Nitric Oxide Reactivity and Unusual Redox Properties of Biomimetic Iron-Sulfur Clusters with Alternative Cluster Ligands

Dissertation

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Table of Contents

1 Introduction .................................................................................................................. 1
   1.1 Evolution of life and the discovery of iron-sulfur clusters ........................................... 1
   1.2 Natural iron-sulfur clusters ......................................................................................... 2
       1.2.1 Structure .............................................................................................................. 2
       1.2.2 Biogenesis ............................................................................................................ 4
       1.2.3 Function of iron-sulfur clusters in organisms ...................................................... 5
   1.3 Synthetic analogues ................................................................................................. 13
   1.4 Iron-sulfur clusters and nitric oxide .......................................................................... 16
       1.4.1 Nitric oxide as vital messenger molecule and cytotoxic effector ..................... 16
       1.4.2 Iron-sulfur-nitrosyl complexes .......................................................................... 16
       1.4.3 Nitrosylation of natural iron-sulfur clusters ....................................................... 18
       1.4.4 Nitrosylation of biomimetic iron-sulfur clusters ............................................... 21
   1.5 Summary and conclusion .......................................................................................... 24

2 Nitrosylation of [2Fe–2S] clusters in their diferrie, mixed-valent, and protonated state .. 25
   2.1 Introduction and objective ....................................................................................... 25
   2.2 Nitrosylation of diferrie homoleptic coordinated [2Fe–2S] clusters ......................... 27
       2.2.1 UV-vis and IR spectroscopy .............................................................................. 27
       2.2.2 NMR spectroscopy ......................................................................................... 29
       2.2.3 Crystal structures of $33^-$ and $34^-$ .............................................................. 30
       2.2.4 EPR and Mössbauer spectroscopy .................................................................. 31
   2.3 Nitrosylation of mixed-valent [2Fe–2S] clusters ........................................................ 33
       2.3.1 Nitrosylation of $29^-$ ....................................................................................... 33
       2.3.2 Nitrosylation of $30^-$ ....................................................................................... 40
   2.4 Nitrosylation of protonated clusters $29H_2$ and $30H_2$ ......................................... 41
       2.4.1 Reaction of $29H_2$ with NO ............................................................................ 41
       2.4.2 Reaction of $30H_2$ with NO ............................................................................ 42
   2.5 Nitrosylation of protonated mixed-valent $29H$ ....................................................... 43
   2.6 Summary and conclusion .......................................................................................... 44

3 Protonation and deprotonation of DNICs ..................................................................... 46
   3.1 Introduction and objective ....................................................................................... 47
   3.2 Experimental results ............................................................................................... 47
       3.2.1 IR spectroscopy ................................................................................................. 47
       3.2.2 Mössbauer spectroscopy ............................................................................... 49
       3.2.3 Summary ........................................................................................................... 50
   3.3 DFT calculations ..................................................................................................... 50
       3.3.1 Background ....................................................................................................... 50
       3.3.2 Geometry optimization and IR spectra of $33^-$ and $34^-$ ............................... 50
       3.3.3 Mössbauer parameters of $33^-$ and $34^-$ and their protonated forms .......... 52
4 Cubane-type [4Fe–4S] cluster with one pentacoordinate iron ion

4.1 Introduction and objective ............................................................. 57
4.2 Synthesis .................................................................................. 59
4.3 Structural characterization of \( \text{Fe}_{2} \text{S}_{2} \) ........................................... 59
  4.3.1 Mössbauer spectroscopy of solid sample and in frozen solution .......... 60
  4.3.2 UV-vis spectroscopy ............................................................... 63
  4.3.3 NMR spectroscopy ................................................................. 64
  4.3.4 Cyclic voltammetry ................................................................. 65
4.4 Conclusion .................................................................................. 66

5 Oxidation of \( \text{Fe}_{2} \text{S}_{2} \) with dioxygen and \( \rho \)-benzoquinone

5.1 Introduction and objective ............................................................. 67
5.2 Reaction of \( \text{Fe}_{2} \text{S}_{2} \) with dioxygen .................................................. 68
5.3 Equivalents of oxidant ................................................................. 75
5.4 Conclusion .................................................................................. 80

6 Protonation of 5,6-Dithia-1,10-phenanthroline, its application as disulfide/dithiol switch, and as ligand for \([2\text{Fe}–2\text{S}] \) clusters ..................................................................... 83

6.1 Introduction and objective ............................................................. 83
6.2 Synthesis of the ligand ................................................................. 85
6.3 UV-vis titration of 41 with PhCOOH, TFA and TfOH in MeCN .............. 86
6.4 S–S bond cleavage mechanism: the disulfide/dithiol switch .................. 88
6.5 Preliminary application as a chelate ligand for \([2\text{Fe}–2\text{S}] \) clusters .......... 94
6.6 Conclusion and Outlook ............................................................... 95

7 Experimental Section ...................................................................... 97

7.1 Author contributions ................................................................... 97
7.2 Materials and methods ............................................................... 97
7.3 Synthesis .................................................................................... 99
  7.3.1 Fe–S clusters ..................................................................... 99
  7.3.2 DNICS .............................................................................. 101
  7.3.3 3,3′-Disulfur-2,2′-bipyridine ................................................. 101
7.4 DFT calculations ...................................................................... 105

8 Appendix ....................................................................................... 107

8.1 Benchmark substances for X-ray spectroscopy of iron-sulfur clusters .... 107
8.2 Supplementary spectra and information ......................................... 108

9 Literature .................................................................................... 119
Abbreviations ........................................................................................................... 130
Curriculum Vitae ......................................................................................................... 133
Acknowledgements ..................................................................................................... 136
1 Introduction

1.1 Evolution of life and the discovery of iron-sulfur clusters

Iron-sulfur clusters are ubiquitous and essential prosthetic groups found in bacteria, plants, animals, and archaea. Their structural versatility allows them to fulfill various tasks in organisms, e.g. electron transfer, substrate binding/activation, and iron or sulfur storage.\(^1\)

*Evolution*

Iron-sulfur clusters are arguably one of the oldest cofactors and they are believed to be of fundamental importance to the evolution of pioneer organisms in volcanic vents. According to the *Iron-Sulfur World* theory,\(^2,3\) these organisms were composed of an organic superstructure and an inorganic substructure which supported the development of the organic superstructure by chemoautotrophy. Carbon fixation was performed at catalytic active metal centers, in which iron was the most abundant transition metal under the reducing potential of the volcanic exhalation. Dissolved ferrous ions underwent sulfidation in an anaerobic, volcanic environment to produce ferrous sulfide (FeS) which in turn ultimately formed pyrite (FeS\(_2\)), the most stable mineral under those conditions. Additionally, pyrite could have provided reducing power to the pioneer organisms.

The *Iron-Sulfur World* theory is promoted by two discoveries. Firstly, it is possible to imitate the reaction *in vitro* by carbon fixation from activated acetic acid on nickel and iron sulfide, (Ni,Fe)S, under primordial conditions.\(^4\) Secondly, the universal redox carrier in living organisms, nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide (NAD\(^+\)) and nicotinamide dinucleotide phosphate (NADP), are not stable at high temperatures and therefore they had not been available for ancient thermophile organisms. These organisms relied on nonheme iron proteins instead.\(^5\) Recently published results by Mansy and coworkers describe the synthesis of [2Fe–2S] and [4Fe–4S] clusters through photooxidation of ferrous ions and photolysis of organic thiols.\(^6\)

*Discovery and scientific progress*

Although iron-sulfur clusters are one of the oldest prosthetic groups and abundant in all life forms, they were discovered only in the second half of the 20\(^{th}\) century by EPR spectroscopy.\(^7\) Beinert and Sands detected the famous hallmark “\(g = 1.94\) signal” in mitochondrial membranes in 1960.\(^8\) At that time, the source of the signal was unclear and
Introduction

controversially discussed in the scientific community. Analytical determination revealed that the proteins only constitute of iron, cysteinate and inorganic, “acid-labile” sulfur atoms. Six years later, Gibson et al. resolved the dispute by explaining the signal with two iron ions that are antiferromagnetically coupled over a sulfur bridge. Other spectroscopic methods were used to elucidate the structure and electronic properties of iron sulfur proteins, including magnetic susceptibility, electron-nuclear double-resonance (ENDOR), Mössbauer spectroscopy, and crystal structures from X-ray diffraction.

During the 1970’s, a significant leap in iron-sulfur cluster research was obtained by Holm and coworkers using synthetic analogues. While model clusters share all basic features with protein-bound clusters, they are unfortunately not stable in aqueous solution or aerobic conditions. Nevertheless, synthetic analogues contributed greatly to the elucidation of the electronic structure of their natural counterparts and offer a reasonable approach to the investigation of general properties of iron-sulfur clusters.

1.2 Natural iron-sulfur clusters

1.2.1 Structure

The simplest iron-sulfur center, rubredoxin (1, Figure 1.1), consists of only one iron atom that is ligated by four deprotonated cysteine amino acid sidechains from the polypeptide protein backbone in distorted tetrahedral coordination. The name rubredoxin pays tribute to the strong red color due to a ligand to metal charge transfer (LMCT) from the thiolate ligand to the ferric ion. The color bleaches upon reduction to ferrous iron. Rubredoxins are exceptional in the iron-sulfur cluster family because their structural motif excludes “acid-labile”, inorganic sulfides. All clusters of higher nuclearity have bridging sulfides that impact the clusters’ electronic properties greatly. The cluster core of ferredoxins is constituted of either two iron ions and two sulfides, [2Fe–2S] (2), or four iron ions and four sulfides, [4Fe–4S] (4). These prosthetic groups are dubbed ferredoxins because of the iron content and their predominant role as redox carriers in electron transport chains. [4Fe–4S] clusters have a cube-like structure in which four corners that are opposed to each other are occupied by an iron ion and the others by sulfide. When iron is formally removed from one corner, the also biologically relevant cuboidal-type [3Fe–4S] (3b) cluster is formed. Interconversion between a linear and a cuboidal [3Fe–4S] clusters was observed in mitochondrial aconitase when exposed to urea or a pH higher than 9. [4Fe–4S] clusters can be converted into [2Fe–2S] clusters under physiological conditions. Iron-sulfur
clusters with higher nuclearity are generated through metal substitution in specialized enzymes or merging of simpler iron-sulfur clusters.\textsuperscript{15}

Iron-sulfur clusters are most commonly ligated by cysteine; other ligands reported include histidine, aspartate, arginine, serine, or the amide groups of peptides.\textsuperscript{16} These alternative ligands modify the redox potential (Rieske, 2\textsuperscript{a})\textsuperscript{17}, gate electron transport\textsuperscript{18} or couple proton and electron transport (2\textsuperscript{a} and 2\textsuperscript{b}).\textsuperscript{19,20}

Figure 1.1. Common structural motifs in natural iron-sulfur clusters.
1.2.2 Biogenesis

In 1966, Malkin and Rabinowitz reported that certain apoforms of [2Fe–2S] and [4Fe–4S] proteins can be activated \textit{in vitro} by the simple addition of $S^2-$ and Fe$^{2+/3+}$ ions.\textsuperscript{22} However, biogenesis of FeS proteins is a complex and delicate process in living cells rather than spontaneous self-assembly. Cluster maturation is catalysed by dedicated enzymatic multicomponent systems, namely the NIF (nitrogen fixation), ISC (iron–sulfur cluster) and SUF (sulfur assimilation) machineries in prokaryotes.\textsuperscript{23–26} The NIF system deals with maturation of nitrogenase in nitrogen-fixing bacteria and maturation of general Fe–S proteins in some anaerobic organisms lacking nitrogenase. The ISC machinery is found in $\alpha$-, $\beta$- and $\gamma$-proteobacteria and in mitochondria. SUF is present in the majority of prokaryotes and in chloroplasts. \textit{E. coli}, as member of the Enterobacteriaceae family, possesses both, the ISC and SUF machinery. ISC operates under normal conditions, while the SUF machinery subs in when the cell is under oxidative stress or suffers from iron starvation. Fe–S cluster biogenesis is more complex in eukaryotes because it combines ISC and CIA (Cytoplasmic Iron–Sulfur Protein Assembly).\textsuperscript{27–29} The CIA machinery is responsible for the assembly of cytosolic and nuclear Fe–S proteins while ISC matures Fe–S clusters in mitochondria. The cytoplasmic CIA depends on the mitochondrial ISC and export machineries.\textsuperscript{30}

The importance of Fe–S clusters to life is stressed by mitosoms which reduced their genome content by evolution as far as possible. They still have the ISC machinery, although they cannot even produce ATP by themselves.\textsuperscript{31} On the other hand, Takahashi and coworkers reported recently of \textit{E. coli} mutants that can survive without Fe–S cluster assembly.\textsuperscript{32}

\begin{figure}[h]
\centering
\includegraphics[width=\textwidth]{simplified_model}
\caption{Simplified model for the biogenesis of iron–sulfur clusters.}
\end{figure}

In general, the ISC assembly consists of two parts (Figure 1.2). The first part is the \textit{de novo} synthesis of a Fe–S cluster on a scaffold protein. A desulfurase releases the sulfur from a cysteine as a persulfide/hydrodisulfide which is transferred to the scaffold protein. Electrons are provided via ferredoxin and ferredoxin reductase for the reduction from $S^0$ in
the cysteine to $S^{2-}$ in the cluster. The iron ions are delivered by specific iron donors. The cluster is bound to the scaffold protein in a labile fashion by conserved cysteine residues as a [2Fe–2S] cluster. The intermediate [2Fe–2S] cluster can be transformed later into [4Fe–4S] clusters or clusters of higher nuclearity by a dedicated set of ISC machinery. In the second part of the cluster assembly, the labile Fe–S cluster is transferred to the target apoprotein by chaperones or transfer proteins. The transfer proteins are essential in living cells to promote an accurate and specific transport to the correct acceptor site. Finally, the holoprotein is assembled into the polypeptide chain.

In 2017, Adams and coworkers published the discovery that the protein IssA stores iron and sulfur as thioferrate (Figure 1.3) in metalloprotein complexes with a diameter of up to 300 nm. It was shown that thioferrate can provide the iron and sulfur units necessary to reconstruct [4Fe–4S] clusters in ferredoxin \textit{in vitro}.\textsuperscript{33}

![Figure 1.3. Structure of the inorganic polymer thioferrate.](image)

As Fe–S proteins are essential to several processes in cells, shortcomings in the biogenesis thereof are linked to several fatal diseases most of which have an impact on the whole organism. Common features are, firstly, that all diseases are rare with a prominent mitochondrial phenotype because the ISC biogenesis is crucial for mammalian cells to survive. Secondly, tissues demanding high energy are primarily affected, e.g. neurons, muscles, heart tissues. Thirdly, iron dysregulation is always implicated. This means that mitochondrial iron accumulation/deposit is a key feature of these diseases. The best researched disease is Friedreich’s ataxia, but others include microcytic anaemia and erythropoietic protoporphyria.\textsuperscript{34,35}

1.2.3 Function of iron-sulfur clusters in organisms\textsuperscript{36}

\textit{Iron-sulfur clusters as electron carriers: unique and tunable redox properties}

Generally, metal ions are more versatile than organic redox molecules in regard to redox behavior. The reduction potential is strongly dependent on the coordination sphere around the cluster, but also hydrogen bonding with peptides and water has a strong influence on the reduction potential. This can be seen by the wide range of redox potentials (–700 to 450 mV vs. SHE)\textsuperscript{16} covered by iron-sulfur proteins (Figure 1.4).\textsuperscript{37} Iron-sulfur clusters are
well suitable for biological electron transport because they can delocalize electron density 
over both iron and sulfur atoms, as the Fe–S bonds are rather covalent. The reorganization 
energy is comparatively small due to metal-ligand covalency and valence delocalization 
when iron is reduced or oxidized. This allows for a very fast electron transfer. There is a 
much smaller change in the total electron density on the iron than is indicated by the formal 
valence difference.

Examples for iron-sulfur clusters involved in electron transfer are ferredoxins in the 
respiratory chain in complexes I, II, and III. In these proteins, the clusters form a wire that 
delivers electrons one at a time between redox couples that are physically separated. Only 
few unique Fe–S clusters such as the double-cubane [8Fe–7S] cluster of nitrogenase have 
the potential to act as two electron carrier under physiological conditions.

![Figure 1.4. Experimental ranges of redox potentials of various iron-sulfur proteins.](image)

The most common metal oxidation levels of iron–sulfur clusters include Fe$^{2+}$ and Fe$^{3+}$ ions 
as seen in rubredoxin (Figure 1.5, a) or a mixture thereof in clusters with higher nuclearity. 
The electronic structure and distribution of charge can be determined with EPR, ENDOR, 
Mössbauer, and MCD spectroscopy. A summary of the most common oxidation states of 
rubredoxins and ferredoxins is depicted in Figure 1.5.
In the case of the diferric \([2\text{Fe–}2\text{S}]\) clusters, two \(\text{Fe}^{3+}\) ions with a spin of \(5/2\) couple antiferromagnetically resulting in an overall spin \(S = 0\). When the cluster is reduced the electron can either be localized on one iron ion (Figure 1.5, b) or is delocalized over both iron ions leading to an oxidation state of +2.5 each (Figure 1.5, c). The latter was observed in a mutant form of \textit{Clostridium pasteurianum} ferredoxin in which one cysteine residue was exchanged for serine.\(^4\) The result is a mixed-valence state with parallel spins and \(S = 9/2\). Case b can be easily distinguished from c, as it gives a typical EPR signal at \(g = 1.94\).

The core of \([4\text{Fe–}4\text{S}]\) ferredoxins has a charge of +2 in their resting state (Figure 1.5, d middle). They are composed of two mixed-valence pairs antiferromagnetically coupled to each other resulting in \(S = 0\). When this cluster is reduced by one electron, two ferrous iron ions couple ferromagnetically to \(S = 4\) and a mixed-valence pair couples to \(S = 9/2\). The two pairs then again couple antiferromagnetically resulting in overall \(S = 1/2\). All-ferrous clusters have been reported, however, they are not naturally occurring.\(^12,41,42\) \([4\text{Fe–}4\text{S}]^{3+}\) is the resting state of the so called high-potential iron proteins (HiPIPs) with one mixed-valence pair and one pair with two ferric ions.\(^43\) The electron can also tunnel to the other
HiPIPs are small globular proteins with little to no secondary structure. The [4Fe–4S] cluster is bound to four cysteines like in ferredoxins, however the HiPIP cluster is buried within the protein interior in a hydrophobic cavity while the clusters in ferredoxins are more exposed on the surface. The HiPIP cluster implements the $[4\text{Fe}–4\text{S}]^{3+,2+}$ transition as a result of its hydrophobic environment and hydrogen-bonding network. HiPIPs act as electron donors on the tetraheme cytochrome in photosynthetic bacteria with their exceptionally high redox potential (+100 to +450 mV vs. NHE).

Alternative ligands as histidine have a great impact on the redox potential and chemical properties of Fe–S clusters. Rieske [2Fe–2S] proteins (2a, Figure 1.1) are found in respiratory (cytochrome $b_{c_1}$ in mitochondria and bacteria) and photosynthetic (cytochrome $b_{6f}$ in chloroplasts) membrane-associated electron transfer complexes, as well as in some oxygenases. The [2Fe–2S] cluster is bound by two cysteine and two histidine residues. The difference in the net charges of the ligands causes an upshift of the redox potential ($–100$ to $+490$ mV vs. NHE) for the $[2\text{Fe}–2\text{S}]^{2+/+}$ reduction/oxidation. Rieske proteins conduct proton coupled electron transfer as the proton from the N–H group of the imidazole is released easily with $pK_a$ values of 7.4 and 9.1 in the oxidized diferric state, and around 12.5 in the reduced mixed valence state. Fe–S clusters of Rieske proteins are close to the protein surface, and express pH- and ionic strength-dependent redox behavior. On the other hand, low-potential Rieske proteins have pH-independent redox potentials of around $–150$ mV vs. NHE.

Another example for Fe–S clusters with alternative ligands are CDGSH iron-sulfur domains including mitoNEET, Miner 1, and Miner 2. MitoNEET (2b, Figure 1.1) is located in the outer membrane of mitochondria. The homodimer binds one [2Fe–2S] cluster in each subunit. The cluster is coordinated by three cysteine and one histidine residue in the CDGSH motif. They are redox-active, their redox potential is pH-dependent and they undergo electron transfer, potentially proton coupled.

Histidine ligated [4Fe–4S] clusters can be found in the distal clusters of an electron-transfer chain in hydrogenase enzymes.

Sensing and regulation of gene expression
Regulatory enzymes comprise a sensor domain – in this case one or more Fe–S clusters – and a functional domain containing a DNA binding site to promoter regions of genes. After environmental stimuli the structure of the regulatory protein changes and allows for
protein-protein interaction with RNA polymerase (RNAP) or alternation of the DNA architecture which leads to expression of target genes. On the other hand, RNAP can be hindered at recognizing the promoter elements and thus transcription is repressed.

Generally, Fe–S clusters are ideal for sensing environmental signals like gases (O2, NO), reactive oxygen species (ROS, including superoxide (O2−)) and hydrogen peroxide (H2O2) due to their high reactivity towards those species. Signal induced changes of the Fe–S core like oxidation or even disruption propagate a conformational change of the regulatory protein and subsequently mediate transcriptive activation. Some proteins have a specificity for more than one signaling molecule and they can alter gene expression to obtain the correct adaptive response.

![Figure 1.6](image_url)

Figure 1.6. a) Cartoon of the mechanism for SoxR transcriptional activation. b) Crystal structure of oxidized SoxR bound to DNA and induction of sharp DNA bending.

SoxR (superoxide response regulator) is a sensor to oxidative stressors like NO, superoxide (O2−), and redox-cycling agents in E. coli. It is constituted of a dimeric transcriptional activator with one [2Fe–2S] cluster in each 17 kDa monomer (Figure 1.6, a). The resting state is the mixed-valent [2Fe–2S]+ which is reversibly oxidized to [2Fe–2S]2+. Oxidation reorients the promoter DNA element (Figure 1.6, b) to allow transcription of more than 100 genes in the SoxRS regulon as stress-response against the oxidative stress. Expressed proteins include superoxide dismutase (SOD), oxidized-DNA repair endonucleases and oxidation-resistant enzymes. When oxidative stress abates, reducing systems have SoxR returning in its reduced state.

One of the best studied global regulatory proteins is FNR (fumarate and nitrate reduction) regulator, also known as the “master switch” between aerobic and anaerobic respiration in E. coli. The transcription factor triggers the shift from an anaerobic to aerobic metabolism by sensing the level of oxygen in the cell. Only the dimeric [4Fe–4S] protein can bind to DNA. The [4Fe–4S] cluster converts quickly into two [2Fe–2S] clusters in the presence of O2 and the protein loses its dimerization. This process can be reversed when anaerobic conditions are reestablished. When it is active it controls 200 genes involved in anaerobic
oxidation of carbon sources and reduction of electron acceptors, e.g. nitrate, fumarate, and DMSO, and represses genes specifically for aerobic metabolism. FNR also plays a role in sensing NO (see Chapter 1.4.3). However, NO sensing is a secondary function of FNR because fewer proteins are affected than with O₂. Other O₂ sensing regulators include NreB in Staphylococci.

It is a challenge to decipher whether reactions of Fe–S clusters with signaling molecules are physiologically relevant or simply adventitious. At times proteins react in vitro with signaling molecules although the reaction does not occur in the living organism. Enzymes that react to oxidative stress often also react to nitrosative stress. However, there are also enzymes that are specialized to act on nitrosative stress. NsrR is a wide-spread dedicated NO sensor e.g. in β- and γ-proteobacteria. Upon nitrosylation of the sensing [4Fe–4S] cluster, NsrR loses DNA binding. This process activates genes involved in NO detoxification and damage repair that were repressed before. Expressed genes are hmp, encoding a flavohemoglobin, ytfE, implicated in Fe–S cluster repair, and, nrf, encoding the NrfA periplasmic nitrite reductase. Recently, the crystal structure of NsrR from in the dimeric holo form and as apo-DNA complex was reported by Le Brun, Fontecilla-Camps and coworkers.

WhiB-like proteins (Wbl), exclusive to Actinobacteria, fulfill a wide range of functional roles. Among them are cell division, sporulation, nutrient starvation, antibiotic resistance, virulence, and oxidative stress response. WhiD of S. coelocolor and WhiB1, B3, and B4 of Mycobacterium tuberculosis contain a NO-sensitive [4Fe–4S] cluster ligated by four cysteine residues. Following cluster nitrosylation or in their apo-protein form, Wbl proteins bind DNA with high affinity. Further information on nitrosylation of Wbl proteins is provided in Chapter 1.4.3.

Maintaining homeostasis of iron is essential in cells. Iron serves in cofactors such as heme and Fe–S clusters in most organisms, but an excess of iron under aerobic conditions catalyzes the formation of reactive oxygen species (ROS) that ultimately destroy cellular compounds like proteins, DNA and lipids. IscR (Proteobacteria) and SufR (Cyanobacteria) sense the Fe–S cluster levels as part of control genes in Fe–S biogenesis. IRP (iron regulatory protein) controls and maintains the iron homeostasis in mammals.
Iron-sulfur clusters in enzymes: substrate binding and activation

Fe–S clusters are involved in the activation of small molecules in bacteria and archaea. The enzyme nitrogenase catalyzes the reduction of dinitrogen to ammonia via the catalytically active Fe-Mo subprotein. The Fe-Mo subprotein contains two Fe–S clusters of high nuclearity: the P^N^-cluster and the iron molybdenum cofactor (FeMoCo, Figure 1.7). The P^N^-cluster mediates intramolecular electron transfer to the FeMoCo where the reduction of dinitrogen takes place. The FeMoCo comprises of a large [MoFe_7S_9-homocitrate] complex with an unusual interstitial carbon atom in the center. Quantum mechanical calculations suggest that the central carbon is bound through six covalent C–Fe bonds and thus is well stabilized. Some bacteria are able to produce alternative nitrogenases with vanadium or iron ions if molybdenum supply is scarce. Vanadium nitrogenase is also capable of reducing carbon monoxide and converting it to ethylene, ethane, or propane.

Figure 1.7. Examples for enzymatic active iron-sulfur clusters in hydrogenases and nitrogenase.

Hydrogenases produce or consume hydrogen. In [NiFe] and [FeFe] hydrogenases several [4Fe–4S] clusters fulfill the task of electron mediator or reservoirs (e.g. the H-cluster, Figure 1.7). At the active site cyanide and carbonyl ligands stabilizes low oxidation states of the metal ions. Other iron-sulfur cluster containing enzymes are sulfite and nitrite reductases and Ni-Fe CO dehydrogenase (CODH).

Aconitase is an example for non-redox catalysis as no redox chemistry takes place at the Fe–S cluster. It converts citrate to isocitrate in the citric acid cycle of all bacteria and
eukaryotes. In its inactive form, it constitutes of a [3Fe–4S] and in its active form of a [4Fe–4S] cluster in which one iron has no cysteine ligand and thus serves as a Lewis acid to bind the substrate. During the catalysis the hydroxy group and a proton of adjacent carbon atoms of citrate are removed and reattached in reversed order. ENDOR spectroscopy was used to elucidate the enzyme-substrate complex, which was later confirmed by crystallography (Figure 1.8).  

