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New Developments in Nitrogen Fixation

Felix Tuczek* and Nicolai Lehnert

The prospect of producing ammonia from dinitrogen at room temperature and ambient pressure in analogy to nature has fascinated coordination chemists for a long time. Modeling the conditions present in the enzyme with low-molecular weight compounds, however, is extremely difficult in this case. So far, the iron–molybdenum cofactor (FeMoco), which is the center of bonding and reduction of dinitrogen in the enzyme nitrogenase,^[1] has not been synthesized.^[2] Furthermore, this cofactor does not bind N₂ in isolated form. It therefore appears more promising to realize a catalytic cycle based on the mono- and binuclear transition metal N₂ compounds that give NH₃ or N₂H₄ upon protonation. On the other hand, a “biomimetic” approach is important for understanding aspects of the function of the enzyme on a molecular level.^[3] The results of these two different research directions, however, have always been considered as closely related.

Through coordination to one or more metal centers, the dinitrogen ligand, which is extremely inert in free form, acquires a different degree of “activation” (Figure 1).^[4] In principle, systems suitable for protonation reactions are those with “moderate” to “strong” activation as well as compounds which cleave the N₂ molecule upon coordination. However, if the aim is to achieve relevance to the biological process, “mild” conditions are important. “Nonactivated” systems, although not protonable, may also provide information fundamental to an understanding of the metal–N₂ bond. Besides the two mentioned, central problems, “nitrogen fixation” also involves reactions of the dinitrogen ligand or its partly reduced, complex-bound derivatives leading to the incorporation of nitrogen from N₂ into (mostly organic) compounds. Recently, there has been important progress in each of these areas, which will be reported here in the order of increasing activation of N₂.

N₂-containing systems in which the N–N distances are similar to that in free dinitrogen are termed “nonactivated”

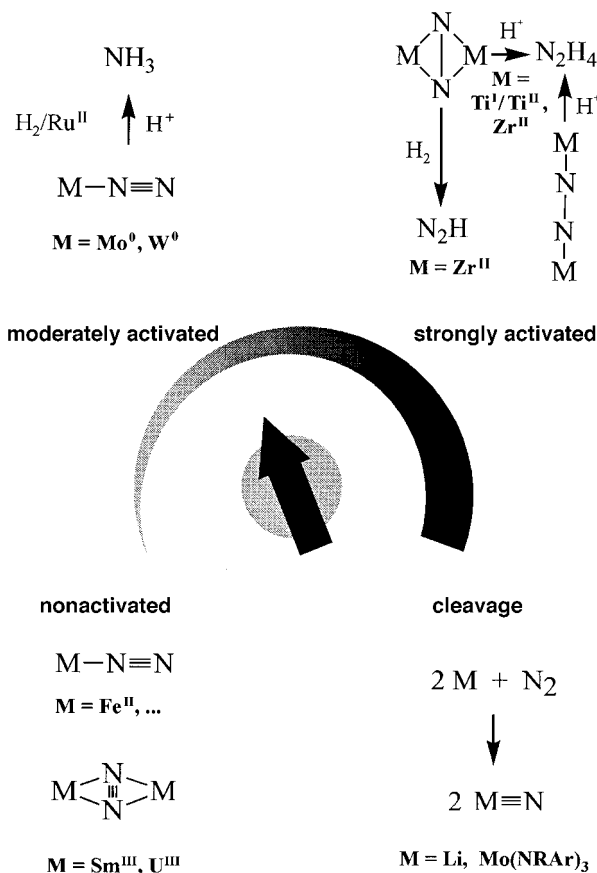


Figure 1. “Tuning” the activation of the N₂ ligand by the choice of the coordinating metal. The activation scale may be divided into four regimes; typical representatives mentioned in the text are indicated. The arrow points to the minimal degree of activation necessary for protonation.

and are found among compounds exhibiting an *end-on* coordination of N₂ to transition metals, for example Fe^{II}. It appears that there is now a further bonding mode possible in this category: the nonactivating *side-on* coordination to lanthanide and actinide centers. Up to now, this bonding mode had been known only for a Sm^{III} complex.^[5] The recent isolation and structural characterization of the *side-on* N₂-bridged complex $[U(NN'_3)_2(\mu-\eta^2:\eta^2-N_2)]$ (NN'₃ = N(CH₂

