

Dissertation

**Homo- and Heterobimetallic Complexes of the
PDIxCy ligand system;
Synthesis, Characterization and Reactivity**

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Technische Universität München

Fachgebiet Bioanorganische Chemie

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Deutscher Abstract

Diese Arbeit handelt über das Ligandsystem PDlxCy (PDI: Pyridin diimin, x: linker, Cy: Cyclam) und seine homo- und heterobimetallischen Komplexe. Das zuvor entworfene PDlpCy (p: Propyl) wurde durch Verkürzen der Linkerlänge zum PDleCy (e: Ethyl) modifiziert. Mehrere PDlxCy Komplexe wurden synthetisiert und auf ihre spektroskopischen, strukturellen und redoxaktiven Eigenschaften untersucht. Des Weiteren wurden sie auf ihre katalytische Aktivität in Oxidationsreaktionen getestet.

Auswirkungen durch die modifizierte Linkerlänge auf die Komplexe wurden anhand der bimetallic Eisenkomplexe beider Liganden untersucht. Hierbei zeigten die PDlxCy Komplexe simultane Resultate in ihren spektroskopischen und redoxaktiven Eigenschaften. Beide Systeme zeigten Temperaturabhängigkeit sowohl in ihren elektronischen Spektren, als auch in ihrer magnetischen Suszeptibilität.

Strukturelle Unterschiede durch den verkürzten Linker, wie die Ausbildung eines verbrückenden Triflates zwischen den Eisenatomen des PDleCy Komplexes und einem verkürzten Metall–Metall Abstand von 5.6 Å anstatt 8.0 Å, wurden mittels Kristallstrukturen gezeigt. Anhand ^{19}F -NMR konnte die Existenz der verbrückten Triflate auch in nicht-koordinierenden Lösemittel bewiesen werden.

Des Weiteren konnte die bereits für reduzierte PDlpCy Komplexe bewiesene Ladungstrennung innerhalb des Komplexes bestätigt werden, jedoch erstmals an einem zweifach reduzierten Komplex. Hierbei ergab die chemisch oder elektrochemisch zweifach reduzierte Spezies des dinuklearen Eisen PDleCy Komplexes, einen zweivalenten Komplex mit einem formalen Fe^0 im PDI-Teil und einem Fe^{2+} in der Cy-Seite.

Im zweiten Teil dieser Arbeit wurden weitere homo- und heterobimetallische Komplexe des PDleCy Liganden synthetisiert. Strukturelle Untersuchungen verifizierten die Ausbildung der Brückentriplate unter Verwendung des kürzeren Linkers. Auch konnte für heterobimetallische Komplexe eine Methode zur gezielten Positionierung der unterschiedlichen Metalle in die jeweiligen Bindungsstellen des Liganden entwickelt werden. Mittels selektiver Metallierung konnten so gezielt die Stereoisomeren der Eisen-Zink PDleCy Komplexe synthetisiert werden. Die unterschiedlichen Positionierungen der Metalle äußerten sich in ihren spektroskopischen Eigenschaften, wie auch in der katalytischen Aktivität für die Epoxidation von Olefinen. So wurde gezeigt, dass nur Komplexe mit einem im Cylam gebundenen Eisenatom eine katalytische Aktivität aufweisen. Als aktive Spezies wird ein Fe(IV)-oxo Cylam vermutet, welches durch Zugabe von Wasserstoffperoxid zu den $[\text{Zn}_{\text{PDI}}\text{Fe}_{\text{Cy}}(\text{PDleCy})(\text{OTf})_4]$ bei $-80\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ beobachtet wurde. Der Einfluss durch das zweite, in dem PDI gebundene Metall konnte für α,β -ungesättigte Ketone nachgewiesen werden. So wurden unter gleichen Bedingungen mit den bimetallicen PDIxCy Komplexen bessere Umsätze erzielt als mit dem mononuklearen Eisen Cylam Komplex. Aufgrund nur geringer Abweichungen zwischen dem mononuklearen und der dinuklearen Komplexe in ihrer Aktivität für Olefinoxidation in Abwesenheit einer elektronenziehenden Carboxyl-Gruppe am Olefin postulieren wir einen aktivitätssteigernden Einfluss der PDI-Seite durch Aktivierung des Substrates in räumlicher Nähe zur aktiven Eisen Cylam Seite.

English Abstract

This work focuses on the ligand system PDI x Cy (PDI: pyridine diimine, x : linker, Cy: cyclam) and its homo- and heterobimetallic complexes. The previously designed PDI p Cy (p : propyl) was modified by shortening the linker length to the PDI e Cy (e : ethyl). Complexes from both, PDI p Cy and PDI e Cy were synthesized and their spectroscopic, structural and redox properties, such as their catalytic activity in oxidation reactions were characterized.

For the investigation of how the modified linker length affects the system the two homobimetallic iron complexes of both ligands were compared to each other. Similar results were observed in both cases for their spectroscopic and redox properties. Both complexes exhibit temperature dependency in their electronic spectra and magnetic susceptibility.

Differences between the complexes were observed in their molecular structure in the form of a bridging μ -triflate between the metal ions, which was only present in the PDI e Cy complex. The ethyl linker further causes a smaller metal-to-metal distance of 5.6 Å compared to 8.0 Å using the propyl linker. Based on ^{19}F -NMR it was verified that the μ -triflate also persists in non-coordinating solvents.

Similar to the PDI p Cy complexes, charge separated species were generated with complexes using the PDI e Cy ligand. The dinuclear PDI e Cy complex was two-electron reduced by chemical and electrochemical methods. The electronic spectra indicated that reduction occurred at the PDI site. Thus, the reduced complex contains a formal PDI-Fe 0 beside an Fe $^{2+}$ in the cyclam site.

For the second part of this work other homo- and heterobimetallic complexes were synthesized with the PDI e Cy ligand. The series demonstrated that the bridging μ -

triflate is a typical structural feature of PDleCy complexes. The selective positioning of metals into the binding sites of the PDleCy could be achieved. Controlled selective metalation enables the synthesis of the respective stereoisomers of iron-zinc complexes. Variation of the metal positions led to differences in their spectroscopic behavior and in the catalytic activity with respect to olefin epoxidation. Herein, we demonstrate that only complexes containing iron in the cyclam site possess catalytic activity towards epoxidation. We propose an iron(IV)-oxo cyclam as active species, which we obtained in the treatment of $[\text{Zn}_{\text{PDI}}\text{Fe}_{\text{Cy}}(\text{PDleCy})(\text{OTf})_4]$ with hydrogen peroxide at $-80\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$. An influence by the PDI bound metal was observed for the epoxidation of α,β -unsaturated ketones. Our dinuclear iron complexes possess a higher conversion of enones to epoxides than the monometallic iron cyclam complex under the same conditions.

Because of the similar results obtained in the reactivity of mono- and dinuclear complexes toward olefins without the electron deficient carboxyl group, and the lack of activity for complexes with a zinc cyclam, we propose that the enhanced reactivity toward enones is caused by the PDI-site, which activates the enones in close proximity of the active iron.

List of Abbreviations

ADO	aldehyde deformylating oxygenase
AMO	alkene monooxygenase
Ar	Aryl
Cy	Cyclam
DCM	dichlormethane
DFT	density functional theory
e	ethyl
EPR	electron paramagnetic resonance
eq.	equivalent
EXAFS	extended X-ray absorption fine-structure spectroscopy
FDH	formate dehydrogenase
h	hour
H ₂ pydic	pyridine-2,6-dicarboxylic acid
H ₄ MPTP	methylene tetrahydromethanopterin pathway
HAA	hydrogen atom abstraction
HAT	hydrogen atom transfer
His	histidine
HRP	horseradish peroxidase
m/z	mass-to-charge ratio
MDH	methanol dehydrogenase
Me ₃ NTB	tris((<i>N</i> -methylbenzimidazol-2-yl)methyl)amine)
MeCN	acetonitrile
MMO	methane monooxygenase
M ⁿ⁺	metal ions
MS	mass spectroscopy
nm	nanometer
NMR	nuclear magnetic resonance
p	propyl

P450	cytochromes P450
PDI	pyridine diimine
PhIO	iodosylbenzene
pMMO	particulate methane monooxygenase
Por	porphyrin
PPh ₃	triphenylphosphane
PQQ	pyrroloquinoline quinone
sMMO	soluble methane monooxygenase
sPhIO	soluble iodosylbenzene
SQUID	superconducting quantum interference device
TauD	Taurine α -KG dioxygenase
TauDJ	active iron(IV)-oxo species of Taurine α -KG dioxygenase
TMC	1,4,8,11-tetramethyl-1,4,8,11-tetraazacyclotetradecane
TMP	meso-tetramesityl porphinate anion
ToMO	toluene/o-xylene monooxygenase
TON	turnover number
TPA*	tris((4-methoxy-3,5-dimethylpyridin-2-yl)methyl)amine)
TQA	tris(2-quinolyl-methyl)amine)
UV/Vis	ultraviolet-visible light

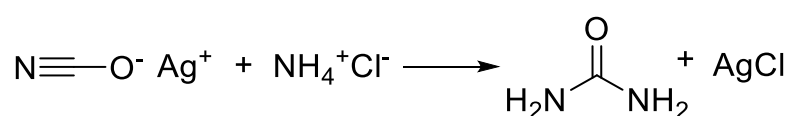
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1 INTRODUCTION

Life, in even its simplest form, has been estimated to have originated 3.5 billion years ago.¹ Since then, all species have appeared to follow, to a certain degree, a path of evolution supported by the concept of natural selection. This path, guided by nature, has provided the required chemically and biologically optimized materials.² Our understanding of the first step, which connects biology with the synthetic chemistry, can be traced to 200 years ago. Until 1820 the theory of *vis vitalis* (lat. vital force) was common, postulating that organic compounds could not be produced without this force. In 1828 Friedrich Wöhler was able to produce urea by treating silver cyanate with ammonium chloride.³ This successful synthesis of urea was regarded as the first organic compound artificially produced from inorganic starting materials, without the involvement of living organisms. This was evidence enough to discredit the theory that chemicals of living organisms are fundamentally different from those of inanimate matter.³



Scheme 1 Synthesis of urea from inorganic starting materials, without the involvement of living organism.³

This discovery is widely regarded as the birth of modern biochemistry. Five years later Payen and Persoz isolated the first enzyme, called diastase, and went on to formulate some basic principles of enzyme action.⁴ However, initial insight into the mechanisms of such complex systems was only acquired in 1894 when Emil Fischer introduced the lock-key-principle.⁵ As interest in understanding the mechanistic pathways of enzymes grew, so did that in mimicking these complex systems, spawning the field of

biomimicry.⁶⁻¹² Traditionally, biomimicry concerns novel structural and functional breakthrough technologies that are inspired by nature. One example is given by the selective oxidation of organic molecules. This reaction is an essential step of many biological processes and further is important for industrial processes.¹³⁻¹⁴ Epoxides represent a particularly useful class of intermediates in this field, since they are valuable for the synthesis of fine chemicals and pharmaceuticals due to the multiplicity of modifications they can undergo (Figure 1).¹⁵⁻²⁰

