TETRAHEDRON REPORT NUMBER 337

Versatile Roles of Lewis Acids in the Reactions of Allylic Tin Compounds

Yutaka Nishigaichi,* Akio Takuwa

Department of Chemistry, Faculty of Science, Shimane University, Matsue, 690 Japan

Yoshinori Naruta,[†],* Kazuhiro Maruyama

Department of Chemistry, Faculty of Science, Kyoto University, Kyoto, 606 Japan

(Received 6 October 1992)

Contents

1.	Introduc	tion	7395				
2.	Activation of Electrophilic Substrates						
	2.1.	. Simple coordinative activation of carbonyl compounds					
	2.2.	2. Chelation control of stereochemistry					
	2.3.	Activation of Michael acceptors including quinonoid compounds	7405				
	2.4.	Activation of nitrogen-containing electrophiles	7409				
	2.5.	Activation of substitution reactions	7410				
3.	Activation of Allylic Tin Reagents. Interaction between Lewis Acids						
	and Allyltins						
	3.1.	Transmetalation reaction	7415				
	3.2.	3.2. Isomerization of allylic tin compounds					
	3.3.	3.3. Other interactions between Lewis acids and allylic tins					
4	Conclusions						

1. INTRODUCTION

Organotin compounds are widely exploited reagents in organic synthesis.¹ Allylic tin compounds have high σ - π interaction between C=C and C-Sn bonds which makes them more reactive than the corresponding silicon derivatives. In spite of their high reactivity, the tin compounds are stable enough to be isolated and to react at ambient temperature under aerobic conditions. These factors allow them to be applied to various types of reactions, e.g. thermal,² high pressure,³ transition metal-catalyzed,⁴ radical,^{1g,5} photochemical,⁶ tinlithium exchange reactions,^{1c,2a} and so on. The Lewis acid-promoted addition reaction of allylic tin reagents^{1,2} to various electrophiles is a popular method for C-C bond formation because of their high reactivity and selectivity.

The first Lewis acid-promoted allylstannation reaction was reported by Maruyama and Naruta in 1978 in their study of quinonoid compounds.^{7,8} In 1979, this study was extended to the more general reaction of aldehydes, ketones, and their derivatives.^{9,10} Previously, allylic tins were considered to be stable and therefore poorly reactive organometallics toward carbonyl compounds.¹¹ The ability of allylic tin compounds

[†] Present address: Institute for Molecular Science, Myodaiji, Okazaki 444, Japan

to function as very selective reagents has intrigued many synthetic chemists. Now, a broad approach toward their numerous applications to chemo-, regio-, and stereoselective reactions has been established.^{8,9}

Several reviews^{1,2} have already appeared describing the development of these selective reactions, but the importance and the influence of the Lewis acid has been insufficiently emphasized. Selectivity in Lewis acid-promoted reactions was highlighted recently.¹² We now review the reactions of allylic tins from the standpoint of the roles of the Lewis acid (ML_n). We can roughly categorize the Lewis-acid promoting reaction in two modes: (i) activation of the substrate, and (ii) activation of the tin reagent (Fig. 1). In this Report, we discuss (i) the Lewis acid activation of the electrophilic substrates by coordination, and then (ii) the reactions and interaction of Lewis acids with allylic tins.



2. ACTIVATION OF ELECTROPHILIC SUBSTRATES

2.1. Simple Coordinative Activation of Carbonyl Compounds

As the most important and fundamental role, we take up this subject first. Lewis acids can coordinate the heteroatom in electrophiles, mostly carbonyl compounds, and can enhance their electrophilicity. In this section, we review reactions where the Lewis acid simply coordinates and activates the carbonyl group of simple aldehydes and ketones. The Lewis acids are considered not to interact with allylic tins nor any other part of the substrate.

$$\begin{array}{c} O \\ R^{1} \\ R^{2} \end{array} + \begin{array}{c} \\ \end{array} \\ \begin{array}{c} SnR_{3} \end{array} \\ \begin{array}{c} 1 \\ 2 \end{array} \\ \begin{array}{c} H^{+} \\ \end{array} \\ \begin{array}{c} R^{1} \\ R^{2} \\ \end{array} \\ \begin{array}{c} OH \\ R^{1} \\ R^{2} \\ \end{array} \end{array}$$
(1)

The first reports on this reaction appeared independently by the Maruyama and Naruta group⁹ and by the Sakurai and Hosomi group¹⁰ in 1979. Because allyltin is much less reactive than the corresponding alkali and alkaline earth metal compounds and almost equivalent to the corresponding allylic silane, Lewis acids are essential for the practical reaction of non-activated aldehydes and ketones. The role of the Lewis acid, however, was understood at that time as simple activation of the carbonyl moiety by coordination. Therefore, no detailed and influential function of the Lewis acid was then obvious, although rather high chemoselectivity was reported.⁹ The reaction rate decreased in the order of aldehydes>methyl ketones>higher ketones. Similar Lewis acid-induced chemoselectivity, addition to the sterically less congested carbonyl group, was exhibited in comparison with photoreaction (addition to the more conjugated carbonyl group).¹³ It is also notable that the Lewis acid-promoted allylstannation allows the coexistence of some labile functional groups.¹⁴⁻¹⁶ In 1980, the reaction was applied to natural product synthesis.¹⁷

At present, the feature of the interaction (i.e. complexation) between a simple aldehyde and a Lewis acid has been pictured fairly well by several methods. The most direct evidence has been obtained by the X-ray analysis of crystalline aldehyde-Lewis acid complexes¹⁸; $C_6H_5CHO\cdot BF_3$,¹⁹ (C_6H_5CHO)₂·SnCl₄,²⁰ and (*p*-t-BuC₆H₄CHO)₂·SnCl₄,²¹ The common feature in these complexes is the coordination of the Lewis acid (BF₃ or SnCl₄) to the oxygen atom maintaining *anti*-direction and coplanarity to the aromatic ring. From MNDO calculations,^{19a} and *ab initio*^{19b,c} caliculations, it was expected that the *anti*-conformation would be more stable than the *syn*-conformation, but the energy difference between the two possible conformations was small, especially for an aliphatic aldehyde. This may affect the reaction path and selectivity in a particular case. Moreover, the activation mechanism of the coordinated carbonyl group was computer-simulated^{19,20} by buildup of positive charge and simultaneous lowering of the LUMO energy level at the carbonyl carbon. Complexation in solution was established by NMR studies (Fig. 2).^{18,22-24} The *anti*-conformation of PhCHO-BF₃ was confirmed by hetero-NOE experiments.¹⁸ Irradiation of the F atom in the complexed BF₃ enhanced the formyl H signal: thus the BF₃ adopts the *syn*-conformation to the formyl H (Scheme 1). Interaction between Lewis acids and carbonyl compounds was also examined by ¹³C NMR of the formyl carbon and by ¹¹⁹Sn NMR of SnCl₄ as the Lewis acid.²²⁻²⁴ Using the NMR method, the reaction path as well as the mode of coordination can be followed simultaneously. The following three events were identified in the reaction with an aldehyde: (i) equilibrium between an uncomplexed aldehyde, its trimer (trioxane), and aldehyde-Lewis acid complex: (ii) adduct formation with allyltin: and (iii) interaction between a Lewis acid and an allyltin (discussed later) (Scheme 2).^{22,23}



What are the characteristics of the Lewis acid-promoted reaction? This question concerns the reaction mode of the allyltin compound and the transition state. In the simple thermal reaction, it is known that the six-membered cyclic transition state occurs^{2,25} where the Lewis acidity of the tin atom is a dominant factor (Fig. 3). When a Lewis acid is present and coordinates with the carbonyl group, then the reaction proceeds via an alternative pathway. An acyclic antiperiplanar^{26,27} and *anti*-S_E' path²⁸ is generally accepted. In ionic reactions, the S_E' path is most probable and this results in γ -selectivity. The radical photoreaction can proceed with opposite regioselectivity.⁶⁶ The weakly Lewis acidic tin atom of trialkylallyltin cannot coordinate to the already occupied carbonyl oxygen atom any more.

Fig. 3.





six-membered cyclic transition state

antiperiplanar, anti-SF' transition state

This mechanistically and synthetically important phenomenon, including the change in the transition state by a Lewis acid, was first reported in the BF₃-promoted reaction of crotyltin (2-butenyltin) by the Maruyama group.^{26,29} The remarkable *syn-(erythro-)*diastereoselectivity regardless of the double bond geometry of the applied crotyltin was emphasized. This selectivity has been explained by the acyclic transition state where the terminal methyl group of crotyltin occupies the least crowded site around the aldehyde (Scheme 3).^{26,27} Similarly, ketones^{30,66} do not undergo a diastereoselective reaction when the two substituents on the carbonyl are sterically almost equivalent. In contrast, the thermal reaction in the absence of any Lewis acid showed diastereoselectivity, *syn* or *anti*, depending on the geometry of the reagent, Z or E, respectively.^{2,27,29-32} Thus, the coordination of a Lewis acid to an aldehyde altered the diastereoisomeric outcome of the (E)-crotyltin reaction from exclusive *anti* to exclusive *syn*.³³



After this work,²⁶ many other reports appeared on the reaction of 3-substituted allyltins which also afforded *syn* alcohol products in preference, though the selectivity varied with the Lewis acids used.^{34,35} Longer alkyl,³⁶⁻³⁸ alkoxy,³⁹⁻⁴¹ thioalkoxy,⁴⁰ halo,⁴² silyl groups⁴⁰ and so on^{43,44} are substituents at C-3. They are also useful for natural product synthesis.^{41,45-46a}



Recently, the acyclic antiperiplanar model was supported by a kinetic study of an aromatic aldehydeallyltin system.⁴⁷ o-Halobenzaldehydes exhibited rate enhancement probably owing to the coordination effect of the halogen atom (Cl, F) to the tin, which leads to the antiperiplanar conformation in the transition state (Fig. 4).



Scheme 4.



However, cinnamyltin (3-phenylallyltin) exhibited exceptional *anti*-selectivity (Scheme 4).³⁶ This can be understood by the following scheme. The phenyl group allows the tin atom to become more electropositive so that cinnamyltin favours the cyclic transition state in spite of the presence of Lewis acid coordination.^{36,48} Alternatively, this can be explained by an acyclic synclinal transition state. Similar *anti*-selectivity in the presence of BF₃·OEt₂ was reported in the reaction of (*E*)-crotyldibutylchlorotin.⁴⁹ Owing to increased coordinativity of the tin atom, the cyclic transition state was preferred. However, the higher coordinativity of TiCl₄ led to the formation of *syn*-products.

Generally, the reaction path via the acyclic transition state is very probable, but an objection against its



antiperiplanar conformation arose. Based on the simple antiperiplanar model, (Z)-crotyltin should give products with higher syn-selectivity than the (E)-isomer (Scheme 5). In practice, the (E)-isomer reacted a little faster and with higher syn-selectivity.³⁴ There seems to be a certain contribution of synclinal transition state.^{34,50} Similar results were also reported with crotylsilanes.⁵⁰

Denmark^{51,52} reported, in an *intramolecular* reaction system, that the synclinal conformation was preferred to the antiperiplanar conformation, although the conformation was restricted to one which did not reflect the *intermolecular* reaction system properly (Scheme 6). In the Lewis acid-promoted intramolecular macrocyclizations, a synclinal transition state was also proposed,⁵³⁻⁵⁶ where the stereoselectivity did not necessarily reflect that of intermolecular reactions.⁵³ The stability of the macrocyclic transition state may influence the selectivity.⁵⁵



In a recent report,⁵⁷ there was intramolecular capture of an intermediate compound in the BF_3 -promoted reaction between propionaldehyde and (1-methylcrotyl)triphenyltin. This product was a stannylated tetrahydrofuran, formed via [1,2] stannyl migration and C-O bond formation (Scheme 7). For efficient ring closure, the synclinal transition state is more plausible.

Scheme 7.



Alteration of the transition state, from a cyclic to an acyclic one, by Lewis acids was also reflected in the resultant double bond geometry of the product when 1-substituted allyltins were employed. In the simple

thermal reaction, the (Z)-olefin was produced via S_E ' allylic rearrangement.^{33,58,59} This (Z)-preference is thought to be due to the steric congestion between the substituent at C-1 of the allyl moiety and the tin ligand in the transition state (i.e. the substituent at C-1 preferred the axial to the equatorial orientation) (Scheme 8). In



most Lewis acid-promoted reactions, by contrast, the double bond geometry of the resultant product was $E.^{33,39,41,45}$ This can be caused by avoidance^{59a} of the allylic strain produced by the substituent at C-1 of allyltins in the acyclic transition state.⁶⁰

One more example concerning a critical role of simply coordinating a Lewis acid was the induction of Cram selectivity.^{27,61} 2-Phenylpropanal was allowed to react with allyltins in the presence of a Lewis acid (AlCl₃, BF₃·OEt₂) (Scheme 9). Compared with the reaction via the cyclic transition state under high pressure,²⁷ the Cram selectivity (*syn*-selectivity) was much increased. This was explained as follows: the Lewis acid turned the trajectory of the incoming allyltin so as to be closer to the chiral center, probably owing to steric repulsion between the Lewis acid and the allyltin.^{2c,62}

Scheme 9.



