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Iron-Substituted Polyoxotungstates as Inorganic Synzymes: Evidence for a Biomimetic Pathway in the Catalytic Oxygenation of Catechols

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The oxygenase activity of natural metallo-enzymes offers a unique paradigm of what is the Holy Grail of oxidation chemistry.^[1-4] An innovative approach to the design of oxygenase functional mimics is the adoption of a totally inorganic ligand system derived from polyoxometalates (POMs),^[5-7] as an alternative to organic or organometallic coordination complexes.^[8-9] Bio-inspired activity of transition-metal-substituted POMs (TMSP, with TM being Fe, Mn, Ru) has been proposed in the recent literature.^[10-14] However, due to the severe mechanistic complexity, which is frequently associated with metal-mediated aerobic oxidations, it is a major challenge to unravel the catalyst's role along oxygen-transfer pathways. Therefore, in the realm of POM-based oxygenase mimics, the adherence to bio-inspired mechanistic features is often a matter of debate and retains a fundamental interest.^[15,16] Among the class of Fesubstituted polyoxotungstates some structural types are known, where the coordination geometry of the iron center exhibits a striking oxygenase synzyme motif (Figure S1).^[17] In particular, the tetrasubstituted Krebs-type polyanions with general formula $[Fe_4(H_2O)_{10}(\beta - XW_9O_{33})_2]^{n-}$ $(Fe_4X_2W_{18},$

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 $[\beta\text{-Fe}_4(\text{H}_2\text{O})_{10}(\text{XW}_9\text{O}_{33})_2]^{n-} \quad \text{protocatechuate-3,4-dioxygenase (3,4-PCD)}$

Figure 1. Structure of a Krebs-type Fe-substituted polyoxotungstate (left) and of the active site coordination geometry of protocatechuate-3,4-dioxy-genase (right).

Herein we report combined and convergent structural, spectroscopic and mechanistic evidence on the bio-inspired catalysis by Krebs-type $Fe_4X_2W_{18}$ polytungstates in promoting the cleavage of catechols. The biomimetic function of the POM-based catalyst is assessed by spectroscopic and structure-reactivity relationships. According to the generally accepted hypothesis (Scheme 1), the initial steps of the enzymatic mechanism involve catechol deprotonation and its chelation to the Fe center (a–b in Scheme 1).^[8,20] The Fe^{III}– catecholate intermediate displays a Fe^{II}–semiquinonate char-

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acter vis-à-vis ligand-to-metal charge transfer interactions (b and c in Scheme 1). This is the turning point of catalysis, being responsible for substrate activation towards O₂ electrophilic attack (d in Scheme 1). Then, cleavage products are generated from the rearrangement and hydrolysis of a transient alkylperoxo intermediate (e-g in Scheme 1). Milestone results supporting this scenario are provided by mechanistic studies involving mononuclear Fe^{III} complexes and polydentate ligands mimicking the coordination geometry, spectroscopy and function of the natural enzyme.^[8,21] 3,5-Ditert-butylcatechol (DTBC) is generally used as the substrate analogue, due to its favorable electron-donating character and stability of the related cleavage products. The biomimetic Fe^{III}-catecholate intermediates have shown some key spectroscopic features, specifically: i) two catecholate-to-Fe^{III} charge transfer bands in the UV/Vis-NIR spectra; ii) the dependence of the complex's reactivity on the energy of such LMCT transitions, as a function of the Lewis acidity of the iron center.



Scheme 1. Biomimetic mechanism for intra-diol cleavage of catechol by Fe^{III} complexes. Spectator ligands on the iron centre are omitted for clarity.

Indeed, red-shifted LMCT transition maxima are associated with a favorable donor–acceptor interaction, thus enhancing the semiquinone character of the bound catecholate, and its reactivity with dioxygen.^[22] Following these arguments, the biomimetic potential of the $Fe_4X_2W_{18}$ complexes has been initially screened for DTBC binding, in a weakly coordinating solvent such as 1,2-dichloroethane (DCE), and in protic media such as wet THF and ethanol (Table 1).