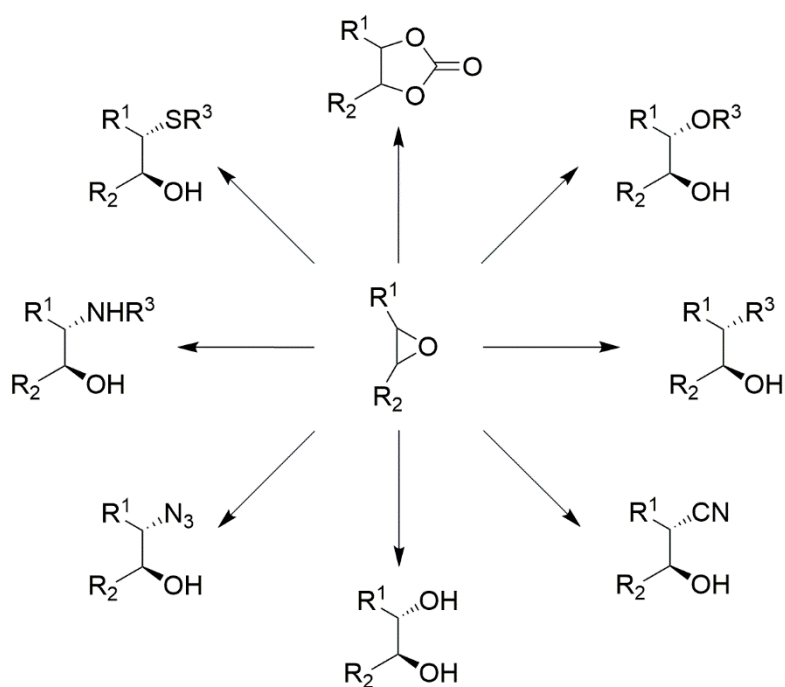


Figure 1 Examples of products that can be derived from epoxides.¹⁸

Therefore, oxygen activating enzymes were studied to understand their mechanism and to likewise develop synthetic complexes with high selectivity and efficiency in catalysis.

1.1 Enzymes for oxygen activation

The oxygen activation mechanisms for hydrocarbon oxidations by metalloenzymes have fascinated chemists and biochemists since Mason and Hayaishi's independently published papers in the *Journal of the American Chemical Society* in 1955, which established the important role O_2 plays in oxidative metabolism.²¹⁻²² The most commonly found metal at the active site of metalloenzymes that participate in metabolic O_2 activation and oxygenation reactions is iron, because of its high abundance, its inherent electronic properties and accessible redox potentials.²³⁻²⁴

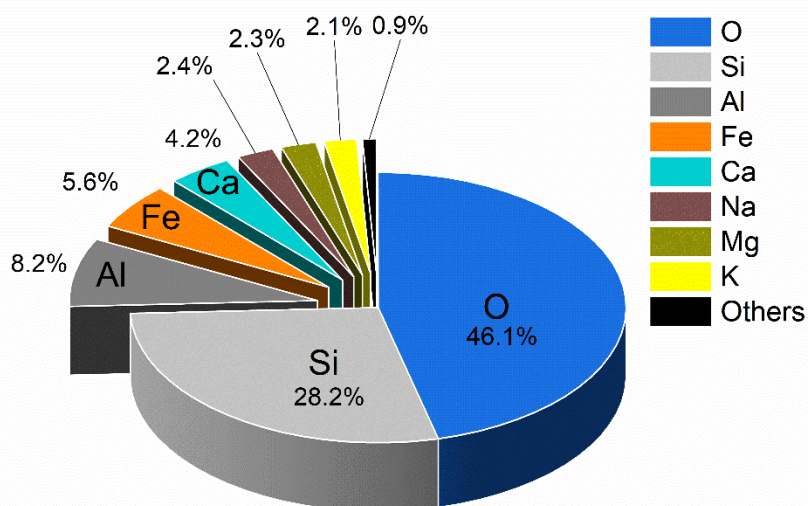


Figure 2 Abundance of elements in the geosphere.²⁵

The most extensively studied oxygen-activating iron enzymes are cytochromes P450, which play a key role in oxidative transformations in a variety of organisms and constitute powerful catalysts in the oxidation of several substrates including alkenes, alkanes or aromatic compounds with molecular oxygen.²⁶⁻³⁰ Another well-studied enzyme is the horseradish peroxidase (HRP), which catalyze a wide variety of organic and inorganic compounds utilizes hydrogen peroxide.³¹ Similar to P450, HRP is a heme enzyme, characterized by the presence of an iron ion coordinated to a porphyrin or a closely related system which in turn acts as a tetradentate ligand, with one or two

additional axial ligands.³² In contrast to heme sites where the porphyrin macrocycle leaves only one axial position for oxygen activation, the non-heme sites have additional, exchangeable positions that can also allow the possibility of substrate binding to the iron center.³³ Furthermore, other coordination modes for oxygen activation are possible.¹⁰

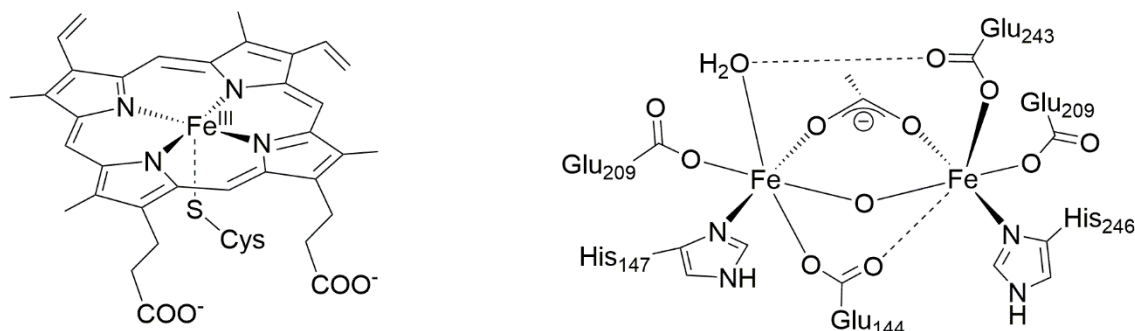


Figure 3 Representative structures for heme and non-heme active sites. Left: cytochrome P450 (heme)^{26, 34} Right: methane monooxygenases (non-heme)³⁵

Despite the size and mechanistic variety of mononuclear non-heme iron enzymes, the majority presents a common structural arrangement. There the iron center is octahedral coordinated by two histidines (His) and a carboxyl group, forming the characteristic 2-His/1-Carboxylate facial triad.³³ Ligands in non-heme enzymes, such as histidine, carboxylate and H₂O are also much less covalently ligated, with more limited π -interactions with the iron compared to porphyrin, which can greatly modify the electronic structure of the active site and, hence, its activation of oxygen.³⁶

Typically, these enzymes contain mono- or binuclear iron sites and catalyze a variety of oxidation reactions including hydrogen atom abstraction (HAA) for hydroxylation, halogenation, desaturation, peroxidation, epoxidations, ring closure, electrophilic aromatic substitution for mono or dioxygenation, or even phosphate-bond hydrolysis.^{9.}

Rieske oxygenases are examples for mononuclear non-heme enzyme. They catalyze the cis-dihydroxylation of arenes to cis-dihydrodiol products.⁴⁶ In the last decade, Rieske oxygenases have also been shown to play important roles in natural product biosynthesis by catalyzing oxidative carbocyclisation, N-oxygenation, C-hydroxylation and C–C desaturation.⁴⁶ Another example for a mononuclear non-heme iron enzyme is lipoxygenase, which catalyzes the addition of oxygen to polyunsaturated fatty acids to form hydroperoxides.⁴⁷ Lipoxygenases have food-related applications in bread making and aroma production.⁴⁸

As mentioned before non-heme enzymes can also contain binuclear iron sites. Commonly they feature histidine and carboxylate as bridging ligands.^{41, 49} Enzymes, such as soluble methane monooxygenase (sMMO)^{9, 38-39, 45}, alkene monooxygenase (AMO)⁴⁰, aldehyde deformylating oxygenase (ADO)⁴¹ and toluene/o-xylene monooxygenase (ToMO)⁴² are examples of non-heme dinuclear iron moieties in biology. They are involved in numerous metabolic functions but also catalyze a variety of chemical reactions, which are relevant for industry. Table 1 shows heme and non-heme mono- and binuclear iron enzymes with their reactions and proposed biological functions. In particular, the methane monooxygenases (MMO), the most studied dinuclear enzymes, are responsible for both the methane metabolism and carbon fixation in methanotrophic bacteria.³⁵ The diiron center catalyzes the conversion of methane to methanol using dioxygen as oxidant.^{9, 38-39, 45} Its ability to oxidize a wide range of hydrocarbons including C₁ – C₈ n-alkanes, alkenes and molecules such as benzene, styrene, naphthalene, ethylbenzene, and cyclohexane,⁵⁰⁻⁵⁵ makes it attractive for synthetic applications.⁵⁴ Methanotrophic bacteria using the unique isoenzymes of MMO (particulate methane monooxygenase (pMMO); sMMO, soluble methane monooxygenase (sMMO)), can produce biomass in the form of formaldehyde

or formate by utilizing C₁ sources more reduced than formic acid as sources of carbon and energy.⁵⁶⁻⁵⁹ In this regard MMOs have attracted intense attention in recent years as potential targets for new gas-to-liquid methane bioconversion processes (see Figure 4).⁵⁴

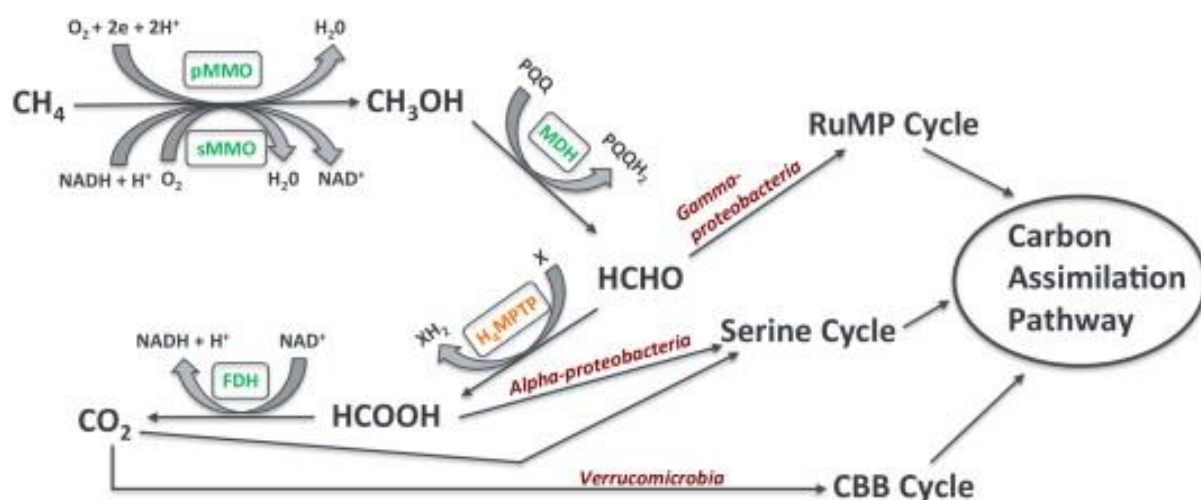
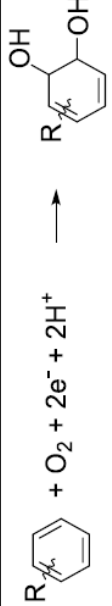