It is worthwhile to mention the reactions of optically active allylic tins, (E)-1-alkoxy-3-alkyl-^{37,38,63} and (Z)-1-alkyl-3-alkoxyallyltins.⁶⁴ They are important for mechanistic investigation as well as for synthesis. In both allyltins, the tin atom is attached to the chiral center at C-1. The crotyl-type diastereoselectivity was syn as usual. Moreover, the absolute configuration and the double bond geometry of the product confirmed the strict anti-S_E' reaction path in the Lewis acid-promoted acyclic system. Although the product double bond geometry was again preferentially E in most cases, Z-preference was also observed in certain cases of 1-alkoxyallyltins.⁶³ This was rationalized by an inside alkoxy effect⁶⁵ and syn/anti equilibration of aldehyde-BF₃ complexes. As mentioned above, aromatic aldehydes prefer anti-complexation with BF₃.¹⁸ therefore the allylic tin approachs in synclinal and inside alkoxy conformation to avoid the BF₃-substituent at C-3. This results in a (Z)-syn product. In cases where aliphatic aldehydes are concerned, because of the small energy

difference between the syn- and anti-complexes,¹⁸ the reaction could occur from the syn-complex so that the allylic tin might approach in the antiperiplanar and outside alkoxy conformation. Therefore, the product is the (E)-syn alcohol, but its absolute configuration is opposite to that of the (Z)-syn product (Scheme 10). Indeed,



the direction of Lewis acid coordination could control the absolute configuration of the product but further investigation should be made for detailed interpretation.

Lewis acid activation also promotes the reactions of allenyltins^{66,67} and 2,4-pentadienyltins.^{36,68,69} These are attacked by an aldehyde at their terminal 3- and 5-positions via *anti*- S_E^{170} and *anti*- S_E^{171} processes, respectively (Scheme 11). The crotyltin-type diastereoselectivity was also *syn* in both cases.^{66,68}



 $BF_3 \cdot OEt_2$ has been most conveniently and most frequently used as a simple coordinating Lewis acid activator. Other Lewis acids including Mg, Al, Ti, Zn, and Sn halides (or salts) have also been used, but, as discussed later, it should be kept in mind that interaction between these halides and allylic tins becomes an important factor.

2.2. Chelation Control of Stereochemistry

When a carbonyl compound has another coordinating functionality X (Scheme 12; e.g. alkoxy group)

besides the carbonyl, certain Lewis acids can form a chelated complex. In the reaction of such a complex, Lewis acids play two roles: one is as an activator for the carbonyl group as discussed above, and the other, discussed here, is conformational lock of the substrate. The latter role produces stereoselective allylation of the acyclic system by allylic tins. For this purpose, effective chelation is essential and the following three factors are dominant: (i) at least two acceptor sites are required in the Lewis acid for chelation with a substrate, therefore choice of Lewis acids comes important. For non-chelating substrates, the choice is trivial because interaction between a Lewis acid and an allyltin is negligible. (ii) Strength of the coordination bond with the second donating functionality (e.g. alkoxy group). Electronic effects and steric environment affect this factor. (iii) In addition, solvents also affect the chelation according to their donating character.



For the chelating role of Lewis acids, TiCl₄, SnCl₄, MgBr₂, and ZnCl₂ are those most utilized as expected for factor (i). As a counterpart of the chelate, α - and β -alkoxyaldehydes are most commonly used to form five- and six-membered cyclic complexes, respectively. Because of their thermodynamically stable ring structure, high stereoselectivity is expected. The following three types of stereocontrol are representative (Fig.5): (a) 1,2-asymmetric induction from α -alkoxyaldehydes; (b) 1,2-asymmetric induction from β -alkoxyaldehydes. In each type of stereocontrol, an alkyl substituent R on the chelate ring will restrict the direction of the nucleophilic attack, towards the front or the back side of the carbonyl plane. Thus, chelation-controlled stereoselectivity can be realized.



In type (a), syn-homoallylalcohols were obtained with very high selectivity as reported by Keck's group.⁷² The most efficient Lewis acids were MgBr₂ and TiCl₄, and the alkoxy group should be one which coordinates strongly to the Lewis acid, such as benzyloxy group.^{73,74} In contrast, the *t*-butyldimethylsiloxy (TBSO) group showed decreased selectivity even with the use of a chelating Lewis acid, because of its low coordinating ability. This was rationalized in two ways. TBS is a sterically large group, and the silicon atom could withdraw the lone pair of electrons on the oxygen atom by $p\pi$ -d π interaction. This is an example of factor (ii) above.



R' = PhCH₂, PhCH₂OCH₂, MeOCH₂, ABuMe₂Si (TBS)

Regarding the choice of solvents (factor iii), non-coordinative CH_2Cl_2 gave the best results.⁷² Coordinative ethereal solvents, especially tetrahydrofuran (THF), exhibited low chelation *syn*-selectivity or the reverse *anti*-selectivity (non-chelation, Cram selectivity) even with the use of MgBr₂ and a benzyloxy aldehyde. Thus, the ethereal oxygen coordinated with the Lewis acid to neutralise its acceptor site.

When the substrate had two or more coordinating alkoxy groups (e.g. dialdose derivatives),75 probably

owing to several possible chelation modes, chelative Lewis acids (e.g. TiCl₄, ZnCl₂) did not undergo highly selective reactions of type (a). Therefore, to achieve high chelation-controlled *syn*-selectivity, TBS protection of the selected OH group (unfavorable to type (a) chelation) was performed.^{76,77} Recently, utilization of LiClO₄-Et₂O for selective type (a) chelation was reported in the reaction of dialdose derivatives.⁷⁸ α -Aminoaldehydes also showed high *syn*-selectivity^{79,80} even in the presence of alkoxy groups.⁷⁹ This is due to the formation of a stronger complex with the amino group rather than with the alkoxy group.

Crotyltins have been used in the chelation controlled reaction.⁸¹ Both chelation controlled syn-selectivity and acyclic transition state-induced syn-selectivity (*erythro*-selectivity) were realized by the use of coordinative MgBr₂. Though TiCl₄ established high chelation control, *erythro*-selectivity decreased. This indicates the possibility of transmetalation (discussed later). Other reports about type (a) selectivity by crotyltin⁸² and related 3-alkoxyallyltins^{83,84} should give similar high syn, syn-selectivity with MgBr₂.

$$R \rightarrow H + X \rightarrow SnBu_3 \rightarrow H R \rightarrow H$$

One thing should be noted with this type of the crotyltin reaction. In simple aldehyde activation, the Lewis acid coordinates the carbonyl from the *anti*-direction, whereas in the chelative activation, the coordination is inevitably from the *syn*-direction. This controls the stereochemical outcome. 2-Methylcrotyltin gave an *anti*-(*threo*-)selective alcohol in reaction with a 2-benzyloxyaldehyde and MgBr₂, opposite to crotyltin's *syn*-(*erythro*-)selectivity,⁸² though chelation controlled *syn*-selectivity remained. *anti*-Coordinating BF₃ showed the usual *syn*-(*erythro*-)selectivity even in the reaction of 2-methylcrotyltin (but non-chelative selectivity) (Scheme 13). Similar reversibility of the stereoselectivity by the applied Lewis acid (MgBr₂ or BF₃) was also observed in the reaction of optically active allenyltins.^{67,70}

Scheme 13.



In both instances, the unusual *anti-(threo-)*selectivity of crotyl-type tin compounds was accounted for by the synclinal acyclic transition state, which might be induced by the reduced steric congestion between the Lewis acid and the tin reagent in the *syn*-coordinated chelate (Fig. 6).^{67,70,82} In the case of both optically active aldehydes and allenyltins, moreover, the combination of the enantiomers was also a stereodefining factor.⁶⁷



In type (b) with 3-alkoxy-2-methylpropanals, chelative Lewis acids (TiCl₄, SnCl₄, MgX₂) promoted highly chelation-selective reaction to give *anti*-alcohols.^{84,85} The importance of Lewis acid coordination to the



alkoxy group was demonstrated by the low selectivity in the reaction of siloxy aldehydes.⁸⁵ Crotyl-^{85,86} and 3alkoxyallyltins⁸⁴ underwent *syn-(erythro-)*selective reaction with both these aldehydes and simple aldehydes. Allenyltins were also applied to the type (b) reaction to show high chelation selectivity with MgBr₂.^{66,67}

Chelative Lewis acids were again effective for the type (c) reaction. The effects of the Lewis acid, alkoxy group, and aldehyde skeletons on product selectivity were investigated⁸⁷ and 1,3-*anti* diol derivatives were obtained with generally high selectivity, especially by the use of TiCl₄.⁸⁸ In some cases, MgBr₂^{84,89} and SnCl₄^{57,90} gave good results. Here again, crotyltin-type *syn*-selectivity was observed.^{57,84,89,90}

In contrast to chelative Lewis acids, non-chelative BF₃·OEt₂, which has only one acceptor site, induced the opposite stereoselectivity; especially in the reaction of types (a)^{67,70,72,75,81-83} and (b)^{66,67,85}. In both cases, the selectivity was simply explained by the Felkin model of coordinated aldehydes. From the steric and electronic factor (ii), the combination of a TBSO group and BF₃ allowed rather high non-chelative Cram (or Felkin) selectivity: *anti*-selectivity in type (a),^{72,82} where the alkoxy group worked as the large group, and *syn*selectivity in type (b),⁸⁵ where the alkoxymethyl (or alkoxyalkyl) group acts as the large group. The effect of the TBS group was interpreted in terms of its steric bulk and electron-withdrawing character as mentioned above and, also, by the lowered σ^*_{C-O} orbital energy due to TBS electron-withdrawing, which stabilized the Felkin model conformation still more (Scheme 14).⁷²

Scheme 14.



In spite of the non-chelating character of BF₃, some reports have argued that BF₃ apparently promoted a chelation controlled reaction. In the type (c) reaction, it was posturated that BF₃ exhibited an even higher chelation selectivity than chelative $SnCl_4$.⁵⁷ The selectivity was attributed to the electrostatic interaction between the negatively charged coordinating BF₃ and the positively charged carbonyl oxygen (Fig.7a).⁹¹ Parallel results⁸⁷ were reported that even in the presence of a TBSO group, BF₃ showed higher *anti*-selectivity, apparently chelating more selective than TiCl₄, MgBr₂, and SnCl₄. Similar selectivity was also published in the reaction of an oxazoline aldehyde.⁹² The authors attributed the *anti*-selectivity to the dipole repulsion between the coordinated carbonyl and the also coordinated oxazoline nitrogen (Fig.7b).

Fig. 7.



Another instance of apparent BF₃-chelation was given in the reaction of glutaraldehydic ester.⁹³ It was reported that glutaraldehydic ester alone could take a rigid cyclic conformation due to intramolecular dipole interaction between aldehyde and ester moieties (Fig.7c).⁹⁴ It is improbable to assume chelation of BF₃

because it has only one acceptor site.

An additional instance of Lewis acid coordination to an auxiliary determining stereoselectivity was the reported allylation of optically active α -keto amides.⁹⁵ The high stereoselectivity was attributed to saturated coordination of the Lewis acid (Fig.7d), which reduced the number of possible conformations of the complex. Inferred from higher selectivity by chelative Lewis acids than by non-chelative ones, chelation may play an important role to fix the conformation of the complex. The bulky phenylmenthyl group was also employed as a chiral auxiliary, which blocked the *re*-face of the chelated glyoxylate (Fig.7e).²⁷

Spectroscopic evidence the Lewis acid chelation was given by Keck group's NMR studies⁹⁶⁻⁹⁸ of the reaction with β -alkoxyaldehydes. It was revealed that β -benzyloxyaldehydes and TiCl₄ formed six-membered chelates, and that the α -methyl substituent as seen in the type (b) reaction occupied the pseudoequatorial position (Fig.8a) while β -methyl substituent, as seen in the type (c) reaction, because pseudoaxial to avoid methyl-benzyl repulsion (Fig.8b).⁹⁶ Chelation by SnCl₄ and MgBr₂ (Fig.8c) was also investigated by ¹H, ¹³C, and ¹¹⁹Sn NMR.^{24,97,98} That the TBSO group hindered chelation and favored 2:1-complex formation (Fig.8d) was also shown. These observations explained the selectivities in types (b) and (c) very well.



