Functionalization of N₂ by Mid to Late Transition Metals via N–N Bond Cleavage

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Abstract This review focuses on the recent efforts to functionalize dinitrogen via complete cleavage of the N \equiv N bond with particular emphasis on mid to late transition metal complexes. The relationships of electronic and structural parameters for the most common N₂-bonding modes (end-on and side-on bridging) with N₂-splitting reactivity are discussed. This analysis points towards electronic configurations with π^{10} (end-on) and $\pi^8 \delta^2$ (side-on) electrons within the M₂N₂-cores for full N–N bond cleavage into terminal and bridging nitride complexes, respectively. The full body of work on N₂-splitting with group 6–8 metals is comprehensively presented. Ligand electronic and steric effects are discussed in detail for privileged platforms, such as low coordinate, electron rich complexes with π -donating ligands. Finally, several strategies for functionalization of the nitrides resulting from N₂-splitting are presented that lead to N–C bond formation. The developed pseudocatalytic cycles reported so far that combine N₂-cleavage, nitride functionalization, and N-transfer provide guidelines for rational catalyst design.

Keywords Bonding • Dinitrogen splitting • Nitrogen fixation • Transition metal nitrides

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1 Nitrogenase, Haber-Bosch, and Catalytic N₂ Fixation

Nitrogen is, next to oxygen, hydrogen, and carbon, one of the main elements found in organic compounds, but atmospheric N2, which constitutes about 78 vol% of air and more than 99% of global nitrogen, is chemically highly inert. Hence, its conversion into the more reactive nitrogen source ammonia by biological [1, 2]"nitrogen fixation" was crucial for the development of life. Furthermore, our modern societies strongly rely on the industrial Haber-Bosch process [3, 4] for the production of fertilizers and as feedstock for the chemical synthesis of organic nitrogen compounds, the latter consuming approx. 20% of industrially produced NH_3 [5]. Fundamentally different mechanisms were proposed for the conversion of N₂ via these two processes. Nitrogen fixation by the enzyme [Fe,Mo]-nitrogenase proceeds through a series of alternating nitrogen reduction and protonation steps with gradual N–N bond order reduction. In contrast, heterogeneously catalyzed ammonia synthesis proceeds via initial, turn-over limiting dissociative chemisorption of N_2 on the catalyst surface and subsequent stepwise N–H bond formation. These pathways provide the basis for the development of synthetic catalysts that enable the transformation of N₂ at ambient conditions, which is a longstanding goal. To date, a small number of well-defined, biomimetic homogeneous catalysts were reported [6–8]. Alternative electrochemical and photochemical approaches are currently intensively studied, but still suffer from comparatively low selectivities (H₂ evolution) and energy efficiency [9, 10]. Full N₂-splitting into well-defined molecular nitrides was also reported on several instances, but homogeneous catalysts that operate via initial N_2 -cleavage remain elusive. However, this approach might offer alternatives to nitrogen fixation beyond NH₃. Molecular nitride chemistry is well developed and several methods for C-N bond formation starting from nitrides are known [11]. Hence, catalysts that directly transform dinitrogen into nitrogen compounds, such as amines, nitriles, or isocyanates, via N2-splitting and nitride transfer cycles are attractive goals and recent examples that demonstrated stoichiometric routes fuel this idea [5, 12]. In this context, the current review focuses on well-defined molecular systems that enable the functionalization of N_2 via initial full cleavage of the N-N bond with the aim at developing some guidelines that ultimately lead to the design of catalysts for the synthesis of value added nitrogen compounds directly from N₂.