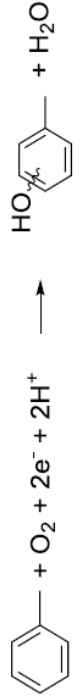


Figure 4 Simplified pathway for the oxidation of methane and assimilation of formaldehyde. Major enzymes are presented in green. Abbreviations: PQQ, pyrroloquinoline quinone; MDH, methanol dehydrogenase; H₄MPTP, methylene tetrahydromethanopterin pathway; FDH, formate dehydrogenase. Reprint with permission.⁵⁴

Non-heme diiron enzymes are also of industrial interest due to their involvement in important metabolic pathways. For example, AMO constitutes the first step in alkene metabolism through which it catalyzes the epoxidation of aliphatic alkenes. AMO is also known to catalyze the oxidation of C₃ – C₄ chain length 1- and 2-alkenes, styrenes and even chloroalkenes.⁶⁰⁻⁶¹ The tendency to form predominantly R enantiomers has attracted increasing attention in recent years, since optically active epoxides are of interest in the development of pharmaceutical compounds.⁶²⁻⁶³ Therefore synthetic complexes bearing chiral backbones were investigated to enhance the enantioselectivity.⁶⁴⁻⁶⁸

Table 1 Examples of oxygen activating enzymes.

Enzyme	Active center	Catalytic reaction	Metabolism role
Cytochrome P450	Heme iron	$RH + O_2 + 2e^- + 2H^+ \longrightarrow ROH + H_2O$	Fat metabolism
Horseradish peroxidase	Heme iron	$2RH + H_2O_2 \longrightarrow 2R^{\cdot} + 2H_2O$	Detoxification of H_2O_2
Rieske oxygenase	Non-heme iron	 $R-C_6H_4 + O_2 + 2e^- + 2H^+ \longrightarrow R-C_6H_3(OH) + H_2O$	Hydrocarbon biodegradation
Lipoxygenase	Non-heme iron	 $R-CH=CH-CH=CH-R' + O_2 \longrightarrow R-CH(OOH)-CH=CH-R'$	Fat metabolism
methane monooxygenase	Non-heme diiron	$CH_4 + O_2 + 2e^- + 2H^+ \longrightarrow CH_3OH + H_2O$	Carbon fixation, Methane metabolism
alkene monooxygenase	Non-heme diiron	$RCH=CH_2 + O_2 + 2e^- + 2H^+ \longrightarrow R-C(O)H + H_2O$	Alkene metabolism
aldehyde deformylating oxygenase	Non-heme diiron	$R-C(=O)H + O_2 + 4e^- + 3H^+ \longrightarrow R-H + HCOO^- + H_2O$	Alkane metabolism
toluene/o-xylene monooxygenase	Non-heme diiron	 $C_6H_5-CH_3 + O_2 + 2e^- + 2H^+ \longrightarrow C_6H_4(OH)-CH_3 + H_2O$	Toluene, o-xylene hydroxylation

1.2 Biomimicking catalyst for epoxidation

Since epoxides can undergo a variety of modifications, they are effective intermediates for the synthesis of fine chemicals and pharmaceuticals.^{15-20, 62-63} Methodologies for selective oxidation of alkane C–H bonds are numerous because they enable novel straightforward synthetic strategies.⁶⁹⁻⁷¹ This, and the rich chemistry of the iron oxidases and oxygenases, inspired the development of hydrocarbon catalysts in the last decades.^{23, 72-77} The aim is to understand the high activities and selectivities of enzymes and to be able to develop environmentally friendly and efficient systems using this knowledge. Key features such as mild activation conditions, found in biological systems are also a target for synthetic catalysts, because less decomposition occurs at lower temperature. Regarding to industrial application a lot of money can be saved through lower energy consumption. Also the choice of oxidant plays a key role, since oxygen and hydrogen peroxide generate no environmentally unfriendly side products and are easier to produce than alkyl peroxides.⁷⁸ Therefore, this exposes a key feature for the development of industrial catalysts regarding green chemistry and low cost production. Even organometallic compounds, containing palladium, rhodium, iridium and ruthenium are well established catalysts for a broad spectrum of reactions, the precious metals bear several disadvantages like toxicity and rareness leading to high costs, which make them unattractive for large scale applications in industry.^{24, 79} The low cost of iron and its non-toxicity makes iron not only relevant for biology but also for biomimicry catalysts.^{24, 80} As an inexpensive and relatively nontoxic metal, iron meets the economic and environment requirements the community requests.²⁴

The first application of iron in oxidation chemistry has already been known for more than a century. The oxidation of tartaric acid in the presence of iron salts was described by Henry Fenton.⁸¹ Decades later Haber and Weiss were able to identify the hydroxyl

radical as the actual oxidant for Fenton-type reactions, generated by the reaction of peroxide with iron cations.⁸²



Scheme 2 Fenton-type reaction of hydrogen peroxide in the presence of iron cations.⁸²

Nowadays this kind of oxidation process finds applications in water cleaning among other purposes.⁸³ Because Fenton-type radical reactions result in a drastic loss in selectivity, researchers aim to develop catalyst that can suppress such processes and perform selective oxidation reactions.^{23, 84}

The first biomimetic iron catalyst exhibiting selective oxidation was published in 1979 by Groves *et al.*, mimicking the enzyme P450.⁸⁵ The heme iron catalyst was able to transfer an oxygen from to cyclohexene but with a low selectivity towards the epoxide. Only 55% of the consumed PhIO was used to generate the epoxide and 15% led to formation of cyclohexenol. Higher selectivities were obtained using stilbene where a conversion of even 82% to the respective epoxide was achieved. Metalloporphyrins without protecting steric groups was discarded due to their very fast oxidative degradation.⁸⁶ Modification of heme iron catalysts was carried out on the meso position of the porphyrin sites. Functionalization of the meso position with bulky groups hindered the self-oxidation of the highly reactive position. The use of steric groups also inhibits the formation of the catalytically inactive oxo-bridged dimer.⁸⁷ Further modifications were made to influence the electronic properties of the porphyrin by

introducing electron withdrawing groups, such as halides⁸⁷⁻⁸⁹ or nitro groups,⁹⁰ to the ligand.

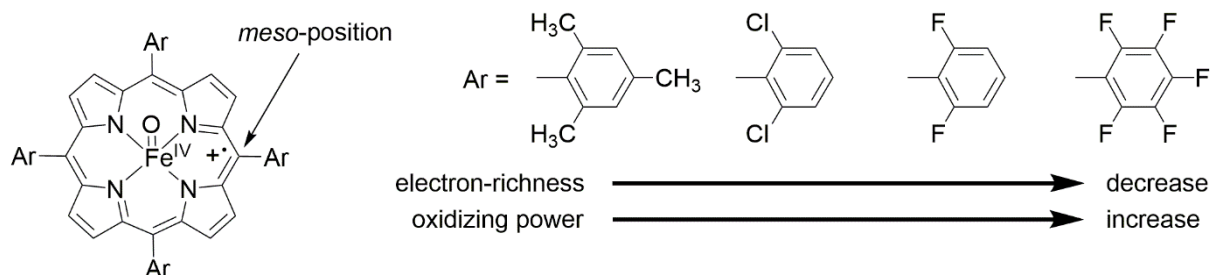


Figure 5 Stereo-electronic influence on the catalytic reaction progression via porphyrin modification on its meso position.⁸⁹

Because non-heme complexes reveal more possibilities for their ligand structure than heme and related systems, the field of non-heme iron complexes is considerably broader. Furthermore, the inherent modular nature of non-heme iron complexes enables a simple manipulation of their structure, enabling their fine-tuning for different oxidation reactions. In synthetic metal complexes, the active oxygen-transferring intermediates can be more stable than in their enzymatic prototypes, which enables more detailed insight to the reactivity of active species and clarification regarding their role in catalysis.⁹¹ Unravelling the key features of the mechanisms of iron oxygenases due to synthetic iron systems advances the synthetic strategy for biomimicking catalyst itself. Substantial improvements with respect to the breadth of activities, yields and selectivities of bioinspired mononuclear non-heme complexes were made, demonstrating the potential for oxidative catalysis at a single metal center.^{11, 23, 73-77} In 1991 Nam and coworkers reported the catalytic activity of olefin epoxidation by iron complexes with the tetratendate ligand cyclam (cyclam = 1,4,8,11-tetraazacyclotetradecane) and related ligands.⁹² Their work showcased high turnover

numbers (TON; up to 20), high percent yields based on hydrogen peroxide, stability against water, stereospecificity and only small amounts of side products.

