nitrile instead of the conjugate base of the additive, it could halt productive product formation. Therefore, we diverted our attention to

but-2-yn-1-yl-2-cyano-2-(4-nitrophenyl)propanoate which could stabilize the *in situ* generated anionic charge more efficiently and potentially lower the pK_a of the protonated product enough for reintroduction back into the catalytic cycle for dienylation. Gratifyingly, decarboxylative dienylation occurred using 10 mol % of Pd(dba)₂, 9.5 mol % dppe, in DMF at 80 °C after 1 h and moderate yields of the isolated product were obtained (Scheme 3.10, **2.1b**). We then screened other electron-deficient aryl substituents and found that a *para*-carbomethoxy derivative could be obtained in similar yield (**2.1c**). However, when *meta*-substituted electron-deficient aryl moieties were screened, a decrease in yield was observed (**2.1d**, **2.1e**, **2.1f**). Similarly, the reaction was tolerant of a *para*-chloro pyridine derivative (**2.1g**), and increased steric bulk of the α -substituted alkyl group (**2.1h**). Unfortunately, a further decrease in isolated yield of the diene product was observed when an ethyl group was incorporated at the 3-position of the propargylic substituent (**2.1i**) and with electron-donating substituents on the aryl moiety (**2.1j**).

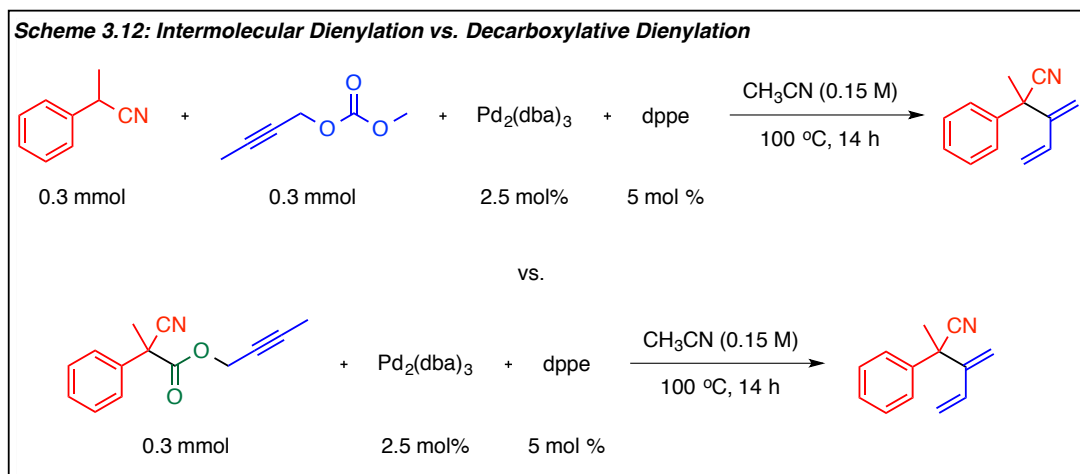


In addition to the successfully isolated products obtained from decarboxylative dienylation, we have also encountered limitations to the developed method (Scheme 3.11). When an allyl functionality was incorporated into the starting material, mostly unreacted starting material was observed (Scheme 3.11, **2.2a**, **2.2b**). Such a result is expected if the formation of a palladium π -allyl intermediate out-competes the formation of η^3 -propargylpalladium complex, thus preventing diene formation. Likewise, a similar result was observed when a *para*-bromo

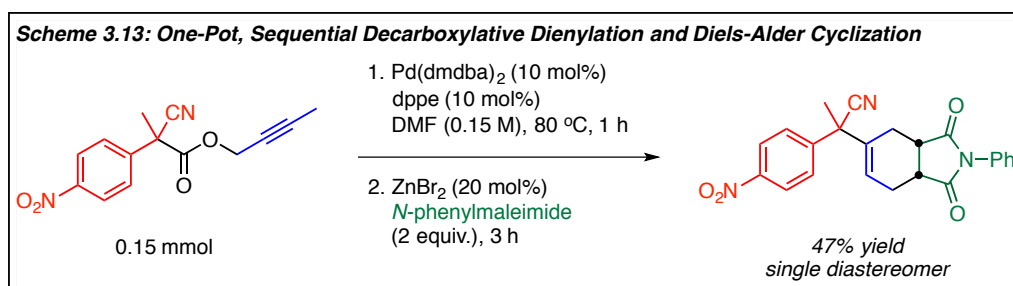
substituted aryl moiety was subjected to the optimized reaction conditions (**2.2c**). In this case, we proposed that oxidative addition of the aryl–bromine bond occurs in lieu of oxidative addition of the propargylic ester, which would also halt desired product formation. Alternatively, when the aryl ring contained an *ortho*-chloro substituent, minor conversion to the diene product was observed (18% by GC/MS) (**2.2d**). However, a higher relative percentage of the protonated product was present at 24% with 58% remaining as starting material. Lastly, increased steric bulk at the 3-position of the propargyl functionality also perturbed diene formation; only a 26% conversion of starting material **2.2e** was observed by GC/MS.



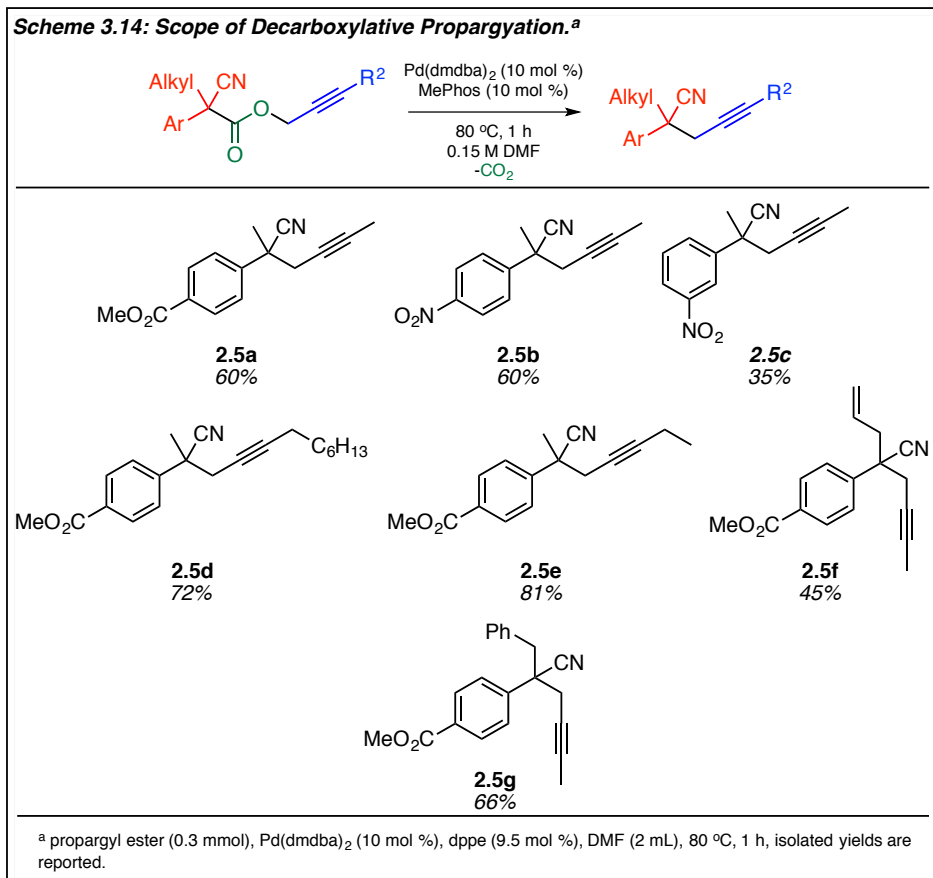
As previously presented, decarboxylative dienylation is currently restricted to electron-deficient aryl rings in order to obtain moderate yields. However, it should be mentioned that the developed method provides access to a broader range of nucleophiles than were previously successful in the palladium-catalyzed intermolecular dienylation using nitriles and propargyl carbonates (Scheme 3.12).



Due to the fact that the substrate scope of the decarboxylative dienylation reaction is somewhat limited, we aimed to expand the application of our method through a sequential dienylation/cyclization pathway to provide facile and efficient access to polycyclic cores.^{16,17} A brief reaction optimization study evaluated the effects of temperature, additives, solvent, and reaction duration for the sequential reaction. Eventually, it was found that, after diene formation addition of 20 mol % ZnBr₂ and 2 equivalents of *N*-phenylmaleimide lead to the cyclized product in 47% isolated yield after 3 hours (Scheme 3.13).^{18,19,20} Further, evaluation of the cyclized product by ¹H and ¹³C NMR spectroscopies suggests that only one stereoisomer is formed of the Diels-Alder product, however, current efforts to obtain crystallographic information is ongoing in the laboratory. Additionally, efforts are also being put forth to further optimize the yield of the sequential reaction along with expanding the substrate scope of both diene and dienophile.

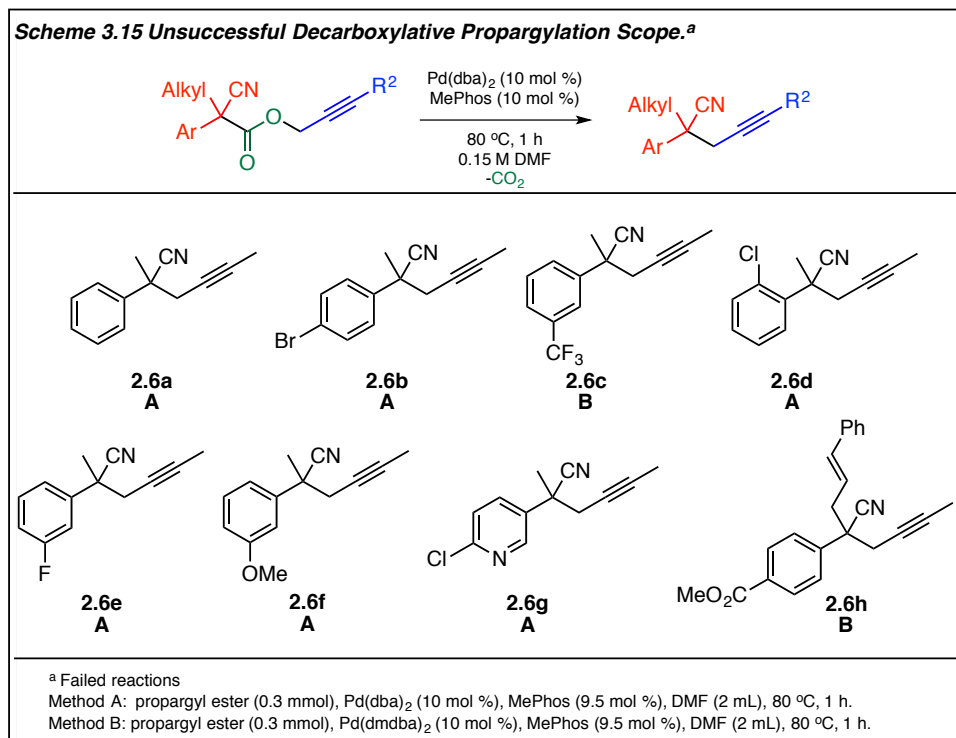


We next explored the capacity for the decarboxylative dienylation method to be diverted toward decarboxylative propargylation of acetonitrile derivatives from propargylic esters (Scheme 3.14). Beginning with methyl 4-(2-cyanohept-4-yn-2-yl)benzoate, which was an optimal substrate for the dienylation pathway, we once again changed the denticity of the coordinating ligand from bidentate (dppe) to monodentate (MePhos) and were able to obtain a 60% isolated yield of the propargylated product (Scheme 3.14, **2.5a**). Altering the *para*-carbomethoxy substituent to a *para*-nitro moiety also produced the propargylated product in moderate yield (**2.5b**). Interestingly, when steric bulk was increased at the 3-position of the propargylic substituent, an increase in yield was observed (**2.5d**, **2.5e**). However, when the arene contained a strongly electron-withdrawing substituent in the *meta*-position as opposed to the *para*-position, a significant decrease in yield was observed (**2.5c**). Lastly, the reaction was tolerant of alkyl variation to either allyl (**2.5f**) or benzyl (**2.5g**) substituents, which resulted in moderate yields of the isolated product.



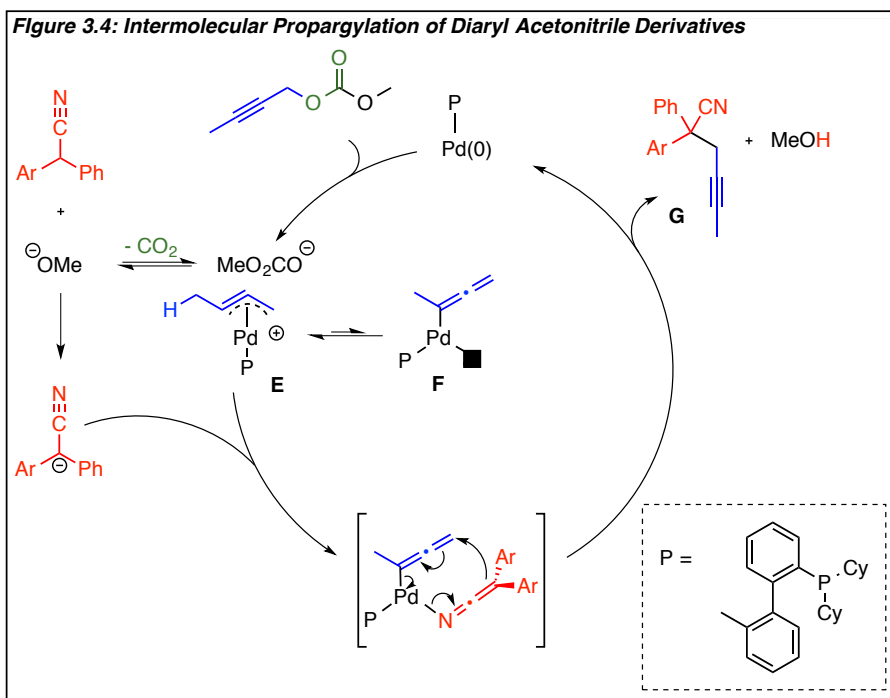
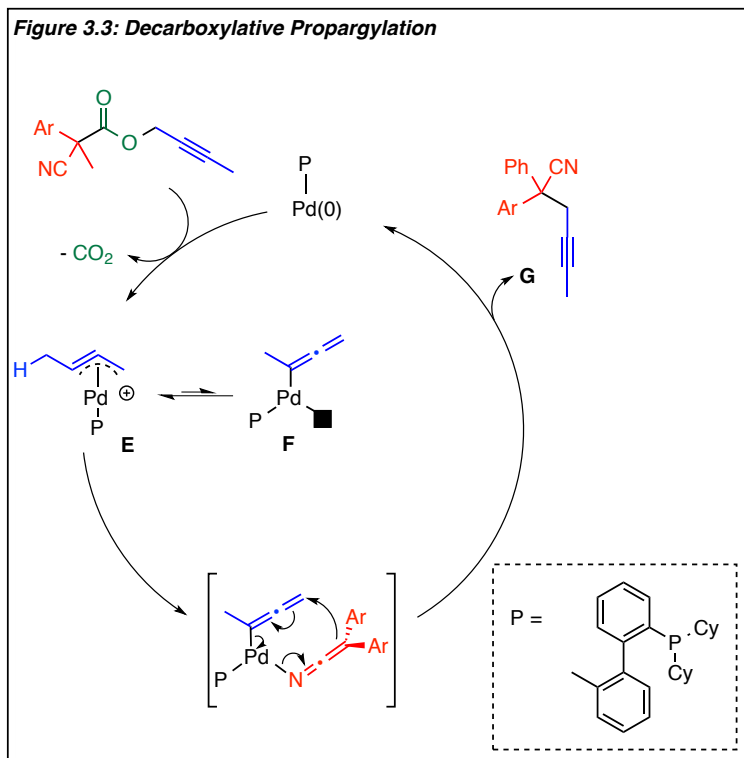
Unfortunately, in addition to the substrates listed above that lead to successful isolation of the decarboxylative propargylic species, many substrates have been unsuccessful under the developed reaction conditions (Scheme 3.15). When a simple aryl substituent was employed, moderate reaction conversion to the propargylated product was observed by GC/MS but efforts to isolate the pure product have been unsuccessful (**2.6a**). Instead, the product has been obtained with significant contamination by the unreacted starting material. Further, when the aryl moiety contained a *para*-bromo (**2.6b**) or *ortho*-chloro (**2.6d**) substituent, only minor reaction conversion was observed. Again, this is potentially due to competitive oxidative addition of the aryl–halogen bond or unfavorable steric interactions by the *ortho*-substituted derivative. In general, when *meta*-substituted aryl functionalities were employed, predominate formation of the protonation product was observed over the propargyl isomer along with both the allenyl and

dienyl isomers (**2.6c**, **2.6e**, **2.6f**). Alternatively, when heteroaryl moieties were employed, equal formation of protonation and propargylation products along with unreacted starting material was observed by GC/MS (**2.6g**). Lastly, despite the moderate yield of the propargylated product obtained from a simple allyl substituent, incorporation of a cinnamyl substituent stopped reactivity (**2.6h**).

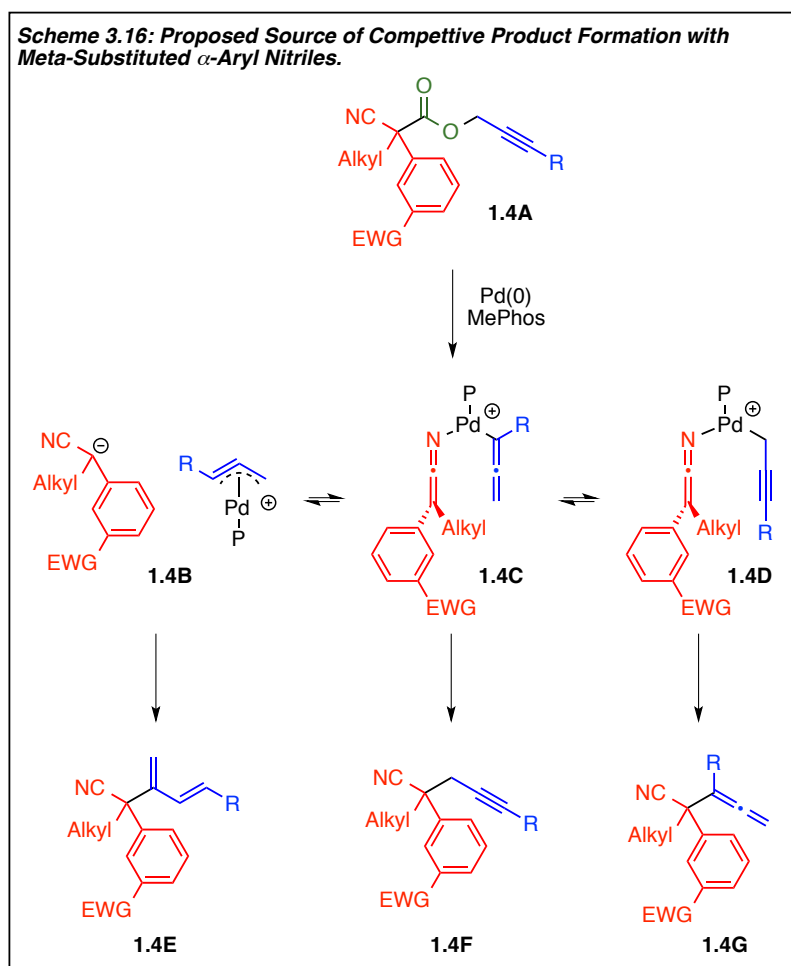


Given the apparent limitation of decarboxylative propargylation to *para*-substituted electron-withdrawing aryl substituents, we next aimed to develop a potential rationale for this observation. Initially, we envision that oxidation addition of the propargylic ester to palladium(0) would occur to generate a palladium-bound intermediate (Figure 3.3). As initially proposed in chapter 2 for the intermolecular variant (Figure 3.4), propargylation is proposed to arise from inner-sphere nucleophilic attack of the η^1 -allenylpalladium species over other palladium-bound intermediates.^{21,22,23,24} Rationale for this intermediate is twofold: 1) our observations of an increase in yield of the propargyl product with an increase in steric bulk at the 3-position of the propargyl

substituent and 2) the known coordination of *weakly* stabilized nitrile intermediates to palladium.^{25,26}



Alternatively, the rationale for increased protonation and competitive product formation of *meta*-substituted derivatives is as follows. In contrast to the stabilizing effects of *para*-substituted electron-withdrawing aryl moieties, it is proposed that *meta*-substituted derivatives would be less efficient at anionic stabilization resulting in competitive formation of non-nitrile coordinated and nitrile coordinated palladium intermediates (Scheme 3.16). Lack of intermediate preference could then account for a mix of allenyl (**1.4G**), dienylyl (**1.4E**), and propargyl (**1.4F**) isomers, however, the proton source that gives rise to protonated nitrile is currently unknown.



3.4 Conclusion:

In chapter 3 of this dissertation a regiodivergent method for decarboxylative dienylation and propargylation of acetonitrile pronucleophiles was presented. By generating the nucleophile

in situ, we have been able to expand the substrate scope to compounds that were previously unsuccessful for the intermolecular variant present in chapter 2. Additionally, although we are aware of limitations in both the dienylation and propargylation method, further studies are currently underway to expand the reaction scopes and provide support for the respective mechanistic pathways. Future direction will focus on the evaluation of diverse electron-withdrawing functional groups beyond nitriles and electron-deficient arenes and substitution effects at both the 1-position and 3-position of the propargylic moiety. Lastly, it would be beneficial to extend the application of the developed dienylation and propargylation methods to both inter- and intramolecular one-pot cyclization protocols to efficiently access polycyclic cores. In particular, further studies should focus on cyclization reactions that generate a single stereoisomer as eluted to previously in chapter 3.

3.5 References for Chapter 3:

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For group publications on decarboxylative coupling see:

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Chapter 3 appendix

Experimental methods, spectral analysis and spectra for Ch. 3 compounds.

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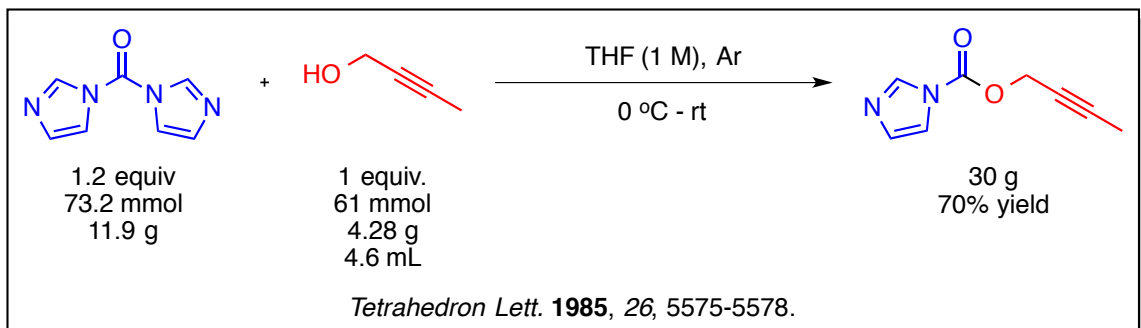
General Information:

Purified compounds, unless otherwise stated, were obtained by column chromatography using 60 Å porosity, 230 x 400 mesh standard grade silica gel from Sorbent Technologies. TLC analysis was performed on silica gel HL TLC plates w/UV254 from Sorbent Technologies. Gas chromatography/mass spectrometry data was obtained using a Shimadzu GCMS-QP2010 SE. NMR spectra were obtained on a Bruker Advance 500 DRX equipped with a QNP cryoprobe. ¹H and ¹³C spectra were normalized using residual undeuterated solvent signals as a reference (CDCl₃ = 7.28 ppm for ¹H and 77.36 ppm for ¹³C).¹ ¹⁹F NMR spectra were referenced to α,α,α-trifluorotoluene (purchased from Sigma Aldrich) at -62.7 ppm.

N,N-Dimethylformamide (DMF) and nitromethane were purchased from Sigma Aldrich and stored in a glove box. Dichloromethane (DCM) and toluene were either purified by an Innovative Technology Pure Solv™ solvent purification system or purchased from Sigma Aldrich and stored in a glove box. Tetrahydrofuran (THF) was purified in a solvent still with sodium and benzophenone and obtained after reflux. Bis(dibenzylideneacetone)palladium(0) (Pd(dba)₂) was purchased from Strem as were ethylenebis(diphenylphosphine) (dppe) and 2-dicyclohexylphosphino-2'-methylbiphenyl (MePhos). Bis(3,5,3',5'-dimethoxydibenzylideneacetone)palladium(0) was obtained from Alfa Aesar. All were stored in a glove box. Acetonitrile derivatives were purchased from Sigma Aldrich, Alfa Aesar, VWR, and Acros Organics and used without further purification. *N,N'*-Carbonyldiimidazole (CDI) was purchased from Matrix Scientific and 2-Butyn-1-ol was purchased from Acros Organics. Both were used without further purification.

Synthesis of Starting Materials:

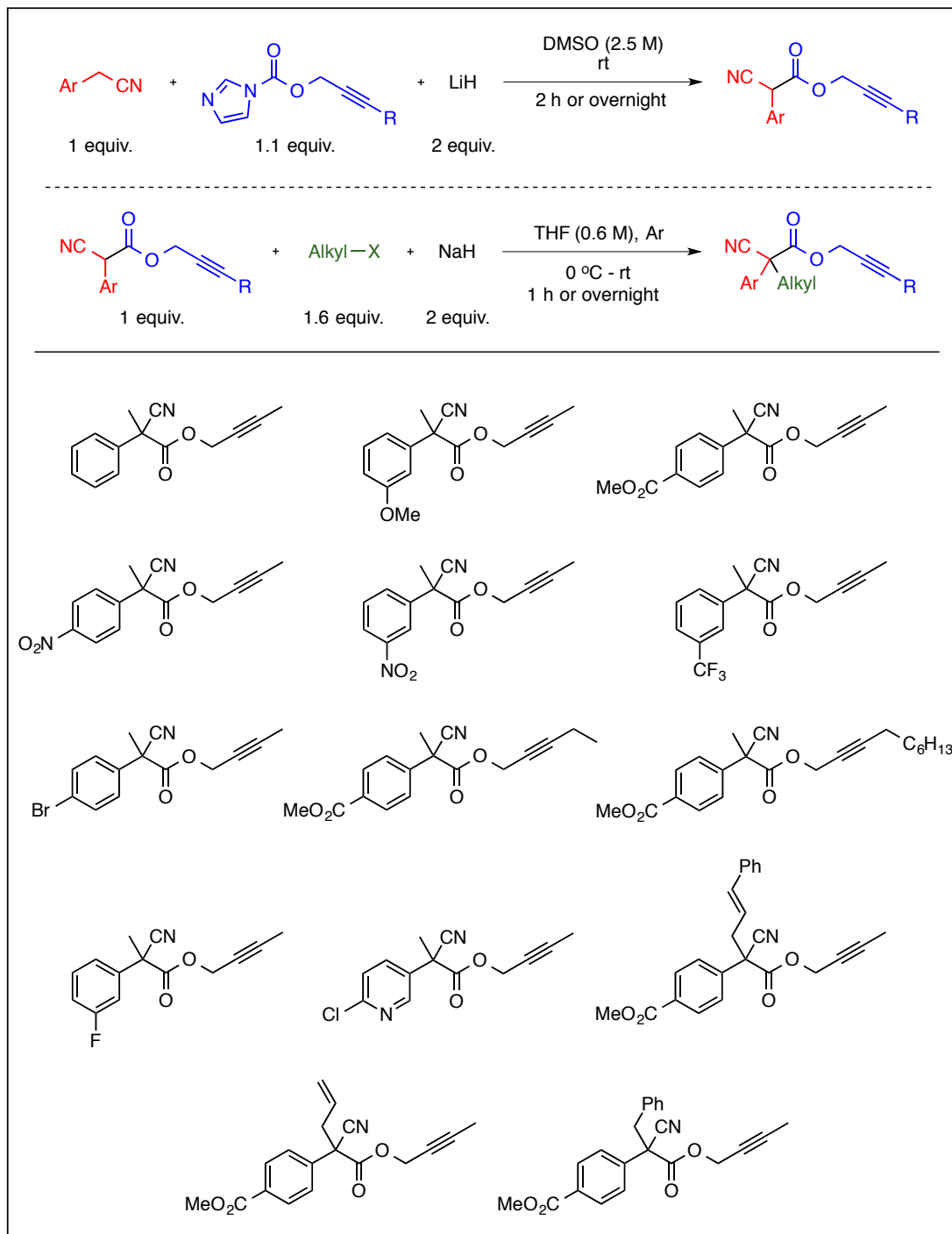
Synthesis of but-2-yn-1-yl 1H-imidazole-1-carboxylate.¹



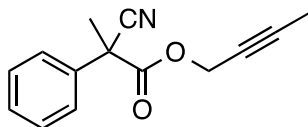
General procedure:

In a 500 mL flame-dried Schlenk flask under an atmosphere of argon, CDI was dissolved in dry THF and cooled to 0 °C. Next, 2-butyn-1-ol was added dropwise and the mixture was allowed to warm to room temperature and stirred overnight. Upon reaction completion, saturated ammonium chloride (75 mL) was added to quench the reaction and the mixture was diluted with distilled water (100 mL) and extracted with ethyl acetate (100 mL x 2) and washed with brine (50 mL). The organic layer was dried over sodium sulfate and concentrated before purification by column chromatography in a gradient of 2% - 5% - 10% - 20% ethyl acetate in hexanes.

Synthesis of cyanopropanoate derivatives:²³



Characterization of cyanopropanoate derivatives:



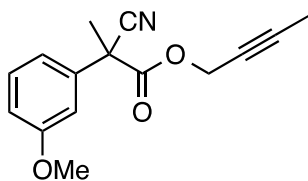
MLM-1-063

¹H NMR (500 MHz, CDCl₃): δ 7.58 – 7.52 (m, 2H), 7.46 – 7.37 (m, 3H), 4.73 (q, *J* = 2.2 Hz, 2H), 1.99 (s, 3H), 1.83 (t, *J* = 2.4 Hz, 3H).

¹³C NMR (126 MHz, CDCl₃): δ 167.78, 135.71, 129.52, 129.26, 126.15, 119.54, 84.87, 72.09, 55.69, 48.57, 25.26, 4.00

HRMS TAPSI: [M+H] calcd for C₁₄H₁₄NO₂: 228.1025. Found: 228.1014.

IR: 3063, 2995, 2945, 2922, 2245, 1747, 1599, 1585, 1492, 1448, 1381, 1224, 1155, 1099, 1078, 1030, 947, 559, 476, 455, 420.



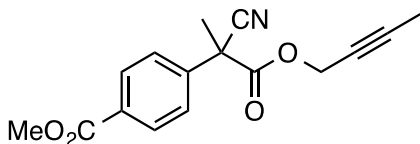
MLM-1-056

¹H NMR (500 MHz, CDCl₃): δ 7.34 (t, *J* = 8.1 Hz, 1H), 7.11 (ddd, *J* = 7.8, 1.9, 0.8 Hz, 1H), 7.06 (t, *J* = 2.2 Hz, 1H), 6.92 (ddd, *J* = 8.3, 2.5, 0.9 Hz, 1H), 4.73 (q, *J* = 2.4 Hz, 2H), 3.84 (s, 3H), 1.97 (s, 3H), 1.83 (t, *J* = 2.4 Hz, 3H).

¹³C NMR (126 MHz, CDCl₃): δ 167.66, 160.38, 137.14, 130.55, 119.49, 118.30, 114.57, 112.16, 84.88, 72.12, 55.72, 48.53, 25.26, 3.99.

HRMS TAPSI: [M+H] calcd for C₁₅H₁₆NO₃: 258.1130. Found: 258.1135.

IR: 3001, 2943, 2922, 2839, 2245, 1755, 1747, 1602, 1585, 1492, 1454, 1435, 1381, 1369, 1319, 1294, 1261, 1224, 1155, 1105, 1091, 1066, 1043, 949, 561, 474, 430, 418.



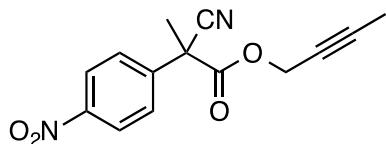
TL5-246

¹H NMR (500 MHz, CDCl₃): δ 8.11 – 8.07 (m, 2H), 7.65 – 7.61 (m, 2H), 4.74 (qd, *J* = 2.4, 0.9 Hz, 2H), 3.94 (s, 3H), 2.00 (s, 3H), 1.82 (t, *J* = 2.4 Hz, 3H).

¹³C NMR (126 MHz, CDCl₃): δ 167.21, 166.53, 140.31, 131.14, 130.75, 126.36, 119.01, 85.12, 71.89, 55.94, 52.73, 48.63, 25.24, 3.99.

HRMS TAPSI: [M+H] calcd for C₁₆H₁₆NO₄: 286.1079. Found: 286.1067.

IR: 2999, 2953, 2924, 2848, 2245, 1755, 1749, 1726, 1610, 1510, 1454, 1435, 1411, 1381, 1371, 1317, 1282, 1224, 1192, 1157, 1112, 1097, 1018, 947, 862, 750, 584, 545, 526, 501, 457, 424.



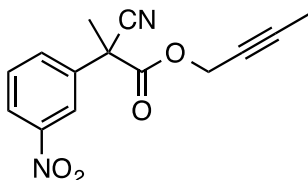
TL5-245

¹H NMR (500 MHz, CDCl₃): δ 8.28 (d, *J* = 8.5 Hz, 2H), 7.75 (d, *J* = 8.9 Hz, 2H), 4.95 – 4.58 (m, 2H), 2.02 (s, 3H), 1.87 – 1.65 (m, 3H).

¹³C NMR (126 MHz, CDCl₃): δ 166.62, 148.42, 142.23, 127.52, 124.61, 118.41, 85.30, 71.66, 56.17, 48.47, 25.20, 3.91.

HRMS TAPSI: [M+H] calcd for C₁₄H₁₃N₂O₄: 273.0875. Found: 273.0869.

IR: 3115, 3084, 2999, 2949, 2924, 2858, 2245, 1766, 1755, 1747, 1732, 1714, 1608, 1599, 1519, 1494, 1446, 1435, 1411, 1384, 1367, 1348, 1323, 1296, 1222, 1157, 1118, 1095, 1064, 1014, 947, 864, 549, 520, 501, 437, 401.



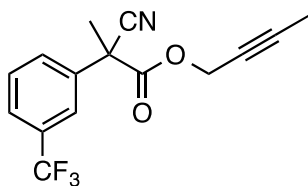
TL7-116

¹H NMR (500 MHz, CDCl₃): δ 8.40 (t, *J* = 2.0 Hz, 1H), 8.28 (ddd, *J* = 8.2, 2.1, 1.0 Hz, 1H), 7.95 (ddd, *J* = 7.9, 2.0, 1.0 Hz, 1H), 7.66 (t, *J* = 8.0 Hz, 1H), 4.77 (qq, *J* = 15.0, 7.3, 2.4 Hz, 2H), 2.05 (s, 3H), 1.83 (t, *J* = 2.4 Hz, 3H).

¹³C NMR (126 MHz, CDCl₃): δ 166.80, 148.98, 137.82, 132.58, 130.69, 124.42, 121.52, 118.52, 85.48, 71.67, 56.23, 48.28, 25.22, 3.97.

HRMS TAPSI: [M+H] calcd for C₁₄H₁₃N₂O₄: 273.0875. Found: 273.0871.

IR: 3090, 2997, 2951, 2924, 2852, 2245, 1747, 1693, 1614, 1531, 1504, 1479, 1435, 1381, 1352, 1311, 1292, 1222, 1155, 1109, 1085, 949, 904, 547, 472, 435.



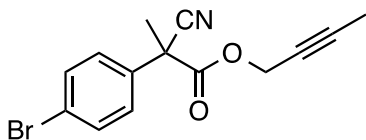
TL6-270

¹H NMR (500 MHz, CDCl₃): δ 7.81 – 7.75 (m, 2H), 7.70 – 7.65 (m, 1H), 7.63 – 7.53 (m, 1H), 4.76 (qq, *J* = 15.1, 10.1, 2.3 Hz, 2H), 2.01 (s, 3H), 1.82 (td, *J* = 2.4, 1.0 Hz, 3H).

¹³C NMR (126 MHz, CDCl₃): δ 167.12, 136.83, 130.18, 129.82, 126.29 (q, *J* = 3.7 Hz), 123.08 (q, *J* = 3.8 Hz), 118.86, 85.20, 71.77, 55.98, 48.41, 25.31, 3.88.

HRMS TAPSI: [M+H] calcd for C₁₅H₁₃F₃NO₂: 296.0898. Found: 296.0889.

IR: 3070, 2997, 2949, 2926, 2858, 2245, 1747, 1616, 1597, 1492, 1440, 1383, 1369, 1329, 1288, 1224, 1170, 1130, 1080, 1016, 1003, 949, 927, 900, 869, 536, 491, 430.



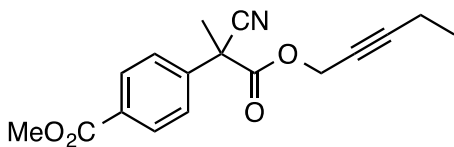
TL6-174

¹H NMR (500 MHz, CDCl₃): δ 7.59 – 7.51 (m, 2H), 7.46 – 7.40 (m, 2H), 4.73 (q, *J* = 2.3 Hz, 2H), 1.97 (s, 3H), 1.83 (t, *J* = 2.4 Hz, 3H).

¹³C NMR (126 MHz, CDCl₃): δ 167.35, 134.74, 132.66, 128.77, 127.95, 123.63, 119.08, 85.09, 71.93, 55.89, 48.18, 25.12, 4.01.

HRMS TAPSI: [M+H] calcd for C₁₄H₁₃NO₂Br: 306.0130. Found: 306.0128.

IR: 2993, 2945, 2922, 2852, 2243, 1747, 1589, 1489, 1454, 1400, 1381, 1369, 1224, 1157, 1095, 1080, 1010, 945, 794, 750, 553, 501, 472, 437, 401.



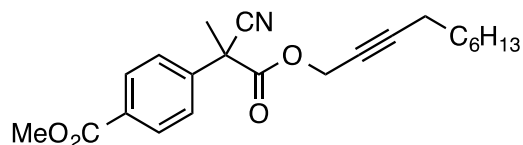
TL6-273

¹H NMR (500 MHz, CDCl₃): δ 8.17 – 8.03 (m, 2H), 7.70 – 7.59 (m, 2H), 4.75 (qt, *J* = 15.1, 5.4, 2.2 Hz, 2H), 3.94 (s, 3H), 2.19 (qt, *J* = 7.5, 2.2 Hz, 2H), 2.00 (s, 3H), 1.10 (t, *J* = 7.5 Hz, 3H).

¹³C NMR (126 MHz, CDCl₃): δ 167.18, 166.52, 140.35, 131.13, 130.74, 126.36, 119.02, 90.77, 72.05, 55.94, 52.74, 48.62, 25.24, 13.74, 12.73.

HRMS TAPSI: [M+H] calcd for C₁₇H₁₈NO₄: 300.1236. Found: 300.1215.

IR: 2980, 2953, 2879, 2845, 2243, 1753, 1724, 1610, 1437, 1410, 1369, 1317, 1282, 1222, 1192, 1151, 1112, 1097, 1018, 964, 943, 750, 547, 501, 472, 437.



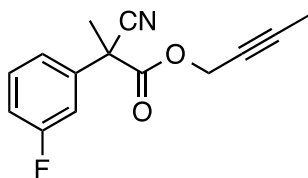
TL6-272

¹H NMR (500 MHz, CDCl₃): δ 8.11 – 8.07 (m, 2H), 7.65 – 7.60 (m, 2H), 4.76 (qt, *J* = 15.1, 7.9, 2.2 Hz, 2H), 3.94 (s, 3H), 2.17 (tt, *J* = 7.1, 2.2 Hz, 2H), 2.00 (s, 3H), 1.50 – 1.40 (m, 2H), 1.37 – 1.19 (m, 8H), 0.89 (t, *J* = 7.0 Hz, 3H).

¹³C NMR (126 MHz, CDCl₃): δ 166.83, 166.17, 140.03, 130.79, 130.41, 126.03, 118.69, 89.29, 72.33, 55.65, 52.38, 48.30, 31.70, 28.74, 28.24, 24.91, 22.63, 18.68, 14.10.

HRMS TAPSI: [M-H] calcd for C₂₂H₂₈NO₄: 370.2018. Found: 370.1997.

IR: 2953, 2929, 2856, 2241, 1749, 1728, 1610, 1435, 1411, 1379, 1369, 1317, 1282, 1222, 1192, 1149, 1112, 1097, 1018, 947, 860.



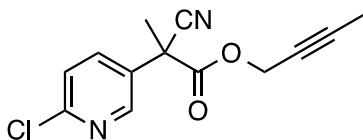
TL6-280

¹H NMR (500 MHz, CDCl₃): δ 7.45 – 7.38 (m, 1H), 7.35 (ddd, *J* = 7.9, 1.9, 1.0 Hz, 1H), 7.25 (dt, *J* = 9.8, 2.1 Hz, 1H), 7.10 (tdd, *J* = 8.2, 2.5, 1.0 Hz, 1H), 4.74 (qd, *J* = 2.4, 1.7 Hz, 2H), 1.98 (s, 3H), 1.83 (t, *J* = 2.4 Hz, 3H).

¹³C NMR (126 MHz, CDCl₃): δ 167.28, 163.25 (d, *J* = 248.1 Hz), 137.98 (d, *J* = 7.5 Hz), 131.15 (d, *J* = 8.5 Hz), 121.99 (d, *J* = 3.2 Hz), 119.06, 116.43 (d, *J* = 21.2 Hz), 113.74 (d, *J* = 24.0 Hz), 85.12, 71.92, 55.90, 48.29 (d, *J* = 1.9 Hz), 25.21, 3.96.

HRMS TAPSI: [M+H] calcd for C₁₄H₁₃FNO₂: 246.0930. Found: 246.0922.

IR: 3078, 2997, 2947, 2924, 2856, 2359, 2339, 2245, 1764, 1755, 1747, 1614, 1593, 1489, 1442, 1381, 1371, 1224, 1180, 1155, 1139, 1101, 949, 887, 783, 667, 518, 484, 470, 422, 418.



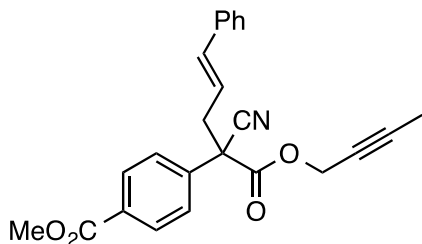
TL6-224

¹H NMR (500 MHz, CDCl₃): δ 8.60 (dd, *J* = 2.8, 0.7 Hz, 1H), 7.85 (dd, *J* = 8.4, 2.8 Hz, 1H), 7.42 (dd, *J* = 8.5, 0.7 Hz, 1H), 4.80 – 4.72 (m, 2H), 2.02 (s, 3H), 1.84 (t, *J* = 2.4 Hz, 3H).

¹³C NMR (126 MHz, CDCl₃): δ 166.75, 152.72, 147.74, 137.01, 130.70, 124.93, 118.12, 85.51, 71.67, 56.29, 46.34, 25.04, 4.01.

HRMS TAPSI: [M+H] calcd for C₁₃H₁₂ClN₂O₂: 263.0587. Found: 263.0580.

IR: 3093, 3063, 2997, 2949, 2922, 2877, 2856, 2324, 2245, 1747, 1732, 1714, 1697, 1680, 1668, 1583, 1564, 1454, 1446, 1433, 1417, 1373, 1217, 1298, 1222, 1155, 1112, 1068, 1016, 947, 412.



TL7-083

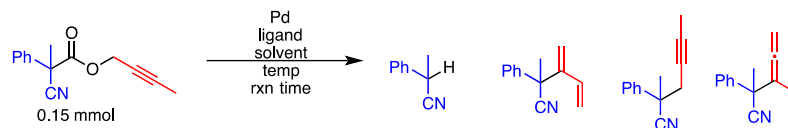
¹H NMR (500 MHz, CDCl₃): δ 8.13 – 8.08 (m, 2H), 7.71 – 7.66 (m, 2H), 7.35 – 7.22 (m, 5H), 6.60 (d, *J* = 15.8 Hz, 1H), 6.11 (dt, *J* = 15.7, 7.4 Hz, 1H), 4.75 (p, *J* = 2.3 Hz, 2H), 3.94 (s, 3H), 3.32 (ddd, *J* = 14.0, 7.7, 1.2 Hz, 1H), 3.03 (ddd, *J* = 13.9, 7.1, 1.3 Hz, 1H), 1.76 (t, *J* = 2.3 Hz, 3H).

¹³C NMR (126 MHz, CDCl₃): δ 166.53, 166.48, 138.64, 136.95, 136.63, 131.24, 130.73, 128.88, 128.33, 126.87, 126.81, 121.26, 117.65, 85.14, 71.91, 55.91, 54.77, 52.74, 42.20, 3.91.

HRMS TAPSI: [M+H] calcd for C₂₄H₂₂NO₄: 388.1549. Found: 388.1543.

IR: 3082, 3061, 3028, 3003, 2953, 2922, 2850, 2243, 1747, 1728 1716, 1610, 1575, 1496, 1435, 1410, 1371, 1317, 1282, 1246, 1211, 1161, 1112, 1072, 1020, 968, 933, 547, 536, 489, 472, 424.

Dienylation Reaction Optimization:

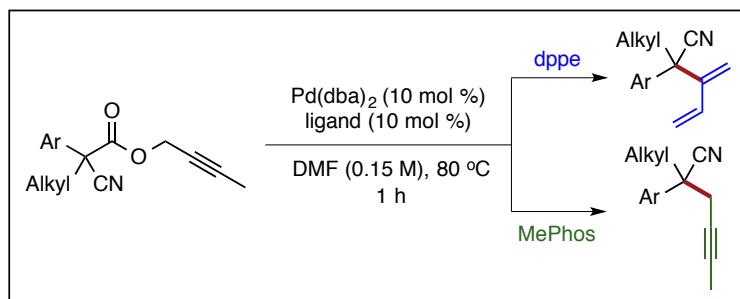


cat.	mol %	ligand	mol %	additive	mol%	solvent	mL	temp	time	sm %	A%	B%	C% and D%
Pd(dba) ₂	10	MePhos	10	---	---	DMF	0.5	40	1h	37	18	22	23
Pd(dba) ₂	2.5	MePhos	2.5	---	---	DMF	0.5	80	1h	58	20	6	16
Pd ₂ (dba) ₃	5	Dppe	10	---	---	DMF	0.5	100	1h	83	15	3	0
Pd(dba) ₂	10	Dppe	10	---	---	DMF	0.5	100	6h	0	5	83	12
Pd(dba) ₂	2.5	Dppe	2.5	---	---	DMF	0.5	100	6h	88	11	1	0
Pd(dba) ₂	10	dppe	10	---	---	DMF	1	150mw	10m	0	17	69	14 37% yield
Pd(dba) ₂	10	dppe	10	---	---	DMF	1	150mw	4m	0	15	71	14 30% GC/MS yield w xylene
Pd(dba) ₂	10	dppe	10	---	---	DMF	1	150mw	1m	0	13	73	14 40% isolated yield
Pd(dba) ₂	10	dppe	10	---	---	DMF	1	100mw	5m	72	11	16	2
Pd(dba) ₂	10	dppe	10	---	---	DMF	1	120mw	1m	0	5	86	10 40% by GC/MS yield w xylene
Pd(dba) ₂	10	dppe	10	NaHCO ₃	1	DMF	1	120mw	1m	23	7	62	8
Pd(dba) ₂	10	dppe	10	---	---	DMF	0.25	120mw	1m	68	10	13	9
Pd(dba) ₂	10	dppe	10	morphiline	1	DMF	1	100	4h	only	protonated	material	
Pd(dba) ₂	10	dppe	10	Bu ₂ NH	1	DMF	1	100	4h	0	77	23	0
Pd(dba) ₂	10	dppe	10	Bz ₂ NH	1	DMF	1	100	4h	0	74	23	2
Pd(dba) ₂	10	dppe	10	pyrrolidine	1	DMF	1	100	4h	0	61	39	0
Pd(dba) ₂	10	dppe	10	Azocane	1	DMF	1	100	4h	0	65	14	21
Pd(dba) ₂	10	dppe	10	iPr ₂ NH	1	DMF	1	100	4h	0	8	92	0
Pd(dba) ₂	10	dppe	10	TBD	1	DMF	1	100	4h	0	94	6	0
Pd(dba) ₂	10	dppe	10	K ₂ HPO ₄	1	DMF	1	100	4h	0	5	95	0
Pd(dba) ₂	10	dppe	10	NaHCO ₃	1	DMF	1	100	4h	0	11	89	0
Pd(dba) ₂	10	dppe	10	2,4,6-trimethylphenol	1	DMF	1	100	4h	0	40	60%	pdt w mass of 188
Pd(dba) ₂	10	dppe	10	2-nitroethanol	1	DMF	1	100	4h	0	38	0	0
Pd(dba) ₂	10	dppe	10	triFethanol	1	DMF	1	100	4h	very	Very	messy	
Pd(dba) ₂	10	dppe	10	2,6-tbu4mephol	1	DMF	1	100	4h	0	23	5	71
Pd(dba) ₂	10	dppe	10	2,6iPrphenol	1	DMF	1	100	4h	0	35	5	60
Pd(dba) ₂	10	dppe	10	benzoic acid	1	DMF	1	100	4h	48	47	0	5
Pd(dba) ₂	10	dppe	10	MeOH	1	DMF	1	100	4h	0	22	54	14
Pd(dba) ₂	10	dppe	10	H ₂ O	1	DMF	1	100	4h	0	61	39	0
Pd(dba) ₂	10	dppe	10	tbutanol	1	DMF	1	100	4h	0	8	92	0
Pd(dba) ₂	10	dppe	10	tbutanol	1	DMF	1	100	3h	0	50	50	0
Pd(dba) ₂	10	dppe	10	K ₂ HPO ₄	1	DMF	1	100	3h	59	19	22	0

GC/MS internal std 1:1 std:pdts/sm

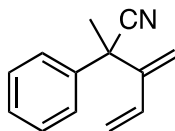
determined by GC/MS analysis

Experimental procedure for the dienylation and propargylation of cyanopropanoate derivatives:



In an oven or flamed dried Biotage microwave reaction vial (part no. 354624) equipped with a magnetic stir bar, catalyst (10 mol % Pd(dba)₂), ligand (10 mol % dppe or 10 mol % MePhos) were added under an argon atmosphere in a glovebox. The solid mixture was dissolved in 2 mL anhydrous DMF followed by addition of cyanopropanoate (0.3 mmol). The vessel was sealed, removed from the glovebox, and placed in a preheated oil bath at 80 °C for 1 hr. After reaction completion, the vessel was unsealed and the crude product was placed directly on silica gel for purification via column chromatography in 1%-10% EtOAc:Hexane.

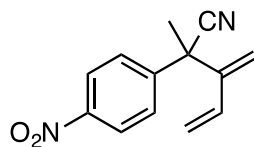
Characterization of dienylated and propargylated tertiary nitriles:



TL7-091

¹H NMR (500 MHz, CDCl₃): δ 7.46 – 7.30 (m, 5H), 6.09 (dd, *J* = 17.5, 11.2 Hz, 1H), 5.56 (s, 1H), 5.46 (s, 1H), 5.33 (d, *J* = 17.0 Hz, 1H), 5.11 (d, *J* = 11.1 Hz, 1H), 1.86 (s, 3H).

¹³C NMR (126 MHz, CDCl₃): δ 145.59, 139.59, 134.32, 129.31, 128.31, 126.34, 122.64, 118.41, 115.58, 77.11, 45.81, 27.60.



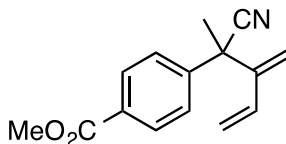
TL6-019

¹H NMR (500 MHz, CDCl₃): δ 8.27 – 8.22 (m, 2H), 7.66 – 7.59 (m, 2H), 6.09 (dd, *J* = 17.5, 11.2 Hz, 1H), 5.64 (s, 1H), 5.52 (s, 1H), 5.26 (d, *J* = 17.5 Hz, 1H), 5.14 (d, *J* = 11.2 Hz, 1H), 1.89 (s, 3H).

¹³C NMR (126 MHz, CDCl₃): δ 147.86, 146.86, 144.26, 133.82, 127.44, 124.58, 121.43, 119.16, 117.17, 45.62, 27.67.

HRMS: [M+H]⁺ calcd for C₁₃H₁₃N₂O₂: 229.0977. Found: 229.0977.

IR: 3109, 3082, 2991, 2943, 2858, 2237, 1633, 1604, 1595, 1531, 1519, 1494, 1462, 1454, 1427, 1410, 1392, 1346, 1317, 1296, 1209, 1188, 1153, 1112, 1085, 1066, 1014, 989, 923, 862, 559, 420.



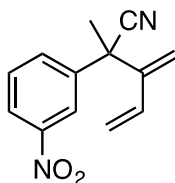
TL6-018

¹H NMR (500 MHz, CDCl₃): δ 8.10 – 8.00 (m, 2H), 7.56 – 7.46 (m, 2H), 6.07 (dd, *J* = 17.7, 11.0 Hz, 1H), 5.58 (s, 1H), 5.47 (s, 1H), 5.27 (d, *J* = 17.5 Hz, 1H), 5.10 (d, *J* = 11.2 Hz, 1H), 3.92 (s, 3H), 1.86 (s, 3H).