2 Bonding in N₂-Bridged Complexes

2.1 General Considerations

The high bond dissociation (941 kJ mol $^{-1}$) and ionization energies (15.6 eV), low proton (5.1 eV) and electron affinities (-1.9 eV), and the lack of a dipole moment all account for the high thermodynamic and kinetic stability of dinitrogen [13-15]. Cleavage of the first N-N bond defines a major challenge and requires about half of the total triple bond energy (410 kJ mol $^{-1}$). In comparison, acetylene features an even stronger triple bond (962 kJ mol $^{-1}$) but the π -bonds are much weaker (222 kJ mol $^{-1}$), which provides a rationale for the higher reactivity compared with N₂ [16]. A wide range of charge transfer to coordinated N₂-ligands is well documented, reaching from barely activated, neutral N_2 to highly reduced hydrazide $[N_2]^{4-}$ (Table 1). This degree of activation is expressed within spectroscopic (N-N stretching vibration) and structural parameters (N-N bond distance) [17, 18], which are inversely proportional according to Badger's rule [19]. While reduction to diazenide $(N_2^{2^{-}})$ and hydrazide $(N_2^{4^{-}})$ ligands are more commonly observed only a few examples for complexes with $[N_2]^{3-}$ radical anion ligands were reported [20]. The monoanionic N_2^- radical was only detected in solid matrix upon photodecomposition of metal azide single crystals and adsorbed on MO (M = Mg, Ca) surfaces at low temperatures [21-24]. According to computations, the unknown free radical species HN_2 is endothermic with respect to decay into N_2 and H by $\Delta E = 9$ kcal/mol and has a lifetime of only around 10^{-10} s at room temperature [25]. Hence, the unfavorable one-electron reduction of N₂ emphasizes the use of multi-electron redox catalysts for nitrogen fixation. The current model for nitrogenase also implies initial two-electron N2-reduction. These electrons are stored within two Fe-H bonds and charge transfer is triggered by H₂ reductive elimination from the active site [2]. Besides vibrational and structural data, the spin state can also provide information on the redox state of coordinated N2-ligands due to magnetic coupling of the metal ion with radical ligands, such as N_2^{2-} (S = 1). Alternatively, a covalent picture can be very useful to rationalize bonding with metal ions that have efficient orbital overlap with N₂-ligands (see below).

Four coordination modes of N_2 to metal ions are most frequently found (Fig. 1), i.e., mononuclear end-on (1), dinuclear end-on (2), dinuclear side-on (3), and

Free N ₂ [26] 1.10 Å 2,5 N=N S = 0 \sim 1 10 1 20 Å \approx	$,331 \text{ cm}^{-1}$
N=N $S=0$ $\sim 1.10, 1.20$ Å	1 700 2 221 -1
~1.10-1.20 A	1,700-2,331 cm ⁻¹
$[N\equiv N]^ S = \frac{1}{2}$ n.a. n.a.	.a.
Free H_2N_2 [27, 28] 1.25 Å 1,4	$,583/1,529 \text{ cm}^{-1}$
$[N=N]^{2-}$ S = 1 $\approx 1.20-1.35$ Å \approx	$1,200-1,700 \text{ cm}^{-1}$
$[N=N]^{3-}$ [20] $S = \frac{1}{2}$ 1.40 Å 98	$89-1,040 \text{ cm}^{-1}$
Free H ₄ N ₂ [29] 1.45 Å 88	85 cm^{-1}
$[N-N]^{4-}$ $S = 0$ $\approx 1.40-1.60$ Å \approx	$700-1,100 \text{ cm}^{-1}$

Table 1 Bond distances and stretching frequencies for free and coordinated nitrogen species



Fig. 1 Most common bonding motifs in N₂ complexes

dinuclear side-on-end-on (4), with (1) being predominant. More than one metal ion will be required for full 6-electron reduction to nitrides. Therefore, only multinuclear activation is discussed in this review. These coordination modes generally show different degrees of N₂-activation, which can be attributed to metal-N₂ bonding and will therefore be discussed in the next two sections for the more common coordination modes (2) and (3). As an important difference, the terminal binding mode (1) and particularly the side-on modes (3) and (4) generally exhibit enhanced reactivity, e.g., with respect to N–H, N–C, or N–Si bond formation. In contrast, such N₂ functionalization reactions were not observed directly for the end-on bridging mode (2). However, (2) proved to be important en route to full N₂-splitting into nitrides, which will be discussed below and in Sect. 3.