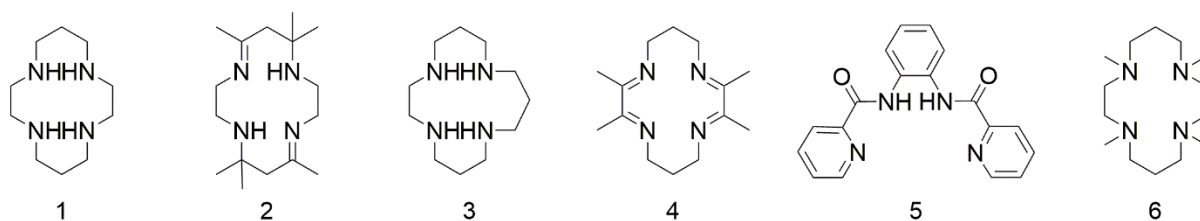


Figure 6 Ligands for iron complexes bearing firstly catalytic activities towards olefin epoxidation with high TONs, reported by Nam *et al.*⁹²

The highest TON was achieved by complexes of cyclam itself, while the complexes with the ligand 2 - 4 only achieved TONs of 10, 5 and 2 respectively. With ligands 5 and 6 no epoxidation was observed, suggesting a participation of N–H in the catalysis of iron cyclam. Nowadays, iron complexes with tetratendate ligands are still regarded as valuable functional models of natural non-heme oxygenases. They form a large group of efficient and selective catalysts, mediating highly challenging reactions such as stereospecific hydroxylation and (cis)- dihydroxylation and the epoxidation of olefins with hydrogen peroxide.^{23, 91, 93-99}

The most relevant epoxidation systems regarding applicability are simple systems that utilize pyridine-2,6-dicarboxylic acid (H₂pydic).¹⁰⁰⁻¹⁰³ A variety of olefins could be epoxidised by hydrogen peroxide and complex generated in situ from H₂pydic and different amines (pyrrolidine, benzylamines, imidazoles) or formamidines with FeCl₃·6H₂O, under mild conditions.¹⁰⁰⁻¹⁰³ Further studies showed that complexes achieved by the combination of chiral diamines with H₂pydic and FeCl₃·6H₂O are able to catalyze asymmetric epoxidation. The use of the respective diamine enantiomer results in the opposite asymmetric epoxides.¹⁰⁴⁻¹⁰⁵

Asymmetric epoxidation of olefins is a very interesting reaction in synthetic organic chemistry, because chiral epoxides can be easily converted to further chiral products and building blocks.¹⁵⁻²⁰ Therefore, new iron complexes bearing chiral backbones were investigated to enhance the enantioselectivity.^{62, 67-68} Sun *et al.* discovered that the enantioselective induction of their complexes can be enhanced by using carboxylic acids. Bulkier acids provide higher enantioselectivities for diverse substrates. Although they achieve high conversion, the substrate scope for high enantioselectivity is limited to chalcone and its derivatives.⁶⁷

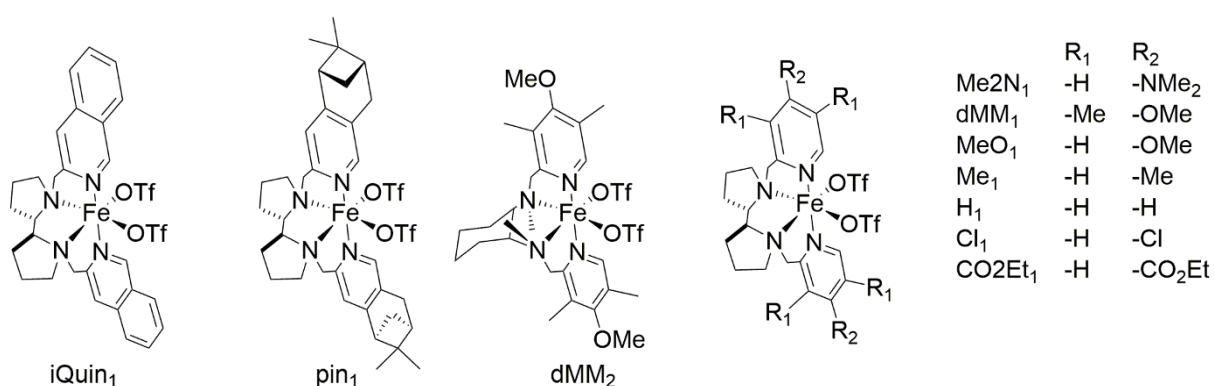


Figure 7 Non-heme iron complexes utilized by Costas *et al.* for investigation of electronic effects towards catalytic performance regarding to epoxidation.¹⁰⁶

A non-heme iron complex that catalyzes highly enantioselective epoxidation of a broader range of olefins is described by Costas *et al.*, who investigated the impact of varying the electronic properties of the catalyst on their catalytic performance. Electronic effects, induced to the iron center by the ligand, in combination with catalytic amounts of carboxylic acids promoting efficient O–O cleavage and generate epoxides with high chemo- and enantioselectivity in high yields.¹⁰⁶ The more electron-rich catalysts providing the better yields and enantioselectivities. For instance, complex Me2N₁ achieved 87% yield with 62% enantiomer excess (ee) for the epoxidation of *cis*- β -methylstyrene, while CO₂Et₁ only achieved yields of 31% with 21% ee. This

tendency was observed for several classes of substrates, such as electron-deficient cyclohexenone, chromene and tetralone derivatives.

The practical use is only one of the major targets of biomimicry. The understanding of the mechanism and the associated characterization of intermediates are also essential. The insight gained in this way can in turn be used for the further development of new systems.

This work investigates the intramolecular communication of two metals in a biomimicking complex. The well-studied Cy site was combined with a PDI unit. This work summarizes advances in biomimicry and reveals the role of cyclam. The following section provides an overview of iron-oxygen intermediates, their characterization, their catalytic activities, and strategies for improving these in bio-inspired compounds with a focus on the role of cyclam complexes.

1.3 Iron oxygen intermediates

Bioinspired systems are indispensable in the understanding of the mechanism of enzymes. The high reactivity of enzymes goes hand in hand with the short life of their active intermediates. This impedes the isolation and characterization of the active species in the original form of enzymes. This problem motivates one major target of biomimicry: the investigation of the active site of the enzymes by synthesizing their simplified replica with similar structural properties, but without their protein part.¹⁰⁷ Research on the structural properties and reactivities of oxidase and oxygenase replicas has yielded a large extended understanding of iron oxygen intermediates. Stabilization by macrocyclic and acyclic ligands, has resulted in the isolation and characterization of iron oxygen species, such as metal-superoxo, -peroxo, -hydroperoxo, and -oxo.^{10, 89, 93, 108-110} The different binding modes of oxygen are a main factor in determining the reactivity of the intermediates.¹⁰

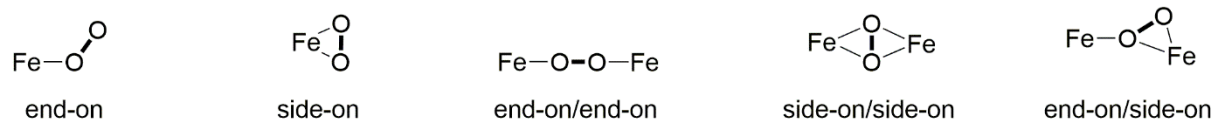


Figure 8 Different binding modes observed for iron-oxygen intermediates.

The reduced size of synthetic bioinspired compounds, enables more accessible strategies to isolate and spectroscopically study the active intermediates. Furthermore, steric and electronic modifications of the ligand environments are more simplified and lead to insights into the catalytic mechanisms and structural properties of biological systems.¹¹¹ Also biomimicry could be employed for the development of better catalysts with potential applications due their simplified modification.¹¹²

1.3.1 Iron–superoxo

Compared to the high valent iron oxygen intermediates, lower valent superoxo complexes are only modestly studied, with few reports of synthetic non-heme iron superoxo compounds. So was the structure of a non-heme superoxo not reported until thirty years after the structure of its heme counterpart.¹¹³⁻¹¹⁴ The structural and spectroscopic characterization of the iron(III)–superoxo in heme containing proteins and synthetic iron porphyrins revealed that these species bind the O₂ unit in an end-on manner.^{113, 115-116} It is assumed that the reduced accessible surface of iron due to the planar heme group caused the end-on binding of oxygen.¹¹⁷ Superoxo species of hemes is rarely proposed as a reactive species in oxygenase reactions unless the substrate is highly activated as, for example, in the final step of the nitric oxide synthase cycle.¹¹⁸ Dey *et al.* report the first synthetic heme iron–superoxo, which is able to perform hydrogen atom transfer (HAT) in 2019.¹¹⁹ It is generally thought that the heme superoxo is first converted to a peroxo, hydroperoxo, or high-valent oxo intermediate.

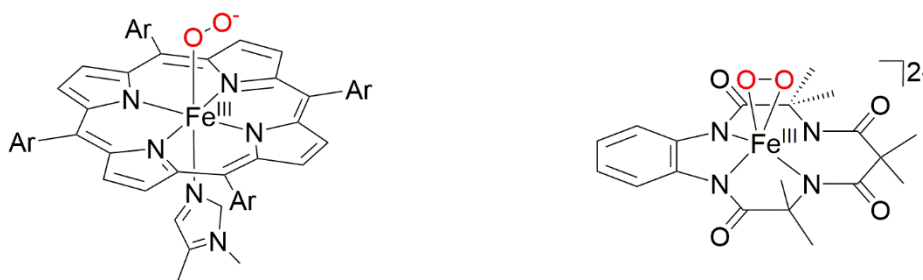


Figure 9 Right: End-on superoxo of an iron porphyrin complex.¹¹³ Left: Side-on superoxo of the non-heme iron complex $[\text{Fe}^{\text{III}}(\text{O}_2)(\text{TAML})]^{2-}$.¹¹⁴

In contrast to heme, the crystal structure of the non-heme iron complex proposed to be in a side-on mode such as published by Nam *et al.*¹¹⁴ The presented $[\text{Fe}^{\text{III}}(\text{O}_2)(\text{TAML})]^{2-}$ showed reactivity in both electrophilic as well as nucleophilic reactions. Also the superoxo iron complexes published by Lee *et al.* such as that from

Hikichi *et al.* show electrophilic reactions.¹²⁰⁻¹²¹ In general, iron–superoxo complexes undergo electrophilic reactions such as C–H and O–H bond activation.¹²²⁻¹²³

Metal–superoxo species can participate directly in substrate oxidation reactions, or can be one-electron reduced by either an exogenous reductant or a second reduced metal center to form a metal–peroxo.

1.3.2 Iron–peroxo

Iron–peroxo complexes are commonly cited as the key intermediates in heme and non-heme iron enzyme catalyzed oxidation reactions, carrying out a variety of nucleophilic and electrophilic reactions.^{116, 124-125} Iron–peroxo species act as the active oxidant in many cytochromes P450.¹²⁶⁻¹²⁸ Mechanistic studies of the reactions of enzymes and biomimicking iron–peroxo porphyrin compounds reveal the nucleophilic character for this iron–oxygen species in heme compounds.^{116, 129} Iron–peroxo species was also proposed to be the active oxidant in non-heme enzymes, such as in the catalysis of aromatic cis-dihydroxylation by Rieske dioxygenase.^{124, 130} The first crystal structure of a synthetic $\text{Fe}^{\text{III}}(\text{O}_2)^{2-}$ was reported by Nam *et al.* with a non-heme iron system.¹³¹ The iron complex with the TMC (1,4,8,11-tetramethyl-1,4,8,11-tetraazacyclotetradecane) ligand bound the oxygen in a side-on mode and shows sluggish activity towards nucleophilic deformylation. The lower activity compared to its corresponding hydroperoxo complex is caused by the binding of the oxygen, since the end-on mode is more reactive.^{129, 132} In a further report Nam *et al.* were able to tune the reactivity in electron-transfer, electrophilic, and nucleophilic reactions of $[(\text{TMC})\text{Fe}^{\text{III}}(\text{O}_2)]^+$ by binding of redox-inactive metal ions ($\text{M}^{\text{n}+}$) in a side-on/side-on manner to the oxygen.¹³³ The Lewis acidity of the redox-inactive metal ions affect the reactivities of the iron(III)–peroxo complex in electron-transfer, electrophilic, and nucleophilic reactions.