¹³C NMR (126 MHz, CDCl₃): δ 166.66, 144.86, 144.58, 134.05, 130.21, 126.38, 121.98, 118.71, 116.38, 52.55, 45.71, 27.54.

HRMS: [M+H]⁺ calcd for C₁₅H₁₅NO₂: 242.1181. Found: 242.1162.

IR: 3095, 2991, 2953, 2926, 2848, 2237, 1728, 1714, 1633, 1608, 1597, 1575, 1454, 1435, 1410, 1392, 1373, 1313, 1282, 1190, 1151, 1114, 1087, 1018, 989, 966, 920, 476, 432, 420.



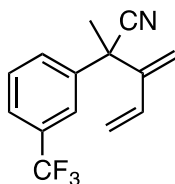
TL6-247

¹H NMR (500 MHz, CDCl₃): δ 8.24 (t, *J* = 2.0 Hz, 1H), 8.21 (ddd, *J* = 8.1, 2.2, 1.0 Hz, 1H), 7.85 (ddd, *J* = 7.8, 2.0, 1.0 Hz, 1H), 7.61 (t, *J* = 8.0 Hz, 1H), 6.09 (dd, *J* = 17.5, 11.2 Hz, 1H), 5.65 (s, 1H), 5.54 (s, 1H), 5.30 (d, *J* = 17.5 Hz, 1H), 5.15 (d, *J* = 11.2 Hz, 1H), 1.92 (s, 3H).

¹³C NMR (126 MHz, CDCl₃): δ 149.01, 144.32, 142.04, 133.70, 132.66, 130.50, 123.55, 121.52, 121.40, 119.24, 117.12, 45.53, 27.53.

HRMS TAPSI: [M+H] calcd for C₁₃H₁₃N₂O₂: 229.0977. Found: 229.0972.

IR: 3091, 3076, 2989, 2928, 2874, 2237, 1631, 1612, 1593, 1583, 1531, 1479, 1456, 1433, 1352, 1309, 1290, 1211, 1107, 989, 920, 671, 632, 611, 592, 567, 545, 489, 420.



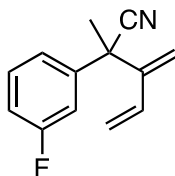
TL6-052

¹H NMR (500 MHz, CDCl₃): δ 7.69 – 7.63 (m, 2H), 7.62 – 7.57 (m, 1H), 7.53 (tt, *J* = 7.7, 0.8 Hz, 1H), 6.08 (dd, *J* = 17.5, 11.1 Hz, 1H), 5.62 (s, 1H), 5.50 (s, 1H), 5.30 (d, *J* = 17.4 Hz, 1H), 5.14 (d, *J* = 11.1 Hz, 1H), 1.89 (s, 3H).

¹³C NMR (126 MHz, CDCl₃): δ 144.80, 140.85, 133.92, 131.82 (q, *J* = 32.6 Hz), 129.96, 129.93 (d, *J* = 1.4 Hz), 125.37 (q, *J* = 3.8 Hz), 124.08 (q, *J* = 273.0 Hz), 123.12 (q, *J* = 3.8 Hz), 121.91, 118.95, 116.54, 45.66, 27.62.

HRMS: [M+H]⁺ calcd for C₁₅H₁₃F₃NO₂: 296.0898. Found: 296.0868.

IR: 3102, 2990, 2936, 2851, 2500, 2241, 1599, 1493, 1441, 1329, 1287, 1202, 1169, 1128, 1072, 914, 804, 706, 662.



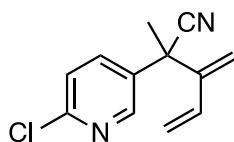
TL7-087

¹H NMR (500 MHz, CDCl₃): δ 7.37 (td, *J* = 8.0, 5.9 Hz, 1H), 7.28 – 7.24 (m, 1H), 7.11 (dt, *J* = 10.0, 2.2 Hz, 1H), 7.03 (tdd, *J* = 8.2, 2.5, 0.9 Hz, 1H), 6.09 (dd, *J* = 17.5, 11.2 Hz, 1H), 5.58 (s, 1H), 5.47 (s, 1H), 5.33 (d, *J* = 17.5 Hz, 1H), 5.13 (d, *J* = 11.2 Hz, 1H), 1.86 (s, 3H).

¹³C NMR (126 MHz, CDCl₃): δ 163.02 (d, *J* = 247.5 Hz), 144.74, 141.89 (d, *J* = 7.2 Hz), 133.73, 130.60 (d, *J* = 8.3 Hz), 121.79, 121.77, 118.38, 115.76, 115.11 (d, 20.9 Hz), 113.37 (d, 23.5 Hz), 45.25, 27.20.

HRMS TAPSI: [M+H] calcd for C₁₃H₁₃FN: 202.1032. Found: 202.1024.

IR: 3091, 3063, 2989, 2926, 2852, 2237, 1614, 1591, 1487, 1440, 1392, 1379, 1273, 1251, 1172, 1159, 1145, 1093, 1074, 987, 923, 879, 750, 644, 501, 472, 457, 449, 428, 401.



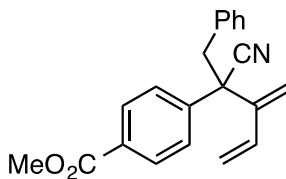
TL7-086

¹H NMR (500 MHz, CDCl₃): δ 8.45 (dd, *J* = 2.8, 0.7 Hz, 1H), 7.70 (dd, *J* = 8.4, 2.7 Hz, 1H), 7.36 (dd, *J* = 8.5, 0.8 Hz, 1H), 6.09 (dd, *J* = 17.3, 11.0 Hz, 1H), 5.62 (s, 1H), 5.49 (s, 1H), 5.32 (d, *J* = 17.5 Hz, 1H), 5.18 (d, *J* = 11.2 Hz, 1H), 1.89 (s, 3H).

¹³C NMR (126 MHz, CDCl₃) δ 151.69, 147.91, 144.14, 137.13, 134.57, 133.56, 124.82, 121.20, 119.40, 116.87, 43.57, 27.37.

HRMS TAPSI: [M+H] calcd for C₁₂H₁₂ClN: 219.0684. Found: 219.0677.

IR: 3095, 3055, 2989, 2926, 2850, 2237, 1633, 1583, 1562, 1462, 1456, 1371, 1141, 1111, 1016, 987, 918, 553, 476, 455, 420, 403.



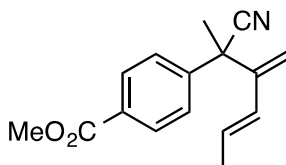
TL7-077

¹H NMR (500 MHz, CDCl₃): δ 8.00 – 7.96 (m, 2H), 7.34 – 7.29 (m, 2H), 7.25 – 7.14 (m, 3H), 6.92 – 6.87 (m, 2H), 6.09 (dd, *J* = 17.5, 11.2 Hz, 1H), 5.66 (s, 1H), 5.55 (s, 1H), 5.33 (d, *J* = 17.4 Hz, 1H), 5.12 (d, *J* = 11.2 Hz, 1H), 3.93 (s, 3H), 3.55 (d, *J* = 12.9 Hz, 1H), 3.28 (d, *J* = 12.9 Hz, 1H).

¹³C NMR (126 MHz, CDCl₃): δ 166.77, 144.45, 142.42, 134.52, 134.18, 130.84, 130.24, 130.21, 128.30, 127.78, 127.43, 120.45, 118.81, 116.57, 52.58, 52.29, 44.23.

HRMS TAPSI: [M+H] calcd for C₂₁H₂₀NO₂: 318.1494. Found: 318.1479.

IR: 3063, 3032, 2951, 2359, 2341, 2239, 1732, 1714, 1681, 1633, 1608, 1573, 1496, 1454, 1435, 1410, 1313, 1284, 1240, 1188, 1159, 1112, 1085, 1020, 989, 964, 920, 667, 557, 439.



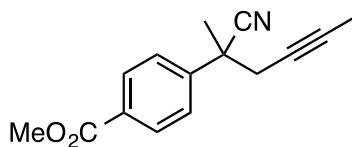
TL6-289

¹H NMR (500 MHz, CDCl₃): δ 8.08 – 8.02 (m, 2H), 7.54 – 7.48 (m, 2H), 5.85 – 5.71 (m, 2H), 5.46 (s, 1H), 5.33 (s, 1H), 3.93 (s, 3H), 1.85 (s, 3H), 1.64 (d, *J* = 5.5 Hz, 3H).

¹³C NMR:

HRMS TAPSI: [M+H] calcd for C₁₆H₁₈NO₂: 256.1338. Found: 256.1328.

IR: 3059, 3989, 253, 2887, 2850, 2237, 1766, 1726, 1608, 1573, 1508, 1435, 1410, 1371, 1315, 1280, 1190, 1114, 1060, 1018, 964, 750, 551, 437, 424.



TL6-236

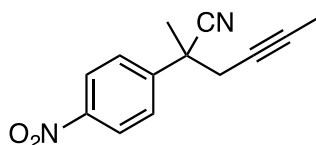
Impure with 23% methyl 4-acetylbenzoate

¹H NMR (500 MHz, CDCl₃): δ 8.09 – 8.04 (m, 2H), 7.61 – 7.53 (m, 2H), 3.93 (s, 3H), 2.75 (qq, *J* = 16.6, 7.6, 2.5 Hz, 2H), 1.83 (s, 3H), 1.78 (t, *J* = 2.5 Hz, 3H).

¹³C NMR (126 MHz, CDCl₃): δ 166.74, 144.43, 130.41, 128.53, 126.14, 122.80, 80.97, 73.00, 52.61, 42.51, 33.18, 26.07, 3.82.

HRMS TAPSI: [M+H] calcd for C₁₅H₁₆NO₂: 242.1181. Found: 242.1172.

IR: 2989, 2953, 2922, 2850, 2239, 1728, 1716, 1693, 1612, 1573, 1435, 1410, 1315, 1282, 1192, 1114, 1018, 964, 750, 536, 437, 430, 412, 401.



TL6-253

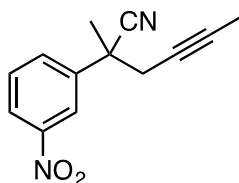
95% pure

¹H NMR (500 MHz, CDCl₃): δ 8.29 – 8.24 (m, 2H), 7.71 – 7.65 (m, 2H), 2.80 (q, *J* = 2.5 Hz, 2H), 1.85 (s, 3H), 1.77 (t, *J* = 2.5 Hz, 3H).

¹³C NMR (126 MHz, CDCl₃): δ 147.95, 146.49, 127.30, 124.33, 122.25, 81.53, 72.49, 42.47, 33.13, 26.11, 3.79.

HRMS TAPSI: [M+H] calcd for C₁₃H₁₃N₂O₂: 229.0977. Found: 229.0967.

IR: 3082, 2987, 2939, 2922, 2856, 2239, 1693, 1604, 1599, 1519, 1496, 1454, 1435, 1410, 1379, 1346, 1319, 1298, 1273, 1190, 1112, 1093, 1062, 1014, 858.



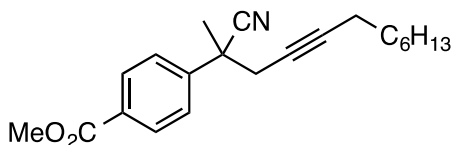
MLM-1-088

¹H NMR (500 MHz, CDCl₃): δ 8.36 (t, *J* = 2.0 Hz, 1H), 8.24 (ddd, *J* = 8.2, 2.2, 1.0 Hz, 1H), 7.90 (ddd, *J* = 7.9, 2.0, 1.0 Hz, 1H), 7.62 (t, *J* = 8.04 Hz, 1H), 2.81 (q, *J* = 2.5 Hz, 2H), 1.88 (s, 3H), 1.78 (t, *J* = 2.5 Hz, 3H).

¹³C NMR (126 MHz, CDCl₃): δ 148.78, 141.66, 132.60, 130.26, 123.65, 122.34, 121.20, 81.75, 72.52, 42.13, 33.32, 25.96, 3.81.

GC/MS: calc: 228.3. Found 228.1.

IR: 3363, 3242, 3208, 3165, 3090, 2987, 2918, 2848, 2252, 2239, 1531, 1454, 1435, 1352, 1271, 1111, 912.



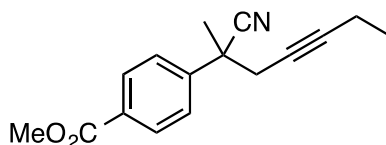
TL6-286

¹H NMR (500 MHz, CDCl₃): δ 8.09 – 8.03 (m, 2H), 7.59 – 7.53 (m, 2H), 3.92 (s, 3H), 2.78 (qt, *J* = 16.6, 3.0, 2.4 Hz, 2H), 2.11 (tt, *J* = 7.1, 2.4 Hz, 2H), 1.82 (s, 3H), 1.42 (p, *J* = 6.9 Hz, 2H), 1.34 – 1.17 (m, 8H), 0.88 (t, *J* = 7.1 Hz, 3H).

¹³C NMR (126 MHz, CDCl₃): δ 166.69, 144.43, 130.34, 130.27, 126.17, 122.76, 85.74, 73.84, 52.56, 42.53, 33.19, 32.03, 29.08, 28.99, 28.92, 26.04, 22.93, 18.88, 14.39.

HRMS TAPSI: [M-H] calcd for C₂₁H₂₈NO₂: 326.2120. Found: 326.2104.

IR: 2953, 2929, 2856, 2239, 1732, 1714, 1681, 1612, 1575, 1512, 1454, 1435, 1410, 1379, 1315, 1284, 1246, 1192, 1112, 1064, 1018, 966, 856, 472, 406, 399.



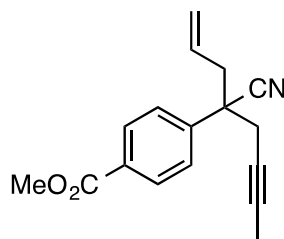
TL6-290

¹H NMR (500 MHz, CDCl₃): δ 8.12 – 7.99 (m, 2H), 7.62 – 7.52 (m, 2H), 3.93 (s, 3H), 2.76 (qt, *J* = 16.5, 4.6, 2.4 Hz, 2H), 2.14 (qt, *J* = 7.5, 2.4 Hz, 2H), 1.83 (s, 3H), 1.08 (t, *J* = 7.5 Hz, 3H).

¹³C NMR (126 MHz, CDCl₃): δ 166.73, 144.41, 130.35, 130.30, 126.18, 122.76, 87.03, 73.27, 52.58, 42.51, 33.19, 25.94, 14.19, 12.63.

HRMS TAPSI: [M+H] calcd for C₁₆H₁₈NO₂: 256.1338. Found: 256.1326.

IR: 3061, 2980, 2953, 2939, 2918, 2879, 2847, 2239, 1934, 1805, 1732, 1714, 1612, 1575, 1552, 1512, 1454, 1435, 1410, 1379, 1317, 1284, 1192, 1114, 1062, 1018, 966, 943, 858, 547, 491, 449, 437.



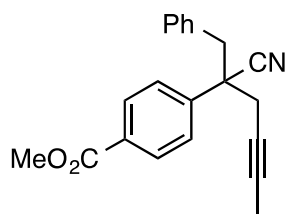
TL7-076

¹H NMR (500 MHz, CDCl₃): δ 8.11 – 8.04 (m, 2H), 7.60 – 7.51 (m, 2H), 5.65 (dddd, *J* = 17.1, 10.2, 7.5, 6.9 Hz, 1H), 5.25 – 5.10 (m, 2H), 3.93 (s, 3H), 2.96 – 2.69 (m, 4H), 1.76 (t, *J* = 2.5 Hz, 3H).

¹³C NMR (126 MHz, CDCl₃): δ 166.75, 142.65, 131.28, 130.34, 130.32, 126.76, 121.45, 121.22, 81.20, 72.76, 52.60, 47.68, 43.17, 31.06, 3.83.

HRMS TAPSI: [M+H] calcd for C₁₇H₁₈NO₂: 268.1338. Found: 268.1330.

IR: 3080, 2953, 2922, 2852, 2239, 1728, 1714, 1643, 1612, 1435, 1410, 1317, 1284, 1247, 1193, 1112, 1020, 993, 964, 929, 750, 545, 472, 406.



TL7-079

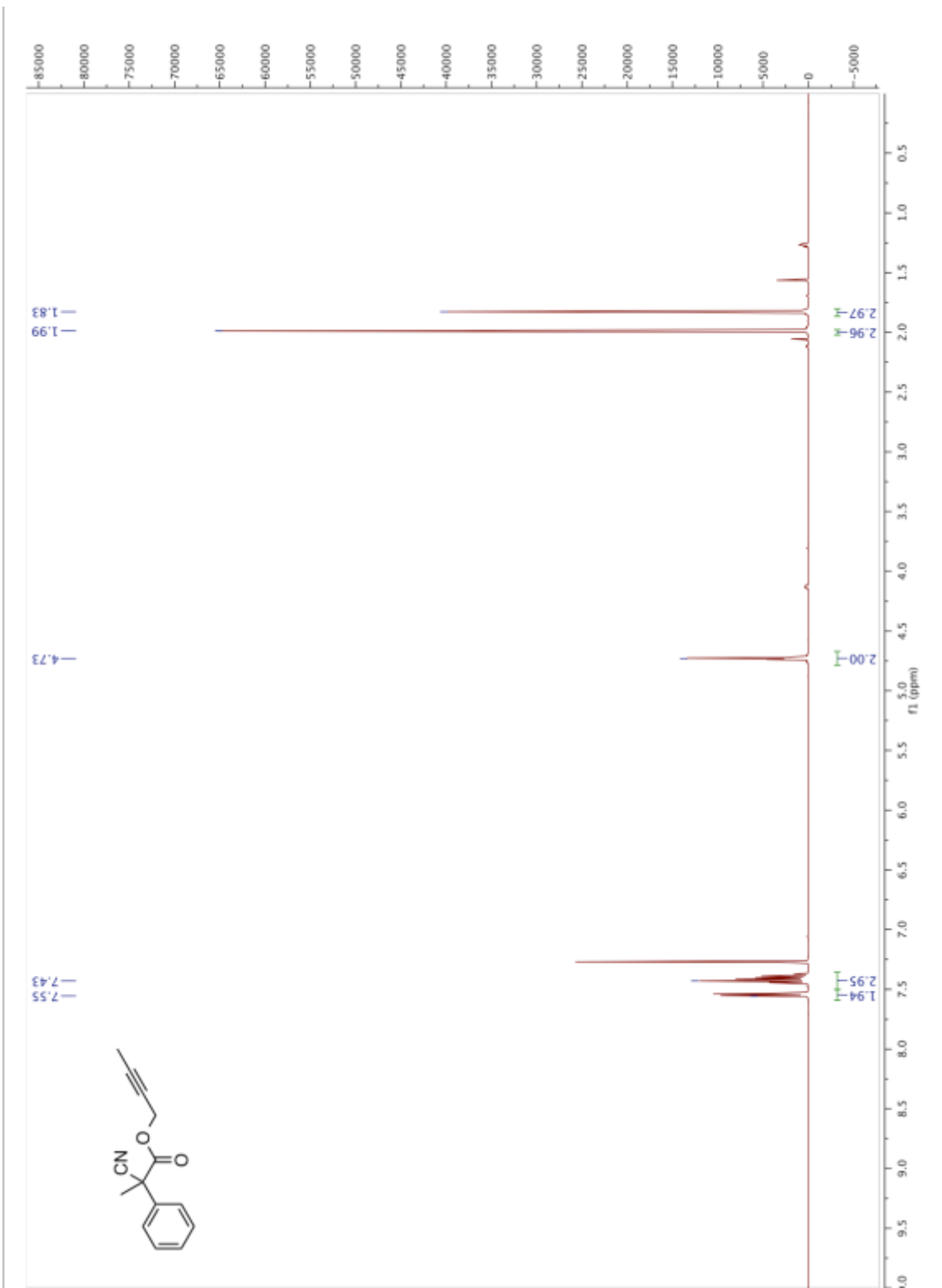
78% pure isolated with 22% protonated pdt

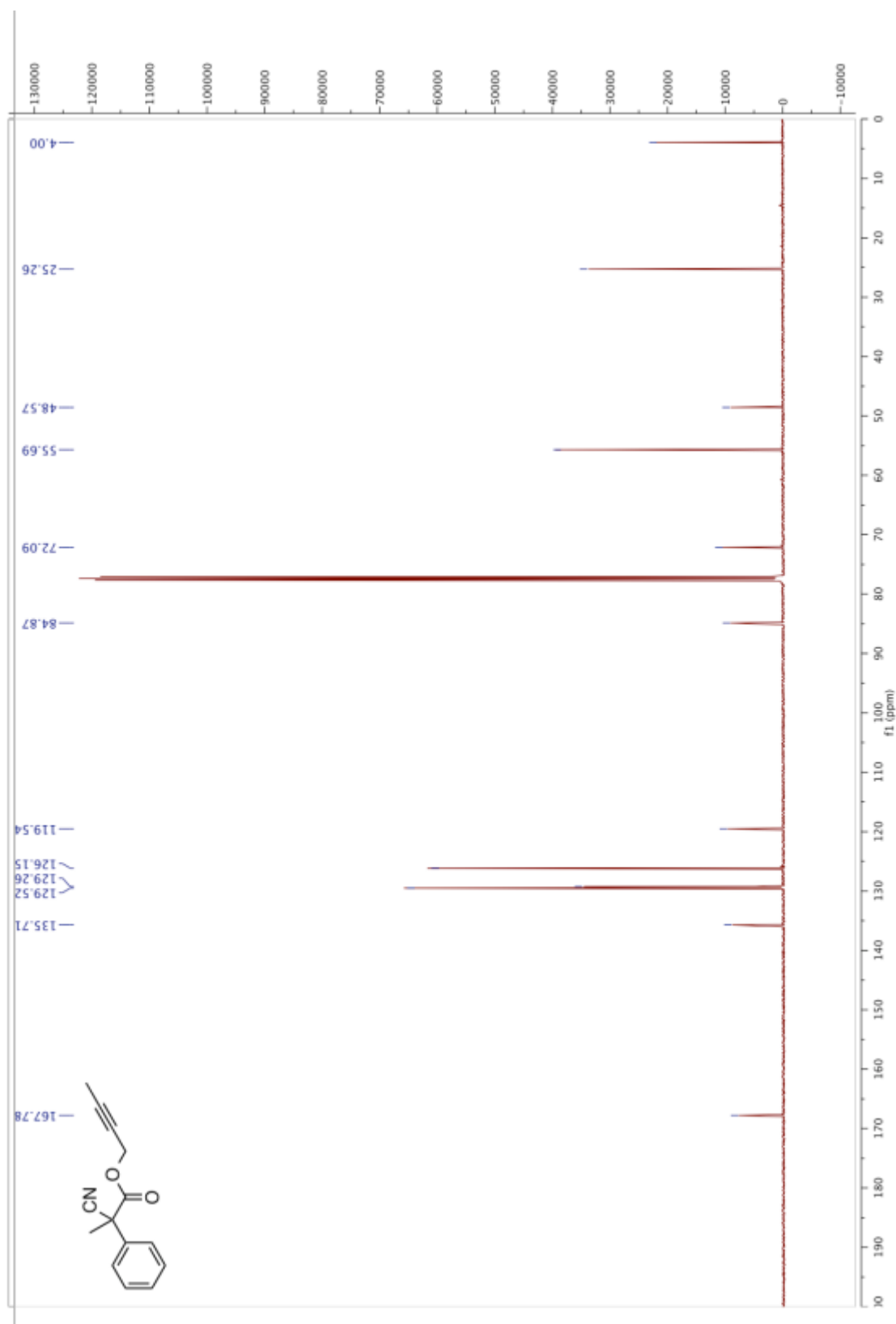
¹H NMR (500 MHz, CDCl₃): δ 8.07 – 8.02 (m, 2H), 7.49 – 7.44 (m, 2H), 7.26 – 7.20 (m, 3H), 7.06 – 7.01 (m, 2H), 3.95 (s, 3H), 3.42 (d, *J* = 13.5 Hz, 1H), 3.27 – 3.22 (m, 1H), 2.90 (qq, *J* = 16.6, 6.6, 2.6 Hz, 2H), 1.81 (t, *J* = 2.5 Hz, 3H).

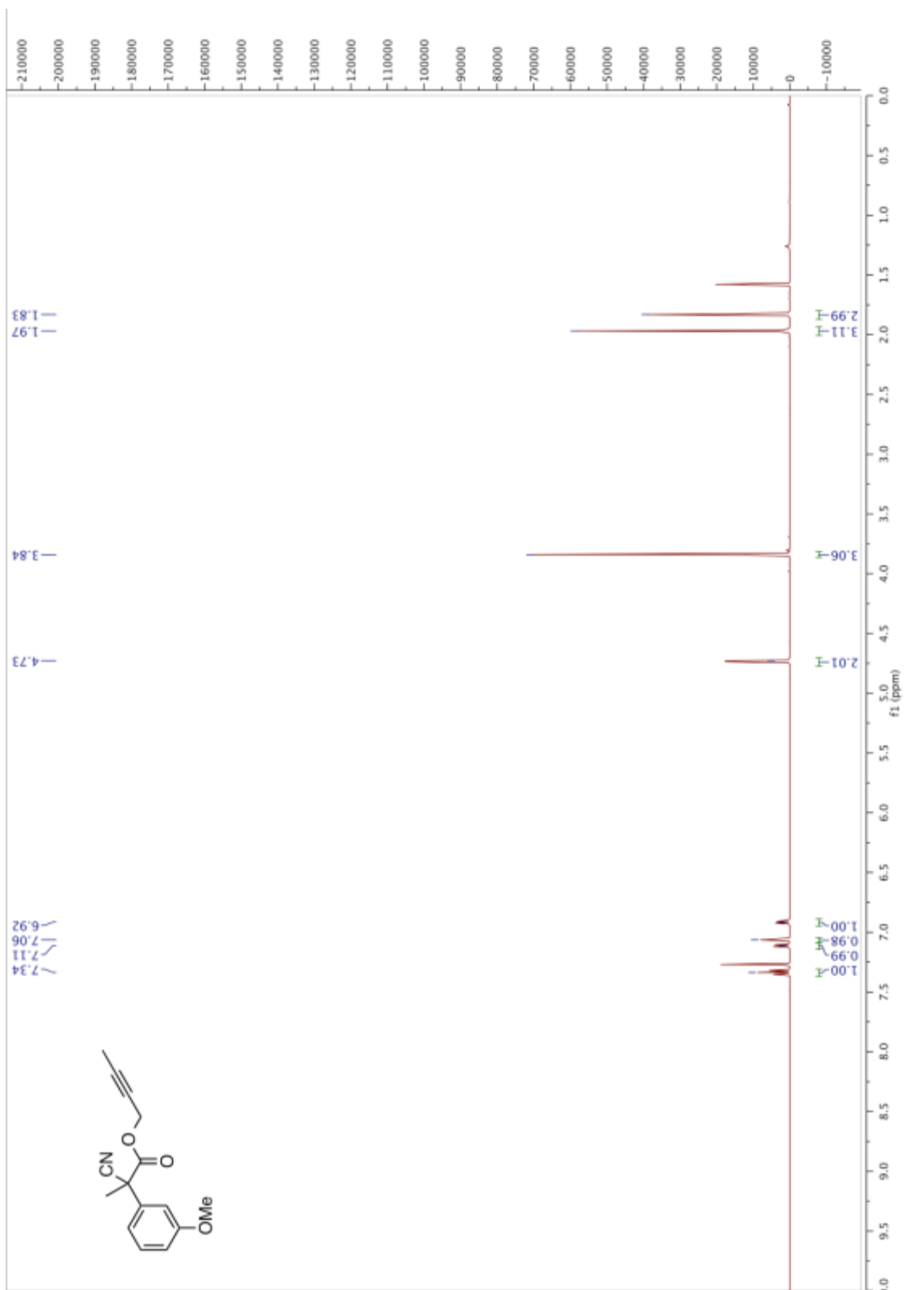
¹³C NMR (126 MHz, CDCl₃): δ 166.78, 142.60, 134.41, 130.62, 130.56, 130.15, 128.56, 127.89, 127.02, 121.49, 81.43, 73.02, 52.59, 49.08, 45.33, 30.15, 3.89.

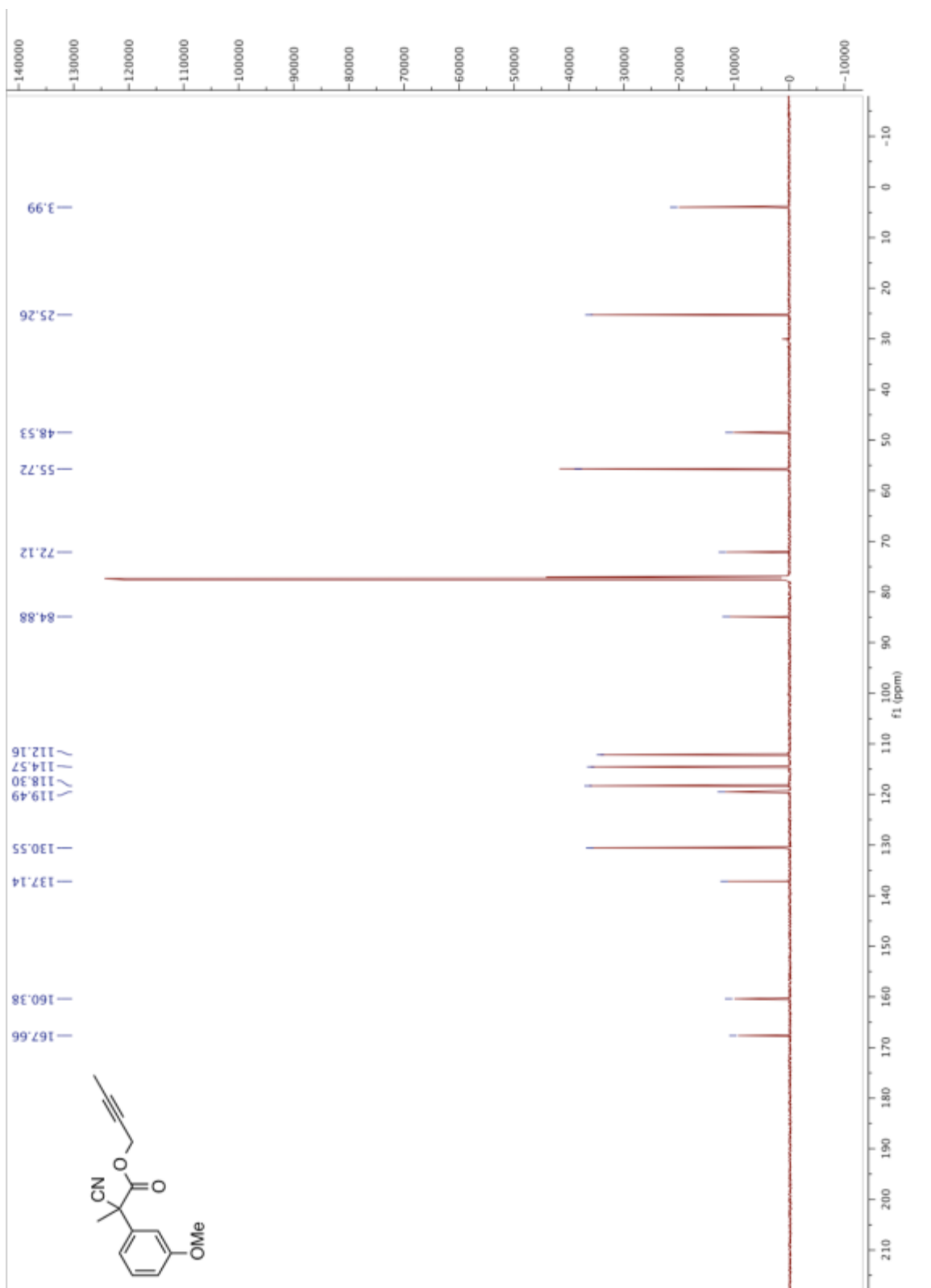
HRMS TAPSI: [M+H] calcd for C₂₁H₂₀NO₂: 318.1494. Found: 318.1489.

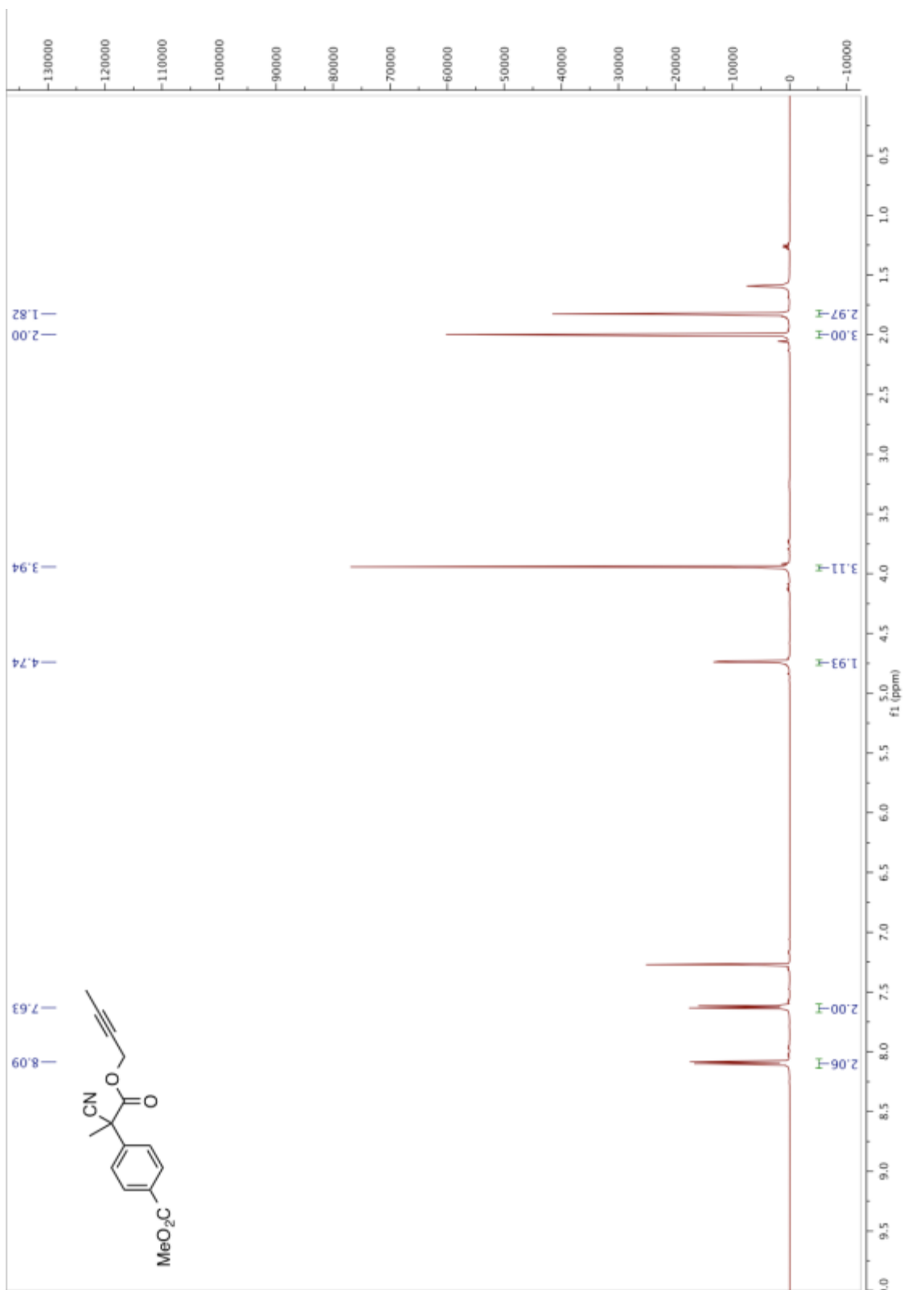
IR: 3063, 3032, 3005, 2953, 2922, 2854, 2241, 1722, 1716, 1610, 1573, 1496, 1454, 1454, 1435, 1410, 1317, 1282, 1192, 1112, 1087, 1020, 966, 856, 547, 516, 474, 461, 435, 412.