2.3. Activation of Michael Acceptors Including Quinonoid Compounds

Lewis acids can also activate Michael acceptors as substrates for the allylstannation reaction. With α , β unsaturated ketones, the nucleophilic path led to 1,4-addition by the coordination of the Lewis acid (BF₃, TiCl₄, AlCl₃, etc.),^{10,68,99-101} and to 1,2-addition with α , β -unsaturated aldehydes (Scheme 15).⁶⁸ The reaction of allenyltins was reported to proceed in 1,4-conjugate fashion most successfully with TiCl₄.¹⁰² ZnI₂ in contrast gave 1,2-adducts. The difference in the activation mechanism is still unclear. Indeed, it is difficult to predict correctly which Lewis acid will promote the reaction most effectively. The outcome also appears to depends upon the combination of the substrate and the tin compounds used. In the case of $\alpha\beta$, $\gamma\delta$ -unsaturated ketones, even 1.6-conjugate addition was observed (Scheme 16).^{103,104}



 α,β -Unsaturated nitriles,¹⁰⁵ esters,¹⁰⁶ and nitro compounds^{100,107} have also been used as Michael acceptors in the Lewis acid-promoted conjugate allylstannation reaction. Here again, stereoselectivites (*erythro/threo* in crotyltin reaction and Cram/anti-Cram of chiral Michael acceptors) were reported parallel to those reported in the reactions of aldehydes (Schemes 17 and 18).¹⁰⁰ One interesting investigation on the role of Lewis acids was the reaction of 1,1-dicyanoethylene derivatives, where the Lewis acid (TiCl₄) activated the

ionic reaction path.¹⁰⁵ The single electron transfer (SET) path, which resulted in opposite stereoselection, did not take place in this reaction system.¹⁰⁵

Among α,β -unsaturated carbonyl compounds, benzopyranones and α,β -unsaturated acyliron complexes exhibited particular reactivities (Scheme 19). Benzopyranones^{108,109} were activated by silyl triflate to

Scheme 17.



form pyrylium salts, which reacted with allyltins at C-2 or C-4 via the S_E2' path to give allyldihydropyranone derivatives. Though the products were identical with Michael adducts, the Lewis acid (silyl triflate) induced the modified reaction path.



In the reaction with acryloyliron complexes,¹¹⁰⁻¹¹⁴ the initial role of the Lewis acid (AlCl₃) was coordinative activation of the enone portion, which was followed by Michael attack of the allyltins. However, the fate of the reaction was different from that of usual Michael acceptors. Instead of elimination of stannyl cation, which would yield normal Michael adducts, the intermediate enolate reacted by intramolecular nucleophilic attack at the cation center accompanied by stannyl 1,2-migration. As the result, a stannylated cyclopentane ring was constructed (Scheme 20). The strong intramolecular nucleophilicity of the enolate was explained by the strong electron-donating character of the iron complex.^{110,113,114} From stereochemical studies,^{111,113,114} the cyclization process was very fast or concerted, judged by the high stereospecificity. It was suggested that AlCl₃ also worked as a conformational lock for the complex (s-*cis* conformation).^{113,114}

Scheme 20.



Another interesting kind of substrate among enones are the quinones, which provided the first report on Lewis acid-promoted allylstannation.⁷ Quinones are highly electrophilic and introduction of an allyl group nucleophilically by reaction of quinones with anionic allylic reagents does not proceed with high efficiency. The covalent but still significantly polarized C-Sn bond in allylic tins are generally of little used in this respect.

Lewis acid-activation is essential for clean and practical reaction except for some very reactive quinones (e.g. o-quinones).¹¹⁵

The principal role of Lewis acids (mostly BF₃·OEt₂) is, of course, coordinative activation of the carbonyl group of the quinone. As depicted by Naruta (Scheme 21),¹¹⁶ in the reaction of *p*-quinones (*p*-benzoquinones and 1,4-naphthoquinones), the Lewis acid initially promotes 1,2-addition of allylic tins to the carbonyl to give allyl quinols; migration of the introduced allyl moiety onto the aromatic ring (quinol-hydroquinone rearrangement) then occurs if possible. The amount of the Lewis acid as well as the structure of the allylic moiety affects the modes of the initial allylstannation (α - or γ -position of the allylin) and the successive migration ([1,2] or [3,3], or [1,3] in some cases).^{116,117} It was suggested^{116,118} that a small amount of Lewis acid underwent energetically favored n-protonation (coordination to n-electrons), leading to thermal [3,3] migration, whereas a large amount increased the contribution of π -protonation (coordination to π -electrons), leading to cationic [1,2] migration. When the γ -terminus of the allyltin was sterically hindered, addition at the α -position (S_E-type reaction) and [1,2] or [1,3] migration were preferred (Scheme 22). Consequently, the allylic double bond geometry was retained in these cases.^{117,119-121}



A similar feature of allylstannation of 1,2-naphthoquinones was shown by Takuwa group: 1,2-addition to the carbonyl at C-2 and subsequent allylic migration to C-4 (Scheme 23a).^{122,123} Indeed, in the cases of both *p*- and *o*-quinones, quinol intermediates were isolated and the allyl migration took place independently.^{116,123} As a special instance, the reaction of 1,2-naphthoquinones and pentadienyltin¹¹⁵ ceased at the 1,2-addition step when BF₃·OEt₂ was used. Use of (*i*-PrO)₃TiCl as Lewis acid led to the [3,3] migration and gave a branched dienyl chain at C-4 (Scheme 23b). This observation confirmed the dual role of the Lewis acids and showed that the allylic migration preferred the thermally allowed [3,3] pathway.¹¹⁵



When quinones were activated by an electron-withdrawing substituent (e.g. 2-alkanoyl-1,4-

Y. NISHIGAICHI et al.

quinones,^{124,125} 3-nitro- and 3-alkanoyl-1,2-naphthoquinones^{115,123}), Lewis acids then induced direct 1,4addition (Michael addition). This was characterized by regioselective addition at the terminal of the allylic tin (γ -position to the tin atom for allyltins and ϵ -position for pentadienyltins) via the S_E' allylic rearrangement (Scheme 24). When the 1.2-addition/migration path featured in the reaction, the regiochemistry of the introduced allyl moiety became diverse and depended upon the structures of the quinones and the allylic moieties.^{116,117} In the particular case of pentadienyltins, bidentate Lewis acids (e.g. (i-PrO)₃TiCl, SnCl₄) gave better yields than BF3-OEt2.^{126,127} This was presumably because chelation between quinone carbonyl and alkanoyl carbonyl resulted in more selective activation at the C=C double bond. Monodentate Lewis acids such as BF3 and AlCl3 were suitable for the introduction of a conjugated diene into simple quinones.68,128



It is valuable to compare the reactions of guinones and allyltins with and without Lewis acids to understand the role of the Lewis acids. Labile 1,4- and 1,2-quinones can react with certain allyl tins even in the absence of Lewis acids. The reactions of pentadienyltins are indicative. With 1,4-quinones (Scheme 25a), they undergo very efficientl Diels-Alder cyclization as an electron-rich diene.¹²⁹ In contrast, under Lewis acid-promoted conditions, smooth nucleophilic pentadienylation takes place. This difference indicates that Lewis acids polarize the quinones to promote the ionic electrophilic reaction.

In the case of 1,2-naphthoquinones (Scheme 25b),¹¹⁵ no Diels-Alder reaction proceeded with pentadienyltins; quantitative Michael-type pentadienylstannation was observed even in the absence of Lewis acids. This reflects that 1,2-quinones are themselves more polarized than 1,4-quinones. Another interpretation was that the reaction was initiated by SET from the tin compound to the 1,2-quinone, which is more reducible than the corresponding 1,4-quinone.¹¹⁵ The Lewis acids induced polarization of the quinone, which underwent SE" attack on pentadienyltin as noted above.

Scheme 25.



Combination of allyltin and 2-alkanoyl-1,4-quinone also resulted in thermal reaction without Lewis acids (Scheme 26).¹³⁰ This gave various products with low selectivity, including stannylated cyclopentane, which indicated that one role of the Lewis acid was to eliminate the stannyl group from the intermediate as a cation.

These Lewis acid-promoted reactions of quinones have been successfully well applied to the synthesis of naturally occurring quinones, prenylquinones, ^{119-121,131} pyranonaphthoquinones, ^{125,132} anthracyclinones, ^{126,127,133-135} and so on (Fig. 9).^{127,136} Some of these can be obtained on a preparative scale in high yield.¹³⁷ For high synthetic efficiency, Lewis acids should be selected not only from the viewpoint of the activation of quinones but also from the selectivity of the reaction and avoidance of decomposition of delicate substrates and reagents (e.g. labile and optically active substituents).^{127,135}



p-Quinone diimides are also activated by $BF_3 \cdot OEt_2$ as Michael acceptors toward allylic tins.¹³⁸ The Lewis acid coordinated to the more basic nitrogen (=NCOPh > =NSO₂Ph) and this led to regioselective allylation. S_E Type allylation reaction directly onto the quinonoid nucleus was reported.



2.4. Activation of Nitrogen-Containing Electrophiles

As nitrogen analogues of aldehydes, imines also undergo Lewis acid-promoted allylstannation. Three reports appeared in succession in 1985.^{75,139,140} BF₃·OEt₂ and TiCl₄ were used as activators, because neither high temperature nor high pressure promoted the reaction.¹⁴⁰ Reaction with crotyltin and crotyl-type (3-substituted allyl) tins proceeded in a stereoselective fashion^{140, 141} but with less *syn*-selectively than the reaction of aldehydes. Therefore the antiperiplanar transition state proposed for the reaction of aldehydes.¹⁴² High *syn*-selectivity was reported by the use of TiCl₄. In this reaction, however, the actual reagent was presumed to be an allylitanium formed by transmetalation (discussed in Section 3.1). Moderate selectivity was obtained by BF₃-promotion.



One critical difference between the structure of the aldehyde and an imine is the presence of a substituent on the hetero atom (nitrogen of imine). The most configurationally stable imine is the *anti*-isomer, so complexation by Lewis acids is kinetically directed towards the *syn*-configuration at low temperature. The *syn*complex promotes high *syn*-selectivity with crotyltin as noted by Keck.¹³⁹ The *anti*-complex, which is thermodynamically more stable at higher temperature (accompanied by isomerization to *syn*-imine), seems to induce lower selectivity. This indicates that the role of the Lewis acid is not merely simple activation of the imine but also control of stereoselectivity by steric (or stereoelectronic) influence.

When the N-substituent on an imine had a chiral center (e.g. derivatives from α -phenethylamine and glycosylamine) then asymmetric induction was realized.^{142,143} Stereoselective reaction induced by a chiral auxiliary was not possible with aldehydes. For this purpose, TiCl₄ was more effective than BF₃·OEt₂, though the TiCl₄-promoted reaction proceeded via transmetalation (eq. 8a; see section 3.1).¹⁴² Glycosylimine participated in the SnCl₄-mediated reaction: SnCl₄ could chelate the substrate so as to fix the conformation (steric block; eq.8b).¹⁴³



Acid chlorides worked both as an activator like Lewis acids and as a reagent to form amides in the allylation of imines and nitrogen aromatics.¹⁴⁴⁻¹⁴⁸ They formed reactive iminium salts which were the actual electrophiles (Scheme 28). This method has been applied in alkaloid synthesis.^{146,148} As another example of the reactions of iminium salts, allylstannation of formaldehyde in the presence of an ammonium salt derived from a primary or secondary amine and a protic acid has been reported.^{149,150} The ammonium salt can be considered as an activator like Lewis acids. In this reaction, homoallylamines were formed.



In addition to C=O and C=N electrophiles, N=N electrophiles, azodicarbonyl compounds, have also been utilized for allylation.¹⁵¹ Lewis acid-chelation promoted regioselective activation of the electrophilic nitrogen center (Scheme 28c).¹⁵²

2.5. Activation of Substitution Reactions

In this section we deal with Lewis acid-promoted *substitution* reactions. For such reactions, ethereal substrates, oxiranes and acetals, are the most well-known. Lewis acids coordinate an ethereal oxygen, a Lewis base, so as to polarize the O-C bond (Scheme 29). As the positive charge on the carbon atom develops then allylation by allylic tins proceeds via the S_N pathway.