1.3.3 Iron–hydroperoxo

Protonation of the iron(III)–peroxo species could be generated into iron(III)–hydroperoxo species.¹⁶ Another formation of iron(III)–hydroperoxo is generated from an iron(III)–superoxo species by HAA from substrates.^{10, 114, 134} The reaction of iron(II)/(III) with hydrogen peroxide as oxidant directly forms iron–hydroperoxo.¹³⁵⁻¹³⁶

While there is a general consensus that heme iron(III)–superoxo systems are sluggish oxidants,¹³⁷⁻¹³⁸ debate still exists as to the “typical” reactivity of these compounds.¹⁰⁷ It has been shown that, for example, while synthetic low-spin Fe(III)–OOH complexes behave as sluggish oxidants for sulfides, olefins, and aldehydes,¹³⁹ a high-spin [(TMC)Fe^{III}(O₂H)]²⁺ compound showed comparably good reactivity in nucleophilic and electrophilic oxidative reactions.¹³¹

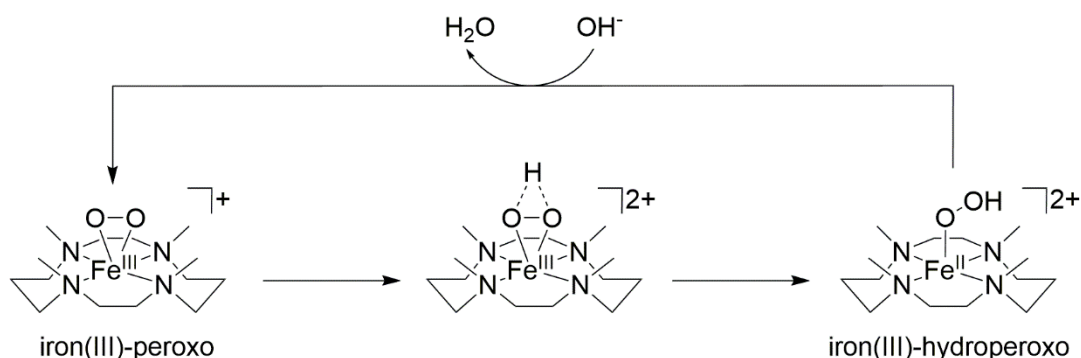


Figure 10 Formation of iron–hydroperoxo from iron–superoxide via protonation and vice versa utilizing base.¹³¹

Another debate of iron(III)–hydroperoxides is the heterolysis versus homolysis cleavage of the O–O bond, leading to the more reactive iron–oxo. Despite extensive investigation of the O–O bond cleavage mechanisms in heme systems,^{89, 124, 140-141} such mechanistic studies in non-heme iron(III)–hydroperoxo species have been conducted only recently.

1.3.4 Iron-oxo

High-valent oxoiron species have been proposed, and identified, as key reactive intermediates in enzymes, which combine the activation of dioxygen with the oxidation of substrates.¹⁰⁸ The reactions range from hydroxylation, halogenation, cyclization, epoxidation and desaturation to vital processes like respiration, catabolism and angiogenesis.^{12, 36-37, 142-144} Iron-oxo species have been trapped in enzymes with heme and non-heme monometallic and bimetallic active sites. In 1986 the first evidence of high-valent oxoiron species involved in enzymatic activity was reported for the heme peroxidases.¹⁴⁵⁻¹⁴⁶

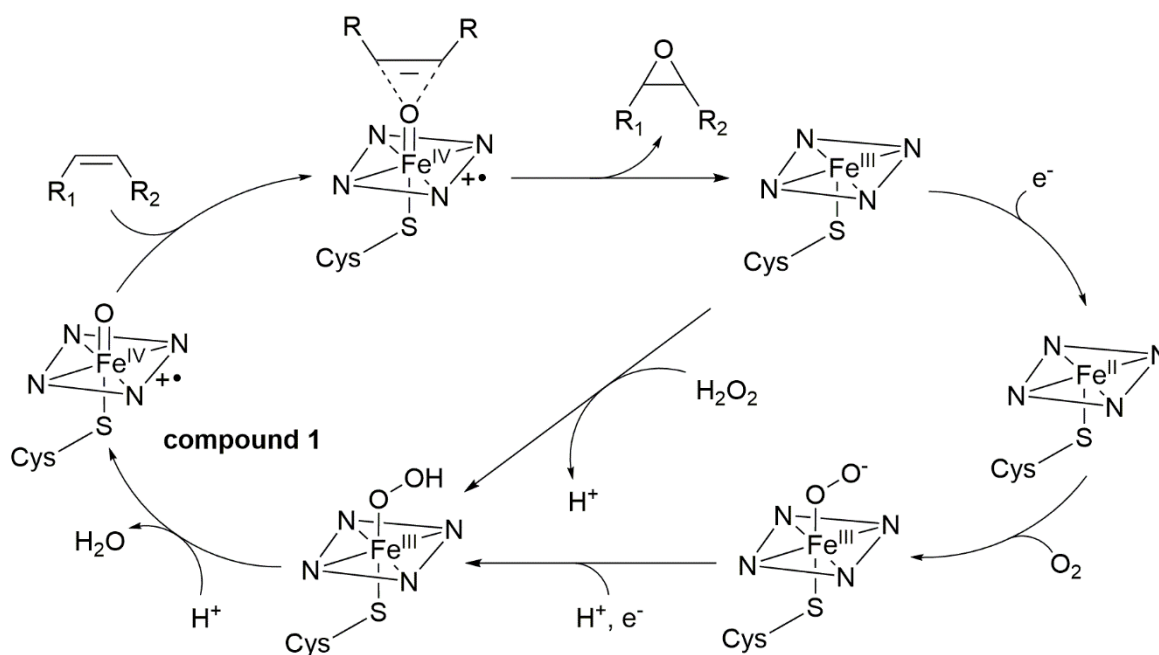


Figure 11 Epoxidation mechanism of cytochrome P450 enzymes using O₂ and H₂O₂ as oxidant.^{26, 34, 147}

Nowadays crystal structures of the active sites of various heme-enzymes are known, including horseradish peroxidase, cytochrome P450 and catalase.¹⁴⁸ The detected iron-oxo intermediates consist of an iron(IV) center, with an intermediate spin $S = 1$, coupled to a cationic radical, either located in the porphyrin ring or in the amino acid

residue near the heme ring.^{26, 34, 148} For example, for Cytochrome P450 the active species is to an Fe^{IV}=O porphyrin radical [(por[•])Fe^{IV}=O]⁺ (Figure 11, compound 1).^{26,}

34, 147, 149-150

When the iron(IV) center is coupled ferromagnetically or antiferromagnetically to the radical, the overall spin is $S = 3/2$ or $S = 1/2$, respectively.¹⁰⁸ Vast attempts have been made to model these crucial intermediates in the last few decades. In 1981 Groves *et al.* reported the first fully characterized synthetic iron–oxo complex.¹⁵¹ The oxidation of [(TMP)Fe^{III}(Cl)] (TMP = meso-tetramesityl porphinate anion) with meta-chloroperbenzoic acid at -78 °C yielded the iron(IV)–oxo porphyrin cation radical [(TMP^{•+})Fe^{IV}(O)(X)]⁺ with a spin state of $S = 1$ for iron. The complex was active in olefin epoxidation and alkane hydroxylation reactions.⁸⁵ A great number of iron(IV)–oxo porphyrin radicals followed this, which have been synthesized, spectroscopically characterized and exhaustively researched in a variety of oxidation reactions.¹⁵² The oxidizing power of iron–oxo porphyrins is controlled by the electronic nature of porphyrin ligands. Iron–oxo species with electron-deficient porphyrins are better oxidants in the oxygenation of organic substrates.¹⁵³ While in the active species of heme compounds iron shows spin intermediate $S = 1$, in all of the non-heme enzymes the iron center has been found to be in the high-spin $S = 2$ state.¹⁴² It has been suggested that this is due to weak ligand field from the ligands histidine and carboxylate.^{93, 108} Taurine α -KG dioxygenase (TauD) was the first non-heme iron enzyme revealing the active iron(IV)–oxo species (TauDJ), as an active oxidizing species.¹⁵⁴ Mössbauer measurements for TauDJ exhibited a high spin iron center $S = 2$.¹⁴⁴

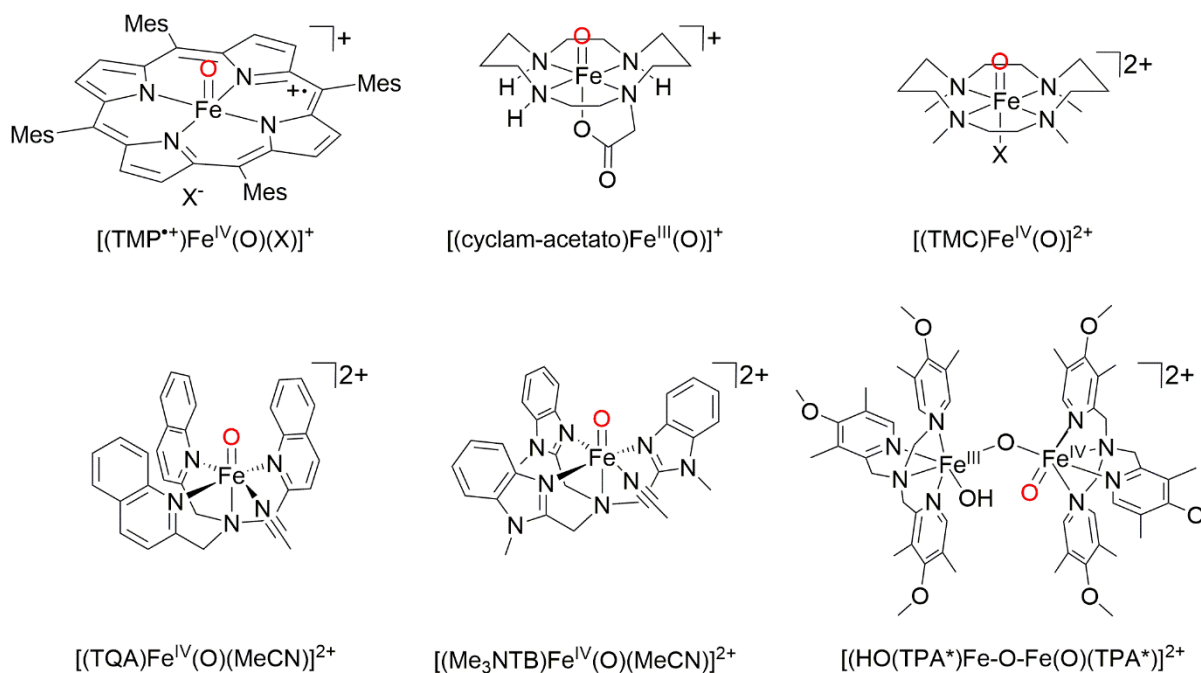


Figure 12 Examples of heme and nonheme intermediates containing iron–oxo cores in synthetic model systems, discussed in this section.^{151, 155-159}