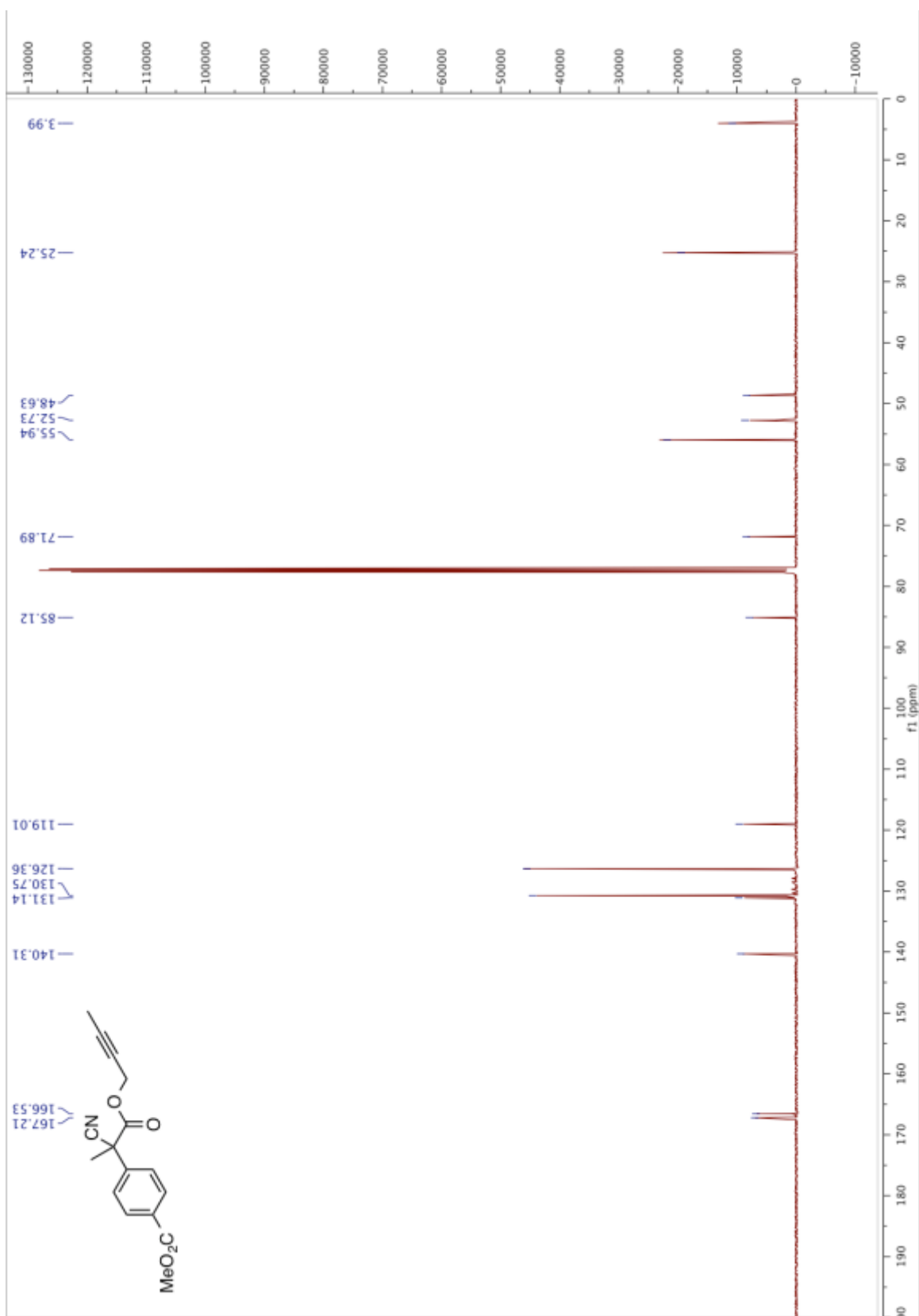


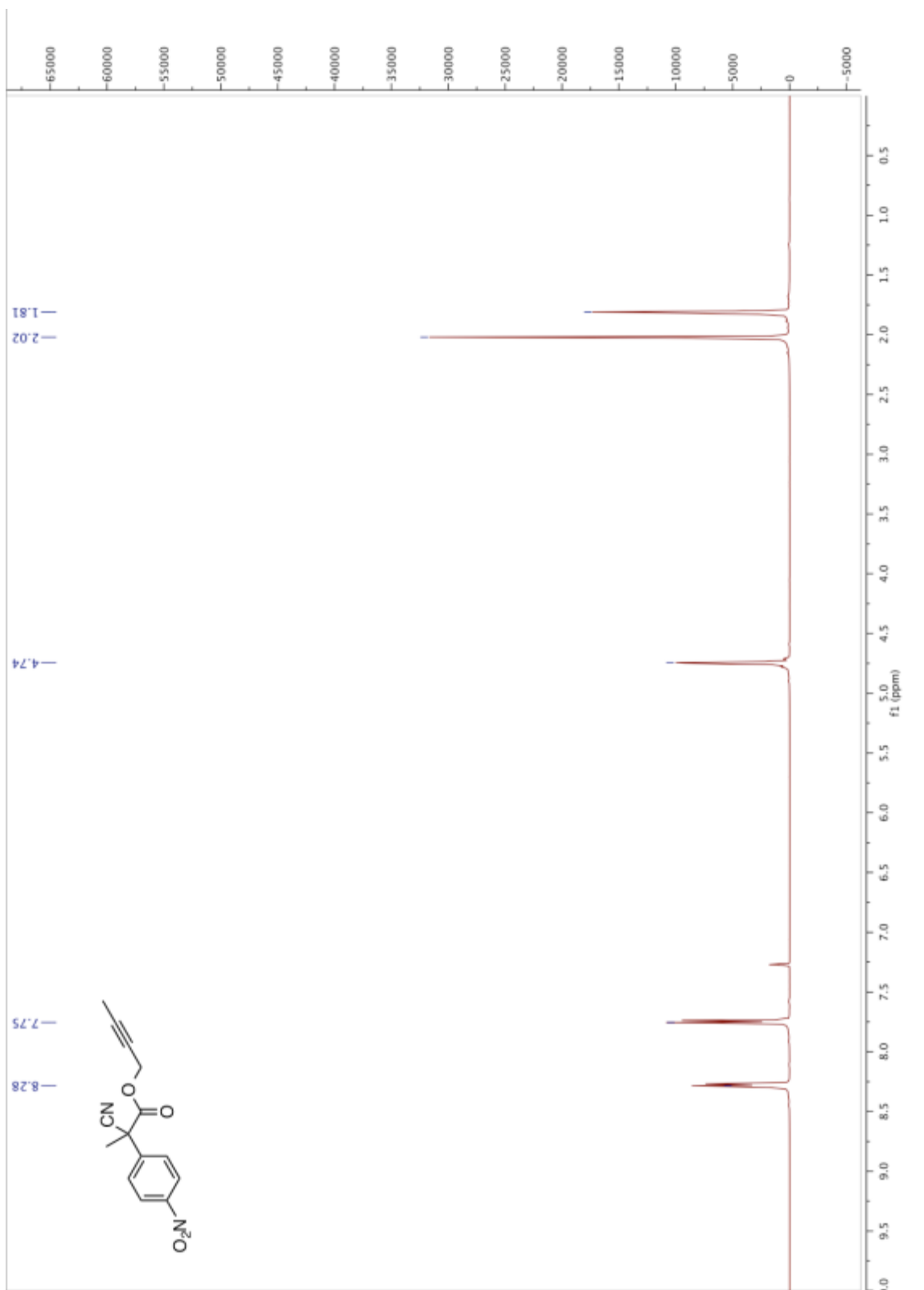


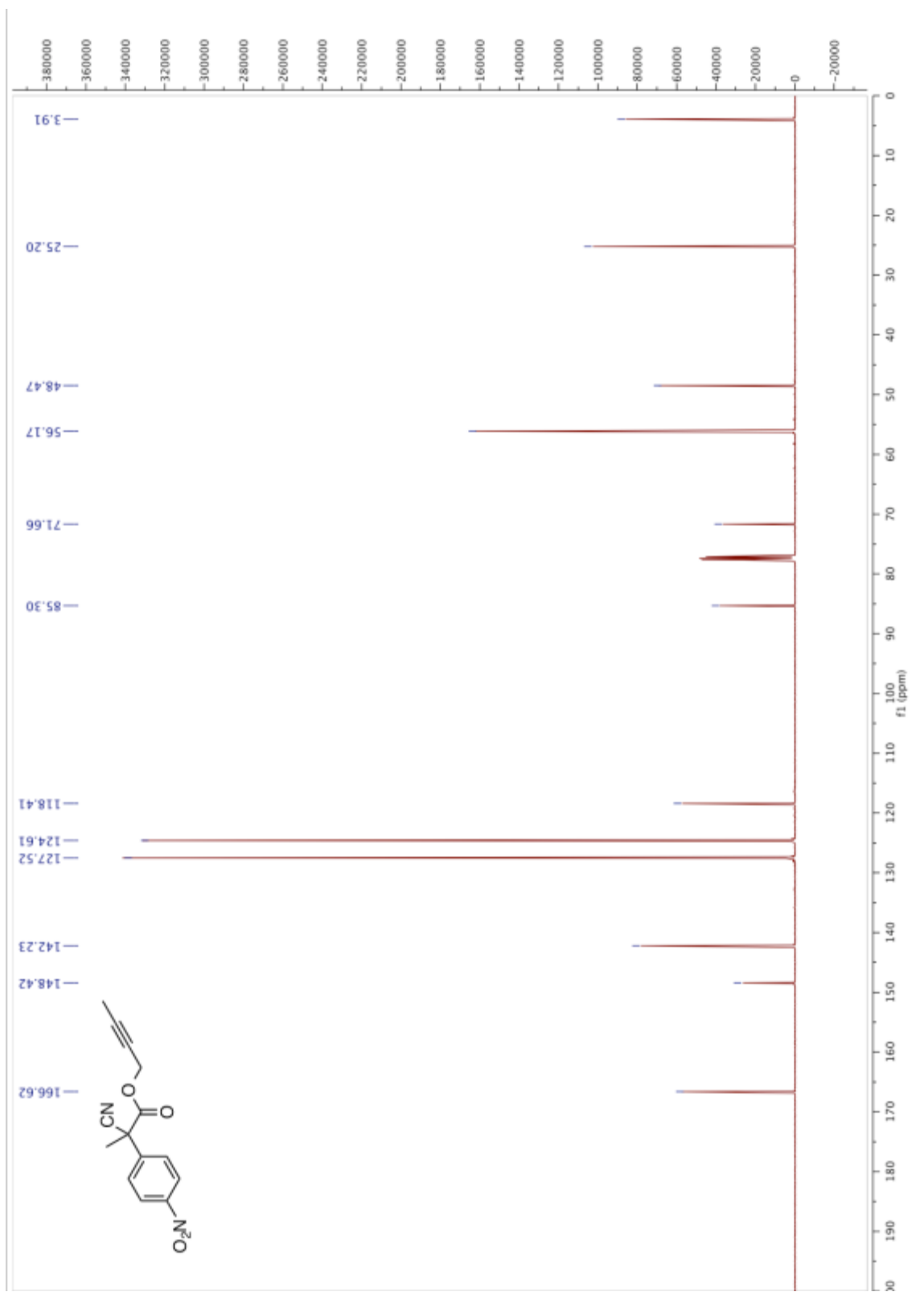


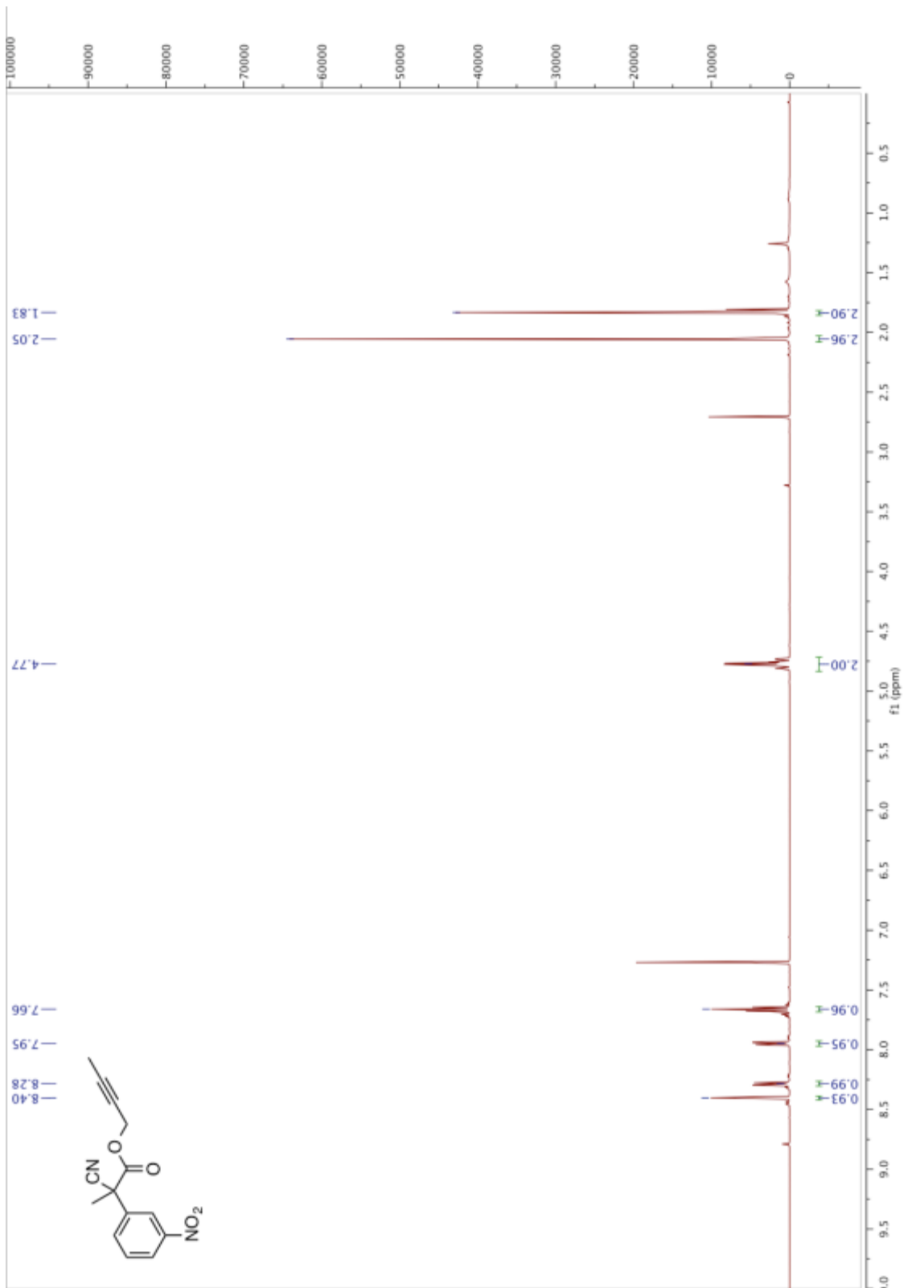


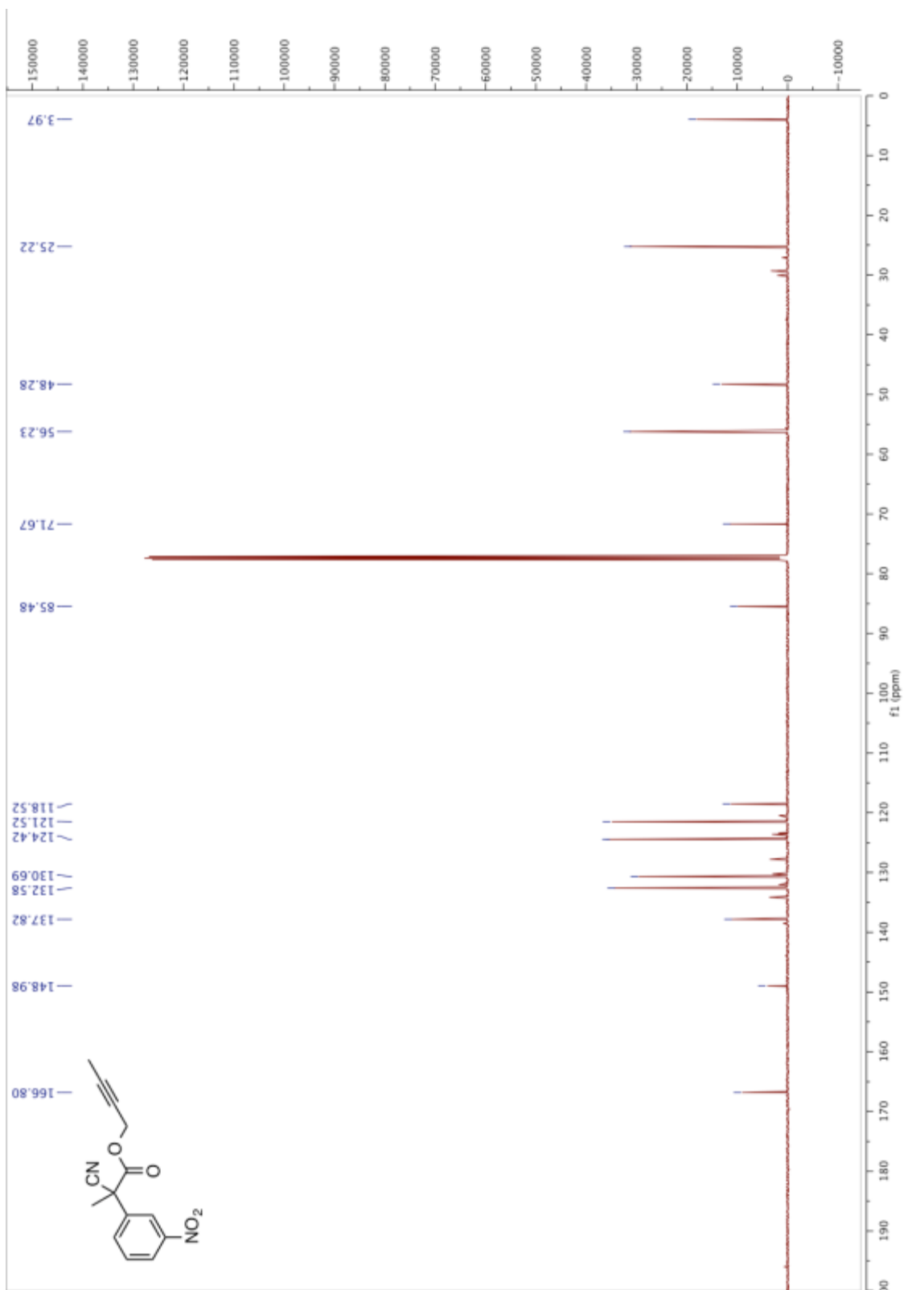


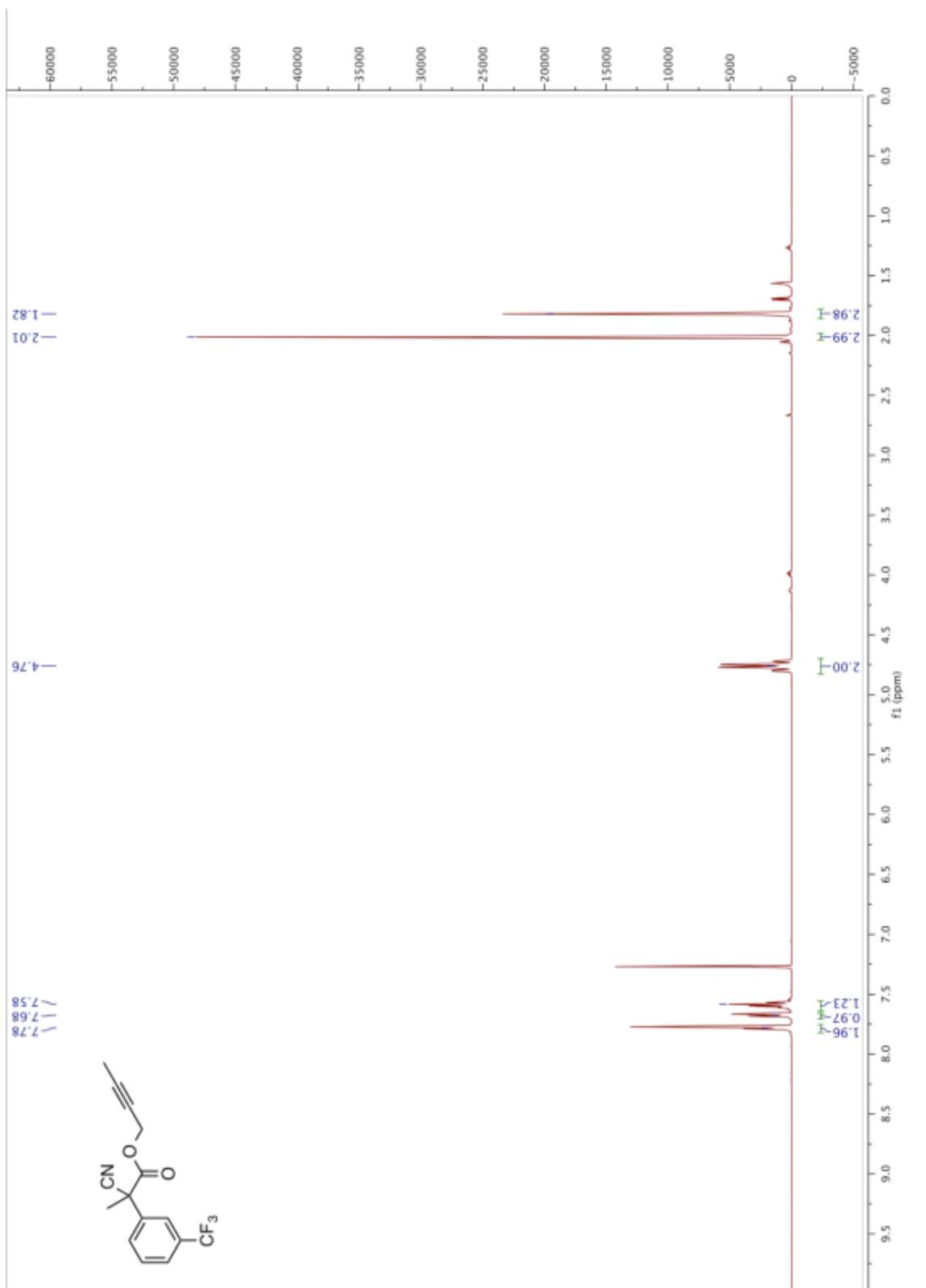


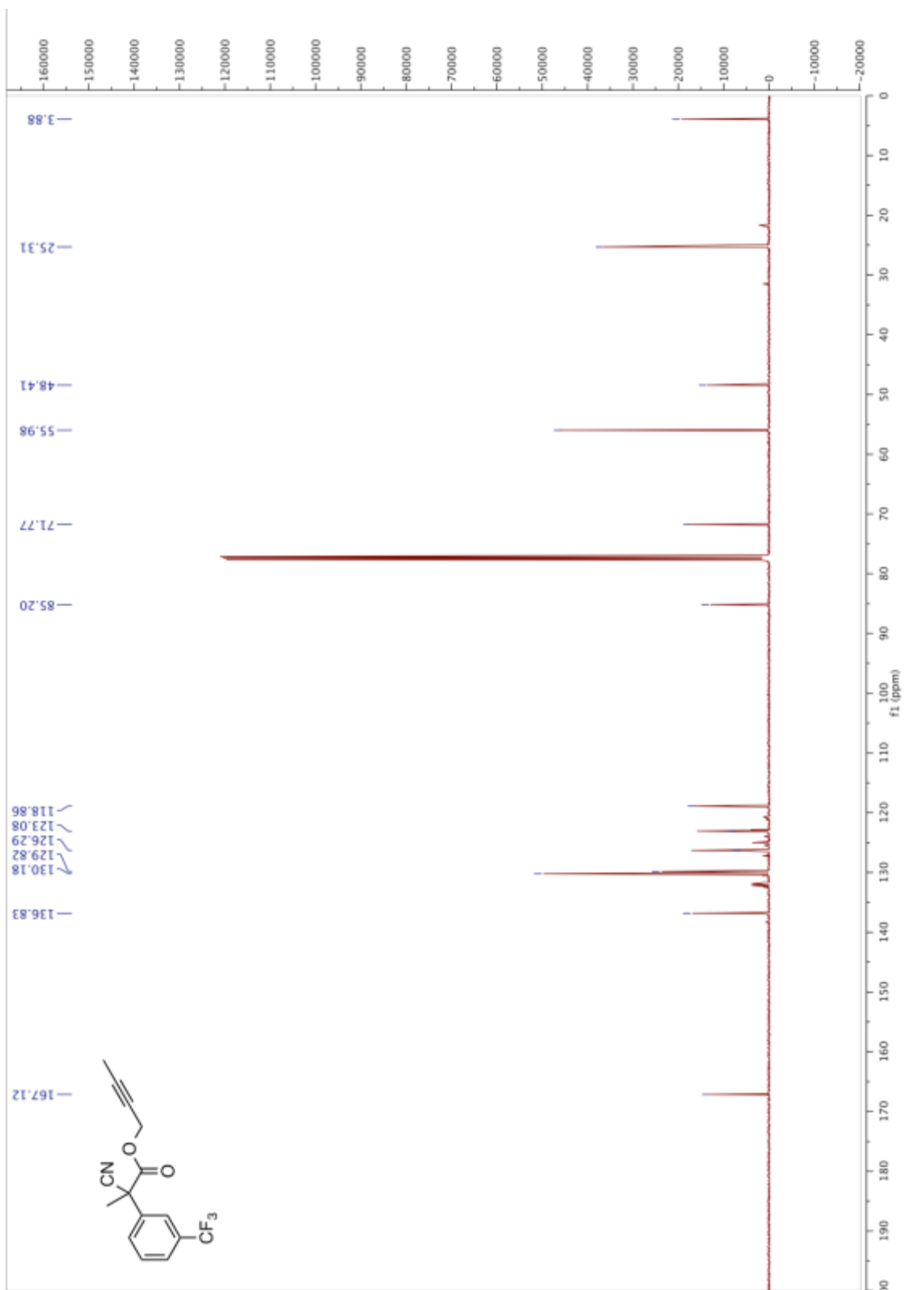


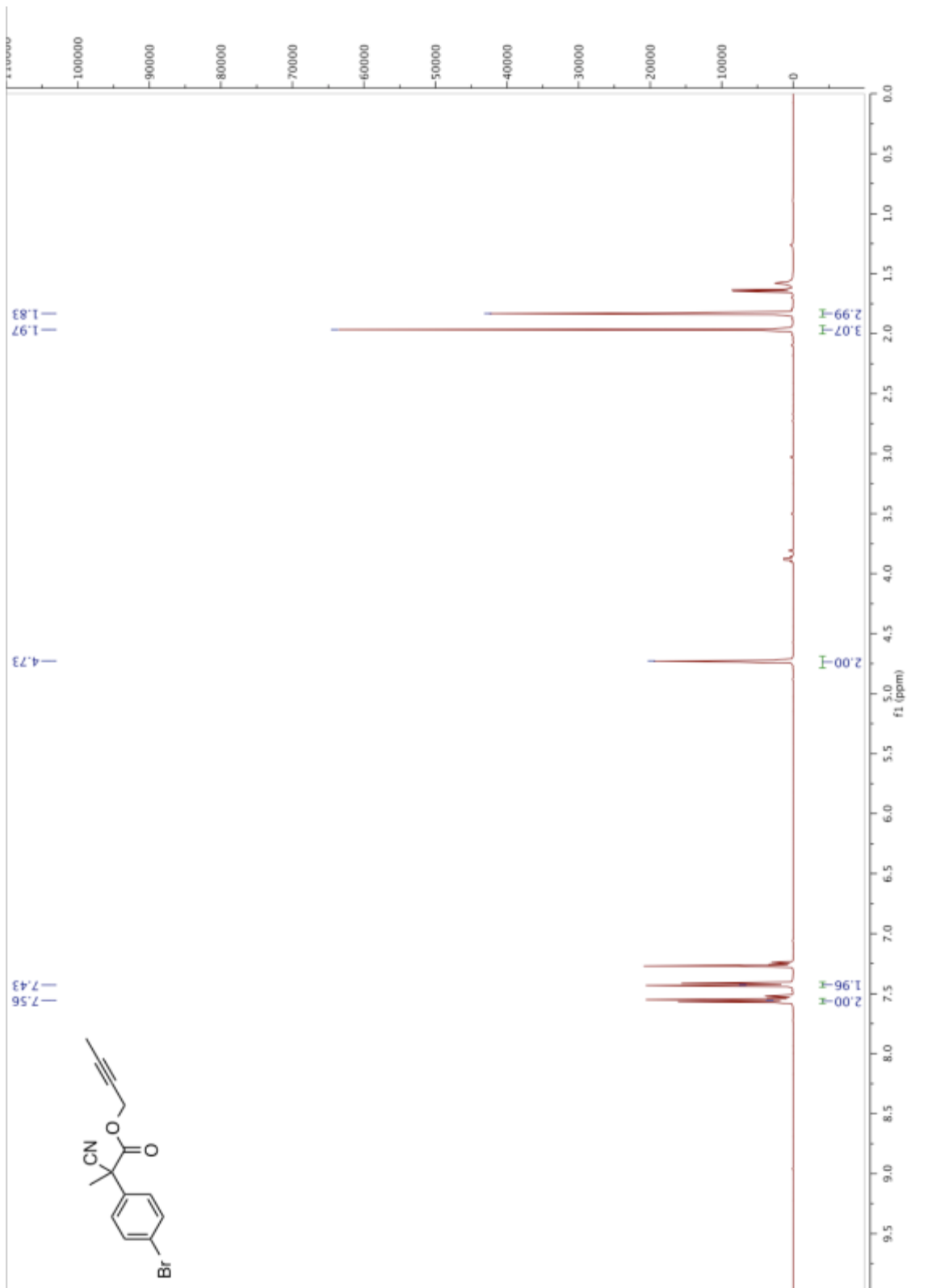


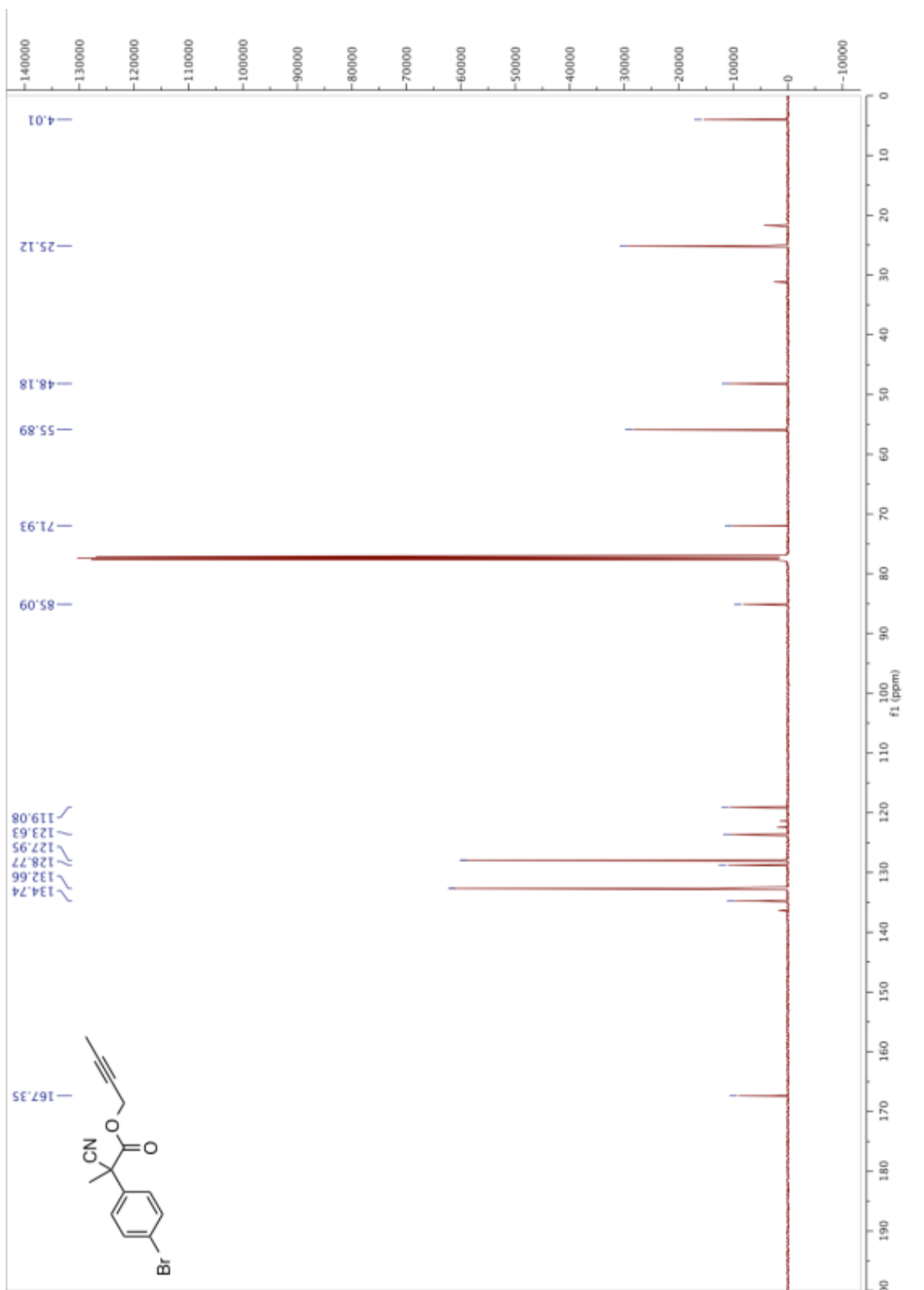


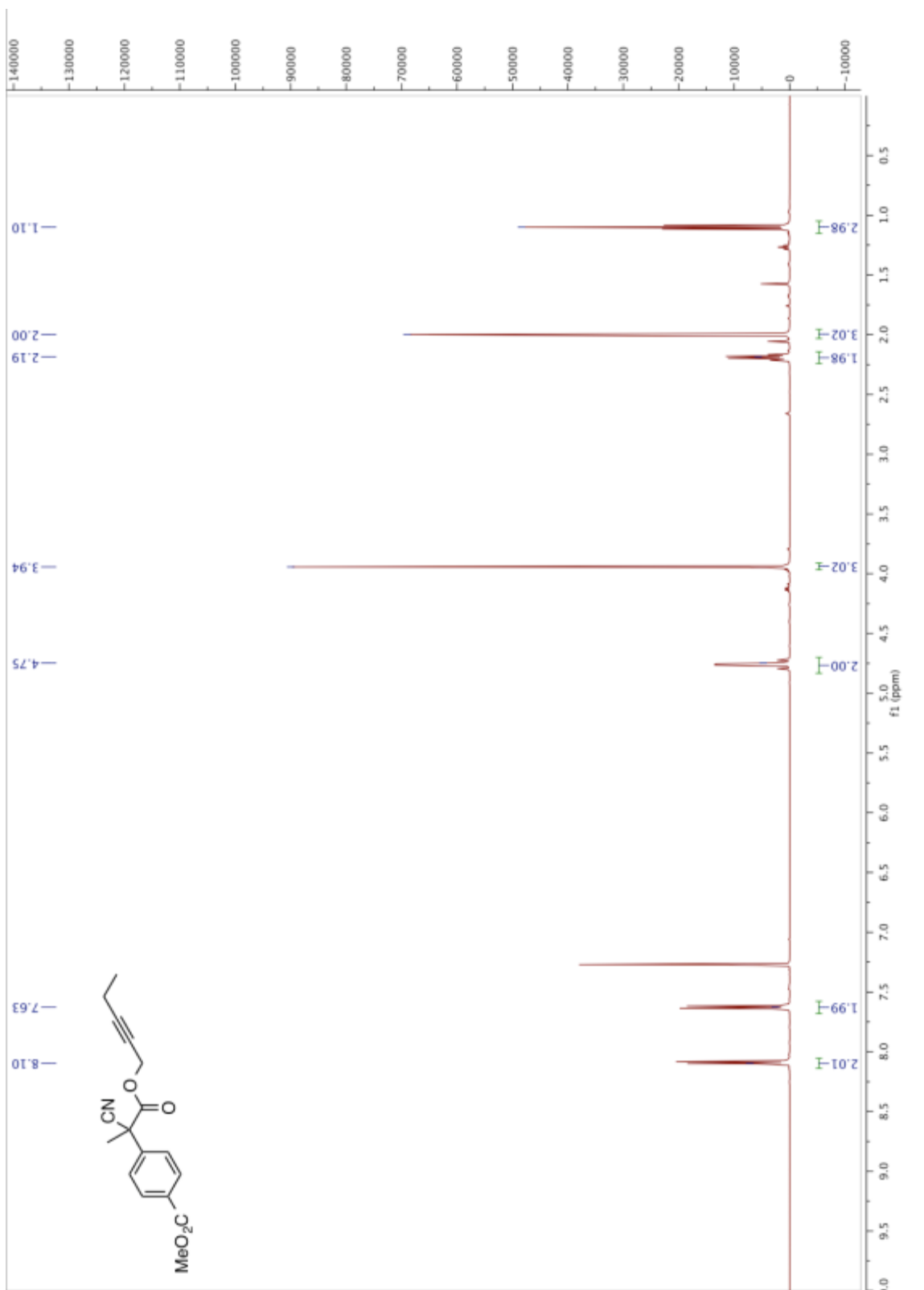


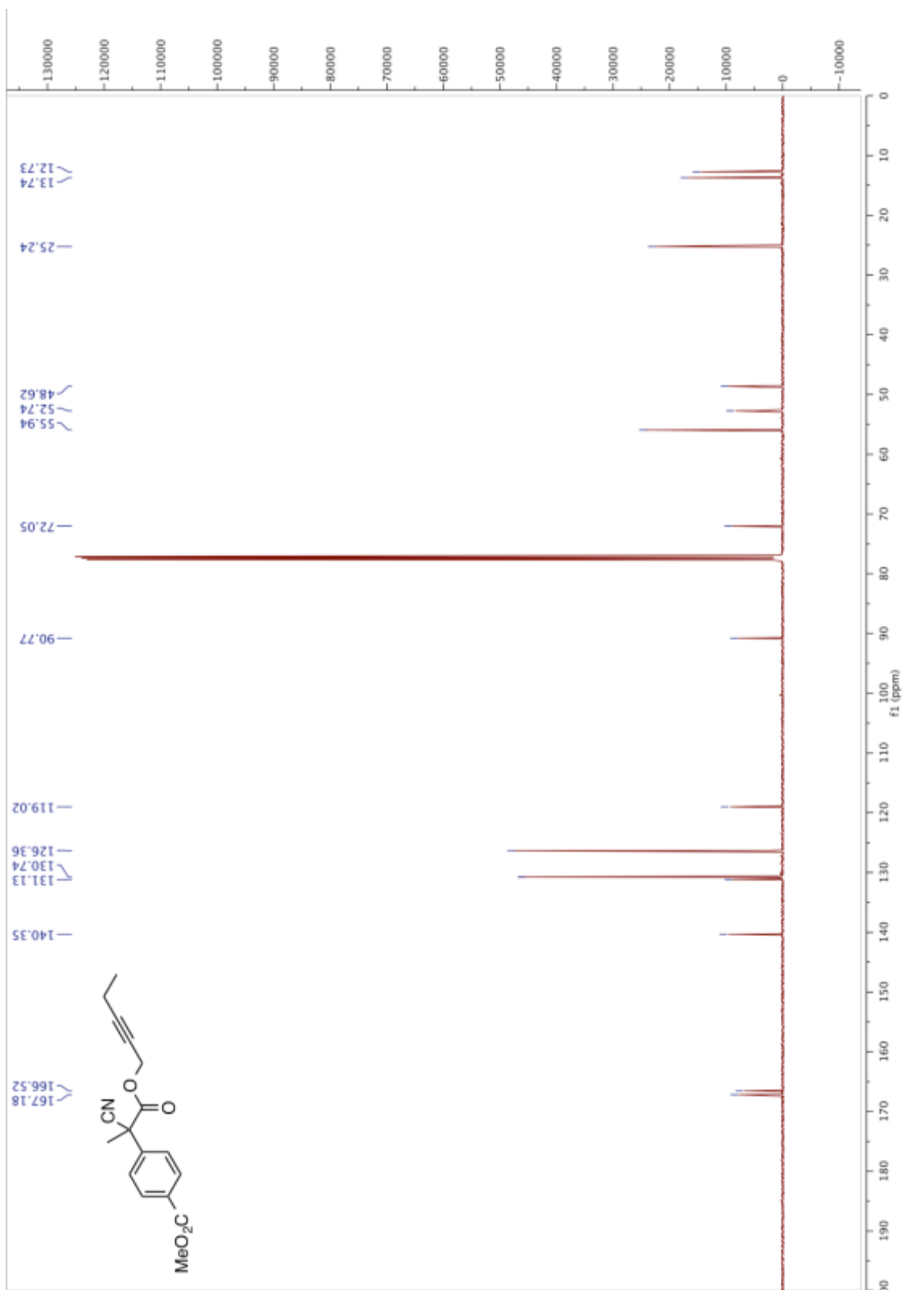


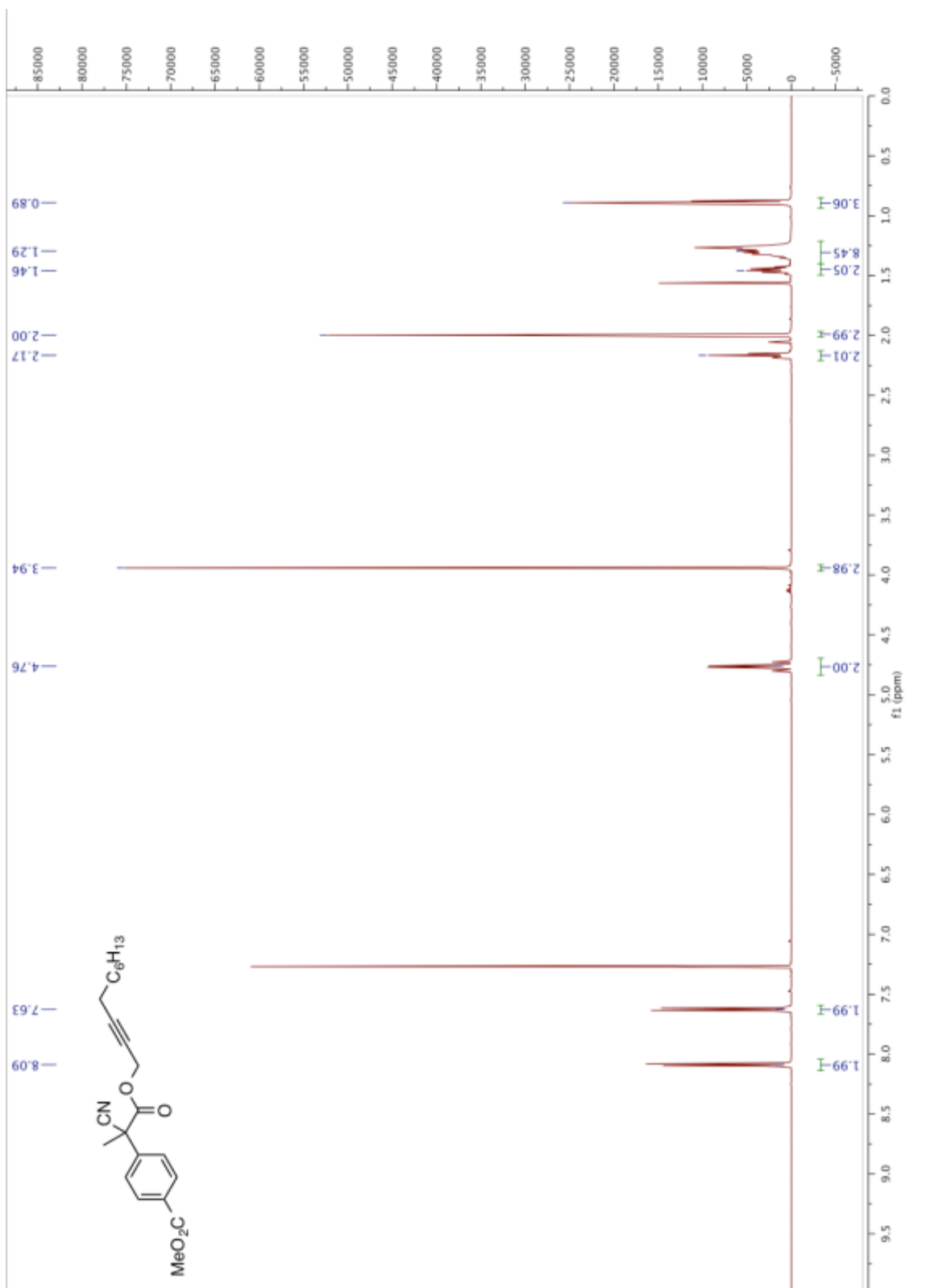


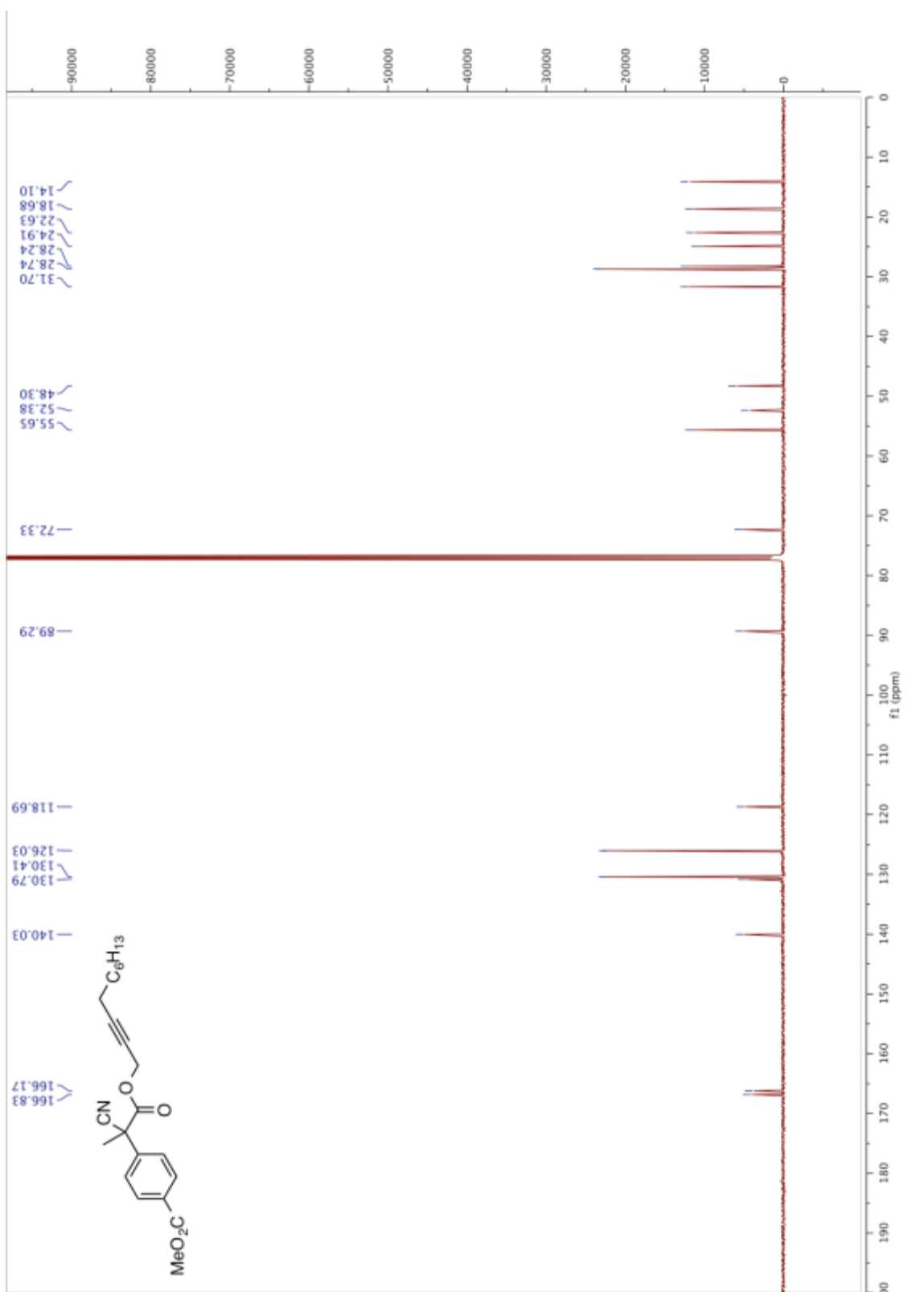


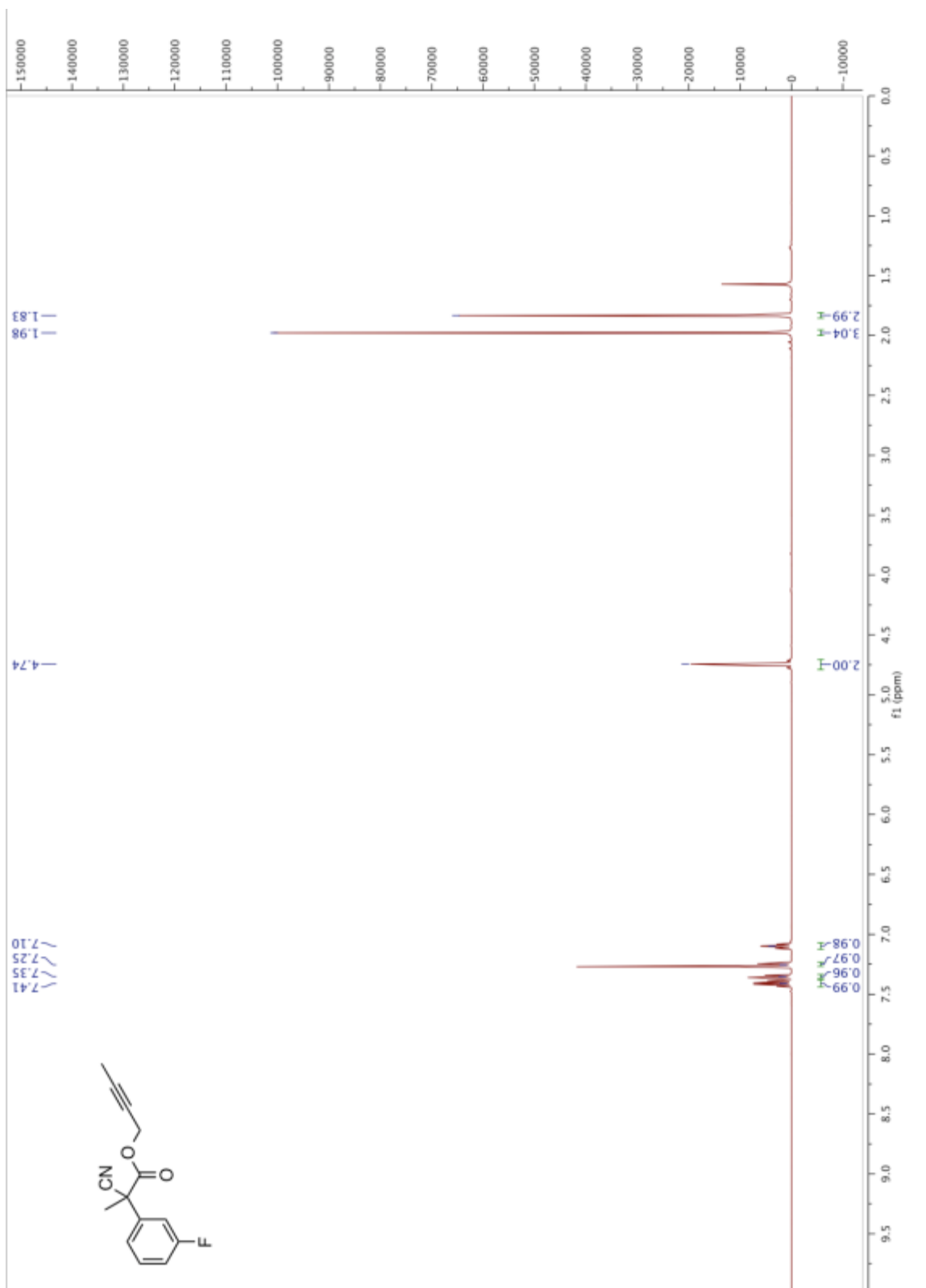


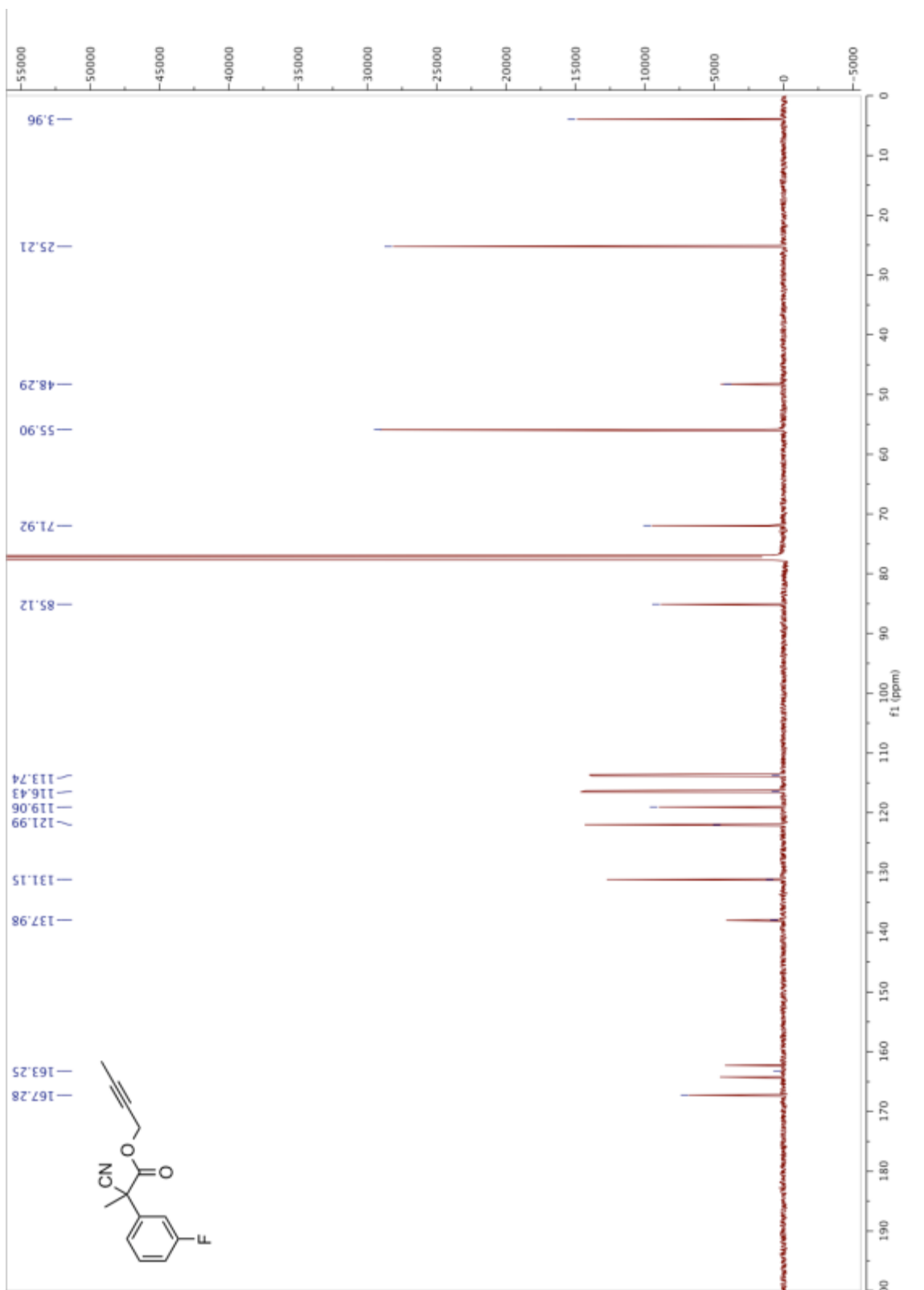


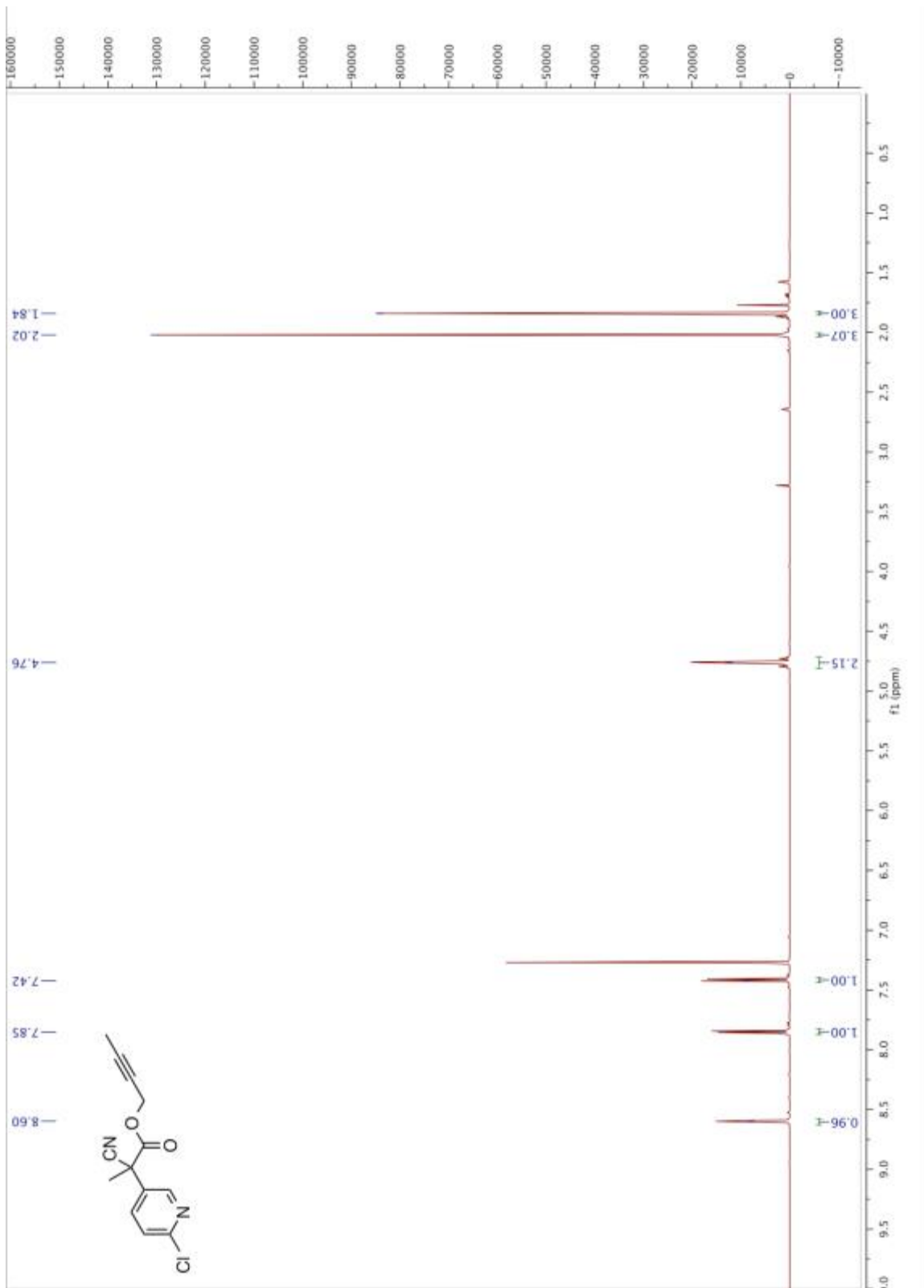


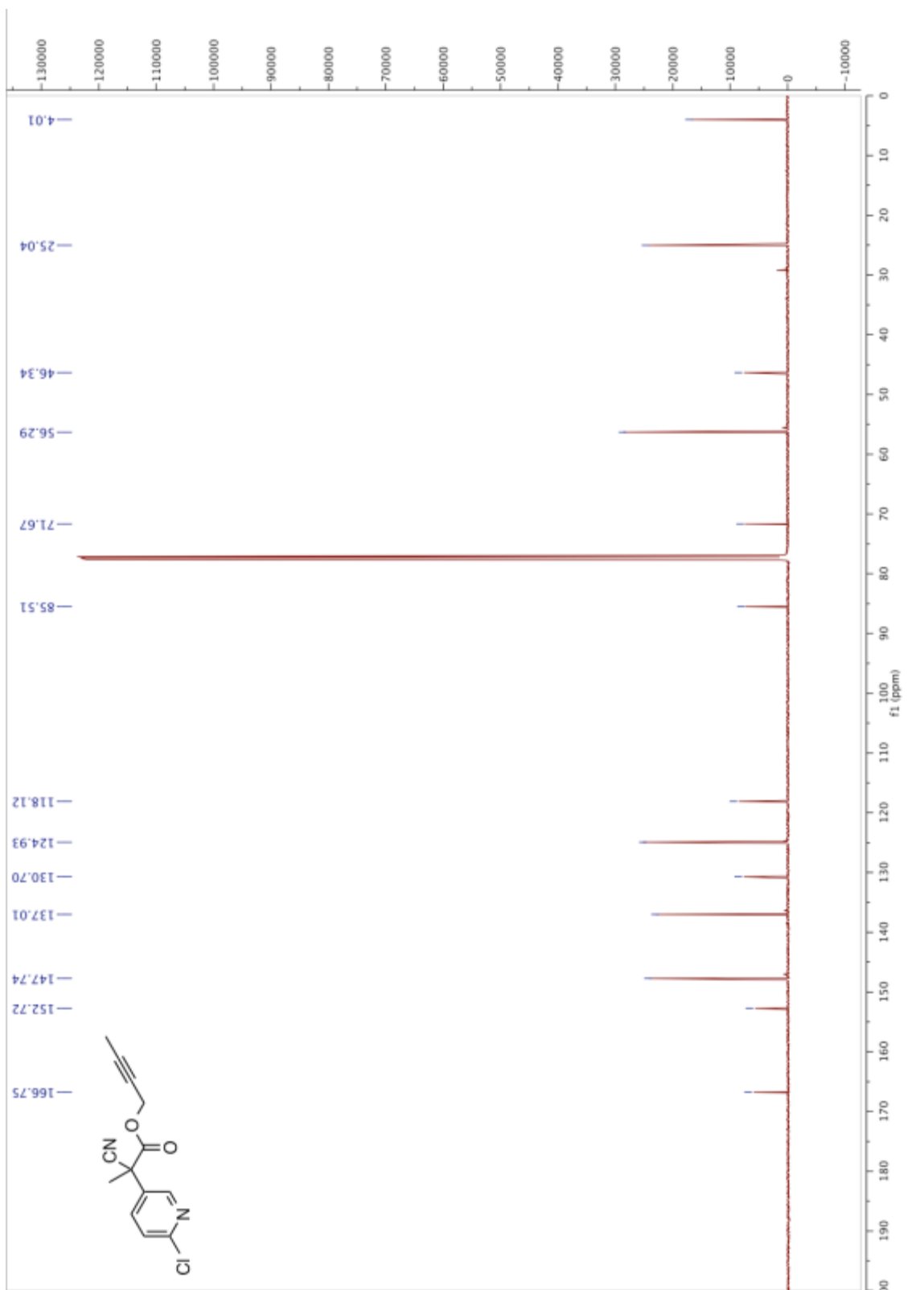


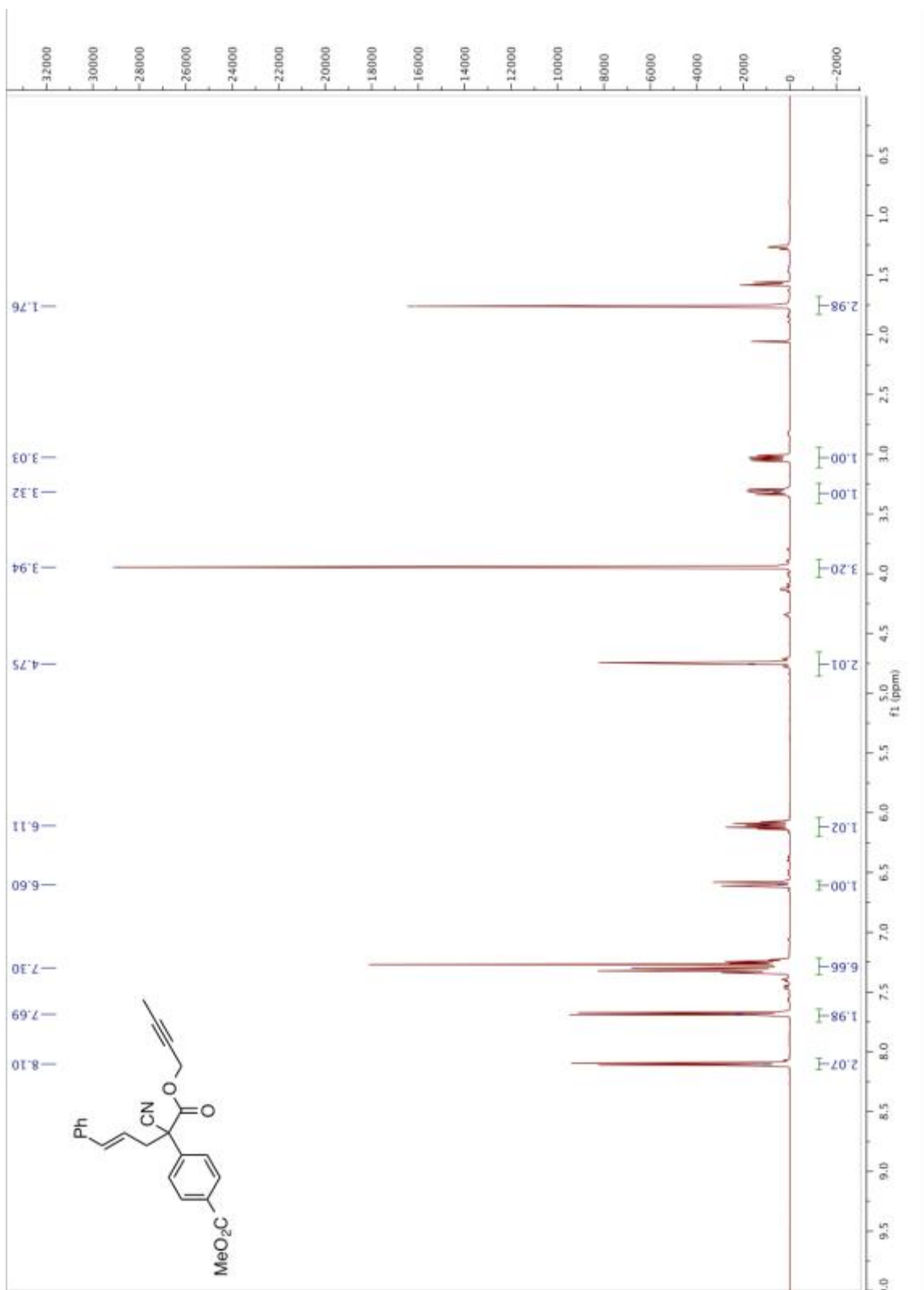


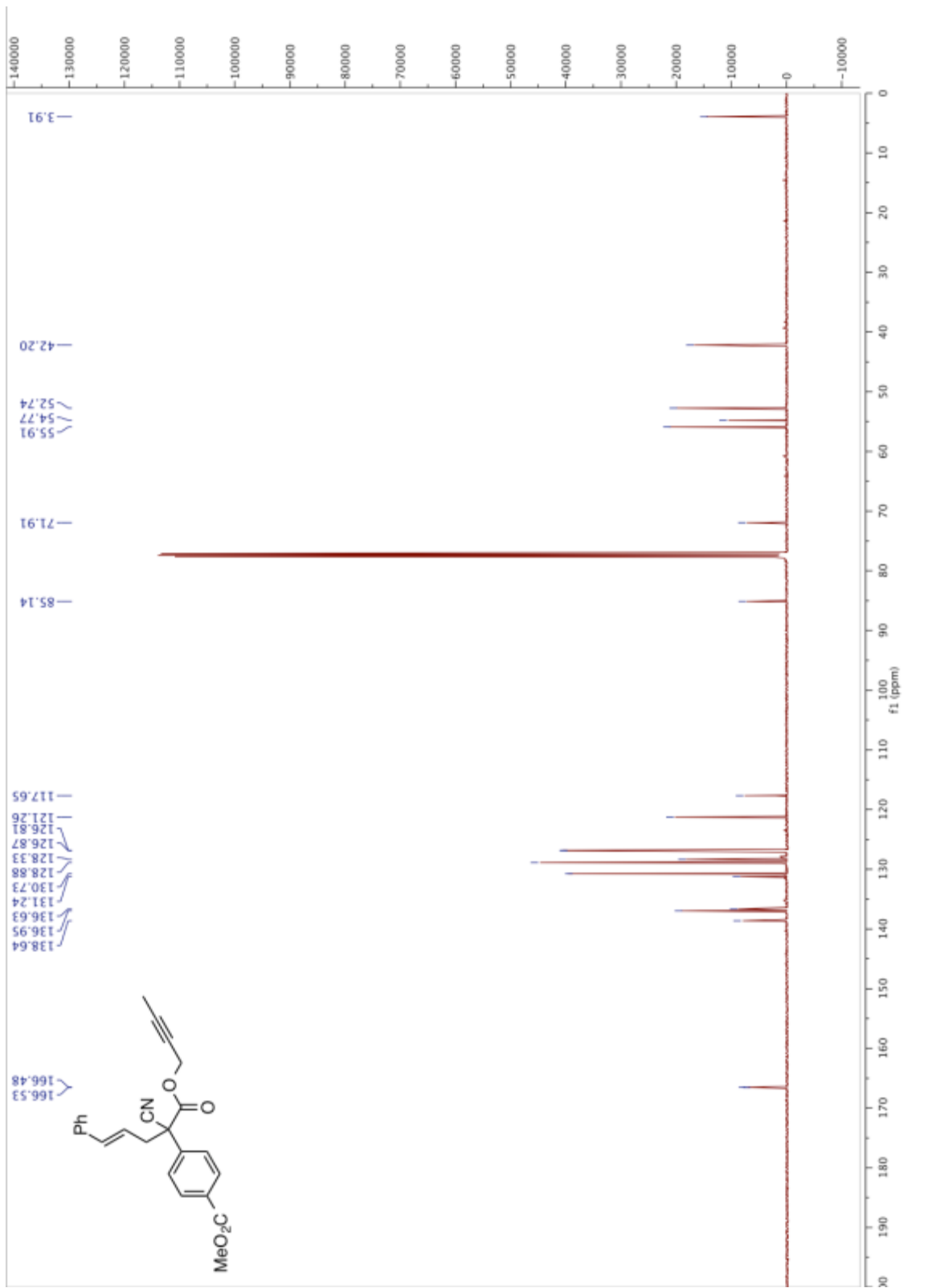


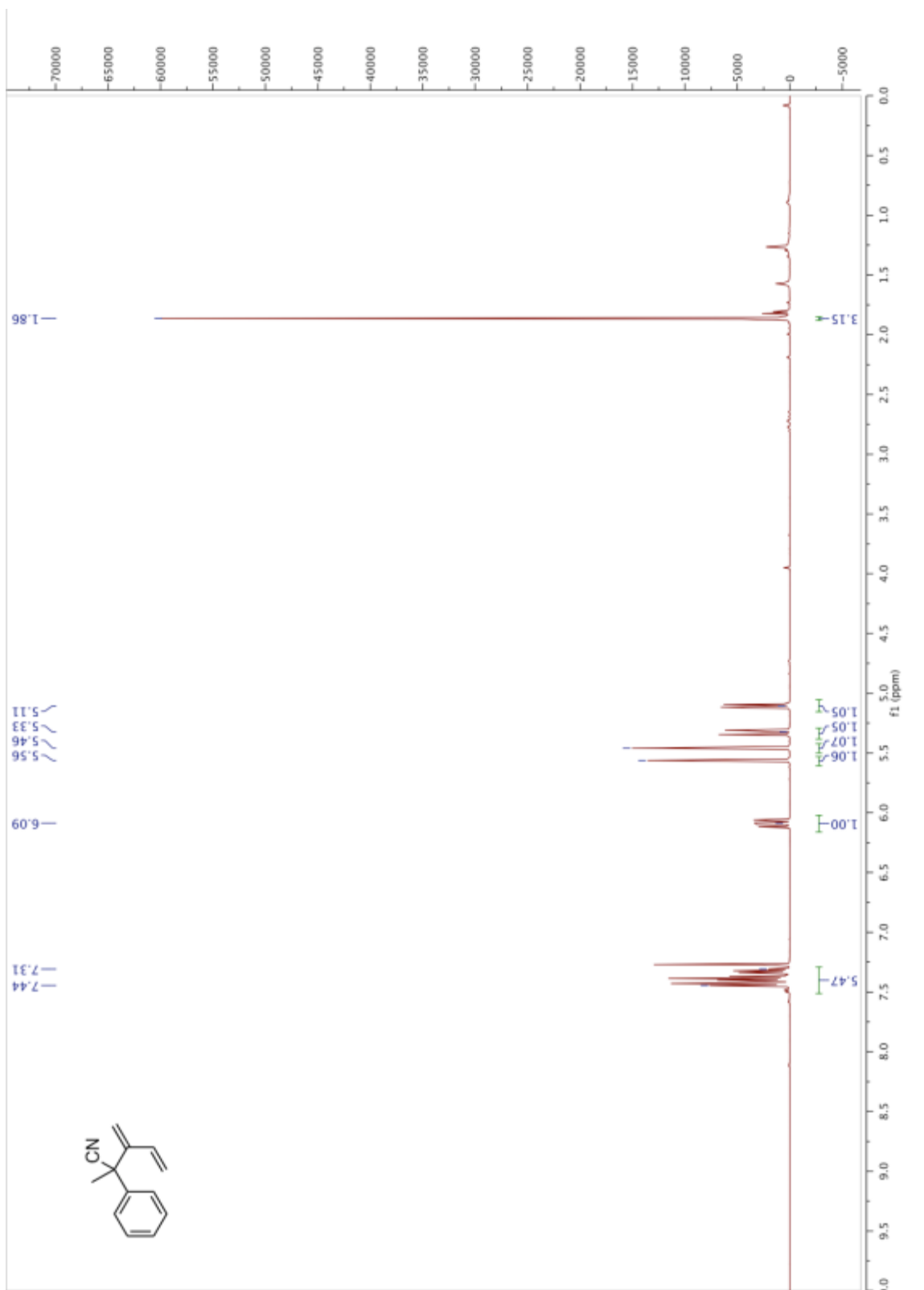


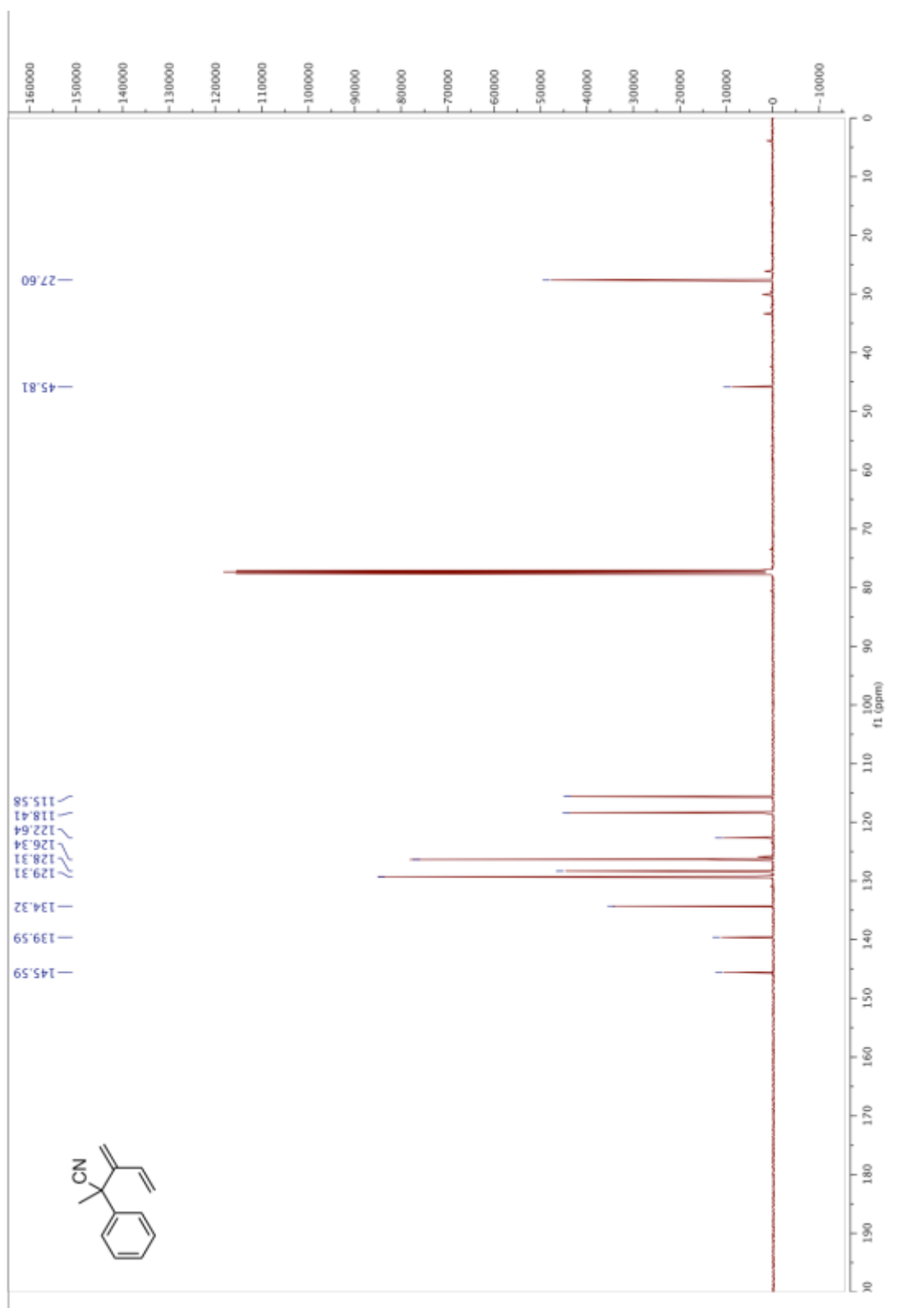


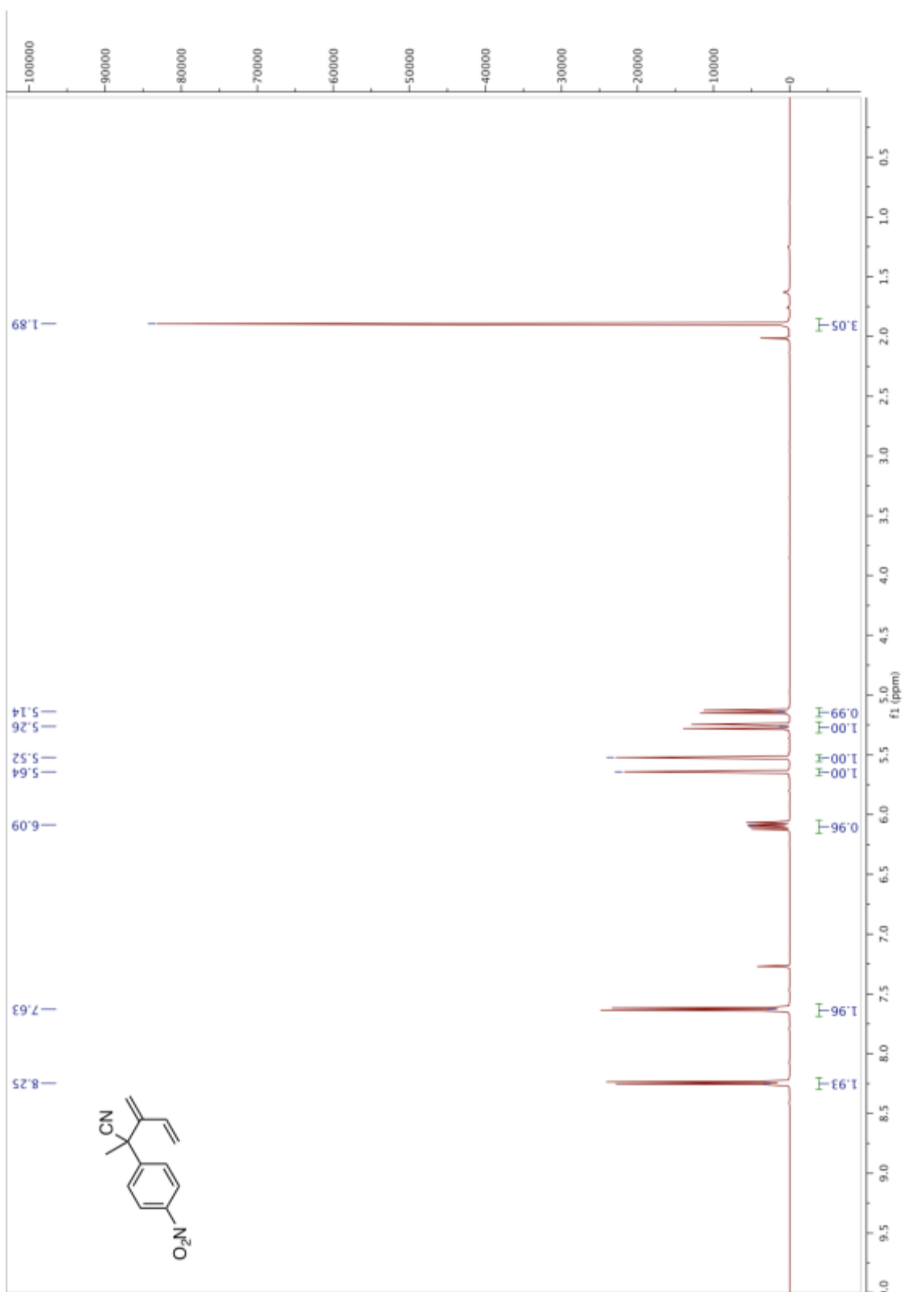


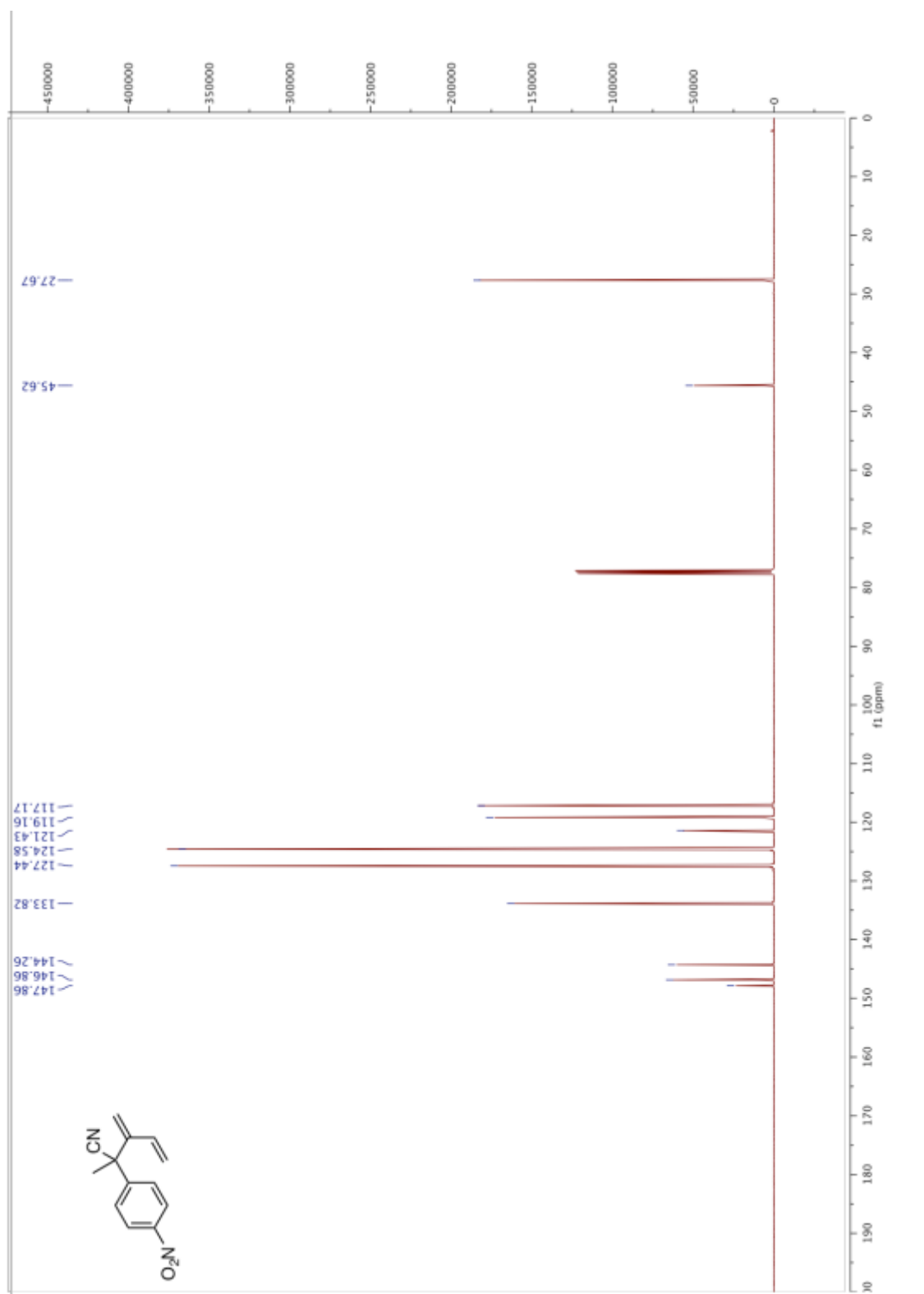


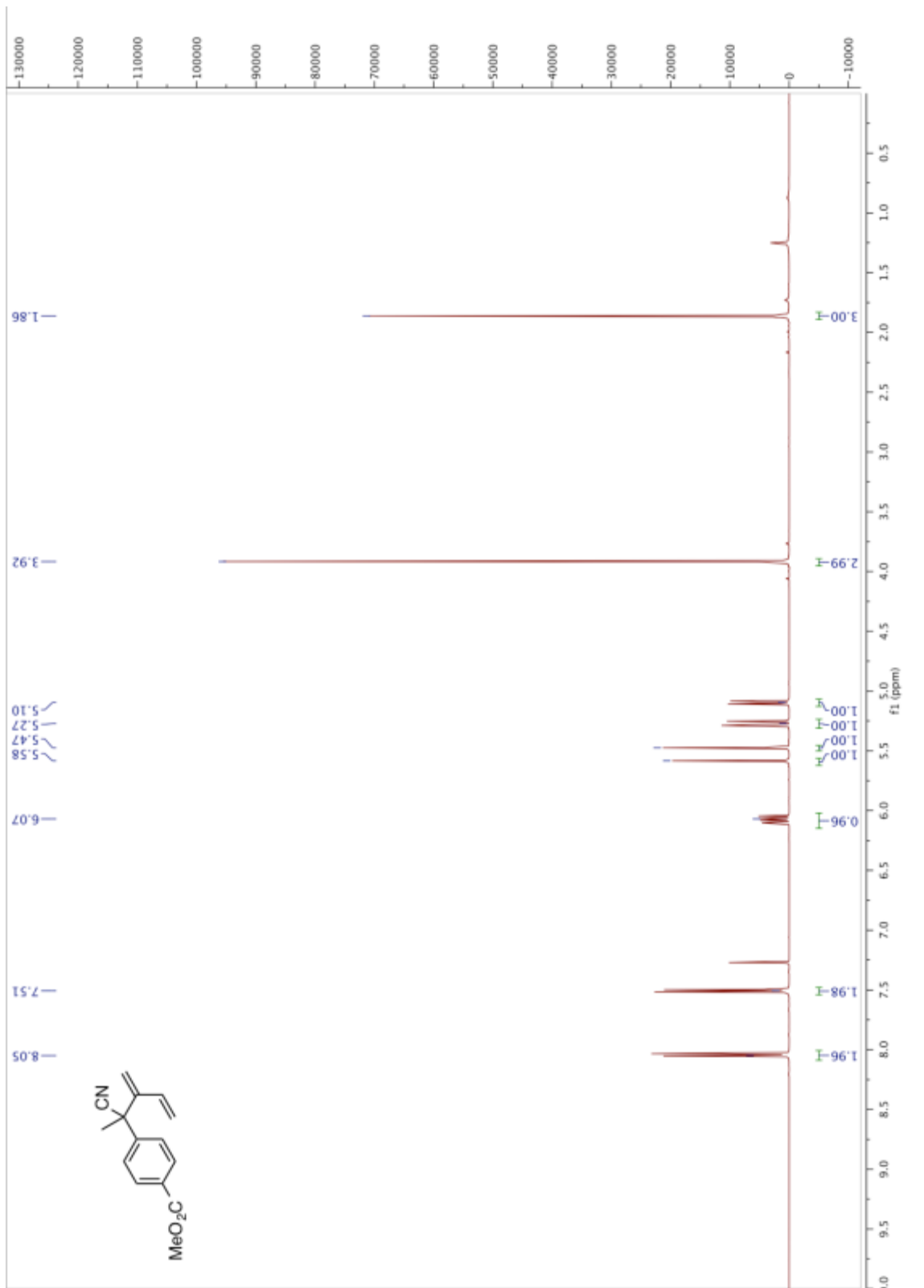


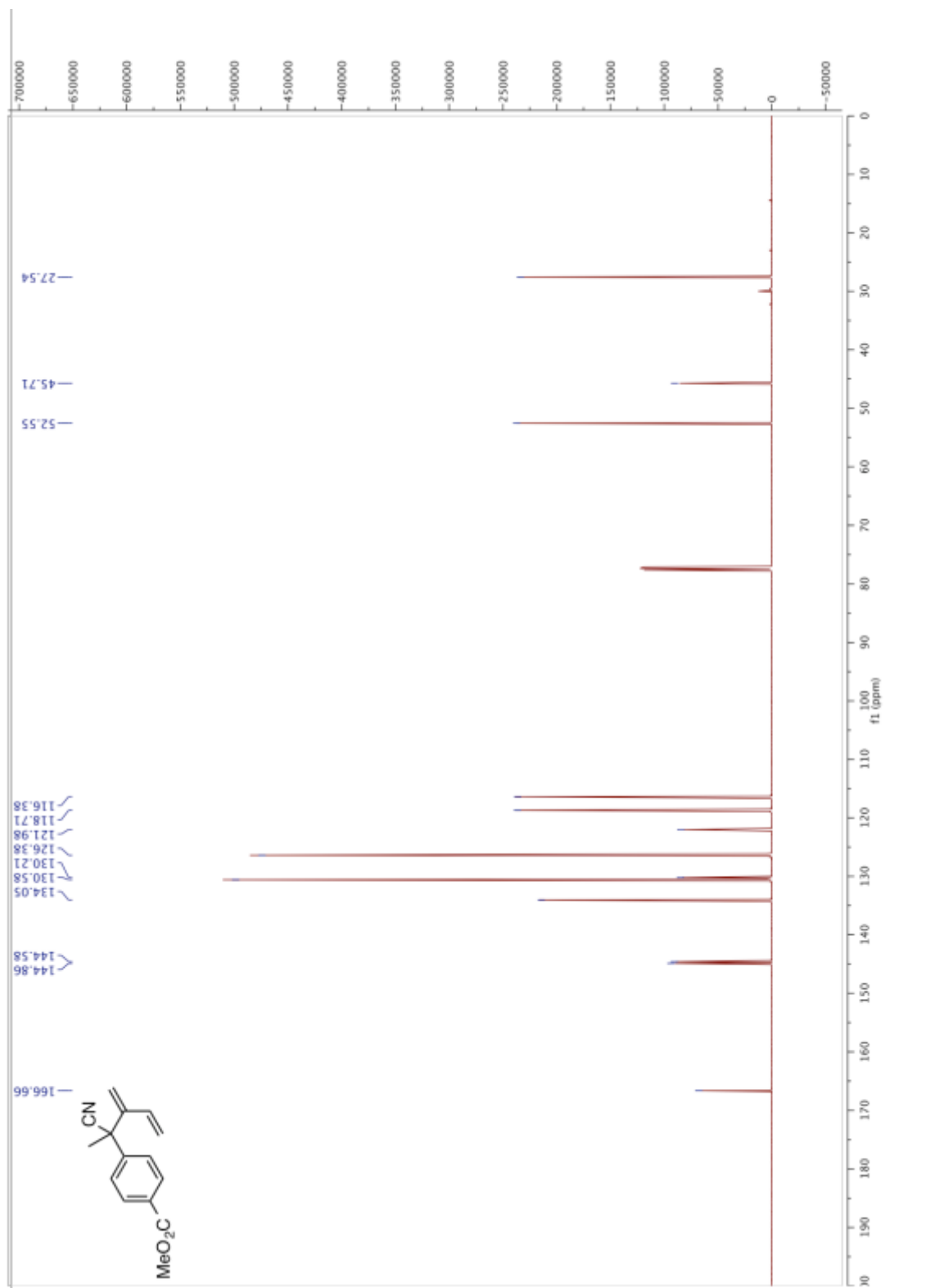


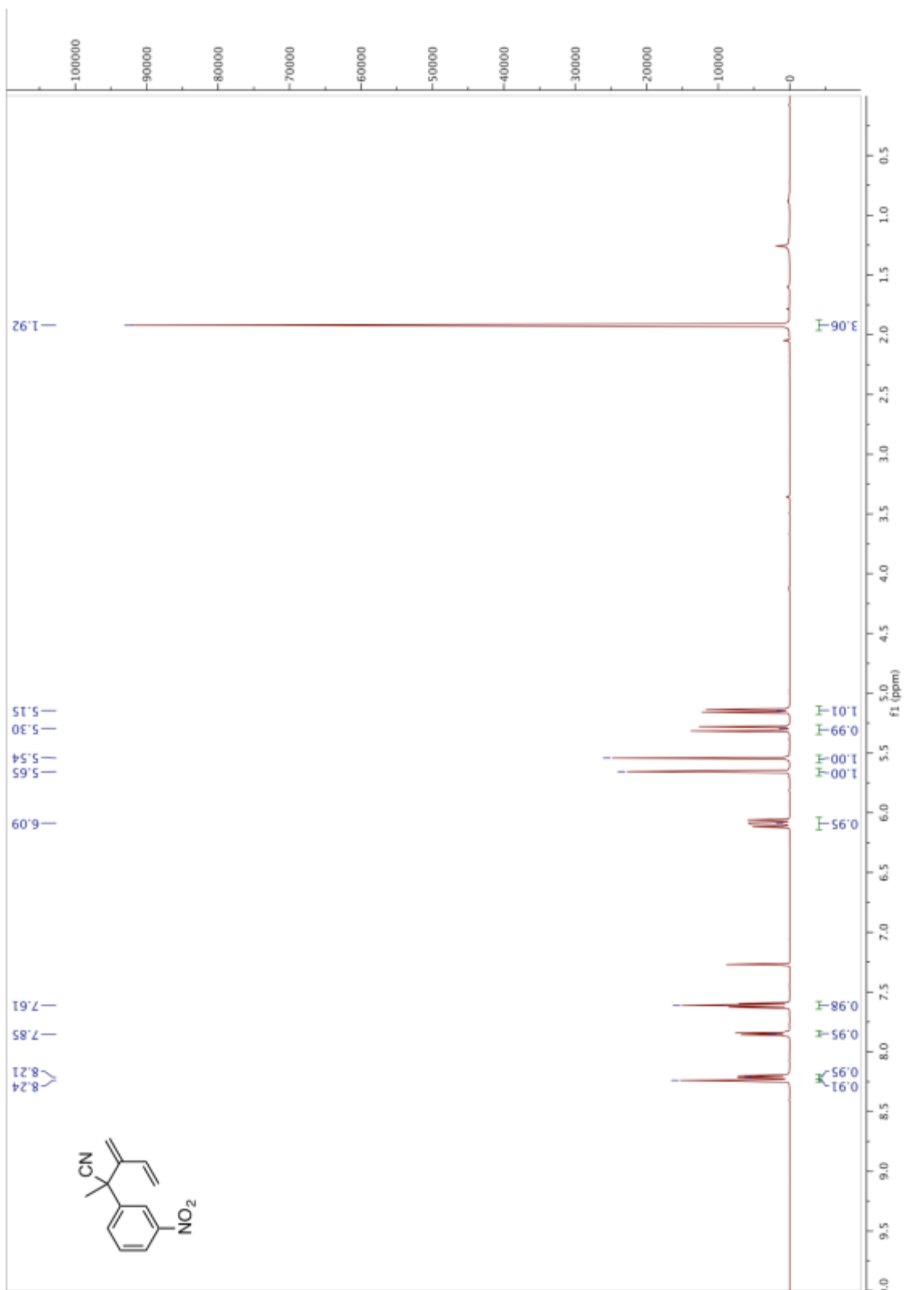


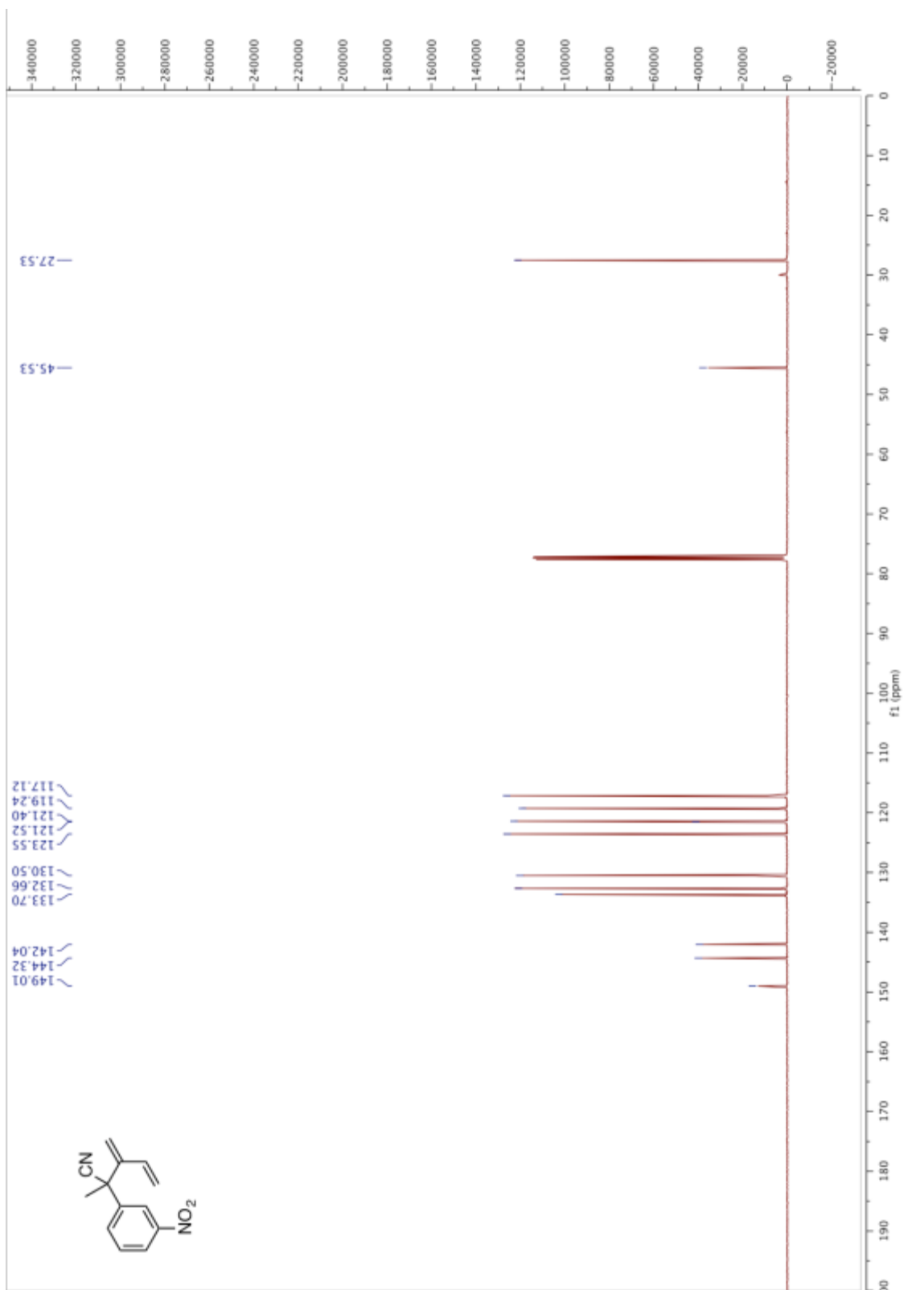


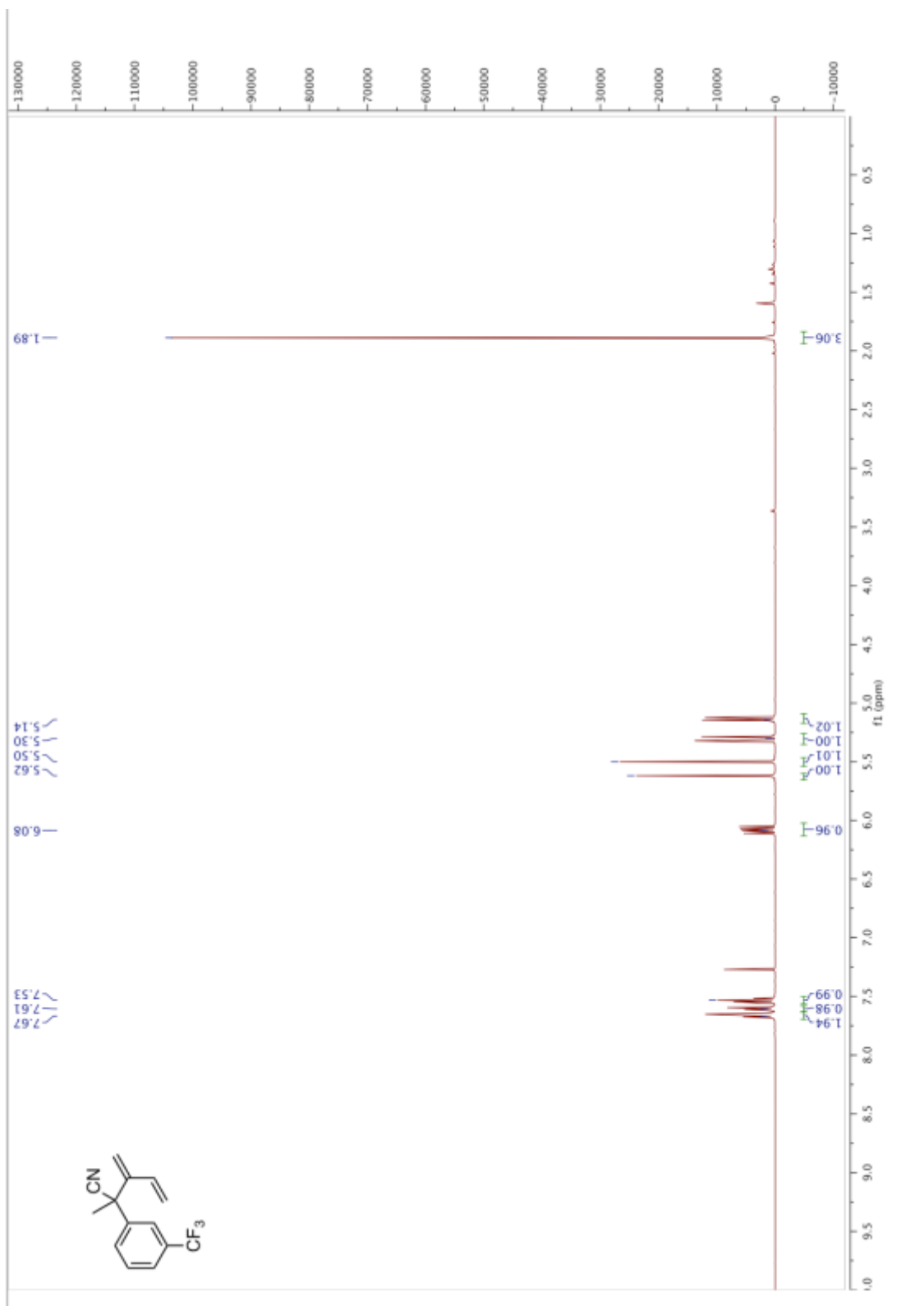


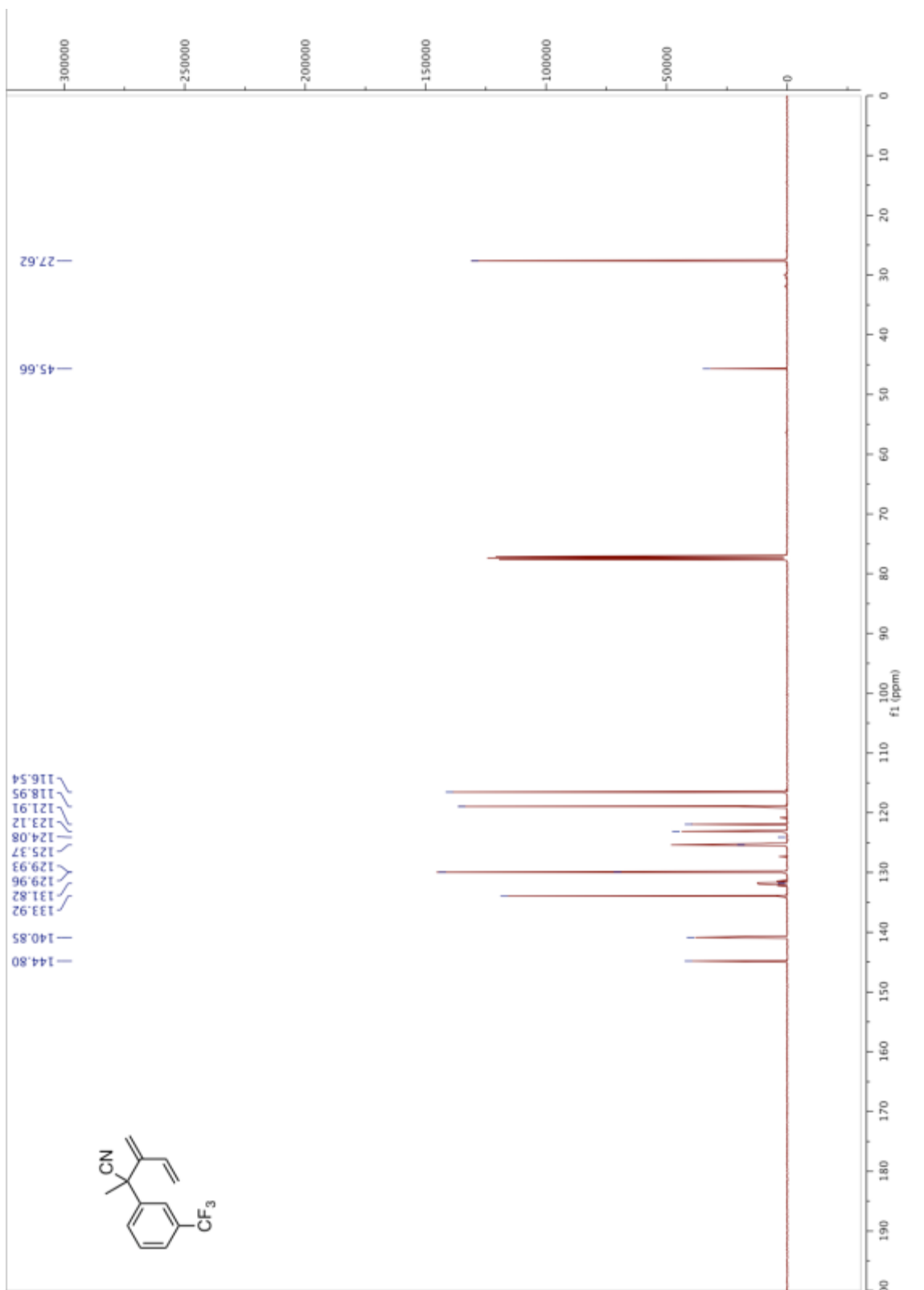


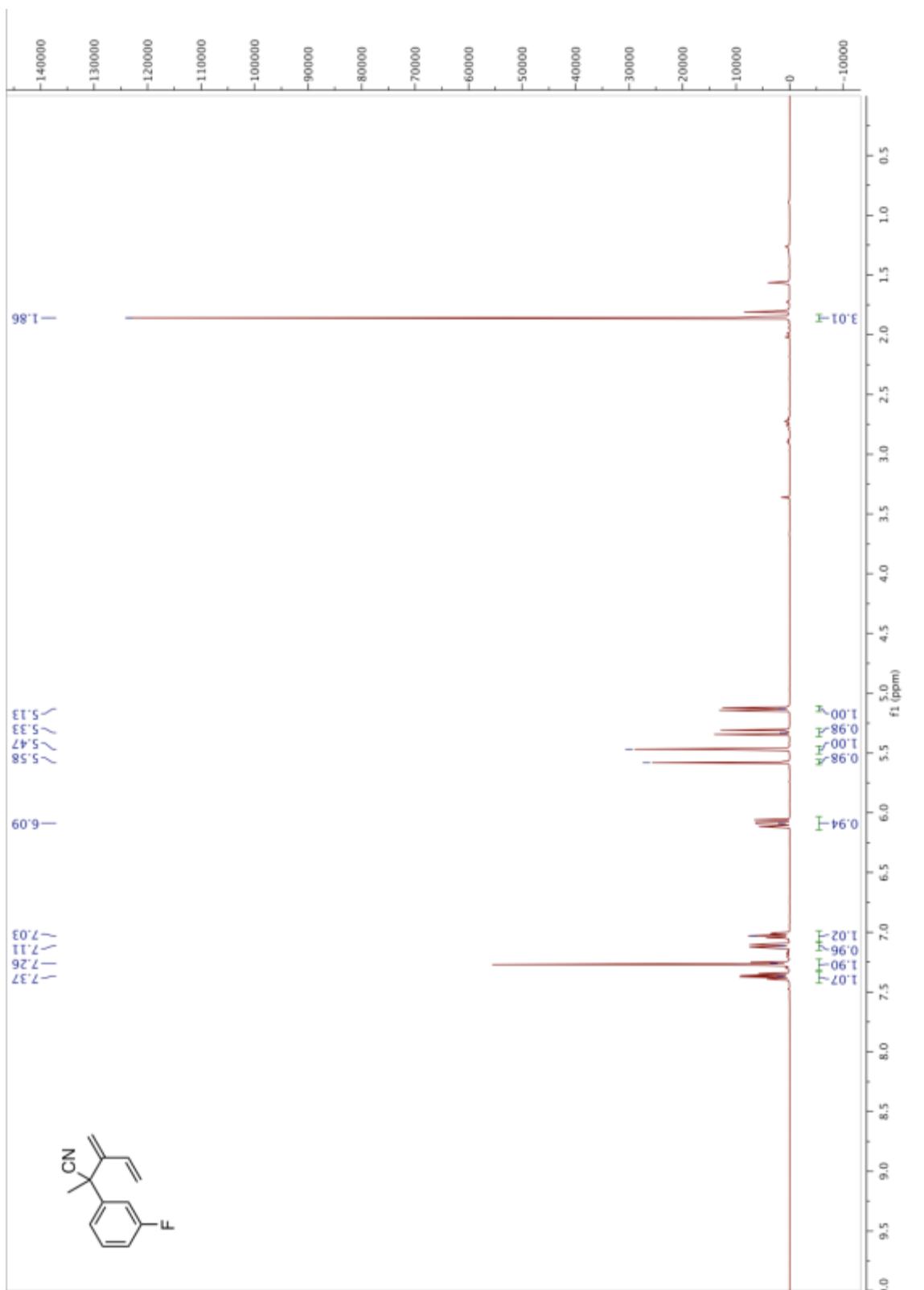


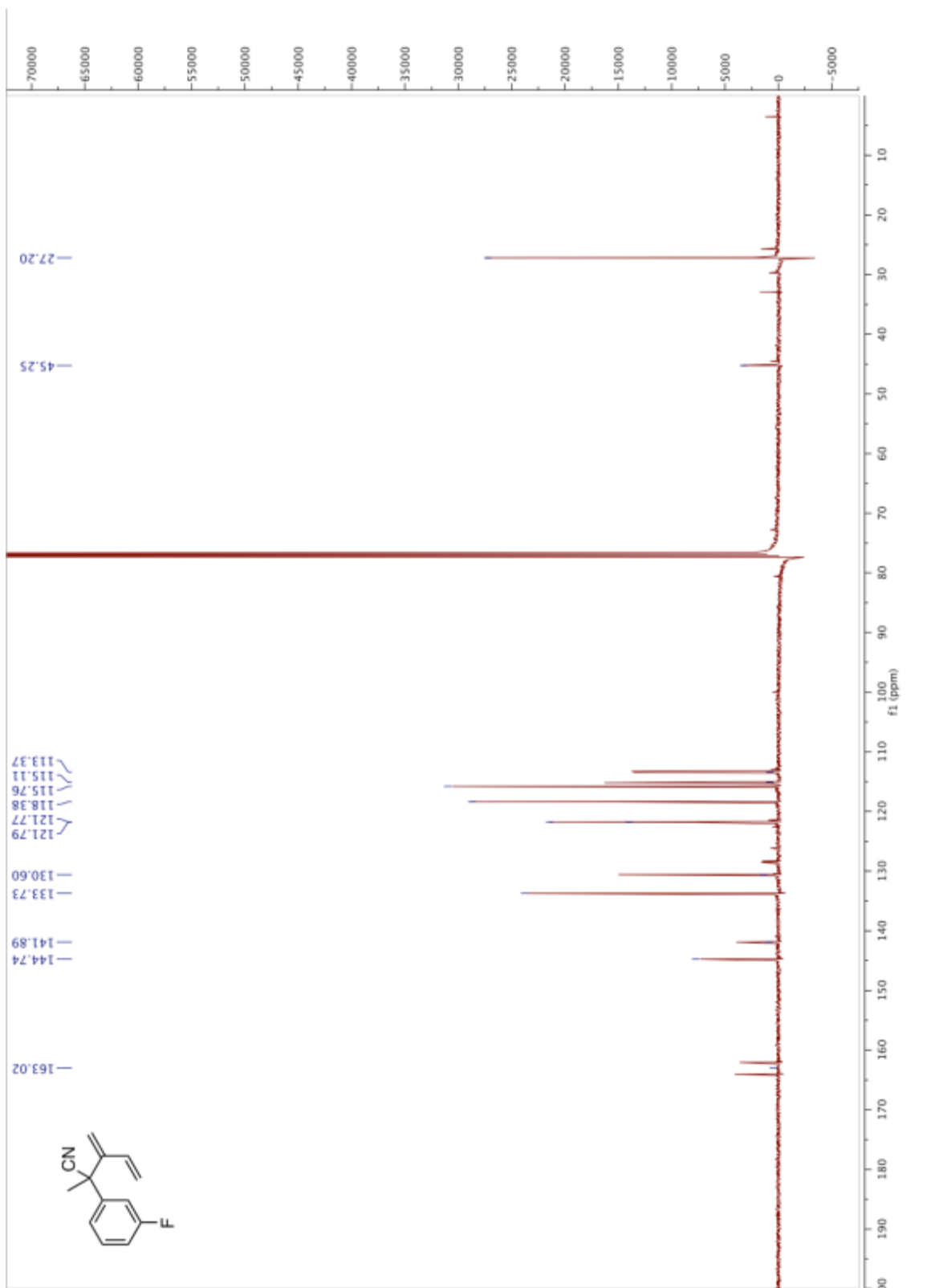


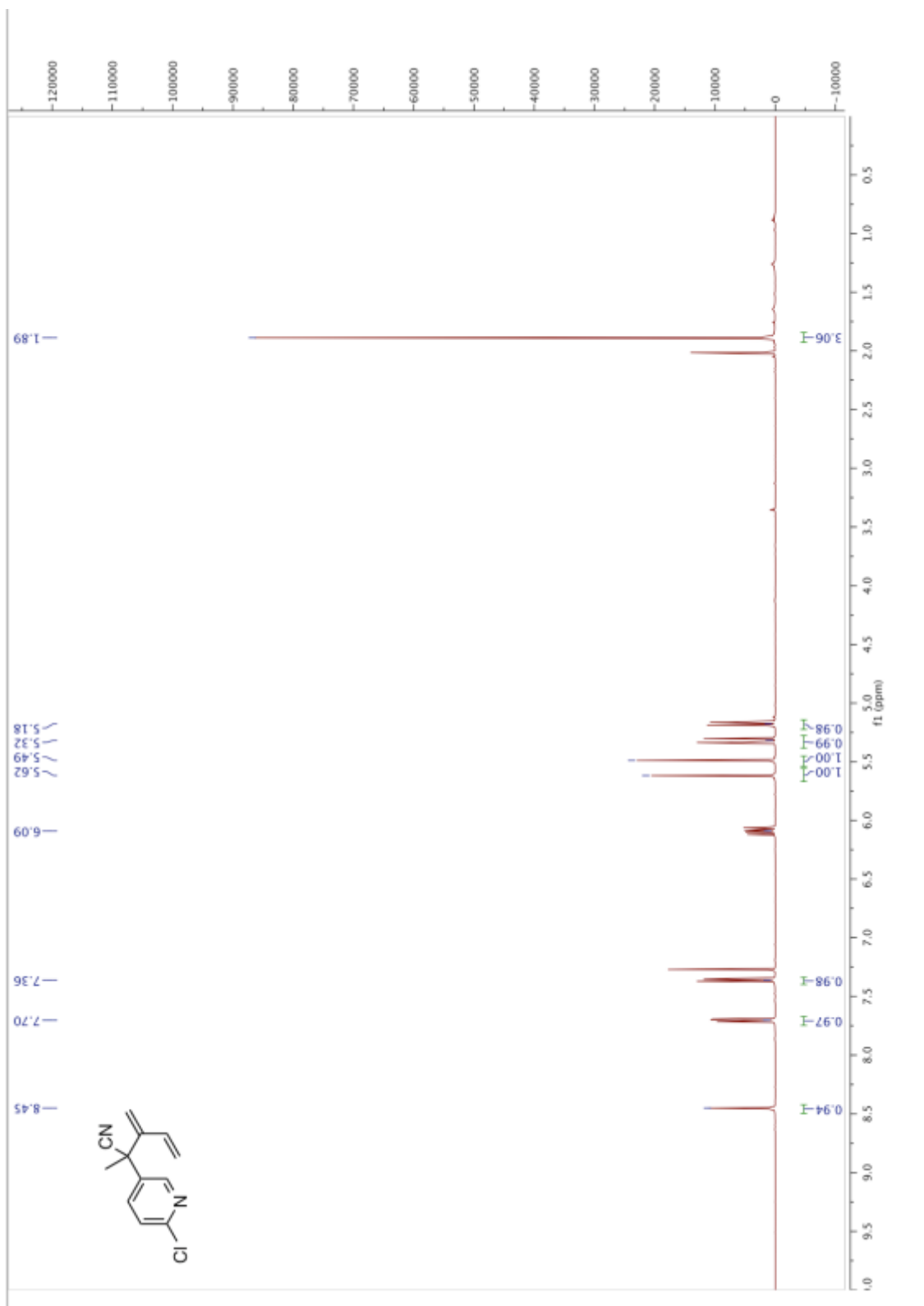


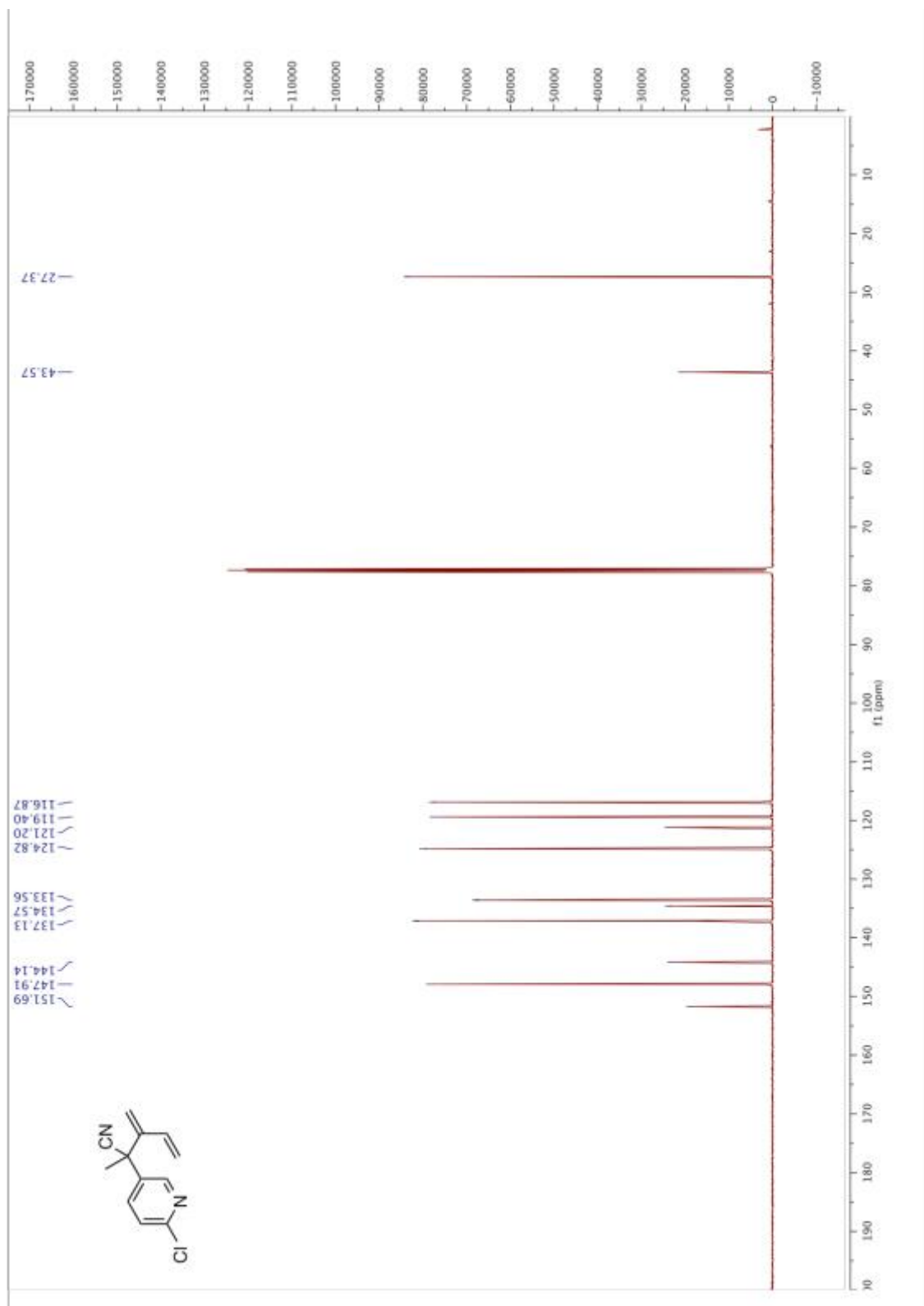


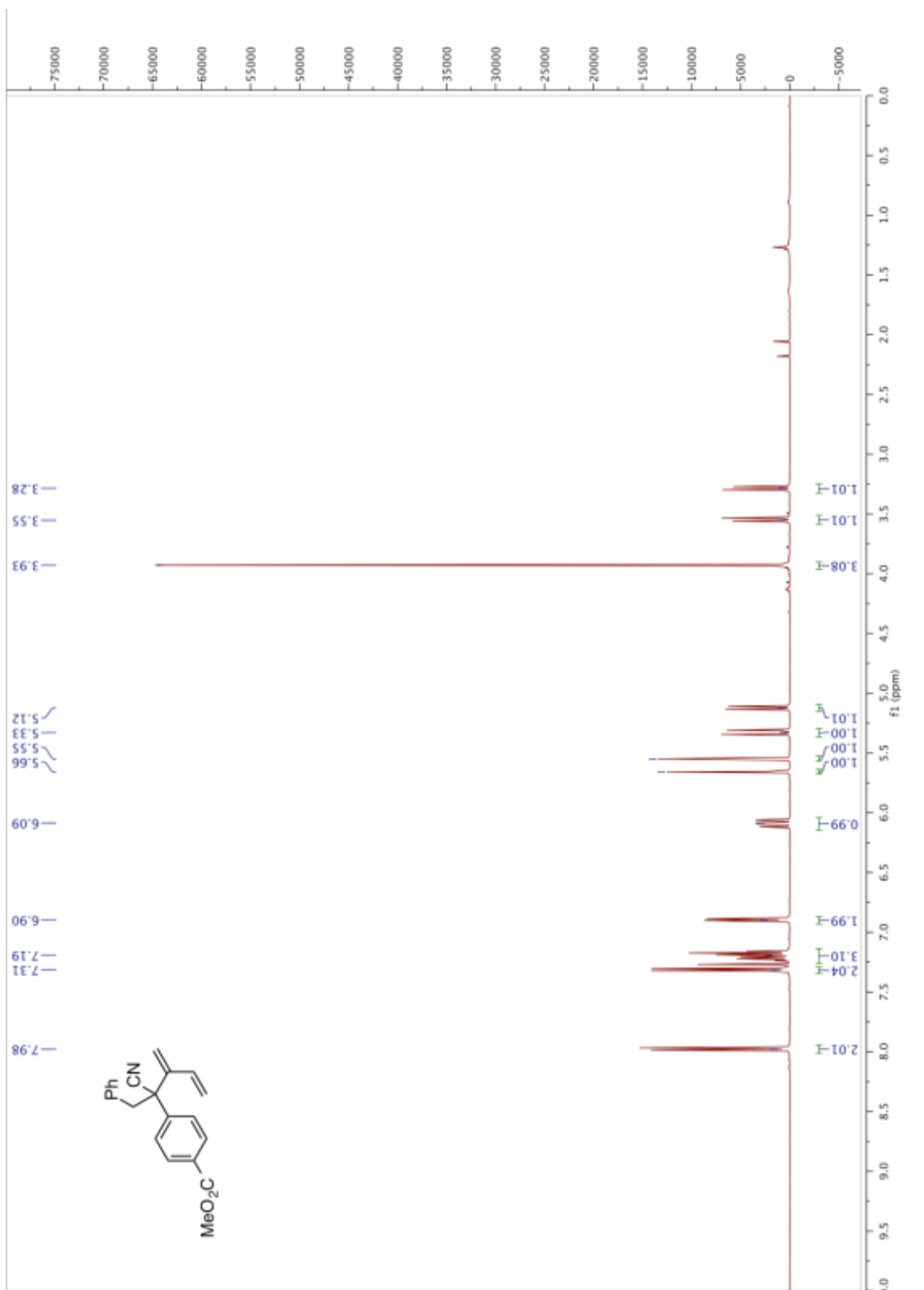


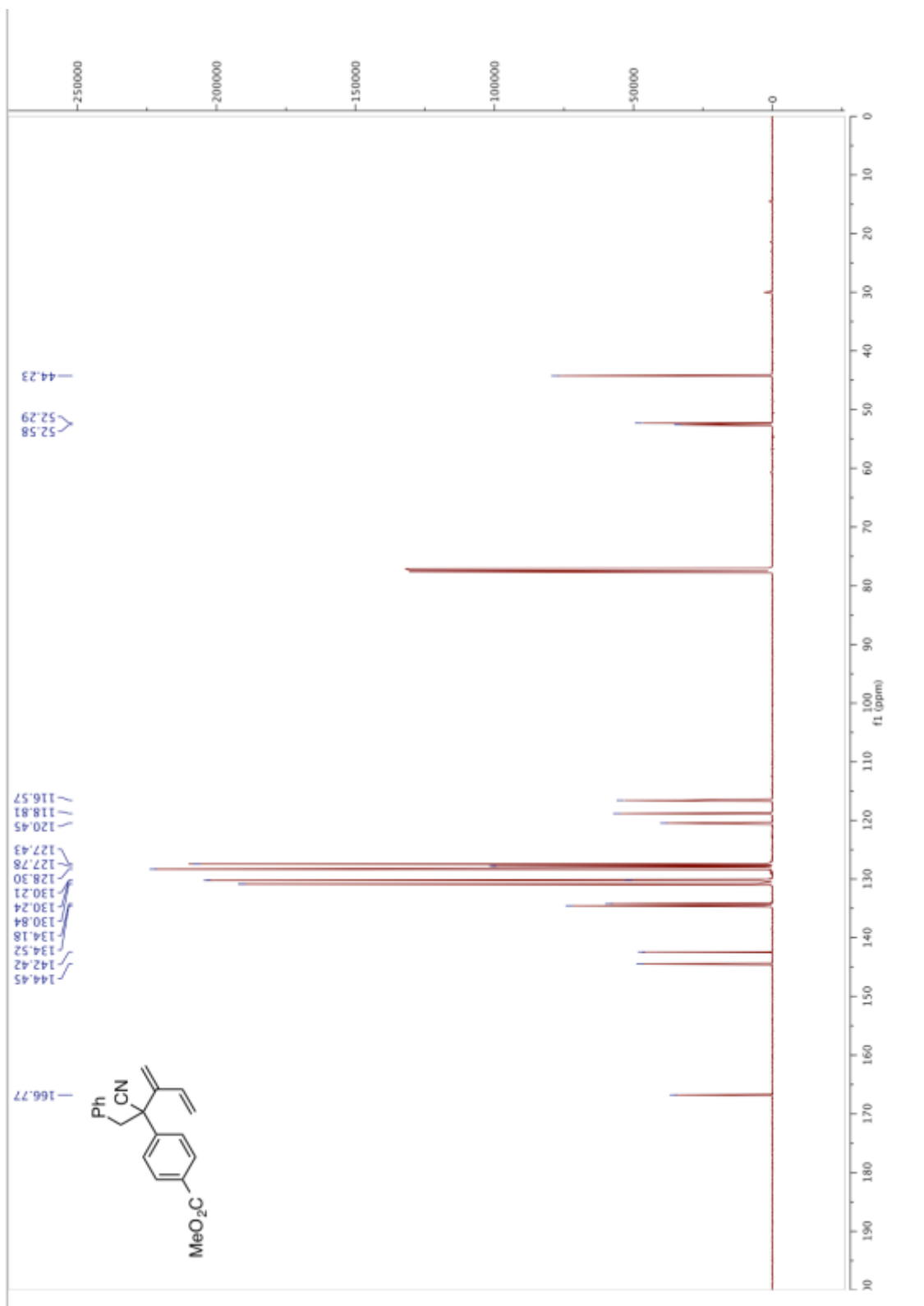


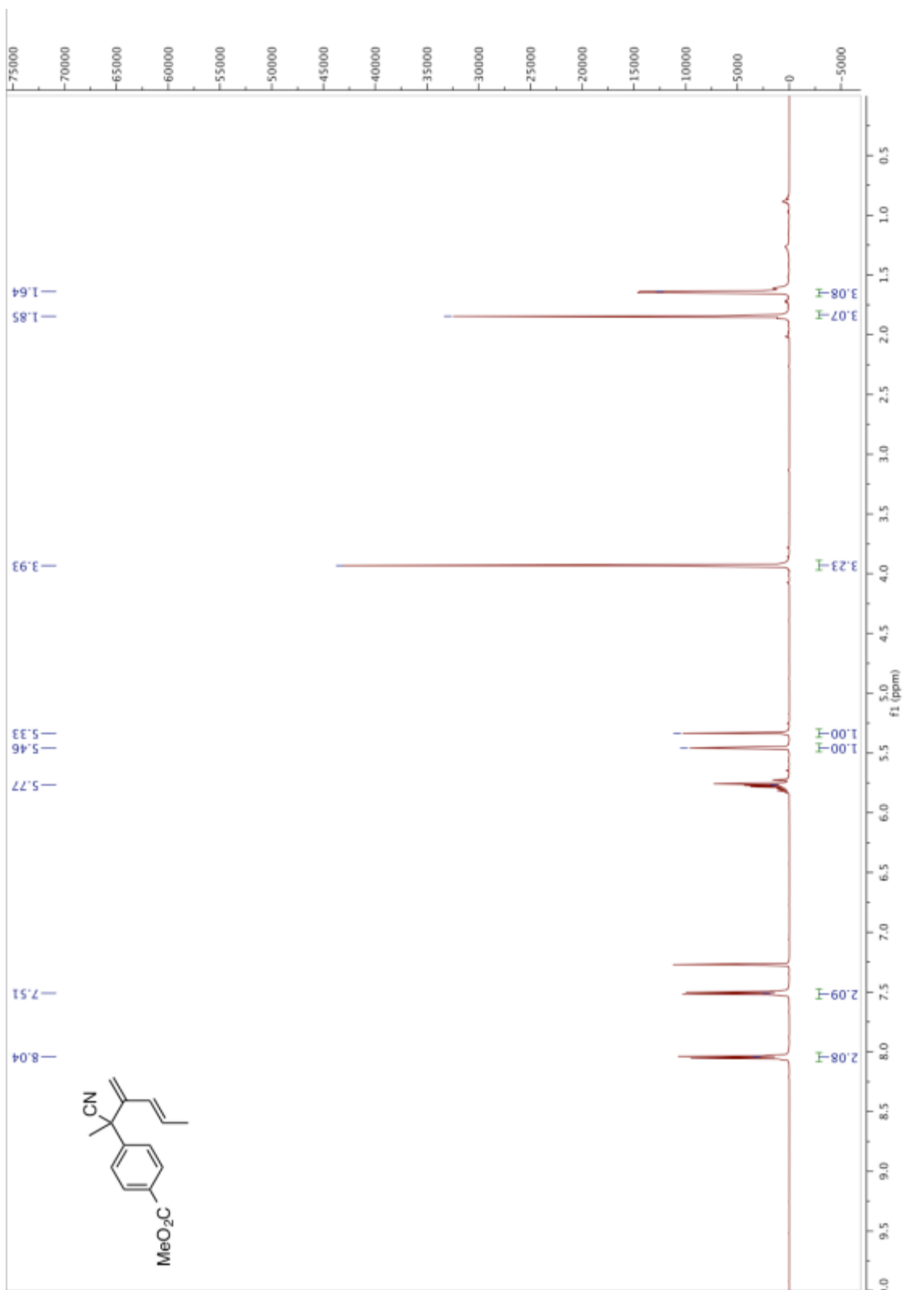


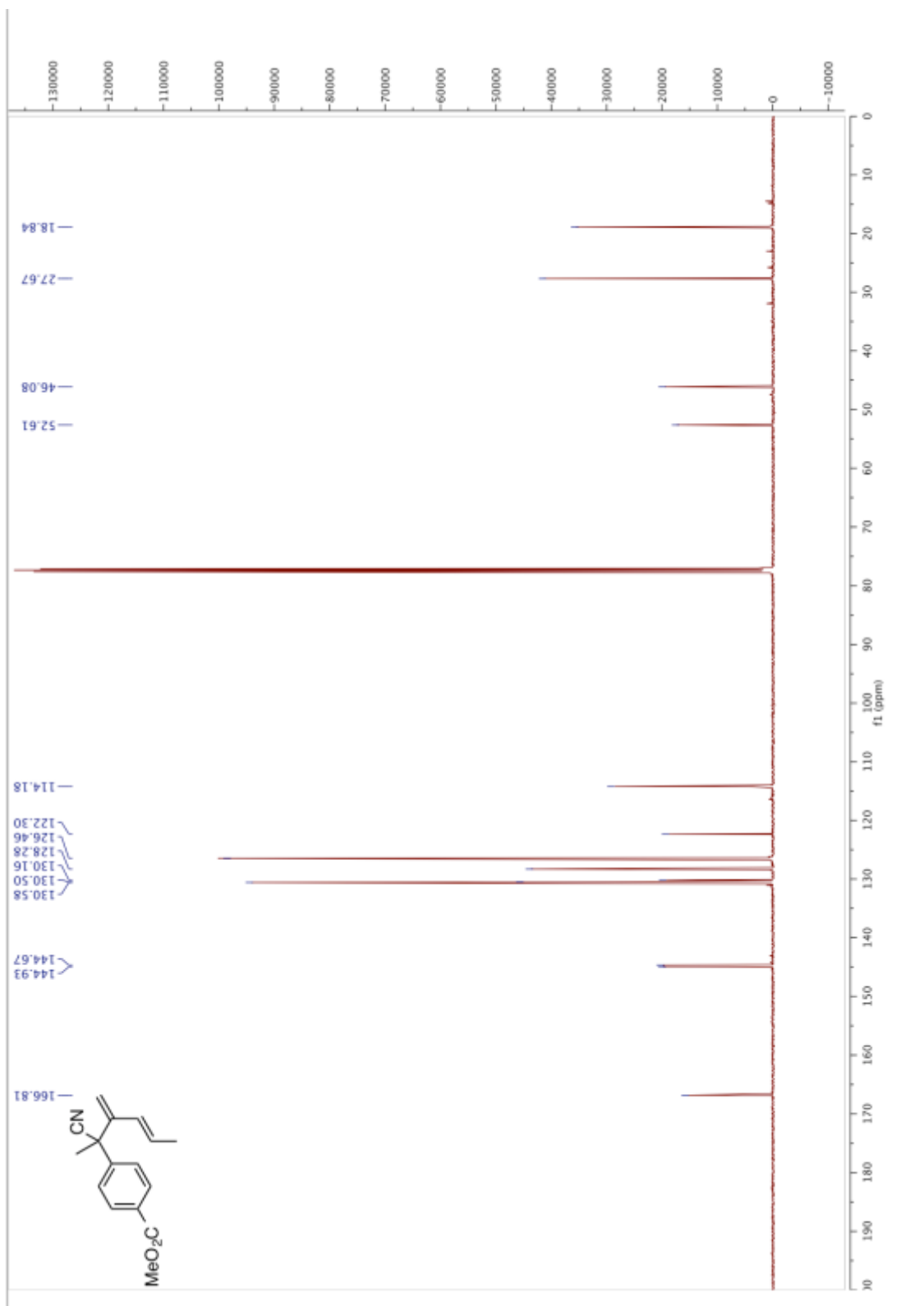


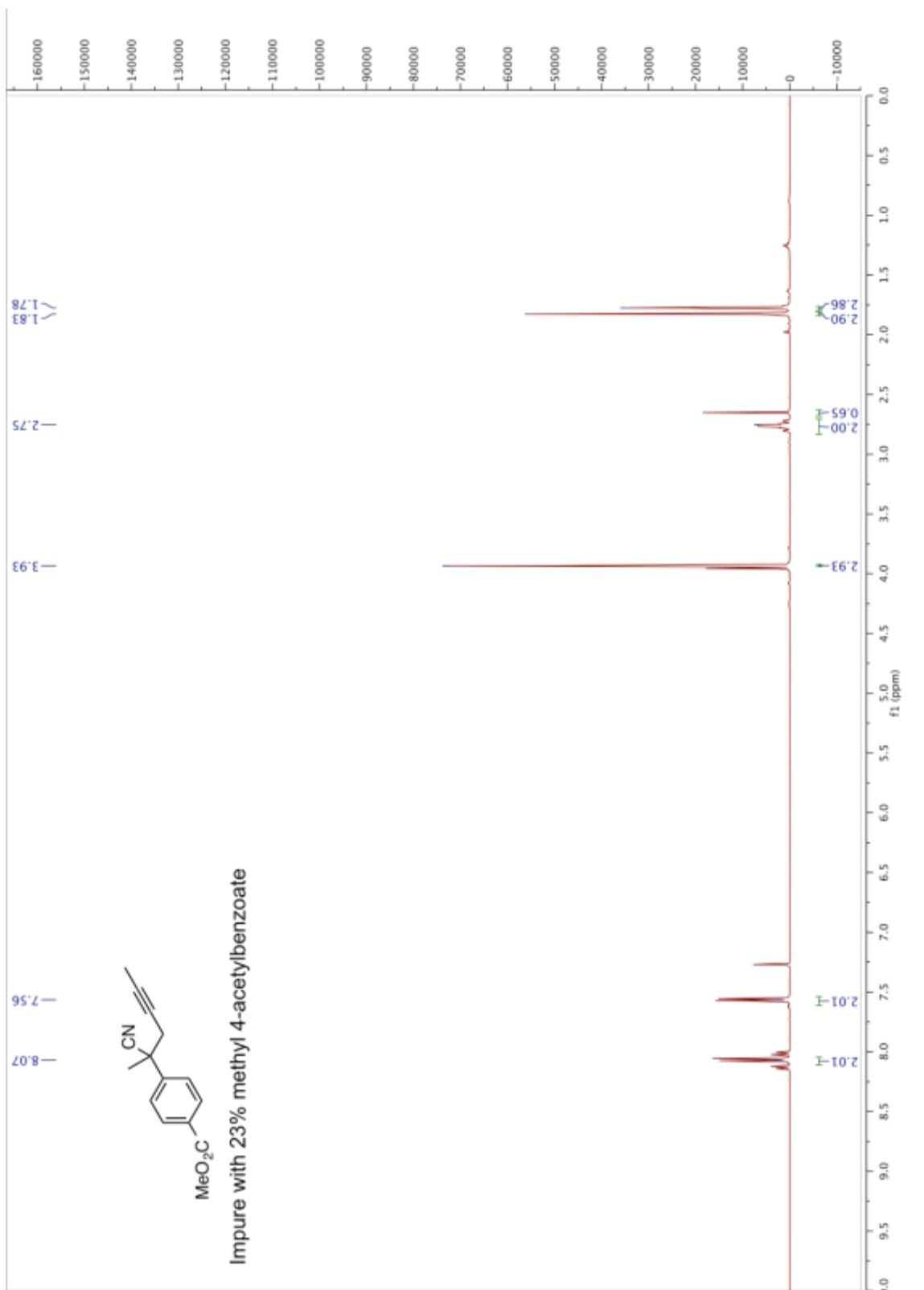


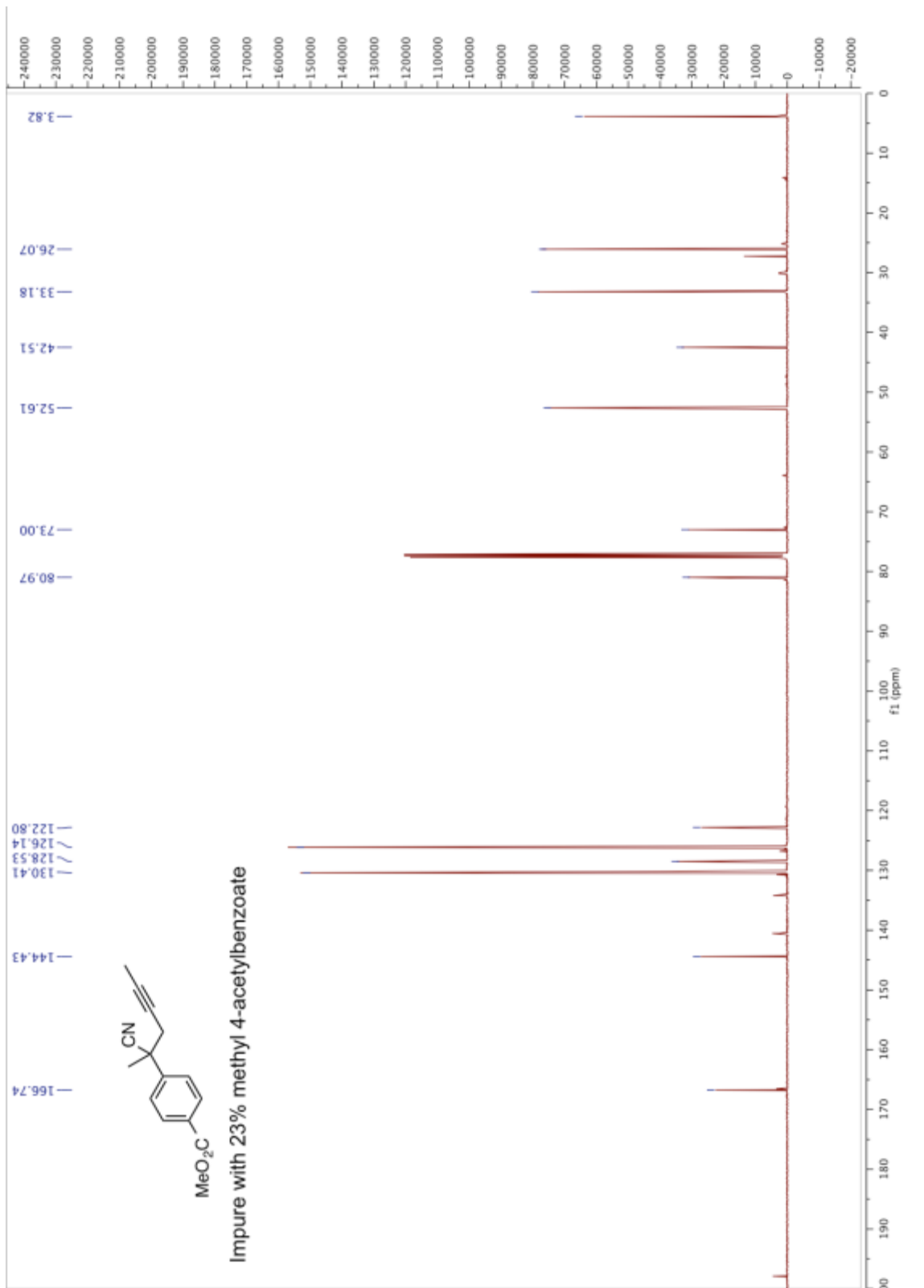


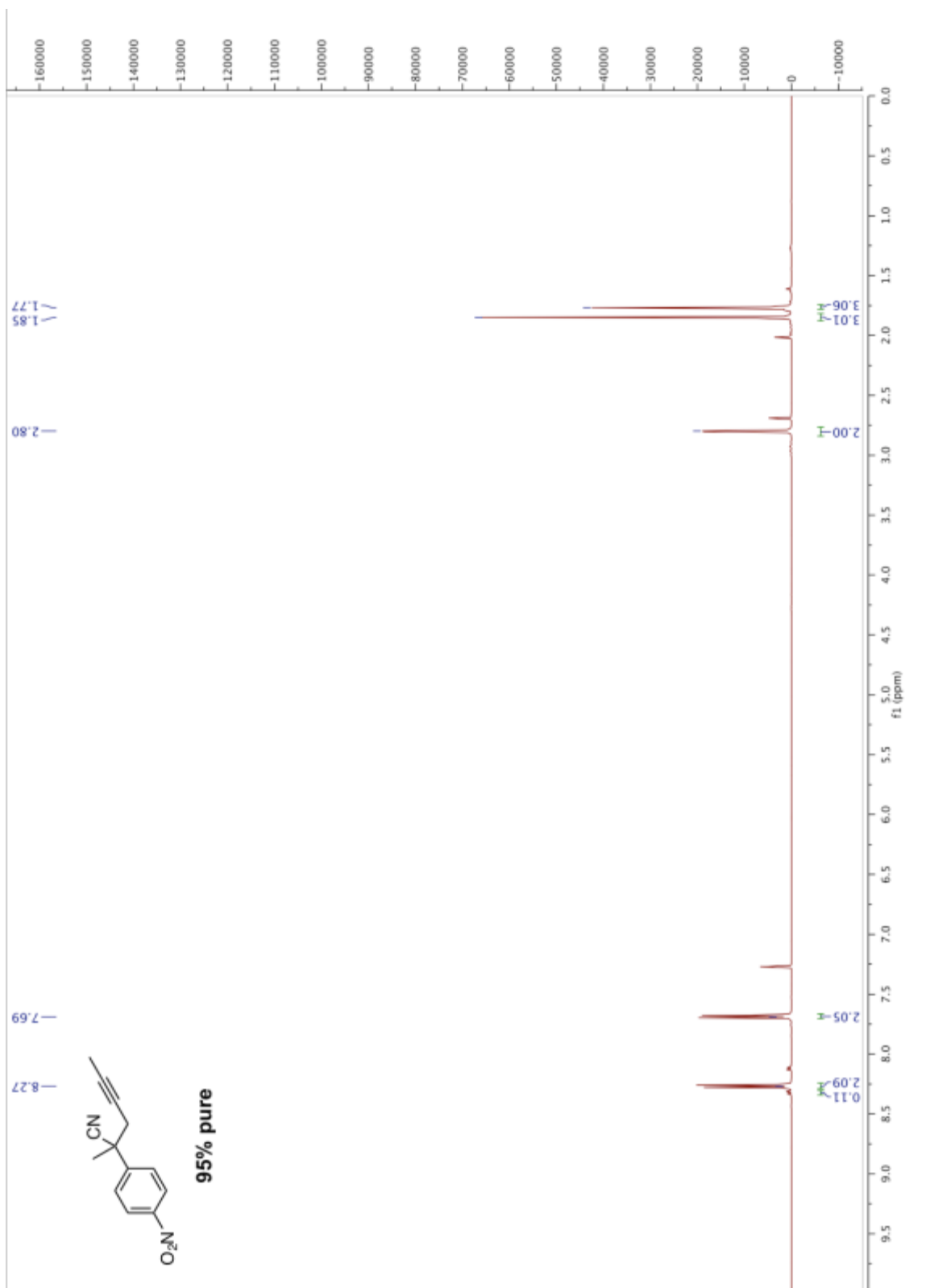


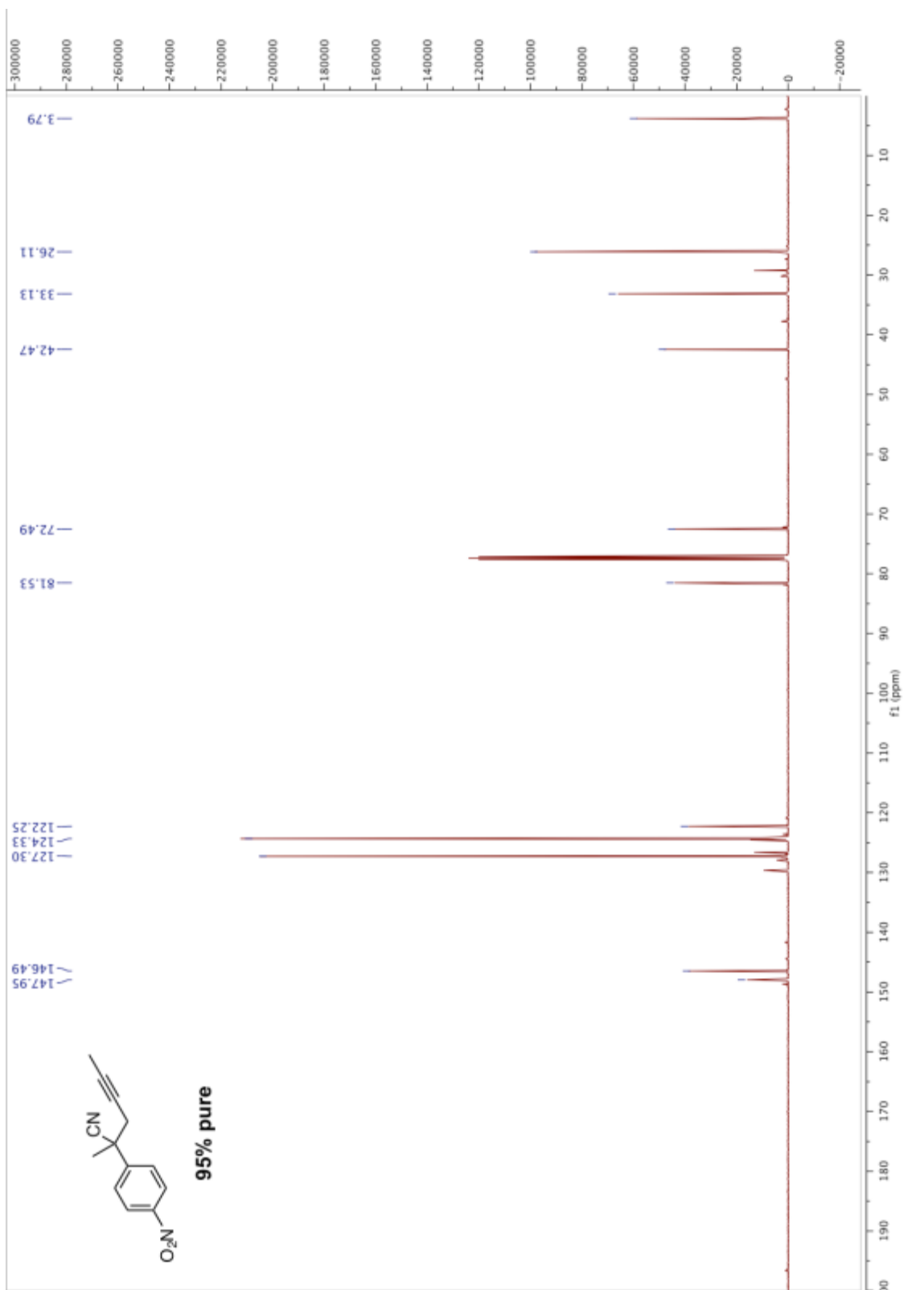


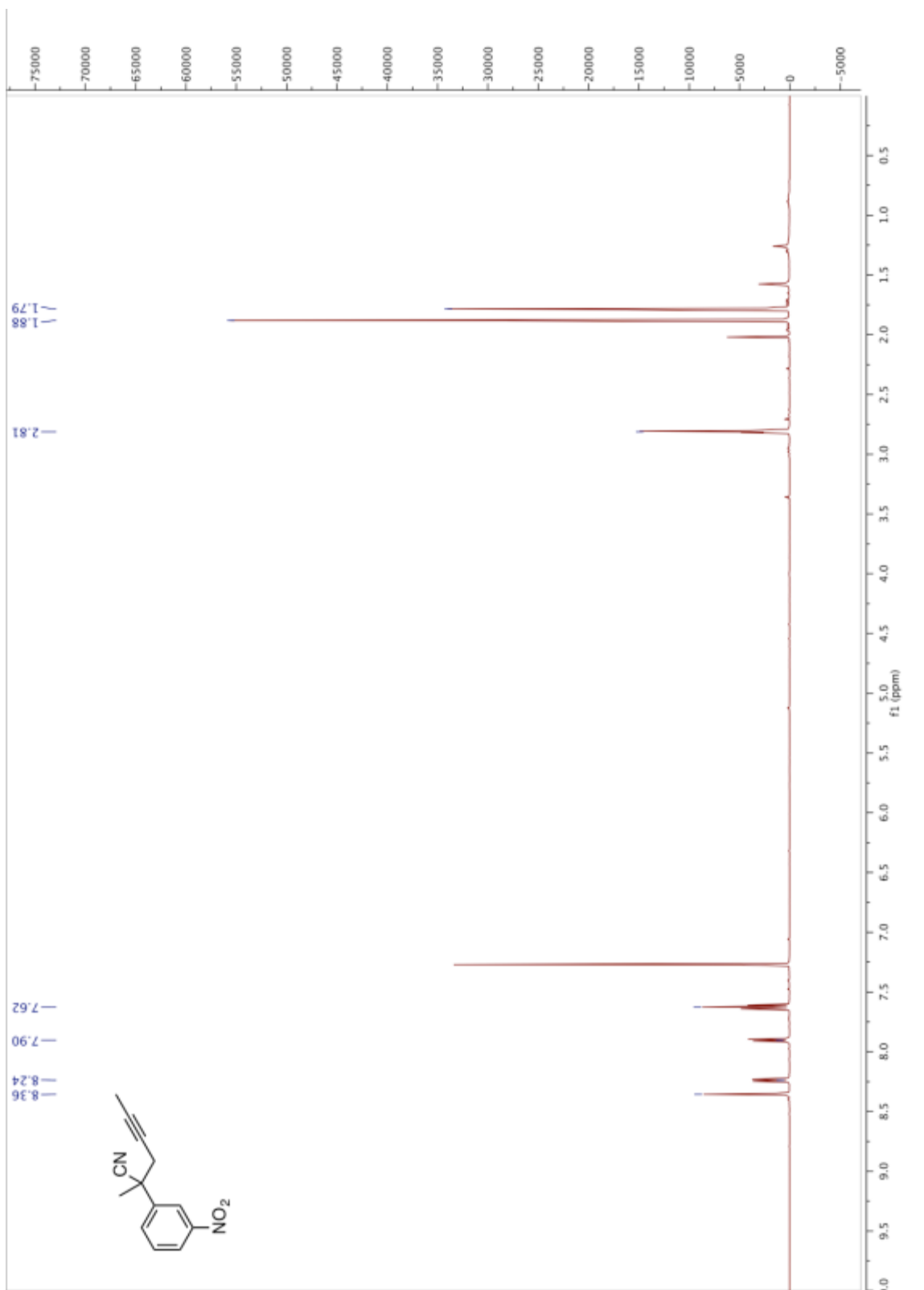


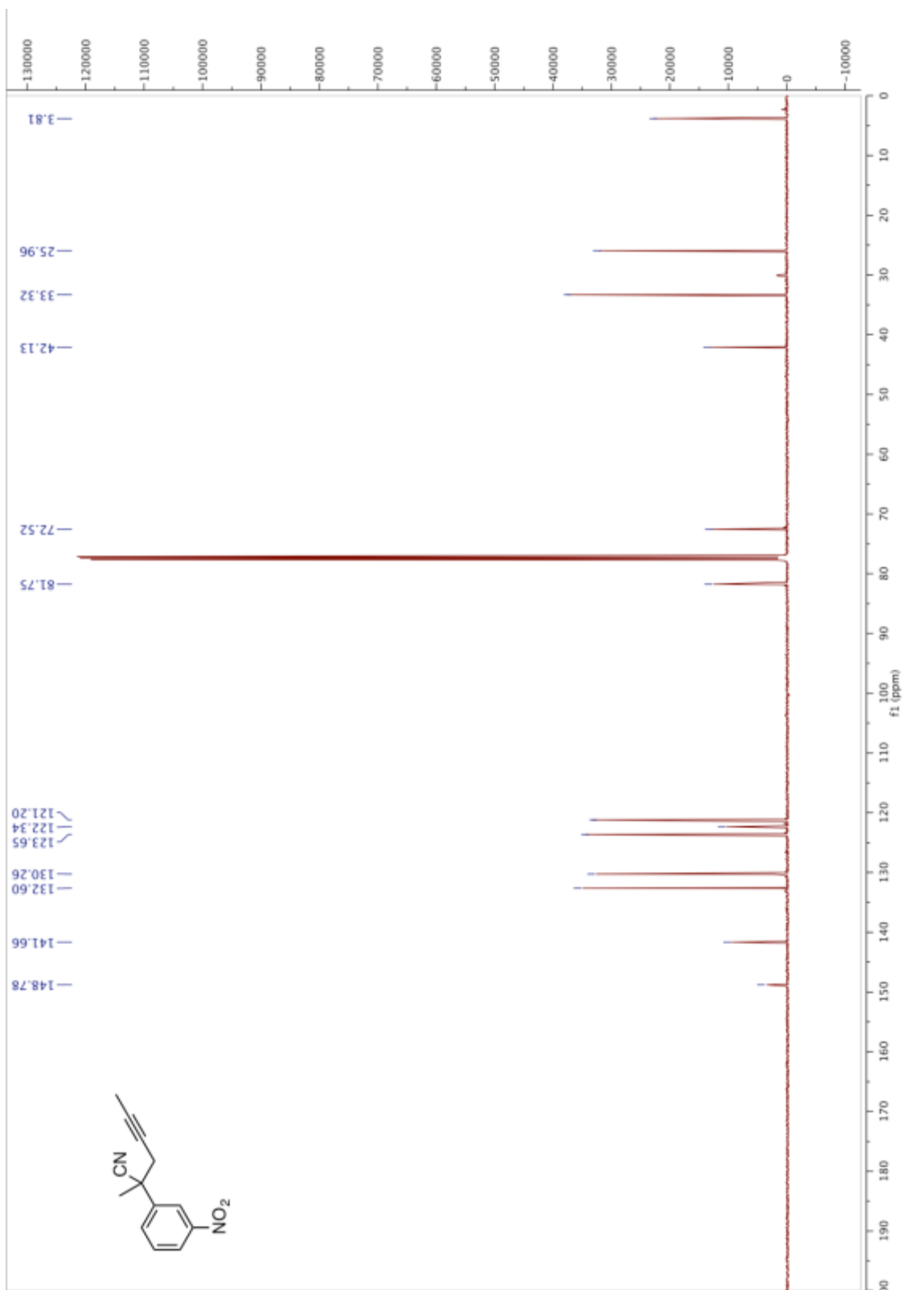


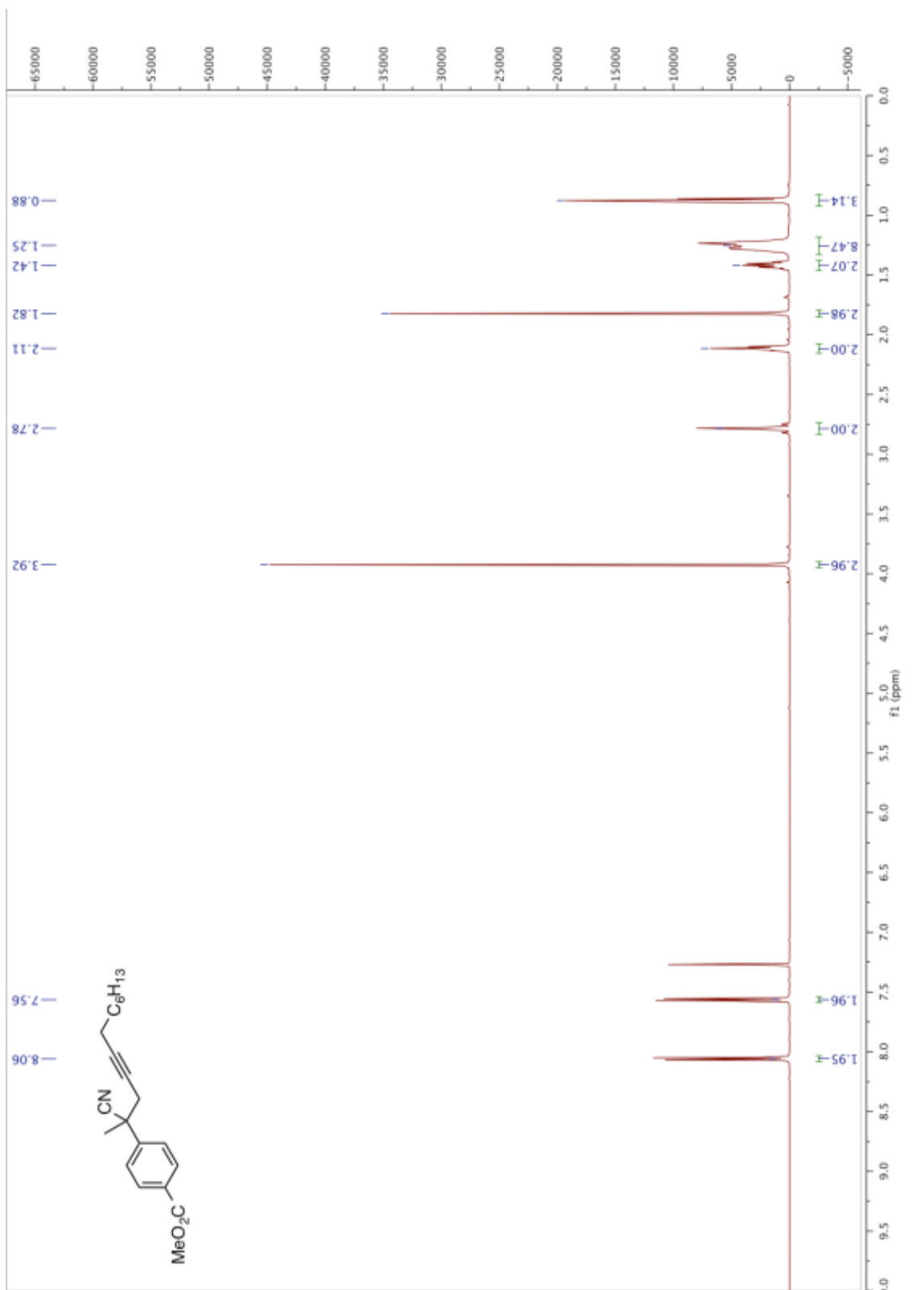


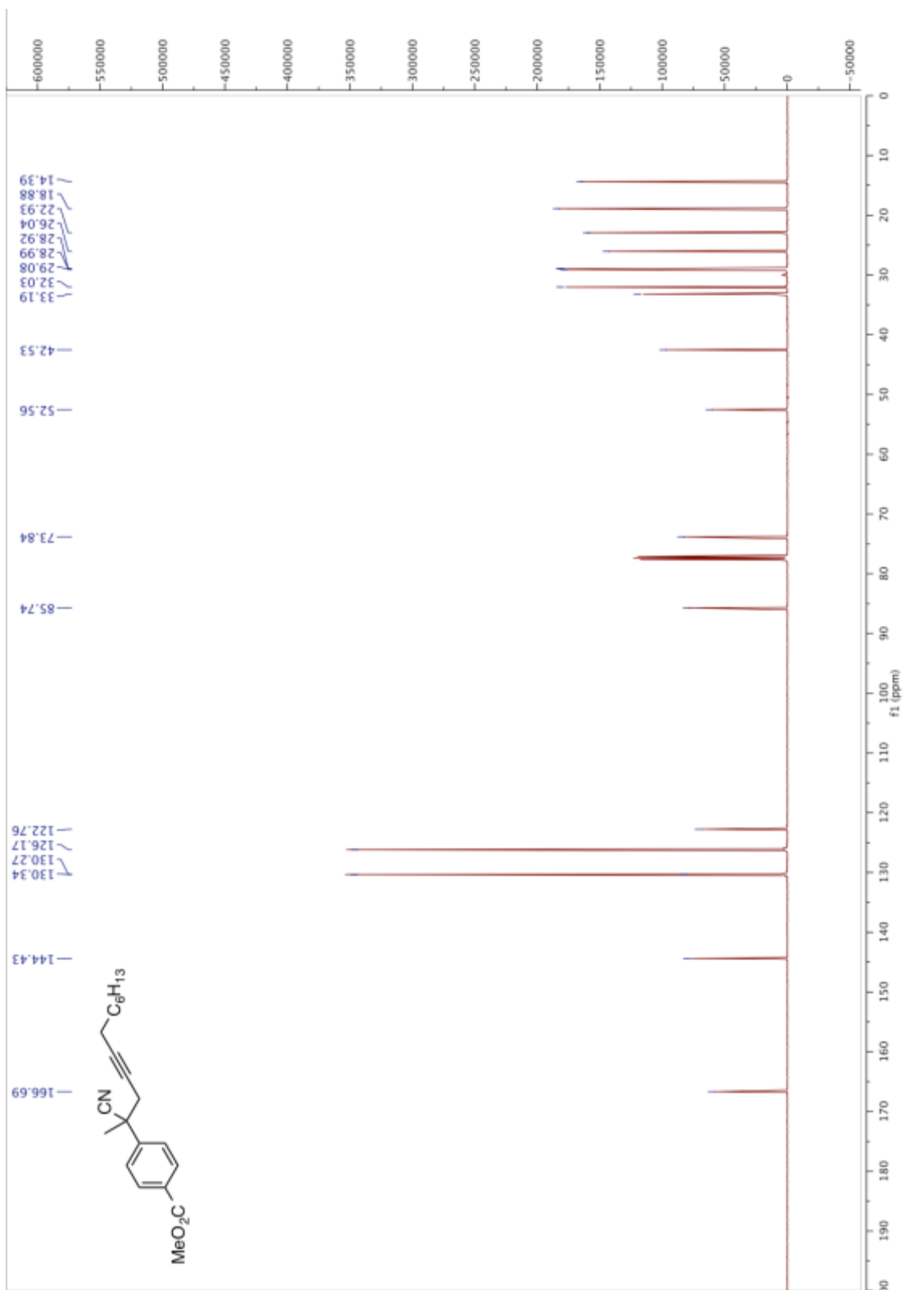


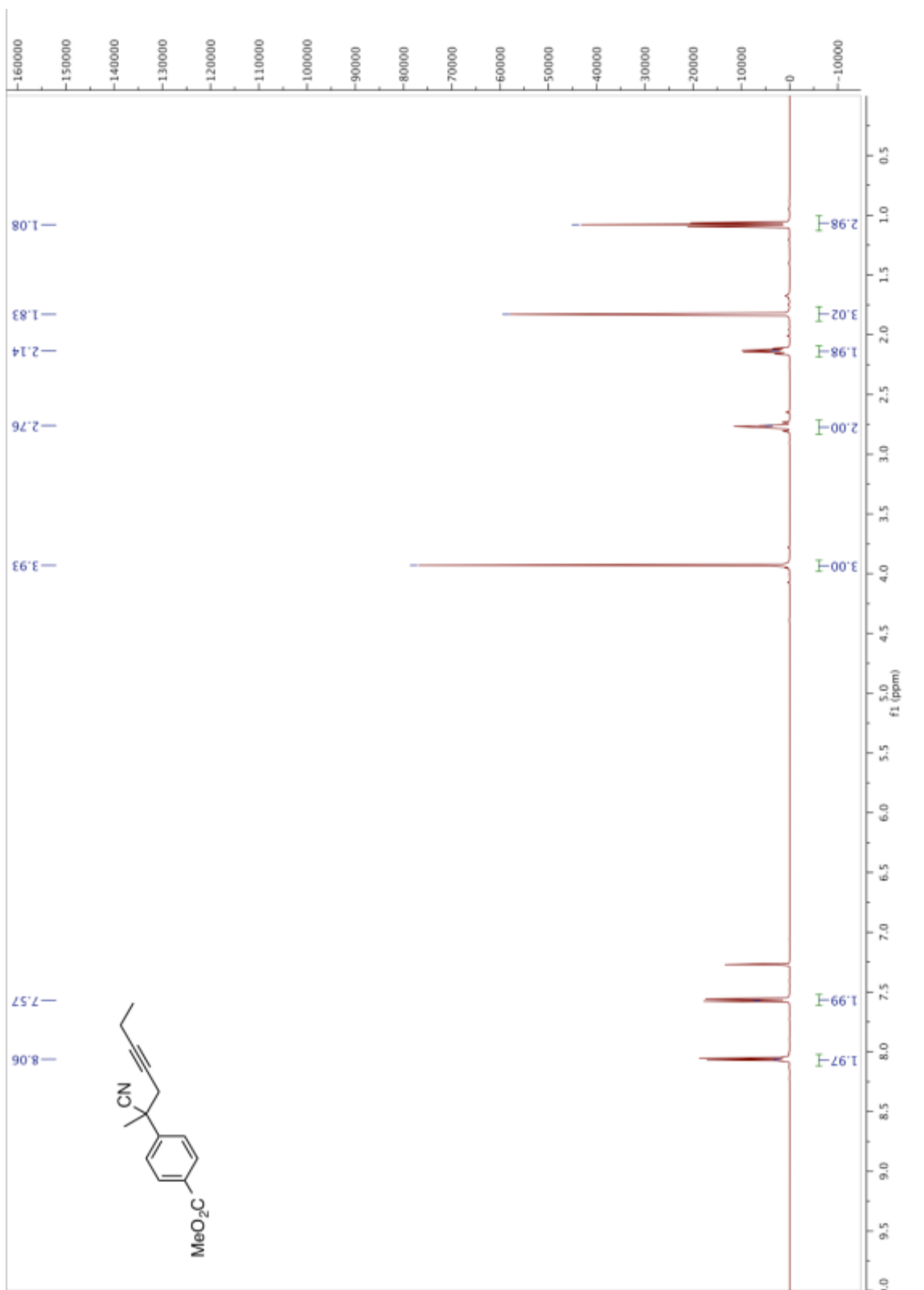


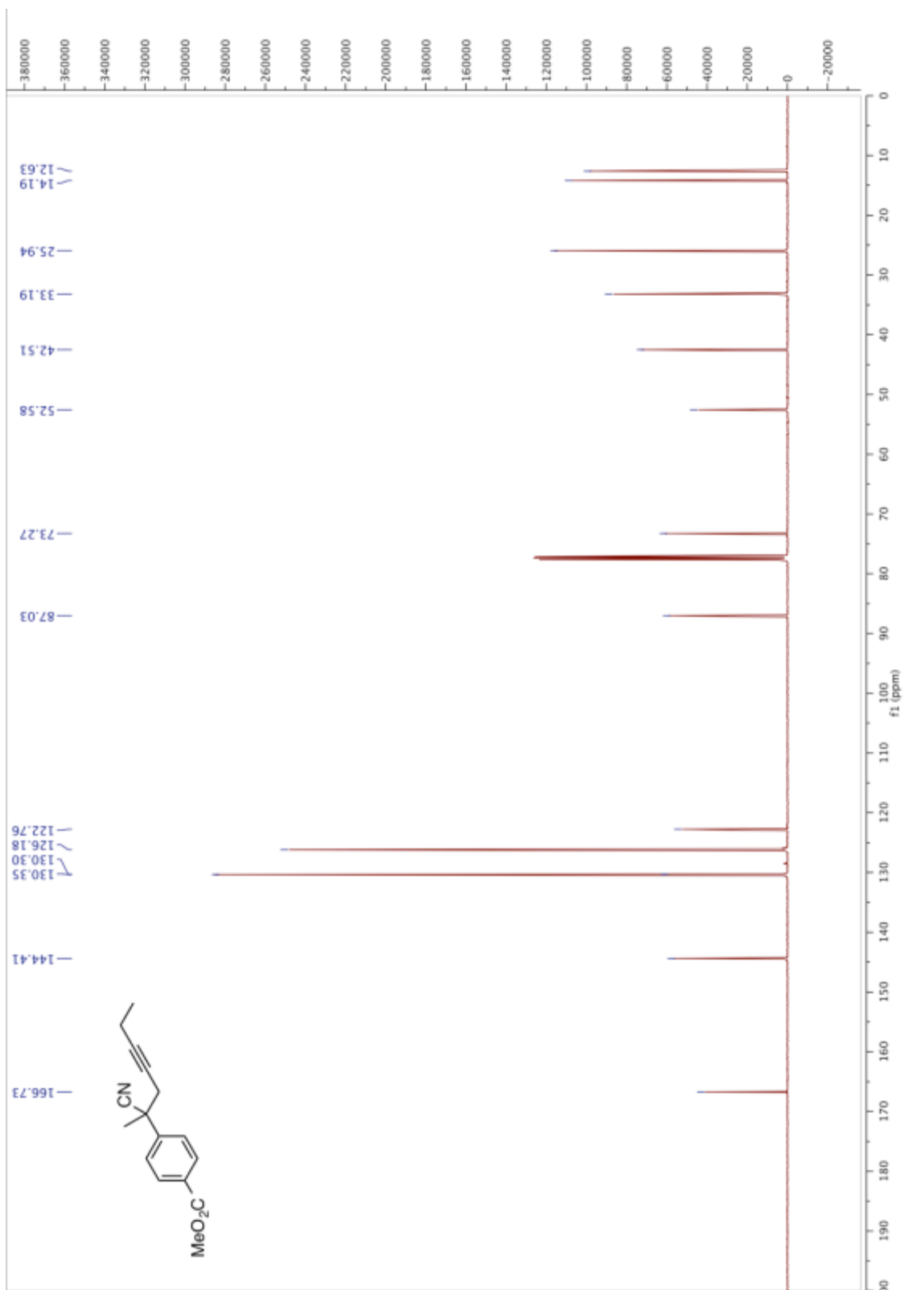


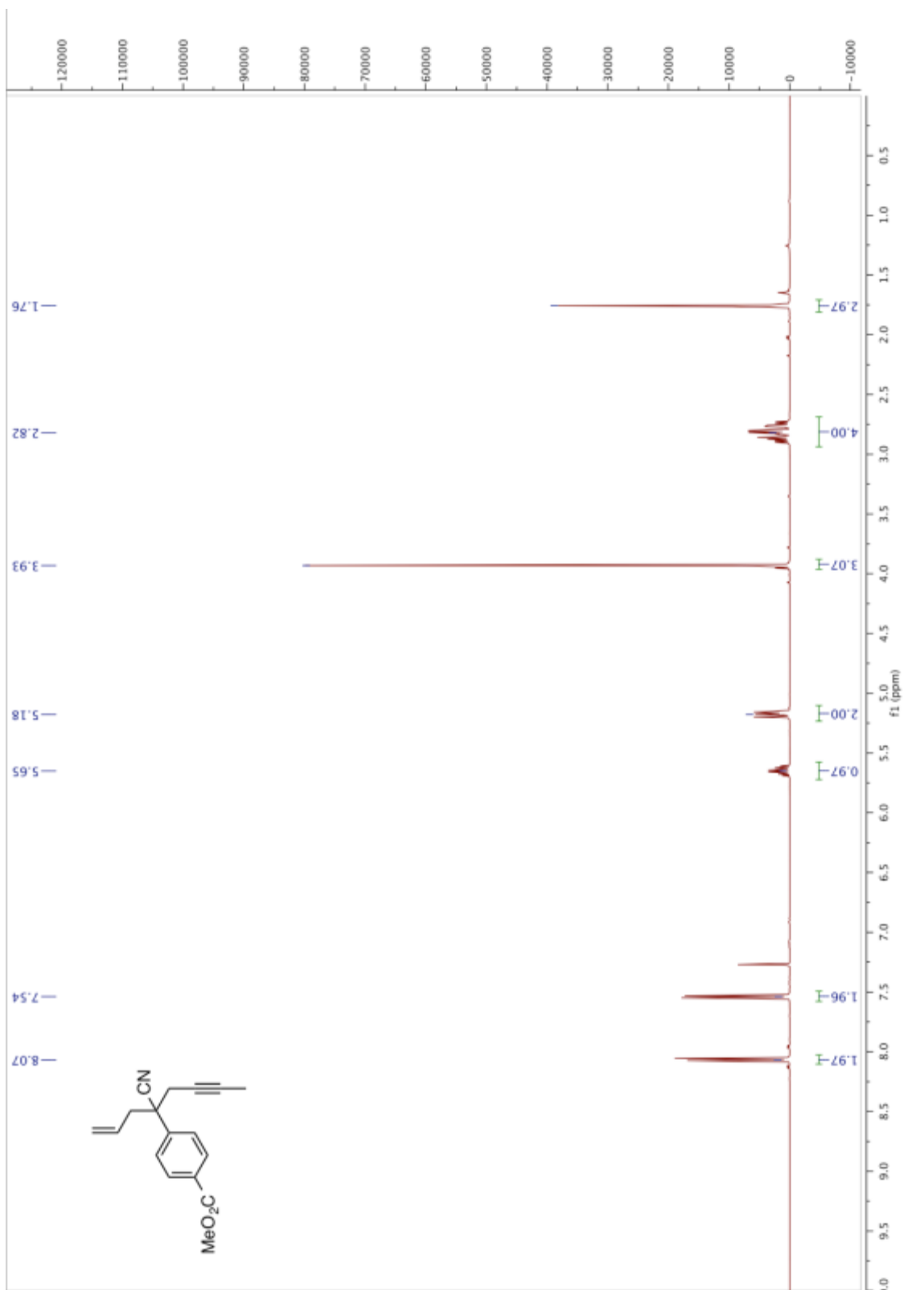


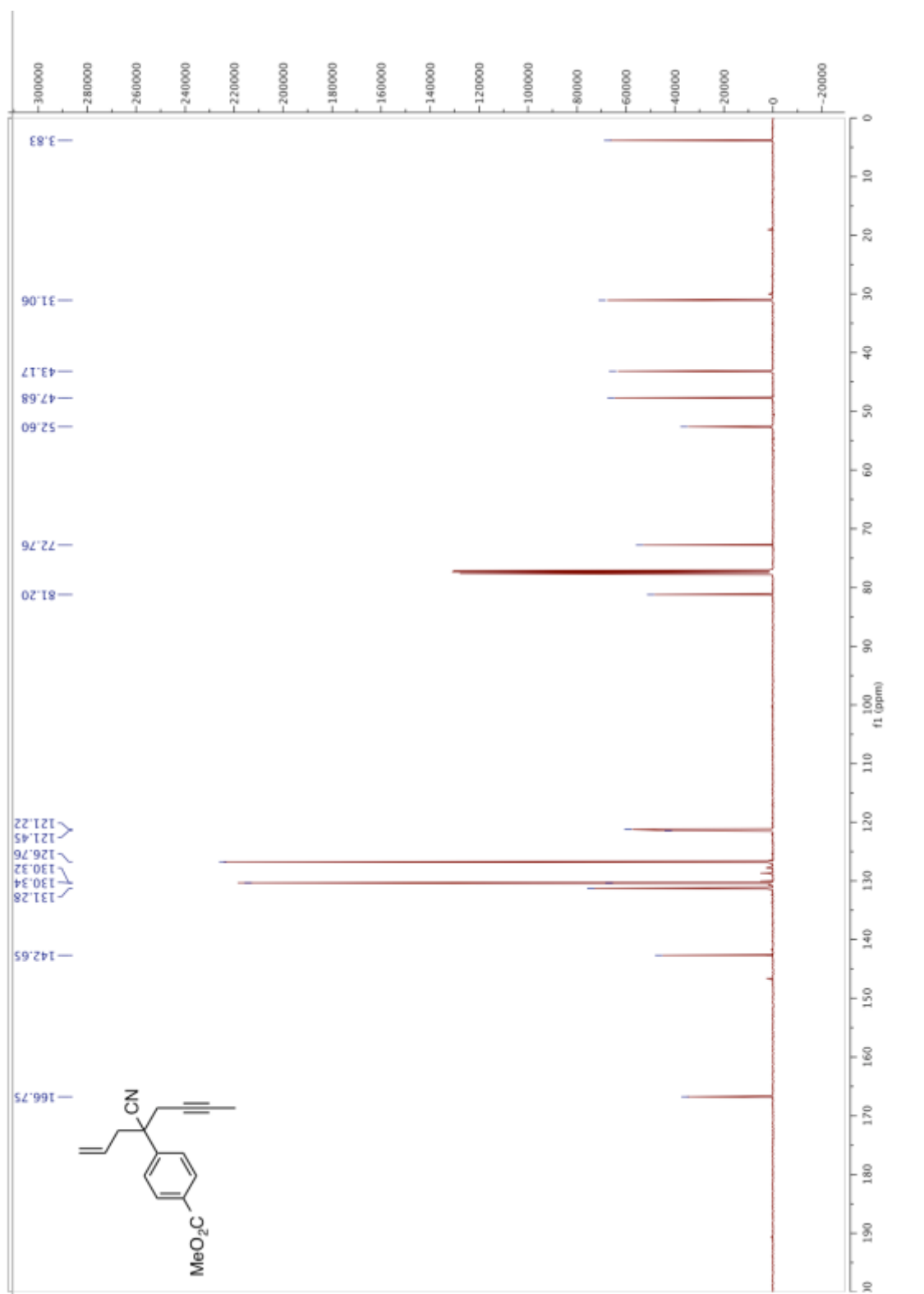


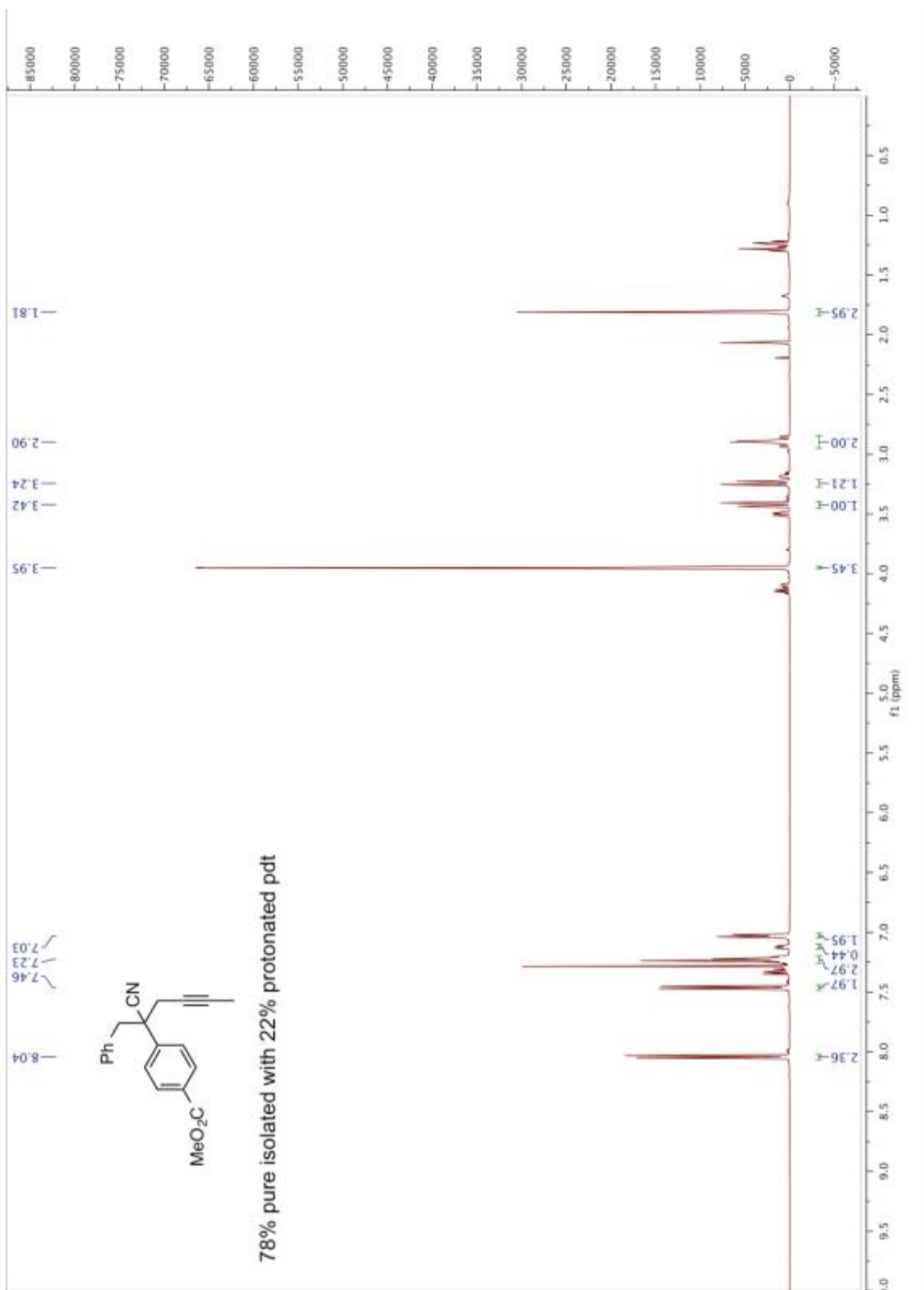


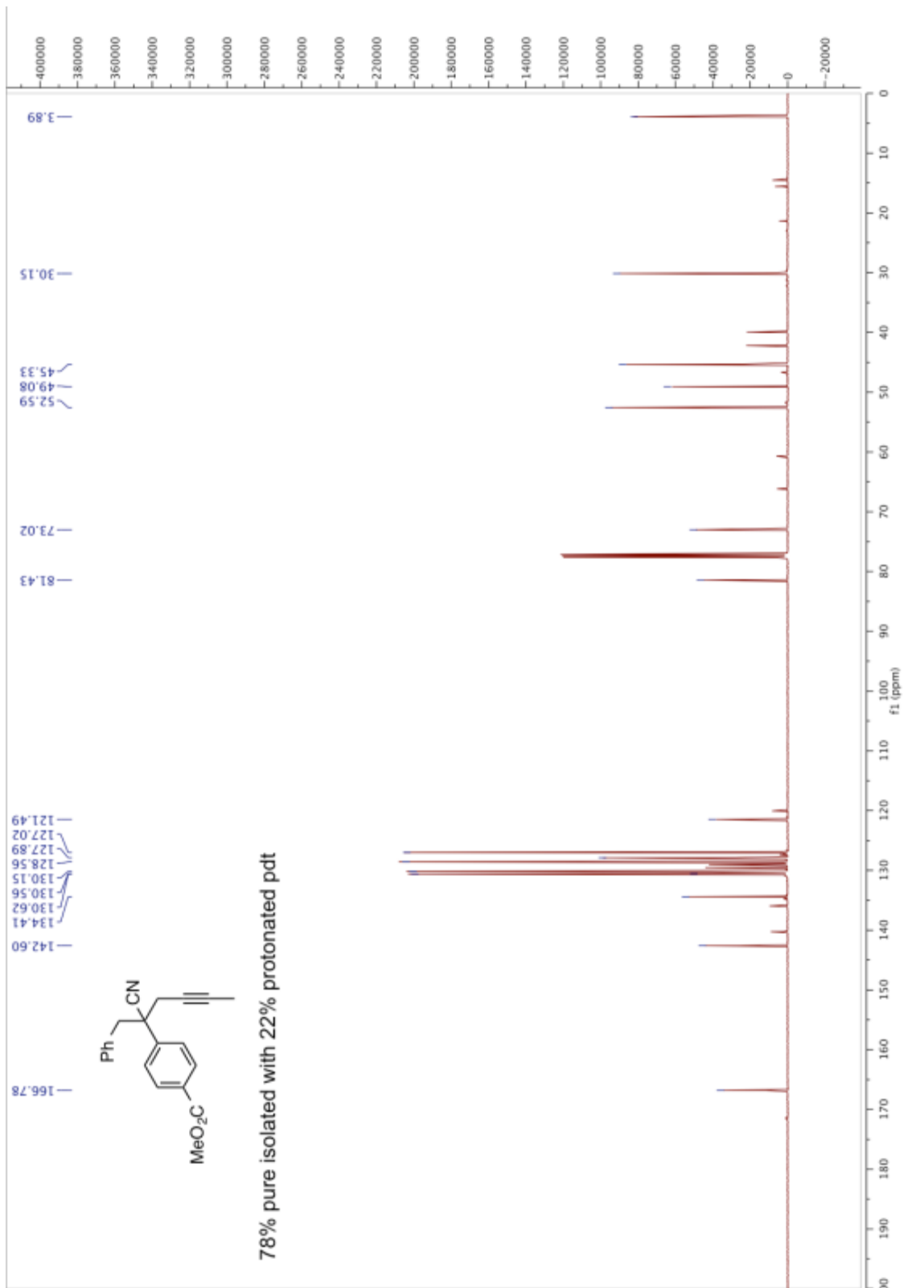












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- [1] Tanaka, T.; Okamura, N.; Bannai, K.; Hazato, A.; Sugiura, S.; Manabe, K.; Kurozumi, S. "Stereospecific Synthesis of (5E)-PGE2 by Palladium-Catalyzed Decarboxylative 2-Alkenylation of 2-Alkenyloxycarbonylated Cyclopentanone Derivative." *Tetrahedron Lett.* **1985**, *26*, 5575-5578.
- [2] Crumbie, R. L.; Nimitz, J. S.; Mosher, H. S. "α-Nitro Ketones and Esters from Acylimidazoles." *J. Org. Chem.* **1982**, *47*, 4040-4045.
- [3] Grenning, A. J.; Tunge, J. A. "Deacylative Allylation: Allylic Alkylation via Retro-Claisen Activation." *J. Am. Chem. Soc.* **2011**, *133*, 14785-14794.

Chapter 4. Activation of Alcohols with Carbon Dioxide: Intermolecular Allylation of Weakly Acidic Pronucleophiles¹

4.1 Introduction to Allylation:

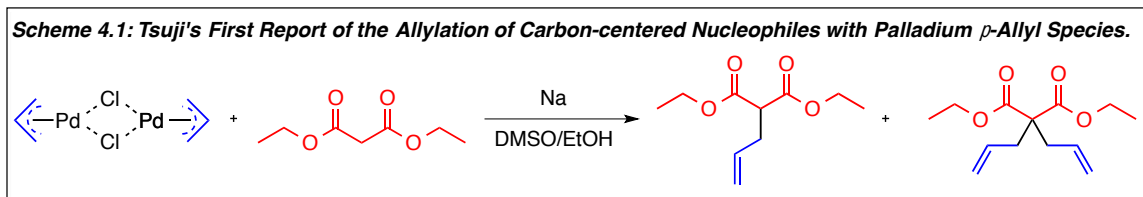
As mentioned in chapters 1-3 of this dissertation, incorporation of allylic moieties consisting of a three-carbon subunit (C–C=C) have been the subject of extensive research over the past four decades.²⁻⁹ One potential reason for such extensive research lies in the ability of alkenes to serve as diverse functional handles for other chemoselective transformations.¹⁰ Further, unlike asymmetric reactions involving a prochiral olefin or carbonyl moieties where asymmetric induction relies on facial differentiation, asymmetric allylic alkylations can arise from numerous methods of asymmetric induction.⁷ Specifically, incorporation of chiral elements can occur about the nucleophile, electrophile, or both. Lastly, allylic alkylations can also form numerous types of bonds making them attractive considerations in total synthesis.⁷

In general, allylic substituents can be incorporated into synthetic intermediates as nucleophiles (allylic anion)¹¹⁻¹⁴ or as most commonly is observed, electrophiles (allyl cation).^{2-9,15} The most highly utilized method for catalytic electrophilic allylic alkylation, known as the Tsuji-Trost reaction, involves the use of palladium, activated allylic electrophile (allyl acetate or allyl carbonate), and a stabilized nucleophile. In contrast to simple substitution reactions with allylic halides, the Tsuji-Trost reaction uses more readily available alcohols and the use of palladium can control the regio- and stereochemical outcome of product formation.

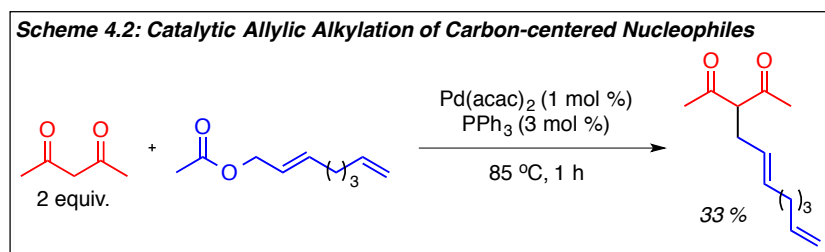
4.2 Development and Application of the Tsuji-Trost Reaction.

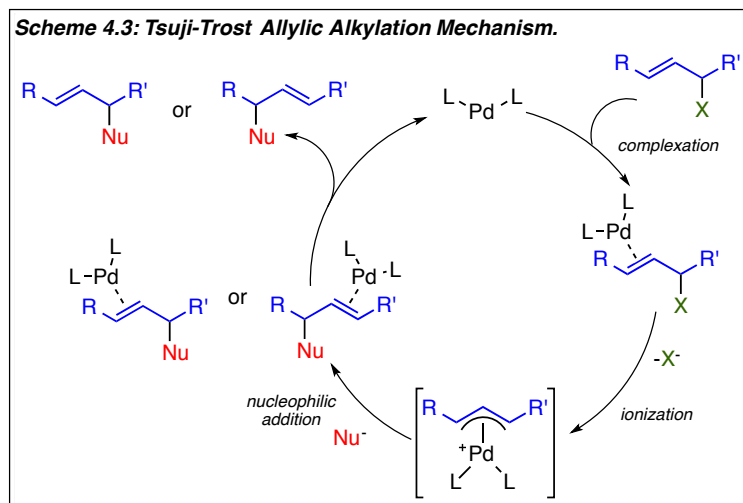