Bond strain in oxiranes can be a good driving force for the substitution reaction. Intermolecular allylations of oxiranes are known. Vinyl epoxides^{153,154} and epihalohydrins¹⁵⁵ have been used for the efficient reaction. Otherwise, it might be a problem to allylate a particular site of the oxirane ring and to suppress Lewis acid-promoted isomerization of the oxiranes. For vinyl epoxides (Scheme 30a), the Lewis acid (BF₃·OEt₂ was most efficient) produced a cationic center at the vinyl-substituted carbon of the oxirane due to allylic conjugation, and hence allylation occurred at this site via either the S_N^2 pathway^{153,154} or the S_N^2 ' pathway¹⁵⁴ depending upon the substituents. Epihalohydrins were also activated regioselectively at the unsubstituted oxirane carbon to afford halohydrins (Scheme 30b).¹⁵⁵



When both an oxirane and an allylic tin are present in the same molecule, Lewis acids can activate the oxirane without affecting the tin substituent.¹⁵⁶⁻¹⁶⁰ The choice of Lewis acid for this system depended upon the substrate. TiCl₄ was favored in certain instances,^{157,158,160} but in another it was disfavored.¹⁵⁹ As for BF₃·OEt₂, SnCl₄, Me₃SiOTf and so on, similar preference was encountered.¹⁵⁶⁻¹⁶⁰ In one case, even protic CF₃COOH was of use.¹⁵⁶

Lewis acid-dependence and effect of substituents on an oxirane ring determine the whole regio- and stereo-selectivity; cation-stabilizing substituents control the substitution reaction.¹⁵⁶⁻¹⁶⁰ Another regio-controlling factor can be seen in chelative activation by bidentate TiCl₄ (Scheme 31).¹⁵⁷ Chelation limits the coordinating direction of TiCl₄ so that the cation center is generated regioselectively.



Lewis acid-promoted reaction (borderline $S_N 2$) has been compared with anionic reaction (typical $S_N 2$),¹⁶⁰ where the steric effect of the substituents (not cation stability) determines the regio-selectivity. This has made the role of Lewis acids clearer (Scheme 32).



Acetals are another group of the substrates subject to the substitution reaction. Two alkoxy groups on the same carbon facilitate positive charge formation on this carbon (Scheme 33). That Lewis acids can activate acetals to allylation by stannanes was known as early as 1979,¹⁰ but versatile application and mechanistic investigation was not carried out until several years later. Much attention has been paid to the stereoselective reaction of chiral acetals (especially cyclic ones) as chiral carbonyl equivalents.

Insight into this reaction has been obtained recently by the Denmark¹⁶¹⁻¹⁶⁵ and the Yamamoto groups.^{166,167} By NMR study of coordinated acetals and the intramolecular reaction of conformationally restricted stannylacetals, it was shown that three factors dominate the stereoselectivity: (i) the structure of the acetal template, (ii) the coordinating strength of the applied Lewis acid, and (iii) the nucleophilicity of the reagent (Scheme 33). NMR study^{162,163} revealed that Lewis acids preferentially coordinate to the sterically less hindered oxygen, so that it can be substituted by a nucleophile. The stronger the coordinating Lewis



acid (e.g. TiCl₄, SnCl₄), the more oxocarbenium ion character the reaction center possesses. In other words, the weaker Lewis acids (e.g. TiCl₄/Ti(OPr-*i*)₄, BF₃·OEt₂) show more intimate ion pair character. It is interesting that Lewis acidity can be controlled by varying the ratio of TiCl₄/Ti(OPr-*i*)₄, which has been described as "Ti-blend". In addition, a better nucleophile such as allyl*tributyl*tin could capture the intimate ion pair, whereas a poorer one such as allyl*triphenyl*tin requires the more ionic intermediate.^{165,166} Less nucleophilic allylsilanes and allylgermanes behaved similarly.^{165,166}.¹⁶⁸ The combination of the Lewis acidity and the nucleophilicity determines which transition state, S_N1-like oxocarbenium ion or S_N2-like intimate ion pair, operates.

In the latter case (the combination of weaker Lewis acid and/or powerful nucleophile), nucleophilic allyltins attack from the back-side of the departing alkoxy group. Thus high stereoselectivity (inversion) based upon the acetal template was realized.¹⁶⁴⁻¹⁶⁶ In the former case (the combination of powerful Lewis acid and weaker nucleophile), template control was not expected, but substrate control Cram or chelation-control like that for aldehydes, was dominant (Scheme 34).^{166,167} Similarly, this type of control is also seen in crotyltintype *syn-(erythro-)*selectivity *via* acyclic antiperiplanar transition state, particularly in the reaction of substituted allenyltins (Scheme 35).¹⁶⁹ Only low selectivity was observed in such S_N1-like oxocarbenium reactions. Allylation with high stereoselectivity was reported in the reaction of the methoxyoxazolidines derived from norephedrine.^{170,171} Developed oxocarbenium ion was attacked by crotyltin and 3alkoxyallyltin in synclinal geometry to give a single stereoisomer, *trans*-substitution to phenyl and methyl groups. While BF₃·OEt₂ gave this isomer as the product, it should be noted that TiCl₄ induced subsequent isomerization gave the *cis*-product.¹⁷⁰





A similar concept was valid for the intramolecular reaction (Scheme 36). Again, for high selectivity, Lewis acids should be weak and monodentate in order to direct the reaction via S_N2 -like path.^{161,163} When bidentate ligands (TiCl₄, SnCl₄) chelated both acetal oxygens to form carbenium cation, the selectivity was generally low. Thus, the importance of the timing of bond-breaking and bond-forming for steric control should be stressed. In a case of the intramolecular S_N1 reaction, trans-selectivity was moderately preferred via a cyclic and synclinal transition state with use of (*i*-PrO)TiCl₃ as the Lewis acid.¹⁷²



An additional interesting example of Lewis acid-promoted substitution reaction is that of thioacetals (Scheme 37). For effective activation, suitable Lewis acids should be designed carefully. $(Me_2SSMe)^+BF_4^-$



(DMTSF)¹⁷³ and GaCl₃¹⁷⁴ has been reported. The former is known to induce selective activation of the thioacetal moiety in the presence of various other functionalities. The reaction appears to proceed via the corresponding thionium intermediate. For the latter Lewis acid, it was said that its softness was essential for high thiophilicity.

In the reaction of mono-thioacetals,¹⁷⁵ 1-methoxy-1-phenylthioalkanes, chemoselective activation (activation of C-O bond or C-S bond) was determined by the Lewis acid (Scheme 38a). By the use of TiCl₄, homoallyl thioether was produced *via* methoxy elimination due to the extremely high oxygen affinity of TiCl₄. In contrast, BF_3 ·OEt₂ induced homoallyl ether formation *via* phenylthio elimination because of the high affinity between Sn and S atoms and the stability of the oxocarbenium ion. When an acetoxy group was substituted at the 2-position of the thioacetal (Scheme 38b), Me₃SiOTf could activate the substrate.¹⁷⁶ But the initial activated site (i.e. coordination site of Me₃Si⁺) was not the acetal moiety. Unusually, the silyl cation attacked the acetoxy group. Then, nucleophilic attack occurred at the acetal moiety accompanied by 1,2-migration of the thio group. Here again, stereospecificity and selectivity were dependent on the reaction path,



S_N1 or S_N2, determined by the Lewis acidity and the nucleophilicity of the reagent.

Substitutional allylation of acetals and acetal-like compounds has offered a method for stereoselective synthesis of natural products. Cyclic acetal derivatives such as lactols (Scheme 39a)^{177,178} and β -X- β -lactams (Scheme 39b)¹⁷⁹⁻¹⁸¹ has been widely utilized. BF₃·OEt₂, and in some case Me₃SiOTf, gave the best results. The reaction seems to proceed via cationic intermediates (oxocarbenium and iminium ions), i.e. S_N1 path, because the substituted products all have the *trans*-configuration from steric requirements regardless of the starting stereochemistry.



One more group of substrates employed in the substitution reaction is allyl halides¹⁸²⁻¹⁸⁴ and allyl alcohol derivatives.^{184,185} Lewis acids coordinate to form a stable allyl cation, which is attacked by nucleophilic allyltins (Scheme 40).¹⁸³ This produces biallyl compounds which allyl-rearrange via the S_E' path. In a case of substitution of the OH group, a Lewis acid-amine complex was used for the removal of the proton produced. A similar substitution reaction has been reported with diarylmethyl chlorides,¹⁸⁶ where the S_N1 path was confirmed by the fact that Lewis acids had no effect on the reaction rate. As a similar reaction to the above, substitution of allyl sulfides was catalyzed by trityl (triphenylmethyl) cation as a Lewis acid.¹⁸⁷ Azides^{187a} and triflates^{187b} were also substituted with the aid of Lewis acids. Even in a radical substitution



reaction of a selenosulfoxide, Lewis acids played an important role by enhancing the stereoselectivity by coordination to the sulfoxide moiety.¹⁸⁸

Lewis acids also activate acyl chlorides to give allyl ketones *via* substitution reaction at the sp² carbon.^{189,190} Most of these reactions are promoted by transition metal catalysts.^{1c,4}

3. ACTIVATION OF ALLYLIC TIN REAGENTS. INTERACTION BETWEEN LEWIS ACIDS AND ALLYLTINS

We now discuss the interaction between Lewis acids and allyltins, to which very little attention has been paid so far. Interaction between Lewis acids and electrophiles has been well demonstrated in the previous section 2. However, one should keep this in mind when considering the allyltin reaction and its synthetic applications. This role of Lewis acids is characteristic for the reaction with tin compounds due to their larger $\sigma-\pi$ conjugation compared to that of homologous allylsilanes.

3.1. Transmetalation Reaction

In general, "transmetalation" means metal-metal exchange reaction, and the term can be used for the reaction between an allylic tin and a Lewis acid (or a metal salt) as shown by the following equation:

$$R_{3}Sn + MX_{n} - R_{3}SnX + MX_{n-1}$$
 (9)

It has also been called a "redistribution reaction" or "metathesis". It was known as early as 1970 for the reaction between tetraallyltin and tin (IV) halides, which gives various allyltin halides according to the stoichiometry of the two reactants.¹⁹¹ In 1971, in the study of the reaction of trialkylcinnamyltin and BBr₃, selective cinnamyl transfer from the tin to the boron atom was reported, presumably proceeding through a four or six-membered cyclic transition state.¹⁹²

$$n \left(\begin{array}{c} & & \\ & & \\ & & \\ & & \\ & & \\ \end{array} \right) \stackrel{SnX_4}{\longrightarrow} 4 \left(\begin{array}{c} & & \\ & & \\ & & \\ & & \\ \end{array} \right) \stackrel{SnX_{4-n}}{\longrightarrow} (10)$$

$$Ph \underbrace{SnR_3}_{+} + BBr_3 \xrightarrow{} Ph \underbrace{BBr_2}_{+} + R_3SnBr (11)$$

In spite of these early findings, no attention was initially paid to the possibility of transmetalation in the allyltin-Lewis acid reaction system. Reports concerning the transmetalation reaction between allylic tins and Lewis acids appeared in 1984 on the reaction of crotyltin and SnCl₄, TiCl₄^{34,85} and in 1986 on the reaction of pentadienyltin and SnCl₄.¹⁹³ In both cases, the resultant allylic metals were examined as new reagents showing modified reactivity compared with the parent allylic trialkyltin reagents.