![Figure 1.8. Active site of aconitase: reaction of citrate to isocitrate.](image)

The radical-SAM superfamily consists of more than 2800 proteins. These enzymes bind S-adenosyl methionine (SAM or AdoMet) in a similar fashion like aconitase via carboxylate and amino groups to a unique iron atom of a [4Fe–4S] cluster that is not ligated by cysteine (Figure 1.9). However, the Fe–S cluster is redox active during catalysis, in contrast to aconitase. A 5'-deoxyadenosyl radical is formed which then abstracts a hydrogen atom from the organic substrate to initiate a radical mechanism used in the biosynthesis of amino acids, nucleotides, co-enzymes and antibiotics.  

![Figure 1.9. Radical mechanism at active site of a SAM enzyme.](image)

As an example, biotin synthase from *E. coli* belongs to the radical SAM family. It employs two molecules of AdoMet to activate two C-H groups in dethiobiotin. An auxiliary [Fe$_2$S$_2$(cys)$_3$(arg)] cluster in biotin synthase degrades and provides the bridging sulfur atom for the conversion of dethiobiotin to biotin.
Other functions of iron-sulfur clusters

Other functions include Fe or cluster storage in ferredoxins or polyferredoxins, structural stabilization comparable to Zn-finger proteins (Endonuclease III), regulation of enzyme activity (Glutamine PRPP amidotransferase, Ferrochelatase), disulfide reduction (ferredoxin: thioredoxin reductase, hetero-disulfide reductase), and donation of sulfur during the biosynthesis of some S-containing natural products (biotin synthase, [4Fe–4S] cluster of lipoic acid synthase (LIAS)).

1.3 Synthetic analogues

Biologists have established reliable protocols to extract intact Fe–S clusters from their protein environment through exchange with exogenous thiolate donors since the 1970s. At the same time, low-molecular-weight complexes as analogues for biological Fe–S clusters were synthesized by chemists. Generally, the synthetic systems model the natural clusters well in terms of structure and function except for a more negative redox potential.

Holm and coworkers synthesized the first model cluster in 1972. It was a cubic [4Fe–4S] cluster (5) with thiobenzyl ligands mimicking cysteine (Figure 1.10). One year later they published the first synthetic [2Fe–2S] cluster with o-xylyldithiolato ligands (6). The clusters can be obtained in self-assembly reactions from ferric iron, thiols, and sulfide. Since then many model complexes for rubredoxins and clusters of higher nuclearity have been reported. A selection of synthetic clusters is depicted in Figure 1.11 and Figure 1.12.
Figure 1.11: Selection of low-molecular-weight [2Fe–2S] clusters: first cluster with N-ligation and first cluster to be isolated in the mixed-valence state (72–73), first neutral cluster with N(SiMe3)2 as strong π-donor ligands (8), first heteroleptic [2Fe–2S] cluster (92), glutathione-complexed cluster (103).

Figure 1.12: Selection of low-molecular-weight [4Fe–4S] clusters: first all ferric [4Fe–4S] cluster (11), first HiPIP model with sterically encumbered thiolate ligands (125), first water soluble [4Fe–4S] cluster (136), first all ferrous [4Fe–4S] cluster (14).
Tatsumi and coworkers achieved the synthesis of a 3:1 site-differentiated [4Fe–4S] cluster with the help of sterically encumbered thiolate ligands \( \text{15}^{\text{100}} \), Figure 1.13. It mimics the distal \([\text{Fe}_4\text{S}_4\text{(cys)}_3\text{(his)}]\) cluster in [FeNi] hydrogenase.

A tridentate cavitand ligand system \((\text{L(SH)}_3)\) in Figure 1.13 produces a cluster with a single iron site with more labile ligation \( \text{16}^{2-} \).\(^{101,102}\) The apical iron ion can be removed under mild oxidative conditions to obtain a cuboidal [3Fe–4S] cluster. This [3Fe–4S] cluster in turn can be used as starting material for heterometallic \([\text{M 3Fe–4S}]\) clusters \((\text{M} = \text{Mn}, \text{Co}, \text{Ni}, \text{Cu}, \text{Zn}, \text{Cd}, \text{Ti}, \text{Mo}, \text{V}, \text{Re}, \text{Ag}, \text{W}, \text{Nb}, \text{Pb}, \text{or} \text{Cr})\).\(^{103,104}\)

![Figure 1.13. Site-differentiated cluster by Tatsumi and coworkers (\text{15}^{\text{100}})\) and by Holm and coworkers (\text{16}^{2-}).\(^{101}\)](image)

Today’s research does not only focus on mimicking the structure and electro-chemistry of natural Fe–S clusters, but also their enzymatic properties. Special attention is paid to the Fe–S-cluster-containing enzyme nitrogenase because of its ability to activate nitrogen. Holland and coworkers moved away from the idea that it is necessary to copy the whole structure to obtain an active complex. They created the mononuclear iron complex \( \text{17}^- \) with a sulfur-rich coordination sphere that binds dinitrogen (Figure 1.14).\(^{105,106}\)
1 Introduction

![Figure 1.14](image)

Figure 1.14: a) Possible binding mode of dinitrogen at FeMoCo; b) mononuclear iron-sulfur-carbon cluster 17 as synthetic model system for nitrogenase’s active site.\textsuperscript{105}

1.4 Iron-sulfur clusters and nitric oxide

1.4.1 Nitric oxide as vital messenger molecule and cytotoxic effector

NO plays a role in a wide variety of biological processes.\textsuperscript{107,108} It is formed in cells by members of the NO synthase (NOS) family or by nitrite reductases.\textsuperscript{109,110} The reaction of NO with the heme-iron in guanylyl cyclase has been investigated thoroughly since the 1960s. This reaction starts a cascade which ultimately leads to relaxation of the cardiovascular system.\textsuperscript{111–114} NO also plays an important role in neurotransmission\textsuperscript{115} and immune regulation.\textsuperscript{116,117} Physiological amounts of NO are neuroprotective, but higher concentrations can be neurotoxic. Nitrosative stress can lead to damage of DNA and amino acids.\textsuperscript{118} Despite its radical character, the half time life of the NO molecule in the cell can be surprisingly long (0.002–2 s).\textsuperscript{119}

1.4.2 Iron-sulfur-nitrosyl complexes

The primary biological target for NO are metal-containing proteins. In the resulting metal-nitrosyl complexes the NO-ligand is redox non-innocent. Three redox states are biologically relevant: the nitrosonium cation (NO\textsuperscript{+}), NO radical (NO\textsuperscript{−}), and nitroxy anion (NO\textsuperscript{−}). However, the iron and NO oxidation state is difficult to assign because of a small energy gap between the transition metal 3d and NO π*-orbitals. Therefore, the electronic structure of iron-nitrosyl complexes is normally described by the Enemark–Feltham notation, in which the iron 3d and NO π*-electrons “x” of the molecule are neither assigned
to the iron ion nor the nitrosyl moieties “n” (\(\{\text{Fe(NO)}_n\}\)). Transition metal NO\(^+\) adducts have a N–O stretching frequency of 1700–2000 cm\(^{-1}\). When NO behaves formally as NO\(^-\) the stretching frequency is 1500–1700 cm\(^{-1}\).

The first reported iron-sulfur-nitrosyl clusters were Roussin’s black salt (RBS, 18) and Roussin’s Red Salt (RRS, 19) in 1858. RBS and RRS cannot bind to the protein without prior ligand exchange and are therefore biologically irrelevant.

Biologically relevant iron-sulfur-nitrosyl complexes are dinitrosyl-iron complexes (DNIC, 20\(^-\)) and the esters of Roussin’s salt (RREs, 21, 22) or derivatives thereof (23, 24). They are the products of nitrosylation of Fe–S clusters (chapter 1.4.3). EPR spectroscopy is an excellent tool for recognizing DNICs and reduced RREs due to their signature isotropic g-value of 2.03 or 1.99, respectively. However, assignment of EPR-silent species is more challenging. IR, Mössbauer, UV/vis, and Raman spectroscopies lack full diagnostic ability to discriminate between the different species. A method that has become more popular in the scientific community in recent years is nuclear resonance vibrational spectroscopy (NRVS). It allows for distinction between different iron-nitrosyl species and has been applied to nitrosylized [4Fe–4S] ferredoxin, Rieske, WhiD, and NsrR proteins. Today NRVS data is available for various iron-sulfur clusters and nitrosyl complexes which allows for comparison of fingerprint regions in order to decipher the product after nitrosylation of an Fe–S cluster.

Figure 1.15. First reported iron-sulfur-nitrosyl complexes: Roussin’s Black Salt (RBS, 18\(^-\)) and Roussin’s Red Salt (RRS, 19\(^2-\)).
Figure 1.16. Identified reaction products from nitrosylation of Fe–S proteins. The residues (SR) stand for cysteine in proteins and thiolates in model clusters.

Conversion between different iron-sulfur-nitrosyl complexes is possible and depends on the concentration of NO, the redox states of iron and sulfur, and the availability of sulfide and thiol ligands.\textsuperscript{134} For example, S-based oxidation of a DNIC with O\textsubscript{2} results in formation of a RRE.\textsuperscript{135}

1.4.3 Nitrosylation of natural iron-sulfur clusters

Nitrosylation of Fe–S proteins usually disrupts the cluster, affects the loss of the enzyme’s activity and ultimately has cytotoxic effects.\textsuperscript{119,136} On the other hand, it is possible to reverse the reaction in vitro and generate [2Fe–2S] clusters from DNICs via the key intermediate RRE.\textsuperscript{137} Yang \textit{et al.} found that nitrosylation does not necessarily cause cell death as nitrosylized Fe–S enzymes are efficiently repaired in aerobically growing \textit{E. coli} cells by cysteine desulferase (IscS) in the presence of L-cysteine in vitro.\textsuperscript{138,139}

[4Fe–4S], [2Fe–2S] clusters and [2Fe–2S] clusters with alternative ligands yield different products after reaction with NO. The results of prior research are summarized in the following paragraphs.
[4Fe–4S] clusters

Aconitase and IRP1 were the first Fe–S proteins that were reacted with NO in vitro in 1997 after cellular studies indicated that Fe–S proteins are targeted by NO. As a result, protein-bound dinitrosyl-iron-dithiolato complexes were identified by EPR spectroscopy by their typical g-value of 2.03. In the following years, other [4Fe–4S] proteins were reacted with NO and DNICs were found to be the main product by EPR spectroscopy, e.g. HiPIP proteins or regulatory proteins like Fur (ferric uptake regulatory protein) and NorR (NO responsive transcription factor). In 2011 Ding and coworkers published a paper in which they supported the idea that Fe–S proteins are the major source of protein-bound DNICs in E. coli cells under nitric oxide stress.

New technology such as NRVS and more careful examination of the products after nitrosylation have led to the discovery of EPR-silent reaction products like RRE (22), dimerized RRE (24), or RBS/RBE (18/21). Spin-quantification showed that DNICs account only for a fraction of the total iron content. Le Brun, Cramer and coworkers found that the main product after nitrosylation of NsrR is a mixture of EPR-silent RRE (22) and RBE (21) or RBS (18). The results are supported by NRVS and DFT calculations. Unfortunately, RBS and RBE are not distinguishable by NRVS and other spectroscopic methods: RBE has the same constitution as RBS except that one to three bridging sulfides are replaced by thiolates from cysteines. FNR and WhiB react with 8 NO molecules yielding octanitrosyl clusters [Fe₄(NO)₈(Cys)₄]₀ (dimerized RRE).

[2Fe–2S] clusters

In general, nitrosylation leads to loss of the enzyme’s activity, but nitrosylated SoxR has transcriptional activity similar to that of SoxR after oxidative stress. It is important to consider the oxidation state of the [2Fe–2S] cluster in SoxR as the oxidized and the mixed-valence cluster yield different products. When oxidized SoxR is exposed to NO, two DNICs are formed in intact bacteria as well as in the purified enzyme as shown by EPR, dichroic spectral features, and EXAFS. Spin quantification with EPR spectroscopy suggests full conversion of the [2Fe–2S] cluster. However, mixed-valence SoxR exposed to NO for 1 min and then frozen at 77 K revealed a mixture of rRRE, RRE, and only a small amount of DNIC as product. In E. coli cells rRRE is quickly converted into stable protein-bound DNICs. In summary, rRRE and RRE can be considered intermediates on the reaction pathway to DNICs. It is noteworthy that E. coli has a repair system for the nitrosylated
iron-sulfur clusters in SoxR as the DNIC signal disappears after 15 min.\textsuperscript{59,151–153} The [2Fe–2S] cluster of spinach ferredoxin I reacts with NO and traces of O\textsubscript{2} to protein-bound RRE and DNIC, determined by IR spectroscopy.\textsuperscript{154}

**[2Fe–2S] clusters with histidine ligation**

A thiolate-bridged dinuclear dinitrosyl iron species (RRE) has been identified as main product of nitrosylation of Rieske-type [2Fe–2S] ferredoxin ToMOC protein beside a cysteine-bound DNIC as minor product.\textsuperscript{127} NRSVS spectroscopy indicated that the RRE is the main product of the nitrosylation. Also as indirect proof, the nitrosylation product was reduced with sodium dithionite (\(\text{Na}_2\text{S}_2\text{O}_4\)) and an EPR signal typical for a rRRE was detected (\(g_\perp = 2.008, g_\parallel = 1.971\)).

Recently, Ding and coworkers reported that the reduced CDGSH-type [2Fe–2S] clusters bind one NO molecule without degradation of the cluster (Figure 1.17).\textsuperscript{155}

![Figure 1.17](image)

To conclude, the scientific community assumed that DNICs are the sole product of nitrosylation of Fe–S clusters since 1997 as they are easy to identify by EPR spectroscopy. However, spin quantification did not account for all the starting material. More recent investigations identified intermediates like RRE to play a major role, however the reaction pathway has not been fully elucidated to date. Mononitrosyl [2Fe–2S] clusters like 25 seem to be the exception as no other case is reported so far.
1.4.4 Nitrosylation of biomimetic iron-sulfur clusters

**Peptide-based Fe–S clusters**

![Diagram of nitrosylation reaction]

Figure 1.18. Proposed mechanism for nitrosylation of mixed-valent bidentate-peptide bound [2Fe–2S] cluster. The sequence of the bidentate-peptide is (Lys-Cys-(Ala)_n-Cys-Lys, n=1–4). Liaw and coworkers investigated the reaction pathway of the nitrosylation of Fe–S clusters. They expanded from low-molecular-weight biomimetic chemistry to the synthesis of peptide-based analogues, dubbed “bridged biological assemblies”. They synthesized peptide-bound DNICs and neutral/reduced RREs. The products were water-soluble and characterized mainly by a combination of UV-vis and IR spectroscopy, aside from EPR, CD, ESI-MS and XAS. The peptides were either bidentate (Lys-Cys-(Ala)_n-Cys-Lys, n=1–4) or monodentate (Lys-Cys-Ala-Ala-Lys) binding via the cysteine residues. As a result, the chelating bidentate-cysteine-bound proteins stabilize the {Fe(NO)_{10}}^{9} moiety in DNICs and destabilize the RRE form, i.e. when cysteines are in close proximity on the peptide chain, DNICs are the main product of nitrosylation (Figure 1.18). Whether protein-bound RREs, rRREs or DNICs are formed, appears to rely heavily on the oxidation state of the iron and the chelating effect of the binding protein. The results rationalize why the nitrosylation of the mixed-valent Rieske-type [2Fe–2S] cluster of the ToMOC protein and of the mixed-valent [2Fe–2S] cluster of SoxR have a different outcome. Based on their research, Liaw and coworkers proposed that the former yields unstable {Fe(NO)_{10}}^{9} and {Fe(NO)_{10}}^{10} monodentate-peptide-containing DNICs after reductive elimination of sulfur (Figure 1.19). The subsequently formed reduced RRE is oxidized to protein-bound RRE as the final product. The reaction mechanism of the latter resembles the one for
nitrosylation of mixed-valent [2Fe–2S] clusters with coordination of bidentate-peptides (Figure 1.18). The chelating ligand stabilizes the \( \{\text{Fe(NO)}_2\}^9 \) DNIC. On the other hand, [4Fe–4S] clusters generate RREs regardless of the denticity of the peptide according to Liaw and coworkers. The hypothesis is supported by the reaction of [4Fe–4S] regulatory enzymes, WhiD\textsuperscript{149} and Nsr,\textsuperscript{150} with NO.

```
\[
\begin{array}{c}
\text{Fe} \quad \text{Fe} \\
\text{S} \quad \text{S} \\
\text{S} \quad \text{S} \\
\end{array}
\quad + 4 \text{NO} \\
\quad - 2 \text{S} \\
\begin{array}{c}
\text{Fe} \quad \text{Fe} \\
\text{NO} \\
\text{S} \quad \text{S} \\
\end{array}
\begin{array}{c}
\text{Fe} \quad \text{Fe} \\
\text{NO} \\
\text{S} \quad \text{S} \\
\end{array}
\quad \begin{array}{c}
\text{Fe} \quad \text{Fe} \\
\text{NO} \\
\text{S} \quad \text{S} \\
\end{array}
\]
```

Figure 1.19. Proposed mechanism for nitrosylation of mixed-valent monodentate-peptide coordinated [2Fe–2S] cluster.

Interestingly, peptides with the sequence Lys-Cys-Ala-Ala-His-Lys served as monodentate ligands as well, binding only with the cysteine and not with the histidine residue. This supports the theory that the binding affinity for histidine is much lower than for cysteine. Liaw and coworkers investigated the binding affinity by a series of ligand displacement experiments and came to the sequence depicted in Figure 1.20.\textsuperscript{157}

```
\[
\begin{array}{c}
\text{Fe} \\
\text{NO} \\
\text{S} \\
\end{array} > \\
\begin{array}{c}
\text{Fe} \\
\text{NO} \\
\text{N} \\
\end{array} > \\
\begin{array}{c}
\text{Fe} \\
\text{NO} \\
\text{O} \\
\end{array} > \\
\begin{array}{c}
\text{Fe} \\
\text{NO} \\
\text{O} \\
\end{array}
\]
```

Figure 1.20. Relative binding affinity of nitrite, phenoxide, imidazolate and thiolate towards the \( \{\text{Fe(NO)}_2\}^9 \)-moiety.\textsuperscript{157}
Stochiometric nitrosylation of synthetic rubredoxin and ferredoxin model systems generates DNICs with concomitant reductive elimination of the bridging sulfide ligands as elemental sulfur (Figure 1.21). On the other hand, an excess of NO in the presence of elemental sulfur yields RBS.

When an H-atom donor such as PhSH or tBu3PhOH is present during nitrosylation of the cluster [Fe₂S₂(SPh)₄]²⁻, the products are thiolate-coordinated DNIC and PhSSPh or tBu₃PhO⁺, respectively (Figure 1.22). The bridging sulfide ligands are released as H₂S establishing a link between the two messenger molecules NO and H₂S.

Nitrosylation of site-differentiated cluster [Fe₄S₄(LS₃)X] 15⁻ produces the S = ½ nitrosyl-cluster [Fe₄S₄(NO)₄]⁻ (26⁻) en route to the formation of diamagnetic RBS 18⁻ (Figure 1.23).
1 Introduction

Figure 1.23. Nitrosylation of site differentiated [4Fe–4S] cluster.162

1.5 Summary and conclusion

Fe–S clusters are essential in all three kingdoms of life. They are structurally diverse because smaller units can be assembled in a modular fashion to build large multinuclear clusters like in nitrogenases. Chemists have synthesized biomimetic analogues since the 1980s with exceptional contributions by Holm and coworkers. Natural and model clusters have been well investigated with respect to their structural and electronic properties. However, new binding motifs and functions are still discovered today, setting new goals and offering new challenges for the synthesis of appropriate model systems. Some natural Fe–S clusters are essential parts of enzymes with extraordinary capacities, i. a., in the defense against nitric stress.

NO reacts readily with Fe–S clusters to form iron-sulfur-nitrosyl complexes with concomitant degradation of the cluster core. The investigation of Fe–S cluster nitrosylation was conducted with real proteins (Ding, LeBrun, Liaw), peptide-bound (Liaw) and low-molecular-weight models (Lippard, Kim), just to mention a few protagonists in the field. Several iron-sulfur-nitrosyl species have been identified via IR, UV-vis, and NRVS spectroscopy, but the most common reaction products of the nitrosylation of [2Fe–2S] and [4Fe–4S] clusters are dinitrosyl iron species. To date, researchers concentrated on the reactivity of diferric [2Fe–2S] clusters and mostly neglected other physiologically relevant oxidation and protonation states. Investigations in that direction are still necessary to complete the picture.
2 Nitrosylation of [2Fe–2S] clusters in their diferric, mixed-valent, and protonated state

2.1 Introduction and objective

Our group published low-molecular-weight heteroleptic and homoleptic [2Fe–2S] model clusters for Rieske (92–3−, 272–3−, 292–3−)92,163–165 and mitoNEET proteins (282–3− and 302–3−, Figure 2.1).166,167 All clusters have been spectroscopically characterized in their diferric (FeIII/FeIII) and mixed-valence (FeIII/FeII) oxidation states. The proton-responsive nitrogen atoms in the backbone of the benzimidazolato moieties allow for protonation of the clusters 272−–302− in contrast to 92−–3−. The reactions of the homoleptic clusters 29 and 30 in different oxidation and protonation states with nitric oxide are presented in this chapter.

Lippard and coworkers have reacted Rieske model 92− with four equivalents of gaseous NO or Ph3CSNO (Figure 2.2).168 The N,N-bis(indolato) coordinated DNIC 31− was characterized by EPR, IR and Mössbauer spectroscopy, but the dithiolate coordinated DNIC 32− could not be isolated as it reacts further to form RBS. The same reactivity was observed for nitrosylation of the heteroleptic Rieske model 272−: Only the N,N-
Nitrosylation of [2Fe–2S] clusters in their diferric, mixed-valent, and protonated state

bis(benzimidazolato) coordinated DNIC was obtained from the reaction mixture. Therefore, it was decided to discard the dithiolate ligands and focus on homoleptic, nitrogen-coordinated [2Fe–2S] clusters and their reactivity towards NO.

Figure 2.2. Nitrosylation of heteroleptic [2Fe–2S] by Lippard and coworkers.
2 Nitrosylation of [2Fe–2S] clusters in their diferric, mixed-valent, and protonated state

2.2 Nitrosylation of diferric homoleptic coordinated [2Fe–2S] clusters

The DNICs were accessed following one of two synthetic strategies shown below (Figure 2.3). In route 1 two equivalents of NO per iron ion were added into the headspace of a flask charged with a diferric [2Fe–2S] cluster in MeCN. Precipitated elemental sulfur was separated from the solution by washing with Et₂O. Subsequently, the DNIC was extracted with THF and precipitated from this solution by layering with hexane. Route 2 started from a previously reported precursor [FeCl₂(NO)₂]⁻. In a ligand exchange reaction with the potassium salt of the ligand K₂(NN) or K₂(SN) the respective DNIC 33⁻ or 34⁻ was formed. The latter reaction served to confirm the identity of the products obtained via Route 1.

![Route 1 and Route 2 diagrams](image)

Figure 2.3 Synthesis of DNIC 33⁻ and 34⁻ via two routes.

2.2.1 UV-vis and IR spectroscopy

Reaction of 29²⁻ or 30²⁻ with NO results in a color change from red to brown or purple to brown, respectively. The nitrosylation was monitored by UV-vis spectroscopy (Figure 2.4, a and c). The intense absorption of the sample bleaches until the sample exhibits a featureless spectrum. In the IR spectra, two new bands at 1780, 1714 cm⁻¹ for the N–O stretching frequencies of 33⁻ and 1751, 1700 cm⁻¹ for 34⁻ are detected (Figure 2.4, b and d). Care was taken to employ only four equivalents of NO gas because an excess of gas leads to the formation of Roussin’s Black Salt (RBS). RBS is detected in the IR spectrum.
if the reaction runs longer than 4 hours. Therefore, the reaction was stopped after 3 hours and residual solvent and NO was removed before work-up.

Figure 2.4. a) UV-vis spectra of the nitrosylation of $^{29}\text{Fe}^{2-}$ taken every 5 min ($\Sigma$ 180 min). The inserted graph depicts the decrease of the absorbance vs. time at 408 nm ($\Sigma$ 225 min). An exponential fit gave an observed rate constant $k_{\text{obs}}$ of $1.60\times10^{-4}$ s$^{-1}$ (†). b) Excerpt of the IR spectra from the reaction mixture in MeCN after 15, 30, 60, and 120 min. The arising bands at 1780 and 1714 cm$^{-1}$ are attributed to formation of $^{33}\text{Fe}^{2-}$. c) UV-vis spectra of the nitrosylation of $^{30}\text{Fe}^{2-}$ taken every 10 min ($\Sigma$ 150 min). The inserted graph depicts the decrease of the absorbance at 512 nm vs. time ($\Sigma$ 223 min). An exponential fit gave an observed rate constant $k_{\text{obs}}$ of $6.03\times10^{-4}$ s$^{-1}$ (†). d) Excerpt of the IR spectrum of the reaction mixture after 3 h in MeCN with bands at 1751 and 1700 cm$^{-1}$ indicating formation of $^{34}\text{Fe}^{2-}$. (†) The poor fits of the kinetic traces (inserts a and c) indicate a more complicated reaction sequence and rate law.
2 Nitrosylation of [2Fe–2S] clusters in their diferric, mixed-valent, and protonated state

2.2.2 NMR spectroscopy

The $^1$H NMR spectrum of the nitrosylation of $\text{29}^{2-}$ measured hourly for a total of 14 hours shows the decrease of the signals that are attributed to the diferric [2Fe–2S] cluster (Figure 2.5), but no new signals are detected. The signals of the reaction product DNIC $\text{33}^{-}$ is probably broadened beyond recognition due to its paramagnetic nature.

![NMR spectra](image1)

![Integral vs time](image2)

Figure 2.5. a) Hourly measured $^1$H NMR spectra of nitrosylation of $\text{29}^{2-}$ in MeCN-d$_3$, b) area of the integral at 10.46 ppm vs. time. An exponential fit gave an observed rate constant $k_{obs}$ of $8.15 \times 10^{-5}$ s$^{-1}$. The poor fits of the kinetic trace indicate a more complicated reaction sequence and rate law.
2 Nitrosylation of [2Fe–2S] clusters in their diferric, mixed-valent, and protonated state

2.2.3 Crystal structures of 33− and 34−

Various counter ions (NEt4+, PPh4+, PPN+) were tested to optimize the crystallization conditions of the reaction products 33− and 34−. All of them are non-coordinating hence only little effect can be seen on spectroscopic properties of the DNICs. Single crystals suitable for X-ray diffraction were obtained from a DCM solution of (PPN)33 layered with hexane (Figure 2.6, a) or from diffusion of Et2O in a MeCN solution of (PPN)34 (Figure 2.6, b). Both anions crystallized with PPN+ as counter ion. Their core geometry is best described as strongly distorted tetrahedral which is induced by the strain of the chelating ligand. Bond distances of Fe–N(O) and N–O are in the usual range for anionic {Fe(NO)2}9 complexes.\textsuperscript{170} The nitrosyl moiety binds in a slightly bend fashion with angles ∠Fe–O–N between 157.3 and 171.3° (selected bond dimensions are given in Table 2.1 and Table 2.2).