Table 1. UV/Vis characterization of Fe₄X₂W₁₈/DBTC complexes at 25 °C.

Fe-POM	$\lambda_{\max} [nm] (\epsilon [M^{-1}cm^{-1}] (THF/H_2O)$) (DCE)	(EtOH)
$\mathrm{Fe}_{4}\mathrm{Te}_{2}\mathrm{W}_{18}$	632, (sh, 450), 698 (520)	618 (sh, 1600) 743 (2700)	715 (>2000)
$Fe_4Sb_2W_{18}$	594 (490), 703 (440)	624 (sh, 2600) 729 (3400)	715 (>2000)
$Fe_4As_2W_{18}$	665 (550)	623 (sh, 2100) 714 (2400)	726 (>3000)
$Fe_4Se_2W_{18}$	574 (176)	626 (sh 1800) 706 (1900)	714 (>1000)

In all cases, the formation of a POM-catecholate complex can be monitored by visible spectroscopy, through an increase of the broad absorption bands in the region 570-750 nm (Table 1). Titration profiles with binding saturation are generally observed. Noteworthy, the solvent effect (solvatochromism) on such visible λ_{max} follows the expected trend observed for LMCT transitions, whereby less polar, aprotic solvents give rise to more pronounced red-shifted bands (Table 1).^[23] Moreover, the inorganic POM ligand remarkably influences the Fe^{III}-catechol interaction, resulting in diverse λ_{max} values (Table 1).^[24,25] The energies of the catecholate-to-Fe^{III} charge-transfer transitions can therefore be tuned by the POM composition. As pointed out above, these bands provide a sensitive probe for the Lewis acidity of the iron center, depending on the donor properties of the ligand set within its coordination sphere. A key aspect is to address the electronic character of the POM moiety by comparing the new observations with the well established database available for classical polydentate organic ligands. In particular, a most informative study has been realized with tetradentate tripod ligands, of general formula N(CH₂X)₃, where X is a phenolate, carboxylate, pyridine or benzimidazole functionality (Scheme 2).^[22,26,27] Table 1 sheds light on the ligand effect induced by the POM framework. The Lewis acidity of the Fe substituent is not substantially quenched by the overall negative charge of the polyanion. The latter (-4 for $Fe_4Se_2W_{18}$ and $Fe_4Te_2W_{18}$, and -6 for Fe₄As₂W₁₈ and Fe₄Sb₂W₁₈) is largely associated with the XO₃ hetero groups with some delocalization over the tungsten-oxo framework. Indeed, for Fe₄X₂W₁₈, in EtOH as solvent, the LMCT band falls at λ_{max} > 700, that is, at lower energy compared to a tricarboxylate-based ligand while approaching a mixed ligand set, incorporating two carboxylates and one pendant pyridine (Scheme 2).^[22,26]



Scheme 2. Comparison of the inorganic POM ligand (middle) with organic tetradentate, tripod-type $N(CH_2X)_3$ ligands (left and right), influencing the spectroscopic properties of Fe–catecholate complexes.

It is noteworthy that the LMCT band red-shifts significantly in the sequence $Fe_4Se_2W_{18}< Fe_4As_2W_{18}< Fe_4Sb_2W_{18} < Fe_4Te_2W_{18}.$

Direct evidence of the substrate-binding mode is provided by the solid-state structures of discrete tetra-oxalato deriva-

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tives of $Fe_4X_2W_{18}$ (see Figure 2). We have prepared three oxalato derivatives, namely $[Fe_4(C_2O_4)_4(H_2O)_2(\beta-XW_9O_{33})_2]^{14-}$ (Ox₄-Fe₄X₂W₁₈; X=As^{III}, Sb^{III}, Bi^{III}) by reaction of Fe₄X₂W₁₈ (As^{III}, Sb^{III}, Bi^{III}) with Na₂C₂O₄ in aqueous acidic medium at pH 4.^[28] Recently Dolbecq et al. reported on the structure of the oxalate–antimony derivative Ox₄-Fe₄Sb₂W₁₈.^[29] Oxalate can be considered as an unreactive analogue of DTBC, coordinating the embedded Fe^{III} centers in a bidentate fashion via two oxygens.^[29] Interestingly, the Fe–O_{oxalate} distances resemble those found for some representative Fe–catecholate complexes, in both abiotic and enzymatic systems (Table S4).