[*] Dr. habil. F. Tuczek, Dipl.-Chem. N. Lehnert
 Institut für Anorganische und Analytische Chemie der Universität
 Staudingerweg 9, D-55099 Mainz (Germany)
 Fax: (+ 49) 6131-39-2990
 E-mail: Tuczek@iacgu7.chemie.uni-mainz.de

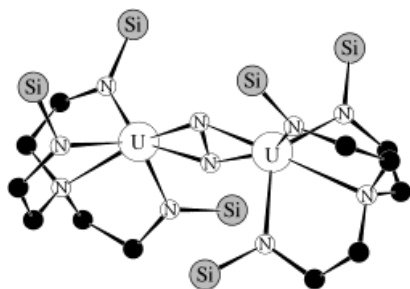


Figure 2. The complex $[\{U(NN'_3)_2(\mu-\eta^2:\eta^2-N_2)\}]$ ($NN'_3 = N(CH_2CH_2NSi-BuMe_2)_3$); the terminal residues on the silyl groups are omitted for clarity.

$CH_2NSiBuMe_2)_3$; Figure 2), however, proved that actinides are also able to bind dinitrogen in this geometry.^[6] The N–N distance of 1.109(7) Å is comparable to that in free N_2 (1.0975 Å). This is in sharp contrast to the *side-on*- or *edge-on*-bridged complexes of the early transition metals such as titanium and zirconium which belong to the most highly activated N_2 compounds (see below). While the reduction of N_2 in these systems is caused by electron donation from the metals into the *antibonding* π^* orbitals of this ligand (Figure 3), the *side-on* coordination in the lanthanide and actinide systems is probably due to a σ -donor interaction of the *bonding* π^b orbital. The exact nature of this bond,

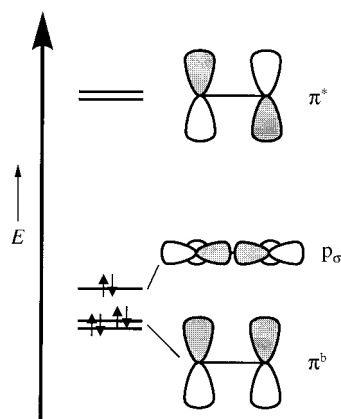
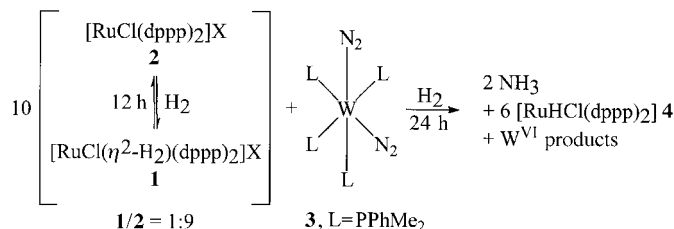


Figure 3. Frontier orbitals of the N_2 molecule.

however, is as yet not entirely understood. As the *side-on* mode is preferred over the much more common *end-on* coordination, the σ -donor interaction of p_σ with the metal must be energetically less favorable than the *side-on* coordination through π^b (Figure 3). Possibly this is a consequence of the extremely weak σ -donor capability of the N_2 ligand through p_σ which is also known from the complexes of the d-block metals.

“Moderately activated” systems are those which are protonable, but do not exhibit drastically increased N–N bond lengths (or lowered N–N stretching frequencies) over free N_2 . Among this category are the *trans* and *cis*-dinitrogenmolybdenum and -tungsten complexes, some of which give NH_3 with mineral acids. In other cases, well-defined, complex-bound intermediates N_2H_x ($x = 1-3$) of the protonation to NH_3 can be isolated.^[7-9] This chemistry, which is probably most relevant to nitrogenase, has now been extended by Hidai and co-workers who effected the protonation of the complex-

bound N_2 not with mineral acids but with a H_2 complex, *trans*- $[RuCl(\eta^2-H_2)(dppp)_2]X$ (**1**) ($dppp = 1,2$ -bis(diphenylphosphanyl)propane; $X = PF_6, BF_4, OTf(OSO_2CF_3), BPh_4$).^[10] The H_2 complex **1** is slowly generated in situ from $[RuCl(dppp)_2]X$ (**2**) under H_2 (1 atm); compounds **1** and **2** are present under equilibrium conditions in the ratio 1:9 (Scheme 1). The N_2



Scheme 1. Synthesis of **1** (from **2**) and its reaction with **3** to give **4** and NH_3 .

complex *cis*- $[W(N_2)_2(PMe_2Ph)_4]$ (**3**) reacts with a ninefold excess of this mixture under H_2 to give two equivalents of NH_3 . In the most favorable case a 55 % yield with respect to tungsten is achieved. The reaction mixture also contains $[RuHCl(dppp)_2]$ (**4**) as well as free PMe_2Ph -ligand. Since **4** does not bind H_2 , however, the reaction cannot be made cyclic with respect to hydrogen.