![Figure 2.6](image)

**Figure 2.6.** Molecular structures of the anion 33− (a) and 34− (b). The counter ions (PPN+) and hydrogen atoms are omitted for clarity. The thermal displacement ellipsoids are shown at 50% probability.

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<td>2.2544(8)</td>
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<tr>
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<td>O(2)–N(4)</td>
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<td>1.185(3)</td>
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Table 2.2. Selected angles (°) of $33^-$ and $34^-$:

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<td>111.34(10)</td>
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</table>

2.2.4 EPR and Mössbauer spectroscopy

EPR spectroscopy confirms an $S = \frac{1}{2}$ ground state and a rhombic EPR signal points towards a distorted coordination geometry around the metal ion. The EPR spectrum of $33^-$ recorded at 160.4 K in frozen solution in THF gave an anisotropic $g$-value of [2.068, 2.039, 2.014] (Figure 2.7, a). The $g_{av}$ of 2.040 compares well to literature.\textsuperscript{168} The EPR spectrum of $34^-$ gave an anisotropic $g$-value of [2.055, 2.038, 2.015] at 145 K in frozen solution in THF ($g_{av} = 2.034$, Figure 2.7, b). As a conclusion, the NN versus SN capping ligands have only a minor influence on the electronic state of the iron ion. This statement is supported by Mössbauer spectroscopy as both DNICs give similar parameters. Two doublets were fitted to the experimental data of a solid sample of DNIC $33^-$ (Figure 2.7, c). The main signal (red) was assigned to $33^-$ and the minor signal (blue) to an Fe$^{III}$ impurity. The isomer shift and quadrupole splitting of $33^-$ at 80 K are 0.28 mm s$^{-1}$ and 0.99 mm s$^{-1}$, respectively. $34^-$ shows an isomer shift of 0.18 mm s$^{-1}$ and a quadrupole splitting of 0.90 mm s$^{-1}$ in frozen THF solution (Figure 2.7, d). A UV-vis spectrum of crystalline material redissolved in THF displays bands at 430 and 705 nm for $33^-$ and 470, 545, and 685 for $34^-$ with low $\epsilon_{rel}$ of around 300 M$^{-1}$cm$^{-1}$ (Figure 2.7, e and f). ESI-MS and $^1$H NMR spectroscopy appear to be unsuitable methods for characterization of $33^-$ and $34^-$, efforts to obtain good spectra have been unsuccessful.
Figure 2.7. a) X-band EPR spectrum of $33^-$ recorded at 160.4 K in frozen solution (THF, black). The red line is a powder simulation with $g = (2.068, 2.039, 2.014)$. b) Zero-field Mössbauer spectrum of $33^-$ at 80 K. The solid lines represent the result of a fit with Lorentzian doublets (red for $33^-$ and blue for an impurity). Summation of the two subspectra affords the black line. c) X-band EPR spectrum of $34^-$ recorded at 145 K in frozen solution (THF, black). The red line is a powder simulation with $g = (2.055, 2.038, 2.015)$. d) Zero-field Mössbauer spectrum of $34^-$ in frozen THF solution at 80 K. e) UV-vis spectrum of $33^-$ in THF at rt, f) UV-vis spectrum of $34^-$ in THF at rt.
2.3 Nitrosylation of mixed-valent [2Fe–2S] clusters

2.3.1 Nitrosylation of 29$^{3-}$

2.3.1.1 UV-vis spectroscopy

When a solution of the reduced cluster 29$^{3-}$ in MeCN was exposed to 5 equivalents of NO, three distinct reaction steps can be identified by UV-vis spectroscopy (Figure 2.8). During the first 30 min, the bands at 408 and 528 nm increase and an intermediate 1 is formed (Figure 2.8, a). These two bands are indicative for the diferric cluster 29$^{2+}$. Intermediate 1 is stable for approximately 30 min. Then the band at 528 nm decreases in intensity while the other maximum shifts from 408 to 419 nm suggesting that a second intermediate is formed (Figure 2.8, b) which ultimately decomposes over several hours (Figure 2.8, c).

![Figure 2.8](image-url)

**Figure 2.8.** a) First step of nitrosylation of 29$^{3-}$ monitored by UV-vis spectroscopy (Σ 40 min). The inserted graph depicts absorbance at 408 nm vs. time. An exponential fit gave a observed rate constant $k_{obs}$ of 1.38×10$^{-3}$ s$^{-1}$. The poor fit of the kinetic trace indicates a more complicated reaction sequence and rate law. b) Excerpt of UV-vis spectra measured after 50 – 140 min reaction time: Shift of maximum from 408 to 419 nm. c) Degradation of intermediate 2 monitored by UV-vis spectroscopy over the course of 18 h. The inserted graph depicts absorbance at 427 nm vs. time. An exponential fit gave an observed rate constant $k_{obs}$ of 2.24×10$^{-5}$ s$^{-1}$. 
2 Nitrosylation of [2Fe–2S] clusters in their diferric, mixed-valent, and protonated state

Conducting the reaction at lower temperature (~30 °C) does not affect the reaction pattern monitored by UV-vis spectroscopy or the timescale of the reaction, however, addition of only one equivalent of NO has a strong effect (Figure 2.9). For the first 15 min only a small change of the UV-vis spectrum is detected. Therefore, the first three data points are excluded from the exponential fit in the inserted graph. After this induction period, the reaction to intermediate 1 takes twice as long and the rate constant is almost an order of magnitude smaller (Figure 2.9, a). Under these conditions, intermediate 1 is stable for almost 10 hours before it starts to decay. When the nitrosylation is conducted with 5 equivalents of NO, intermediate 1 is only stable for approximately one hour and transforms into intermediate 2. Formation of intermediate 2 is not detected with only one equivalent of NO. Instead, the overall absorption decreases over several hours (Figure 2.9, b). The absence of any DNIC product is confirmed by IR spectroscopy of the reaction mixture after treatment with one equivalent of NO.

![Graphs](image)

Figure 2.9. UV-vis spectroscopy of nitrosylation with only one equivalent NO. a) First two hours of reaction (24 x 5 min). Insert: exponential fit of the absorption at 525 nm vs. time gives a rate constant $k_{obs}$ of $7.33 \times 10^{-4}$ s$^{-1}$ ($\dagger$). b) 2–34 h after addition of NO (spectrum each hour). Insert: exponential fit of the absorption at 525 nm vs. time gives a rate constant $k_{obs}$ of $1.27 \times 10^{-5}$ s$^{-1}$ ($\dagger$). ($\dagger$) Data points in red are excluded from the fitting process. The poor fits of the kinetic traces (inserts a and b) indicate a more complicated reaction sequence and rate law.
Nitrosylation of [2Fe–2S] clusters in their diferric, mixed-valent, and protonated state

Figure 2.10. Proposed reaction pathway of the nitrosylation of the mixed-valent cluster 293.

Taken all the information from the UV-vis measurements into consideration, a reaction pathway with two intermediates is proposed (Figure 2.10). Intermediate 1 can be identified as diferric 292 from the assignment of the bands in the UV-vis spectrum. It is formed via oxidation of mixed-valence 293 by one equivalent of NO. The identity of intermediate 2 cannot be deduced from UV-spectroscopy only.

2.3.1.2 IR spectroscopy and ESI-MS of intermediate 1
An IR spectrum was measured of the reaction mixture after 30 min at –30 °C and subsequent removal of the solvent (Figure 2.11, a). The spectrum of the redissolved residue in THF confirms that intermediate 1 corresponds to 292. Most of the signals can be assigned to differic 292 (red) or residual 293 (orange). Both give similar signals in the IR spectrum. In the region where usually nitrosylized products (green rectangle) resonate, peaks were detected at 1665 and 1683 cm⁻¹ with high intensity and 1745 cm⁻¹ with low intensity. The signal at 1745 cm⁻¹ may belong to some RBS. However, νNO of DNIC 33 is not found. On the other hand, DNIC 33 is clearly the main product in the IR spectrum of the reaction mixture after 3.5 hours (Figure 2.11, b). ESI-MS confirms that the cluster core is still unimpaired after a reaction time of 30 min (Figure 2.12), whereas the signals characteristic for 292 disappeared in the sample taken after 3.5 hours of reaction time.
2 Nitrosylation of [2Fe–2S] clusters in their diferric, mixed-valent, and protonated state

Figure 2.11. IR spectrum of reaction mixture after a) 30 min. and b) 3.5 hrs. The green rectangle encompasses the region where νNO are usually found. Numbers in green mark NO-stretching frequencies from DNIC 33+ (1780, 1714 cm⁻¹) in MeCN, numbers in red mark diferric 292+ and in orange 293+. Numbers in black are not assigned.

Figure 2.12. ESI(−)MS of intermediate 1 in MeCN. The inserts depict experimental and simulated data of peak [M–NEt₄]⁻ (950.2 m/z) and [M–2NEt₄+H]⁻ (821.0 m/z). 410 m/z corresponds to [M–2NEt₄]²⁻.

2.3.1.3 NMR spectroscopy

A solution of 293⁻ in DMF-d₇ was frozen and the inert gas phase was replaced with a mixture of NO and argon that equaled 4 equivalents of NO with respect to 293⁻. The solution was thawed and ¹H NMR spectra were recorded over a period of 120 min (10 × 2 min and 20 × 5 min). A selection of spectra is depicted in Figure 2.13. The signal intensity for 293⁻ decreases within 20 min while a new set of signals characteristic for 292⁻ emerges. The
integrals of the peaks at 11.78 (indicative for $\text{29}^{3-}$) and also 10.46 ppm (indicative for $\text{29}^{2-}$) were divided by the sum of both integrals in order to obtain their ratio which was plotted against the time (Figure 2.14). The first data points are deduced from the first spectrum taken. As they do not depict a ratio 1:0 ($\text{29}^{3-}$: $\text{29}^{2-}$) it is obvious that the first few minutes of the reaction were not captured due to the set-up (e.g. time necessary for shimming). The first spectrum is defined as $t = 0$.

Figure 2.13. Nitrosylation of mixed-valent $\text{29}^{3-}$ monitored by $^1\text{H}$ NMR spectroscopy. Depicted is a selection of spectra within the first 90 min of the reaction. * residual DMF. ° unknown impurity.

Figure 2.14. Ratio of integral for peak at 11.78 ppm (black circles) and integral for peak at 10.46 ppm (red triangles). An exponential fit gave reaction rate $k_{\text{obs}}$ of $3.98 \times 10^{-4}$ s$^{-1}$. 
2 Nitrosylation of [2Fe–2S] clusters in their diferric, mixed-valent, and protonated state

The oxidation of $^{29}\text{Fe}^{3-}$ appears to be one magnitude slower in the NMR tube ($k_{\text{obs}} = 3.98 \times 10^{-4}$ s$^{-1}$) than in the UV-vis cuvette ($k_{\text{obs}} = 1.38 \times 10^{-3}$ s$^{-1}$). The reaction conditions seem to differ greatly in a NMR tube and a UV-vis cuvette. The substrate concentration is significantly higher for NMR spectroscopy than UV-vis spectroscopy. According to this observation, pseudo-first order kinetics are not applicable for this reaction. Another reason for differing $k_{\text{obs}}$ could simply be different diffusion coefficient of the gaseous NO dependent on the shape of the glassware.

2.3.1.4 Mössbauer spectroscopy of intermediate 1 and 2

Intermediate 1 (int. 1) was isolated by stopping the reaction of $^{29}\text{Fe}^{3-}$ with 5 equivalents of NO after 35 min by removal of solvent and excess NO under reduced pressure. UV-vis spectroscopy confirmed the formation of int.1 ($=^{29}\text{Fe}^{2-}$) (Figure 8.1 in appendix). The Mössbauer spectrum of the obtained solid was measured at 80 K and 6 K (Figure 8.2 in appendix). A more dissolved spectrum at low temperature (6 K) allowed for easier and more precise fitting of the data. The main signal at 6 K has an isomer shift of 0.26 mm s$^{-1}$ and a quadrupole splitting of 1.00 mm s$^{-1}$ indicative of an Fe$^{\text{III}}$ species. Other iron-species are detected with a transmission of <0.5%. The experimental parameters of the main signal allow an assignment to either the diferric cluster $^{29}\text{Fe}^{2-}$ or DNIC $^{33}\text{Fe}^{3-}$ (Table 2.3). However, an IR spectrum of the reaction solution does not show the typical nitrosyl bands at 1780 and 1714 cm$^{-1}$ (Figure 2.11), which supports the formation of $^{29}\text{Fe}^{2-}$. Affirmation for $^{29}\text{Fe}^{2-}$ to be the main product is found in the NMR spectrum of the sample after 35 min (Figure 2.16, cf. green vs. blue line).

Intermediate 2 was captured with a 33 %-$^{57}\text{Fe}$-enriched sample (Figure 8.3 in appendix). The reaction was stopped after 90 min as the UV-vis spectrum showed full conversion to intermediate 2 (Figure 8.4 in appendix). The Mössbauer spectrum of the frozen solution and a $^{1}H$ NMR spectrum of the sample feature the diferric $^{29}\text{Fe}^{2-}$ cluster as main species (Figure 8.3 in the appendix and Figure 2.16 below, violet line). In conclusion, the [2Fe–2S] core remains intact during transformation of intermediate 1 to 2. The difference in the UV-vis spectra between both species must be assigned to a peripheral change on the ligand of the cluster as the Mössbauer parameters of $^{33}\text{Fe}^{3-}$ and $^{29}\text{Fe}^{2-}$ do not differ greatly (Figure 2.15). A pentacoordinated intermediate in which NO binds to the iron ion can be excluded according to Mössbauer spectroscopy.
2 Nitrosylation of [2Fe–2S] clusters in their diferric, mixed-valent, and protonated state

Table 2.3. Mössbauer parameters of compounds relevant to nitrosylation of 29\(^{3-}\) with 5 eq. NO.

| Compound | \(\delta\) / mm s\(^{-1}\) | \(\Delta E_Q\) / mm s\(^{-1}\) | ref.
|-----------|----------------|--------------------|--------
| 29\(^{3-}\) (Fe\(^{III}\)) | 0.47 | 1.41 | 165 |
| (Fe\(^{II}\)) | 0.69 | 2.90 | |
| 29\(^{2-}\) | 0.25 | 0.98 | 165 |
| int. 1 | 0.26 | 1.00 | |
| int. 2 | 0.27 | 0.99 | |
| 33\(^{-}\) | 0.29 | 0.99 | |

Figure 2.15. Overlay of Mössbauer fits of diferric 29\(^{2-}\) (80 K, blue) and of the reaction mixture of 29\(^{3-}\) with 5 eq. NO after 30 min (int. 1, 6 K, red) and 90 min (int. 2, 80 K, black).

Figure 2.16. \(^1\)H NMR spectrum of mixed-valent 29\(^{3-}\) (red in DMF-d\(_7\)), diferric 29\(^{2-}\) (green in MeCN-d\(_3\)), reaction stopped after 35 min by removal of the solvent \textit{in vacuo} (blue in MeCN-d\(_3\)), and reaction stopped after 90 min by removal of the solvent \textit{in vacuo} (violet in DMF-d\(_7\)). (*) marks the residual DMF solvent peak and (°) marks DCM.
Nitrosylation of $\text{30}^{3-}$

When a solution of $\text{30}^{3-}$ in MeCN is exposed to 5 equivalents of NO the absorbance in the UV-vis spectra increases until a maximum is reached after 15 min (Figure 2.17, a). The resulting spectrum indicates the formation of diferric $\text{30}^{2-}$ with bands at 434, 512, and 585 nm and a purple colored solution. Then the absorbance decreases over several hours indicating the degradation of the [2Fe–2S] core (Figure 2.17, b). Finally, a brown solution is obtained in which the typical nitrosyl stretching frequencies of $\text{34}^-$ are found in the IR spectrum at 1740 and 1694 cm$^{-1}$ (Figure 2.17, c). These observations support a mechanistic scenario in which $\text{30}^{3-}$ is oxidized to $\text{30}^{2-}$ by a first equivalent of NO and subsequently $\text{34}^-$ is formed (Figure 2.18). The reaction pathway is more straightforward in comparison to nitrosylation of $\text{29}^{3-}$ (Chapter 2.3.1) as only one intermediate is formed, namely diferric cluster $\text{30}^{2-}$.

Figure 2.17. UV-vis spectra of nitrosylation of $\text{30}^{3-}$: a) 0–15 min (spectrum taken every 5 min) and b) 30 min–10 h (spectrum taken every 30 min). The inserted graph depicts the absorbance at 585 nm vs. time. An exponential fit gave a rate constant $k_{\text{obs}}$ of $1.25 \times 10^{-4}$ s$^{-1}$. The poor fit of the kinetic trace indicates a more complicated reaction sequence and rate law. c) Excerpt of the IR spectrum of the reaction mixture after 5 h. The bands can be assigned to DNIC $\text{34}^-$. 
2 Nitrosylation of [2Fe–2S] clusters in their diferric, mixed-valent, and protonated state

Figure 2.18. Proposed reaction pathway for nitrosylation of mixed-valent cluster $30^{-}$ with 5 equivalents of NO.

2.4 Nitrosylation of protonated clusters $29H_2$ and $30H_2$

2.4.1 Reaction of $29H_2$ with NO

Full protonation of the proton responsive ligands from $29^{2-}$ can be achieved by addition of 7 equivalents of the acid 2,6-dimethylpyridinium tetrafluoroborate (DMPH). The product is a doubly protonated cluster $29H_2$ with concomitant tautomerism of the proton of the methine bridge (Figure 2.19).\(^{163}\) Protonation of $29^{2-}$ is accompanied by rise of a characteristic, prominent band at about 380 nm ($\varepsilon = 64000 \text{ M}^{-1}\text{cm}^{-1}$) in the UV-vis spectrum.

When the nitrosylation of $29H_2$ is monitored by UV-vis spectroscopy (Figure 2.20, a), degradation of the [2Fe–2S] core is evident from bleaching of the sample. The reaction proceeds with a rate in the same order of magnitude as observed for nitrosylation of $29^{2-}$ ($k_{\text{obs}} (29H_2) = 3.98 \times 10^{-4} \text{ s}^{-1}$, $k_{\text{obs}} (29^{2-}) = 1.60 \times 10^{-4} \text{ s}^{-1}$). Several bands are detected in the region for NO species in the IR spectrum of the THF extract, but only RBS can be identified with bands at 1795 (w), 1740 (s), and 1705 (w) (Figure 2.20, b). Bands at 1652 and 1628 cm$^{-1}$ can be assigned to residual DMPH. The presence of unreacted DMPH is not surprising due to the excess needed for full protonation of the cluster. The surplus of acid
possibly prevents the formation of a DNIC-species or accelerates its decomposition, ultimately yielding RBS. Further information on the protonation product of DNIC \(33^-\) and its stability are presented in chapter 3.

The characteristic bands for the corresponding base lutidine are not detected (bands at 1593 and 1580 cm\(^{-1}\)). Possibly, it was removed with the solvent under reduced pressure prior to the IR measurement.

Figure 2.20. a) UV-vis spectra monitoring nitrosylation of protonated cluster \(29\text{H}_2\) (15 min) in DMF at \(-20^\circ\text{C}\). The inserted graph depicts absorption at 614 nm vs. time \((k_{\text{obs}} \text{ of } 3.98\times10^{-4} \text{ s}^{-1})\). The poor fit of the kinetic trace indicates a more complicated reaction sequence and rate law. b) IR spectrum of THF extract after a reaction time of 2 h. Bands labeled in purple can be assigned to RBS, bands labeled in red to residual DMPH. (*) marks residual DMF at 1685 cm\(^{-1}\).

2.4.2 Reaction of \(30\text{H}_2\) with NO

Figure 2.21. a) Nitrosylation of \(30\text{H}_2\) monitored by UV-vis spectroscopy. The inserted graph depicts absorption at 512 nm vs. time \((k_{\text{obs}} \text{ of } 3.21\times10^{-4} \text{ s}^{-1})\). The poor fit of the kinetic trace indicates a more complicated reaction sequence and rate law. b) IR spectrum of THF extract from the reaction mixture after 2 h.

Protonation of \(30^{2-}\) takes place readily with only two equivalents of DMPH. The reaction of \(30\text{H}_2\) with 4 equivalents of NO causes the decrease of overall absorbance in the UV-vis
spectra (Figure 2.23, a). The observed rate constant \( k_{\text{obs}} = 3.21 \times 10^{-4} \text{s}^{-1} \) is in the same order of magnitude as for nitrosylation of \( 30^{2-} \) (\( k_{\text{obs}}(30^{2-}) = 6.03 \times 10^{-4} \text{s}^{-1} \)). The reaction appears to be more selective than nitrosylation of \( 29\text{H}^{2-} \) because only two bands, at 1771 and 1720 cm\(^{-1}\), are detected in the typical NO region of the IR spectrum (Figure 2.21, b). These bands are proposed to belong to protonated \( 34\text{H} \) (Figure 2.22) Further evidence for the proposed molecule is presented in chapter 3.

![Proposed reaction equation for nitrosylation of \( 30\text{H}^{2-} \).](image)

### 2.5 Nitrosylation of protonated mixed-valent \( 29\text{H}^{-} \)

The mixed-valent cluster \( 29^{3-} \) was treated with 1 or 2 equivalents of DMPH and 5 equivalents of NO and monitored with UV-vis spectroscopy (Figure 2.23 a and Figure 2.24 a). Decrease of the overall absorbance indicates disassembly of the cluster core. New bands in the IR spectrum indicate the formation of an NO species and residual DMPH (Figure 2.23 b and Figure 2.24 b; DMPH is marked in red). The main band resonates at 1685 cm\(^{-1}\) in both cases. Assignment of the signal to a product was impossible so far. No \( \text{H}_{2}\text{S} \) was detected in the gasphase, probed with MS.

![UV-vis spectra of \( 29^{3-} \) after addition of 1 equivalent of DMPH and 5 equivalents of NO at \(-30 \, ^\circ\text{C}\) in MeCN. Exponential fit of the data in the inserted graph gave a rate constant \( k_{\text{obs}} \) of \( 2.8 \times 10^{-4} \, \text{s}^{-1} \). The poor fit of the kinetic trace indicates a more complicated reaction sequence and rate law.](image)

![IR spectrum of the THF extract of the reaction mixture. The signals labeled in red can be assigned to DMPH (1650 and 1630 cm\(^{-1}\)).](image)
Nitrosylation of [2Fe–2S] clusters in their diferric, mixed-valent, and protonated state

2.6 Summary and conclusion

DNICs readily form from nitrosylation of diferric [2Fe–2S] clusters (292– and 302–) with N,N- (33−) and S,N-chelating (34−) ligands. Both DNICs were fully characterized by UV-vis, IR, EPR, Mössbauer spectroscopy and X-ray crystallography. Liaw and coworkers proposed that chelating systems stabilize DNICs and destabilize RREs (Figure 1.18).156 They also postulated that thiolate binding is more stable than imidazolate binding (Figure 1.20).157 The results in this thesis support this proposal and concur with the results from Lippard and coworkers (Figure 2.2).158,168

Extensive literature on nitrosylation of synthetic diferric [2Fe–2S] clusters is available (chapter 1.4.4), however, the reactivity of reduced [2Fe–2S] clusters towards NO is sparsely investigated, although it is the preferred oxidation state under physiological conditions. In this thesis, it was shown that mixed-valent [2Fe–2S] clusters (293– and 303–) first undergo oxidation to form intermediate 1 upon nitrosylation. The dubbed intermediate 1 is in fact diferric 292– and 302–, respectively, supported by UV-vis, IR, NMR, and Mössbauer spectroscopy. Interestingly, in nitrosylation of 293– a second intermediate is observed in UV-vis spectroscopy. However, no other spectroscopic method could detect a compound different from intermediate 1. In a second step, intermediate 1 or 2 degrade slowly into the two DNICs 33− and 34−. These finding are diametric to Liaw’s proposed mechanism for the nitrosylation of protein-bound mixed-valent [2Fe–2S] clusters in which rRREs and RREs are the intermediates. According to his hypothesis, the cluster undergoes ligand exchange and then forms a {Fe(NO)2}10− and a {Fe(NO)2}9− DNIC which then reacts

Figure 2.24. a) UV-vis spectra of 293− after addition of 2 equivalents of DMPH and 5 equivalents of NO at −30 °C in MeCN. Exponential fit of the data in the insert gave a rate constant kobs of 1.48×10−4 s−1. The poor fit of the kinetic trace indicates a more complicated reaction sequence and rate law. b) IR spectrum of the solution after removal of solvent. The signals labeled in red can be assigned to DMPH (1650 and 1630 cm−1).
further to rRRE and finally undergoes oxidation. The findings presented in this thesis do not concur. RREs were not detected as intermediates during the nitrosylation of $29^3$ and $30^3$. However, it was easily possible to identify the oxidized diferric [2Fe–2S] cluster as intermediate due to a relative low reaction rate. Only after oxidation of the clusters further reaction to the respective DNICs take place. The observation of different pathways could be explained by the redox potential: Low-molecular-weight models for Fe–S proteins often have a more negative redox potential than clusters coordinated by proteins. A more negative redox potential facilitates an oxidation as first step of nitrosylation.

Another biologically relevant reaction is the protonation of histidine ligands in Rieske and mitoNEET proteins. The nitrosylation of protonated diferric and mixed-valent model clusters was presented in this chapter. Apparently, the reaction pathways are more complicated in the presence of the acid DMPH. The cluster core of $29H_2$ and $30H_2$ decomposed as observed by UV-vis spectroscopy. Nitrosylation products of $29H_2$ gave a multitude of signals in the $\nu_{NO}$-region of the IR spectrum. In contrast, the nitrosylation product of $30H_2$ displays only two signals. The signals are assigned to the symmetric and asymmetric stretching frequency of the protonated DNIC $34H$. Further investigations on this matter are presented in the next chapter.
Nitrosylation of [2Fe–2S] clusters in their diferric, mixed-valent, and protonated state.
3 Protonation and deprotonation of DNICs

3.1 Introduction and objective

A library of DNICs with various ligands like chelates, carbenes, and CO have been synthesized to date.\textsuperscript{134,168,171,172} Classical DNICs are isolated as \{Fe(NO)\textsubscript{2}\}\textsuperscript{9}, according to the Enemark-Feltham notation, with a coordination number of four. Nonclassical DNICs have higher coordination numbers of five or six.\textsuperscript{173} The once reduced state, \{Fe(NO)\textsubscript{2}\}\textsuperscript{10}, is often accessible; on the contrary, one-electron oxidation of a \{Fe(NO)\textsubscript{2}\}\textsuperscript{9} DNIC was only achieved by stabilizing the product with a delocalized aminyl radical ligand system.\textsuperscript{174} DNICs have been recognized as storage and transport agents of NO.\textsuperscript{175,176} Especially water-soluble DNICs are used as cellular NO donor agents promoting anti-inflammatory as well as anti-cancer activity.\textsuperscript{177,178}

In the following chapter, the reactivity of DNICs \textsuperscript{33} and \textsuperscript{34} towards acid and base is presented. The investigations were done \textit{in vitro} and \textit{in silico}.