2.2 End-On Bridging N_2

The end-on bridging mode, M-(μ - η^1 - η^1 -N₂)-M, is most frequently observed for dinuclear complexes. N₂ activation upon η^1 -coordination to the first metal ion increases the electron density on the ligand thus increasing its basicity for binding of the second metal. Charge delocalization over the whole M-N-N-M unit in the dinuclear complex further stabilizes the dinuclear binding motif [30]. End-on bridging N₂-complexes, which are best described by diazenide N_2^{2-} (M–N=N– M) and hydrazide N_2^{4-} (M=N-N=M) resonance structures, are well documented, while radical N₂-ligands (N₂⁻ or N₂³⁻) were not reported in this bonding mode [31]. The charge transfer to the N₂-ligand can be rationalized based on orbital interactions as first considered by Gray and Chatt [32, 33]. N_2 activation is a consequence of back donation from the metal to the N–N π^* -antibonding orbitals. In threefold symmetry, two metal d-orbitals (d_{xz}, d_{yz}) are available from each metal ion for π -bonding [46]. Linear combination with the nitrogen π and π^* orbitals gives rise to four sets of degenerate π -orbitals (1e_u, 1e_g, 2e_u, 2e_g; Scheme 1). It was pointed out in early theoretical work from *Fenske-Hall* computations that mixing of the N–N π -bonding orbitals with metal d-orbitals is weak, i.e., that occupation of the eu-levels contributes to M-N bonding and N2 activation to a minor extend [34]. However, the effect of occupation of the 2eu level on N2 activation was demonstrated by Cummins and coworkers within the redox series $[{(\operatorname{ArtBuN}_{3}\operatorname{Mo}_{2}(\mu-\eta^{1}:\eta^{1}-N_{2})]^{n+}} (n = 0-2; \text{ Fig. 2; see below for discussion}).$ Besides the M–N–N–M π -manifold, the frontier orbitals are complemented by M–N bonding MOs (a_u/a_{2u}) that result from mixing of metal d_{z2} -orbitals with the N–N σ -antibonding orbital [37, 101]. This MO is strongly N–N antibonding in



Scheme 1 Qualitative orbital interaction diagram for end-on N₂ bridged dinuclear complexes in threefold and fourfold geometry (*left*) and symmetry of the M–N–N–M σ - and π -type MOs (*right*) as an extension of *Fryzuk*'s scheme [46]. MOs less relevant for N₂-activation and splitting drawn in *grey*



Fig. 2 Bond distances, stretching frequencies, and number of electrons in the MNNM π -system for {Mo[N(*t*Bu)(Ar)]₃}₂(μ - η ¹- η ¹-N₂)ⁿ⁺ (n = 0-2) [36, 37]

nature. Hence, its occupation strongly weakens the N₂ bond. Furthermore, it drops in energy upon splitting the N₂-complex into terminal nitrides (see Scheme 7). In addition to these σ - and π -M₂N₂ interactions, in fourfold symmetry (octahedral or square pyramidal geometry) two metal-based non-bonding MOs with δ/δ^* -character are derived from d_{xy}. In threefold symmetry these MOs should be much higher in energy due to interaction with the auxiliary ligands.

Based on this simple qualitative MO scheme, the degree of N₂-activation can be correlated to π -orbital occupancy within closely related systems upon filling the MOs with the four electrons from N₂ π -bonding and the valence electrons contributed from the two ML_n fragments. Occupation of the eg levels weakens the N–N bond in contrast to the MOs with eu symmetry. Hence, it is evident that a π^8 valence electron configuration should result in maximal N₂ bond weakening. For example, the N₂-bridged dirtuthenium complex [(NH₃)₅RuN₂Ru(NH₃)₅]⁴⁺ (1) exhibits a π^{12} configuration ((1e_u)⁴(1e_g)⁴(b_{1u})²(b_{2u})²(2e_u)⁴(2e_g)⁰) with a very small degree of N₂ bond weakening (d_{NN} = 1.12 Å, $\nu_{NN} = 2,100$ cm⁻¹) [32]. In contrast, the bimetallic complex [(PMe₂Ph)₄ClReN₂MoCl₄(OMe)] (2) with π^8 configuration ((1e_u)⁴(1e_g)⁴

 $(b_{1u})^2(b_{2u})^1(2e_u)^0(2e_g)^0)$ displays much stronger N_2 -activation (d_{NN}=1.21 Å, $\nu_{NN}=1,660~cm^{-1})$ [35].