SnBu ₃	+	SnCl ₄		SnCl ₃	+	Bu ₃ SnCl	(12)
SnBu ₃	+	TiCl ₄			+	Bu ₃ SnCI	(13)
SnMe ₃	+	SnCl ₄	_	SnCl ₃	+	Me ₃ SnCl	(14)

After these reports, several applications appeared utilizing the transmetalation of allylic tins with Lewis acids, especially TiCl₄.^{33,44,142,194} In these cases, the actual reacting species was not the parent allylic tin reagent but allylic trichlorotitanium, which had not previously been identified spectroscopically. Taking advantage of the strong *E*-preference of the transmetalated crotylitanium³⁴ and strong coordinativity of the TiCl₃ moiety to polar groups, the transition state of the reaction toward aldehydes was altered to cyclic from acyclic, affording products in *anti-(threo-)*selectivity (Scheme 41).^{33,34,44,194} Optically active allylin was also employed in this reaction.¹⁹⁵ In the corresponding intramolecular reaction, the formation of an (*E*)-titanium reagent also contributed to the high stereoselectivity, compared with the reaction by non-transmetalating





EtAlCl₂.¹⁰³ An allylic tin possessing a coordinating functionality exhibited no selectivity via transmetalation.⁴³ When there is stereoisomerism around the resultant double bond, the product has *E*-geometry generated via a six-membered cyclic transition state (cf. section 2.1).^{33,194}

Unless the initial transmetalation was independently carried out by inverse addition, transmetalation appeared to proceed as a side reaction in some cases due to high reactivity even at low temperatures. In particular, the asymmetric induction from a chiral aldehyde was found to show poorer Cram selectivity by the use of TiCl₄ than by the use of non-transmetalating BF₃·OEt₂ or AlCl₃.^{27,85,196} It was concluded that this involved the formation of allylic titanium *in situ* from TiCl₄, followed by reaction with the carbonyl compound *via* a cyclic transition state (Fig. 10, *cf.* Section 2.1). In the reaction with imines, slow formation of a TiCl₄imine complex, especially at low temperature, led to caused preferential transmetalation with resulting reaction of allylitanium.¹⁴² Higher asymmetric induction from chiral imines was realized than that in the reaction by simple Lewis acid activation of the imines. This contrast in selectivity between aldehydes and imines was probably due to a difference between the conformations of the six-membered cyclic transition complexes.¹⁴²



Transmetalation reactions of SnCl₄ have been well characterized by means of ¹H, ¹³C, and ¹¹⁹Sn NMR spectroscopy, in contrast with those with TiCl₄.^{22-24,197} Only free SnCl₄ (not complexed with aldehydes) underwent transmetalation²⁴ and it was shown how the subsequent addition reaction to aldehydes proceeded.²²⁻²⁴ In addition the features of the transmetalations of crotyltin (initial formation of trichloro(1-methylallyl)tin and consecutive isomerization to the corresponding (Z)- and (E)-crotyltins; Scheme 42) and



pentadienyltin (isomeric distribution and fluxionality of (Z)-trichloropentadienyltin) were reported.¹⁹⁷ For important roles of SnCl₄-transmetalation, one can show strong coordination of the SnCl₃ moiety, which in one case resulted in high stereoselectivity,⁸⁵ as well as the electron-withdrawing effect of the SnCl₃ moiety.¹⁹⁸ This decreased the electron density of the diene moiety of pentadienyltin, which resulted in suppression of



undesirable Diels-Alder reaction (Scheme 43).^{127,193} Tagliavini and co-workers¹⁹⁹ also suggested that allyltrialkyltin and SnX₄ (X = Cl, Br) formed allyltrihalotins, which then reacted with two equivalents of aldehydes to give tetrahydropyran derivatives (Scheme 44). They also commented that the lower Lewis acidity



 $(SnCl_4 > SnBr_4 > BuSnCl_3)$ increased the proportion of the transmetalated (Z)-crotyltin and the more stereoselective formation of the tetrahydropyran in the further reaction with the aldehyde.²⁰⁰ A couple of reactions involving SnCl₄-transmetalation were also presented.^{158,186}

BuSnCl₃ and Bu₂SnCl₂ also undergo similar but much slower transmetalation reactions than SnCl₄ with allylic tins. They were considered as redistributing reagents rather than Lewis acids. Allyl-¹⁹⁸ and crotyltins^{201,202} with BuSnCl₃ afforded the corresponding allylic butyldichlorotins, which then added to one equivalent of aldehyde giving the corresponding homoallyl alcohols. A four-membered cyclic transition state was suggested²⁰¹ for the formation of the α -adducts. When one more equivalent of aldehyde was present in the reaction system then the tetrahydropyran formed, as above.²⁰⁰⁻²⁰²

The reaction between Bu₂SnCl₂ and crotyltin has been extensively investigated.²⁰³ It seems that the transmetalation reaction proceeds substantially *via* the same path as that of SnCl₄ in the following three stages: (i) initial formation of dibutylchloro(1-methylallyl)tin through reaction at the terminal γ -position of the crotyltin, (ii) subsequent and preferential isomerization to the corresponding (Z)-crotyltin, and (iii) gradual isomerization to the thermodynamically more stable *E*-isomer. These three transmetalated allylic dibutylchlorotins react with an aldehyde to give (Z)-linear, *syn*-branched, and *anti*-branched homoallyl alcohols via cyclic transition states (Scheme 45).^{46,59} Recently, it was reported that this transmetalation by Bu₂SnCl₂ was accelerated by the addition of Cl⁻, l⁻ or hexamethylphosphoramide (HMPA) as a ligand²⁰⁴⁻²⁰⁶ Coordination of the fifth ligand increased both the Lewis acidity of the ligated tin atom²⁰⁷ and the polarity of the Sn-Cl bond. Thus the electrophilic attack of the tin atom and the nucleophilic attack of the chloride of Bu₂SnCl₂ to the allylic tin were enhanced to complete the transmetalation reaction (Scheme 46).²⁰⁴ The resultant allyltin used for reaction with acid chlorides,²⁰⁴ α -haloketones,²⁰⁵ and aldehydes²⁰⁶ where Bu₂SnCl₂·L worked as a catalyst for the transmetalation rather than as a Lewis acid for the activation of the substrates. Transmetallation of allyltins by Bu₂SnCl₂ has also been reported.^{207a}



Though BF₃·OEt₂ does not undergo a transmetalation reaction with allylic tins (*cf.* 3.2), BCl₃^{186,208} and BBr₃²⁰⁹ do. It was only recently that the reaction was applied synthetically to sophisticated systems although this reaction has been recognized for a long time.¹⁹² Optically active boron bromides were employed in the transmetalation reaction with allenyl, propargyl,²¹⁰ and allyltins.²¹¹ This gave the corresponding optically active organoboranes which could be utilized for efficient asymmetric synthesis (Scheme 47). Here again, the transmetalation reaction was accompanied by allylic rearrangement;²¹² allenyltin gave the propargylborane and propargyltin gave the allenylborane. Other examples of the transmetalation by boron chloride were reported.²¹⁰ Reactions with aldehydes were compared between BF₃-OEt₂ and BCl₃.²⁰⁸

Scheme 47.



Reactions via transmetalation with other Lewis acidic metal halides have been reported. In the AlCl₃-*i*-PrOH mediated allylstannation reaction of aldehydes, formation of an allylaluminium was suggested.²¹³ In FeBr₃-mediated autoxidation of cinnamyl- and 1-phenylallyltins,²¹⁴ transmetalation to cinnamyl- and 1-phenylallylirons via the allyl rearrangement was indicated from the regioselectivity of the oxidation with molecular oxygen (Scheme 48). Transmetalations between benzyltin and HgCl₂²¹⁵ and between cyclopentadienyltin and ZrCl₄·(SMe₂)₂ and HfCl₄·(SMe₂)₂²¹⁶ were also reported but not applied to synthetic reactions.



Formal SnCl₄-mediated *electrophilic* reaction of allylic tins is known.^{217,218} The allylic tin was initially transmetalated to the corresponding allylic trichlorotin which then provided an allylic cation equivalent. (Scheme 49a). Similarly, oxidizing metal compounds such as TiCl₄,²¹⁷ Cu(II) salts,^{217,219,220} and Tl(III) salts²²¹⁻²²³ also afforded cationic species with allylic tins. The possibility was indicated that Tl(III) salts, soft Lewis acids, oxidized the allylic tin *via* π -coordination and a SET path then formed an allylic thallium(III) compound (Scheme 49b). These unpolung reactions provide novel transmetalation reactions.

Scheme 49.



When the transmetalation reactions are undesirable side reactions, the overall process can become complicated. An effort to suppress such reactions was made in some cases ((*i*-PrO)₃TiCl, MeSiCl₃ as a Lewis

acid).^{127,135,224} By controlling the transmetalation reaction, allylic tins can be excellent precursors of various allylic metal reagents possessing characteristic reactivities.

3.2. Isomerization of Allylic Tin Compounds

There is another case of interaction between Lewis acids and allylic tins, where isomerization of allylic tins proceeds without transmetalation. It has been shown that non-transmetalating Lewis acids, typically BF₃·OEt₂ and AlCl₃, promote 1,3-tin migration^{22,58,197,209} and Z/E isomerization of crotyl-type tin compounds (eq. 15).^{34,112} This explains the partial formation of the linear α -adduct in the reaction between an aldehyde and crotyltin;^{34,94} a small amount of the isomerized 1-methylallyltin can react at its γ -position (eq. 16). Thus, it is unnecessary to consider *in situ* formation of new reagents. 1-Alkoxyallyltins also underwent complete 1,3-tin migration with BF₃·OEt₂ giving (Z)-3-alkoxyallyltins preferentially.^{39,225} This migration path was investigated in some detail by the use of optically active 1-alkoxyallyltins.^{64,226,227} Analysis of the absolute configuration of the isomerized 3-alkoxyallyltins, crossover experiments and kinetic data led to the conclusion that the isomerization proceeded by the intermolecular *anti*-S_E' pathway. This was initiated by the coordination of a fluorine atom of BF₃ to the tin atom (Scheme 50).²²⁶ Silyl triflates also promoted the isomerization.²²⁷ These optically active allylic tins, both parent and isomerized, are of course important for asymmetric synthesis.²²⁸



Tin migration is also known in the reaction of pentadienyltins in the presence of alkaline earth perchlorates in acetonitrile (eq. 17).¹²⁹ In this case, the migration was [1,5] and intermolecular stannyl group transfer was suggested. Allylic tins were also isomerized similarly (eq. 18). The metal ion was considered as a π -coordinating Lewis acid because the isomerization was inhibited in the coordinative solvents ethanol and THF. The isomerized pentadienyltins were trapped by 1,4-naphthoquinone as Diels-Alder adducts.



It should be noted that similar isomerization has been brought about in the presence of Me₃SnCl²²⁹ and in

polar solvents (alcohol, pyridine, dimethyl sulfoxide).²²⁹⁻²³³ It was reported that 1-methylallyltin preferentially isomerized to (Z)-crotyltin.²²⁹ This common feature can be understood in terms of the enhanced polarity of the C-Sn bond (Scheme 51).



3.3. Other Interactions between Lewis Acids and Allylic Tins

Coordination of a Lewis acid to the substituent on an allylic tin is another type of interaction between Lewis acids and allylic tins. Both (*E*)- and (*Z*)-4-alkoxy allylic tins as well as the regioisomeric 1alkoxymethylallyltins were allowed to react with aldehydes in the presence of SnCl₄ to afford (*Z*)-alkoxy homoallyl alcohols (Scheme 52).²³⁴⁻²³⁶ When chiral reagents were employed high levels of asymmetric induction were realized.²³⁶ The use of BF₃·OEt₂ or MgBr₂·OEt₂ was reported to cause γ -addition of 4alkoxyallyltin.²³⁷ This unusual selectivity was attributed to bidentate SnCl₄ coordination with both the aldehyde and the ethereal oxygen of the reagent²³⁴ and transmetalation resulting in the formation of allylrearranged (1-alkoxy-alkylallyl)trichlorotin, which should react *via* a six-membered transition state.²³⁶



It was reported that allylic tins possessing an optically active amide moiety produced rather high asymmetric induction from the tin reagents.²³⁸ TiCl₄ gave the best result because concomitant coordination of TiCl₄ to the both carbonyl groups of the aldehyde and the amide moiety could control the enantioselectivity (Scheme 53). In comparison, the use of an allyltin ligated by optically active hydrocarbons in a BF₃·OEt₂-



mediated reaction led to a moderate degree of asymmetric induction.^{239,240} SnCl₄ and TiCl₄ promoted complex side reactions. π -Stacking between the phenyl ring on the ligand and the allyl moiety accounted for the enantioselectivity (Scheme 54).²⁴⁰

There is an example of regiocontrol where Lewis acid-coordination to an ethereal oxygen atom on pentadienyltin shifted reaction from the ε -position to the γ -position.²⁴¹ Coordinated Lewis acid seems to play a role in bringing the both reaction centers closer.



Another interesting case of activation of allylic tins is that of allylic butyltin halides by protic acids in aqueous media.^{242,243} Tin reagents were activated as allylic butyltin cations formed by Cl⁻ dissociation in the solution (Scheme 55) and the electrophilicity of the tin atom influenced the reaction course. The more positive the tin center was, the more preferentially formed was the α -adduct.^{201,243} Protons can also activate aldehydes by protonation of their carbonyl oxygen.

Scheme 55.



It has been reported that $CoCl_2^{244}$ promotes α -selective allylation of aldehydes with crotyltin.²⁴⁵ Similarly, the photochemical reaction of benzil (eq. 21) has been observed .²⁴⁶ Considering the mild Lewis acidity of CoCl₂, interaction with allylic tins is more probable than with carbonyl compounds.

$$RCHO + \sum_{\alpha} SnBu_{3} \xrightarrow{CoCl_{2}} OH \qquad (20)$$

$$Ph \xrightarrow{Q} Ph + \sum_{\alpha} SnBu_{3} \xrightarrow{CoCl_{2}} Ph \xrightarrow{Q} OH \qquad (21)$$

4. CONCLUSIONS

We have reviewed the developing reaction system of allylic tins mainly from the viewpoint of the roles of Lewis acids. The characters of applied Lewis acids, such as coordinating strength, number of acceptor sites, charge, hardness and softness, steric bulk, transmetalating ability, electron-deficiency, reactivity of the ligands, etc. all influence the roles which they play. On the basis of newly acquired knowledge in the fields of both organic and inorganic chemistry, we can begun to understand the reactions of allylic tin-Lewis acidsubstrate systems, to appreciate the remarkable influence of solvents or reaction media, and to anticipate new discoveries and wide applications of these systems

Acknowledgement-I thank Professor W. D. Ollis for inviting me to write this Report and also for his linguistic advice.