3.2 Experimental results

3.2.1 IR spectroscopy

When 2,6-dimethylpyridinium tetrafluoroborate (DMPH) is added to \textsuperscript{33} in MeCN, the IR-signals of the NO-groups shift from 1780 and 1714 cm\textsuperscript{-1} to 1820 and 1743 cm\textsuperscript{-1} and the signals appear broader (Figure 3.1, a). A signal that is attributed to skeletal vibration (1606 cm\textsuperscript{-1}) is split into two signals and shifts to lower wavenumbers (1595 and 1581 cm\textsuperscript{-1}, Appendix Figure 8.6) which proves not only an influence of protonation on the nitrosyl-moieties, but also on the complex’s ligand. It is likely that the protonated ligand donates less electron density to the iron ion. Therefore, backbonding from the metal (Fe(d)\textrightarrow NO(\pi*)) is reduced and the N–O bond strengthened as higher wavenumbers correspond to a higher bond energy. The intensity of \textsuperscript{v}_{NO} decreases while \textsuperscript{v}_{ligand} remains as intense as before. The bands of excess DMPH (1680(w), 1650(s), 1630(s) cm\textsuperscript{-1}) appear in the IR spectrum after the addition of more than one equivalent. Protonation of the precursor [FeCl\textsubscript{2}(NO)\textsubscript{2}]\textsuperscript{-} has no effect on the NO stretches in the IR spectrum confirming that the protonation takes place at the ligand site rather than on the nitrosyl-moieties.
3 Protonation and deprotonation of DNICs

The protonation is reversible when 1,8-diazabicyclo(5.4.0)undec-7-ene (DBU) is added. All IR-bands shift back to the original location after addition of one equivalent of DBU and they do not move further when more DBU is added (Figure 3.1, b).

34\textsuperscript{−} exhibits similar spectroscopic behavior as 33\textsuperscript{−}. Upon protonation, the IR bands blue-shift from 1700 and 1751 cm\textsuperscript{-1} to 1722 and 1775 cm\textsuperscript{-1} and back to their original values when DBU is added (Figure 3.2). The process can be repeated several times without loss of intensity of 34\textsuperscript{−}. Considering this, the protonated species of 34\textsuperscript{−} appears to be more stable in comparison to 33\textsuperscript{−}.

Figure 3.1. a) IR spectra of 33\textsuperscript{−} (black) after addition of 1.0 (red), and 1.5 eq. DMPH (green). b) IR spectrum of protonated 33 (red), and after addition of 1.0 (black), and 2.0 eq. DBU (green). DMPH (*), skeletal vibration (◊).

Figure 3.2. IR spectra of reversible protonation of 34\textsuperscript{−} (black) with DMPH and deprotonation with DBU in MeCN. Spectra are corrected for sample concentration. Bands from DBU are marked with an asterisks (*).
3.2.2 Mössbauer spectroscopy

Addition of DMPH to a solution of $\text{33}^-$ in THF yields two species in the Mössbauer spectrum (Figure 3.3, a). One species has very similar parameters to $\text{33}^-$ (Figure 3.3, b). The other species exhibits a larger isomer shift (1.40 mm s$^{-1}$) and quadrupole splitting (3.40 mm s$^{-1}$). These Mössbauer parameters suggest the presence of an Fe$^{\text{II}}$ species. The more acid is added the more of species 2 is visible in the spectrum suggesting degradation of the nitrosyl species. The analogous protonation of $\text{34}^-$ forms only one product according to Mössbauer spectroscopy (Figure 3.4, a). The parameters of the product differ only slightly from the parameters of $\text{34}^-$ (Figure 3.4, b).

Figure 3.3. a) Zero-field Mössbauer spectrum of $\text{33}^-$ after protonation with DMPH in THF at 80 K. Parameters of species 1 (cyan): $\delta_{\text{IS}} = 0.20$ mm s$^{-1}$, $\Delta E_Q = 1.50$ mm s$^{-1}$, fwhm = 0.6 mm s$^{-1}$, 60%; parameters of species 2 (blue): $\delta_{\text{IS}} = 1.40$ mm s$^{-1}$, $\Delta E_Q = 3.40$ mm s$^{-1}$, fwhm = 0.4 mm s$^{-1}$, 40%. b) Overlay of Mössbauer spectra of $\text{33}^-$ (grey), species 1 (cyan) and species 2 (blue).

Figure 3.4. a) Zero-field Mössbauer of $\text{34}^-$ after addition of DMPH in THF at 80 K. Parameters of fit (blue): $\delta_{\text{IS}} = 0.22$ mm s$^{-1}$, $\Delta E_Q = 1.09$ mm s$^{-1}$, fwhm = 0.37 mm s$^{-1}$. b) Overlay of Mössbauer spectra of $\text{34}^-$ (green) and protonated $\text{34II}$ (blue).
3 Protonation and deprotonation of DNICs

3.2.3 Summary

The protonation site of DNICs $33^-$ and $34^-$ is most likely at the NN and NS capping ligand because the NO stretching frequencies $\nu_{\text{NO}}$ of the chloro-ligated DNIC, $[\text{FeCl}_2(\text{NO})_2]^-\text{2}$, are not affected by the addition of acid. In contrast, $\nu_{\text{NO}}$ of DNICs $33^-$ and $34^-$ shift to higher wavenumbers after addition of one equivalent of DMPH. The shift can be reversed by addition of one equivalent of DBU.

$33^-$ degrades with every cycle of protonation and deprotonation to form a side product, dubbed species 2, that was identified in the Mössbauer spectrum with $\delta = 1.40 \text{ mm s}^{-1}$ and $\Delta E_Q = 3.40 \text{ mm s}^{-1}$. $34^-$ is more stable in regard to protonation as the cycle of protonation and deprotonation can be repeated several times and no side product is formed according to Mössbauer spectroscopy.

Generally, assignment of oxidation states of $\{\text{Fe(NO)}_x\}$ complexes from Mössbauer parameters is difficult due to the covalent bond between iron and the nitrosyl moieties. The isomer shift is very sensitive to $\pi$-back-bonding.$^{179-181}$ DFT calculations were employed to support experimental results.

3.3 DFT calculations

3.3.1 Background

Ye and Neese published a computational study on the electronical structure of DNICs in 2010.$^{182}$ They found that the $\{\text{Fe(NO)}_2\}^9$ moiety can be described as a resonance hybrid between $\{\text{Fe}^{\text{II}}(\text{NO})(\text{NO}^-)\}$ and $\{\text{Fe}^{\text{III}}(\text{NO}^-)_2\}$. The first resonance structure describes a hs-ferrous ion coupled to an overall $(\text{NO})_2^-$ ligand ($S(\text{NO})_2 = 3/2$). In the second resonance structure, a hs-ferric ion couples antiferromagnetically to two NO$^-$ ligands. Both valence structures lead to an overall spin $S = 1/2$. The bonding between the iron ion and the two NO ligands is seen as covalent. Ye and Neese were able to infer IR and Mössbauer parameters in good agreement with experimental data from their calculations.

3.3.2 Geometry optimization and IR spectra of $33^-$ and $34^-$

All computation in this thesis were carried out with the ORCA program package.$^{183}$ X-ray data of the anions were employed as starting coordinates for the geometry optimization. Geometry optimizations and frequency calculations were performed with the BP86, TPSS, B3LYP and TPSSh density functionals. The def2-TZVP basis set was applied in combination with the auxiliary basis set def2-TZV/J. The conductor-like screening model
(COSMO) was employed as the experimental parameters of $\nu_{\text{NO}}$ shift slightly in dependence of the solvent used (Table 3.1). MeCN and THF were modeled in form of an infinite dielectric.

Table 3.1. IR parameter for $\nu_{\text{NO}}$ [cm$^{-1}$] of 33$^-$ and 34$^-$ (BP86/def2-tzvp) in a) MeCN and b) THF.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>exp$^a)$</th>
<th>calc$^a)$</th>
<th>exp$^b)$</th>
<th>calc$^b)$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>33$^-$</td>
<td>1780, 1714</td>
<td>1749, 1673</td>
<td>1773, 1705</td>
<td>1752, 1681</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>34$^-$</td>
<td>1751, 1700</td>
<td>1709, 1643</td>
<td>1744, 1694</td>
<td>1716, 1657</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

BP86 and TPSS functionals give the best result for IR frequencies of nitrosyl moieties in comparison to the other functionals (Table 3.1 and Table 8.1 in appendix). The calculated values diverge from the experimental ones by a scaling factor of approximately 1.02 (red shifted). The deviation is smaller when THF is used instead of MeCN in the COSMO package. Overall the IR spectrum is well reproduced (Figure 3.5).

Figure 3.5. Comparison of calculated and experimental data. a) 33$^-$ in MeCN, b) 34$^-$ in MeCN, c) 33$^-$ in THF, d) 34$^-$ in THF.
3 Protonation and deprotonation of DNICs

3.3.3 Mössbauer parameters of $33^-$ and $34^-$ and their protonated forms

Geometry optimized anions $33^-$ and $34^-$ from chapter 3.3.2 were employed for the calculation of Mössbauer parameters $\delta_{IS}$ and $\Delta E_Q$. For the protonated species, one H-atom was added to one imidazole-$N$ atom with the program Chemcraft and the charge was changed to zero. Optimized structures of $33H$ and $34H$ are shown in Figure 3.6. The Mössbauer parameters were computed using the CP(PPP) basis set for Fe and def2-TZVP for the other atoms.\textsuperscript{184–186} Isomer shifts $\delta_{IS}$ were calculated from the electron densities at the Fe nucleus $\rho_0$. Quadrupole splittings were conveniently stated in the ORCA output file by calculation incorporating the electric field gradient (see chapter 7.4 for more information).

The Mössbauer parameters of $33^/-33H$ and $34^-/34H$ are summarized in Table 3.2. Results for other functionals are presented in the appendix (Table 8.3). The quadrupole splitting especially for $34^-/34H$ fits well and for $33^-/33H$ adequately. The value becomes larger upon protonation which is in agreement with the experiment. DFT calculation gives an increase of the isomer shift after protonation of DNIC $33$ and $34$. Experimentally, this increase is only observed for $34/34H$. The trend regarding the isomer shift after protonation of $33$ is not reproduced possibly because the protonation site of $33H$ is described incorrectly in Figure 3.6.

![Figure 3.6](image-url) Geometry optimized structure of $33H$ (a), and $34H$ (b).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>$\delta_{IS}$ / mm s$^{-1}$</th>
<th>$\Delta E_Q$ / mm s$^{-1}$</th>
<th>$\delta_{IS}$ / mm s$^{-1}$</th>
<th>$\Delta E_Q$ / mm s$^{-1}$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>exp</td>
<td>calc</td>
<td>exp</td>
<td>calc</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$33^-$</td>
<td>0.28</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>0.99</td>
<td>1.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$33H$</td>
<td>0.20</td>
<td>0.10</td>
<td>1.50</td>
<td>1.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$34^-$</td>
<td>0.18</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.90</td>
<td>0.98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$34H$</td>
<td>0.22</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>1.09</td>
<td>1.16</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3.2. Experimental Mössbauer parameters in THF and calculated values (B3LYP/def2-tzvp).
3.3.4 Investigation of second protonation pathway for $33^-$

The wrong trend in the calculation of the isomer shift of $33^+$/33H might be explained by a different pathway for the protonation of $33$ in comparison to $34$. In theory, $33^-$ can be protonated twice while $34^-$ can be protonated once, assuming that the protonation site is on the imidazole-N of the ligand. However, it is obvious from the experiment that one equivalent DMPH is sufficient for full protonation of $33^-$. A rearrangement of the H atom in the backbone of the bis(benzimidazolato) ligand of $33^-$ can take place as a consequence of the protonation (Figure 3.7, a). The same behavior was reported for the protonation of the bis(benzimidazolato) coordinated [2Fe–2S] cluster (compare Figure 2.19). This protonation goes in hand with an intense absorbance at 380 nm in the UV-vis spectrum ($\varepsilon = 64000 \, \text{M}^{-1}\text{cm}^{-1}$) and a color change of the solution from red to green. Such an intense band was not seen in the UV-vis spectrum of the protonated DNIC. The solution remained reddish-brown after protonation. Nevertheless, the rearrangement (Figure 3.7, a) was investigated by DFT calculations.

![Proposed mechanism for rearrangement of H atom on bis(imidazolato) ligand of 33](image)

![Geometry optimized structure of 33H-rearranged](image)

Figure 3.7. a) Proposed mechanism for rearrangement of H atom on bis(imidazolato) ligand of 33. b) Geometry optimized structure of 33H-rearranged.
A geometry optimization was run on **33H-rearranged** (BP86/def2-tzvp) with a charge of ±0 and a spin of $S = \frac{1}{2}$. In the optimized structure the carbon atom in the backbone bound to the phenyl group is almost in a planar coordination environment (Figure 3.7, b). The IR data obtained from the optimized structure differ strongly from the experimental data (Table 3.3). A scaling factor of 1.07 would be necessary to arrive at the experimental values. Much better agreement of experimental and simulated data was achieved for the once protonated structures **33H** and **34H**. The scaling factor is the same as for the not-protonated species (1.02). This result in combination with the absence of a characteristic UV-vis band for the rearranged ligand suggest that the molecular structure of **33H** does not feature a rearrangement.

![Figure 3.8](image)

**Figure 3.8.** Comparison of calculated and experimental data for **33H**, **33H-rearranged** (a) and **34H** (b).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>$\nu_{NO}$ / cm$^{-1}$</th>
<th>calc</th>
<th>exp</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>33H</strong></td>
<td>1775, 1722</td>
<td></td>
<td>1820, 1743</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>33H-rearranged</strong></td>
<td>1680, 1648</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>34H</strong></td>
<td>1735, 1667</td>
<td></td>
<td>1775, 1722</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
3.4 Discussion and conclusion

$33^-$ and $34^-$ are readily protonated with DMPH and deprotonated with DBU. The protonation/deprotonation is reversible, however, protonation of $33^-$ forms a side product that cannot reenter the de-/protonation cycle. DFT calculations support the idea that the protonation site is on the N-atom of the benzimidazolate ligand. The NO stretching frequencies of $33^-$ and $34^-$ are well reproduced. The observation that $\nu_{\text{NO}}$ shifts to higher wavenumbers after addition of acid is also confirmed. The deviations of the calculated from the experimental result are between 21 and 57 cm$^{-1}$. Ye and Neese observed deviations from the experimental values of 61 to 72 cm$^{-1}$ for their system.\textsuperscript{182} Therefore, calculated IR spectra are in reasonable agreement with the experimental data.

When the bis(benzimidazolato) coordinated $[2\text{Fe}–2\text{S}]$ cluster $29^{2-}$ is protonated, a rearrangement of the methine-H of the ligand takes place (Figure 2.19). This behavior is unlikely for DNIC $33\text{H}$ as calculations reveal a very different IR spectrum for that species. Single protonation on the N-atom of the aromatic ring, however, leads to reliable results for the IR frequencies that again compare well to experimental values.

Calculations of Mössbauer parameters show that the isomer shift and the quadrupole splitting increase upon protonation of the DNICs. While this holds true for the protonation of $34^-$, protonation of $33^-$ affects a shift to a smaller value of the isomer shift. No explanation has been found for the divergent behavior thus far. Still, it is possible to derive from calculations that species 2 after protonation of $33^-$ does not seem to be a DNIC that is simply protonated on the ligand because isomer shift and quadrupole splitting significantly differ from the calculated values.

Although protonation of DNIC $33^-$ and $34^-$ was investigated by IR and Mössbauer spectroscopy as well as DFT calculation, the molecular structure of the protonated species remains elusive. Samples of $^{57}\text{Fe}$-enriched $34^-$ and $34\text{H}$ were prepared for NRVS measurements and sent to the group of Prof. Schünemann at TU Kaiserslautern in order to gain more insight.
Cubane-type \([4\text{Fe}–4\text{S}]\) cluster with one pentacoordinate iron ion

4.1 Introduction and objective

The vast majority of iron ions in \(\text{Fe}–\text{S}\) clusters have a distorted tetrahedral coordination (cf. chapter 1.2.1). Five-fold coordination is unusual and results in an activation of the participating iron ion. In nature, several systems make use of this feature. One enzyme discussed in this regard in the scientific community is biotin synthase. Its \([2\text{Fe}–2\text{S}]\) cluster is ligated by three cysteines and one arginine.\textsuperscript{187} Arginine is an exceptional ligand that offers the possibility for mono- and bidentate binding.\textsuperscript{188} X-ray crystallography was not able to determine the binding mode of the arginine residue due to low resolution of the crystal structure determination. Five-fold coordination of the iron ion cannot be excluded from the data available.

Synthetic \([2\text{Fe}–2\text{S}]\) clusters with five-coordinated iron atoms have provided more insight into the matter. On the one hand, an intermediate with a five-coordinated iron ion was postulated by DFT calculation for the slow isomerization of a \([2\text{Fe}–2\text{S}]\) cluster via a solvent-mediated associative process.\textsuperscript{167} On the other hand, models for five-coordinated \([2\text{Fe}–2\text{S}]\) clusters were synthesized with tridentate capping ligands (\(35^{2–}, 36^{2–}\), Figure 4.1).\textsuperscript{189,190} With these model structures the effect of pentacoordination was investigated. Secondary bonding was more pronounced for a thioether-\(S\) compared to an ether-\(O\) in \(35^{2–}\). In both \(35^{2–}\) and \(36^{2–}\) the \(\text{Fe}–\text{Fe}\) distance and \(\text{Fe}–\text{S}–\text{Fe}\) angles increase due to the distortion induced by the ligand. The secondary interaction affects a more positive Mössbauer isomer shift for both compounds. An increase of the quadrupole splitting is detected for \(35^{2–}\) in comparison to related four-coordinate \([2\text{Fe}–2\text{S}]\) clusters. The quadrupole splitting of \(36^{2–}\) is unusually small, but relates well to calculated values from DFT studies.

![Figure 4.1. Five-coordinated low-molecular weight \([2\text{Fe}–2\text{S}]\) clusters.\textsuperscript{189,190}](image-url)
Site-differentiated [4Fe–4S] clusters occur in nature with aconitase as the prototypical example. The enzyme is involved in the catalytic step of transforming citrate into isocitrate (chapter 1.2.3, p. 12). A single iron ion is bound to $\text{H}_2\text{O/}\text{OH}^-$ in its resting state and to oxygen atoms of the substrate in its active state. Other examples of [4Fe–4S] proteins with one iron site different from the other three include ferredoxin III from *Desulfovibrio africanus* and ferredoxin of *Pyrococcus furiosus*. These clusters have one iron ion bound to an aspartic acid instead of a cysteine. Synthetic site-differentiated clusters with various different ligands are presented in chapter 1.3 (p. 15). In 1983 Johnson et al. synthesized a series of $(\text{Et}_4\text{N})_2[\text{Fe}_4\text{S}_4(\text{SC}_6\text{H}_4-o-X)_4]$ with $X = \text{NH}_2$, OMe, OH, and SMe to examine the possible formation of five-coordinate Fe sites in cubane-type clusters. The $X = \text{OH}$ cluster contains three conventional tetrahedral FeS$_4$ sites and one distorted trigonal-bipyramidal FeS$_4$O site (37$^2$-). The structure was confirmed by X-ray crystallography and Mössbauer spectroscopy. The reduced 37$^-$ and oxidized 37$^3$- were studied in depth by Le Pape et al. with EPR single-crystal and proton ENDOR spectroscopy.

The objective of this chapter is to carry on investigations of five-coordinated cubane-type [4Fe–4S] clusters. Johnson *et al.* failed in obtaining a crystal structure for $(\text{Et}_4\text{N})_2[\text{Fe}_4\text{S}_4(\text{SC}_6\text{H}_4-o-\text{NH}_2)_4]$. But Mössbauer spectroscopy was used instead to determine the solid state isomer. The spectrum showed only one single quadrupole doublet which indicates that all iron ions are in the same coordination environment. In this chapter the characterization of the cluster in the solid state and in solution is presented.
4 Cubane-type [4Fe–4S] cluster with one pentacoordinate iron ion

4.2 Synthesis

A self-assembly approach was followed to synthesize the target molecule 38 effectively and allow for convenient exchange of counter ions. 2-Aminothiophenol was deprotonated with sodium methoxide in methanol. Then iron(III)chloride and lithium sulfide were added. In a self-assembly reaction, a 2-amino-benzenethiol ligated [4Fe–4S] cluster is formed and precipitates upon addition of a halide salt of Et₄N⁺ or PhMe₃N⁺ (Figure 4.3). The precipitate is filtered from the solution and the product is extracted with MeCN. Crystalline material suitable for crystal structure analysis was obtained by diffusion of diethyl ether in a MeCN solution of the clusters.

4.3 Structural characterization of 38²⁻

Surprisingly, the crystal structure reveals different ligand binding in dependence on the counter ion (Figure 4.4). All four ligands bind via the thiol group in a monodentate fashion when Et₄N⁺ is introduced as counterion, thus the cluster in (Et₄N)₂38 contains four conventional tetrahedral FeS₄ sites. The cluster crystallizes in the orthorhombic space group Aba2 and no solvent cocrystallizes in the unit cell. The anion 38²⁻ is C₂ symmetric.

The crystallization of two Me₃PhN⁺ as counterion induces a change of the coordination number of one iron ion. The ligand at Fe(1) is rotated and forms a chelating ring with the bond distance Fe–S of 2.3318 Å, being only 0.059 Å longer than the mean of the three other terminal Fe–S distances. This bond represents a primary interaction. The distance between the iron ion to the amine group is shorter (2.2770 Å). The symmetry of the molecule is broken due to this constitutional change. The molecule crystallizes in the triclinic space group P-1 with two Me₃PhN⁺ and one MeCN molecule.
4 Cubane-type [4Fe–4S] cluster with one pentacoordinate iron ion

Figure 4.4: Crystal structure and drawing of (Et₄N)₂38 (a) and (Me₃PhN)₂38 (b). Thermal displacement ellipsoids are shown at 50% probability, carbon bound hydrogen atoms and counter ions are omitted for more clarity.

Table 4.1: Selected bond length (Å) and angles (°) of (Et₄N)₂38 and (Me₃PhN)₂38. (Et₄N)₂37 is shown for comparison.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>(Et₄N)₂38</th>
<th>(Me₃PhN)₂38</th>
<th>(Et₄N)₂37</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Fe(1)⋯S(11)</td>
<td>2.2666(6)</td>
<td>2.3318(4)</td>
<td>2.313</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fe(1)⋯N(11)</td>
<td>5.145(1)</td>
<td>2.2770(13)</td>
<td>–</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fe⋯O</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>2.318</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feₐv⋯Sₐvolate</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>2.2725</td>
<td>2.278</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(i) non-binding

Johnson et al. found that the distance Fe⋯OHₐnon-binding is 4.13–5.57 Å, evidencing a lack of interaction. For (Et₄N)₂38 distances Fe⋯NH₂ₐnon-binding were found between 5.026 and 5.145 Å. The crystal structure of (Me₃PhN)₂38 exposes very different distances between Fe⋯NH₂ₐnon-binding of 3.941, 4.281, and 5.211 Å. These finding support that the symmetry of (Me₃PhN)₂38 is rescinded and that the ligands bind very unsymmetrically.

4.3.1 Mössbauer spectroscopy of solid sample and in frozen solution
(Et₄N)₂38 exhibits an isomer shift δₜ₁₈ of 0.43 mm s⁻¹ and a quadrupole splitting ΔEQ of 0.88 mm s⁻¹ in the zero-field Mössbauer spectrum (Figure 4.5, a). These values are similar
to the values reported by Johnson et al. when taking into consideration that they referenced the isomer shift to Fe metal at 4.2 K. The values are typical for [Fe₄S₄(SR)₄]²⁻ with R substituents lacking secondary interaction sites. Such clusters exhibit one or two closely overlapping quadrupole doublets with $\delta IS = 0.32–0.36 \text{ mm s}^{-1}$. The $\alpha$-NH₂ groups do not appreciably interact with the core.

![Figure 4.5. Zero-field Mössbauer spectra of (Et₄N)₂38 at 80 K (a), (Me₃PhN)₂38 at 80 K (b), (Me₃PhN)₂38 at 14 K (c).](image)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Compound</th>
<th>$T / \text{K}$</th>
<th>$\delta IS / \text{mm s}^{-1}$</th>
<th>$\Delta E_Q / \text{mm s}^{-1}$</th>
<th>$\Gamma / \text{mm s}^{-1}$</th>
<th>$(I_{R/L})$</th>
<th>Rel. Int. / %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(Et₄N)₂38</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>0.43</td>
<td>0.88</td>
<td>0.32</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Et₄N)₂38&lt;sup&gt;195&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>4.2–80</td>
<td>0.33&lt;sup&gt;b)&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>0.88</td>
<td>0.34</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Me₃PhN)₂38</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>0.46</td>
<td>1.14</td>
<td>0.35</td>
<td>0.8</td>
<td>75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0.60</td>
<td>1.64</td>
<td>0.27</td>
<td>0.8</td>
<td>25</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0.47</td>
<td>1.20</td>
<td>0.37</td>
<td>0.8</td>
<td>72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0.61</td>
<td>1.71</td>
<td>0.28</td>
<td>0.8</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Me₃PhN)₂38 (MeCN)</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.44</td>
<td>1.05</td>
<td>0.40</td>
<td>1.02</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Et₄N)₂37&lt;sup&gt;195&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>0.30&lt;sup&gt;b)&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>0.76</td>
<td>0.26</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0.34&lt;sup&gt;b)&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>1.23</td>
<td>0.34</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0.49&lt;sup&gt;b)&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>1.82</td>
<td>0.26</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Et₄N)₂37 (MeCN)&lt;sup&gt;195&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>0.32&lt;sup&gt;b)&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>1.03</td>
<td>0.43</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>97&lt;sup&gt;a&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<sup>a</sup> Minority spectral component present with intensity of 3 %, b) standard: Fe at 4.2 K.

In the case of (Me₃PhN)₂38 a shoulder is visible in the Mössbauer spectrum (Figure 4.5, b and c). The experimental data is best fitted with two doublets in a ratio of 3:1. The asymmetry of the doublets was considered with an asymmetry factor $(I_{R/L})$ of 0.8. A reason...
for the asymmetry in Mössbauer spectra can be an anisotropic orientation of crystals in the magnetic field. The asymmetry factor was correlated to be the same in both subspectra. The respective isomer shifts are 0.46 mm s\(^{-1}\) (grey) and 0.60 mm/s (blue) and a quadrupole splitting of 1.14 mm s\(^{-1}\) (grey) and 1.64 mm s\(^{-1}\) (blue). The quadrupole splitting is dependent on the electrical field gradient of the iron core which is indirectly influenced by the coordination sphere and the binding ligands. The fact that two species in a ratio of 3:1 are found confirms the result from the crystal structure that one iron ion is set in a different surrounding than the other three iron ions. The isomer shift of the main signal corresponds well to the isomer shift of (Et\(_4\)N)\(_2\)\(37\). The isomer shift of the smaller signal (blue) is higher. Johnson \textit{et al.} attribute the high isomer shift to five-coordinate Fe atoms. The remaining doublets have parameters that are common for conventional [Fe\(_4\)S\(_4\)(SR\(_4\))]\(^2-\) clusters with tetrahedral FeS\(_4\) sites. They report an increase by 0.15–0.20 mm/s at 4.2 K as a presumed consequence of five-coordination.