This dependence of the degree of activation on valence electron configuration is nicely reflected within the redox series $[{(ArtBuN)_3Mo}_2(\mu-\eta^1:\eta^1-N_2)]^{n+}$ (n = 0(3), 1 (4), 2 (5); Ar = $3,5-C_6H_3Me_2$; Fig. 2) reported by *Cummins* and coworkers [36, 37]. According to this model, these compounds adopt $(1e_n)^4 (1e_n)^4 (2e_n)^{(2-n)}$ $(2e_{\alpha})^{0}$ configurations, i.e., 10 (n = 0, 3), 9 (n = 1, 4), and 8 (n = 2, 5) electrons in Mo–N–N–Mo π -type orbitals, respectively. The electronic triplet (3), doublet (4), and singlet (5) ground states and the increasing activation upon oxidation of the parent π^{10} system 3 (Fig. 2) are in agreement with the bonding model. Interestingly, while 4 and 5 are thermally stable, only the supposedly least activated N₂-complex 3 splits into the terminal nitrides [NMo(NtBuAr)₃] [38]. Splitting of the π^{10} -dimer 3 produces two closed shell, pseudo-tetrahedral molybdenum(VI) nitrides. As the N–N σ -antibonding a_u-orbital drops in energy upon splitting, two electrons are transferred from the π - to the σ -manifold (Scheme 7). In comparison, the oxidized dimers 4 and 5 are short by one and two electrons, respectively, to form nitrides where all M–N σ - and π -bonding orbitals are fully occupied. These simple considerations emphasize the preference for a π^{10} -configuration in splitting of linearly N₂bridged dinuclear complexes into terminal nitrides. The same arguments were applied to analogous systems, which are discussed in more detail in Sect. 3.

The subtle influence of different metals within strongly related coordination spheres on N₂-activation was systematically examined by Sita and coworkers. They reported a series of group $4-6 \text{ n}^5$ -cyclopentadienyl/n²-amidinate complexes (am = N(iPr)C(Me)N(iPr); M = Ti (6), Zr (7), Hf (8), V (9), Nb (10), Ta (11), Mo(12), W (13); Fig. 3 and Table 2) [39-41]. Except for Zr and Hf, isostructural end-on bridging N₂-coordination was found. The diamagnetic Ti-complex 6 was described as two $Ti^{III} d^1$ -ions spin-coupled with an N_2^{2-} bridge. The high fourth ionization potential of Ti prevents further reduction of N₂ [42]. Slightly less activation was observed for the analogous vanadium complex 9, leading to the description as two antiferromagnetically coupled V^{II}-ions bridged by N₂, which qualitatively reflects the decreased reduction potential compared with titanium. The higher degree of activation for the niobium and tantalum dimers 10 and 11 also reflects the trends in reduction potential upon moving down group 5. These compounds were described as containing Ta^{IV} and Nb^{IV}, respectively, which are bridged by $[N_2]^{4-}$ ligands. For 11, preliminary magnetic data supported a singlet ground state and thermally populated triplet state with antiferromagnetic exchange above 2K. 11 also splits the strongly reduced N2-ligand to form the tantalum(V)