Studies of synthetic non-heme iron–oxo turned out to be more difficult, compare to the iron–oxo complexes with porphyrin, since non-heme iron–oxo species exhibit a lack of suitable spectroscopic signatures detectable with routine spectroscopy techniques.^{89, 93} This is reportedly the reason why the first non-heme iron–oxo was characterized decades after the heme analogue.^{151, 155} The first evidence was demonstrated by Wieghardt *et al.* by treating $[(\text{cyclam-acetato})\text{Fe}^{\text{III}}(\text{O}_3\text{SCF}_3)]^+$ with ozone at $-78\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$.¹⁵⁵ Another milestone was set by Nam *et al.* three years later with the first crystal structure of this species.¹⁵⁸ Again the starting compound was an iron cyclam complex $[(\text{TMC})\text{Fe}]^{2+}$, which was trapped in its active species after the oxidation with PhIO in acetonitrile at $-40\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$. Beside crystallographic also spectroscopic characterization, such as UV/Vis, EPR, Mössbauer, and mass spectrometry were done to study the active species $[(\text{TMC})\text{Fe}^{\text{IV}}(\text{O})]^{2+}$. Characterization reveals the spin state of $S = 1$ for iron, unlike the imitated iron–oxo found in enzymes. Despite this the complex from

Nam *et al.* found also to be active for the oxidation of substrates, such as PPh₃, but not for epoxidation or HAT. The non-methylated iron cylam complex, was already known to be active for epoxidation and HAT in 1991,⁹² however its iron-oxo intermediate was demonstrated as the active species in 2019.¹⁶⁰

Many new iron-oxo complexes have been synthesized and characterized in the last twenty years.^{75, 89, 93, 108, 142, 156-157, 160-167} Such as for Fe-TMC the majority of the bioinspired Fe(IV)-oxo cores have S = 1 ground state, unlike the enzymatic intermediates. But recent efforts have also led to the characterization of iron(IV)-oxo complexes with spin S = 2.^{157, 163} Iron(IV)-oxo complexes with spin S = 2 have been proposed by density functional theory (DFT) calculations to be much more reactive towards C-H bond activation than compounds with S = 1.^{108, 168-170} This agrees with nature's preference for non-heme enzymes that utilize high-spin iron centers.

This factor is also obvious for synthetic complexes. The [(Me₃NTB)Fe^{IV}(O)(MeCN)]²⁺ (Me₃NTB = tris((N-methylbenzimidazol-2-yl)methyl)amine) and [(TQA)Fe^{IV}(O)(MeCN)]²⁺ (TQA = tris(2-quinolyl-methyl)amine) are the most reactive iron-oxo models synthesized and completely characterized.¹⁵⁶⁻¹⁵⁷ Indeed [(Me₃NTB)Fe^{IV}(O)(MeCN)]²⁺ has an intermediate-spin S = 1, but has a highly accessible S = 2 high-spin state.¹⁵⁶ Thus it has extremely low activation barriers and high reactivity. [(TQA)Fe^{IV}(O)(MeCN)]²⁺ reveal a high-spin (S = 2) quintet ground state.¹⁷¹ Its reactivity rates are comparable to those of the natural intermediate TauD-J.¹⁵⁷ The trapping of the highly reactive [(TQA)Fe^{IV}(O)(MeCN)]²⁺ complex was achieved by the use of bulky tripodal ligand, with weaker-field donors such as quinolones.¹⁷² The enforcement of the trigonal-bipyramidal geometry by bulky tripodal ligand were shown to stabilize species with high-spin configurations such as the use of weaker ligand field environments.¹⁷³⁻¹⁷⁴ This example reveals the advantage of

bioinspired compounds, to be more accessible for modification to tune the activity to be either less active, enabling characterization, or to enhance the activity for catalytic applications.

Other than in mononuclear enzymes, where the iron(III)–superoxo species forms an iron(III)–hydroperoxo intermediate by consuming a proton and an electron followed by the subsequent O–O bond cleavage yields the reactive iron–oxo species,^{12, 37, 144} in dinuclear enzymes no proton or electron is necessary to form the active species. The oxygen is directly activated at a diiron(II) center to form either closed bis(μ -oxo)diiron(IV) or open $O=Fe^{IV}-O-Fe^{IV}=O$ forms, without the necessity of any additional proton or electron donors.^{12, 45, 175-176}

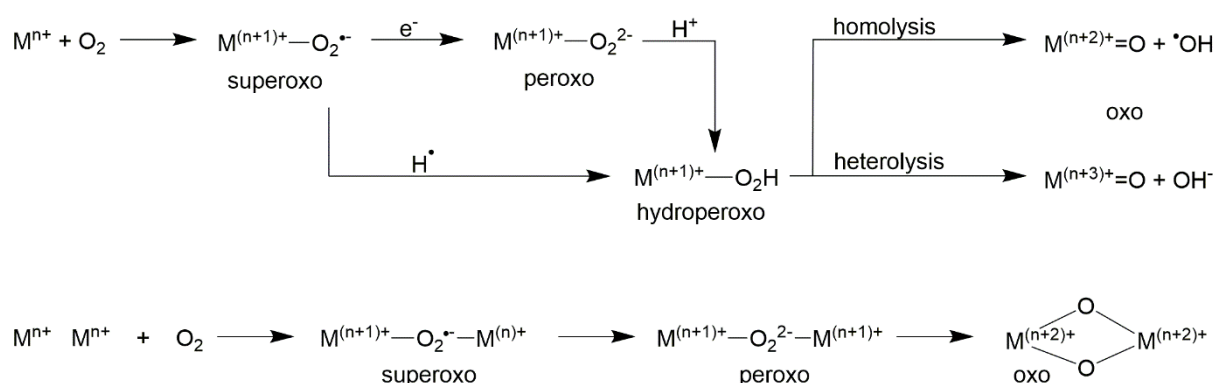


Figure 13 Unified mechanisms for dioxygen activation at mononuclear and dinuclear active sites.¹⁰

In the conversion of methane to methanol with MMO the formation of the catalytically active diiron(IV) di-oxo intermediate was also observed.⁴⁵ Altogether dinuclear iron enzymes bind dioxygen very similar but activate it for different catalytic purposes.^{39, 73} The first characterization of a diiron(IV) di-oxo synthetic intermediate was investigated on dinuclear iron complexes $[(HO(TPA^*)Fe-O-Fe(O)(TPA^*))]$ with $TPA^* = \text{tris}((4\text{-methoxy-3,5-dimethylpyridin-2-yl)methyl)amine)$, reveals a valence-delocalized $[Fe^{3.5}(\mu-O)_2Fe^{3.5}]^{3+}$ diamond core.¹⁷⁷ The dinuclear complex is 100-fold less effective

in carrying out HAT of DHA than its mononuclear analogue. Conversion from the diamond core complex into a complex with a valence-localized $[\text{HO}-\text{Fe}^{\text{III}}-\text{O}-\text{Fe}^{\text{IV}}=\text{O}]^{2+}$ open core, changed the spin state from low spin $S = 1$ into high spin $S = 2$, resulting in a million-fold higher reactivity for the C-H cleavage.¹⁵⁹ Similar to mononuclear examples dinuclear non-heme biomimicries also reveal the tendency for higher activity for compounds with high spin $S = 2$.^{159, 170, 177-178}

1.4 Fe-cyclam complexes

Cyclam and its derivatives are well-studied and play a great role in bioinspired chemistry. Crystal structures of iron oxygen intermediates in non-heme complexes were first reported for iron complexes which utilized TMC, as a ligand.^{131, 158} Subsequent studies with cyclam derivatives helps unravelling the debate between homolytic and heterolytic cleavage in the formation of non-heme iron-oxo.^{109, 179-182} Valentine and coworkers discovered the potential of iron complexes, with cyclam and cyclam related ligands catalyzing the epoxidation of alkenes in the presence of hydrogen peroxide in 1991.⁹² Before this discovery no complexes were known, that could convert olefins into the corresponding epoxides with high product yields and stereospecificity. The observed color change in the catalytic reaction initially led to the conclusion that several intermediates are involved in this reaction. An iron(III)-hydroperoxo was mistakenly proposed as the active species without any strong spectroscopic evidence. The lack of activity with alkyl peroxides led to this conclusion, since the O-O bond is stronger in H₂O₂ than in ROOH.¹⁸³ In 2019 Ray, Nam and coworkers were able to trap and characterize spectroscopically the actual active species responsible for olefin epoxidation.¹⁶⁰ They synthesized the active species [(cyclam)Fe^{IV}(O)(CH₃CN)]²⁺ by oxidizing [(cyclam)Fe^{II}]²⁺ with 1.5 eq. sPhIO in acetonitrile at -40 °C. Characterization was completed through means of: (1) UV/Vis spectroscopy, which revealed a typical peak at 737 nm; (2) MS, with point a signal at m/z = 421.08 with the right isotope pattern for the complex with an additional oxygen, shifting two mass units by using sPhI¹⁸O; (3) ¹H-NMR spectroscopy, which exhibited a cis-V cyclam configuration; (4) EXAFS, which demonstrated results typical for S = 1 iron(IV)-oxo complexes; and finally (5) Mössbauer spectroscopy, which was used to validate the S = 1 iron(IV)-oxo species. Addition of cyclohexene to [(cyclam)Fe^{IV}(O)(CH₃CN)]²⁺ at -20 °C caused a

decrease in the intensity of the peak at 737 nm in the electronic spectra, thus confirming the iron(IV)–oxo as the active species.