The Mössbauer spectrum of (Et\(_4\)N)\(_2\)\(37\) has three doublets with the approximate ratio of 1(A):2(B):1(C).\(^{195}\) Johnson \textit{et al} assign the signals as followed: One iron is in a five-coordinated environment because of the secondary bonding interaction of the hydroxy group. This coordination leads to an unusual large isomer shift \(\delta = 0.49\) mm s\(^{-1}\) and a large quadrupolar interaction \(\Delta E_Q = 1.82\) mm s\(^{-1}\)(species C). The other three iron atom have the usual tetrahedral surrounding in the first coordination sphere. However, two iron atoms give the same signal in Mössbauer spectroscopy due to a mirror pseudosymmetry of the whole molecule (species B) while one parameter is slightly lower (species A).

A solution of (Me\(_3\)PhN)\(_2\)\(38\) in MeCN was slowly cooled to –196 °C in order to freeze the state in solution and compare it the results from crystalline material. The Mössbauer spectrum of the solution can only be fitted to one doublet with an isomer shift of 0.44 mm s\(^{-1}\) and quadrupole splitting of 1.05 mm s\(^{-1}\) (Figure 4.6). The signal from the five-coordinated iron atom disappears. The small asymmetry in the signal is fitted with a right/left correlation of 1.02. The quadrupole splitting of the frozen solution is smaller than the quadrupole splitting of the solid sample. Apparently, the inequality of the iron ions is canceled and all of them give the same signal in Mössbauer spectroscopy.
4 Cubane-type [4Fe–4S] cluster with one pentacoordinate iron ion

Figure 4.6. (Me$_3$PhN)$_2$38 in frozen solution (MeCN) at 80 K. $\delta = 0.44$ mm s$^{-1}$, $\Delta E_Q = 1.05$ mm s$^{-1}$, fwhm = 0.4 mm s$^{-1}$, asymmetry factor ($f_{as}$) = 1.02.

4.3.2 UV-vis spectroscopy

Both complexes (Me$_3$PhN)$_2$38 and (Et$_4$N)$_2$38 have bands at 303, 350(sh) and 484 nm in the UV-vis spectrum in MeCN at room temperature regardless of their different constitution in the solid state. This is in accordance to the results from Mössbauer spectroscopy where there is no difference of the four iron ions in slowly cooled solution (Figure 4.6). It was of interest whether the UV-vis spectrum changes when the freedom of movement was inhibited by lowering the temperature. The solvent was changed to EtCN as its melting point is approx. 50 °C below the melting point of MeCN. Variable temperature UV-vis spectroscopy shows no effect on the bands (Figure 4.7, a). Therefore, there is no hint for constitutional change as the solution cools down. Reflectance spectra of crystalline (Me$_3$PhN)$_2$38 and (Et$_4$N)$_2$38 in the solid state were measured in addition to UV-vis spectra of the solutions (Figure 4.7, b). Overall, both compounds produce similar spectra, however, in the spectrum of (Me$_3$PhN)$_2$38 a band at 450 nm is more pronounced.
4 Cubane-type [4Fe–4S] cluster with one pentacoordinate iron ion

4.3.3 NMR spectroscopy

The $^1$H NMR spectra of both compounds (Me$_3$PhN)$_2$38 and (Et$_4$N)$_2$38 in acetonitrile at 243–298 K reveal no inequivalence of $\sigma$-C$_6$H$_4$NH$_2$ substituents nor any clear evidence of fluxional processes involving NH$_2$ groups on the NMR time scale (Figure 4.8). Chemical shifts are given in the experimental section (Chapter 8). The signals are well resolved due to the strong antiferromagnetic coupling of two \{Fe$^{2.5}$Fe$^{2.5}$\}-pairs in the cluster.

Figure 4.7. a) vt UV-vis spectroscopy of (Me$_3$PhN)$_2$38 in EtCN and b) reflectance spectrum of crystalline (Me$_3$PhN)$_2$38 (black) and (Et$_4$N)$_2$38 (red) in solid state at rt.

Figure 4.8: $^1$H NMR spectrum of a) (Et$_4$N)$_2$38 at 298 K in MeCN-d$_3$, b) (Me$_3$PhN)$_2$37 at 243 K in MeCN-d$_3$. The asterisk (*) marks residual solvent signal and the circle (°) marks DCM.
4.3.4 Cyclic voltammetry

The cyclic voltammogram of (Me$_3$PhN)$_2$38 in MeCN (0.1 M Bu$_4$NP$_6$) compares well to the values measured in literature for (Et$_4$N)$_2$38 (Table 4.3). The first reduction is reversible with $E_{1/2} = -1.48$ V vs. Fc$^{+0}$ while the second reduction is irreversible with $E_{pc} = -2.11$ V vs. Fc$^{+0}$ at 100 mV/s (Figure 4.9, a). Although oxidative waves are not reported in literature, two irreversible anodic processes were recorded concomitant with precipitation on the working electrode (Figure 4.9, b). It appears that the first oxidation becomes quasi-reversible at higher scan rates while the second moves out of the measured potential.

Table 4.3. Redox properties of (Et$_4$N)$_2$38 and (Me$_3$PhN)$_2$38.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>$E_{1/2}$</th>
<th>$E_{pc}$</th>
<th>$E_{pa}$</th>
<th>$E_{pa}$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(Et$_4$N)$_2$38 in DMF</td>
<td>$-1.45$</td>
<td>$-2.07$</td>
<td>$-0.47$</td>
<td>$-0.18$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Me$_3$PhN)$_2$38 in MeCN</td>
<td>$-1.48$</td>
<td>$-2.11$</td>
<td>$-0.47$</td>
<td>$-0.18$</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(a) All potentials vs. Fc$^{+0}$, (b) Irreversible reaction, (c) Johnson et al: glassy carbon, SCE, (n-Bu$_4$N)ClO$_4$, DMF, (d) glassy carbon, Pt-wire, Ag-wire, (n-Bu$_4$N)PF$_6$, MeCN, (e) at a scan rate of 100 mV/s.

Figure 4.9. Cyclic voltammogram of (Me$_3$PhN)$_2$38 ($c = 1$ mM) in MeCN/0.1 M NBu$_4$PF$_6$ at rt vs. Fc$^{+0}$ at various scan rates ($v = 100, 200, 500, 1000$ mV s$^{-1}$).
4 Cubane-type [4Fe–4S] cluster with one pentacoordinate iron ion

4.4 Conclusion

A [4Fe–4S] cluster was synthesized with four 2-aminothiophenolate ligands. Interestingly, the counter ion affects the packing of the molecules in the crystal yielding different structures for the anions of (NEt$_4$)$_2$$\text{38}$ and (Me$_3$PhN)$_2$$\text{38}$. (NEt$_4$)$_2$$\text{38}$ comprises a symmetric cubane core with four equivalent tetrahedral {FeS$_4$} sites.$^{195}$ The structure of the previously reported compound was now supported by crystallographic data in this work. Me$_3$PhN$^+$ induces a change of one iron site to become pentacoordinate {FeS$_4$N}. The structural difference is reflected in Mössbauer spectroscopy with two doublets in a ratio of 3:1 for (Me$_3$PhN)$_2$$\text{38}$. The unique iron ion exhibits a more positive isomer shift and a larger quadrupole splitting than the other three iron ions. The doublets collapse into one single doublet when a frozen solution of (Me$_3$PhN)$_2$$\text{38}$ is measured instead of crystals, suggesting that the site-differentiation is absent in solution. In fact, UV-vis and NMR spectroscopy confirm that the anion $\text{38}^{2-}$ has the same configuration independent of the presence of (NEt$_4$)$^+$ or (Me$_3$PhN)$^+$ in solution. Finally, cyclic voltammetry was conducted. One reversible and one irreversible reduction was found for (Me$_3$PhN)$_2$$\text{38}$ in accordance to previously reported results for (NEt$_4$)$_2$$\text{38}$.\textsuperscript{195} Two irreversible oxidation waves were detected for (Me$_3$PhN)$_2$$\text{38}$ of which the first appeared to become more reversible at high scan rates. Further investigations on the oxidation of $\text{38}^{2-}$ are presented in the following chapter.
5 Oxidation of $^{38}\text{S}^2^−$ with dioxygen and $p$-benzoquinone

5.1 Introduction and objective

Low-potential ferredoxins cycle between the resting state [4Fe–4S]$^{2+}$ and [4Fe–4S]$^+$ (midpoint potential at −0.4 V vs. SHE) while high-potential iron-sulfur proteins (HiPIPs) are oxidized from [4Fe–4S]$^{2+}$ to [4Fe–4S]$^{3+}$ (with midpoint potential of 0.3 V vs. SHE). The protein’s structure and environmental influences dictate the potential of the [4Fe–4S] cluster. Therefore, normally only one, either oxidation or reduction, is observed for one specific [4Fe–4S]$^{2+}$ cluster in nature. An exception is found in the [NiFe] hydrogenase of *Aquilax aelolicus* where a [4Fe–4S] cluster is reported to be stable in all three oxidation states +1, +2, and +3. In its usual enzymatic activity mode, the cluster switches between +1 and +2. The +3 state is a special response to oxidative stress.

In general, the [4Fe–4S]$^{2+}$ state is diamagnetic with two delocalized {Fe$^{2.5+}$Fe$^{2.5+}$} pairs in the cluster core and the reduced/oxidized +1 and +3 states are paramagnetic (see Introduction 1.2.1). [4Fe–4S]$^{3+}$ consists of one delocalized mixed-valence pair {Fe$^{2.5+}$Fe$^{2.5+}$} and a ferric {Fe$^{3+}$Fe$^{3+}$} pair. Current research shows that HiPIPs are essential in many processes in the body. For example, the redox reaction between [4Fe–4S]$^{2+/3+}$ clusters serves as a switch for initiation and termination of human DNA primase and as a modulator for the DNA-binding affinity of DNA repair proteins.

Synthetic clusters imitate the natural ferredoxins well with a reversible redox reaction between the oxidation states +1/+2/+3 as [Fe$_4$S$_4$(SR)$_4$]$^{3−/2−/1−}$ anion. However, the terminal oxidation to all ferric or reduction to all ferrous [4Fe–4S] is usually irreversible. Tuning of the potential is possible via the steric demands of the substituent R, e.g., bulky substituents stabilize +3 states. Examples for synthetic [4Fe–4S]$^{3+}$ clusters were given in the introduction ([Fe$_4$S$_4$(N(SiMe$_3$)$_2$)$_4$] (11$^−$), [Fe$_4$S$_4$(STip)$_3$] (12$^0$), [Fe$_4$S$_4$(SDmp)$_3$(Me$_4$Im)]$^−$ (15$^0$), pp. 14). It is noteworthy that the symmetric cubane cluster with terminal amide ligands 11 is the only cluster that was isolated in three oxidation states (+2, +3, +4) as the bulky weak-field terminal amide ligands stabilize the high oxidation states of the core. In addition to the clusters above, results will be compared with the data from the symmetric cluster [Fe$_4$S$_4$(SDmp)$_4$]$^−$ (39$^−$).

In contrast to the isolated [4Fe–4S]$^{3+}$ clusters mentioned above, Le Pape et al. produced paramagnetic compounds from asymmetrical (Et$_4$N)$_2$37 in situ for single-crystal EPR and
5 Oxidation of $38^{2-}$ with dioxygen and $p$-benzoquinone

Proton-ENDOR measurements. The diamagnetic $[4\text{Fe}–4\text{S}]^{2+}$ sample was irradiated with $\gamma$-rays which created simultaneously the “oxidized” $[4\text{Fe}–4\text{S}]^{3+}$ and the “reduced” $[4\text{Fe}4\text{S}]^{+}$ species. Both paramagnetic species were trapped at low concentration in a diamagnetic crystalline matrix and then measured.

5.2 Reaction of $38^{2-}$ with dioxygen

The color of the solution of $38^{2-}$ changed from brown to blue-violet once oxygen is allowed to diffuse into the solution via a cannula. This color change is monitored by UV-vis spectroscopy (Figure 5.1, a). The reaction is completed after 30 min with isobestic points at 354 and 480 nm. Apparently, the reaction rate is mainly controlled by diffusion. When a flask is opened to air and then stirred well or shaken the color change is immediate. The new compound $38^{ox}$ exhibits intense bands at 550 and 305 nm tentatively assigned to ligand-to-metal charge transfer (LMCT). Similar bathochromic shifts of the major bands are reported for the oxidation of $11^{2-}$ (amide ligand) and $12^{2-}$ (thiolate ligand) and for HiPIPs in proteins. Comparison to other systems (Table 5.1) confirms the general trend, however, reasonable comparison is limited because different solvents are used and, most importantly, the energy of the LMCT severely depends on the ligand.

Although the cluster reacts readily with oxygen from air it is not stable under aerobic conditions for longer times. The characteristic band of $38^{ox}$ at 550 nm in MeCN fades significantly when the solution is kept under air over 35 hours (Figure 5.1, b) suggesting the products degeneration.

![Figure 5.1. Reaction of (Me/PhN)$_2$38 with O$_2$ in MeCN monitored by UV-vis spectroscopy. a) Reaction to intermediate with strong absorption at 550 nm, b) decay of $38^{ox}$ over several hours. Both inserts depict $\epsilon$ vs. time at 550 nm.](image-url)
Table 5.1. Electronic absorption data of clusters in the oxidation states [4Fe4S]$^{\text{3+4+}}$. The oxidation state of $38^{\text{ox}}$ is not assigned.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>$38^{\text{ox}}$</th>
<th>solvent</th>
<th>$\lambda$ [nm] ($\varepsilon$ [M$^{-1}$cm$^{-1}$])</th>
<th>ref</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$39^{-}$ [4Fe4S]$^{\text{3+}}$</td>
<td>MeCN</td>
<td>302 (sh, 18 300), 550 (18 000), 680 (sh, 9 700).</td>
<td>–</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$11^{-}$ [4Fe4S]$^{\text{3+}}$</td>
<td>DCM</td>
<td>236 (sh, 48 000), 276 (sh, 23 700), 328 (13 400), 475 (28 100).</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$11^{0}$ [4Fe4S]$^{\text{4+}}$</td>
<td>THF</td>
<td>257 (22 900), 404 (17 700), 630 (sh, 2400).</td>
<td>94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$15^{0}$ [4Fe4S]$^{\text{3+}}$</td>
<td>THF</td>
<td>348 (17 000), 446 (14 000).</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The oxidation product $38^{\text{ox}}$ is not reactive towards H$_2$ or TEMPOH. CoCp$_2^*$ and CoCp$_2$ can be used to reverse the oxidation as monitored by UV-vis spectroscopy (Figure 5.2, a). Subsequent opening of the cuvette to air reforges a band at 550 nm, but it is less intense (Figure 5.2, b).

![Figure 5.2. UV-vis spectroscopy of a) titration of $38^{\text{ox}}$ with CoCp$_2^*$, b) UV-vis spectrum after opening the vessel to air.](image)

When a solution of $38^{\text{ox}}$ in MeCN is measured a molecule peak at 843.7 m/z is detected in ESI(−)MS (Figure 5.3). A simulation of $[38 - 4H]^-$ (= C$_2$H$_{20}$Fe$_4$S$_4$N$_4$) calculates for the experimental value and isotopic pattern of that peak. This means that the [4Fe–4S] core persist the oxidation process under the loss of 4 hydrogen atoms. The same peak at 843.7 m/z with the same isotopic pattern is seen in LIFDI-MS spectrum (Figure 8.7 in appendix).
5 Oxidation of $38^{2-}$ with dioxygen and $p$-benzoquinone

Figure 5.3. $m/z$ range 100-1200 of the ESI(−)MS spectrum of $38^{ox}$ in MeCN. The insert depicts an excerpt of the spectrum from 1098 to 1113 $m/z$ (top) and the simulated pattern for $[38 - 4 \text{H}]^{-}$ ($= \text{C}_{24}\text{H}_{20}\text{Fe}_{4}\text{S}_{8}\text{N}_{4}$).

Figure 5.4. $38^{2-}$ in MeCN after exposure to air for 30 min and then frozen at 80 K.

$\delta_{IS} = 0.19 \text{ mm s}^{-1}, \Delta E_Q = 1.79 \text{ mm s}^{-1}, \text{fwmh} = 0.3 \text{ mm s}^{-1}$.

The Mössbauer spectrum of $38^{ox}$ (Figure 5.4) has only one doublet with a small isomer shift of 0.19 mm s$^{-1}$ and a large quadrupole splitting of 1.79 mm s$^{-1}$. An isomer shift in that range is indicative for iron(III) ions. A guideline for the assignment of oxidation states to
Fe–S clusters is provided by the formula below for the Mössbauer isomer shift $\delta_{1S}$ in dependence on the oxidation number $s$ at 77 K.\textsuperscript{10}

$$\delta_{1S}/\text{mm s}^{-1} = 1.43 - 0.40s$$

The formula was inferred from a data set of known Fe$_n$(SR)$_{4-n}$ sites ($n = 0, 2, 3$) in synthetic species. It is best applicable to [Fe$_4$S$_4$(SR)$_4$]$^{2-3-}$ clusters, but the nature of the counterion and the lattice can cause small modulations. For the isomer shift of 38$^{\text{ox}}$ (0.19 mm s$^{-1}$) the oxidation number $s$ amounts to 3.1 which supports the assignments of four iron(III) ions. Rao \textit{et al.} reported that a difference of 0.1 mm s$^{-1}$ is typical for adjoining [4Fe–4S] oxidation levels.\textsuperscript{10} The difference between $\delta_{1S}(\text{38}^{2-})$ and $\delta_{1S}(\text{38}^{\text{ox}})$ amounts to 0.24 mm s$^{-1}$. Therefore, two oxidation steps seem reasonable for 38$^{2-}$ which again supports the oxidation of two formally Fe(II) ions to Fe(III) ions in 38$^{\text{ox}}$.

A large quadrupole splitting implies a large electronic field gradient at the iron nucleus due to valence contributions from 3d-electrons or ligand contributions. As all d-orbitals are singly populated in Fe$^{\text{III}}$-hs complexes, the valence contribution can be largely excluded as reason. Therefore, deviation from total symmetric coordination, as is the case for five-fold coordination, can be one explanation for the larger quadrupole splitting in comparison to the quadrupole splitting of 38$^{2-}$. The small full-width-at-half-maximum (fwhm) of 0.3 mm s$^{-1}$ does not allow for the fitting of several Fe-species. Therefore, all iron ions are probably in the same oxidation state and ligand environment.

![Figure 5.5. Proposed structure of 38$^{\text{ox}}$.](image)

The isomer shift for amide ligated 11$^-$ and thiolate ligated 12 is more positive than for 38$^{\text{ox}}$ (12 $> 11^-$ $> 38^{\text{ox}}$, Table 5.2). Unfortunately, no Mössbauer parameters are reported for [Fe$_4$S$_4$(SDmp)$_4$]$^{-}$ or 15$^0$ to compare the data from this thesis to. The quadrupole splitting of
38ox is much larger than that of all the clusters in [Fe₄S₄]³⁺ state, but similar to that of 11 in the [Fe₄S₄]³⁺ state.

Table 5.2. Mössbauer parameters for [Fe₄S₄]³⁺⁺ of model compounds and HiPIP protein from C. vinosum. α and β refer to the mixed-valence Fe²⁺⁻⁻Fe³⁺⁻ pair or diferric Fe³⁺⁻Fe³⁺⁻ pair, respectively. (C. = Chromatium)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>T / K</th>
<th>δ₁S / mm s⁻¹</th>
<th>ΔE₉S / mm s⁻¹</th>
<th>reference</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>38ox</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>0.19</td>
<td>1.79</td>
<td>this work</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11⁻</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11⁰</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12⁰</td>
<td>4.2</td>
<td>α</td>
<td>0.40</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>β</td>
<td>0.34</td>
<td>0.90</td>
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<td>12⁰</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>100</td>
<td>α</td>
<td>0.39</td>
<td>0.79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>β</td>
<td>0.32</td>
<td>0.73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C. vinosum</td>
<td>4.2</td>
<td>α</td>
<td>0.40</td>
<td>1.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>β</td>
<td>0.29</td>
<td>0.88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>77</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.33</td>
<td>0.83</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

38²⁻ was dissolved in DCM and exposed to air. Samples for EPR spectroscopy were taken from the reaction mixture after 5, 18, and 30 min, then frozen and measured (Figure 5.6). An isotropic signal with a g-value of 2.006 appears and intensifies over time. The EPR spectrum of [Fe₄S₄]³⁺ in proteins and model clusters are normally axial and their gₐv-value is larger than the value for the free electron (gₑ = 2.0023). In literature values are found between 2.0555–2.0693 (Table 5.3). Papaefthymiou et al. observed broad EPR lines for synthetic clusters compared to lines of protein due to considerable g-strain. Nevertheless, model compounds achieve a good agreement with g-values for the HiPIP proteins with experimental values between 2.043 and 2.066. Pape et al. excluded that the paramagnetic species are free radicals on the ligands or on the counterions, since they would rather exhibit much less anisotropic g-tensors and resolved proton hyperfine structure. In the case of 38ox, a free radical on the ligand cannot be excluded as the isotropic g-value is close to gₑ. On the other hand, a [Fe₄S₄]³⁺ cluster seems not reasonable as the g-tensor is not axial and the g-value is too small.
5 Oxidation of $38^{2-}$ with dioxygen and $p$-benzoquinone

Figure 5.6. EPR spectrum of reaction mixture in frozen solution (DCM) at 159 K after 5, 18 and 30 min.

Table 5.3. Compilation of $g_{av}$-values for selected HiPIPs (A. = Allochromatium, H. = Halorhodospira, R. = Rhodopila, E = Ectothiorhodospira, Ru. = Rubrivivax, Rh. = Rhodocyclus) and model compounds.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model clusters:</th>
<th>$g_{av}$-values</th>
<th>ref</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$[\text{Fe}_4\text{S}_4(\text{SDmp})_4]^- (39^-)$</td>
<td>2.043</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$[\text{Fe}_4\text{S}_4(\text{STip})_4]$ (12°)</td>
<td>2.066</td>
<td>96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$[\text{Fe}_4\text{S}_4(\text{SC}_6\text{H}_5-o-\text{OH})_4]$ (37°) a)</td>
<td>2.048, 2.041, 2.038</td>
<td>196</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$[\text{Fe}_4\text{S}_4(\text{SBn})_4]^- a)$</td>
<td>2.053, 2.053, 2.054, 2.038, 2.055</td>
<td>208</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$[\text{Fe}_4\text{S}_4(\text{SPh})_4]^- a)$</td>
<td>2.034</td>
<td>209,210</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>HiPIPs</th>
<th>$g_{av}$-values</th>
<th>ref</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A. vinosum</td>
<td>2.0626</td>
<td>211</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H. halophila isoprotein I</td>
<td>2.0693</td>
<td>211</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R. globiformis</td>
<td>2.0640</td>
<td>211</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E. vacuolata isoprotein I</td>
<td>2.0555</td>
<td>211</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E. vacuolata isoprotein II</td>
<td>2.0583</td>
<td>211</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ru. gelantinosus</td>
<td>2.0579</td>
<td>211</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rh. tenuis</td>
<td>2.0576</td>
<td>211</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a) Data from single-crystal EPR measurements. Site multiplicity, i.e. different location for the mixed-valence pairs, was detected for asymmetric (Et$_4$N)$_3$7 (three centers) and symmetric (Et$_4$N)$_2$[Fe$S_4$(SBn)$_4$] (five centers). In a fully symmetrical cluster each of six possible topologies for the mixed-valence pairs should be equally likely.
5 Oxidation of $38^{2-}$ with dioxygen and $p$-benzoquinone

Magnetic susceptibility measurements (SQUID) of precipitated $38^{\text{ox}}$ confirm a spin of 1/2. The $g$-value is 2.247 and therefore higher than the one determined with EPR spectroscopy. In order to achieve a good fitting of the data, temperature independent paramagnetism (TIP) was subtracted ($1741.4 \times 10^{-6}$ emu) and the Curie-Weiss parameter was set at $-1.894$ K.

In summary, reversible oxidation of $38^{2-}$ is possible with dioxygen as monitored by UV-vis spectroscopy. ESI-MS and LIFDI-MS suggest that the cluster is still intact under the loss of four hydrogen atoms. Mössbauer provides evidence that only one iron species is present. The isomer shift is too low for $[\text{Fe}_4\text{S}_4]^{3+}$ suggesting that two oxidation steps took place and both Fe$^{\text{II}}$ from the starting $[\text{Fe}_4\text{S}_4]^{2+}$ are oxidized to Fe$^{\text{III}}$. However, this electronic structure would produce an EPR-silent cluster due to antiferromagnetic coupling, as seen in the amide ligated $[\text{Fe}_4\text{S}_4]^{4+}$ cluster 11. EPR and SQUID of $38^{\text{ox}}$ measurements suggest a $S = \frac{1}{2}$ spin system. It is not likely that the unpaired electron is localized on an iron as one would expect a more anistropic pattern. The quadrupole splitting of $38^{\text{ox}}$ is almost as large as for 11 in the oxidation state $[\text{Fe}_4\text{S}_4]^{3+}$. Normally, quadrupole splitting is a sign for the symmetry around the iron core. It seems to be asymmetric which could be due to a pentacoordination of the iron ions as depicted in Figure 5.5.
5.3 Equivalents of oxidant

It was not sufficiently possible to determine the oxidation state and charge of \( 38^{\text{ox}} \) with ESI-MS, Mössbauer and UV-vis spectroscopy. Therefore, a Clark electrode was used to identify the number of equivalents of dioxygen necessary for the oxidation of \( 38^{2-} \) to give \( 38^{\text{ox}} \).

![Figure 5.8. Oxygen uptake by \( 38^{2-} \) in MeCN.](image)

After the calibration of the electrode in an air tight flask, \( 3 \times 3 \) equivalents of dioxygen (10.17 \( \mu \)mol) were added with an air-tight Hamilton syringe into a solution of (Me\(_3\)PhN)\(_2\)38 in MeCN (Figure 5.8). The electrode detected a minimum of 5.15 \( \mu \)mol of oxygen in the gas phase above the solution after an induction period of 11 min. After that the level of oxygen rises to 7.83 \( \mu \)mol. At the lowest point 1.5 eq. of oxygen were consumed. Some of the oxygen was not detected probably because it was consumed right away by a fast reaction. The rise of dioxygen amount from 17–110 min could be explained by disproportionation of hydrogenperoxide to water and dioxygen (Scheme 5.1). This pathway would explain why the amount of \( O_2 \) first goes down and then rises again.

\[
\begin{align*}
4 \text{H}^+ & , 4 \text{e}^- \text{ (from Fe-S)} \\
2 \text{O}_2 & \rightarrow 2 \text{H}_2\text{O}_2 \rightarrow 2 \text{H}_2\text{O} + \text{O}_2
\end{align*}
\]

Scheme 5.1. Possible reaction pathway of oxygen during the oxidation of \( 38^{2-} \).
5 Oxidation of $38^{2-}$ with dioxygen and $p$-benzoquinone

Figure 5.9: Titration of (Me₃PhN)$_2$38 with $p$-benzoquinone monitored by UV-vis spectroscopy. a) 1 eq. (red), 2 eq. (blue), 3 eq. (green), 4 eq. (cyan), 5 eq. (magenta). 30 min between each addition. One spectrum was measured every minute. b) Addition of 1–10 eq. while stirring and waiting in between at least 15 min.