First reported in 1965 by Tsuji and coworkers, the ability for palladium to promote allylic alkylation of carbon-centered nucleophiles was accomplished in the presence of sodium ethoxide (Scheme 4.1).¹⁶ Although a mixture of allylated and diallylated products was observed using

stoichiometric palladium(allyl)chloride dimer, Tsuji and coworkers revealed the importance of palladium π -allyl intermediates for successful allylic alkylation.

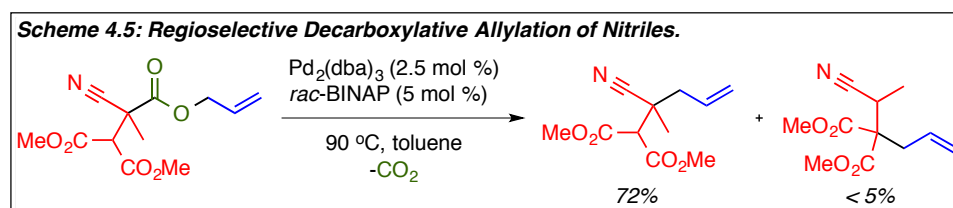
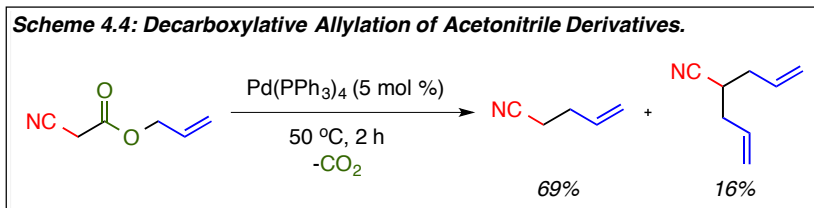


Over the next couple of years, it was revealed that not only could palladium π -allyl intermediates be generated from allylic electrophiles equipped with a good leaving group in the presence of a palladium(0) catalyst, but also that the amount of palladium could be reduced and used catalytically (Scheme 4.2).¹⁷ In general, the mechanism of the Tsuji-Trost allylation reaction begins with coordination of an allylic electrophile to palladium(0) (Scheme 4.3).⁷ Then, ionization occurs via oxidative addition to palladium to form a cationic palladium π -allyl intermediate. Lastly, nucleophilic substitution by an activated nucleophile will yield the allylated species along with regeneration of the active palladium(0) catalyst.⁷

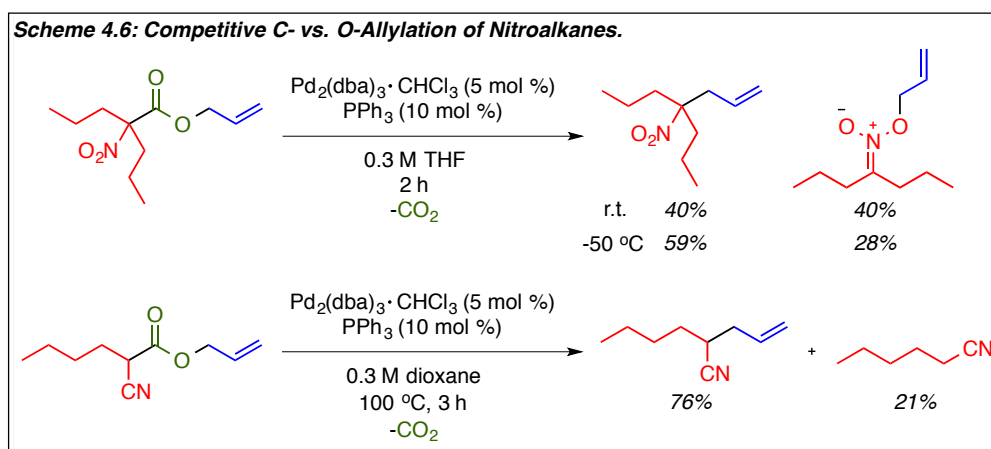




As it pertains to material that will be presented later in the chapter, in 1980 Tsuji¹⁸ and Saegusa¹⁹ expanded the scope of allylic alkylation methods to include the *in situ* generation of enolate nucleophiles from the palladium(0)-catalyzed decarboxylation of β -ketocarboxylates. Although Nesmeyanov and coworkers had previously demonstrated that metal β -ketocarboxylates readily undergo decarboxylation to generate metal enolates,²⁰ application in the Tsuji-Trost reaction, as presented by Tsuji and Saegusa, allowed for both activation of the electrophile and nucleophile *in situ*. Specifically, *in situ* activation of various nucleophiles could bypass the previously existing pK_a limits of the reaction and significantly expand the functional group compatibility.⁹ Importantly, a single example demonstrated by Saegusa and coworkers revealed that an acetonitrile derivative was also a compatible starting material for the decarboxylative allylation reaction despite minor contamination with the diallylated species (Scheme 4.4).¹⁹ Subsequent studies conducted by Tunge and coworker in 2009 further revealed that the decarboxylative allylation of nitriles was regioselective when conducted in the presence of much more acidic α -protons (Scheme 4.5).²¹ Their studies demonstrated the application of decarboxylative allylation methods as opposed to base-mediated nucleophilic activation.²¹

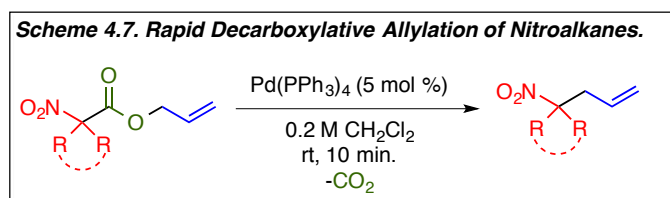


In addition to the decarboxylative activation of nitriles for allylic substitution, it is also necessary to briefly discuss advances in the decarboxylative allylation of nitroalkanes. Along with providing additional examples of the decarboxylative allylation of nitriles (in which allylation was observed in competition with protonation), in 1987 Tsuji and coworkers reported that nitroalkanes were viable substrates for decarboxylative allylic coupling to form a new C—C bond (Scheme 4.6).²² However, the reaction was significantly effected by competing *O*-allylation even at reduced reactions temperatures (Scheme 4.6).



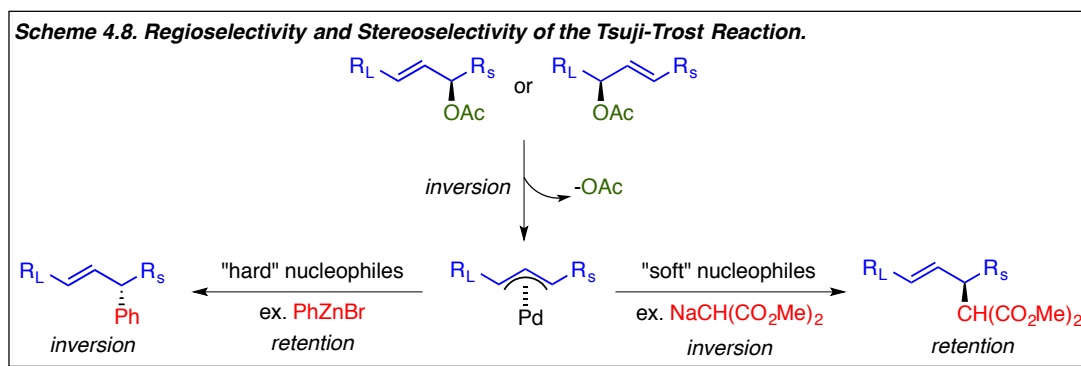
To expand the scope of decarboxylative allylation to nitroalkanes, in 2010 Tunge and coworker optimized reaction conditions that resulted in predominately *C*-allylation (Scheme 4.7).²³ Further, it was determined that *O*-allylation is fast and reversible as opposed to *C*-

allylation, which was irreversible. Therefore, in cases where aldehyde products (presumably formed as a result of elimination of *O*-allylation products) were formed competitively with *C*-allylation products, reactions could be conducted under more concentrated conditions to facilitate higher yields of *C*-allylation products.



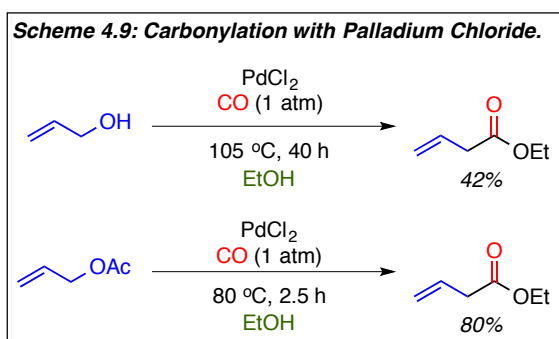
4.3 Regioselectivity of the Tsuji-Trost Allylic Alkylation.

In addition to the development of various methods for nucleophilic activation, substantial research has been conducted on the mode of nucleophilic attack once generated (Scheme 4.8).²⁴⁻²⁶ Starting from a chiral allylic acetate or carbonate, palladium(0) will undergo oxidative addition of the allylic electrophile to generate a palladium π -allyl intermediate with inversion of stereochemistry. For soft, stabilized nucleophiles like malonates ($\text{p}K_{\text{a}} = <18$), nucleophilic attack will occur with inversion at the π -allyl ligand to displace palladium resulting in a formal retention of stereochemistry. Alternatively, hard nucleophiles ($\text{p}K_{\text{a}} = >25$), will first undergo transmetalation at the palladium center followed by reductive elimination to yield retention of stereochemistry and an overall inversion product.