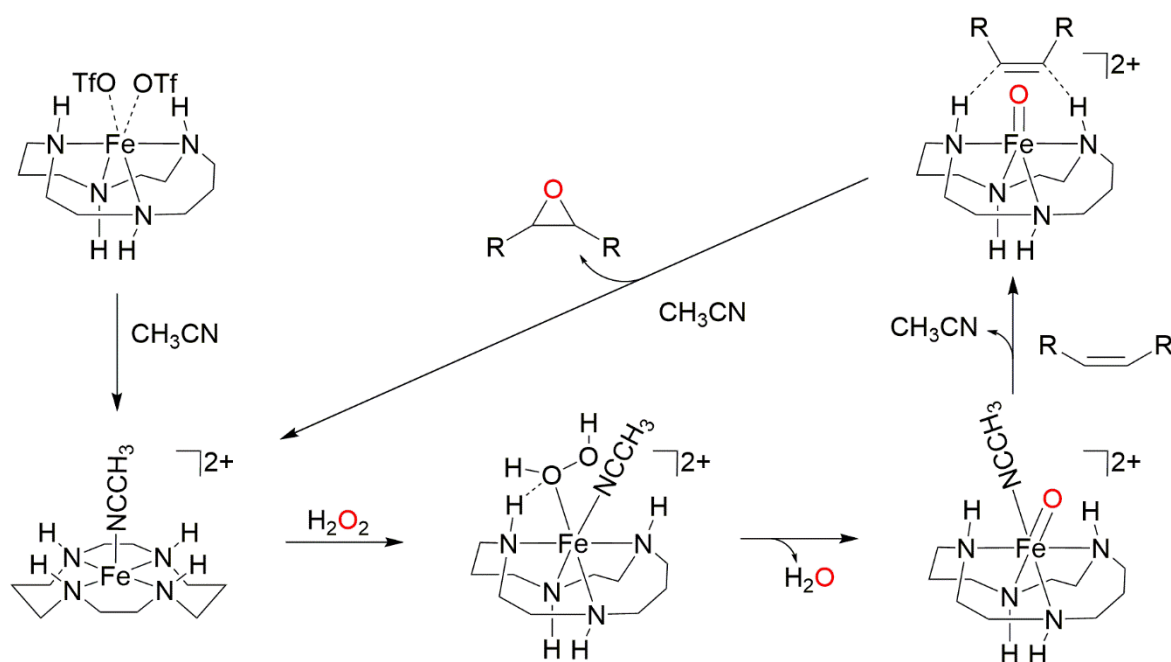


Figure 14 Formation of an iron(IV)–oxo cyclam complex with hydrogen peroxide and epoxidation of alkene showing interaction with N–H.¹⁶⁰

Normally synthetic iron(IV)–oxo compounds prefer allylic oxidation over epoxidation of cyclohexene¹⁸⁴⁻¹⁸⁸ and are often not kinetically competent to perform the rapid oxidation observed in iron-catalyzed epoxidation and hydroxylation reactions such as in biological catalysts.^{10, 75, 142, 170, 189-193} Thus, cyclam represents a key ligand for the investigation of nature chemistry. In a more recent paper, Ray *et al.* were able to crystallize $[(\text{cyclam})\text{Fe}^{\text{IV}}(\text{O})(\text{CH}_3\text{CN})_2]^{2+}$ in trans configuration.¹⁹⁴ Although both species represent an iron(IV)–oxo with the same ligand, the trans configuration exhibits worse reactivity towards oxygen atom transfer (OAT) and HAA than the cis-configuration. Therefore, the cis-configuration can be described as an essential feature for the reactivity in olefin epoxidation. Complexes with TMC exhibit greater stability for the iron(IV)–oxo species than complexes with the non-methylated cyclam.

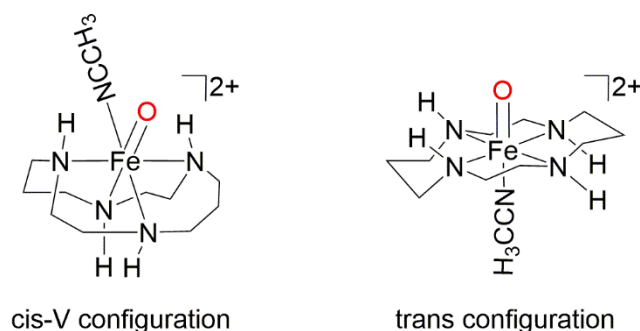


Figure 15 Different configurations observed for $[(\text{cyclam})\text{Fe}^{\text{II}}(\text{O})(\text{CH}_3\text{CN})]^{2+}$.^{160, 194}

This enables the synthesis of this oxo complex with H_2O_2 at $-40\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$, stable for at least 1 month at this temperature. Compared to this, the synthesis of $[(\text{cyclam})\text{Fe}^{\text{II}}(\text{O})(\text{CH}_3\text{CN})]^{2+}$ with hydrogen peroxide instead of sPhIO was only feasible at $-80\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ due to spontaneous decay to bis-(hydroxo)diiron(III) at higher temperatures.¹⁶⁰

Differences are also observed at the formation of the iron-oxo complexes with hydrogen peroxide. Compare to the formation of the cyclam iron-oxo complex the $[(\text{TMC})\text{Fe}^{\text{IV}}=\text{O}]^{2+}$ is very slow with 4 h. The slower formation depends on the absence of H-bonding interaction between N-H and H_2O_2 , which is proposed as an intermediate to the formation of the iron(IV)-oxo species in $[(\text{cyclam})\text{Fe}^{\text{II}}(\text{O})(\text{CH}_3\text{CN})]^{2+}$. It was shown by Que *et al.* that addition of base encourages the hemolytic cleavage to form $[(\text{TMC})\text{Fe}^{\text{II}}(\text{O})(\text{CH}_3\text{CN})]^{2+}$.¹⁹⁵⁻¹⁹⁶ The slower formation with the TMC complexes simplifies the exploration of the mechanism behind this. Nam and coworkers were able to demonstrate the formation of the iron(IV)-oxo via heterolysis after the one-electron reduction from iron(III)- to iron(II)-hydroperoxo.¹⁸⁰

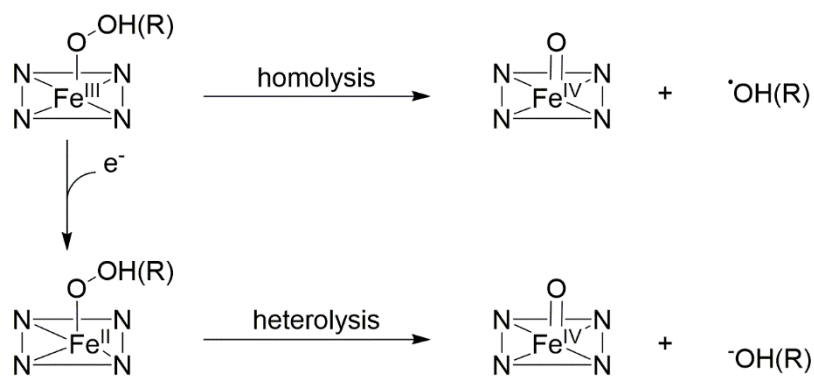


Figure 16 Homolytic and heterolytic cleavage of iron-hydroperoxo in the formation of iron(IV)-oxo.¹⁸⁰

Notably, the differences in reactivity between the methylated versus non-methylated forms is striking. The HAT performed by iron TMC complexes also proceeds two orders of magnitude slower than the cyclam analogue. Olefin epoxidation was only observed for $[(\text{cyclam})\text{Fe}^{\text{II}}(\text{O})(\text{CH}_3\text{CN})]^{2+}$ - the higher reactivity may arise from kinetic and thermodynamic factors.¹⁹⁷

1.5 PDlxCy system

Cyclam and its related derivatives with late transition metals have been used in a variety of biomimetic systems.^{109, 179-182} Ligand system bearing a pendant arm on the macrocyclic ring offers additional application.^{195, 198-199} In 2017 Haas and coworkers presented the first generation of the PDlxCy ligand, which expanded the macrocyclic cyclam by another binding site.²⁰⁰ The pincer site is able to bind a second metal physically connected via the propyl linker to the metal in the cyclam site, but electronically uncoupled. The homobimetallic dinickel and dizinc complexes and the heterobimetallic Ni-Zn, containing Ni in the PDI-site, were synthesized and characterized in this study. (see Figure 17)

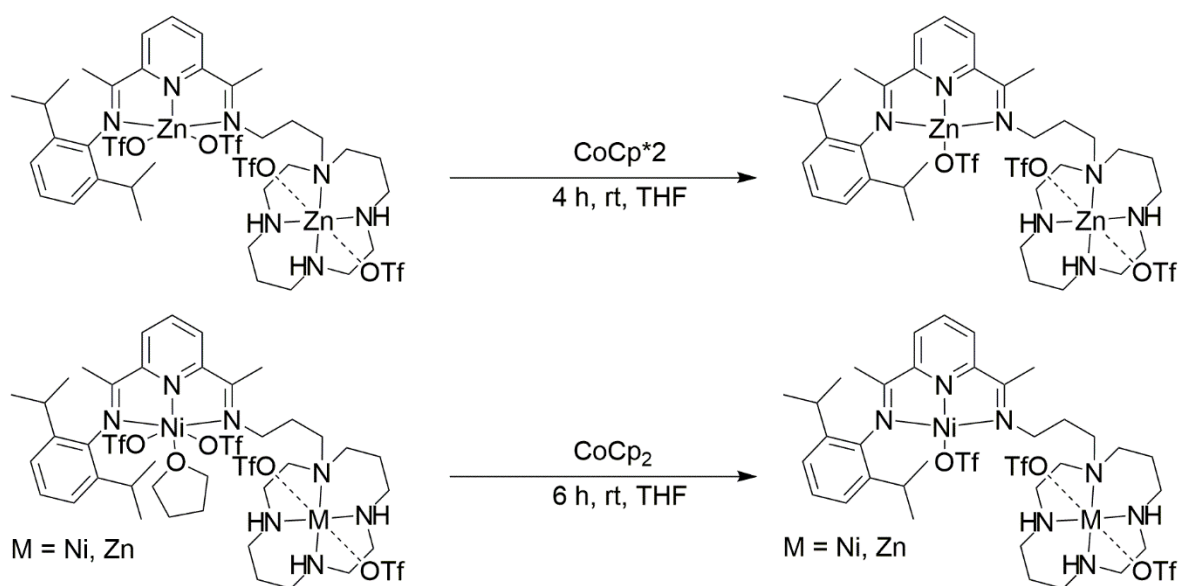


Figure 17 Reduction of the PDlpCy complexes to the charge separated species.²⁰⁰

Haas and coworkers demonstrated the ability to store electrons close to the cyclam site by the redox-active PDI unit in the bimetallic system. Investigation concerning the redox properties involved the one-electron reduction of the complexes chemically. Characterization of the reduced species by UV/vis- and EPR-spectroscopy showed that the one electron reduction of the complexes takes place on the PDI site, and either

as metal-centered or ligand centered reduction can occur with formation of the PDI⁻ radical. This study demonstrated that the unique sites are electronically uncoupled, suggesting the function of either site would not be influenced by the adjacent metal site.

1.6 Pyridine diimine

PDI's represent a well-known class of "non-innocent" ligands that confer additional redox activity to coordination complexes beyond metal-centered oxidation/reduction.²⁰¹ It was shown that PDI can accept up to four electrons via its diimine π^* orbitals, associated with the electron-transfer series, $[\text{PDI}]^0 \rightarrow [\text{PDI}]^{4-}$.²⁰²

Haas *et al.* have already shown that this feature is transferable to the PDIxCy system for the one electron reduction.²⁰⁰ This enhances the redox inactive cyclam with a redox active feature for PDIxCy complexes. Since the reduction of $[(\text{TMC})\text{Fe}^{\text{III}}(\text{O}_2\text{H})]^{2+}$ influences the formation of the iron-oxo species, it is conceivable that the formation of an iron-oxygen intermediate might be influenced by the redox active site, for example activating substrates.