As an alternative to dioxygen, other oxidants were tested in order to find the correct number of equivalents necessary for the reaction to take place. TEMPO did not react at all and a combination of DBU and thianthrenium tetrafluoroborate did not lead to reproducible results. DDQ seemed to degrade the complex, but addition of $p$-benzoquinone produced the characteristic band at 550 nm. It takes three equivalents of $p$-benzoquinone to reach full conversion (Figure 5.9). Addition of further equivalents does not affect a rise in absorption of the band 550 nm. According the reaction in Scheme 5.2 three equivalents of $p$-benzoquinone account for the uptake of 6 protons and 6 electrons.

Scheme 5.2. Reduction of $p$-benzoquinone to hydroquinone.
5 Oxidation of $38^2^-$ with dioxygen and $p$-benzoquinone

Figure 5.10. Zero-field Mössbauer spectra of $38^2^-$ and a) 2 eq. $p$-benzoquinone in THF/MeCN at 80 K, b) 3 eq. $p$-benzoquinone in MeCN at 80 K, c) 5 eq. $p$-benzoquinone in MeCN at 80 K.

Mössbauer spectra were measured of $38^2^-$ with 2, 3, and 5 equivalents of $p$-benzoquinone (Figure 5.10, Table 5.4). The blue subspectra have the same parameters as $38^2^-$ after the reaction with dioxygen. In the sample with two equivalents of $p$-benzoquinone unreacted starting material is still visible (red subspectrum). Besides $38^{ox}$ another Fe containing product can be identified by Mössbauer spectroscopy after addition of 3 and 5 equivalents of $p$-benzoquinone (grey subspectrum). The more $p$-benzoquinone is added, the more side product is formed.

Table 5.4. Mössbauer parameters after addition of 2, 3 or 5 eq. $p$-benzoquinone to $38^2^-$ in MeCN at 80 K.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>$\delta_{IS}$ / mm s$^{-1}$</th>
<th>$\Delta E_{QS}$ / mm s$^{-1}$</th>
<th>ratio / %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$38^2^-$ + 2 eq. $p$-benzoquinone</td>
<td>blue</td>
<td>0.17</td>
<td>1.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>red</td>
<td>0.51</td>
<td>1.15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$38^2^-$ + 3 eq. $p$-benzoquinone</td>
<td>blue</td>
<td>0.17</td>
<td>1.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>grey</td>
<td>0.36</td>
<td>0.46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$38^2^-$ + 5 eq. $p$-benzoquinone</td>
<td>blue</td>
<td>0.17</td>
<td>1.87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>grey</td>
<td>0.34</td>
<td>0.47</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
5 Oxidation of $38^{2-}$ with dioxygen and $p$-benzoquinone

Figure 5.11. 1H NMR spectrum of oxidation product $38^{ox}$. (*) denotes residual solvent. Paramagnetic signals that change their position in dependence on the temperature are marked with the letters A−D.

The NMR spectrum in Figure 5.11 was recorded one hour after the sample was exposed to an excess of $O_2$ at −30 °C, −15 °C and 0 °C. While signals for diamagnetic species should show no significant shift with temperature, paramagnetic signals can be influenced quite strongly. Taking this in consideration, it is possible to assign the signals in Table 5.5 to a paramagnetic compound that evolved after exposure to $O_2$. After the addition of $p$-benzoquinone as oxidant the same signals appear (Figure 5.12) in the proton NMR spectrum. Hydroquinone formation is proven by proton NMR spectroscopy ($\delta = 6.60$ ppm).

Table 5.5. $^1$H NMR shifts of paramagnetic $38^{ox}$ in MeCN-d$_3$.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>$T / K$</th>
<th>$\delta / ppm$</th>
<th>$\delta / ppm$</th>
<th>$\delta / ppm$</th>
<th>$\delta / ppm$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>243</td>
<td>11.73</td>
<td>6.41</td>
<td>−12.32</td>
<td>−21.99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>258</td>
<td>11.26</td>
<td>6.33</td>
<td>−10.50</td>
<td>−19.27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>273</td>
<td>10.94</td>
<td>6.26</td>
<td>−9.44</td>
<td>−17.69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>295</td>
<td>10.58</td>
<td>6.18</td>
<td>−8.28</td>
<td>−16.10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
In summary, $38^{2−}$ reacts with approximately 1.5 equivalents of dioxygen or 3 equivalents of $p$-benzoquinone. Both oxidants yield $38^{\text{ox}}$ as reaction product according to UV-vis, Mössbauer, and $^1\text{H}$ NMR spectroscopy. The number of equivalents was determined by a Clark electrode or UV-vis spectroscopy, respectively. The result would imply that in both cases 6 electrons and 6 protons are abstracted from the cluster according to Scheme 5.1 and Scheme 5.2. However, these numbers should be treated with caution for three reasons. Firstly, dioxygen can be reduced to either $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$ or $\text{H}_2\text{O}$ and the reaction mechanism is not fully elucidated yet. Secondly, a side product is detected in the Mössbauer spectrum after the reaction of $38^{2−}$ with $p$-benzoquinone. Apparently, a surplus of oxidant causes the degradation of $38^{\text{ox}}$ and an increase of the amount of side product. Thirdly, abstraction of 6 H atoms is contradicted by the ESI-MS spectrum of $38^{\text{ox}}$ (Figure 5.3) in which the molecular ion peak has a mass of [38–4H].

Figure 5.12. Comparison of the $^1\text{H}$ NMR spectra of a) (Et$_4$N)$_2$38 + 3 $p$-benzoquinone and b) (Me$_3$PhN)$_2$38 + dioxygen. Little deviation in the chemical shift of the signals can be attributed to measuring at slightly different room temperature. (*) denotes DCM. (°) denotes residual solvent. A spectrum of the reaction in acetone-$d_6$, and Curie behavior thereof can be found in the appendix (Figure 8.8).
5 Oxidation of $38^{2-}$ with dioxygen and $p$-benzoquinone

5.4 Conclusion

Oxidation of $38^{2-}$ with dioxygen or $p$-benzoquinone afforded a UV-vis spectrum with a prominent band at 550 nm ($\epsilon = 9 \, 600 \, \text{cm}^{-1}\text{M}^{-1}$). This bathochromic shift from 484 nm ($\epsilon = 7700$) is typical for oxidation of [4Fe–4S] clusters. The oxidation product was stable under air for a few hours. The oxidation could be reversed with CoCp$_2^+$, however, subsequent exposure to air only retrieved the band at 550 nm with less intensity in the UV-vis spectrum.

ESI-MS of $38^{ox}$ suggested that the cluster core was still intact but indicated the loss of four hydrogen atoms. Mössbauer spectroscopy showed only one doublet with an isomer shift of 0.19 mm s$^{-1}$ and a quadrupole splitting of 1.79 mm s$^{-1}$. According to this data, all four iron ions are in the oxidation state +3 and they are bidentally bound by the amine and the thiolate of 2-aminothiophenolate. Mössbauer data of the only reported all-ferric [4Fe–4S]$^{4+}$ cluster 11 compare well to $38^{ox}$ with an isomer shift of 0.26 mm s$^{-1}$ and a quadrupole splitting of 1.67 mm s$^{-1}$. [4Fe–4S]$^{3+}$ clusters, on the other hand, have a significantly higher isomer shift of 0.32–0.40 mm s$^{-1}$ and smaller quadrupole splitting of 0.73–1.35 mm s$^{-1}$.

All-ferric [4Fe–4S]$^{4+}$ clusters are EPR-silent. However, a spin of $S = 1/2$ was detected on $38^{ox}$ with EPR spectroscopy and SQUID magnetometry. NMR-spectroscopy confirmed Curie-behavior of the paramagnetic compound.

The number of equivalents of oxidant was quantified with a Clark electrode (O$_2$) and UV-vis spectroscopy titration ($p$-benzoquinone). Results point towards a mechanism involving 6 electrons/6 protons. However, Mössbauer spectroscopy identified a Fe-containing side product insinuating that a surplus of oxidant leads to degradation of $38^{ox}$.

![Figure 5.13. Iron complex with similar binding motif as $38^{2-}$ (R = Mes).](image)

In conclusion, further investigations are necessary to elucidate the structure of $38^{ox}$. A pentacoordinate iron complex with the same ligand was published in 2016. Jiang et al. synthesized the mononuclear ls-Fe$^{II}$ complex 39 with a similar binding motif as is proposed for $38^{ox}$ (Figure 5.13). A proton can be removed from 39$^+$ with t-BuOK and then again
added with HBF₄. This example points towards an easy proton abstraction from the amine and a preferred pentacoordination of the iron ion. However, 38\textsuperscript{ox} only reacted under simultaneous abstraction of electrons and protons in contrast to 39\textsuperscript{+}. Also, the strong-field ligands of 39 impose a 1s spin state. It is probably due to their different oxidation and spin state that the two complexes exhibit ultimately different reaction behavior.
Oxidation of \( \text{X} \) with dioxygen and \( \text{p}-\text{benzoquinone} \)
6 Protonation of 5,6-Dithia-1,10-phenanthroline, its application as disulfide/dithiol switch, and as ligand for [2Fe–2S] clusters

6.1 Introduction and objective

2,2’-bipyridines are important ligands for complexation of metal ions and they are widely used as parts of “photosensitizer”, especially with ruthenium as central atom ([Ru(bpy)₃]²⁺). The complex absorbs light via metal to ligand charge transfer (MLCT) at 452 nm, ligand centered transition (285 nm) and metal centered transition (350 nm). The resulting MLCT excited state [Ru(bpy)₃]²⁺* has a comparatively long lifetime (0.9 μs in MeCN) due to a forbidden singlet-triplet transition. The triplet excited state has both oxidizing and reducing properties. Exchange of one pyridine ring with imidazole allows for proton coupled electron transfer (PCET). Extensive literature is dedicated to modification and functionalization of bipyridines with altered electronic and steric properties.

Light-driven reduction of Fe₄S₄ complexes and related systems has been an active topic of research in recent years. Not yet reported complex 40 combines two active sites: a chromophore (Ru(bpy)₃) and an electron storage moiety (Fe–S cluster). Due to the covalent linkage, the electronic communication between the two sites would be more effective than in multicomponent systems like the triad system in Figure 6.1, b. Here, photoinduced electron transfer results ultimately in the reduction of the Fe–Fe complex mimicking the iron-only hydrogenase.

![Figure 6.1. a) Target compound 40, a coupled Ru(bpy')₃–[2Fe–2S] molecule, b) bioinspired triad system for photoinduced electron transfer, (I) reductive quenching, (II) intermolecular electron transfer.](image-url)
6 Protonation of 5,6-Dithia-1,10-phenanthroline, its application as disulfide/dithiol switch, and as ligand for [2Fe–2S] clusters

Figure 6.2. Compound 41 and its reactivity: I.a) N-coordination to metal, I.b) S-coordination to metal, II.) disulfide/dithiol switch, I.a) and b) protonation at the pyridine-N.

The first step towards target molecule 40 is the synthesis of the linking bipyridine ligand. Cattaneo developed the synthesis of 5,6-dithia-1,10-phenanthroline (41) in our group. Patents for 41 have been filed, but they do not give any details on the synthesis. 41 is versatile in terms of its application due to two functional sites (Figure 6.2): the bipyridine-N atoms on one hand and the disulfide/dithiol on the other. The coordination to a metal ion can take place via the N-atoms (I.a) or the S-atoms (I.b), if the disulfide bridge is cleaved. Route I.a is preferred for Ru-complexes. In this thesis, route I.b will be explored as Fe–S clusters are prone to binding to thiols. Preliminary results on [2Fe–2S] cluster 42– (Figure 6.3) will be presented. Here, the pyridine-N can serve as coordination site for protons, Lewis acids or, as desired, for metals/complexes.

Figure 6.3. [2Fe–2S] cluster with 41 as ligand (42–, top) and possible further reactivity of cluster 42– (bottom).

The redox properties of 41 were investigated thoroughly as part of this thesis. The disulfide bond can be opened reversibly via a two-electron two-proton reaction (Figure 6.2, step II). These disulfide/dithiol switches are important in redox control and charge storage in biochemical systems and offer the opportunity for multiple electron storage.
Protonation of 5,6-Dithia-1,10-phenanthroline, its application as disulfide/dithiol switch, and as ligand for [2Fe–2S] clusters

Reactivity of 41 towards acid is also of interest as protonation can occur on the bipyridine-N site (III,a and b) and will be presented in the subchapter 6.3.

6.2 Synthesis of the ligand

Some parts of this chapter have been adapted from a submitted manuscript.223

\[
\begin{array}{c}
\text{OH} & \text{OH} \\
N & N \\
\text{Br} & \text{Zn/Ni(0)/PPh}_3 & \text{Me}_2\text{NC(S)}\text{Cl} & \text{Cs}_2\text{CO}_3 \\
\text{43} & \text{44} & \text{45} \\
\end{array}
\]

\[
\begin{array}{c}
\text{O} & \text{O} \\
\text{N} & \text{N} \\
\text{46} & \text{41} \\
\end{array}
\]

Figure 6.4. Synthesis of [1,2]dithiino[4,3-b:5,6-b']dipyridine 41. I. DMF, 50 °C, 24 h, II. acetone, reflux, 24 h, III. powder, 7 min, IV. THF, 50 °C, 3 h, V. O₂, DCM.

[1,2]dithiino[4,3-b:5,6-b']dipyridine 41 was obtained by a multistep synthesis initially developed by Cattaneo (Figure 6.4).223 For this thesis, the reaction conditions in step II were modified in order to improve the yield of 45. Caesium carbonate was used instead of sodium hydride as base and the reaction time was increased. Generally, Newman-Kwart rearrangement reactions as in step III require high temperature and a reaction time of 1–2 hours in order to ensure quantitative yields. However, careful optimization of the reaction condition was necessary in order to minimize the amount of side products, for instance, thieno[3,2-b:4,5-b']bipyridine (47). Experiments with microwave instead of thermal energy to avoid the formation of 47 were unsuccessful. HPLC was not able to properly separate the not-rearranged (45), once-rearranged, twice rearranged (46), and the mono-sulfur compound (47). Therefore, the procedure developed by Cattaneo was applied for
6 Protonation of 5,6-Dithia-1,10-phenanthroline, its application as disulfide/dithiol switch, and as ligand for [2Fe–2S] clusters

step III–V. After reduction with LiAlH₄ (step IV) the product oxidizes to 41 when handled under air. It is obtained as a pale yellow oil. Work-up of 46 under argon atmosphere and with degassed water results in isolation of the new compound 41H₂. Recrystallization from toluene yields red crystals suitable for X-ray crystallography (Figure 6.5). 41H₂ crystallizes in the space group monoclinic P2₁/c. The pyridine units are in anti orientation. The zwitterionic form is preferred for the hydrogen bonding between thiols and pyridinic-nitrogen atoms. Hydrogen atom positions have been refined freely giving bond distances to the bridging hydrogen of d(S₁⋅⋅⋅H₁) = 2.02(2) Å and d(N₁-H₁) = 0.92(2) Å, respectively, and an angle α(N₁-H₁⋅⋅⋅S₁) of 1.58(2)°.

Figure 6.5. Molecular structure of 41H₂ determined by X-ray crystallography. The thermal displacement ellipsoids are shown at 50% probability. Selected bond lengths [Å] and angles [°]: S(1)–C(2) 1.7318(16), N(1)–C(5) 1.337(2), N(1)–C(1) 1.357(2), C(5)–N(1)–C(1) 125.46(15). Hydrogen bonds for 40H₂ [Å and °] N(1)–H(1) 0.92(2), S(1)–H(1) 2.02(2), N(1)–H(1)⋅⋅⋅S(1) 1.58(2). Symmetry transformation used to generate equivalent atoms: (') 1–x, 1–y, 1–z.

6.3 UV–vis titration of 41 with PhCOOH, TFA and TfOH in MeCN

Some parts of this chapter have been adapted from a submitted manuscript.²²³

Cattaneo measured UV–vis spectra of pale yellow 41 in buffered, neutral water and reported bands at 270 and 305 nm (π-π*) and a weaker, broad absorption at 380 nm (n-π*). He observed that protonation of 41 causes a bathochromic shift of all bands to 279, 322, and 423 nm with isosbestic points indicating clean interconversion between 41 and its protonated form. He derived a pKₐ value of 2.88(1) from pH dependent UV–vis titrations. The pKₐ value of 41 is substantially lower than that of parent 2,2’-bipyridine (pKₐ = 4.45)²²⁸ or phenantroline (pKₐ = 4.84).²²⁹ NMR spectroscopy confirmed the bipyridine-N as the protonation site.

Cattaneo conducted his protonation experiments in buffed water. However, a change of the solvent to MeCN was needed in order to prove that it is appropriate for the CV experiments presented in chapter 6.4. The band at 270 and 305 nm of 41 were badly resolved because
6 Protonation of 5,6-Dithia-1,10-phenanthroline, its application as disulfide/dithiol switch, and as ligand for [2Fe–2S] clusters

the window for UV spectra closes around 300 nm for the solvent MeCN. On grounds of the previous results by Cattaneo, UV-vis titrations were conducted with three different acids, namely, benzoic acid (PhCOOH, pKₐ,MeCN = 21.51),230 trifluoroacetic acid (TFA, pKₐ,MeCN = 12.65)231 and trifluoromethanesulfonic acid (TfOH, pKₐ,MeCN = 2.60).231

Figure 6.6. Titration of 41 with benzoic acid (PhCOOH) in MeCN. The insert shows that no change in absorbance is observed at 423 nm.

Figure 6.7. a) Titration of 41 with trifluoroacetic acid (TFA) in MeCN, b) backtitration with 1,8-diazabicyclo(5.4.0)undec-7-ene (DBU) in MeCN. Inserts show absorbance vs equivalents of TFA or DBU at 423 nm.

Figure 6.8. a) Titration of 41 with trifluoromethanesulfonic acid (TfOH) in MeCN, b) backtitration with 1,8-diazabicyclo(5.4.0)undec-7-ene (DBU) in MeCN. Inserts show absorbance vs equivalents of TfOH or DBU at 329 nm.
Addition of PhCOOH does not cause a change in the UV-vis spectrum (Figure 6.6) while addition of TFA affects a rise of bands assigned to the protonation product (Figure 6.7, a). Full protonation of 41 is achieved after addition of 2 equivalents of TfOH (Figure 6.8, a). The same bands are observed as reported for the protonation of 41 in buffed water by Cattaneo. Backtitration to the original spectrum was possible by addition of DBU (Figure 6.7 and 6.8, b).

Based on these observations, PhCOOH is too weak to protonate 41 in MeCN, but with TFA the spectrum of the protonated species is replicated. Therefore, the pKₐ for the first protonation of 40 must be between 21.51 and 12.65 in MeCN. As 2 equivalents of the strong acid TfOH are needed, it is reasonable to aver that with each equivalent one pyridine-N atom is protonated yielding the proposed structures for the protonated species in Figure 6.9.

Based on these observations, PhCOOH is too weak to protonate 41 in MeCN, but with TFA the spectrum of the protonated species is replicated. Therefore, the pKₐ for the first protonation of 40 must be between 21.51 and 12.65 in MeCN. As 2 equivalents of the strong acid TfOH are needed, it is reasonable to aver that with each equivalent one pyridine-N atom is protonated yielding the proposed structures for the protonated species in Figure 6.9.

![Figure 6.9. Proposed protonation of 40 with PhCOOH, TFA, and 1 or 2 equivalents of TfOH.](image)

6.4 S–S bond cleavage mechanism: the disulfide/dithiol switch

Some parts of this chapter have been adapted from a submitted manuscript. ²²²³

Cyclic voltammetry and DFT calculations were conducted in order to decipher the mechanism of the reductive S–S bond cleavage of compound 41. The voltammogram of 41 in MeCN (0.1 M Bu₄NPF₆) exhibits one reduction with a peak potential of −1.76 V and a re-oxidation at −0.74 V vs. ferrocene at a scan rate of 100 mV s⁻¹ (Figure 6.10, a). The absolute value of the peak current Iₚₑ of the reduction wave increased linearly with the square root of the scan rate (0.1 − 10 V s⁻¹), which is characteristic for diffusion controlled processes (Figure 6.10, b). The cathodic and anodic wave are separated by approximately 1000 mV. This large separation and the linear shift of the cathodic peak potential Eₚₑ per
Protonation of 5,6-Dithia-1,10-phenanthroline, its application as disulfide/dithiol switch, and as ligand for [2Fe–2S] clusters

\[ \log(v) \] (Figure 6.10, c) is indicative for either an irreversible electron transfer process or (ir)reversible electron transfer processes followed by a fast chemical reaction. The second would be the case for reductive S–S bond cleavage.

![Figure 6.10](image_url)

**Figure 6.10.** a) Cyclic voltammogram of 41 in MeCN at rt (0.1 M Bu4NPF6, c(41) = 3.1 mM), \( v = 100 \) mVs\(^{-1}\), b) peak current \( I_{p,c} \) vs. \( \nu^{1/2} \), c) cathodic peak potential \( E_{p,c} \) vs. \( \log(v) \).

Similar voltammograms have been reported for compounds 48–50 (Figure 6.11). The S–S bond cleavage mechanism has been thoroughly investigated for 8-diiodo-dibenzo[1,2]dithine (48), 232 4,4′-bipyridyl-3,3′-disulfid (49), 233 and disulfide-strapped N,N-alkylated bipyridinium cation (viologen, 50). 234 The respective authors conclude a EEC mechanism for 48 and EE mechanism for 49 and 50. In other accounts, a ECE mechanism is described for S–S bond cleavage in diaryl disulphides. 235

![Figure 6.11](image_url)

**Figure 6.11.** Well-investigated molecules with disulfide/dithiol switch. 232–234

In order to elucidate the details of the reduction mechanism of 41, DFT studies were performed by Dr. Dechert in our group; computational details can be found in the respective publication. 223 It was found that the LUMO of 41 has antibonding character with respect to the S–S bond provoking a significant elongation of the S–S bond from 2.076 to 2.747 Å upon the first reduction (Figure 6.12). The SOMO of 41 has \( \sigma^* \) S–S antibonding character (Figure 6.12, b). Further reduction of 41 results in twisting of the pyridine rings and S–S
bond cleavage according to DFT calculations. The two-electron reduced product, \(41^{2-}\), exhibits a C–S⋯S–C torsion of \(\varphi = 94^\circ\) and a long S⋯S separation of 4.398 Å, thus any bonding interactions are no longer present (Figure 6.12, c). The close to orthogonal orientation of the pyridine rings in \(41^{2-}\) results as a compromise between electrostatic repulsion of the two thiolates and repulsive interactions between the thiolate and pyridine-N lone pairs. In conclusion, the DFT calculations suggest an EEC mechanism for the reduction of \(41\). After the first reduction the S–S bond is elongated, but not cleaved. S–S bond breakage occurs only after a second electron is added.

Figure 6.12. a) LUMO of \(41\) (contour value: 0.08), torsion angle \(\varepsilon(C\rightarrow S\rightarrow S\rightarrow C) = 49.1^\circ\), \(d(S\rightarrow S) = 2.076\ \text{Å}\); b) SOMO of \(41^-\) (contour value: 0.08), c) HOMO of \(41^{2-}\) (at global minimum with \(\varphi = 94.1^\circ\); contour value: 0.08), torsion angle \(\varepsilon(C\rightarrow S\rightarrow S\rightarrow C) = 94^\circ\), \(d(S\rightarrow S) = 4.398\ \text{Å}\).

The experimental CV data, which were recorded as part of this thesis, were then simulated by Prof. Dr. Siewert with the software *DigiElch* to experimentally substantiate the proposed EEC mechanism. Simulations were carried out for sweep rates of 0.1 to 10 V s\(^{-1}\), and the entire curves were simulated (Figure 6.13). Good simulations could be achieved using reasonable values for the various parameters over the entire sweep rate range. The initial reduction of \(41\) to give \(41^-\) exhibits a potential of \(-1.20\) V at a rather small electron transfer rate \(k_{e,1}\) of \(1\times10^{-5}\) cm s\(^{-1}\), likely due to the significant structural change accompanying the reduction. The second reduction to give \(41^{2-}\) occurs at a lightly lower potential of \(-1.38\) V \((k_{e,2} = 1\times10^{-4}\) cm s\(^{-1}\)) and is followed by a fast chemical reaction with a rate constant \(k_{c,1} \geq 50\) s\(^{-1}\) leading to \(41^{2-}(\text{open})\). The second reduction hence occurs at a more negative potential than the first reduction, in contrast to what has been proposed previously for related dithiins \(48\) and \(49\). Fast chemical reaction upon twofold reduction is consistent with S–S bond breaking and twisting of the pyridine units against each other.
The anodic feature can be modelled by re-oxidation of $\text{41}^-$ *(open)* at a potential of $E_3$ of $-1.15$ V ($k_{s,3} = 1 \times 10^{-4}$ cm$^{-1}$) and subsequent very fast chemical reaction forming $\text{41}^-$ ($k_{c,2} \geq 100$ s$^{-1}$). A further unproductive pseudo first order chemical side reaction has to be considered to successfully model the data ($k_{c,3}$ in Figure 6.13), which likely reflects the partial protonation of $\text{41}^2$ *(open)* forming $\text{41H}_2$ due to traces of water in the solvent MeCN.

Water strongly influences the redox properties of $\text{41}$ as revealed by electrochemical measurements conducted in the presence of water (Figure 6.14). Upon adding 10 eq. of water, the cathodic peak gets much sharper and shifts anodically. This is even more pronounced in the presence of 100 eq. of water. The peak current $I_{p,c}$ of the reduction wave increased linearly with the square root of the scan rate ($0.1 – 10$ V s$^{-1}$) indicating a diffusion controlled process (Figure 8.9, a in appendix). The cathodic and anodic waves are largely separated while a linear shift of $E_{p,c}$ with log($\nu$) is still observed, which points to a fast chemical reaction following the reduction (Figure 8.9, b in the appendix). Initial inspection of the CV data in the presence of 10 and 100 eq. of water suggested an ECE mechanism, the chemical reaction being first order with regard to water. The steep slope of the reduction
6 Protonation of 5,6-Dithia-1,10-phenanthroline, its application as disulfide/dithiol switch, and as ligand for [2Fe–2S] clusters

wave indicates potential inversion of the first and second reduction process. Protonation and bond breaking following the initial reduction was previously reported for 48 and seemed also reasonable for 41.

![Cyclic voltammograms of 41 (blue) with 10 eq. water (red) and 100 eq. water (black) in MeCN (0.1 M Bu4NPF6, 100 mV s⁻¹, rt).](image)

However, 41⁻ possesses a basic N atom of the pyridine unit in contrast to 48 which naturally impacts the reaction with water greatly. DFT studies of the protonated reduced form 41H⁻ revealed a global minimum energy structure in the closed form. The S–S distance of ground state 41H⁻ is much shorter than in 41⁻ (d(S–S) = 2.11 vs. 2.75 Å) and similar to the S–S bond length in 41, and the tilting of the two pyridine rings is less pronounced (C–S–S–C torsion angle φ = 27.0°). In fact, the SOMO of 41H⁻ has no σ* S–S antibonding character as in 41⁻, but it of π* orbital type and is localized at the bipyridine unit (Figure 6.15). Protonation hence changes drastically the electronic structure of the radical 41⁻, but does not induce S–S bond rupture.