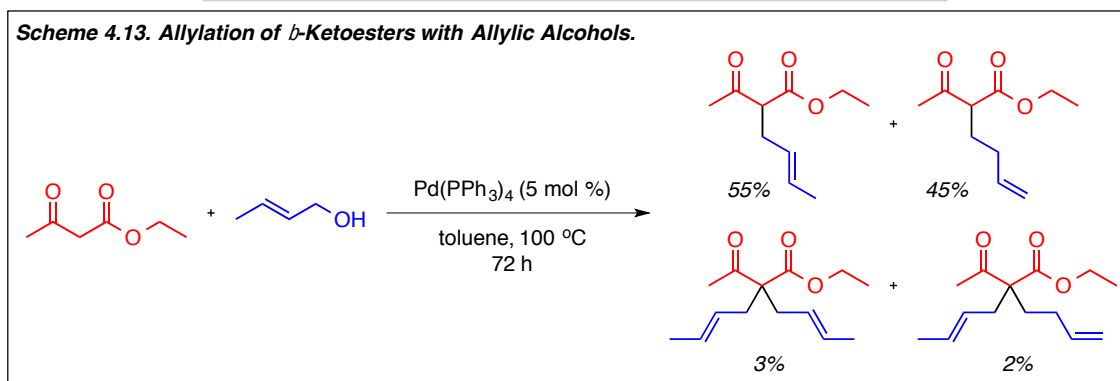
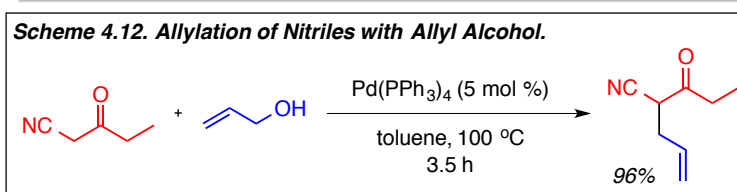
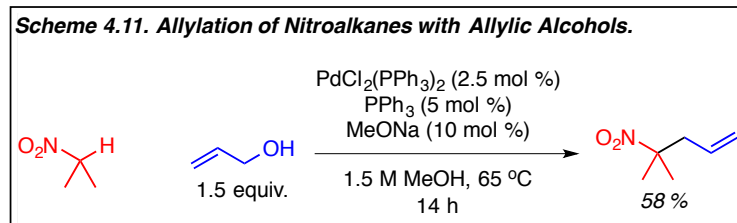
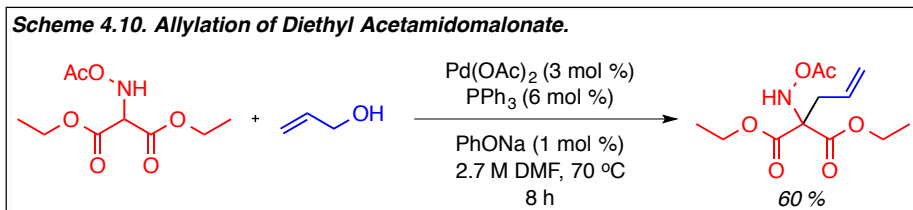


4.4 Activation of Allylic Alcohols for the Allylation of Carbon-Centered Nucleophiles.

The Tsuji-Trost reaction is an extremely valuable method for allylic incorporation into molecular scaffolds as demonstrated by its prevalent use over the last four decades. However, application of this method requires preactivation of alcohols, which possess a poor leaving group to form a better leaving group (typically converting the allylic alcohol to an allylic acetate or carbonate). Therefore, a logical improvement of the Tsuji-Trost reaction would be to develop methods that utilize allylic alcohols directly for the allylation of carbon-centered nucleophiles. Development of such a method would significantly increase the atom economy and efficiency of allylation reactions.

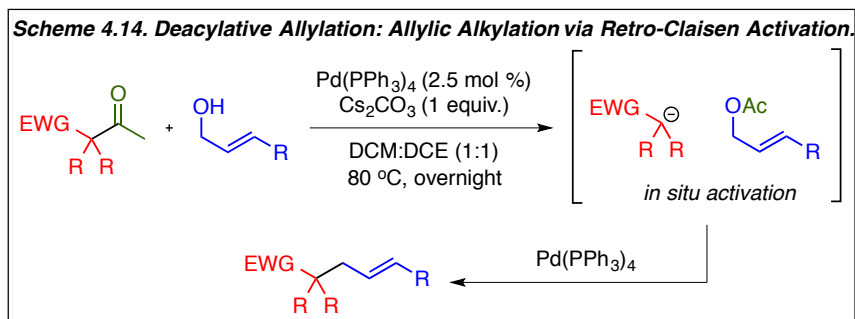


In 1964, Tsuji and coworkers demonstrated that allylic alcohols could be esterified using 1 atm of carbon monoxide in ethanol in the presence of palladium chloride (Scheme 4.9).^{27,28} However, compared to allylic acetate derivatives, allylic alcohols required extended reaction times, higher temperatures, and resulted in lower overall yields. Fifteen years later, in 1979, Commereuc and coworkers reported that a single substrate, diethyl acetamidomalonate, could be allylated in the presence of allyl alcohol, $\text{Pd}(\text{OAc})_2$, PPh_3 , and PhONa (Scheme 4.10).²⁹ Further, under similar reaction conditions Sas³⁰ and Bergbreiter³¹ reported the allylation of nitroalkanes (Scheme 4.11),³⁰ nitriles (Scheme 4.12),³¹ and β -ketoesters (Scheme 4.13),³¹ however, the reported methods suffered from extended reaction times, high temperatures, or lacked product selectivity when compared to Tsuji-Trost reaction alternatives.



In 2011, Tunge and coworker reported that allylic alcohols could be activated *in situ* by ketone pronucleophiles for successful C-allylation (Scheme 4.14).³² The mechanism proceeds via deacylative allylation where a retro-Claisen rearrangement occurs to generate allyl acetate *in situ* along with an activated nucleophile. Allyl acetate would then undergo activation by palladium(0) to ultimately generate the allylated product. In contrast to palladium-catalyzed reactions that attempted to couple allylic alcohols directly, Tunge and coworker demonstrated that their method was highly advantageous resulting in good yields for both stabilized and weakly stabilized carbon

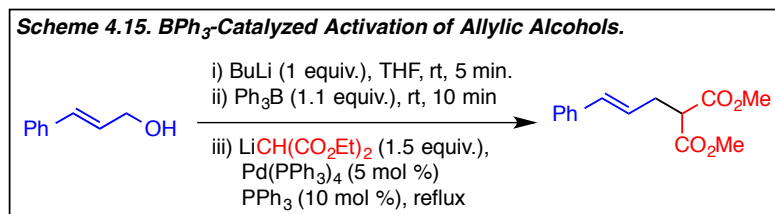
nucleophiles. The retro-Claisen allylation was also applicable to a diverse range of substituted allylic alcohols.



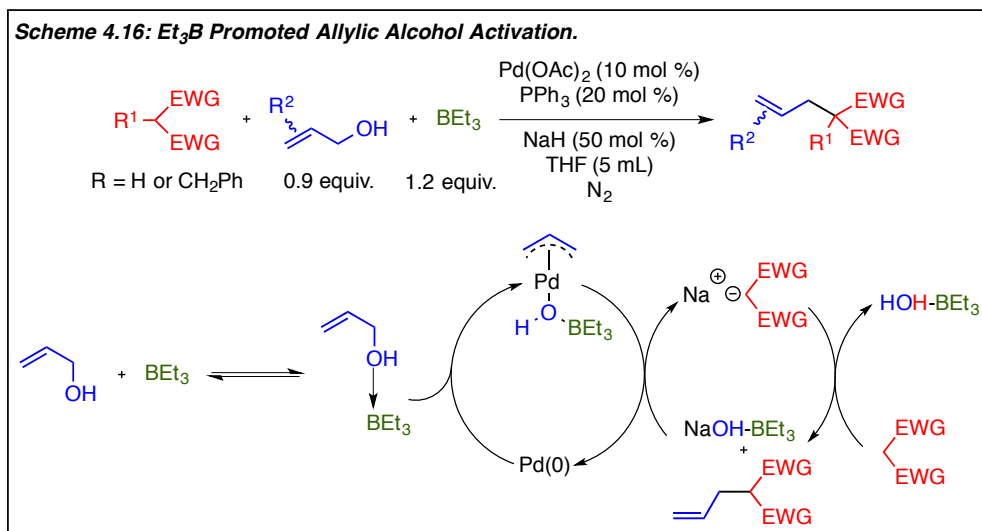
In addition to deacylative allylation as developed by Tunge and coworkers, numerous other methods have been developed toward the activation of allylic alcohols for allylic alkylation of carbon nucleophiles. A brief review of allylation methods utilizing catalysts such as Lewis and Brønsted acids, hydrogen-bond donors, and catalysts based on ligand design will be presented in the following sections.

4.5 Lewis Acid-Catalyzed Allylic Alcohol Activation.

A common method for the activation of allylic alcohols is through the employment of Lewis acids that coordinate to the alcohol functionality and weaken the C—O bond *in situ*, rather than proceeding through a prior functional group manipulation. In 1993, Kočovský and coworkers reported the first use of BPh₃ to activate allyl alcohol in the palladium(0) catalyzed allylation of lithium diethylmalonate (Scheme 4.15).³³ The reaction was tolerant of several substituted allylic alcohols, but the scope of the nucleophile was not examined. Further, refluxing conditions, along with an excess of the starting nucleophile, were required to prevent dialkylation.



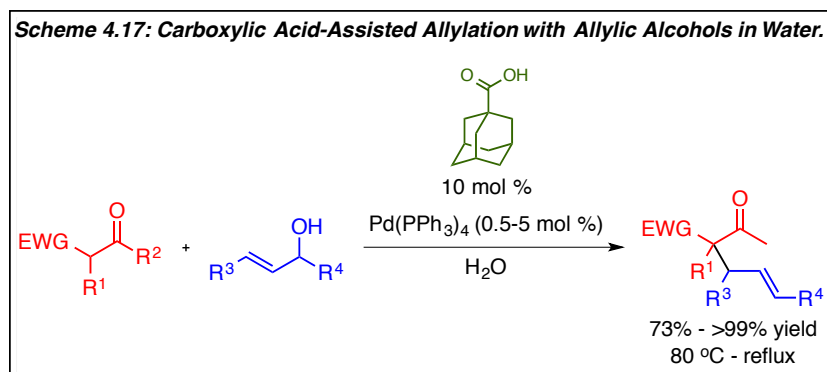
Subsequent reports beginning in 2000 by Tamaru and coworkers began to further investigate alkyboranes as a source of *in situ* allylic alcohol activation (Scheme 4.16).^{4,34,35} After reaction optimization, Tamaru and coworkers reported that Et_3B activated various allylic alcohol for successful allylic alkylation of active methylene compounds in moderate yields. However, the reaction required superstoichiometric Et_3B , NaH and extended reaction times when more sterically encumbered allylic alcohols were used.