Fig. 3 *Sita*'s isostructural (Cp*amM)₂(µ-N₂) complexes

M----N----M

M = Ti, V, Nb, Ta, Mo, W

Table 2 N–N bond distances	Metal	Coordination mode	d(NN) [Å]	Reference
complexes	Ti (6)	$(\mu - \eta^1 - \eta^1 - N_2)$	1.270(2)	[40]
comprenes	Zr ^a (7)	$(\mu - \eta^2 - \eta^2 - N_2)$	1.518(2)	[43]
	Hf (8)	$(\mu - \eta^2 - \eta^2 - N_2)$	1.611(4)	[43]
	V (9)	$(\mu - \eta^1 - \eta^1 - N_2)$	1.225(2)	[41]
	Nb ^b (10)	$(\mu - \eta^1 - \eta^1 - N_2)$	1.300(3)	[41]
	Ta (11)	$(\mu - \eta^1 - \eta^1 - N_2)$	1.313(4)	[39]
	Mo (12)	$(\mu - \eta^1 - \eta^1 - N_2)$	1.267(2)	[40]
	W (13)	$(\mu - \eta^1 - \eta^1 - N_2)$	1.277(8)	[40]

^aExchange of methyl group in amidinate against NMe₂ ^bExchange of methyl group in amidinate against phenyl

nitride bridged complex [{Cp*(am)Ta}₂(μ -N)₂] above 0°C. In turn, the diamagnetic group 6 analogues **12** and **13** are again in agreement with decreasing reduction potential and show weaker activation of the N₂ bridge compared to Nb and Ta. While **12** and **13** are thermally stable, N₂-splitting was realized photochemically (c.f. Sect. 3).

Strong ligand influences on N₂-activation are also well documented. An instructive example was provided by the group of *Chirik*, who reported the isolation of the extensive terpyridine dimolybdenum dinitrogen series [{(^{Ph}Tpy)(PPh₂Me)₂Mo}₂(µ-η¹:η¹-N₂)][BAr^F₄]_n (n = 0 (14), 1 (15), 2 (16), 3 (17), 4 (18); Scheme 2) [44]. Spectroscopic data of the dicationic complex 16 indicates an N₂²⁻ bridge. DFT computations support a $\pi^{10}(\delta^4)$ configuration, yet with a singlet ground state as the degeneracy of the frontier π^* -MOs is strongly lifted due to electronic coupling with the Tpy ligand. Single and double oxidation leads to stronger N₂-activation as the electrons are removed from the N–N bonding π^* -orbital. Intriguingly, reduction also results in N–N bond weakening since the SOMO of 15 is Tpy-ligand centered, which was also found for the second reduction. The use of redox active ligands for electron storage provides an attractive approach for multi-electron redox reactions like nitrogen fixation.

2.3 Side-On Bridging N_2

The side-on N₂-bridging coordination mode is less common in dinuclear complexes than end-on coordination [17, 45, 46]. First evidence was provided by the linkage isomerization of the isotopomers of $[(NH_3)_5Ru(^{14/15}N_2)]^{2+}$ which is too fast to proceed via N₂ dissociation, suggesting intermediate side-on coordination [47]. The first structurally characterized side-on N₂ complex, a polynuclear nickel-lithium compound, was reported in 1973 [48, 49]. By now, several other examples were reported, mostly with early transition metals and f-block elements, exhibiting varying degrees of activation, as exemplified by *Evans* ' [(Cp*₂Sm)₂(μ - η^{2} : η^{2} -N₂)] (**19**, d_{NN} = 1.088(12) Å) vs. *Fryzuk* 's [{(PNP)ZrCl}₂(μ - η^{2} : η^{2} -N₂)] (**20**,



Scheme 2 $[{({}^{Ph}Tpy)(PPh_2Me)_2Mo}_2(\mu-\eta^1-\eta^1-N_2)][BAr^F_4]_n (n = 0-4)$ redox series reported by *Chirik* and coworkers [44]