![SOMO of protonated 40H⁻ (contour value: 0.08).](image)

Since protonation of 41⁻ does not result in any bond cleavage, the CV data of 41 in the presence of water was simulated by adding to the original model an equilibrium reaction involving 41⁻ and water, as depicted in Figure 6.16.
Protonation of 5,6-Dithia-1,10-phenanthroline, its application as disulfide/dithiol switch, and as ligand for [2Fe–2S] clusters

Figure 6.16. Cyclic voltammograms of 1.8 mM 41 and 0.21 M water in MeCN (0.1 M Bu4NPF6) at rt with scan rates of a) 100–1000 mV and b) 2000–10000 mV. Black lines correspond to experimental data and red dashed lines to simulation according to mechanism depicted above with the parameter from Table 6.2.

By simulating the data, it became apparent that the equilibrium constant $K_4$ and the reaction rate $k_{c,4}$ are interdependent parameters, i.e., a small equilibrium constant $K_4$ can be compensated by a faster reaction rate $k_{c,4}$ and vice versa. Therefore, only ranges of the two values are given. Reasonable fits could be obtained by using rather large second order reaction rate constants ($k_{c,4} \geq 3000$ M$^{-1}$s$^{-1}$) and equilibrium constants between 0.001 and infinite, the latter describing an irreversible reaction. Interestingly, the generated 41H$^-$ species exhibits a further reduction potential of $\geq -1.13$ V, hence it is easier to reduce than 41 and non-protonated 41$^-$. The potential of 41H$^-$ is shifted by $\geq +250$ mV with regard to 41$^-$ due to the charge compensation by protonation. Subsequently, the S–S bond in 41H$^{2-}$ breaks with a rate constant $k_{c,5} \geq 50$ s$^{-1}$.

In conclusion, 41 exhibits two chemically reversible reduction processes. The potential of the second reduction event can be tuned via protonation of 41$^-$ by a weak acid such as

Table 6.2. Fit parameters for simulation.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>$x$</th>
<th>$E_i$/ V</th>
<th>$a_x$</th>
<th>$k_{ss,x}$/ cm s$^{-1}$</th>
<th>$k_{c,x}$/ s$^{-1}$</th>
<th>$K_x$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>-1.20</td>
<td>0.4</td>
<td>$1 \times 10^{-4}$</td>
<td>$\geq 50$</td>
<td>–</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>-1.38</td>
<td>0.3</td>
<td>$1 \times 10^{-4}$</td>
<td>$\geq 100$</td>
<td>–</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>-1.15</td>
<td>0.7</td>
<td>$1 \times 10^{-4}$</td>
<td>0.02</td>
<td>–</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>$\geq -1.13$</td>
<td>0.5</td>
<td>$1 \times 10^{-4}$</td>
<td>3000–50000 M$^{-1}$</td>
<td>50 M$^{-1}$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>0.001–infinite</td>
<td>–</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
6 Protonation of 5,6-Dithia-1,10-phenanthroline, its application as disulfide/dithiol switch, and as ligand for [2Fe–2S] clusters

Water. Protonation triggers potential inversion which means that the second reduction becomes easier than the first one.

6.5 Preliminary application as a chelate ligand for [2Fe–2S] clusters

46 was reacted with of KH to yield 41K2 in THF. The solution was cooled to –35 °C and slowly added to (Me3PhN)251 in MeCN. The reaction mixture was stirred for 3 hours and slowly warmed to room temperature. Removal of the solvent under reduced pressure afforded (Me3PhN)242 (Figure 6.17). Unfortunately, attempts to obtain crystals suitable for X-ray crystallography failed. Therefore, characterization of (Me3PhN)242 was pursued with polycrystalline material.

![Figure 6.17. Synthesis of (Me3PhN)242.](image)

First evidence on the formation of (Me3PhN)242 is found in ESI(−)MS (Figure 6.18, a) and ESI(+)MS (Figure 8.10, in appendix). The main peaks at high m/z can be assigned to adducts of 422−. A UV−vis spectrum of a recrystallized sample was recorded in DMF (Figure 6.18, b). The bands that are detected compare well to related thiophenyl clusters 522−—542− (Figure 6.19, Table 6.3); only the extinction coefficient is smaller.

![Figure 6.18. a) m/z 800–1150 range of ESI(−)MS spectrum of cluster (Me3PhN)242. The inserted graphs depict an excerpt from the spectrum and the simulation with [42+2(Me3PhN)2Cl]−. b) UV−vis spectrum of cluster (Me3PhN)242 in DMF.](image)
Protonation of 5,6-Dithia-1,10-phenanthroline, its application as disulfide/dithiol switch, and as ligand for [2Fe–2S] clusters

Figure 6.19. [2Fe–2S] clusters with 2,2′-dithiobiphenyl chelate ligands with three different back-bone substituents (R = Cl (52²), H (53²), tBu (54²)).

Table 6.3. Electronic absorption data of [2Fe–2S] clusters with dithiobipyridin and dithiobiphenyl ligation.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>λ [nm] (ε [M⁻¹cm⁻¹])</th>
<th>ref.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>42²⁻</td>
<td>291 (11700), 339 (9500), 421 (6250), 512 (3050) 559 (2500)</td>
<td>this work</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>52²⁻</td>
<td>260 (44000), 350 (37000), 424 (30000), 523 (12500)</td>
<td>236</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>53²⁻</td>
<td>257 (47500), 336 (33400), 425 (29500), 520 (13250), 547 (13500)</td>
<td>236</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>54²⁻</td>
<td>260 (45000), 345 (26500), 383 (23600), 443 (22000), 550 (12000)</td>
<td>236</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

These preliminary results attest that 41 is suitable as ligand for Fe–S clusters. It is impossible to infer from ESI-MS or UV-vis spectroscopy whether the iron ions are coordinated by the pyridine-N atoms or the thiolate. However, the proposed structure (Me₃PhN)₂42 seems most probable given the high preference for sulfur-ligands by Fe–S clusters.

6.6 Conclusion and Outlook

The synthesis of 41 was optimized prior to investigation of its properties and reactivity. The molecular structure of 41H₂ in crystal was elucidated by X-ray crystallography. It was shown that the protonation of 41 proceeds in MeCN in the same manner as in water. Full protonation of the pyridine-N atoms is only achieved by addition of the strong acid TfOH.

The disulfide/dithiole switch of 41 was studied thoroughly with cyclic voltammetry and DFT calculations. An EEC mechanism was found for the reductive S–S bond cleavage. The mechanism changes to ECEC in the presence of a weak acid like water: After the first reduction a protonation takes place followed by the second reduction. The breakage of the S–S bond is the final step.
Finally, preliminary results on the formation of [2Fe–2S] complexes with 41 as ligand open the field for further investigations towards a directly coupled Ru(bpy)$_3$–[2Fe–2S] system 40 (Figure 6.1, a).
7 Experimental Section

7.1 Author contributions

Prof. Dr. Inke Siewert simulated the electrochemical data and Dr. Sebastian Dechert carried out the theoretical calculations in chapter 6.4. Dr. Sebastian Dechert and Dr. Nicole Kindermann performed X-ray analysis of all compounds. Dr. Serhiy Demeschko measured and fitted the SQUID data. Dr. Marie Bergner measured and simulated all EPR spectra.

7.2 Materials and methods

All manipulations of air- and moisture-sensitive materials were carried out under an anaerobic and anhydrous atmosphere of dry dinitrogen or argon gas by standard Schlenk techniques or in a MBraun glovebox. Glassware was dried prior to use at 120 °C overnight in a heating oven. Diethyl ether and pentane were dried over sodium benzophenone ketyl, THF over Na/K alloy and hexane over potassium benzophenone ketyl, MeCN over CaH₂, acetone over P₂O₅ MeOH over Mg, and distilled prior to use. Deuterated solvents were dried and distilled according to the undeuterated analogues. For reactions involving NO, care was taken to prevent light exposure by covering reaction glassware in aluminum foil or by performing experiments in a darkened glovebox. Nitric oxide (Linde, 2.5) was purified by passing the NO gas stream through an Ascarite column (NaOH fused on silica gel) and a cooling trap with glass spikes at −78 °C. If not mentioned otherwise all chemicals were acquired from commercial sources (Acros, Sigma Aldrich, aber, Deutero, Merck) and used without further purification.

¹H NMR spectra were recorded on an Avance III 300, HD 400 or HD 500 spectrometer from Bruker. Chemical shifts are reported in ppm relative to residual proton signals of CDCl₃ (7.26 ppm for ¹H NMR experiments, 77.2 ppm for ¹³C NMR experiments), MeCN-d₃ (1.94 ppm for ¹H NMR experiments, 118.3 ppm for ¹³C NMR experiments) and DMF-d₇ (8.03 ppm for ¹H NMR experiments) at 298 K unless stated otherwise. The following abbreviations were used for the multiplicity of the NMR signals: s (singlet), d (doublet), t (triplet), q (quartet), m (multiplet).
Elemental analyses were submitted to the analytical laboratory of the department of inorganic chemistry at the Georg-August-Universität Göttingen and performed on an Elementar Vario EL III.

UV-vis spectra were recorded with a Cary5000 Bio Spectrophotometer, using Schlenk quartz cuvettes. Spectra were analyzed by Cary Win UV software.

IR spectra were measured on an Agilent Technologies Cary 630 FTIR. Intensities of the observed bands in the spectra are abbreviated as follows: s (strong), m (medium), w (weak).

ESI mass spectra were measured on a Thermo Finnigan Trace LCQ spectrometer.

Mössbauer spectra were recorded with a $^{57}$Co source in a Rh matrix using an alternating constant acceleration Wissel Mössbauer spectrometer operated in the transmission mode and equipped with a Janis closed-cycle helium cryostat. Isomer shifts are given relative to iron metal at ambient temperature. Simulation of the experimental data was performed with the Mfit program using Lorentzian line doublets: E. Bill, Max-Planck Institute for Chemical Energy Conversion, Mülheim/Ruhr, Germany.

EPR spectra were measured with a Bruker E500 ELEXSYS X-band spectrometer equipped with a standard cavity (ER4102ST, 9.45 GHz). The sample temperature was maintained constant with an Oxford instrument Helium flow cryostat (ESP910) and an Oxford temperature controller (ITC-4). The microwave frequency was measured with the built-in frequency counter and the magnetic field was calibrated by using a NMR field probe (Bruker ER035M). The spectra were simulated with easy spin.

Cyclic voltammetry experiments were carried out in CH$_3$CN with a Gamry Reference 600. A silver wire as (pseudo)reference electrode was used with ferrocene as internal standard, a glassy carbon disk electrode as working electrode (I$J$ Cambria, $A = 0.707$ cm$^2$), a Pt wire as auxiliary electrode, and 0.1 M $^4$Bu$_4$NPF$_6$ as supporting electrolyte. All electrochemical measurements were conducted in a glove box, those in the presence of water in a home-made tight CV cell. $iR$ compensation was applied by the positive feedback method, which is implemented in the PHE200 software of Gamry. CV data was simulated with DigiElch 8 FD purchased from Gamry.

X-ray data for all compounds were collected on a STOE IPDS II diffractometer (graphite monochromated Mo-Kα radiation, $\lambda = 0.71073$ Å) by use of w scans at 133 K. The structures were solved by direct methods with SHELXS and refined on $F^2$ using all
7 Experimental Section

reflections with SHELXL.\textsuperscript{238} Most non-hydrogen atoms were refined anisotropically. Hydrogen atoms were placed in calculated positions and assigned to an isotropic displacement parameter of 1.2 / 1.5 $U_{eq}(C)$. Face-indexed absorption corrections were performed numerically with the program X-RED.\textsuperscript{239}

7.3 Synthesis

7.3.1 Fe–S clusters

$29^2$, $29^3$, $29\text{H}_2$, $30^2$, $30^3$, $30\text{H}_2$ and (Et$_4$N)[FeCl$_2$(NO)$_2$] were prepared according to reported methods.\textsuperscript{90,163,168} The synthesis of (Et$_4$N)$_2$38 is already published, but the authors followed a different protocol, namely, ligand substitution reaction of [Fe$_4$S$_4$(S$^-$-tertBu)$_4$]$^{2-}$.\textsuperscript{195}

Bis(tetraethylammonium)-tetrakis[(2-aminothiophenolato)(µ$^3$-sulfido)-ferrate(II,III)] [(Et$_4$N)$_2$38] and Bis(trimethylphenylammonium) tetrakis[(2-aminothiophenolato)(µ$^3$-sulfido)-ferrate(II,III)] [(Me$_3$PhN)$_2$38]

Sodium methoxide (0.25 g, 4.50 mmol) and 2-aminothiophenol (0.48 mL, 4.50 mmol) were mixed in MeOH (10 mL). Iron(III)chloride (0.244 g, 1.50 mmol) in MeOH (6 mL) was added dropwise to the solution which turned into a black suspension. Dilithiumsulfide (0.070 g, 1.5 mmol) was added in one portion and the suspension was stirred overnight. The halide salt of the counterion in MeOH (5 mL) was added: trimethylphenylammonium chloride (0.216 g, 1.25 mmol) or tetraethylammonium chloride (0.208 g, 1.25 mmol), respectively. The black precipitate was filtered off and washed with MeOH (3 × 10 mL). The product was extracted with MeCN (5 × 5 mL). Crystals suitable for X-ray crystallography were obtained from slow diffusion of diethyl ether into a MeCN solution of the product. The yield was not determined.

Analytical data of (Et$_4$N)$_2$38:

$^1$H NMR (400 MHz, MeCN-d$_6$, 298 K): $\delta$ [ppm] = 1.18 ($s_{br}$, 24 H, 8 CH$_3$), 3.12 ($s_{br}$, 16 H, 8 CH$_2$), 4.59 ($s_{br}$, 8 H, NH$_2$), 5.50 ($s_{br}$, 4 H, $p$-H), 6.10 ($s_{br}$, 4 H, $o$-H), 7.63 ($s_{br}$, 4 H, $m$-H), 7.75 ($s_{br}$, 4 H, $m$-H). UV-vis (MeCN): $\lambda$ [nm] ($\varepsilon_{rel}$ [M$^{-1}$cm$^{-1}$]) = 484 (7700), 350 (sh), 303 (14000). EA calculated (%) for C$_{40}$H$_{60}$Fe$_4$N$_{6}$S$_8$ (no solvent molecule in crystal structure): C 43.33, H 5.82, N 7.58, S 23.13; found: C 43.06, H 5.72, N 7.47, S 22.77.
Analytical data of (Me₃PhN)₂38:

**¹H NMR** (500 MHz, MeCN-d₆): δ [ppm] = 3.46 (sbr, 18 H, 6 CH₃), 4.62 (sbr, 8 H, NH₂), 5.65 (sbr, 4 H, ar-H), 6.18 (sbr, 4 H, ar-H), 7.46 (sbr, 4 H, ar-H), 7.53–7.64 (m, 10 H, 2 Ph), 7.73 (d, J = 7.3 Hz, 4 H, ar-H). **UV-vis** (MeCN): λ [nm] (εrel [M⁻¹cm⁻¹]) = 484 (7700), 350 (sh), 303 (14000). **EA** calculated (%) for C₄₄H₅₅Fe₄N₇S₈ (complex + one MeCN molecule which cocrystallizes in the unit cell): C 45.49, H 4.77, N 8.44, S 22.08; found: C 45.44, H 4.72, N 8.22, S 22.41.

**Oxidation of 38²⁻:**

(Et₄N)₂38 (20.0 mg, 18.0 µmol) or (Me₃PhN)₂38 (22.2 mg, 18.0 µmol) was dissolved in MeCN (20 mL) and exposed to dioxygen, or p-benzoquinone (5.84 mg, 54.0 µmol) was added to the solution. The solvent was removed under reduced pressure after stirring for 30 min at rt. The dark blue solid was washed with Et₂O and pentane. The yield was not determined.

**UV-vis** (MeCN): λ [nm] (εrel [M⁻¹cm⁻¹]) = 550 (9 600). **ATR-IR** [cm⁻¹] = 1618, 1561, 1539, 1497, 1487, 1442, 1370, 1291, 1156, 1078, 1027, 947, 845, 768, 746 (s), 690, 670.

**ESI(−)MS** (MeCN) m/z (%) = 1113 (100) [38 – 4 H]⁻.

**Bis(trimethylphenylammonium)-bis-[(2,2’-bipyridine-3,3’-dithiolato)-(μ-sulfido)-ferrate(III)] [(Me₃PhN)₂42]**

45 (50.0 mg, 0.139 mmol) was dissolved in THF (20 mL) and K (11.0 mg, 0.278 mmol) was added. (Me₃PhN)₂50 (40.9 mg, 69.3 µmol) was dissolved in MeCN (20 mL). Both solutions were cooled to –35 °C and then slowly combined. The solvent was removed under reduced pressure yielding (Me₃PhN)₂41 as brown precipitate. The yield was not determined.

**UV-vis** (DMF): λ [nm] (εrel [M⁻¹cm⁻¹]) = 290 (1200), 340 (950), 420 (625), 515 (305), 560 (250), 750 (55). **ESI(−)MS** (MeCN) m/z (%) = 919.0 (6) [41+2(Me₃PhN)+Cl]⁻. **ESI(+)MS** (MeCN) m/z (%) = 1020.2 (4) [41+Me₃PhN]⁺, 1191.3 (1) [41+2NMe₃Ph+Cl]⁺. **¹H NMR** (400 MHz, MeCN-d₃): δ [ppm] = 4.24 (d, J = 28 Hz, 2 H), 4.62 (sbr, 2 H), 8.89 (d, J = 28 Hz, 2 H).
7.3.2 DNICS

\([\text{Fe(NN)(NO)}_2^-] (33^-)\) and \([\text{Fe(SN)(NO)}_2^-] (34^-)\)

**Route 1:** 29\(^{2-}\) or 30\(^{2-}\) (0.231 mmol) was dissolved in MeCN (40 mL) and NO (22.7 mL, 0.924 mmol) was added into the headspace of the flask. After stirring the reaction mixture for three hours the solvent was removed under reduced pressure and the remaining solid was washed with Et\(_2\)O (3 × 5 mL). 33\(^-\) or 34\(^-\) was taken up in THF (10 mL) and dried in vacuo to afford the DNIC as a brown powder. Layering of a saturated THF solution with MTBE or hexane afforded dark crystals suitable for X-ray crystallography in the case of 33\(^-\). 34\(^-\) was crystallized from slow diffusion of Et\(_2\)O in a MeCN solution of the complex after repetitive recrystallization. The yield was not determined.

**Route 2** was partially adapted from literature\(^{168}\). It offers a convenient path to introduce two different ligands, Phenylbis(benzimidazol-2-yl)methane NN and Benzimidazolthiophenol SN, to the scaffold. KH (0.030 g, 0.758 mmol) was added to a solution of NN (0.123 g, 0.379 mmol) or SN in THF (5 mL) and stirred at rt overnight. A flask was charged with (Et\(_4\)N)[FeCl\(_2\)(NO)] (0.120 g, 0.379 mmol) in THF (10 mL) and both solutions were cooled to −35°C before mixing. The mixture was allowed to stir at ambient temperature for 2 h. Then the solvent was removed under reduced pressure affording the corresponding DNIC as brown powder. The yield was not determined.

**Analytics 33^-:** UV-vis (THF): \(\lambda [\text{nm}] (\varepsilon_{\text{rel}} [\text{M}^{-1}\text{cm}^{-1}]) = 430 (1480), 705 (300)\). **DialPath-IR** \(\nu_{\text{NO}} [\text{cm}^{-1}] = 1780, 1714 (\text{MeCN}); 1773, 1705 (\text{THF})\).

**Analytics 34^-:** UV-vis (THF): \(\lambda [\text{nm}] (\varepsilon_{\text{rel}} [\text{M}^{-1}\text{cm}^{-1}]) = 470 (340), 545 (260), 685 (200)\). **DialPath-IR** \(\nu_{\text{NO}} [\text{cm}^{-1}] = 1751, 1700 (\text{MeCN}); 1744, 1695 (\text{THF})\).

7.3.3 3,3’-Disulfur-2,2’-bipyridine

The synthesis of 45, 46, and 41 was adapted from unpublished results by Mauricio Cattaneo.\(^{223}\)

**3,3’-dihydroxy-dimethylthiocarbamoyl-2,2’-bipyridine (45)**

3,3’-dihydroxy-2,2’-bipyridine (1.3 g, 6.9 mmol) was dissolved in anhydrous and degassed acetone (130 mL) under inert conditions. Dimethylthiocarbamoyl chloride (2.56 g, 20.7 mmol) and CsCO\(_3\) (6.75 g, 20.7 mmol) was then added and the reaction mixture was stirred for 24 hours at 65 °C. The solution was allowed to cool to rt and the solvent was removed under reduced pressure. The solid was dissolved in demineralized water and neutralized
Experimental Section

with HCl (0.1 M). The aqueous solution was extracted with DCM (3×100 ml). The combined organic phases were evaporated to dryness under reduced pressure. Column chromatography (silica gel, Rf (ethyl acetate) = 0.06) of the resulting brown oil afforded a yellow solid (yield 60%). EA for C16H18N4O2S2 (%): C 53.02, H 5.00, N 15.46, S 17.69. Found: C 53.05, H 4.93, N 15.65, S 17.85. IR (KBr pellets) [cm⁻¹]: 3065 (w), 2940 (w), 2880 (w), 1627 (w), 1454 (w), 1441 (w), 1394 (s), 1289 (s), 1240 (s), 1202 (s), 1178 (m), 1126 (s), 1106 (m), 1060 (w), 1039 (m), 819 (w), 791 (w), 756 (w), 687 (w), 619 (w). ¹H NMR (300 MHz, CDCl₃): δ [ppm] = 8.52 (2, dd, 2H, ²⁻³J = 4.6 Hz, ²⁻⁴J = 1.4 Hz), 7.76 (4, dd, 2H, ⁴⁻³J = 8.2 Hz, ⁴⁻²J = 1.4 Hz), 7.38 (3, dd, 2H, ³⁻⁴J = 8.3 Hz, ³⁻²J = 4.7 Hz), 3.29 (11, s, 6H), 3.03 (12, s, 6H). ¹³C NMR (75 MHz, CDCl₃) δ [ppm] = 185.99, 148.74, 148.63, 146.09, 133.03, 123.47, 43.35, 38.97. ¹⁵N NMR (30 MHz, CDCl₃): δ [ppm] = –62.8, –262.2. ESI(+)MS (MeCN) m/z (%): [M+H]+ 363.1 (100). UV-vis (CH₃CN): λ_max [nm] (ε_rel [M⁻¹cm⁻¹]) = 251 (34600).

3,3'-dithio-dimethylcarbamoyl-2,2'-bipyridine (46) and 3,3'-thiocyclo-2,2'-bipyridine (47)

After extensive optimization of the reaction conditions, best results were obtained by heating neat 45 (100 mg) to 280 °C under argon atmosphere for 7 min. ¹H NMR spectroscopy suggested the black product mixture to contain 47 (~36%), 45 with only one rearranged arm (~26%) and 46 (~16%) besides some remaining 45 and other unidentified side products. The compounds were separated by column chromatography (silica gel, hexanes/diethyl acetate 1:1).

The first fraction is 47 (Rf in ethyl acetate (3×TLC) ~0.71). EA C₁₀H₆N₂S (%): C 64.29, H 3.60, N 14.37, S 16.40. Found: C 64.12, H 3.82, N 14.07, S 16.18. IR (KBr pellets) [cm⁻¹]: 3046 (w), 2925 (w), 2956 (w), 1541 (s), 1462 (w), 1395 (s), 1335 (w), 1288 (m), 1225 (w), 1196 (m), 1146 (m), 1067 (s), 1040 (w), 1031 (w), 986 (w), 967 (w), 814 (w), 801 (m), 789 (s), 733 (s), 696 (m), 621 (m). ¹H NMR (300 MHz, CDCl₃): δ [ppm] = 8.91 (2, dd, 2H, ²⁻³J = 4.6 Hz, ²⁻⁴J = 1.4 Hz), 8.23 (4, dd, 2H, ⁴⁻³J = 8.2 Hz, ⁴⁻²J = 1.4 Hz), 7.48 (3, dd, 2H, ³⁻⁴J = 8.2 Hz, ³⁻²J = 4.5 Hz). ¹³C NMR (75 MHz, CDCl₃): δ [ppm] = 150.54, 148.08, 134.63, 131.09, 120.40. ¹⁵N NMR (30 MHz, CDCl₃): δ [ppm] = –78. ESI-MS (MeCN) m/z (%): [M+H]+ 187.03 (100). UV-vis (CH₃CN): λ_max [nm] (ε_rel [M⁻¹cm⁻¹]) = 298 (14300), 290 (sh), 257 (10700), 228 (38200), 210 (15800).

The second fraction is the starting material 45 (Rf in ethyl acetate (3×TLC) ~0.58).
The third fraction is the singly rearranged product 45 ($R_f$ in ethyl acetate (3×TLC) ~0.26). **EA** C$_{16}$H$_{18}$N$_4$O$_2$S$_2$ (%): C 53.02, H 5.00, N 15.46. Found: C 53.25, H 5.10, N 15.17. **IR** (KBr pellets) [cm$^{-1}$]: 3055 (w), 3014 (w), 2956 (w), 2918 (w), 2856 (w), 1635 (m), 1594 (s), 1552 (s), 1458 (m), 1432 (m), 1371 (s), 1327 (m), 1277 (w), 1218 (w), 1156 (w), 1106 (w), 1066 (w), 988 (w), 970 (w), 903 (w), 826 (s), 748 (w), 684 (m), 669 (w), 530 (m), 414 (w). **$^1$H NMR** (300 MHz, CDCl$_3$): $\delta$ [ppm] = 8.61 (2, dd, 1H, $^2$J = 4.6 Hz, $^4$J = 1.7 Hz), 8.52 (2', dd, 1H, $^2$J = 4.7 Hz, $^4$J = 1.4 Hz), 7.97 (4, dd, 1H, $^3$J = 8.0 Hz, $^4$J = 1.7 Hz), 7.77 (4', dd, 1H, $^3$J = 8.3 Hz, $^4$J = 1.4 Hz), 7.35 (3, dd, 1H, $^3$J = 4.7 Hz, $^4$J = 8.0 Hz), 3.21 (11', s, 3H), 2.89 (11-12, s, 6H), 2.86 (12', s, 3H). **$^{13}$C NMR** (200 MHz, CDCl$_3$): $\delta$ [ppm] = 185.12, 164.88, 157.52, 150.44, 148.55, 147.78, 145.69, 145.67, 127.01, 123.27, 123.23, 42.93, 38.37, 36.88. **$^{15}$N NMR** (30 MHz, CDCl$_3$): $\delta$ [ppm] = –63.2, –65.7, –262.5. **ESI-MS** (MeCN) m/z (%): [M+H]$^+$ 363.09 (100).