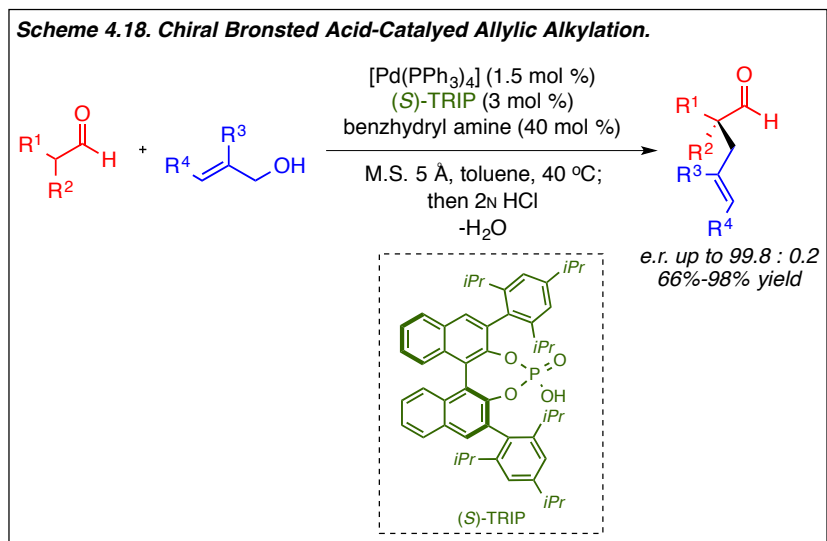
4.6 Brønsted Acid-Catalyzed Activation of Allylic Alcohols.

In addition to trialkylborane Lewis acids, As_2O_3 ,³⁶ $Ti(OiPr)_3$,³⁷ $SnCl_2$,³⁸ and B_2O_3 ,³⁹ have also been employed most often in stoichiometric quantities. As an alternative, Brønsted acid-catalysis has been developed to minimize the production of waste by reducing the amount of catalysts employed. In 2003, Kobayashi and coworker reported that palladium tetrakis with 10

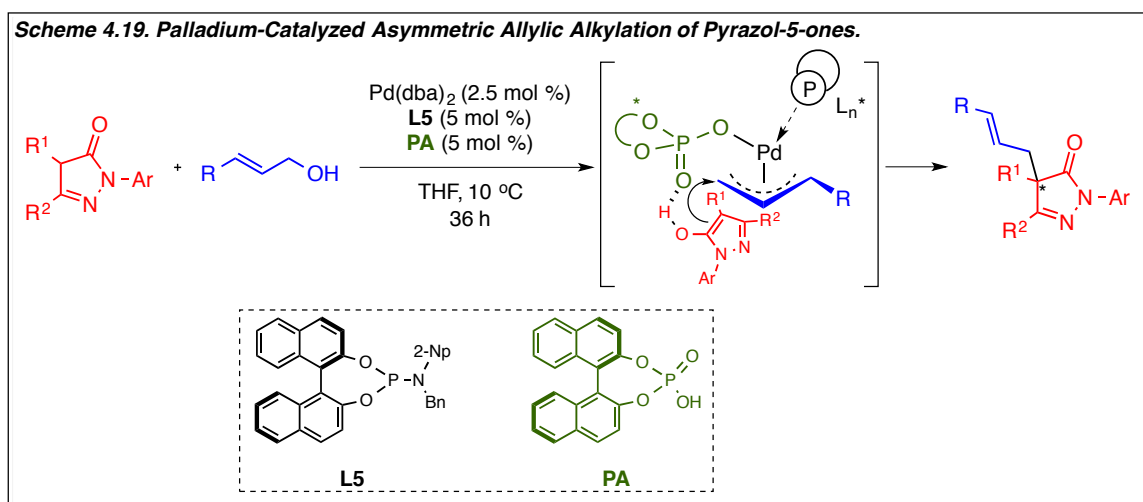
mol% of 1-adamantanecarboxylic acid efficiently catalyzed the allylation of various nucleophiles equipped with two electron-withdrawing groups (EWG's) (Scheme 4.17).⁴⁰ Despite the fact that the reaction could be conducted in water absent of any organic solvents or stoichiometric additives, refluxing reaction conditions are a significant limitation along with the narrow substrate scope for substituted allylic alcohols.



In 2011, List and coworkers employed the use of $\text{Pd}(\text{PPh}_3)_4$ with chiral Brønsted acid and benzhydryl amine to facilitate both allylic alcohol activation and chiral induction in the asymmetric allylation of aldehyde derivatives (Scheme 4.18).⁴¹ Although the developed method produced adequate yields and high ee's, the substrate scope was limited to carbonyl functionalities that could generate an imine *in situ*. Further, the use of transition metal, Brønsted acid, and amine catalysts deviates from the overall objective to develop an atom-economical alternative to the Tsuji-Trost allylation method.

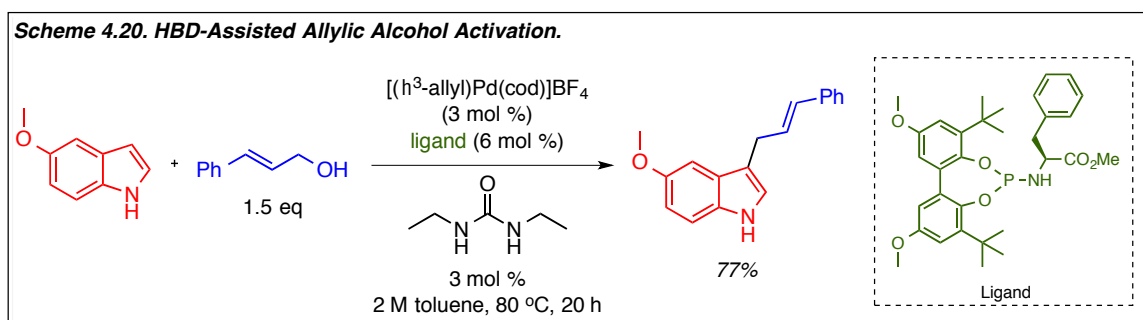


In attempt to minimize the number of requisite additives and expand the substrate scope of asymmetric allylic alkylations, in 2013 Gong and coworkers reported the use of palladium(0) with chiral phosphoric acid and a chiral phosphoramidite ligand in the asymmetric allylation of pyrazol-5-ones (Scheme 4.19).⁴² The method was found to be functional group tolerant and resulted in high yields and ee's. However, chiral induction is largely based on the presence of hydrogen bonding in the transition-state, which limits the scope of the nucleophile.



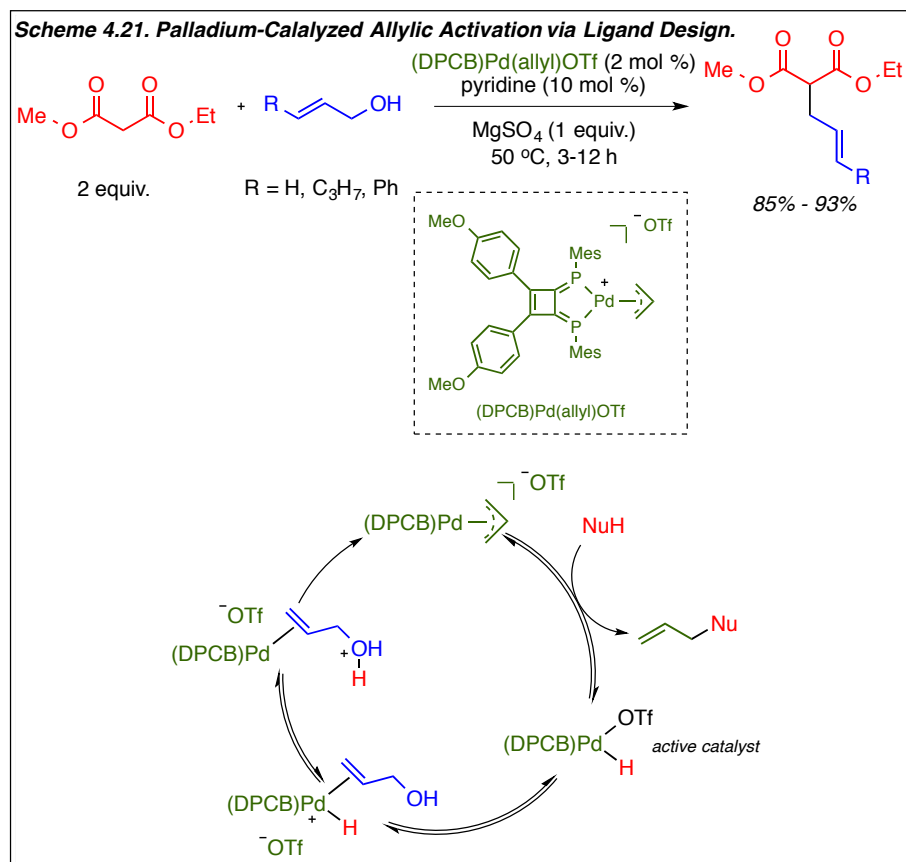
4.7 Hydrogen-Bond Donor (HBD) Activation of Allylic Alcohols.

In effort to further minimize the amount of additives required for the *in situ* activation of allylic alcohols, Reek and coworkers reported that simple diethylurea could be utilized as a HBD catalyst in only 3 mol % for allylic alkylation of carbon nucleophiles (Scheme 4.20).⁴³ However, the developed method was only successful for simple allyl alcohol. When substituted derivatives were employed, significantly decreased yields were observed or the allylation reaction was shut down completely. Lastly, the scope of the nucleophile appeared to be limited to indole-type derivatives.



4.8 Allylic Alcohol Activation via Ligand Design.

One last method of allylic alcohol activation was demonstrated by Ozawa and workers in 2002 through the use of sp^2 -hybridized phosphorous ligands (Scheme 4.21).⁴⁴ Unlike the methods presented previously, allylic alcohol activation occurred absent of any additional additives beyond catalytic palladium and ligand. The active catalytic species is proposed to be a palladium-hydride intermediate which will facilitate a proton transfer to generate a palladium(0) intermediate and activated allylic species for nucleophilic attack.⁴⁴ However, both the scope of the nucleophile and allylic alcohol were extremely limited. Further, a large excess of the starting nucleophile was required to access the reported yields.

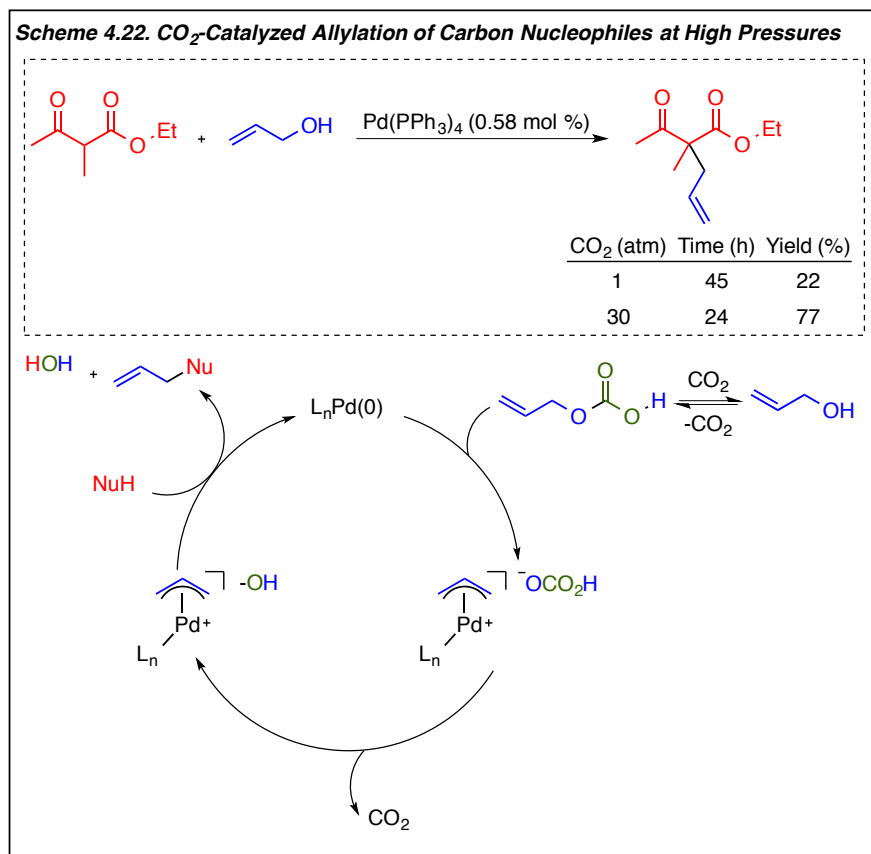


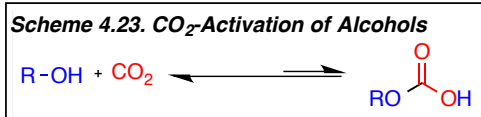
4.9 Activation of Allylic Alcohols with CO_2 .

As demonstrated in sections 1.4 – 1.8 of chapter 4, a variety of methods have been developed for the *in situ* activation of allylic alcohols using various additives or specifically designed ligands. However, the developed methods are limited to non- or weakly basic nucleophiles. More strongly basic nucleophiles would be incompatible under Brønsted or Lewis Acid catalysis. Additionally, these methods often suffer from diminished yields or failed reactions when substituted allylic alcohols are employed. The use of additives also deviates from the goal of achieving an atom-economical alternative to the Tsuji-Trost allylic alkylation reaction since the additives require removal upon reaction completion. In lieu of these drawbacks, we were

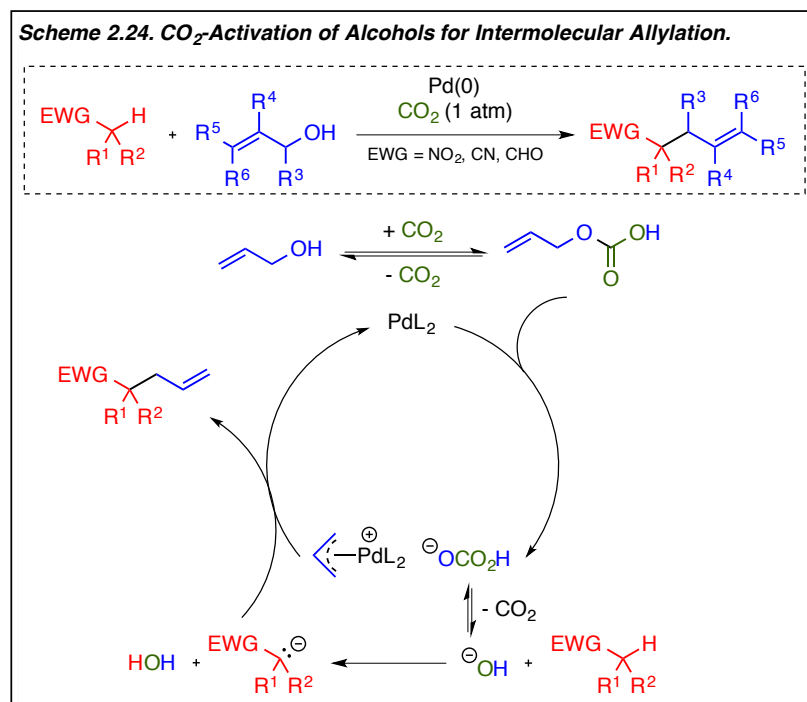
inspired to develop an environmentally benign method to activate both allylic alcohols and a large class of nucleophiles *in situ* for allylic alkylation of carbon-centered nucleophiles.