REFERENCES

- (a) Kumar Das, V. G.; Chu, C.-K. The Chemistry of the Metal Carbon Bond, Vol. 3; Hartley, F. R.; Patai, S., Eds.; Wiley: New York, 1985; pp. 1-97. (b) Tagliavini, G. Rev. Si Ge Sn Pb Comp. 1985, 8, 237-262. (c) Pereyre, M.; Quintard, J.-P.; Rahm, A. Tin in Organic Synthesis; Butterworth: London, 1987. (d) Yamamoto, Y. Aldrichim. Acta 1987, 20, 45-49. (e) Wardell, J. L. Chemistry of Tin; Harrison, P. G., Ed.; Blackie: Glasgow, 1989; pp. 315-358. (f) Omae, I. Organotin Chemistry; Elsevier: Amsterdam, 1989. (g) Yamamoto, Y., Ed. Tetrahedron (Symposia-in-Print, No. 36, Organotin Compounds in Organic Synthesis) 1989, 45, 909-1230.
- (a) Pereyre, M.; Quintard, J.-P. Pure Appl. Chem. 1981, 53, 2401-2417. (b) Hoffmann, R. W. Angew. Chem. Int. Ed. Engl. 1982, 21, 555-566. (c) Yamamoto, Y. Acc. Chem. Res. 1987, 20, 243-249.
- 3. Yamamoto, Y. Si Ge Sn Pb Comp. 1986, 9, 279-304.
- 4. Stille, J. K. Angew. Chem. Int. Ed. Engl. 1986, 25, 508-524. Mitchell, T. N. J. Organomet. Chem. 1986, 304, 1-16.
- 5. Giese, B. Angew. Chem. Int. Ed. Engl. 1985, 24, 553-565. Giese, B. Radicals in Organic Synthesis: Formation of Carbon-Carbon Bonds; Pergamon Press: Oxford, 1986; pp. 98-102.
- (a) Fox, M. A.; Chanon, M., Eds. Photoinduced Electron Transfer, Part C; Elsevier: Amsterdam, 1988. Also see, (b) Takuwa, A.; Nishigaichi, Y.; Yamaoka, T.; Iihama, K. J. Chem. Soc., Chem. Commun. 1991, 1359-1360.
- 7. Maruyama, K.; Naruta, Y. J. Org. Chem. 1978, 43, 3796-3798.
- 8. Maruyama, K.; Naruta, Y. Chem. Lett. 1978, 431-432.
- 9. Naruta, Y.; Ushida, S.; Maruyama, K. Chem. Lett. 1979, 919-922.
- 10. Hosomi, A.; Iguchi, H.; Endo, M.; Sakurai, H. Chem. Lett. 1979, 977-980.
- König, B.; Neumann, W. P. Tetrahedron Lett. 1967, 495-498. Servens, C.; Pereyre, M. J. Organomet. Chem. 1971, 26, C4-C6. Abel, E. W.; Rowley, R. J. J. Organomet. Chem. 1975, 84, 199-229. Daude, G.; Pereyre, M. J. Organomet. Chem. 1980, 190, 43-52.
- 12. Schinzer, D., ed. Selectivities in Lewis Acid Promoted Reactions; Kluwer Academic Publishers: Dordrecht, 1989.
- 13. Takuwa, A.; Nishigaichi, Y.; Yamashita, K.; Iwamoto, H. Chem. Lett. 1990, 1761-1764.
- 14. Trost, B. M.; Herndon, J. W. J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1984, 106, 6835-6837.
- 15. Baldwin, J. E.; Adlington, R. M.; Sweeney, J. B. Tetrahedron Lett. 1986, 27, 5423-5424.
- 16. Mitchell, T. N.; Kweikat, K.; Rutschow, D.; Schneider, U. Tetrahedron 1989, 45, 969-978. Mitchell, T. N.; Schneider, U.; Heesche-Wagner, K. J. Organomet. Chem. 1991, 411, 107-120. Many other related refs. appear in the text.
- 17. Ueno, Y.; Aoki, S.; Okawa, M. J. Chem. Soc., Chem. Commun. 1980, 683-684.
- 18. Shambayati, S.; Crowe, W. E.; Schreiber, S. L. Angew. Chem. Int. Ed. Engl. 1990, 29, 256-272.
- Reetz, M. T.; Hüllmann, M.; Massa, W.; Berger, S.; Rademacher, P.; Heymanns, P. J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1986, 108, 2405-2408.
- 19b. Gung, B. W.; Wolf, M. A. Inorg. Chem. 1992, 57, 1370-1375; Gung, B. W. Tetrahedron Lett. 1991, 32, 2867-2870.
- 19c. Branchadell, V.; Oliva, A. J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1992, 114, 4357-4364; idem, ibid, 1991, 113, 4132-4236; Lepage, T. J.; Wiberg, K. B. ibid. 1988, 110, 6642-6650.
- 20. Reetz, M. T. in Ref. 8; pp. 107-125.
- 21. Denmark, S. E.; Henke, B. R.; Weber, E. J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1987, 109, 2512-2524.
- 22. Denmark, S. E.; Wilson, T.; Willson, T. M. J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1988, 110, 984-986.
- 23. Denmark, S. E.; Weber, E. J.; Willson, T.; Willson, T. M. Tetrahedron 1989, 45, 1053-1065.
- 24. Keck, G. E.; Andrus, M. B.; Castellino, S. J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1989, 111, 8136-8141.
- 25. Yamamoto, Y.; Maruyama, K. Heterocycles 1982, 18, 357-386.
- 26. Yamamoto, Y.; Yatagai, H.; Naruta, Y.; Maruyama, K. J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1980, 102, 7107-7109.
- 27. Yamamoto, Y.; Yatagai, H.; Ishihara, Y.; Maeda, N.; Maruyama, K. Tetrahedron 1984, 40, 2239-2246.
- (a) Wickham, G.; Kitching, W. J. Org. Chem. 1983, 48, 612-624. (b) Hayashi, T.; Konishi, M.; Ito, H.; Kumada, M. J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1982, 104, 4962-4963; Hayashi, T.; Konishi, M.; Kumada, M. ibid 1982, 104, 4963-4965.
- 29. Yatagai, H.; Yamamoto, Y.; Maruyama, K. J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1980, 102, 4548-4550.
- 30. Yamamoto, Y.; Komatsu, T.; Maruyama, K. J. Chem. Soc., Chem. Commun. 1983, 191-192. Yamamoto, Y.;
- Maruyama, K.; Komatsu, T.; Ito, W. J. Org. Chem. 1986, 51, 886-891.
- 31. Servens, C.; Pereyre, M. J. Organomet. Chem. 1972, 35, C20-C22.
- 32. Yamamoto, Y.; Maruyama, K.; Matsumoto, K. J. Chem. Soc., Chem. Commun. 1983, 489-490.
- 33. Hull, C.; Mortlock, S. V.; Thomas, E. J. Tetrahedron Lett. 1987, 28, 5343-5346; Tetrahedron 1989, 45, 1007-1015.
- 34. Keck, G. E.; Abbott, D. E.; Borden, E. P.; Enholm, E. J. Tetrahedron Lett. 1984, 25, 3927-3930.
- 35. Matsubara, S.; Wakamatsu, K.; Morizawa, Y.; Tsuboniwa, N.; Oshima, K.; Nozaki, H. Bull. Chem. Soc. Jpn. 1985, 58, 1196-1199.
- 36. Koreeda, M.; Tanaka, Y. Chem. Lett. 1982, 1299-1302.
- 37. Marshall, J. A.; Gung, W. Y. Tetrahedron 1989, 45, 1043-1052.
- 38. Gung, B. W.; Smith, D. T.; Wolf, M. A. Tetrahedron Lett. 1991, 32, 13-16.
- Quintard, J.-P.; Elissondo, B.; Pereyre, M. J. Org. Chem. 1983, 48, 1559-1560. Dumartin, G.; Pereyre, M.; Quintard, J.-P. Tetrahedron Lett. 1987, 28, 3935-3938. Quintard, J.-P.; Dumartin, G.; Elissondo, B.; Rahm, A.; Pereyre, M. Tetrahedron 1989, 45, 1017-1028.
- 40. Yamamoto, Y.; Saito, Y.; Maruyama, K. J. Organomet. Chem. 1985, 292, 311-318.

- 41. Koreeda, M.; Tanaka, Y. Tetrahedron Lett. 1987, 28, 143-146.
- 42. Hosomi, A.; Kohra, S.; Tominaga, Y.; Ando, M.; Sakurai, H. Chem. Pharm. Bull. 1987, 35, 3058-3061.
- 43. Yamamoto, Y.; Hatsuya, S.; Yamada, J. J. Chem. Soc., Chem. Commun. 1987, 561-562; J. Org. Chem. 1990, 55, 3118-3128.
- 44. Marshall, J. A.; DeHoff, B. S. J. Org. Chem. 1986, 51, 863-872.
- 45. Koreeda, M.; Tanaka, Y. Chem. Lett. 1982, 1297-1298.
- 46. Craven, A.; Tapolczay, D. J.; Thomas, E. J.; Whitehead, J. W. F. J. Chem. Soc., Chem. Commun. 1985, 145-147.
- 46a. Paquette, L. A.; Doherty, A. M.; Rayner, C. M. J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1992, 114, 3910-3926.
- 47. Yamataka, H.; Nishikawa, K.; Hanafusa, T. Chem. Lett. 1990, 1711-1714.
- 48. Coxon, J. M.; van Eyk, S. J.; Steel, P. J. Tetrahedron 1989, 45, 1029-1041.
- 49. Boaretto, A.; Marton, D.; Tagliavini, G.; Ganis, P. J. Organomet. Chem. 1987, 321, 199-207.
- 50. Hayashi, T.; Kabeta, K.; Hamachi, I.; Kumada, M. Tetrahedron Lett. 1983, 24, 2865-2868.
- 51. Denmark, S. E.; Weber, E. J. Helv. Chim. Acta 1983, 66, 1655-1660.
- 52. Denmark, S. E.; Weber, E. J. J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1984, 106, 7970-7971.
- Marshall, J. A.; DeHoff, B. S.; Crooks, S. L. Tetrahedron Lett. 1987, 28, 527-530. Marshall, J. A.; Crooks, S. L.; DeHoff, B. S. J. Org. Chem. 1988, 53, 1616-1623.
- 54. Marshall, J. A.; Gung, W. Y. Tetrahedron Lett. 1988, 29, 1657-1660; 3899-3902.
- 55. Marshall, J. A.; Markwalder, J. A. Tetrahedron Lett. 1988, 29, 4811-4814.
- 56. Marshall, J. A.; Wang, X. J. Org. Chem. 1991, 56, 6264-6266.
- 57. Nakatsuka, M.; Ragan, J. A.; Tammakia, T.; Smith, D. B.; Uehling, D. E.; Schreiber, S. L. J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1990, 112, 5583-5601.
- 58. Jephcote, V. J.; Thomas, E. J. Tetrahedron Lett. 1985, 26, 5327-5330; J. Chem. Soc., Parkin Trans. 1 1991, 429-434.
- Gambaro, A.; Ganis, P.; Marton, D.; Peruzzo, V.; Tagliavini, G. J. Organomet. Chem. 1982, 231, 307-314. Boaretto, A.; Marton, D.; Tagliavini, G.; Gambaro, A. Inorg. Chim. Acta 1983, 77, L196-L197.
- 59a. Hoffman, R. W. Chem. Rev. 1989, 89, 1841-1860.
- VanZyl, C. M.; McKeeby, J. L.; VanDort, P. C.; Larson, E. J.; Silver, M. E.; Huffman, J. C. Inorg. Chim. Acta 1987, 133, 289-294.
- 61. Yamamoto, Y.; Nishii, S.; Maruyama, K. J. Chem. Soc., Chem. Commun. 1986, 102-103.
- 62. Heathcock, C. H.; Flippin, L. A. J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1983, 105, 1667-1668.
- 63. Gung, B. W.; Peat, A. J.; Snook, B. M.; Smith, D. T. Tetrahedron Lett. 1991, 32, 453-456.
- 64. Marshall, J. A.; Gung, W. Y. Tetrahedron Lett. 1989, 30, 2183-2186.
- Houk, K. N.; Moses, S. R.; Wu, Y.-D.; Rondan, N. G.; Jäger, V.; Schohe, R.; Fronczek, F. R. J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1984, 106, 3880-3882.
- 66. Marshall, J. A.; Wang, X. J. Org. Chem. 1990, 55, 6246-6248.
- 67. Marshall, J. A.; Wang, X. J. Org. Chem. 1992, 57, 1242-1252.
- 68. Naruta, Y.; Nagai, N.; Arita, Y.; Maruyama, K. Chem. Lett. 1983, 1683-1686.
- 69. Boeckman, R. K., Jr.; Demko, D. M. J. Org. Chem. 1982, 47, 1789-1792.
- 70. Marshall, J. A.; Wang, X. J. Org. Chem. 1991, 56, 3211-3213.
- 71. Hayashi, T.; Matsumoto, Y.; Ito, Y. Chem. Lett. 1987, 2037-2040.
- 72. Keck, G. E.; Boden, E. P. Tetrahedron Lett. 1984, 25, 265-268.
- 73. Schlessinger, R. H.; Graves, D. D. Tetrahedron Lett. 1987, 28, 4381-4384.
- 74. Keck, G. E.; Andrus, M. B.; Romer, D. R. J. Org. Chem. 1991, 56, 417-420.
- 75. Trost, B. M.; Bonk, P. J. J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1985, 107, 1778-1781.
- Sviridov, A. F.; Ermolenko, M. S.; Yashunsky, D. V.; Borodkin, V. S.; Kochetkov, N. K. Tetrahedron Lett. 1987, 28, 3839-3842.
- 77. Cirillo, P. F.; Panek, J. S. J. Org. Chem. 1990, 55, 6071-6073.
- 78. Henry, K. J., Jr.; Grieco, P. A.; Jagoe, C. T. Tetrahedron Lett. 1992, 33, 1817-1820.
- 79. Hamana, H.; Ikota, N.; Ganem, B. J. Org. Chem. 1987, 52, 5492-5494.
- 80. Vara Prasad, J. V. N.; Rich, D. H. Tetrahedron Lett. 1990, 31, 1803-1806.
- 81. Keck, G. E.; Boden, E. P. Tetrahedron Lett. 1984, 25, 1879-1882.
- 82. Mikami, K.; Kawamoto, K.; Loh, T.-P.; Nakai, T. J. Chem. Soc., Chem. Commun. 1990, 1161-1163.
- 83. Marshall, J. A.; Luke, G. P. J. Org. Chem. 1991, 56, 483-485.
- 84. Keck, G. E.; Abott, D. E.; Wiley, M. R. Tetrahedron Lett. 1987, 28, 139-142.
- 85. Keck, G. E.; Abott, D. E. Tetrahedron Lett. 1984, 25, 1883-1886.
- 86. Boeckman, R. K., Jr.; Charette, A. B.; Asberom, T.; Johnston, B. H. J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1987, 109, 7553-7555.
- 87. Keck, G. E.; Castellino, S.; Wiley, M. R. J. Org. Chem. 1986, 51, 5478-5480.
- 88. Keck, G. E.; Murry, J. A. J. Org. Chem. 1991, 56, 6606-6611.
- 89. Keck, G. E.; Boden, E. P.; Wiley, M. R. J. Org. Chem. 1989, 54, 896-906.
- Jones, A. B.; Yamaguchi, M.; Patten, A.; Danishefsky, S. J.; Ragan, J. A.; Smith, D. B.; Schreiber, S. L. J. Org. Chem. 1989, 54, 17-19.
- 91. Nakatsuka, M.; Schreiber, S. L. J. Synth. Org. Chem., Jpn. 1991, 49, 748-761.
- 92. Overly, K. R.; Williams, J. M.; McGarvey, G. J. Tetrahedron Lett. 1990, 31, 4573-4576.