Figure 2. Left: Combined ball-and-stick/polyhedral view representative for $[Fe_4(C_2O_4)_4(H_2O)_2(\beta-XW_9O_{33})_2]^{14-}$ $(Ox_4-Fe_4X_2W_{18}; X=As^{III}, Sb^{III}, Bi^{III})$. Right: Inner coordination sphere of the two "external" Fe centers. Of the three terminal, labile water ligands two have been replaced by a bidentate oxalate ligand. The three remaining oxygen atoms link to the tungsten-oxo fragment of the POM.

The voltammetric analysis of Ox_4 -Fe₄ X_2W_{18} (X = As^{III}, Sb^{III}) in aqueous media shows a reduction of the Fe^{III} centers with a 100 mV negative peak potential shift compared to the parent Fe₄ X_2W_{18} .^[18] This is expected, considering the significant increase in negative charge upon oxalate binding. Importantly, the reduction of Ox_4 -Fe₄Sb₂ W_{18} (two closely spaced waves at -0.280 V and -0.424 V vs SCE, pH 5) occurs at a less negative potential with respect to the As analogous Ox_4 -Fe₄As₂ W_{18} (a single composite four-electron wave at -0.456 V vs SCE, pH 5), in line with the spectroscopic results discussed above (Figure S18).

The ensemble of structural/spectroscopic/redox evidence allows us to establish a reactivity scenario with a valuable potential in the aerobic oxidation of catechols. Oxidation of DTBC by $Fe_4X_2W_{18}$ (X = As^{III}, Sb^{III}, Se^{IV}, Te^{IV}) has been examined in DCE at 1 atm O₂ pressure and 60 °C. Under the condition explored, 80–90% substrate conversion occurs in 3 h (entries 1–5 in Table 2). In all cases, the two-electron oxidation product 3,5-di-*tert*-butyl-1,2-benzoquinone (1) is formed in 50–60% yield, along with a mixture of polymeric tars.

Such product distribution indicates that the autoxidation pathway dominates over an almost silent cleavage routine (Scheme 3). Indeed, of the typical intra- or extra-diol cleavage products: 3,5-di-*tert*-butyl-muconic acid anhydride (2) or 4,6-di-*tert*-butyl-1-oxacyclohepta-4,6-diene-2,3-dione (3), respectively, the former is detected only in traces (<2%).

Table 2.	Aerobic	oxidation	of DTBC	catalyzed b	$y Fe_4 X_2 W_{18}$.
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Entry	Catalyst [mM]	Solvent	Conv. [%]	Cleavage [%] ^[a]	2/3 ratio
1 ^[b]	Fe ₄ As ₂ W ₁₈	DCE	93	<2	-
2 ^[b]	$Fe_4Sb_2W_{18}$	DCE	91	<2	-
3 ^[b]	$Fe_4Se_2W_{18}$	DCE	75	<2	-
4 ^[b]	$Fe_4Te_2W_{18}$	DCE	88	<2	-
5 ^[c]	$Fe_4As_2W_{18}$	THF/H ₂ O	95	19	0.2
6 ^[c]	$Fe_4Sb_2W_{18}$	THF/H ₂ O	91	20	0.28
7 ^[c]	$Fe_4Se_2W_{18}$	THF/H ₂ O	93	9	0.12
8 ^[c]	$Fe_4Te_2W_{18}$	THF/H ₂ O	91	31	2.1
9 ^[c,d]	$\mathrm{Fe}_{4}\mathrm{Te}_{2}\mathrm{W}_{18}$	THF/H ₂ O	35	43	6.5

[a] % cleavage selectivity determined by total cleavage products (2+3)/ substrate conversion; [b] reaction performed with catalyst (8.0 mM), 3,5-DTBC (200 mM) at 60 °C for 3 h, $P(O_2) = 1$ atm, 19–23 turnovers; [c] reaction performed with catalyst (8.0 mM), 3,5-DTBC (60 mM) at 25 °C in THF/H₂O (98:2) in the presence of BHT (0.2 M) for 68 h, $P(O_2) = 1$ atm, 7 turnovers; [d] reaction performed with 2.5 mM catalyst in the presence of 1 M BHT, 8 turnovers.