In 1995, Yamamoto and coworkers reported that CO₂ could be used at high pressure to catalyze the allylation of acidic β-dicarbonyl compounds in the presence of allylic alcohols (Scheme 4.22).⁴⁵ At the time, it was initially proposed that CO₂ reversibly inserts into allylic alcohols to form allyl carbonic acids *in situ* which then undergo activation by palladium. Then in 2001,⁴⁶ and in subsequent reports,⁴⁷⁻⁴⁸ Eckert and coworkers demonstrated that alkylcarbonic acids form *in situ* from the addition of CO₂ to alcohols (Scheme 4.23). Based on these initial reports, we sought to expand the application of CO₂ activation of allylic alcohols to a broader substrate class beyond highly stabilized malonate-type derivatives as reported Yamamoto (Scheme 4.22).⁴⁵



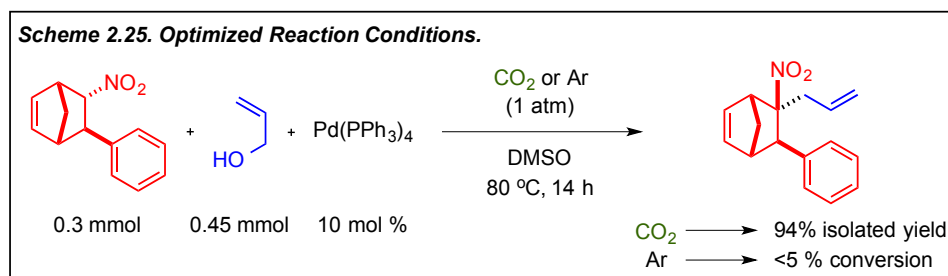


By employing CO₂ as an *in situ* activator of allylic alcohols, we envisioned expanding the known method to *weakly* acidic pronucleophiles, such as nitroalkanes, nitriles, and aldehydes (Scheme 4.24). Beginning with nucleophilic attack of allyl alcohol on CO₂, allylic carbonate would be generated *in situ* and sufficiently activated for oxidative addition by palladium(0) to yield a palladium π-allyl intermediate along with bicarbonate. Subsequent decarboxylation of bicarbonate could then form a strong hydroxide base (pK_a = 30 in DMSO) necessary for pronucleophile activation and generate water as the only stoichiometric by-product. Lastly, nucleophilic attack on the palladium π-allyl intermediate would occur to yield the allylated product and regenerate the active palladium(0) catalyst.



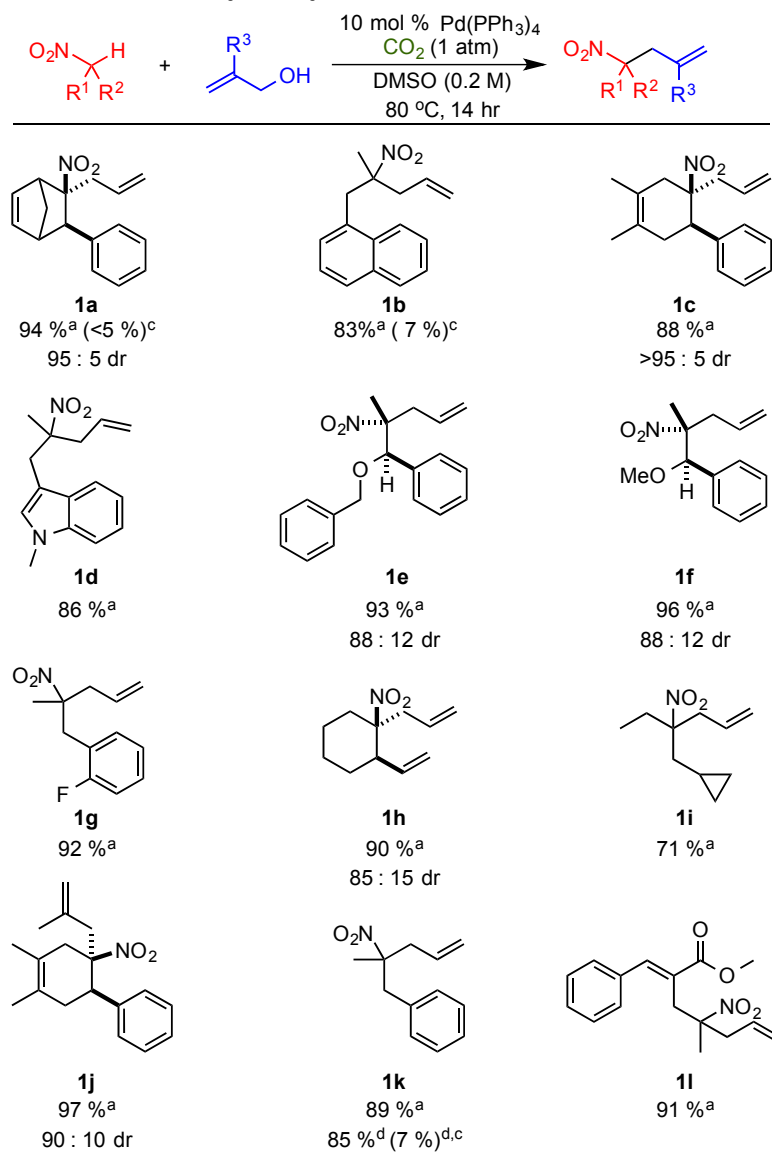
Initial studies were conducted by Simon Lang using relatively acidic nitroalkane derivatives (pK_a = 17 in DMSO). It was found that high yields of the allylated product were

obtained when a sealed vial containing nitroalkane, allyl alcohol, and Pd(PPh₃)₄ in DMSO under 1 atm of CO₂ was heated at 80 °C overnight (Scheme 2.25). Further, when argon replaced CO₂, ¹H NMR spectroscopy of the crude reaction mixture indicated that no appreciable amount of allylated product formed (Scheme 2.25).



Next, Simon examined the scope of nitroalkanes using the developed allylation reaction in which he found that both cyclic and acyclic nitroalkanes were well tolerated (Scheme 2.26). Further, upon examination of the functional group tolerance of the reaction, it was found that olefins (**1a**, **1c**, **1h**), α,β -unsaturated esters (**1i**), ethers (**1e**, **1f**), and indole (**1d**) were well tolerated. Additionally, β -methallyl alcohol also lead to a high isolated yield of the allylated nitroalkane (**1j**). However, prenyl and crotyl alcohols were unsuccessful under the optimized reaction conditions. Lastly, successful allylation of nitroalkane derivatives could also occur under microwave conditions in just 20 min at 160 °C.

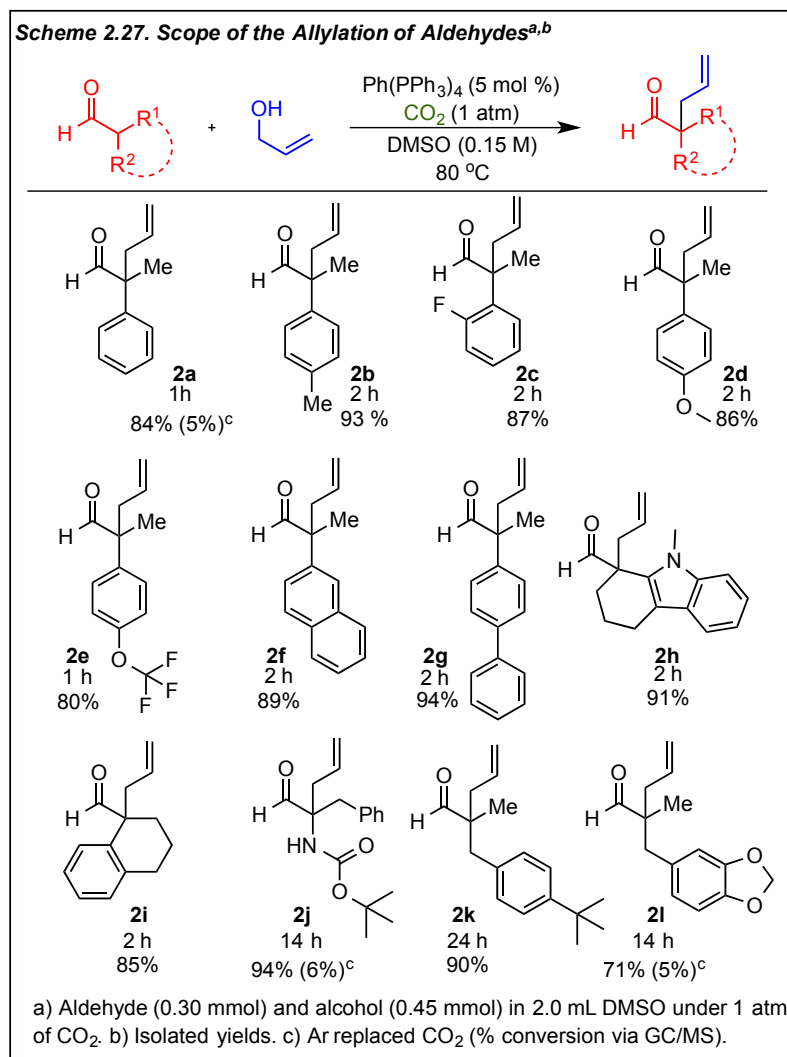
Scheme 2.26. CO₂-Catalyzed Allylation of Nitroalkanes.



a) Nitroalkane (0.3 mmol) and allyl alcohol (0.45 mmol) in 1.75 mL DMSO under 1 atm CO₂. b) Isolated yields. c) Ar replaced CO₂ (% conversion via crude 1H NMR). d) Allyl alcohol (0.9 mmol), 160 °C, 20 min. in a microwave reactor.

Next, Simon evaluated the ability of various aldehyde derivatives to undergo CO₂-catalyzed allylic alkylation from allylic alcohols despite the fact that aldehydes can be prone to dimerization (Scheme 2.27). Gratifyingly, under the standard reaction conditions developed for

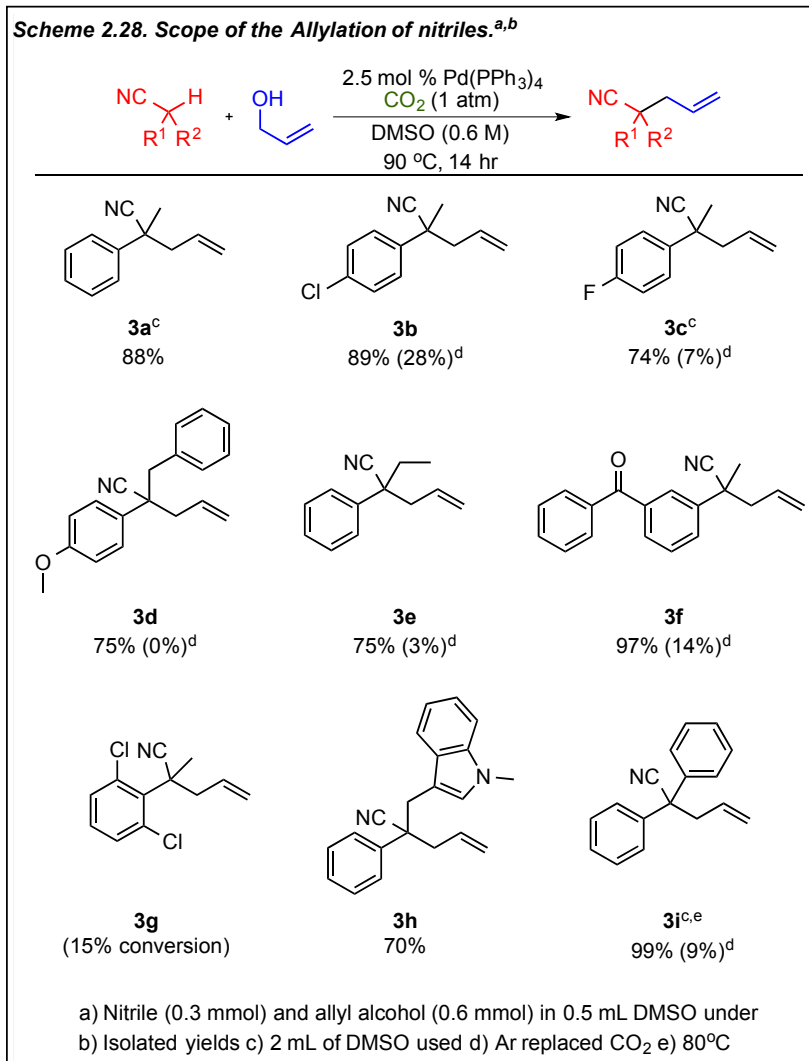
nitroalkanes, both cyclic (**2a-2g**, **2j-3l**) and acyclic (**2h-2i**) aldehyde derivatives were successfully allylated in good to high overall yields. In regards to α -aryl aldehydes, both electron-withdrawing (**2c**, **2e**) and electron-donating functionalities (**2b**, **2d**) were tolerated on the aryl ring along with 2-naphthyl and biaryl motifs (**2f**, **2g**). Further, aldehydes containing a protected amino aldehyde (**2j**) and benzyl substituents (**2k**, **2l**) also resulted in good to high yields of the allylated products.



In order to probe to identity of the *in situ* generated base and examine how weakly acidic the nucleophile coupling partner could be, we next extended the nucleophile scope beyond nitroalkanes ($pK_a = 17$ in DMSO) to tertiary nitriles ($pK_a = 22-25$ in DMSO) (Scheme 2.28). In

slight contrast to the method developed for the allylation of aldehydes and nitroalkanes, optimized reaction conditions for the allylation of nitriles resulted in lowered catalyst loading, more concentrated solutions, and slightly elevated reaction temperatures. However, as found with both nitroalkanes and aldehydes, the CO₂-catalyzed allylation of nitriles resulted in good to high yields of the allylated products. This result suggests that pronucleophile activation occurs from a hydroxide/carbonate mixture generated *in situ* instead of bicarbonate which is not a sufficient base for nitrile activation.

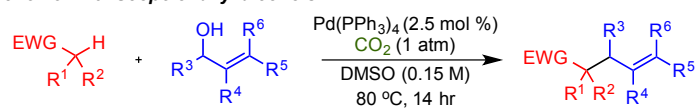
Upon examining the substrate scope of the nitrile coupling partner, it was found that the reaction was tolerant of halogens (**3b-3c**), aryl ether (**3d**), ketone (**3f**), and indole substituents (**3h**). However, allylation of a sterically congested ortho-disubstituted nitrile was unsuccessful under the optimized reaction conditions. Further, yields of the allylated products were significantly higher than when the same reactions conducted under argon. Presumably, since nitriles are known to undergo hydrolysis to form carboxylic acids, the observed minor reaction conversion to the allylated product in the absence of CO₂ could be acid catalyzed as reported by Kobayashi.



Lastly, we examined the scope of the reaction utilizing substituted allylic alcohols with tertiary nitriles and aldehydes (Scheme 2.29). In general, comparable yields were observed as those resulting from allylation reactions with simple allyl alcohol (**4a-4o**). Both 2-methyl and 2-phenyl-2-propen-1-ol were well tolerated by both nitriles and aldehydes resulting in good to high isolated yields of the allylated product (**4a**, **4b**, **4j**). Further, as typically observed in palladium-catalyzed allylation reactions, the linear regioisomer was predominately favored over the branched isomer. For nitrile derivatives a trend was observed where the ratio of the linear:branched isomers increased with an increase in steric bulk on the substituted allylic alcohol

(**4c-4f**). Selectivity is proposed to arise from an outer-sphere C-allylation mechanism.^{48,49} When comparing cinnamyl alcohol and α -vinylbenzyl alcohol, which result in the same palladium π -allyl intermediate *in situ*, comparable selectivity was observed, resulting in a >95:5 linear:branched ratio (**4f**, **4g**). However, the overall isolated yield of the allylated products was slightly lower using the cinnamyl reactant (**4f**, **4g**). Unfortunately, employment of prenyl alcohol failed to produce any of the desired product, presumably due to the increased steric hindrance at the terminal position of the allylic alcohol (**4i**). Lastly, for aldehyde derivatives, ether and substituted aryl moieties were well tolerated on the allylic alcohol resulting in good yields and high regioselectivity for the linear isomer (**4k-4o**).

Scheme 2.29. Scope of allyl alcohols^{a,b}



Substrate	Alcohol	Product	Yield	I:b
			94%	--
			79%	--
			73%	2:1
			99%	10.5:1
			99%	11.2:1
			94%	>95:5
			79%	>95:5
			99%	1.4:1
			0%	--
			77%	--
			79%	93:7
			79%	86:14
			73%	>95:5
			70%	>95:5
			79%	>95:5

4.10 Conclusion

The development of a CO₂-catalyzed method for the *in situ* activation of allylic alcohols enabled the allylation of *weakly* acidic nitroalkanes, nitriles, and aldehydes under mild conditions with water as the only stoichiometric byproduct. Further, the presented method provides an atom-economic alternative to the Tsuji-Trost allylic alkylation absent of stoichiometric or catalytic additives that require removal upon reaction completion.

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Chapter 4. Appendix

Experimental Methods and Spectral Analysis for Chapter 4 Compounds

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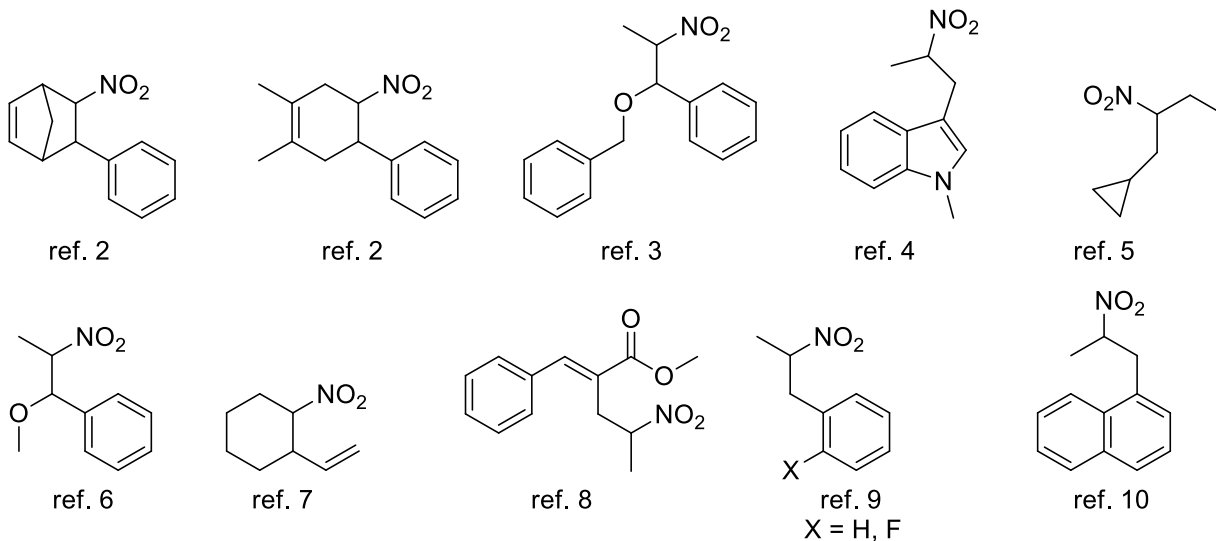
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General Information:

All reactions were run in oven or flame dried 2.0 – 5.0 mL microwave vials from Biotage. DMSO was purchased from Sigma Aldrich and stored in a glove box. Allyl alcohol was purchased from Sigma Aldrich and stored over 3 Å mol sieves. 2-Phenylprop-2-en-1-ol was prepared according to a literature procedure.¹ Palladium tetrakis(triphenylphosphine) was purchased from Strem, stored in a glovebox, and used as received. CO₂ was dispensed through a Matheson 3040 series regulator attached to a cylinder purchased from Lindweld.

TLC analysis was performed with silica gel HL TLC plates w/UV254 from Sorbent Technologies. 60 Å porosity, 230 x 400 mesh standard grade silica gel from Sorbent Technologies was used for column chromatography. GC/MS data was obtained using a Shimadzu GCMS-QP2010 SE. Microwave experiments were run in a Biotage Initiator. ¹H, ¹³C, and ¹⁹F NMR spectra were obtained on a Bruker Advance 500 DRX equipped with a QNP cryoprobe or a Bruker Advance 400. ¹⁹F NMR spectra were referenced to trifluoromethyltoluene while ¹H and ¹³C NMR spectra were referenced to residual protio solvent signals.

Nitroalkanes were prepared according to literature procedures:



Procedure A (synthesis of 2-(4-chlorophenyl)propanenitrile, 2-(4-fluorophenyl)propanenitrile):¹¹

To a glass sleeve, the respective phenylacetonitrile (16.5 mmol) was added with dimethyl carbonate (25 mL, 16 equiv.), and K₂CO₃ (4.5 g, 2 equiv.). The sleeve was placed in a stainless steel Parr reactor, sealed, heated to 160 °C and stirred for 3 hr. The reaction was then quenched by turning off the heating source and allowing the apparatus to cool to room temperature. After removal of the glass sleeve, the contents were subjected to a water workup (200 mL), extracted with EtOAc (100 mL), and purified by flash chromatography over silica in 2% EtOAc:Hexanes.

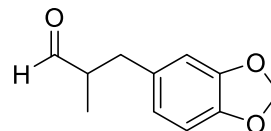
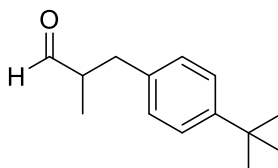
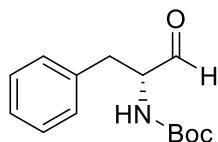
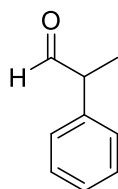
Procedure B (synthesis of 2-(4-methoxyphenyl)-3-phenylpropanenitrile):¹²

In a 100 mL flame-dried Schlenk flask under Ar dry THF (13 mL) was added. The solvent was then placed in a dry ice/acetone bath and cooled to -78 °C. *n*-BuLi (8.0 mL, solution 1.6 M/Hex from Aldrich) was added dropwise and the solution was stirred for 10 min. The solution was then warmed to room temperature, stirred for 5 minutes then cooled to -78 °C. Next, commercially available 4-methoxyphenylacetonitrile (1.85 g, 12.6 mmol) was added dropwise over 10 minutes. The solution was stirred for 1 hr before benzyl bromide (2.15 g, 1 equiv) was added dropwise. The resulting solution was stirred for 30 min., warmed to room temperature, and stirred overnight. The reaction was quenched with aq. NH₄Cl (20 mL), subjected to a water workup (2 x 50 mL), and extracted with EtOAc (50 mL) and dried over MgSO₄. The solution was then filtered and concentrated via rotary evaporation to yield a light yellow oil that solidified upon standing. The solid was then purified via recrystallization by heating the solid in 50 mL EtOH until dissolved then placed in the freezer. The product was collected via vacuum filtration as an off-white solid.

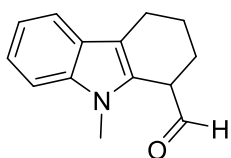
Procedure C (synthesis of substrate 3-(1-methyl-1*H*-indol-3-yl)-2-phenylpropanenitrile):¹³

A 100 mL round bottom flask was charged with benzyl cyanide (.94 g, 8.0 mmol), 1-methylindole-3-carboxaldehyde (1.27 g, 8 mmol), sodium methoxide (0.04 g, 0.8 mmol) and EtOH (12 mL) and stirred at room temperature overnight. The reaction mixture was then concentrated *in vacuo* followed by an aqueous workup in water (2 x 50 mL), extracted with EtOAc (100 mL), and dried over MgSO₄. After concentration via rotary evaporation, the crude product was heated until dissolved in 20 mL EtOH to yield 4-(1-methyl-1*H*-indol-3-yl)-2-phenylbut-3-enenitrile as an orange solid (1.25 g, 4.8 mmol). The solid was then dissolved in THF (5 mL) and cooled to 0 °C followed by the addition of NaBH₄ (0.2 g, 4.8 mmol). The solution was allowed to warm to room temperature and stirred overnight followed by quenching with NH₄Cl (10 mL), aqueous workup (3 x 20 mL), extraction with EtOAc (20 mL), and purification via column chromatography in 2% EtOAc:Hexane.

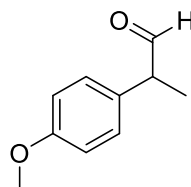
Aldehyde starting materials:



commercially available



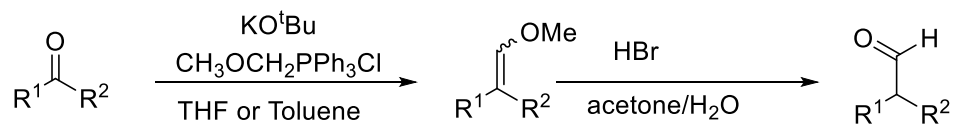
ref 14



ref 15

The remaining aldehydes were synthesized according to the two step procedure outlined in:

Baumann, T.; Vogt, H.; Bräse. *Eur. J. Org. Chem.* **2007**, 266.



References:

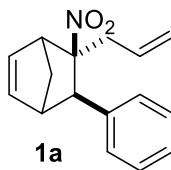
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Representative procedure for the CO₂ catalyzed activation of allyl alcohol towards allylation of nitroalkanes:

A 2.0 – 5.0 mL microwave vial (Biotage #351521) dried in an oven is charged with a stir bar and taken into a glove box. Pd(PPh₃)₄ (10 mol %, 0.035 g) is added along with DMSO (2.0 mL) and the vial is capped using a vial cap (Biotage #352298) and a manual cap crimper (Biotage #353671). The vial is removed from the glovebox and substrate (0.30 mmol) and allyl alcohol (0.45 mmol, 0.026 g) are added sequentially via syringe. CO₂ is then bubbled through the solvent using a 20G needle connected to a balloon and a separate 25.5G needle to vent. After 6 mins the vent needle was removed followed by the CO₂ needle and the top of the vial is wrapped in parafilm “M”. The vial was then placed in an oil bath at room temperature and heated/stirred at 80 °C for 14 hours.

After 14 hours the vial is removed from the bath, and allowed to cool to room temperature. The contents were taken up in EtOAc (10 mL) and transferred to a separatory funnel and were washed with 30 mL DI water 3x. The organic layer was dried over MgSO₄, filtered, and the solvent evaporated *in vacuo* followed by purification via silica gel column chromatography using 1:20 EtOAc:Pentanes as an eluent.



dr = 95:5 ; Stereochemistry assigned by inference. See Ref. 11.

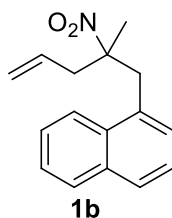
¹H NMR Spectra (500 MHz, CDCl₃):

(major diastereomer) δ 7.47 (d, $J = 7.43$ Hz, 2H), 7.37 (t, $J = 7.40$ Hz, 2H), 7.30 (m, 1H), 6.54 (dd, $J = 5.66, 3.22$ Hz, 1H), 6.26 (dd, $J = 5.67, 2.82$ Hz, 1H), 5.57 (m, 1H), 5.04 (dt, $J = 10.2, 0.95$ Hz, 1H), 4.90 (dq, $J = 16.9$ Hz, 1.50 Hz, 1H), 3.52 (d, $J = 2.63$ Hz, 1H), 3.41 (s, 1H), 3.12 (s, 1H), 2.29 (ddt, $J = 15.0, 6.97, 1.20$ Hz, 1H), 2.05 (d, $J = 9.60$ Hz, 1H), 1.95 (dd, $J = 15.0, 7.60$ Hz, 1H), 1.85 (dq, $J = 9.56, 2.07$ Hz, 1H).

¹³C NMR (126 MHz, CDCl₃):

(major diastereomer) δ 139.79, 138.18, 135.82, 130.21, 127.45, 126.06, 118.66, 100.40, 52.03, 47.13, 45.67, 44.58, 42.14.

GC/MS Data: 255.1 (M^+ , 1 %), 66.1, base peak.



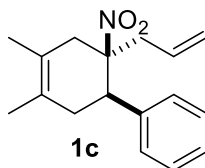
¹H NMR Spectra (500 MHz, CDCl₃):

δ 7.99 (d, *J* = 8.66 Hz, 1H), 7.87 (d, *J* = 8.08 Hz, 1H), 7.80 (d, *J* = 8.40 Hz, 1H), 7.44 (m, 2H), 7.51 (t, *J* = 7.65 Hz, 1H), 7.26 (d, *J* = 6.22 Hz, 1H), 5.71 (m, 1H), 5.21 (m, 2H), 3.78 (d, *J* = 14.7 Hz, 1H), 3.71 (d, *J* = 14.6 Hz, 1H), 3.02 (dd, *J* = 14.2, 6.86 Hz, 1H), 2.57 (dd, *J* = 14.2, 7.76 Hz, 1H), 1.43 (s, 3H).

¹³C NMR (126 MHz, CDCl₃):

δ 133.91, 132.66, 131.15, 130.92, 129.01, 128.47, 128.38, 126.27, 125.67, 125.38, 123.63, 120.93, 92.43, 44.36, 41.09, 21.31.

GC/MS data: 255.1 (M⁺, 8 %), 141.1, base peak.



dr > 95:5; Stereochemistry assigned by inference. See Ref. 11.

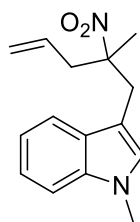
¹H NMR Spectra (500 MHz, CDCl₃):

δ 7.23 (m, 3H), 7.11 (m, 2H), 5.63 (m, 1H), 5.14 (m, 2H), 3.47 (d, *J* = 6.82 Hz, 1H), 2.85 (dd, *J* = 14.1, 6.81 Hz, 1H), 2.64 (m, 3H), 2.34 (m, 2H), 1.75 (d, *J* = 10.9 Hz, 6H).

¹³C NMR (126 MHz, CDCl₃):

δ 140.27, 130.99, 128.47, 128.27, 127.53, 124.40, 123.72, 120.64, 92.98, 46.8, 41.80, 36.6, 33.35, 19.36, 18.30.

GC/MS data: 225.2 (M – NO₂, 8%), 183.1, base peak.



1d

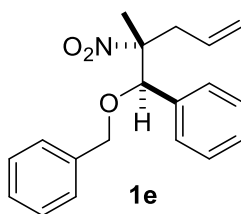
¹H NMR Spectra (500 MHz, CDCl₃):

δ 7.53 (dt, $J = 7.97, 0.92$ Hz, 1H), 7.30 (dt, $J = 8.31, 0.91$ Hz, 1H), 7.23 (ddd, $J = 8.18, 6.99, 1.11$ Hz, 1H), 7.13 (ddd, $J = 7.99, 6.94, 1.08$ Hz, 1H), 6.84 (s, 1H), 5.74 (m, 1H), 5.19 (m, 2H), 3.75 (s, 3H), 3.49 (d, $J = 14.8$ Hz, 1H), 3.24 (d, $J = 14.8$ Hz, 1H), 2.92 (dd, $J = 14.2, 7.05$ Hz, 1H), 2.57 (dd, $J = 14.1, 7.62$ Hz, 1H), 1.51 (s, 3H).

¹³C NMR (126 MHz, CDCl₃):

δ 136.62, 131.19, 128.48, 128.45, 121.69, 120.50, 119.32, 118.74, 109.37, 107.48, 92.63, 44.04, 35.61, 32.78, 21.50.

GC/MS data: 258.1 (M^+ , 14%) 144.1, base peak.



1e

dr = 88:12; Relative stereomchemistry assigned via x-ray structure of corresponding amine salt.

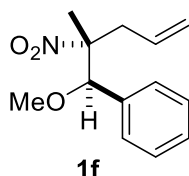
¹H NMR Spectra (500 MHz, CDCl₃):

(major diastereomer) δ 7.30 (m, 8H), 7.18 (m, 2H), 5.62 (m, 1H), 5.04 (m, 2H), 4.86 (s, 1H), 4.44 (d, $J = 11.5$ Hz, 1H), 4.20 (d, $J = 11.5$ Hz, 1H), 3.01 (dd, $J = 14.5, 6.63$ Hz, 1H), 2.53 (dd, $J = 14.6, 7.89$ Hz, 1H), 1.33 (s, 3H).

¹³C NMR (126 MHz, CDCl₃):

(major diastereomer) δ 136.19, 134.15, 130.31, 127.82, 127.43, 127.40, 127.33, 126.88, 119.34, 93.20, 83.66, 70.43, 39.01, 16.74.

GC/MS data: 221.1 (M – toluene, 1%), 91.1, base peak.



dr = 88:12; Relative stereochemistry assigned based on the x-ray structure of the **1e** salt.

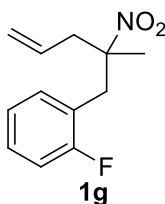
¹H NMR Spectra (500 MHz, CDCl₃):

(major diastereomer) δ 7.35 (m, 3H), 7.27 (m, 2H), 5.71 (m, 1H), 5.13 (m, 2H), 4.73 (s, 1H), 3.26 (s, 3H), 3.09 (dd, J = 14.1, 6.75 Hz, 1H), 2.56 (dd, J = 14.5, 7.90 Hz, 1H), 1.38 (s, 3H).

¹³C NMR (126 MHz, CDCl₃):

(major diastereomer) δ 135.17, 131.41, 128.75, 128.37, 128.22, 120.32, 94.18, 87.23, 57.84, 39.83, 17.85.

GC/MS data: 121.1 base peak.



¹H NMR Spectra (500 MHz, CDCl₃):

δ 7.27 (m, 1H), 7.07 (m, 3H), 5.70 (m, 1H), 5.20 (m, 2H), 3.33 (d, J = 14.3 Hz, 1H), 3.25 (d, J = 14.2 Hz, 1H), 2.89 (dd, J = 14.1, 6.93 Hz, 1H), 2.53 (dd, J = 14.2, 7.68 Hz, 1H), 1.48 (s, 3H).

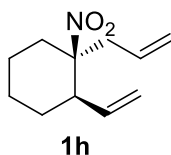
¹³C NMR (126 MHz, CDCl₃):

δ 161.27 (d, $J_{CF} = 246$ Hz), 131.82 (d, $J_{CF} = 3.91$ Hz), 130.74, 129.47 (d, $J_{CF} = 8.32$ Hz), 124.41 (d, $J_{CF} = 3.60$ Hz), 121.89 (d, $J_{CF} = 15.7$ Hz), 120.87, 115.44 (d, $J_{CF} = 22.7$ Hz), 91.65, 43.95, 38.19, 20.78.

^{19}F NMR (376 MHz, CDCl_3):

δ -116.75.

GC/MS data: 223.05 (M^+ 0.1 %), 109.1, base peak.



dr = 85:15; Stereochemistry assigned by inference. See Ref. 11.

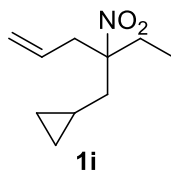
^1H NMR Spectra (500 MHz, CDCl_3):

(major diastereomer) δ 5.98 (m, 1H), 5.62 (m, 1H), 5.13 (m, 4H), 2.80 (dd, $J = 15.1$ Hz, 7.08 Hz, 1H), 2.69 (dd, $J = 14.1$, 7.60 Hz, 1H), 2.55 (m, 1H), 2.23 (ddd, $J = 13.8$, 8.62, 3.78 Hz, 1H), 1.60 (m, 8H).

^{13}C NMR (126 MHz, CDCl_3):

(major diastereomer) δ 136.18, 130.72, 120.40, 118.15, 93.55, 48.66, 41.56, 29.62, 28.48, 22.09.

GC/MS data: 149.2 ($\text{M} - \text{NO}_2$, 5%), 81.1 (base peak).



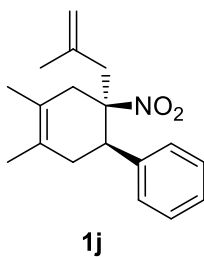
^1H NMR Spectra (500 MHz, CDCl_3):

δ 5.63 (ddt, $J = 17.3, 10.1, 7.30$ Hz, 1H), 5.17 (m, 2H), 2.77 (dt, $J = 7.30, 1.24$ Hz, 2H), 2.01 (m, 2H), 1.84 (dd, $J = 6.8, 1.46$ Hz, 2H), 0.87 (t, $J = 7.45$ Hz, 3H), 0.61 (m, 1H), 0.46 (m, 2H), 0.10 (m, 2H).

^{13}C NMR (126 MHz, CDCl_3):

δ 130.28, 118.98, 93.78, 39.02, 37.73, 28.68, 7.03, 4.61, 2.85, 2.78.

GC/MS data: 154.1 (M – ethyl, 0.4 %), 55.1, base peak.



dr = 90:10; Stereochemistry assigned by inference. See Ref. 11.

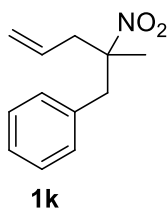
^1H NMR Spectra (500 MHz, CDCl_3):

δ 7.23 (m, 3H), 7.10 (m, 2H), 4.90 (t, $J = 1.70$ Hz, 1H), 4.65 (d, $J = 1.05$ Hz, 1H), 3.44 (d, $J = 7.17$ Hz, 1H), 2.93 (d, $J = 14.0$ Hz, 1H), 2.69 (m, 3H), 2.36 (m, 2H), 1.75 (d, $J = 13.6$ Hz, 6H), 1.63 (s, 3H).

^{13}C NMR (126 MHz, CDCl_3):

δ 140.34, 139.64, 128.44, 128.32, 127.52, 124.27, 123.91, 116.68, 92.85, 47.33, 44.73, 37.19, 32.61, 23.19, 19.35, 18.25.

GC/MS data: 239.2 (M – NO_2), 197.1 183.1, base peak.



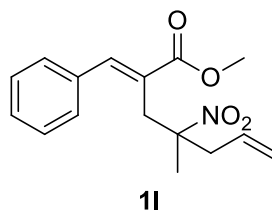
¹H NMR Spectra (500 MHz, CDCl₃):

δ 7.30 (m, 3H), 7.02 (dd, *J* = 7.52, 1.90 Hz, 2H), 5.63 (dddd, *J* = 17.1, 10.2, 7.61, 6.96 Hz, 1H), 5.12 (m, 2H), 3.29 (d, *J* = 13.9 Hz, 1H), 2.98 (d, *J* = 13.9 Hz, 1H), 2.79 (dd, *J* = 14.2, 6.97 Hz, 1H), 2.43 (dt, *J* = 14.2, 7.68, 1.07 Hz, 1H), 1.39 (s, 3H).

¹³C NMR (126 MHz, CDCl₃):

δ 134.60, 130.88, 130.10, 128.54, 127.52, 120.80, 91.51, 45.62, 43.82, 21.29.

GC/MS data: 159.1 (M- NO₂, 4%), 91.1, base peak



¹H NMR Spectra (500 MHz, CDCl₃):

δ 7.90 (s, 1H), 7.39 (m, 3H), 7.28 (m, 2H), 5.47 (m, 1H), 5.06 (m, 2H), 3.79 (s, 3H), 3.37 (d, *J* = 16.5 Hz, 1H), 3.26 (d, *J* = 14.6 Hz, 1H), 2.73 (dd, *J* = 14.1, 6.78 Hz, 1H), 2.26 (dd, *J* = 14.2, 8.00 Hz, 1H), 1.34 (s, 3H).

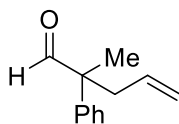
¹³C NMR (126 MHz, CDCl₃):

δ 168.22, 143.67, 135.05, 130.78, 128.75, 128.67, 128.54, 127.88, 120.73, 90.46, 52.21, 43.85, 35.50, 21.17.

GC/MS data: 289.1 (M⁺, 1%), 115.1, base peak.

Representative procedure for the CO₂ catalyzed activation of allyl alcohol towards allylation of aldehydes:

A 2.0 – 5.0 mL microwave vial (Biotage #351521) dried in an oven is charged with a stir bar and taken into a glove box. Pd(PPh₃)₄ (5 mol %, 0.014 g) is added along with DMSO (2.0 mL) and the vial is capped using a vial cap (Biotage #352298) and a manual cap crimper (Biotage #353671). The vial is removed from the glovebox and substrate (0.30 mmol) and allyl alcohol (0.45 mmol, 0.026 g) are added sequentially via syringe. CO₂ is then bubbled through the solvent using a 20G needle connected to a balloon and a separate 25.5G needle to vent. After 6 mins the vent needle was removed followed by the CO₂ needle and the top of the vial is wrapped in parafilm “M”. The vial was then placed in an oil bath at room temperature and heated/stirred at 80 °C until the reaction was complete as shown by GC/MS. The reaction mixture was dry loaded onto silica gel and purified by flash chromatography.



2a

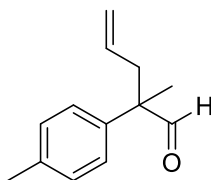
ref. 16

¹H NMR Spectra (500 MHz, CDCl₃):

δ 9.52 (s, 1H), 7.39 (m, 2H), 7.30 (m, 1H), 7.26 (m, 2H), 5.55 (m, 1H), 5.04 (m, 2H), 2.70 (ddt, *J* = 14.2, 6.93, 1.32 Hz, 1H), 2.63 (ddt, *J* = 14.1, 7.72, 1.19 Hz, 1H), 1.45 (s, 3H).

¹³C NMR (126 MHz, CDCl₃):

δ 201.97, 139.43, 133.17, 128.86, 127.34, 127.17, 118.61, 53.63, 40.60, 18.83.



2b

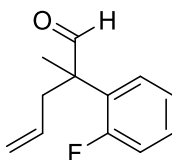
ref. 17

¹H NMR Spectra (500 MHz, CDCl₃):

δ 9.49 (s, 1H), 7.20 (m, 2H), 7.14 (m, 2H), 5.56 (m, 1H), 5.04 (m, 2H), 2.68 (ddt, J = 14.1, 6.91, 1.13 Hz, 1H), 2.61 (ddt, J = 14.1, 7.67, 1.13 Hz, 1H), 2.35 (s, 3H), 1.43 (s, 3H).

¹³C NMR (126 MHz, CDCl₃):

δ 202.02, 137.07, 136.31, 133.31, 129.57, 127.07, 118.49, 53.26, 40.52, 20.97, 18.83.



2c

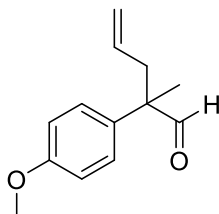
ref. 18

¹H NMR Spectra (500 MHz, CDCl₃):

δ 9.68 (d, J = 4.97 Hz, 1H), 7.30 (m, 2H), 7.18 (td, J = 7.58, 7.53, 1.35 Hz, 1H), 7.08 (ddd, J = 11.8, 8.18, 1.33 Hz, 1H), 5.53 (m, 1H), 5.02 (m, 2H), 2.75 (dd, J = 14.0, 6.99 Hz, 1H), 2.63 (dd, J = 14.1, 7.77 Hz, 1H), 1.42 (s, 3H).

¹³C NMR (126 MHz, CDCl₃):

δ 201.87 (d, $J = 2.32$ Hz), 161.85, 159.89, 132.74, 129.42 (d, $J = 8.57$ Hz), 128.62 (d, $J = 4.95$ Hz), 127.87 (d, $J = 13.1$ Hz), 124.44 (d, $J = 3.21$ Hz), 118.84, 116.12 (d, $J = 22.8$ Hz), 51.85 (d, $J = 3.15$ Hz), 39.24 (d, $J = 2.50$ Hz), 19.16.



2d

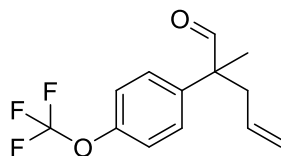
ref. 18

^1H NMR Spectra (500 MHz, CDCl_3):

δ 9.46 (s, 1H), 7.17 (m, 2H), 6.92 (m, 2H), 5.55 (m, 1H), 5.04 (m, 2H), 3.80 (s, 3H), 2.66 (ddt, $J = 14.1, 6.78, 1.37$ Hz, 1H), 2.59 (dd, $J = 14.2, 7.79, 1.21$ Hz, 1H), 1.42 (s, 3H).

^{13}C NMR (126 MHz, CDCl_3):

δ 201.90, 158.75, 133.31, 131.14, 128.33, 118.49, 114.22, 55.27, 52.91, 40.54, 18.86.



2e

^1H NMR Spectra (300 MHz, CDCl_3):

δ 9.51 (s, 1H), 7.28 (m, 2H), 7.23 (m, 2H), 5.52 (m, 1H), 5.06 (m, 2H), 2.67 (dd, $J = 10.6, 6.93$ Hz, 1H), 2.62 (dd, $J = 10.8, 7.62$ Hz, 1H), 1.45 (s, 3H).

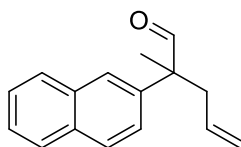
^{13}C NMR (126 MHz, CDCl_3):

δ 201.41, 148.39 (d, $J=2.09$ Hz), 138.14, 132.59, 128.68, 121.18, 120.5 (q, $J=257$ Hz), 119.08, 53.30, 40.68, 18.98.

^{19}F NMR (376 MHz, CDCl_3):

δ -58.86

HRMS: $[\text{M}^+]$: calc: 258.0868, found: 258.0872.



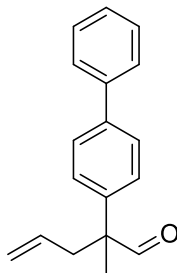
2f

^1H NMR Spectra (300 MHz, CDCl_3):

δ 9.60 (s, 1H), 7.85 (m, 3H), 7.72 (d, $J=1.95$ Hz, 1H), 7.51 (m, 2H), 7.37 (dd, $J=8.60, 1.96$ Hz, 1H), 5.57 (m, 1H), 5.06 (m, 2H), 2.83 (ddt, $J=14.2, 6.82, 1.29$ Hz, 1H), 2.72 (ddt, $J=14.1, 7.74, 1.10$ Hz, 1H), 1.56 (s, 3H).

^{13}C NMR (126 MHz, CDCl_3):

δ 201.98, 136.80, 133.3, 133.13, 132.41, 128.60, 128.03, 127.55, 126.40, 126.30, 126.29, 125.00, 118.70, 53.81, 40.52, 18.94.



2g

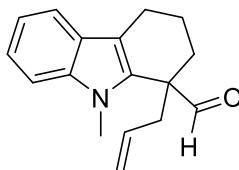
ref. 18

¹H NMR Spectra (500 MHz, CDCl₃):

δ 9.56 (s, 1H), 7.61 (m, 4H), 7.45 (m, 2H), 7.35 (ddt, $J = 16.9, 8.76, 1.71$ Hz, 3H), 5.60 (m, 1H), 5.08 (m, 2H), 2.74 (ddt, $J = 14.1, 6.87, 1.29$ Hz, 1H), 2.67 (ddt, $J = 14.1, 7.78, 1.16$ Hz, 1H), 1.49 (s, 3H).

¹³C NMR (126 MHz, CDCl₃):

δ 201.87, 140.38, 140.21, 138.41, 133.12, 128.83, 127.63, 127.53, 127.48, 127.06, 118.74, 53.45, 40.59, 18.90.



2h

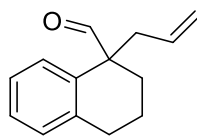
¹H NMR Spectra (500 MHz, CDCl₃):

δ 9.63 (s, 1H), 7.54 (dt, $J = 7.80, 0.99$ Hz, 1H), 7.26 (m, 2H), 7.12 (ddd, $J = 7.93, 6.77, 1.24$ Hz, 1H), 5.61 (m, 1H), 5.12 (dq, $J = 17.0, 1.61$ Hz, 1H), 5.03 (ddt, $J = 10.1, 2.07, 1.10$ Hz, 1H), 3.63 (s, 3H), 2.90 (ddt, $J = 14.7, 6.95, 1.41$ Hz, 1H), 2.81 (t, $J = 5.9$ Hz, 2H), 2.69 (ddt, $J = 14.8, 7.53, 1.19$ Hz, 1H), 1.97 (m, 4H).

¹³C NMR (126 MHz, CDCl₃):

δ 201.58, 137.85, 133.66, 131.42, 126.60, 122.07, 119.12, 118.44, 113.91, 108.94, 51.29, 38.09, 31.25, 30.64, 21.24, 19.41.

HRMS: [M+H] calc: 254.1545, found: 254.1535.



2i

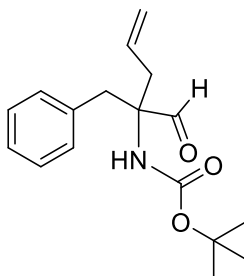
¹H NMR Spectra (300 MHz, CDCl₃):

δ 9.55 (s, 1H), 7.18 (m, 4H), 5.60 (m, 1H), 5.05 (m, 2H), 2.78 (t, *J* = 5.65 Hz, 2H), 2.63 (dd, *J* = 7.22, 1.28 Hz, 2H), 2.09 (m, 1H), 1.83 (m, 3H).

¹³C NMR (126 MHz, CDCl₃):

δ 200.09, 138.65, 134.00, 133.69, 129.88, 128.29, 127.02, 126.37, 118.47, 53.04, 41.13, 29.88, 27.84, 19.23.

HRMS: [M+Na] calc: 223.1099, found: 223.1103.



2j

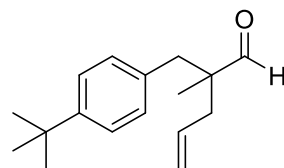
¹H NMR Spectra (500 MHz, CDCl₃):

δ 9.40 (s, 1H), 7.18 (m, 3H), 6.99 (d, *J* = 7.08 Hz, 2H), 5.53 (m, 1H), 5.04 (m, 2H), 4.99 (s, 1H), 3.28 (d, *J* = 14.0 Hz, 1H), 3.0 (d, *J* = 14.0 Hz, 1H), 2.79 (dd, *J* = 14.5, 7.48 Hz, 1H), 2.45 (dd, *J* = 14.4, 7.32 Hz, 1H), 1.38 (s, 9H).

¹³C NMR (126 MHz, CDCl₃):

δ 200.25, 154.54, 135.39, 131.19, 130.20, 128.34, 126.95, 119.89, 79.80, 66.01, 38.55, 37.75, 28.34.

HRMS: [M+Na] calc: 312.1576, found: 312.1542.



2k

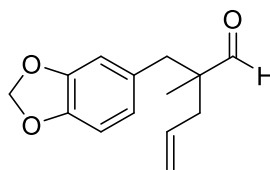
ref. 18

¹H NMR Spectra (500 MHz, CDCl₃):

δ 9.60 (s, 1H), 7.28 (d, *J* = 8.28 Hz, 2H), 7.02 (d, *J* = 8.23 Hz, 2H), 5.74 (m, 1H), 5.11 (m, 2H), 2.85 (d, *J* = 13.8 Hz, 1H), 2.72 (d, *J* = 13.7 Hz, 1H), 2.36 (ddt, *J* = 14.2, 7.14, 1.28 Hz, 1H), 2.18 (dd, *J* = 14.2, 7.70, 1.25 Hz, 1H), 1.30 (s, 9H), 1.03 (s, 3H).

¹³C NMR (126 MHz, CDCl₃):

δ 206.20, 149.40, 133.48, 133.13, 129.91, 125.12, 118.80, 50.18, 41.36, 39.91, 34.40, 31.36, 18.56.



2l

¹H NMR Spectra (500 MHz, CDCl₃):

δ 9.57 (s, 1H), 6.71 (d, *J* = 7.90, 1H), 6.58 (d, *J* = 1.76 Hz, 1H), 6.54 (dd, *J* = 7.95, 1.76 Hz, 1H), 5.92 (s, 3H), 5.72 (m, 1H), 5.11 (m, 2H), 2.81 (d, *J* = 13.9 Hz, 1H), 2.66 (d, *J* = 13.9 Hz, 1H), 2.34 (ddt, *J* = 14.4, 7.32, 1.35 Hz, 1H), 2.17 (dd, *J* = 14.1, 7.73, 1.22 Hz, 1H), 1.02 (s, 3H).

¹³C NMR (126 MHz, CDCl₃):

δ 206.00, 147.42, 146.26, 132.96, 130.25, 123.27, 118.92, 110.56, 108.03, 100.92, 50.18, 41.49, 39.92, 29.72, 18.57.

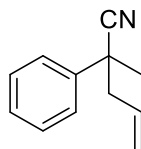
HRMS: [M+H] calc: 233.1178, found: 233.1189.

Representative procedure for the CO₂ catalyzed activation of allylic alcohol towards allylation of nitriles:

A 2.0 – 5.0 mL microwave vial (Biotage #351521) was flame dried and charged with the nitrile substrate (if solid, 0.3 mmol) and a stir bar. In the glove box, Pd(PPh₃)₄ (2.5 mol %, 0.009 g) was added along with DMSO (2 mL) and the vial was capped using a vial cap (Biotage #352298) and a manual cap crimper (Biotage #353671). The vial was then removed from the glove box and substrate (if liquid, 0.3 mmol) and allyl alcohol (0.6 mmol, 0.035 g) were added sequentially via syringe. CO₂ was then bubbled through the solvent using a 20G needle connected to a balloon

and a separate 25.5G needle to vent. After 5 minutes, the vent needle is removed followed by the CO₂ needle and the top of the vial was wrapped in parafilm. The vial was then placed in an oil bath at room temperature and heated/stirred at 90 °C for 14 hours.