- 93. Maruyama, K.; Ishihara, Y.; Yamamoto, Y. Tetrahedron Lett. 1981, 22, 4235-4238.
- 94. Yamamoto, Y.; Nemoto, H.; Kikuchi, R.; Komatsu, H.; Suzuki, I. J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1990, 112, 8598-8599.
- 95. Soai, K.; Ishizaki, M. J. Org. Chem. 1986, 51, 3290-3295.
- 96. Keck, G. E.; Castellino, S. J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1986, 108, 3847-3849.
- 97. Keck, G. E.; Castellino, S. Tetrahedron Lett. 1987, 28, 281-284.
- 98. Keck, G. E.; Castellino, S.; Andrus, M. B. in Ref. 8; pp. 73-105.
- 99. Mobilio, D.; De Lange, B. Tetrahedron Lett. 1987, 28, 1483-1486.
- 100. Yamamoto, Y.; Nishii, S. J. Org. Chem. 1988, 53, 3597-3603.
- 101. Kim, S.; Lee, J. M. Synth. Commun. 1991, 21, 25-29.
- Haruta, J.; Nishi, K.; Matsuda, S.; Tamura, Y.; Kita, Y. J. Chem. Soc., Chem. Commun. 1989, 1065-1066; Haruta, J.; Nishi, K.; Matsuda, S.; Akai, S.; Tamura, Y.; Kita, Y. J. Org. Chem. 1990, 55, 4853-4859.
- 103. Nickisch, K.; Laurent, H. Tetrahedron Lett. 1988, 29, 1533-1536.
- 104. Schinzer, D.; Allagiannis, C.; Wichmann, S. Tetrahedron 1988, 44, 3851-3868.
- 105. Yamamoto, Y.; Nishii, S.; Ibuka, T. J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1988, 110, 617-618.
- 106. Yamamoto, Y.; Nishii, S.; Ibuka, T. J. Chem. Soc., Chem. Commun. 1987, 1572-1573.
- Uno, H.; Goto, K.; Watanabe, N.; Suzuki, H. J. Chem. Soc., Parkin Trans. 1 1989, 289-295; Uno, H.; Watanabe, N.; Fuziki, S.; Suzuki, H. Synthesis 1987, 471.
- 108. Ohkata, K.; Ishimaru, K.; Lee, Y.; Akiba, K. Chem. Lett. 1990, 1725-1728.
- 109. Ohkata, K.; Lee, Y.; Utsumi, Y.; Ishimaru, K.; Akiba, K. J. Org. Chem. 1991, 56, 5052-5059.
- 110. Herndon, J. W. J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1987, 109, 3165-3166.
- 111. Herndon, J. W.; Wu, C. Tetrahedron Lett. 1989, 30, 5745-5746.
- 112. Herndon, J. W.; Wu, C. Tetrahedron Lett. 1989, 30, 6461-6464.
- 113. Herndon, J. W.; Wu, C.; Harp, J. J. Organometallics 1990, 9, 3157-3171.
- 114. Herndon, J. W.; Wu, C.; Harp, J. J.; Kreutzer, K. A. Synlett 1991, 1-10.
- 115. Nishigaichi, Y.; Takuwa, A. Chem. Lett. 1990, 1575-1578.
- 116. Naruta, Y. J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1980, 102, 3774-3783.
- 117. Takuwa, A.; Soga, O.; Mishima, T.; Maruyama, K. J. Org. Chem. 1987, 52, 1261-1265.
- 118. Miller, B. Acc. Chem. Res. 1975, 8, 245-256.
- 119. Naruta, Y.; Maruyama, K. Chem. Lett. 1979, 885-888.
- 120. Naruta, Y.; Maruyama, K. Chem. Lett. 1979, 881-884.
- 121. Naruta, Y. J. Org. Chem. 1980, 45, 4097-4104.
- 122. Maruyama, K.; Takuwa, A.; Naruta, Y.; Satao, K.; Soga, O. Chem. Lett. 1981, 47-50.
- 123. Takuwa, A.; Naruta, Y.; Soga, O.; Maruyama, K. J. Org. Chem. 1984, 49, 1857-1864.
- 124. Naruta, Y.; Uno, H.; Maruyama, K. Tetrahedron Lett. 1981, 22, 5221-5224.
- 125. Uno, H. J. Org. Chem. 1986, 51, 350-358.
- 126. Naruta, Y.; Kashiwagi, M.; Nishigaichi, Y.; Uno, H.; Maruyama, K. Chem. Lett. 1983, 1687-1690.
- 127. Naruta, Y.; Nishigaichi, Y.; Maruyama, K. J. Org. Chem. 1988, 53, 1192-1199.
- 128. Naruta, Y.; Arita, Y.; Nagai, N.; Uno, H.; Maruyama, K. Chem. Lett. 1982, 1859-1862.
- 129. Nishigaichi, Y.; Takuwa, A.; Iihama, K.; Yoshida, N. Chem. Lett. 1991, 693-696.
- 130. Maruyama, K.; Matano, Y. Bull. Chem. Soc. Jpn. 1989, 62, 3877-3885.
- 131. Mori, K.; Sakakibara, M.; Waku, M. Tetrahedron Lett. 1984, 25, 1085-1086; Mori, K.; Waku, M.; Sakakibara, M. Tetrahedron 1985, 41, 2825-2830.
- 132. Naruta, Y.; Uno, H.; Maruyama, K. J. Chem. Soc., Chem. Commun. 1981, 1277-1278.
- 133. Naruta, Y.; Nishigaichi, Y.; Maruyama, K. Tetrahedron Lett. 1989, 30, 3319-3322.
- 134. Naruta, Y.; Nishigaichi, Y.; Maruyama, K. J. Chem.Soc., Chem. Commun. 1989, 1203-1205.
- 135. Naruta, Y.; Nishigaichi, Y.; Maruyama, K. J. Chem. Soc., Parkin Trans. 1 1991, 831-839.
- 136. Naruta, Y.; Uno, H.; Maruyama, K. Nippon Kagaku Kaishi (J. Chem. Soc. Jpn., Chem. Ind. Chem.) 1981, 831-835.
- Naruta, Y.; Nishigaichi, Y.; Maruyama, K. Org. Synth. 1992, 71, 118-124; Naruta, Y.; Maruyama, K. Org. Synth. 1992, 71, 125-132.
- 138. Boger, D. L.; Zarrinmayeh, H. J. Org. Chem. 1990, 55, 1379-1390.
- 139. Keck, G. E.; Enholm, E. J. J. Org. Chem. 1985, 50, 146-147.
- 140. Yamamoto, Y.; Komatsu, T.; Maruyama, K. J. Org. Chem. 1985, 50, 3115-3121.
- 141. Cinfolini, M. C.; Spencer, G. O. J. Org. Chem. 1989, 54, 4739-4741.
- 142. Yamamoto, Y.; Nishii, S.; Maruyama, K.; Komatsu, T.; Ito, W. J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1986, 108, 7778-7786.
- 143. Laschat, S.; Kunz, H. J. Org. Chem. 1991, 56, 5883-5889.
- 144. Yamaguchi, R.; Moriyasu, M.; Kawanisi, M. Tetrahedron Lett. 1986, 27, 211-214.
- 145. Yamaguchi, R.; Moriyasu, M.; Takase, I.; Kawanisi, M.; Kozima, S. Chem. Lett. 1987, 1519-1522.
- 146. Yamaguchi, R.; Otsuji, A.; Utimoto, K. J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1988, 110, 2186-2187.
- 147. Yamaguchi, R.; Moriyasu, M.; Yoshioka, M.; Kawanisi, M. J. Org. Chem. 1988, 53, 3507-3512.
- 148. Yamaguchi, R.; Hamasaki, T.; Utimoto, K.; Kozima, S.; Takaya, H. Chem. Lett. 1990, 2161-2164.
- 149. Grieco, P. A.; Bahsas, A. J. Org. Chem. 1987, 52, 1378-1380.
- 150. Reich, H. J.; Schroeder, M. C.; Reich, I. L. Isr. J. Chem. 1984, 24, 157-161.