The last fraction is 46 ($R_f$ in ethyl acetate (3×TLC) ~0.17). **EA** C$_{16}$H$_{18}$N$_4$O$_2$S$_2$ (%): C 53.02, H 5.00, N 15.46. Found: C 53.25, H 5.10, N 15.17. **IR** (KBr pellets) [cm$^{-1}$]: 3056 (w), 3017 (w), 2916 (w), 1626 (s), 1553 (m), 1477 (w), 1459 (w), 1434 (m), 1400 (s), 1369 (s), 1257 (m), 1099 (m), 1072 (w), 1043 (m), 1037 (w), 906 (w), 813 (w), 786 (w), 774 (w), 685 (s), 648 (w), 623 (w), 525 (w). **$^1$H NMR** (300 MHz, CDCl$_3$): $\delta$ [ppm] = 8.65 (2, dd, 2H, $^2$J = 4.8 Hz, $^4$J = 1.6 Hz), 8.01 (4, dd, 2H, $^3$J = 8.0 Hz, $^4$J = 1.6 Hz), 7.39 (3, dd, 2H, $^3$J = 8.0 Hz, $^4$J = 4.8 Hz), 2.91 (11', s, 3H), 2.86 (12', s, 3H). **$^{13}$C NMR** (200 MHz, CDCl$_3$): $\delta$ [ppm] = 165.15, 159.80, 148.88, 145.33, 126.52, 123.42, 37.04. **$^{15}$N NMR** (30 MHz, CDCl$_3$): $\delta$ [ppm] = –66.0, –285.5. **ESI-MS** (MeCN) m/z (%): [M+H]$^+$ 368.09 (100).

[1,2]dithiino[4,3-b:5,6-b']dipyridine (41)

To a solution of LiAlH$_4$ (190 mg, 5 mmol) in dry THF under argon atmosphere was added 46 (234 mg, 0.645 mmol) dissolved in dry THF (15 ml). The reaction mixture was stirred under argon atmosphere for 30 min and then heated to 50 °C for 3 h. After cooling down to 0 °C, 0.1 M aqueous HCl (10 ml) was added slowly until the solution turned intense red. The product was extracted with DCM (4 × 50 ml) and the combined organic phases were exposed to air, causing the color of the solution to turn yellow. The solution was concentrated in vacuo and the yellow oil was chromatographed on silica gel with ethyl acetate. 41 was isolated as a yellow oil ($R_f$ in ethyl acetate ~0.1). **$^1$H NMR** (300 MHz,
CDCl$_3$): $\delta$ [ppm] = 8.68 (2, dd, 2H, $^2$-$^3J = 4.6$ Hz, $^2$-$^4J = 1.6$ Hz), 7.72 (4, dd, 2H, $^4$-$^3J = 7.9$ Hz, $^4$-$^2J = 1.6$ Hz), 7.22 (3, dd, 2H, $^3$-$^4J = 7.9$ Hz, $^3$-$^2J = 4.7$ Hz). 13C NMR (75 MHz, CDCl$_3$): $\delta$ [ppm] = 153.08, 149.44, 136.01, 133.94, 123.67. 15N NMR (30 MHz, CDCl$_3$): $\delta$ [ppm] = −70.6. ESI-MS (MeCN) m/z (%): [M+H]$^+$ 219.00 (100%), [M+Na]$^+$ 240.99 (30%). UV-vis (CH$_3$CN): $\lambda_{\text{max}}$ [nm] ($\epsilon_{\text{rel}}$[M$^{-1}$cm$^{-1}$]) = 360 (360), 302 (5900), 265 (9400).

3,3’-dithiol-2,2’-bipyridine (41H$_2$)

41H$_2$ was synthesized following the procedure for 41, but the reaction mixture was kept under inert conditions throughout. LiAlH$_4$ (200 µL of a 1.0 M solution in THF, 200 µmol) was added to 46 (8.0 mg, 22 µmol) under an atmosphere of dry Ar and the reaction mixture stirred for 5 min, then heated to 50°C for 3 h. After cooling to 0°C, 0.1 M aqueous HCl (3 ml) were added slowly. The aqueous phase was further diluted with 0.1 M aqueous HCl (50 ml) and the solution turned intense red. 41H$_2$ was extracted with DCM (6 x 5 ml) under argon atmosphere. The solvent was then removed under reduced pressure and the remaining red solid was recrystallized from DCM/toluene. $^1$H NMR (300 MHz, CDCl$_3$) $\delta$ [ppm] = 8.39 (2, dd, 2H, $^2$-$^3J = 8.3$ Hz, $^2$-$^4J = 1.6$ Hz), 8.01 (4, dd, 2H, $^4$-$^3J = 5.1$ Hz, $^4$-$^2J = 1.6$ Hz), 7.31 (3, dd, 2H, $^3$-$^4J = 5.1$ Hz, $^3$-$^2J = 8.3$ Hz).
7.4 DFT calculations

All computations were carried out with the ORCA program package.\textsuperscript{240} X-ray data of the DNIC anions were employed as starting coordinates for the geometry optimization. For the protonated species H-atoms were added to the structure with the program Chemcraft and the charge was changed to zero. The spin-unrestricted Kohn-Sham approach was used in all cases to account for the unpaired spin of the $S = \frac{1}{2}$ system. Geometry optimizations and frequency calculations were performed with the BP86,\textsuperscript{241-243} TPSS,\textsuperscript{244,245} B3LYP,\textsuperscript{246,247} and TPSSh\textsuperscript{248} density functionals. The def2-TZVP basis set was applied in combination with the auxiliary basis set def2-TZV/J.\textsuperscript{249-251} The RI approximation was used to accelerate the calculations. The Mössbauer spectroscopic parameters were computed using the CP(PPP) basis set for Fe and def2-TZVP for the other atoms.\textsuperscript{186} Counterions or crystal inclusions were omitted since Lippard and Zhang showed before that counterions and cocRYstallized neutral molecules have only a marginal influence on Mössbauer parameters of iron complexes.\textsuperscript{252,253} The COSMO package included in ORCA was employed to mimic MeCN or THF as solvent in form of an infinite dielectric field.

Isomer shifts $\delta_{\text{IS}}$ were calculated from the electron densities at the Fe nucleus $\rho_0$ employing the linear regression formula: $\delta_{\text{IS}} = \alpha(\rho_0 - C) + \beta$. Here, $\alpha$, $\beta$ and $C$ are the fit parameters. Neese and coworkers published their values for different combinations of the functionals and basis sets.\textsuperscript{184} Quadrupole splittings $\Delta E_Q$ were obtained from electric field gradients $V_i$ ($i = x,y,z$; $V_i$ are the eigenvalues of the electric field gradient tensor) employing a nuclear quadrupole moment $Q(^{57}\text{Fe}) = 0.16$ barn: $\Delta E_Q = \frac{1}{2} e Q V_z (1 + \frac{1}{2} \eta^2)^{1/2}$. Here, $\eta = (V_x-V_y)/V_z$ is the asymmetry parameter.
8 Appendix

8.1 Benchmark substances for X-ray spectroscopy of iron-sulfur clusters

Samples of \((\text{NEt}_4)_2\text{FeS}_2\) and \((\text{NEt}_4)_3\text{FeS}_2\) were prepared and sent to the group of Prof. Serena DeBeer at the Max-Planck Institute for Chemical Energy Conversion in Mülheim for iron and sulfur K-edge X-ray absorption (XAS), iron Kβ and valence-to-core X-ray emission (XES) and X-ray magnetic circular dichroism (XMCD) measurements of iron complexes in different redox states. The results allowed quantitative assessment of the electronic structure of iron-sulfur clusters and were published in the Journal *Inorganic Chemistry* in 2016 and 2017.\(^{254,255}\)

More precisely, Fe K edge XAS in combination with DFT calculations allowed for a distinction between localized valence and delocalized valence species on basis of pre-edge and K-edge energies. Fe Kβ XES mainlines, on the other hand, were found not suitable for the elucidation of oxidation states of iron-sulfur clusters as isolated method because of cancelling effects of covalency and spin state. XMCD proved to be an effective tool for the elucidation of oxidation states as distinct features appear at the L\(_3\) and L\(_2\) edges. The signal’s intensity correlates to the molecule’s covalency. With knowledge obtained from the test molecules, spectra of \([\text{MoFe}_3\text{S}_4]^{3+}\) and \([\text{VFe}_3\text{S}_4]^{2+}\) as models for FeMoCo and FeVCo of nitrogenase were analyzed. XMCD delivers more precise information on the oxidation state distribution than XAS alone. To summarize, most information can be obtained in the order XMCD > XAS > XES. Well characterized molecules in different oxidation states like \((\text{NEt}_4)_2\text{FeS}_2\) and \((\text{NEt}_4)_3\text{FeS}_2\) served as benchmark in order to understand the effect of oxidation state and covalency on the three methods. The elucidation of the electronic structure of iron-sulfur clusters in proteins can be supported by them in the future.
8.2 Supplementary spectra and information

Figure 8.1. UV-vis of starting material 29 in DMF (red) and reaction mixture after 35 min in MeCN (blue).

Figure 8.2. Zero-field Mössbauer spectrum of intermediate 1 at 80 K (left) and 6 K (right).

Figure 8.3. Mössbauer spectrum of 33% $^{57}$Fe enriched 29.
Figure 8.4. UV-vis spectra of the $^{57}$Fe enriched 29$^{3-}$ in DMF (black) and after 35 (red), 60 (blue), and 90 min (magenta) after addition of NO.

Figure 8.5. Mössbauer spectrum of intermediate 2 in frozen MeCN solution.
Figure 8.6 (a) IR spectra of 33⁻ (black) after addition of 1 eq. DMPH (red), (b) excerpt of ν\textsubscript{NO} region of IR spectrum. Upon protonation ν\textsubscript{NO} shift to higher wavenumbers while ν\textsubscript{ligand} splits in two signals and shifts to lower wavenumbers.

Table 8.1. Experimental and calculated infrared spectroscopic parameters for ν\textsubscript{NO} of 33⁻ and 34⁻ in MeCN and THF.

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Table 8.2. Experimental and calculated infrared spectroscopic parameters for ν\textsubscript{NO} of 33H and 34H in MeCN and THF.

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<th>Δ(ν\textsubscript{NO,exp}−ν\textsubscript{NO,calc})/cm\textsuperscript{-1}</th>
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Table 8.3 Calculated Mössbauer parameters.

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<th>( \Delta E_Q / \text{mm s}^{-1} )</th>
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Figure 8.7. Excerpt from LIFDI spectrum of \( ^{38} \text{Ox} \) in THF. The insert depicts the simulation of the isotopic pattern.
Figure 8.8. a) Paramagnetic signals of the oxidation product in acetone-\textsuperscript{d\textsubscript{6}} at various temperatures. b) Curie behavior of the signals.

Figure 8.9. a) Plot of the peak current \(I_{p,c}\) vs. the square root of the scan rate (0.1 M Bu\textsubscript{4}NPF\textsubscript{6}, \(c(41) = 1.8\) mM, \(c(H_2O) = 0.21\) M), b) plot of the peak potential of the reduction wave at different scan rates vs. the logarithm of the scan rate (0.1 M Bu\textsubscript{4}NPF\textsubscript{6}, \(c(41) = 1.8\) mM).
Excerpt from spectrum:

Figure 8.10. ESI(+)MS of (Me₃PhN)₄. Excerpt of spectrum and simulation.
Figure 8.11. Plot (50% probability thermal ellipsoids) of the anion of (PPN)$_3$ (hydrogen atoms and counter ions omitted for clarity). Selected bond lengths [Å] and angles [°]: Fe1–N4 1.683(2), Fe1–N3 1.701(3), Fe1–N1 1.979(2), Fe1–N5 1.996(2); N1–Fe1–N5 93.75(9), N4–Fe1–N5 108.80(11), N4–Fe1–N3 111.52(13), N4–Fe1–N1 111.77(10), N3–Fe1–N1 111.90(11), N3–Fe1–N5 117.92(10), C2–N1–Fe1 120.08(16), C9–N5–Fe1 120.27(14), C3–N1–Fe1 132.69(18), C10–N5–Fe1 134.83(18), O1–N3–Fe1 157.3(3), O2–N4–Fe1 171.3(3).

Table 8.4 Crystal data and refinement details for (PPN)$_3$.

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Figure 8.12. Plot (50% probability thermal ellipsoids) of the anion of (PPN)$_3$Fe$_2$(hydrogen atoms and counter ions omitted for clarity). Selected bond lengths [Å] and angles [°]: Fe(1)–N(3) 1.676(2), Fe(1)–N(4) 1.681(2), Fe(1)–N(1) 1.970(2), Fe(1)–S(1) 2.2544(8), O(1)–N(3) 1.171(3), O(2)–N(4) 1.185(3); N(3)–Fe(1)–N(4) 113.70(12), N(3)–Fe(1)–N(1) 111.34(10), N(4)–Fe(1)–N(1) 117.04(10), N(3)–Fe(1)–S(1) 105.36(10), N(4)–Fe(1)–S(1) 112.76(8), N(1)–Fe(1)–S(1) 94.51(6), O(1)–N(3)–Fe(1) 169.1(2), O(2)–N(4)–Fe(1) 160.5(2).

Table 8.5. Crystal data and refinement details for (PPN)$_3$Fe$_2$.

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Figure 8.13. Plot (50% probability thermal ellipsoids) of the anion of (Et₄N)₃₈ (hydrogen atoms bound to carbons and counter ions omitted for clarity). Selected bond lengths [Å] and angles [°]: Fe(1)–S(11) 2.2666(6), Fe(2)–S(12) 2.2725(6), Fe(1)–S(1) 2.315(6), Fe(1)–S(2) 2.2315(6), Fe(2)–S(1) 2.3145(6), Fe(1)–Fe(2) 2.248(6), S(1)–Fe(1)–S(11) 124.19(3), S(1)–Fe(1)–S(2) 102.84(2), S(2)–Fe(1)–S(1) 103.86(2), S(2)–Fe(2)–S(1) 102.57(2), S(2)–Fe(2)–S(12) 124.42(2).

Table 8.6. Crystal data and refinement details for (Et₄N)₃₈.

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<td>Tₘᵟᵢ}$/Tₘᵅᵢ$</td>
<td>0.4823 / 0.7049</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>θ-range [°]</td>
<td>2.107 - 26.706</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hkl-range</td>
<td>±24, ±22, ±18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>measured refl.</td>
<td>33515</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>unique refl. [Rint]</td>
<td>5182 [0.0623]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>observed refl. (I &gt; 2σ(I))</td>
<td>5166</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>data / restr. / param.</td>
<td>5182 / 1 / 282</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>goodness-of-fit (F²)</td>
<td>1.099</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R₁, wR₂ (I &gt; 2σ(I))</td>
<td>0.0192 / 0.0494</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R₁, wR₂ (all data)</td>
<td>0.0193 / 0.0494</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>res. el. dens. [e·Å⁻³]</td>
<td>-0.409 / 0.453</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Figure 8.14. Plot (50% probability thermal ellipsoids) of the anion of (Me₃PhN)₂₈ (hydrogen atoms bound to carbons, counter ions and solvent molecules omitted for clarity). Selected bond lengths [Å] and angles [°]: Fe(1)–N(11) 2.2770(13), Fe(1)–S(1) 2.2790(4), Fe(1)–S(3) 2.3462(4), Fe(1)–S(2) 2.4500(4), Fe(2)–S(2) 2.2168(4), Fe(2)–S(12) 2.2707(4), Fe(2)–S(1) 2.2818(4), Fe(2)–S(4) 2.3073(4), Fe(3)–S(3) 2.2562(4), Fe(3)–S(13) 2.2711(4), Fe(3)–S(1) 2.2905(4), Fe(3)–S(4) 2.3075(4), Fe(4)–S(4) 2.2486(4), Fe(4)–S(2) 2.2740(4), Fe(4)–S(14) 2.2756(4), Fe(4)–S(3) 2.2928(4), N(11)–Fe(1)–S(1) 90.40(4), N(11)–Fe(1)–S(11) 79.64(4), S(1)–Fe(1)–S(11) 124.115(17), N(11)–Fe(1)–S(3) 89.96(4).

Table 8.7. Crystal data and refinement details for (Me₃PhN)₂₈.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>compound</th>
<th>(Me₃PhN)₂₈</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>empirical formula</td>
<td>C₄₀H₆₄Fe₄N₆S₈</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>formula weight</td>
<td>1108.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T [K]</td>
<td>133(2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>crystal size [mm³]</td>
<td>0.500 x 0.470 x 0.410</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>crystal system</td>
<td>orthorhombic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>space group</td>
<td>Aba₂ (No. 41)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a [Å]</td>
<td>19.1273(6)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b [Å]</td>
<td>17.6918(5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c [Å]</td>
<td>14.4661(5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>α [°]</td>
<td>90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>β [°]</td>
<td>90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>γ [°]</td>
<td>90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V [Å³]</td>
<td>4895.3(3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Z</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ρ [g·cm⁻³]</td>
<td>1.505</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F(000)</td>
<td>2312</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>μ [mm⁻¹]</td>
<td>1.539</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tₘᵢₙ / Tₘₐₓ</td>
<td>0.4823 / 0.7049</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>θ-range [°]</td>
<td>2.107 - 26.706</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hkl-range</td>
<td>±24, ±22, ±18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>measured refl.</td>
<td>33515</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>unique refl. [Rint]</td>
<td>5182 [0.0623]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>observed refl. (I &gt; 2σ(I))</td>
<td>5166</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>data / restr. / param.</td>
<td>5182 / 1 / 282</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>goodness-of-fit (F²)</td>
<td>1.099</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R1, wR2 (I &gt; 2σ(I))</td>
<td>0.0192 / 0.0494</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R1, wR2 (all data)</td>
<td>0.0193 / 0.0494</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>res. el. dens. [e·Å⁻³]</td>
<td>-0.409 / 0.453</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Figure 8.15. Plot (50% probability thermal ellipsoids) of the anion of 4H₂ (hydrogen atoms bound to carbons, counter ions and solvent molecules omitted for clarity). Selected bond lengths [Å] and angles [°]: S(1)–C(2) 1.7318(16), N(1)–C(5) 1.337(2), N(1)–C(1) 1.357(2), C(5)–N(1)–C(1) 125.46(15).

Table 8.8. Crystal data and refinement details for 4H₂.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>compound</th>
<th>4H₂</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>empirical formula</td>
<td>C₁₀H₈N₂S₂</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>formula weight</td>
<td>220.30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T [K]</td>
<td>133(2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>crystal size [mm³]</td>
<td>0.310 x 0.230 x 0.120</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>crystal system</td>
<td>monoclinic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>space group</td>
<td>P2₁/c (No. 14)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a [Å]</td>
<td>4.1146(3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b [Å]</td>
<td>10.8240(11)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c [Å]</td>
<td>10.4628(9)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>α [°]</td>
<td>90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>β [°]</td>
<td>90.143(7)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>γ [°]</td>
<td>90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V [Å³]</td>
<td>465.97(7)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Z</td>
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<tr>
<td>ρ [g·cm⁻³]</td>
<td>1.570</td>
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<tr>
<td>F(000)</td>
<td>228</td>
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<td>μ [mm⁻¹]</td>
<td>0.525</td>
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<td>Tₘᵢₙ / Tₘᵢₓ</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>θ-range [°]</td>
<td>2.708 - 26.796</td>
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<td>±5, ±13, ±13</td>
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<tr>
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<td>5273</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>unique refl. [Rint]</td>
<td>991 [0.0214]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>observed refl. (I &gt; 2σ(I))</td>
<td>889</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>991 / 0 / 80</td>
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<tr>
<td>goodness-of-fit (F²)</td>
<td>1.087</td>
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<tr>
<td>R1, wR2 (I &gt; 2σ(I))</td>
<td>0.0296 / 0.0786</td>
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<td>R1, wR2 (all data)</td>
<td>0.0344 / 0.0819</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>res. el. dens. [e·Å⁻³]</td>
<td>-0.172 / 0.357</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 8.9 Hydrogen bonds for 4H₂ [Å and °].

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>D–H...A</th>
<th>d(D–H)</th>
<th>d(H...A)</th>
<th>d(D...A)</th>
<th>&lt;(DHA)</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>N(1)–H(1)...S(1)#1</td>
<td>0.92(2)</td>
<td>2.02(2)</td>
<td>2.8844(15)</td>
<td>158(2)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Symmetry transformations used to generate equivalent atoms:
#1 –x+1, -y+1, -z+1
9 Literature


(54) Bak, D. W.; Elliott, S. J. Biochemistry 2013, 52, 4687.


(58) Miller, H. K.; Auerbuch, V. Metallomics 2015, 7, 943.


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(188) Costanzo, L. Di; Flores Jr., L. V; Christianson, D. W. Proteins 2006, 65, 637.


(227) Ragsdale, S. W.; Yi, L. Antioxid. Redox Signal. 2011, 14, 1039.


Abbreviations

$\alpha$  Charge transfer coefficient from Butler-Volmer equation  
Arg  Arginine  
Bn  Benzyl  
Bpy  2,2’-Bipyridine  
br  Broad  
Bu  Butyl  
Cp  Cyclopentadiene  
Cp*  Pentamethylcyclopentadiene  
Cys  Cysteine  
d  Doublet  
DBU  1,8-Diazabicyclo(5.4.0)undec-7-ene  
DCM  Dichloromethane  
DDQ  2,3-Dichloro-5,6-dicyano-1,4-benzoquinone  
DMF  Dimethylformamide  
DMPH  2,6-Dimethylpyridinium tetrafluoroborate  
DNA  Deoxyribonucleic acid  
DNIC  Dinitrosyl Iron Complex  
EDTA  Ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid  
EFG  Electric Field Gradient  
EPR  Electron Paramagnetic Resonance  
eq  Equivalent  
ESI  Electrospray Ionization  
Et  Ethyl  
Et$_2$O  Diethylether  
EtCN  Propionitrile  
Fc  Ferrocene  
FeMoCo  Iron-Molybdenum Cofactor  
FNR  Transcriptional Activator of Fumarate and Nitrate Redcutase  
fwhm  Full width half maximum  
g  Landé factor
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Abbreviation</th>
<th>Definition</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>HiPIP</td>
<td>High Potential Iron-Sulfur Protein</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>His</td>
<td>Histidine</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hs</td>
<td>High spin</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HSDmp</td>
<td>2,6-(2,4,6-Me₃C₆H₂)₂C₆H₃</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>int.</td>
<td>intermediate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ISC</td>
<td>Iron Sulfur Cluster Formation System</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IscR</td>
<td>Iron Sulfur Cluster Regulator</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IscU</td>
<td>Scaffold Protein in ISC System</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IUPAC</td>
<td>International Union of Pure and Applied Chemistry</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>k_c</td>
<td>Rate of chemical reaction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>k_s</td>
<td>Rate constant for electron transfer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LIFDI</td>
<td>Liquid Injection Field Desorption Ionization</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LMCT</td>
<td>Ligand to Metal Charge Transfer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lys</td>
<td>Lysine</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>m</td>
<td>Multiplett</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Me</td>
<td>Methyl</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MeCN</td>
<td>Acetonitrile</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MS</td>
<td>Mass Spectrometry</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NMR</td>
<td>Nuclear Magnetic Resonance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>obs</td>
<td>Observed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OTf</td>
<td>Triflate (CF₃SO₃)⁻</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PCET</td>
<td>Proton Coupled Electron Transfer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ph</td>
<td>Phenyl</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ppm</td>
<td>Parts per million</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PPN</td>
<td>Bis(triphenylphosphine)iminium</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pr</td>
<td>Propyl</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>q</td>
<td>Quartet</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RBS</td>
<td>Roussin’s Black Salt [Fe₄S₃(NO)]⁻</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RNA</td>
<td>Ribonucleic Acid</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RRE</td>
<td>Roussin’s Red Ester [Fe₂(SR)₂(NO)₄]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RRS</td>
<td>Roussin’s Red Salt [Fe₂S₂(NO)₄]²⁻</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rt</td>
<td>Room temperature</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abbreviation</td>
<td>Full Form</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------------</td>
<td>-----------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ser</td>
<td>Serine</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sh</td>
<td>Shoulder</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SHE</td>
<td>Standard Hydrogen Electrode</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SQUID</td>
<td>Superconducting Quantum Interference Device</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SUF</td>
<td>Sulfur Formation System</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TEMPO</td>
<td>2,2,6,6-Tetramethylpiperidinyloxyl</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tert</td>
<td>Tertiary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>THF</td>
<td>Tetrahydrofuran</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TIP</td>
<td>Temperature-Independent Paramagnetism</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tRNA</td>
<td>Transfer Ribonucleic Acid</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TS</td>
<td>Transition State</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UV-vis</td>
<td>Ultraviolet and visible</td>
</tr>
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</table>
# Curriculum Vitae

Christine Elisabeth Schiewer

Date and Place of Birth: 10/10/1988 in Menden (Sauerland)

## Education

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Program</th>
<th>Institution</th>
<th>Years</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Research Stays Abroad</td>
<td>Visiting research scientist in the group of Prof. Dr. Ulf Ryde, Lund University, Sweden.</td>
<td>09/2015 – 10/2015</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Research Stays Abroad</td>
<td>Research student in the group of Prof. Dr. Martina Lahmann, Bangor University, UK.</td>
<td>10/2012 – 01/2013</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary School</td>
<td>Abitur (university-entrance diploma) at Pestalozzi-Gymnasium Unna, Germany: Cumulative grade: 1.5</td>
<td>09/1999 06/2008</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>High School Diploma (cum laude) at MacArthur High School, San Antonio, USA.</td>
<td>06/2006</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
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Curriculum Vitae

Method Courses

03/2015  Advanced Electrochemistry (Prof. M. Robert)
02/2015  Introduction to Electrochemistry (Prof. C. Jooß, Prof. S. Schneider)
12/2014  X-Ray Absorption Spectroscopy (Prof. S. De Beer)
WiSe 14  Practical NMR Spectroscopy (Dr. M. John)
09/2013  Summer School on Methods in Molecular Energy Research (organized by Max Planck Institute for Chemical Energy Conversion Mühlheim)

Teaching Experience

- Supervision of a bachelor thesis
- Seminars in Advanced Analytical Methods in Inorganic Chemistry, Coordination Chemistry,
- Supervision of Inorganic Chemistry Practical Courses and Advanced Analytical Methods Practical Course (EPR- and Mössbauer spectroscopy, Cyclic Voltammetry, and SQUID magnetometry)

Soft Skill Courses

- Good Scientific Practice
- Project Management
- Leadership
- Intercultural Competence
- Academic Writing

IT

- Origin, MestReNova, MS Office, DFT calculations with ORCA

Languages

- German (native speaker)
- English (fluent)
- French (A2 of European Reference Framework)
Scientific Contributions

Publications

M. Cattaneo,§ C. E. Schiewer,§ A. Schober, S. Dechert, I. Siewert, F. Meyer, 2,2’-Bipyridine Equipped with a Disulfide/Dithiol Switch for Coupled Two Electron and Proton Transfer, submitted. § These authors contributed equally to the work.


Presentations at International Conferences and Workshops

AGIChem, Göttingen, Germany, August 2017 (Poster).

42nd ICCC, Brest, France, July 2016 (Poster).

6th IMBG Meeting, Grenoble, France, September 2015 (Poster).

Final Symposium of the IRTG 1422, Göttingen, Germany, August 2015 (Poster).

Workshop of the IRTG 1422, Katlenburg, Germany, May 2015 (Oral contribution & poster).

Trends in Inorganic Chemistry (TINC), Lund, Sweden, May 2014 (Poster).
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