After 14 hours the vial was removed from the bath, and allowed to cool to room temperature. An aliquot was then diluted in DCM and subjected to GC/MS analysis to determine conversion. The remaining solution was subjected to purification via silica gel column chromatography using 1:50 EtOAc:Pentanes as an eluent.



3a

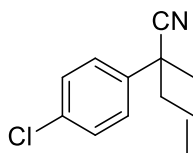
ref. 19

¹H NMR Spectra (500 MHz, CDCl₃):

δ 7.44 (m, 2H), 7.38 (m, 2H), 7.30 (m, 1H), 5.70 (m, 1H), 5.15 (m, 2H), 2.67 (ddt, *J* = 13.9, 6.7, 1.3 Hz, 1H), 2.60 (ddt, *J* = 13.9, 7.8, 1.0 Hz, 1H), 1.7 (s, 3H).

¹³C NMR Spectra (126 MHz, CDCl₃):

δ 140.02, 132.10, 129.09, 128.05, 125.79, 123.31, 120.37, 46.48, 42.37, 26.76.



3b

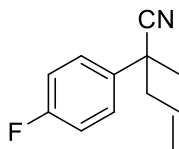
¹H NMR Spectra (500 MHz, CDCl₃):

δ 7.38 (m, 4H), 5.69 (dddd, *J* = 17.0, 10.2, 7.6, 6.9 Hz, 1H), 5.17 (m, 2H), 2.62 (m, 2H), 1.71 (s, 3H).

¹³C NMR Spectra (126 MHz, CDCl₃):

δ 138.64, 134.09, 131.75, 129.31, 127.38, 122.99, 120.84, 46.50, 42.09, 26.82.

GC/MS data: 205.1 (M⁺), 164.1 (base peak).



3c

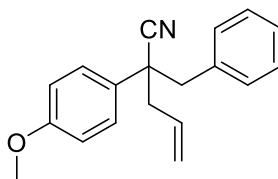
¹H NMR Spectra (500 MHz, CDCl₃):

δ 7.42 (m, 2H), 7.09 (m, 2H), 5.70 (dddd, *J* = 17.0, 10.2, 7.6, 6.9 Hz, 1H), 5.18 (m, 2H), 2.63 (m, 2H), 1.71 (s, 3H).

¹³C NMR Spectra (126 MHz, CDCl₃):

δ 163.44, 161.48, 135.94, 135.92, 131.92, 127.77, 127.70, 123.29, 120.77, 116.18, 116.01, 46.75, 41.96, 26.98.

GC/MS data: 189.1 (M^+), 148.1 (base peak).



3d

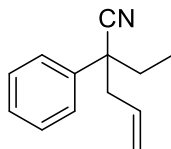
^1H NMR Spectra (500 MHz, CDCl_3):

δ 7.13 (m, 5H), 6.89 (m, 2H), 6.78 (m, 2H), 5.61 (dddd, $J = 16.9, 10.2, 7.6, 6.5$ Hz, 1H), 5.07 (m, 2H), 3.72 (s, 3H), 3.12 (d, $J = 13.5$ Hz, 1H), 3.02 (d, $J = 13.5$ Hz, 1H), 2.68 (m, 2H).

^{13}C NMR Spectra (126 MHz, CDCl_3):

δ 159.30, 135.23, 132.24, 130.69, 129.59, 128.34, 128.02, 127.53, 122.07, 120.38, 114.24, 55.58, 48.91, 47.34, 43.95.

GC/MS data: 277.2 (M^+), 186.10 (base peak).



3e

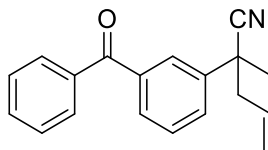
ref. 20

^1H NMR Spectra (500 MHz, CDCl_3):

δ 7.40 (m, 4H), 7.32 (m, 1H), 5.66 (m, 1H), 5.13 (m, 2H), 2.69 (ddt, $J = 7.0, 2.0, 1.1$ Hz, 2H), 2.08 (m, 1H), 1.96 (m, 1H), 0.93 (t, $J = 7.4$ Hz, 3H).

^{13}C NMR Spectra (126 MHz, CDCl_3):

δ 138.14, 132.25, 129.15, 128.06, 126.52, 122.31, 120.19, 49.14, 45.34, 33.44, 9.92.



3f

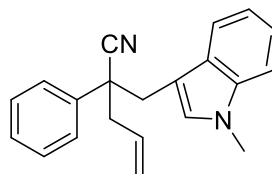
¹H NMR Spectra (500 MHz, CDCl₃):

δ 7.87 (t, $J = 1.9$ Hz, 1H), 7.80 (m, 2H), 7.72 (m, 2H), 7.60 (m, 1H), 7.51 (m, 3H), 5.73 (ddt, $J = 17.3, 10.3, 7.2$ Hz, 1H), 5.18 (m, 2H), 2.68 (m, 2H), 1.75 (s, 3H).

¹³C NMR Spectra (126 MHz, CDCl₃):

δ 196.29, 140.61, 138.46, 137.37, 133.03, 131.72, 130.28, 130.13, 129.91, 129.08, 128.66, 127.00, 122.91, 120.86, 46.35, 42.34, 26.68.

GC/MS data: 275.1 (M⁺), 234.10 (base peak).



3h

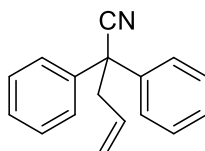
¹H NMR Spectra (500 MHz, CDCl₃):

δ 7.45 (m, 2H), 7.36 (m, 2H), 7.29 (m, 3H), 7.19 (ddd, $J = 8.2, 6.9, 1.1$ Hz, 1H), 7.03 (ddd, $J = 8.1, 6.9, 1.1$ Hz, 1H), 6.85 (s, 1H), 5.68 (dddd, $J = 17.1, 10.3, 7.6, 6.6$ Hz, 1H), 5.12 (m, 2H), 3.73 (s, 3H), 3.44 (d, $J = 14.7$ Hz, 1H), 3.34 (d, $J = 14.6$ Hz, 1H), 2.82 (m, 2H).

¹³C NMR Spectra (126 MHz, CDCl₃):

δ 138.66, 136.72, 132.47, 129.10, 129.05, 128.84, 128.12, 126.89, 122.82, 121.80, 120.23, 119.39, 119.00, 109.48, 108.26, 50.20, 43.47, 37.39, 33.12.

GC/MS data: 300.2 (M^+), 144.15 (base peak).



3i

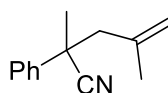
ref. 21

^1H NMR Spectra (500 MHz, CDCl_3):

δ 7.45 (m, 4H), 7.39 (ddd, $J = 7.8, 6.8, 1.3$ Hz, 4H), 7.34 (m, 2H), 5.77 (ddt, $J = 17.2, 10.2, 7.0$ Hz, 1H), 5.23 (m, 2H), 3.19 (dt, $J = 7.1, 1.2$ Hz, 2H).

^{13}C NMR Spectra (126 MHz, CDCl_3):

δ 139.94, 132.00, 129.08, 128.17, 127.25, 122.19, 120.64, 51.94, 44.13.



4a

ref. 22

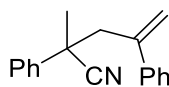
^1H NMR Spectra (500 MHz, CDCl_3):

δ 7.48 (m, 2H), 7.39 (m, 2H), 7.33 (m, 1H), 4.92 (p, $J = 1.6$ Hz, 1H), 4.77 (dq, $J = 1.8, 1.0$ Hz, 1H), 2.64 (t, $J = 1.0$ Hz, 2H), 1.76 (s, 3H), 1.62 (m, 3H).

^{13}C NMR Spectra (126 MHz, CDCl_3):

δ 140.37, 140.27, 129.07, 128.05, 125.89, 123.88, 116.94, 50.08, 42.03, 27.83, 23.84.

GC/MS data: 185.1 (M^+), 130.1 (base peak).



4b

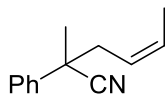
^1H NMR Spectra (500 MHz, CDCl_3):

δ 7.41 (m, 2H), 7.28 (m, 3H), 5.39 (d, $J = 1.1$ Hz, 1H), 5.18 (q, $J = 1.0$ Hz, 1H), 3.12 (d, $J = 1.0$ Hz, 2H), 1.67 (s, 3H).

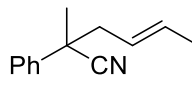
^{13}C NMR Spectra (126 MHz, CDCl_3):

δ 143.85, 141.74, 140.21, 128.98, 128.58, 128.04, 127.87, 126.81, 126.01, 123.33, 119.21, 47.46, 43.13, 27.28.

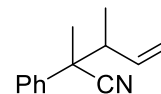
GC/MS data: 247.1 (M^+), 139.1 (base peak).



● **linear Z diastereomer**
residues



■ = **linear E diastereomer**
residues



▲ = **branched residues**
(both diastereomers)

4c (1 : b, 2 : 1) (cis : trans, 1 : 2.5)

ref. 23

^1H NMR Spectra (500 MHz, CDCl_3):

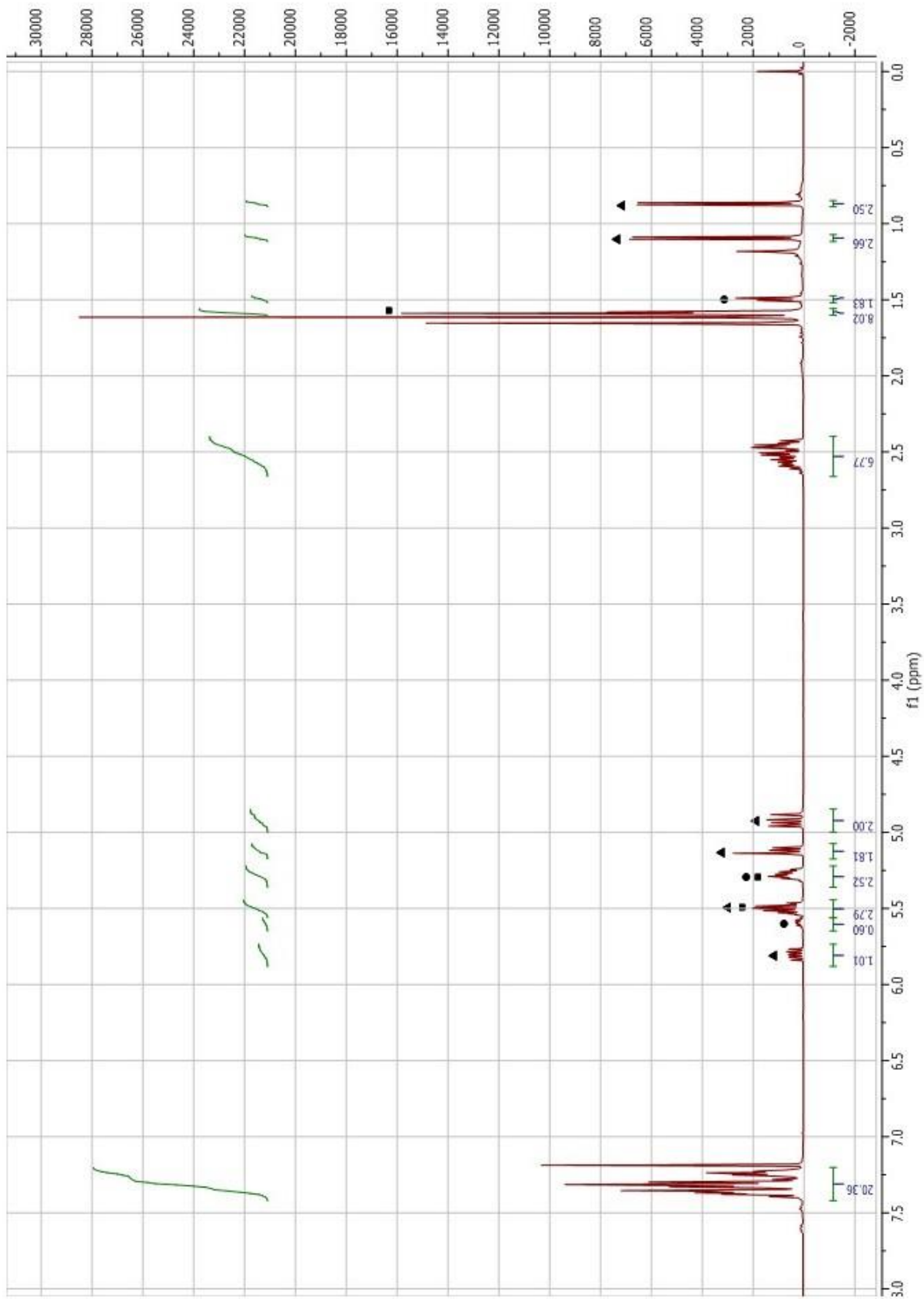
δ 7.40 (m, 5H ($\text{Ph-}H_{\text{linear}}$), 5H ($\text{Ph-}H_{\text{branched}}$)), 5.89 (ddd, $J = 16.6, 10.5, 8.8$ Hz, 1H branched), 5.68 (m, 1H *cis*-linear), 5.59 (m, 1H (*trans*-linear), 1H (branched)), 5.36 (m, 1H (*cis*-linear), 1H

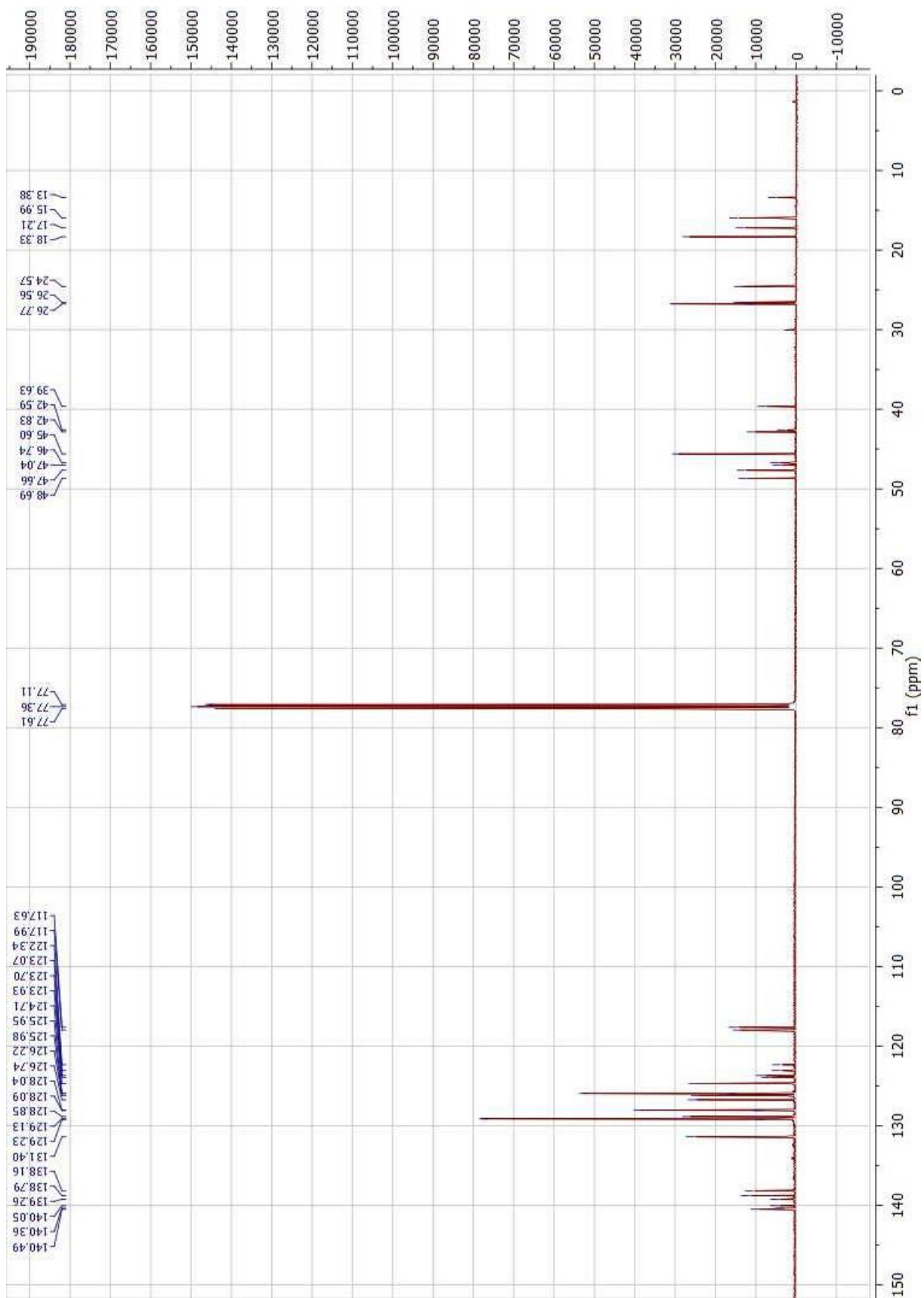
(*trans*-linear)), 5.20 (m, 2H, branched), 5.01 (m, 2H, branched), 2.59 (m, (2H *cis*-linear), (2H *trans*-linear), (1H branched)), 1.66 (d, $J = 7.1$ Hz, 3H, *trans*-linear), 1.57 (d, $J = 7.1$ Hz, 3H, *cis*-linear), 1.17 (d, $J = 6.8$ Hz, 3H, branched), 0.94 (d, $J = 6.8$ Hz, 2H, branched).

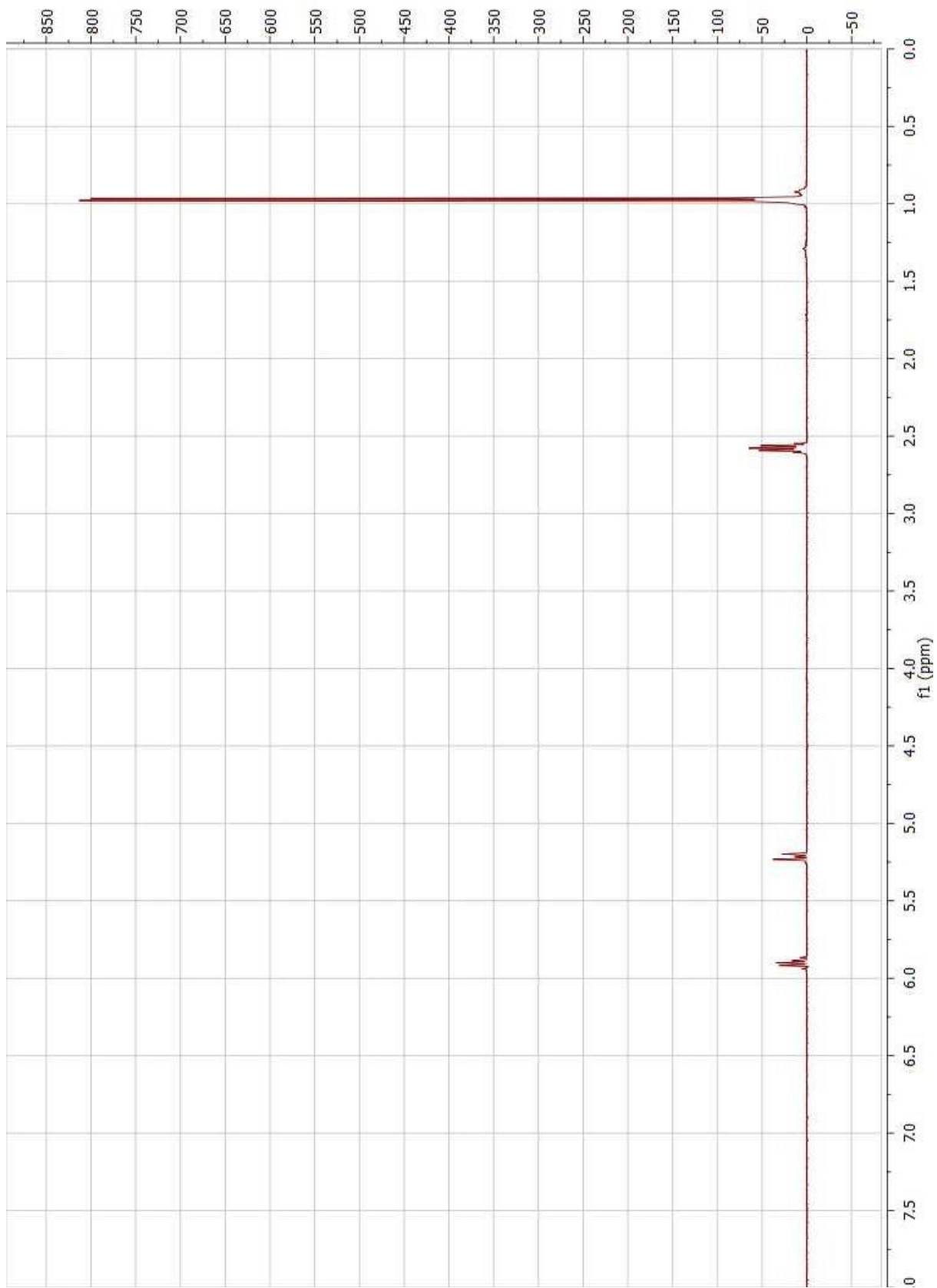
^{13}C NMR Spectra (126 MHz, CDCl_3):

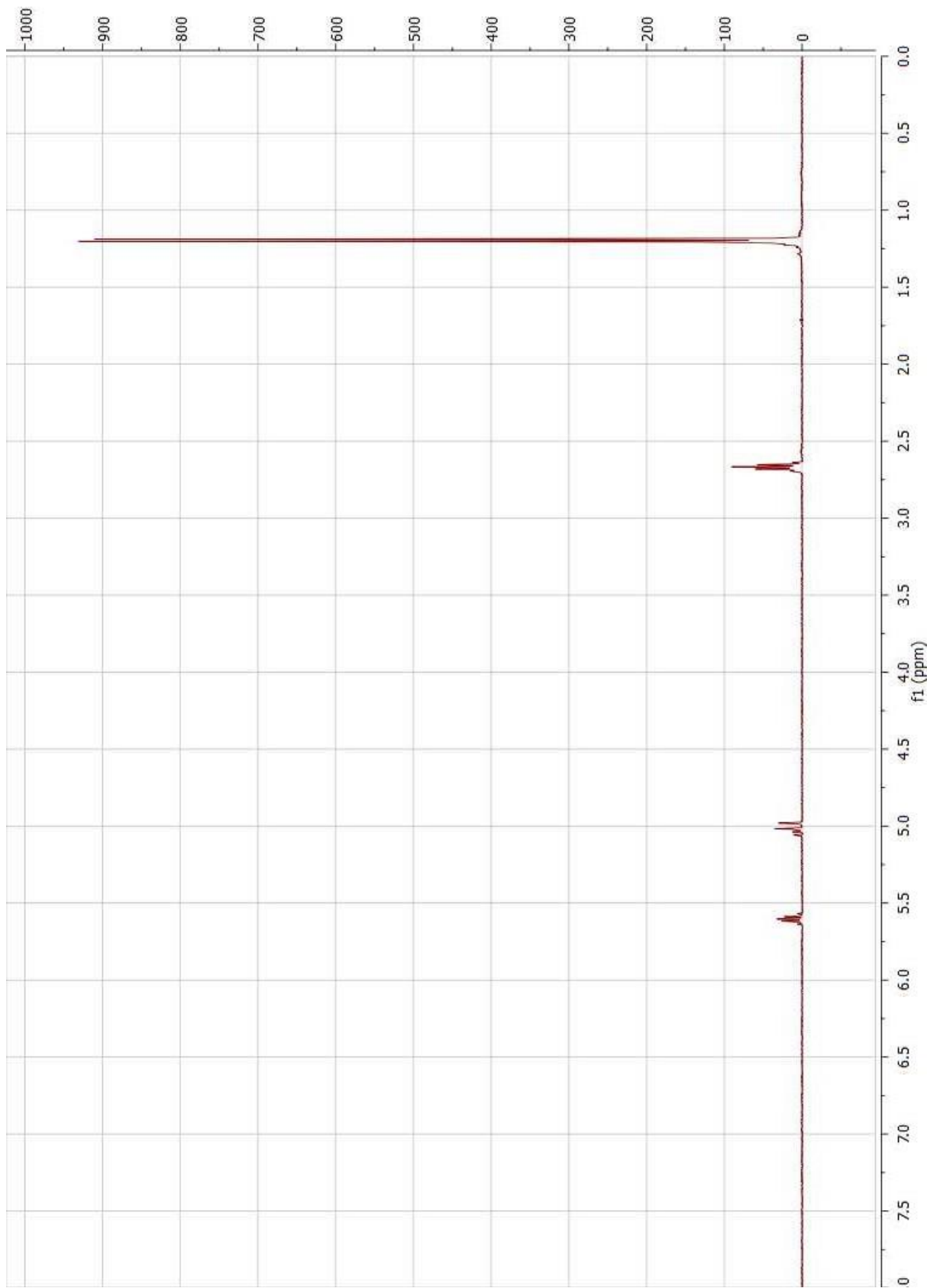
δ 140.49, 140.36, 140.05, 139.26, 138.79, 138.16, 131.40, 129.23, 129.13, 128.85, 128.09, 128.04, 126.74, 126.22, 125.98, 125.95, 124.71, 123.93, 123.70, 123.07, 122.34, 117.99, 117.63, 48.69, 47.66, 47.04, 46.74, 45.60, 42.83, 42.59, 39.63, 26.77, 26.56, 24.57, 18.33, 17.21, 15.99, 13.38.

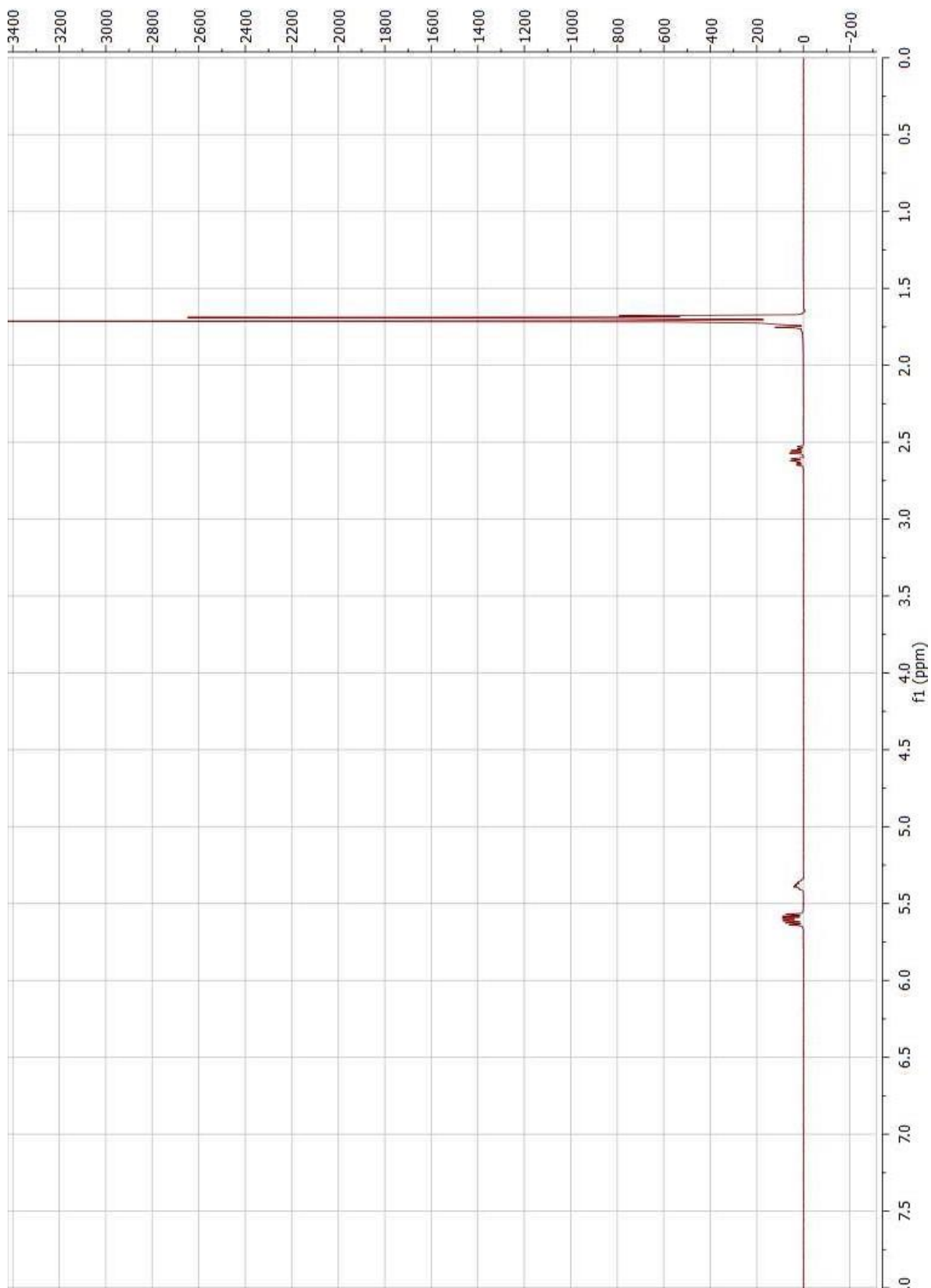
Isomers assigned by TOCSY NMR spectroscopy experiments

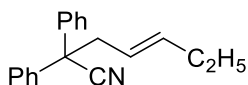












4d (1 : b, 10.5 : 1)

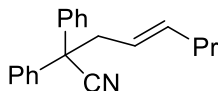
¹H NMR Spectra (500 MHz, CDCl₃):

(Major linear diastereomer) δ 7.37 (m, 8H), 7.30 (m, 2H), 5.63 (dt, $J = 15.4, 6.5, 1.2$ Hz, 1H), 5.31 (dt, $J = 15.5, 7.1, 1.6$ Hz, 1H), 3.07 (dq, $J = 7.2, 1.1$ Hz, 2H), 1.98 (m, 2H), 0.90 (t, $J = 7.5$ Hz, 3H).

¹³C NMR Spectra (126 MHz, CDCl₃):

(Major linear diastereomer) δ 140.33, 138.83, 129.08, 128.14, 127.47, 122.47, 122.32, 52.48, 43.18, 25.96, 13.89.

GC/MS data: 261.2 (M⁺), 193.1 (base peak).



4e (1 : b, 11.2 : 1) (cis : trans, 1 : 14.3)

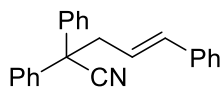
ref. 23

¹H NMR Spectra (500 MHz, CDCl₃):

(Major linear diastereomer) δ 7.38 (m, 8H), 7.30 (m, 2H), 5.58 (dt, $J = 15.0, 6.8, 1.3$ Hz, 1H), 5.32 (dt, $J = 15.4, 7.1, 1.4$ Hz, 1H), 3.08 (dq, $J = 7.1, 1.0$ Hz, 2H), 1.94 (m, 2H), 1.31 (h, $J = 7.3$ Hz, 2H), 0.81 (t, $J = 7.4$ Hz, 3H).

¹³C NMR Spectra (126 MHz, CDCl₃):

(Major linear diastereomer) δ 140.32, 137.14, 129.08, 128.13, 127.46, 123.47, 122.48, 52.46, 43.29, 34.91, 22.63, 13.83.



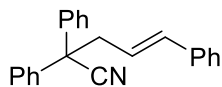
4f

¹H NMR Spectra (500 MHz, CDCl₃):

δ 7.37 (m, 15H), 6.54 (dt, $J = 15.7, 1.4$ Hz, 1H), 6.10 (dt, $J = 15.7, 7.2$ Hz, 1H), 3.31 (dd, $J = 7.4, 1.3$ Hz, 2H).

¹³C NMR Spectra (126 MHz, CDCl₃):

δ 140.07, 137.05, 135.53, 129.20, 128.79, 128.31, 127.94, 127.41, 126.70, 123.39, 122.34, 52.36, 43.56.



4g

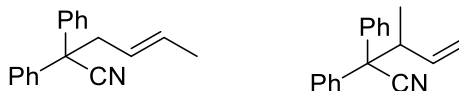
ref. 25

¹H NMR Spectra (500 MHz, CDCl₃):

δ 7.37 (m, 15H), 6.54 (dt, $J = 15.7, 1.4$ Hz, 1H), 6.10 (dt, $J = 15.7, 7.2$ Hz, 1H), 3.31 (dd, $J = 7.4, 1.3$ Hz, 2H).

¹³C NMR Spectra (126 MHz, CDCl₃):

δ 140.10, 137.08, 135.55, 129.23, 128.81, 128.33, 127.97, 127.44, 126.73, 123.42, 122.36, 52.39, 43.60.



■ = Major linear ▲ = Branched residues

diastereomer residues

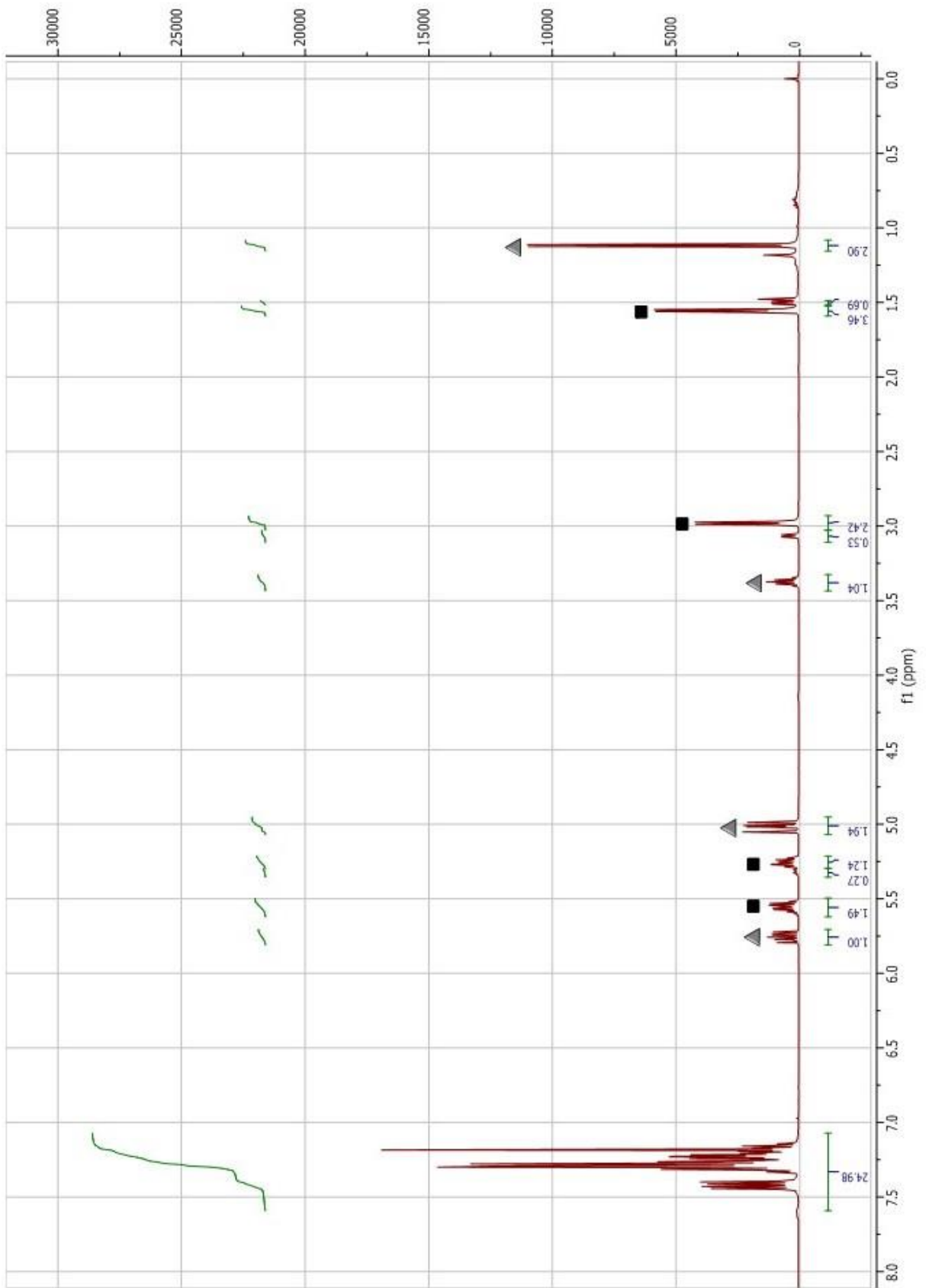
4h (l : b, 1.4 : 1) (cis : trans, 1 : 4.6)

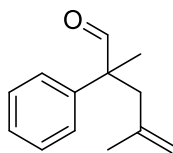
¹H NMR Spectra (500 MHz, CDCl₃):

δ 7.38 (m, 10H (Ph-*H*_{linear}), 10H (Ph-*H*_{branched})), 5.84 (ddd, $J = 17.1, 10.5, 7.6$ Hz, 1H, branched), 5.64 (m, 1H, linear), 5.34 (m, 1H, linear), 5.32 (m, 1H, linear diastereomer), 5.10 (m, 2H, branched), 3.45 (m, 1H, branched), 3.07 (dt, $J = 7.3, 1.2$ Hz, 2H, linear diastereomer) 2.98 (dt, $J = 7.0, 1.2$ Hz, 2H, linear), 1.64 (dq, $J = 6.7, 1.2$ Hz, 3H, linear), 1.50 (ddt, $J = 6.9, 1.87, 0.94$ Hz, 3H, linear diastereomer), 1.20 (d, $J = 6.7$ Hz, 3H, branched).

¹³C NMR Spectra (126 MHz, CDCl₃):

δ 140.30, 139.63, 139.50, 138.53, 131.70, 129.24, 129.12, 129.10, 129.01, 128.20, 128.15, 128.04, 127.94, 127.49, 127.42, 127.13, 124.49, 123.95, 122.50, 121.12, 117.85, 58.19, 52.48, 51.88, 44.51, 43.25, 37.52, 18.37, 17.33, 13.48.





4j

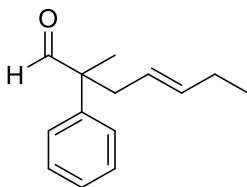
ref. 26

¹H NMR Spectra (300 MHz, CDCl₃):

δ 9.54 (s, 1H), 7.38 (m, 2H), 7.29 (m, 3H), 4.81 (p, $J = 1.57, 1.53$ Hz, 1H), 4.62 (dq, $J = 1.78, 0.89$ Hz, 1H), 2.69 (q, $J = 13.9$ Hz, 2H), 1.47 (s, 3H), 1.40 (s, 3H).

¹³C NMR (126 MHz, CDCl₃):

δ 201.96, 141.49, 139.77, 128.79, 127.33, 127.31, 115.43, 53.51, 44.20, 24.16, 18.56.



4k

93:7 linear:branched

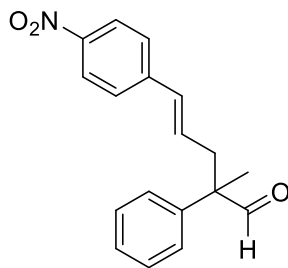
linear product data reported

¹H NMR Spectra (500 MHz, CDCl₃):

δ 9.45 (s, 1H), 7.30 (m, 2H), 7.19 (m, 3H), 5.42 (m, 1H), 5.09 (m, 1H), 2.53 (dd, $J = 7.32, 1.16$ Hz, 2H), 1.87 (m, 2H), 1.34 (s, 3H), 0.83 (t, $J = 7.46$ Hz, 3H).

¹³C NMR (126 MHz, CDCl₃):

δ 202.44, 139.87, 136.54, 128.75, 127.18, 127.15, 123.11, 53.89, 39.26, 25.62, 19.02, 13.81



41

86:14 linear to branched

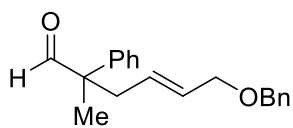
linear data reported

¹H NMR Spectra (500 MHz, CDCl₃):

δ 9.55 (s, 1H), 8.11 (d, $J = 8.76$ Hz, 2H), 7.42 (dd, $J = 8.24, 6.94$ Hz, 2H), 7.35 (dd, $J = 8.12, 6.89$ Hz, 3H), 7.28 (m, 2H), 6.44 (d, $J = 15.8$ Hz, 1H), 6.13 (ddd, $J = 15.8, 7.93, 7.00$ Hz, 1H), 2.88 (ddd, $J = 14.3, 7.01, 1.47$ Hz, 1H), 2.81 (ddd, $J = 14.3, 7.98, 1.28$ Hz, 1H), 1.52 (s, 3H).

¹³C NMR (126 MHz, CDCl₃):

δ 201.43, 146.68, 143.52, 138.86, 131.67, 130.60, 129.08, 127.69, 127.10, 126.57, 123.95, 54.08, 40.14, 18.86.



84:16 trans:cis

4m

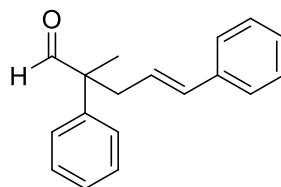
¹H NMR Spectra (500 MHz, CDCl₃):

δ 9.52 (s, 1H), 7.39 (m, 2H), 7.31 (m, 6H), 7.25 (m, 2H), 5.63 (dt, *J* = 15.1, 6.17, 1.37 Hz, 1H), 5.47 (dt, *J* = 14.6, 7.43, 1.24 Hz, 1H), 4.40 (s, 2H), 3.91 (ddd, *J* = 6.27, 2.31, 1.23 Hz, 2H), 2.71 (ddd, *J* = 14.3, 6.96, 1.34 Hz, 1H), 2.64 (ddd, *J* = 14.2, 7.70, 1.17 Hz, 1H), 1.46 (s, 3H).

¹³C NMR (126 MHz, CDCl₃):

δ 201.88, 139.32, 138.24, 130.63, 128.91, 128.63, 128.36, 127.77, 127.58, 127.40, 127.17, 71.75, 70.38, 53.76, 39.11, 18.93.

HRMS: [M+Na] calc: 317.1512, found: 317.1515.



4n

96:4 linear:branched

linear product data reported

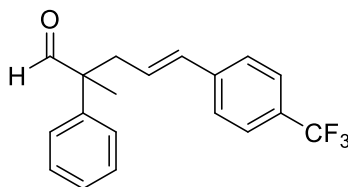
ref. 27

¹H NMR Spectra (300 MHz, CDCl₃):

δ 9.58 (s, 1H), 7.41 (m, 2H), 7.28 (m, 6H), 7.20 (m, 2H), 6.41 (dt, *J* = 15.7, 1.33 Hz, 1H), 5.94 (dt, *J* = 15.2, 7.44 Hz, 1H), 2.81 (m, 2H), 1.50 (s, 3H).

¹³C NMR (126 MHz, CDCl₃):

δ 202.00, 139.41, 137.18, 133.58, 128.94, 128.48, 127.44, 127.26, 127.19, 126.11, 124.91, 54.13, 39.95, 18.95.



4o

¹H NMR Spectra (500 MHz, CDCl₃):

δ 9.56 (s, 1H), 7.50 (d, *J* = 8.12 Hz, 2H), 7.42 (dd, *J* = 8.21, 6.96 Hz, 2H), 7.33 (m, 3H), 7.28 (dd, *J* = 8.37, 1.30 Hz, 2H), 6.41 (d, *J* = 16.0 Hz, 1H), 6.04 (ddd, *J* = 15.4, 7.93, 7.07 Hz, 1H), 2.86 (ddd, *J* = 14.2, 7.06, 1.45 Hz, 1H), 2.79 (ddd, *J* = 14.2, 7.92, 1.27 Hz, 1H), 1.51 (s, 3H).

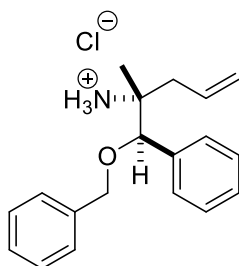
¹³C NMR (126 MHz, CDCl₃):

δ 201.67, 140.58, 139.09, 132.30, 129.07 (q, $J = 33.3$ Hz), 129.02, 127.98, 127.58, 127.14, 126.23, 125.43 (q, $J = 3.88$ Hz), 124.18 (q, $J = 271.82$ Hz), 54.08, 39.99, 18.87.

Procedure for the reduction of compound 1e (Wurz, R. P.; Charette, A.B.; *J. Org. Chem.* **2004**, *69*, 1262-1269) and formation of the corresponding amine salt.

In a 50 mL round bottom flask equipped with a stir bar, compound **1e** (0.185g, 0.59 mmol) was dissolved in 12 mL isopropanol. To this solution 1.5 M HCl (6.0 mL) and zinc dust (0.740 g, 11.3 mmol) were added and the solution was stirred at 50 °C for 2 hours. Saturated aq K_2CO_3 (8.0 mL) was added after the solution cooled to rt. The reaction mixture was filtered through a pad of celite and extracted 3x with 25 mL $CHCl_3$ washes. The combined organic layers were washed with 20 mL brine and dried over $MgSO_4$.

The dried solution was filtered and concentrated *in vacuo* to afford the corresponding amine as a colorless oil (0.072 g, 43%). 2.0 M HCl in diethyl ether (5.0 mL) was added to the amine and the solvent removed *in vacuo* to provide a white solid which was re-crystallized from EtOAc to provide suitable crystals of the HCl salt.



Major diastereomer shown.

¹H NMR Spectra (500 MHz, CDCl₃):

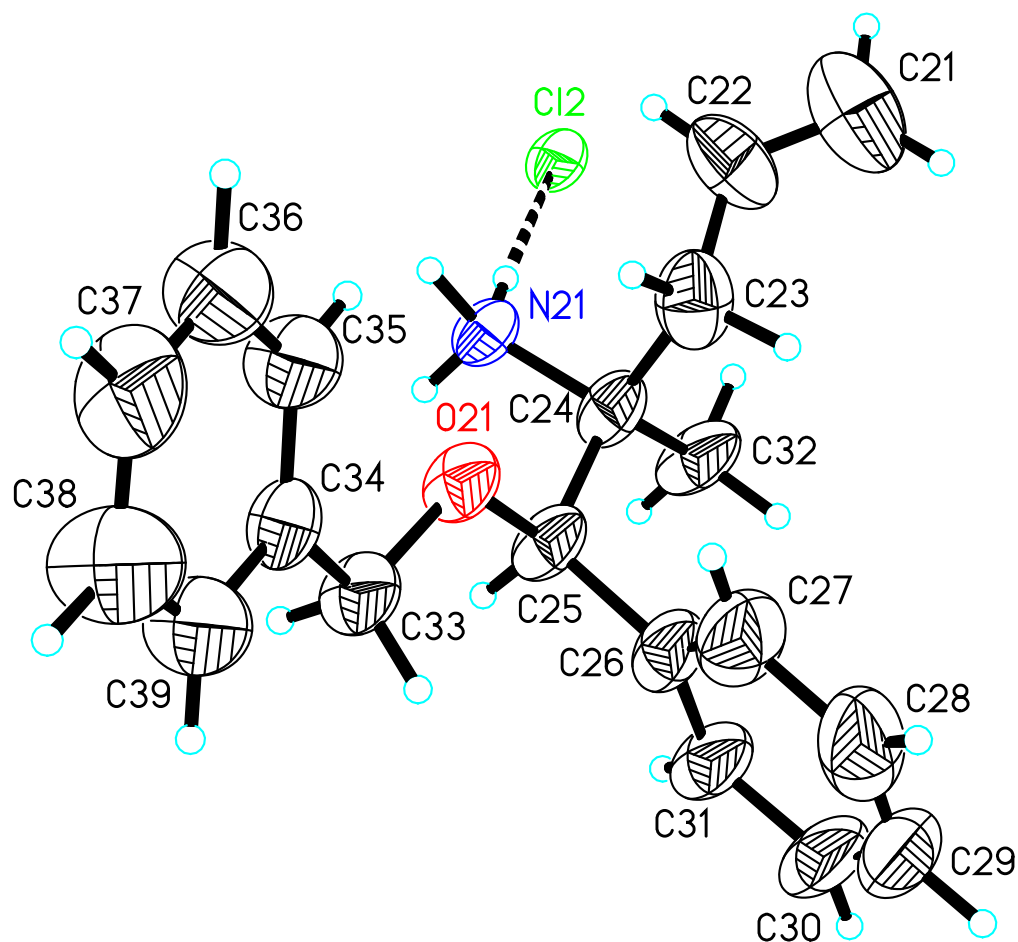
Major diastereomer δ 8.55 (s, 3H), 7.36 (m, 10H), 5.98 (ddt, $J = 16.4, 11.4, 7.49$ Hz, 1H), 5.19 (m, 2H), 4.90 (s, 1H), 4.62 (d, $J = 11.4$ Hz, 1H), 4.33 (d, $J = 11.4$ Hz, 1H), 2.69 (dd, $J = 14.6, 7.02$ Hz, 1H), 2.17 (dd, $J = 14.6, 7.73$ Hz, 1H), 1.31 (s, 3H).

¹³C NMR (126 MHz, CDCl₃):

Major diastereomer δ 137.67, 135.26, 130.92, 128.68, 128.56, 128.36, 128.33, 128.06, 127.58, 127.46, 84.94, 71.25, 60.29, 37.61, 21.03.

HRMS:

[C₁₉H₂₄NO]: calc: 282.1858, found: 282.1855



Detailed description of x-ray crystal structure determination for [C₁₉H₂₄NO][Cl] :

The alignment reflections for determining the preliminary unit cell for the crystal of [C₁₉H₂₄NO][Cl] (**1**) indexed quite well as a C-centered monoclinic lattice. The crystal was therefore believed to utilize a monoclinic space group and intensity data were collected accordingly. The monoclinic R_{sym} was 0.105 and the most probable space group appeared to be centrosymmetric $C2/m$. When the structure would not solve in $C2/m$, the intensity data were

further analyzed and this indicated the possible presence of a c-glide. The structure solved straightforwardly in the centrosymmetric space group C2/c with an asymmetric unit containing two [C19H24NO][Cl] cation/anion pairs. When this structure failed to refine below $R_1 = 0.153$, the possibility of it being a triclinic structure that was pseudomerohedrally twinned to look monoclinic was considered. This turned out to be the case and the final centrosymmetric triclinic asymmetric unit has four nearly identical, but crystallographically-independent [C19H24NO][Cl] cation/anion pairs, related by non-crystallographic pseudosymmetry. The crystals utilize the centro-symmetric triclinic space group $C\bar{1}$ [a nonstandard setting of $P\bar{1} - C_1^1$ (No. 2)] with lattice constants at 100K of: $a = 26.96214(19)\text{\AA}$, $b = 12.68483(10)\text{\AA}$, $c = 21.88641(18)\text{\AA}$, $\alpha = 90.4219(6)^\circ$, $\beta = 104.5435(4)^\circ$, $\gamma = 89.7970(4)^\circ$, $V = 7245.3(1)\text{\AA}^3$ and $Z = 16$ [C19H24NO][Cl] moieties. The crystals are pseudomerohedrally (68%/32%) twinned with the two domains related by a 180° rotation about the b axis.

The final centrosymmetric triclinic asymmetric unit contains four cation/anion pairs. All nonhydrogen atoms were included in the structural model with variable anisotropic thermal parameters. All twelve hydrogens for the protonated amine groups were located from difference Fourier syntheses and incorporated into the structural model as individual isotropic atoms whose parameters were allowed to vary in least-squares refinement cycles. Mild restraints were applied to the anisotropic thermal parameters of two carbon atoms [C(78) and C(79)] and three of the ammonium hydrogens were fixed at values 1.2 times the equivalent isotropic thermal parameter of their nitrogen atom. The remainder of the hydrogen atoms were placed at idealized sp^2 - or sp^3 -hybridized positions with C-H bond lengths of 0.95 - 1.00 \AA and isotropic thermal parameters fixed at values 1.20 (nonmethyl) or 1.50 (methyl) times the equivalent isotropic thermal parameter of the carbon atom to which they are bonded. Methyl groups were placed at idealized “staggered” positions. The terminal ethylene group for the first cation is 57%/43% disordered

between two conformations and both of these were restrained to have metrical parameters similar to that group in the fourth cation.

The final least-squares refinement cycles for **1** in space group $C\bar{1}$ utilized anisotropic thermal parameters for all nonhydrogen atoms, isotropic thermal parameters for all hydrogen atoms, 867 variables, 51 restraints and 11861 reflections having $2\theta(\text{CuK}\alpha) < 140.10^\circ$. Final agreement factors at convergence for **1** are: $R_1(\text{unweighted, based on } F) = 0.078$ for 10457 independent absorption-corrected “observed” reflections having $2\theta(\text{CuK}\alpha) < 140.10^\circ$ and $I > 2\sigma(I)$; $R_1(\text{unweighted, based on } F) = 0.086$ and $wR_2(\text{weighted, based on } F^2) = 0.213$ for all 11861 independent absorption-corrected reflections having $2\theta(\text{CuK}\alpha) < 140.10^\circ$. The largest shift/s.u. was 0.000 in the final refinement cycle. The final difference map had maxima and minima of 0.59 and $-0.56 \text{ e}/\text{\AA}^3$, respectively.