Scheme 3. Competing autoxidation and cleavage pathways in the aerobic oxidation of DTBC catalyzed by $Fe_4X_2W_{18}$.

In an attempt to improve the cleavage selectivity, catalysis has also been explored in other media.^[30] The autoxidation process turns out to be faster in CH₃CN and DCE, while it is sensibly slowed down in acetone or in wet THF, in agreement with previous evidence (Figure S21).^[31]

Adding to these observations, we also investigated the oxidative screening in wet THF and in the presence of 2,6-ditert-butylcresol (BHT), as radical scavenger to inhibit freeradical oxidation and polymerization pathways (entries 5-9 in Table 2). Indeed, a favorable quinone abatement (<6%)and a parallel enhancement of the cleavage selectivity up to > 40% is obtained (entry 9 in Table 2). In all cases, catalytic cleavage occurs yielding both products 2 and 3, deriving from an intra- and extra-diol cleavage mechanism, respectively.^[32] The Krebs-type structures Fe₄X₂W₁₈ appear to be ideally suited for catechol cleavage catalysis. Other types of Fe-containing POMs such as the Keggin derivatives [Fe- $(H_2O)(\alpha - SiW_{11}O_{39})^{5-}$ and $[\gamma - Fe_2(H_2O)_2SiW_{10}O_{38}]^{6-}$ are inactive, although they coordinate DTBC (Figures S2, S3, S8, S9). This result is consistent with the key requirements of iron-mediated cleavage of catechols (Scheme 1). Only the Krebs-type POMs feature external Fe centers easily accessible for both catechol and dioxygen binding, thus allowing a possible mechanistic pathway along bio-inspired guidelines.^[33] The isostructural Krebs-type catalysts $Fe_4X_2W_{18}$ offer the unique opportunity to correlate the exhibited cleavage selectivity and the Fe-catechol LMCT interaction (see above). Inspection of entries 7–10 in Table 2 shows that the cleavage performance increases in the order Fe₄Se₂W₁₈ < Fe₄As₂W₁₈ ≈ Fe₄Sb₂W₁₈ < Fe₄Te₂W₁₈ indicating that the hetero atom type is crucial. The reactivity trend for DTBC cleavage selectivity of the Fe₄X₂W₁₈ catalysts is inversely proportional to their LMCT transition energies in THF/H₂O (Table 1 and Figure 3). Therefore, on the basis of earlier arguments, we associate the increased cleavage specificity to an increase of the Fe Lewis acidity within the Fe₄X₂W₁₈ series, by enhancing the semiquinone character of the reactive intermediate and, in a second step, by facilitating the decomposition of the peroxy intermediate to the cleavage products (Scheme 1), in agreement with the enzymatic paradigm.^[34]



Figure 3. DTBC cleavage selectivity of $Fe_4X_2W_{18}$ catalysts as a function of their LMCT energies in THF/H₂O 98:2 (see also Table 2).

The reactivity correlation traced within the $Fe_4X_2W_{18}$ Krebs-type family provides convincing evidence of the POM involvement, and at the same time, it establishes a fundamental reference point to bridge the gap with classical organic ligands. In this respect, the combined spectroscopic and reactivity evidence is instrumental for a descriptoraided design of novel dioxygenase functional models, built from totally inorganic POM-based ligands.^[35]

Experimental Section

See the Supporting Information for a detailed description of POM synthesis, cation metathesis, XRD details, UV/Vis spectra, electrochemistry and kinetic profiles of oxidation reactions.

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cal CO₂. These experiments have been performed with Fe₄As₂W₁₈, isolated as a THA, TBA or PPh₄ salt by cation metathesis, which offers an optimal synthetic strategy for tuning the solubility of the POM catalyst (Table S5 in the Supporting Information).

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