The application of binding a high variety of elements, such as main group elements, transition metal ions, lanthanides and actinides, makes it a versatile supplement in the PDIxCy system,²⁰² offering the possibility for a wide range of dinuclear complexes. Furthermore, it was already shown for cyclam complexes that the coordination of a second metal to the iron-peroxo center affects the catalytic activity for this complex in electron-transfer, electrophilic, and nucleophilic reactions.¹³³ Perhaps forced proximity of the two metals could influence the reactivity further. Also it seems feasible to use the additional metal as anchor for substrates to bind/activate the substrate in close proximity to the active center. Such a system is already reported for dinuclear titan complexes, where one site binds the substrate and the other site activates the oxidant to form the respective epoxide from enones.²⁰³

Complexes of the PDI ligand exhibit a wide range of catalytic activity,²⁰⁴⁻²¹² which might support or might be supported by the activity of the Cy site. The system of PDIxCy was developed in our group to combine the applications of PDI and Cy complexes. Modification in the linker length was carried out to connect both sites in a more compact fashion.

2 RESULTS – PUBLICATIONS

2.1 Structural Differences and Redox Properties of Unsymmetric Diiron PDlxCy Complexes

Andreas J. Hofmann, Christian Jandl, Corinna R. Hess

European Journal of Inorganic Chemistry **2020**, 2020, 499-505.

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This publication presents the synthesis and characterization of homobimetallic complexes $[\text{Fe}_2(\text{PDleCy})(\text{OTf})_4]$ (**1**) and $[\text{Fe}_2(\text{PDIpCy})(\text{THF})(\text{OTf})_4]$ (**2**). Herein we introduce our modified ligand system PDleCy, which connecting the unique binding sites Cy and PDI with an ethyl- instead of a propyl- unit as utilize in PDIpCy. The use of the smaller linker leads to a significant structural change, revealed by crystal structure and ^{19}F -NMR.

Unlike **2** and other PDIpCy complexes,²⁰⁰ **1** exhibits a bridging μ -triflate between the iron ions, observable in the crystal structure shown in Figure 18. The existence of the μ -triflate appearing also in non-coordinating solvents was verified by ^{19}F -NMR. The use of the smaller linker further leads to a smaller metal-to-metal distance of 5.6 Å compare to 8.0 Å, which was observed for **2**. The smaller distance and the performance of the bridging μ -triflate, clearly demonstrates the potential for cooperative substrate interactions for **1**.

The iron centers of **1** and **2** are high-spin, which are electronically uncoupled as verified by Mössbauer and magnetic susceptibility measurements (SQUID) in the solid. Based on Evan's method the magnetic susceptibilities of **1** and **2** in solution decrease with lower temperature from 7.0 μ_{B} (**1**) and 7.1 μ_{B} (**2**) to 5.8 μ_{B} (**1**) and 5.7 μ_{B} (**2**). Also the

electronic spectra of **1** and **2** show temperature dependency in acetonitrile (MeCN), noticeable by a significant increase of the extinction coefficient at lower temperature. Since the magnetic susceptibilities are constant between -20 °C and 90 °C, the origin of the spectral changes could not be due to that.

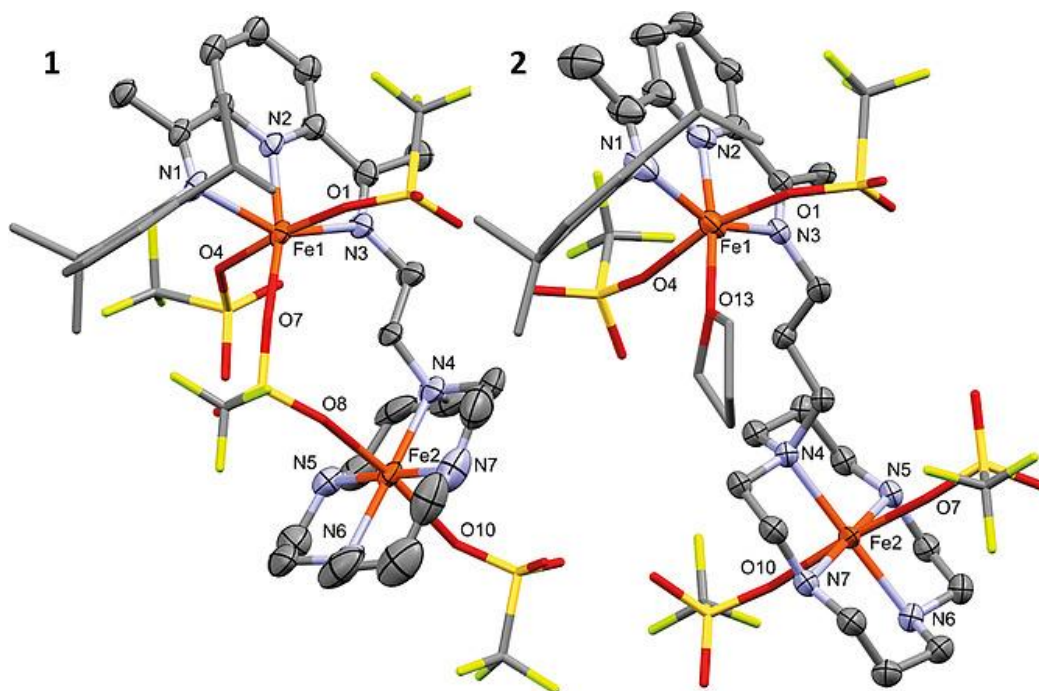


Figure 18 Molecular structure of **1** (left) and **2** (right) in the solid state (50 % probability ellipsoids). Hydrogen atoms, solvent molecules and partial disorder are omitted for clarity. Reprint with permission.²¹³

Additionally, redox properties were determined for both complexes. Two electron reduction of **1** was carried out chemically and electrochemically. The similarity in the electronic spectra towards two electron reduced monometallic iron complexes with PDI ligand²¹⁴ indicate that a formal “Fe_{PDI}⁰” site exists alongside an Fe_{Cy}^{II} center. This property might be helpful for reactivity toward multi-electron processes.

2.2 Neighbouring effects on catalytic epoxidation by Fe-cyclam in M_2 -PDIxCy complexes

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Three more complexes with the PDleCy ligand were synthesized and characterized, $[Zn_{PDI}Fe_{CY}(PDleCy)(OTf)_4]$, $[Fe_{PDI}Zn_{CY}(PDleCy)(OTf)_4]$ and $[Zn_2(PDleCy)(OTf)_4]$ (Figure 18; **3**, **4** and **5**, respectively). Based on the synthesis of Fe-Zn-PDleCy we were able to demonstrate, for the first time, the ability to control the metalation of the individual coordination sites in this system. Crystal structures obtained for **4** and **5** proves that the bridging ligand is a common feature of all PDleCy structures.²¹³

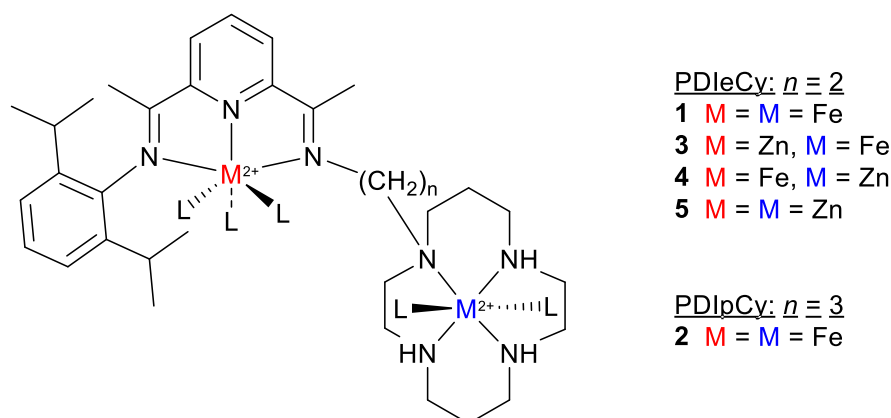


Figure 19 PDIxCy complexes used for oxidation catalysis. Reprint with permission.²¹⁵

The reactivity of **1** - **5** toward olefin epoxidation was examined and compared to the monometallic complex $[Fe(Cy)(OTf)_2]$.⁹² **1** - **3**, containing iron in the cyclam site, show activity towards olefin epoxidation, while **4** and **5** are inactive for this kind of oxidation chemistry. This indicates that the iron cyclam unit is the active center and that the PDI-site alone is inert. Treatment of **3** with two equivalents of hydrogen peroxide at $-80\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ in acetone leads to a band in the electronic spectrum similar to the bands for

$[\text{Fe}^{\text{IV}}\text{O}(\text{Cy})(\text{OTf})_2]$,¹⁶⁰ indicate an iron(IV)–oxo at the cyclam site to be the active species. This explains the similar behavior to $[\text{Fe}(\text{Cy})(\text{OTf})_2]$ towards olefin epoxidation. The bimetallic PDIxCy complexes show an increase in activity toward α,β -unsaturated ketones. Since neither **4** nor **5** show any activity towards epoxidation, the enhancement is not due to activity of the PDI site. Our current hypothesis for the greater activity of the bimetallic PDIxCy complexes toward α,β -unsaturated ketones is that the adjacent M-PDI unit likewise binds the substrate carbonyl group, bringing the alkene group in close proximity to an iron(IV)–oxo at the cyclam site.

3 CONCLUSION AND OUTLOOK

In conclusion we modified the PDIpCy ligand system by its linker length to the more compact PDleCy. Characterization of homo- and heterobimetallic complexes of both systems reveals significant differences between the complexes of PDleCy and PDIpCy. The smaller distance in the ligand backbone enables triflate to perform as additional bridging ligand between the metal ions, which was observed in the crystal structures of the PDleCy complexes. Based on ^{19}F -NMR it was verified that the μ -triflate also persist in non-coordinating solvents. This demonstrates the potential for cooperative substrate interactions in complexes containing the smaller linker.

The influence of the second site could be already shown for PDIxCy complexes towards the epoxidation of α,β -unsaturated ketones. Hereby the PDI site operates as anchor for the electron deficient substrates, while the Cy act as oxidant. Further it was shown that the PDI site on its own is inert to oxidation reaction.

The selective metalation developed in this work was beneficial to understand the different roles played by the Cy and PDI site in oxidation catalysis.

This method could be used to synthesize a series of heterobimetallic complexes by placing different metals in the PDI site. This opens the door for more complexes with a wide range of activity and enables us to determine trends and unravel the mechanism behind these reactions.

It seems feasible that in other PDIxCy systems the PDI site could interact with the iron–oxygen intermediate directly, which would affects the catalytic activity as shown for $[(\text{TMC})\text{Fe}^{\text{III}}(\text{O}_2)]^+$,¹³³ or could enhance the formation of the iron–oxo species by contributing an electron.¹⁸⁰ The close proximity of the two metals might affect the activity further.

Access to a wide range of redox states through the combination of the redox active PDI with the redox inactive Cy part enables the formation of a two-electron separated species, and bodes promise for reactivity toward other multi-electron processes, such as CO₂ and hydrogen activation.²¹¹⁻²¹² In this case the PDI site acts as an active center and the Cy part would play a supporting role, for example as a Lewis acid.

4 REPRINT PERMISSIONS

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“Structural Differences and Redox Properties of Unsymmetric Diiron PDIXCy Complexes”


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