- 151. Yamamoto, Y.; Hatsuva, S. Yamada, J. Tetrahedron Lett. 1989, 30, 3445-3448.
- 152 Yamamoto, Y.: Yumoto, M.: Yamada, J. Tetrahedron Lett. 1991, 32, 3079-3082.
- 153 Kurarey Co., Ltd., Jpn., Kokai Tokkyo Koho JP 82 11930 (Chem. Abstr. 1982, 96, 217231t).
- 154. Naruta, Y.: Maruyama, K. Chem. Lett. 1987, 963-966.
- 155. Imai, T.; Nishida, S. J. Org. Chem. 1990, 55, 4849-4852.
- Jones, D. N.; Peel, M. R. J. Chem. Soc., Chem. Commun. 1986, 216-217. 156.
- 157. Molander, G. A.; Andrews, S. W. J. Org. Chem. 1989, 54, 3114-3120.
- 158 Yoshitake, M.; Yamamoto, M.; Kohmoto, S.; Yamada, K. J. Chem. Soc., Parkin Trans. 1 1990, 1226-1228,
- 159. Yoshitake, M.; Yamamoto, M.; Kohmoto, S.; Yamada, K. J. Chem. Soc., Parkin Trans. 1 1991, 2157-2160.
- 160 Yoshitake, M.; Yamamoto, M.; Kohmoto, S.; Yamada, K. J. Chem. Soc., Parkin Trans. 1 1991, 2161-2167.
- 161. Denmark, S. E.; Willson, T. M. J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1989, 111, 3475-3476.
- 162. Denmark, S. E.; Willson, T. M.; Almstead, N. G. J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1989, 111, 9258-9260.
- 163. Denmark, S. E.; Willson, T. M. in Ref. 8; pp. 247-263.
- 164. Denmark, S. E.; Almstead, N. G. J. Org. Chem. 1991, 56, 6458-6467.
- 165. Denmark, S. E.; Almstead, N. G. J. Org. Chem. 1991, 56, 6485-6487.
- 166. Yamamoto, Y.; Nishii, S.; Yamada, J. J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1986, 108, 7116-7117.
- 167. Yamamoto, Y.; Yamada, J. J. Chem. Soc., Chem. Commun. 1987, 1218-1219.
- 168. Denmark, S. E.; Almstead, N. G. J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1991, 113, 8089-8110.
- 169. Takeda, T.; Ohshima, H.; Inoue, M.; Togo, A.; Fujiwara, T. Chem. Lett. 1987, 1345-1348.
- 170. Pasquarello, A.; Poli, G.; Potenza, D.; Scolastico, C. Tetrahedron Asym. 1990, 1, 429-432.
- 171. Bernardi, A.; Poli, G.; Scolastico, C.; Zanda, M. J. Org. Chem. 1991, 56, 6961-6963.
- 172. Yamada, J.; Asano. T.; Kadota, I.; Yamamoto, Y. J. Org. Chem. 1990, 55, 6066-6068.
- 173. Trost, B. M.; Sato, T. J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1985, 107, 719-721.
- 174. Saigo, K.; Hashimoto, Y.; Kihara, N.; Hara, K.; Hasegawa, M. Chem. Lett. 1990, 1097-1100.
- 175. Sato, T.; Okura, S.; Otera, J.; Nozaki, H. Tetrahedron Lett. 1987, 28, 6299-6302.
- 176. Sato, T.; Otera, J.; Nozaki, H. J. Org. Chem. 1990, 55, 6116-6121.
- 177. Tomooka, K.; Matsuzawa, K.; Suzuki, K.; Tsuchihashi, G. Tetrahedron Lett. 1987, 28, 6339-6342.
- 178. Holmes, C. P.; Bartlett, P. A. J. Org. Chem. 1989, 54, 98-108.
- 179. Martel, A.; Daris, J.-P.; Bachand, C.; Menard, M.; Durst, T.; Belleau, B. Can. J. Chem. 1983, 61, 1899-1901.
- 180. Fliri, H.; Mag, C.-P. J. Org. Chem. 1985, 50, 3438-3442.
- 181. Fujimoto, K.; Iwano, Y.; Hirai, K. Tetrahedron Lett. 1985, 26, 89-92; Bull. Chem. Soc. Jpn. 1986, 59, 1363-1369.
- 182. Godschalx, J.; Stille, J. K. Tetrahedron Lett. 1980, 21, 2599-2602.
- 183. Godschalx, J. P.; Stille, J. K. Tetrahedron Lett. 1983, 24, 1905-1908.
- 184. Hosomi, A.; Imai, T.; Endo, M.; Sakurai, H. J. Organomet. Chem. 1985, 285, 95-107.
- 185. Itoh, A.; Saito, T.; Oshima, K.; Nozaki, H. Bull. Chem. Soc. Jpn. 1981, 54, 1456-1459.
- 186. Hagen, G.; Mayr, H. J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1991, 113, 4954-4961.
- 187. Hashimoto, Y.; Sugumi, H.; Okauchi, T.; Mukaiyama, T. Chem. Lett. 1987, 1695-1698.
- 187a. Magnus, P.; Lacour, J. J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1992, 114, 3993-3994.
- 187b. Maruoka, K.; Sato, J.; Yamamoto, H. J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1992, 114, 4422-4423,
- 188. Renaud, P.; Ribezzo, M. J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1991, 113, 7803-7805.
- 189. Kashin, A. N.; Bumagin, N. A.; Kalinovskii, I. O.; Beletskaya, I. P.; Reutov, O. A. Zh. Org. Khim. 1980, 16, 1569-1575 (Chem. Abstr. 1981, 94, 14747b).
- 190. Nativi, C.; Taddei, M. Tetrahedron 1989, 45, 1131-1144.
- 191. Fishwick, M.; Wallbridge, M. G. H. J. Organomet. Chem. 1970, 25, 69-79; 1977, 136, C46-C48.
- 192. Tanigawa, Y.; Moritani, I.; Nishida, S. J. Organomet. Chem. 1971, 28, 73-79.
- 193. Naruta, Y.; Nishigaichi, Y.; Maruyama, K. Chem. Lett. 1986, 1703-1706.
- 194. Yamamoto, Y.; Taniguchi, K.; Maruyama, K. J. Chem. Soc., Chem. Commun. 1985, 1429-1431.
- 195. Krämer, T.; Schwark, J.-R.; Hoppe, D. Tetrahedron Lett. 1989, 30, 7037-7040.
- 196. Yamamoto, Y.; Komatsu, T.; Maruyama, K. J. Organomet. Chem. 1985, 285, 31-42.
- 197. Naruta, Y.; Nishigaichi, Y.; Maruyama, K. Tetrahedron 1989, 45, 1067-1078.
- 198. Gambaro, A.; Peruzzo, V.; Plazzogna, G.; Tagliavini, G. J. Organomet. Chem. 1980, 197, 45-50.
- 199. Boaretto, A.; Marton, D.; Tagliavini, G.; Gambaro, A. Inorg. Chim. Acta 1983, 77, L153-L154.
- 200. Boaretto, A.; Furlani, D.; Marton, D.; Tagliavini, G.; Gambaro, A. J. Organomet. Chem. 1986, 299, 157-167.
- 201. Gambaro, A.; Boaretto, A.; Marton, D.; Tagliavini, G. J. Organomet. Chem. 1983, 254, 293-304.
- 202. Gambaro, A.; Boaretto, A.; Marton, D.; Tagliavini, G. J. Organomet. Chem. 1984, 260, 255-262.
- 203. Gambaro, A.; Marton, D.; Tagliavini, G. J. Organomet. Chem. 1981, 210, 57-62.
- Yano, K.; Baba, A.; Matsuda, H. Chem. Lett. 1991, 1181-1184.
 Yano, K.; Hatta, Y.; Baba, A.; Matsuda, H. Synlett 1991, 555-556.
- 206. Yano, K.; Baba, A.; Matsuda, H. Bull. Chem. Soc. Jpn. 1992, 65, 66-70.
- 207. Sakurai, H. Synlett 1989, 1-8.
- 207a. Boarctto, A.; Marton, D.; Tanglivani, G. J. Organomet. Chem. 1985, 297, 149-153.
- 208. Marton, D.; Tagliavini, G.; Zordan, M.; Wardell, J. L. J. Organomet. Chem. 1990, 390, 127-138.

- 209. Harston, P.; Wardell, J. L.; Marton, D.; Tagliavini, G.; Smith, P. J. Inorg. Chim. Acta 1989, 162, 245-250.
- 210. Knörzer, G.; Seyffer, H.; Pritzkow, H.; Siebert, W. Z. Naturforsch. 1990, 45b, 985-988.
- 211. Corey, E. J.; Kim. S. S. Tetrahedron Lett. 1990, 31, 3715-3718.
- 212. Corey, E. J.; Yu, C.-M.; Lee, D.-H. J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1990, 112, 878-879.
- 213. Yamamoto, Y.; Maeda, N.; Maruyama, K. J. Chem. Soc., Chem. Commun. 1983, 742-743.
- 214. Corey, E. J.; Walker, J. C. J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1987, 109, 8108-8109.
- 215. Abraham, M. H.; Andonian-Haftran, J. J. Chem. Soc., Parkin Trans. 2 1980, 1033-1036.
- 216. Lund, E. C.; Livinghouse, T. Organometallics 1990, 9, 2426-2427.
- 217. Takeda, T.; Ogawa, S.; Koyama, M.; Kato, T.; Fujiwara, T. Chem. Lett. 1989, 1257-1260.
- 218. Yamaguchi, J.; Takagi, Y.; Nakayama, A.; Fujiwara, T.; Takeda, T. Chem. Lett. 1991, 133-136.
- 219. Takeda, T.; Inoue, T.; Fujiwara, T. Chem. Lett. 1988, 985-988.
- 220. Mizuno, K.; Yasueda, M.; Otsuji, Y. Chem. Lett. 1988, 229-232.
- 221. Ochiai, M.; Arimoto, M.; Fujita, E. Tetrahedron Lett. 1981, 22, 4491-4494.
- 222. Ochiai, M.; Fujita, E.; Arimoto, M.; Yamaguchi, H. Chem. Pharm. Bull. 1982, 30, 3994-3999.
- 223. Ochiai, M.; Fujita, E.; Arimoto, M.; Yamaguchi, H. Chem. Pharm. Bull. 1983, 31, 86-93.
- 224. Marshall, R. L.; Young, D. J. Tetrahedron Lett. 1992, 33, 1365-1368.
- 225. Verihac, J.-B.; Perevre, M.; Ouintard, J.-P. Tetrahedron 1990, 46, 6399-6412.
- Marshall, J. A.; Gung, W. Y. Tetrahedron Lett. 1989, 30, 7349-7352. Marshall, J. A.; Welmaker, G. S.; Gung, B. W. J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1991, 113, 647-656.
- 227. Marshall, J. A.; Welmaker, G. S. Tetrahedron Lett. 1991, 32, 2101-2104.
- 228. Marshall, J. A.; Yashunsky, D. V. J. Org. Chem. 1991, 56, 5493-5495.
- 229. Verdone, J. A.; Mangravite, J. A.; Scarpa, N. M.; Kuivila, H. G. J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1975, 97, 843-849.
- 230. Matarasso-Tchiroukhine, E.; Cadiot, P. J. Organomet. Chem. 1976, 121, 169-176.
- 231. Still, W. C.; Mitra, A. Tetrahedron Lett. 1978, 2659-2662.
- 232. Young, D.; Kitching, W. Si Ge Sn Pb Comp. 1986, 9, 67-70.
- 233. Fleming, I.; Rowley, M. Tetrahedron Lett. 1986, 27, 5417-5420; J. Chem. Soc., Parkin Trans. 1 1987, 2259-2264.
- 234. Naruta, Y.; Maruyama, K. J. Chem. Soc., Chem. Commun. 1983, 1264-1265.
- 235. Mortlock, S. V.; Thomas, E. J. Tetrahedron Lett. 1988, 29, 2479-2482.
- 236. McNeil, A. H.; Thomas, E. J. Tetrahedron Lett. 1992, 33, 1369-1372.
- 237. Gung, B. W.; Peat, A. J. Synth. Commun. 1991, 21, 1797-1802.
- 238. Tanaka, K.; Yoda, H.; Isobe, Y.; Kaii, A. Tetrahedron Lett. 1985, 26, 1337-1340; J. Org. Chem. 1986, 51, 1856-1866.
- 239. Otera, J.; Kawasaki, Y.; Mizuno, H.; Shimizu, Y. Chem. Lett. 1983, 1529-1532.
- 240. Otera, J.; Yoshinaga, Y.; Yamaji, T.; Yoshioka, T.; Kawasaki, Y. Organometallics 1985, 4, 1213-1218.
- 241. Naruta, Y.; Nishigaichi, Y.; Maruyama, K. Chem. Lett. 1988, 225-228.
- 242. Furlani, D.; Marton, D.; Tagliavini, G.; Zordan, M. J. Organomet. Chem. 1988, 341, 345-356.
- 243. Marton, D.; Tagliavini, G.; Vanzan, N. J. Organomet. Chem. 1989, 376, 269-276.
- 244. Fry, A. J.; Rho, A. K.; Sherman, L. R.; Sherwin, C. S. J. Org. Chem. 1991, 56, 3283-3286.
- 245. Igbal, J.; Joseph, S. P. Tetrahedron Lett. 1989, 30, 2421-2422.
- 246. Takuwa, A.; Nishigaichi, Y.; Yamashita, K.; Iwamoto, H. Chem. Lett. 1990, 639-642.