Of particular interest with regard to this reaction is the problem of how the formation of the N–H bond proceeds: does the ruthenium– H_2 complex act as a metal acid; that is, is the N_2 ligand protonated in analogy to the reactions with mineral acids, or is there an initial, direct interaction between N_2 and H_2 mediated by the metal? The first possibility is supported by the fact that the H_2 complex **1** is markedly acidic ($pK_a = 4.4$). With a similar compound, protonation of the N_2 ligand in *trans*- $[W(N_2)_2(dppe)_2]$ (**5**) to the “hydrazido(2–)” stage had been evidenced before ($dppe = 1,2$ -bis(diphenylphosphanyl)ethane).^[11] This reaction as well as further reduction of “hydrazido(2–)” to NH_3 can likewise be achieved with the mixture of **1** and **2**. Also in favor of a close mechanistic relationship between the protonation with mineral acids and the Ru^{II} -mediated reaction with H_2 is the observation that the nature of the counterion X strongly influences the yield of NH_3 . Finally, the presence of free phosphane in the reaction mixture indicates that in the later stages of the protonation reaction phosphane ligands are lost as well. The alternative mechanism, N–H bond formation through interaction between N_2 and H_2 , has recently been demonstrated by Fryzuk et al. for a $Zr^{II} \mu-\eta^2:\eta^2-N_2$ complex.^[12] In contrast to the reaction system of Nishibayashi et al., which requires *two* different metal centers for bonding and activation of N_2 and H_2 , both molecules are bound to *one* complex in this case. However, the N_2 *side-on*- or *edge-on*-coordinating Zr^{II} and Ti^{II}/Ti^{III} complexes belong to the “strongly activated” systems (Figure 1);^[13] besides the arrangement of both molecules in one ligand sphere, this high degree of activation certainly contributes to facilitating the reaction between N_2 and H_2 .

If the reaction of the *cis* tungsten complex **3** with the mixture of **1** and **2** under H_2 (1 atm) is carried out in the presence of acetone, acetone-azine $Me_2C=N-N=CMe_2$ is

formed. It also should be possible to initiate other reactions of the Mo/W–N₂H_x complexes by protonation of the N₂ precursors with the H₂/Ru^{II} system. Recently, Mori et al. reported an alternative to incorporate nitrogen into organic substrates.^[14] A solution of a Ti^{IV} compound TiX₄ (X = Cl, OiPr) in THF was stirred with an excess of trimethylsilyl chloride (TMSCl) and Li under dry air for 24 h, hydrolyzed with 10% HCl, and made basic with K₂CO₃. If, for example, PhCOCl was added to this mixture, PhCONH₂ was obtained in 88% yield. N-heterocycles can also be synthesized in this way. The authors assume that intermediates of the type [TiX_m{N(TMS)_n}_o] are formed. Thus, the catalytic function of titanium would not be involved in a fixation or activation of N₂, but rather in a bonding of amide which results from an initial cleavage of N₂ by lithium. Interestingly, the related formation of nitride from N₂ by transition metal complexes has been evidenced only recently.^[15] These N₂-cleaving systems mark the upper end of the activation scale (Figure 1).

What is the significance of the reported studies with respect to the two goals mentioned initially, the understanding of nitrogenase activity and the realization of a corresponding catalytic cycle in vitro? First these results deepen our knowledge about the metal–N₂ bond and its reactivity as a function of the metal center. Both *side-on* and *end-on* coordination, which are both candidates for the bonding of N₂ to FeMoco, may lead to very strong or no activation at all depending on the coordinating metal center. The reaction of the complex-bound N₂ molecule with H₂ is novel and this molecule may also be activated by coordination to a transition metal center. Finally, further progress has been made to understand the reactivity of the complex-bound N₂ molecule beyond protonation. All of these findings are relevant to the investigation of the nitrogenase function. In terms of the goal of transforming one of the most inert molecules at ambient

conditions in chemical reactions, nitrogen fixation continues to play a pioneering role. The vision remains of integrating in particular the protonation to NH₃ into a catalytic cycle.

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