[PNP] = (*i*Pr₂PCH₂SiMe₂)₂ N) (d_{NN} = 1.548(7) Å) [50, 51]. Bonding of the two metal centers with side-on bound N₂ is more complex compared with the end-on isomer, as considerable distortion from planarity of the M₂N₂ core is often observed. A simplified model for two side-on N₂-bridged square-pyramidal ML₄ fragments is shown in Scheme 3, based on considerations first described by *Fryzuk* and coworkers [46]. Metal N₂ bonding should be dominated by back donation from suitable d-orbitals into the N₂ π*-orbitals. In contrast to end-on coordination, only one π-interaction results from out of phase combination of the two d_{xz} orbitals and the horizontal N₂ π*-level. In addition, an interaction with δ-symmetry is constructed by the in-phase d_{xy} combination with the vertical N₂ π*-orbital. Both MOs are N–N antibonding in character. However, weaker orbital overlap for the δ-with respect to π-interactions suggests an energetic preference for end-on N₂-coordination. In fact, isolable mononuclear complexes with side-on terminal η ¹-η¹-N₂-coordination remain unknown [52].

One reason for the occurrence of side-on bridging N₂-ligands can be the absence of an accessible d-orbital that is suitable to form the second π -bond. Semi-empirical computations for the model complex [{Zr(Cl)N(SiH₂CH₂PH₂)₂}₂(μ - η^2 : η^2 -N₂)] confirmed this picture revealing that one of the d-orbitals required for π -bonding is raised in energy due to π -donation by the amide and chloride ligands [46]. In fact, ligand exchange of chloride vs. cyclopentadienide (Cp) results in N₂ linkage isomerization and isolation of the end-on bridged complex [{(PNP)ZrCp}₂(μ - η^1 : η^1 -N₂)] (**21**, Scheme 4) [46]. Hence, exchange of chloride by Cp stabilizes the end-on coordination by reducing the Cl⁻/N₂ π -MO competition and destabilizes the sideon coordination as the Cp ligand overlaps with a d-orbital that would be required for



Scheme 3 Qualitative orbital interaction diagram for side-on N_2 bridged dinuclear complexes (*left*) and symmetry of the relevant MOs (*right*) as an extension of *Fryzuk*'s scheme [46]. MOs less relevant for N_2 -activation and splitting drawn in grey



Scheme 4 Transformation of side-on to end-on N₂ configuration by ligand exchange [46]

δ-bonding with a side-on N₂ complex. The remaining N_{amide}–Zr–N₂ π-interaction is expressed in an unusually long Zr–N_{amide} bond of **21** (2.306(3)/2.303(3) Å) [53, 54]. Bonding analysis of the zirconium system on a higher computational level (DFT) by *Tuczek* and coworkers qualitatively confirmed the earlier picture and showed that distortion of the M₂N₂ core from planarity to a butterfly structure aids at charge delocalization of the N₂-ligand [55]. Furthermore, the LUMO was described as a non-bonding, metal-based MO from out of phase combination of two d_{xy} orbitals (d_{xy}⁻). Slightly higher, an MO was found from combination of metal d-orbitals with the N₂ σ*-orbital (drawn below d_{xy}⁻ in simplified Scheme 3). Occupation of this MO should strongly weaken the N–N bond. However, the Zr₂N₂ core does not contain enough electrons for full N₂ cleavage. In contrast, model computations for [{SiMe₃N(CH₂CH₂NSiMe₃)₂V}₂(μ-η²:η²-N₂)], which in fact splits the N₂-ligand into the dinitride bridged divanadium(V) isomer [56], indicate the population of such an MO with N₂ σ*-character [57, 58]. Together with the filled N₂ π -orbitals, this picture emphasizes an overall $\pi^8 \delta^2$ valence electron configuration to be favorable for N₂-splitting for the side-on coordination. Importantly, comparison of the two simplified MO-schemes for end-on (D_{4h}) and side-on (D_{2h}) coordination suggests that a lower valence electron count of the ML₄ fragments is required for splitting from the side-on linkage isomer. This is in fact corroborated by computational DFT analysis of the conversion of [{Cp*(am) Ta}₂(μ -N₂)] into [{Cp*(am)Ta}₂(μ -N)₂] [41, 59]. The proposed mechanism proceeds via initial isomerization of the triplet end-on (π^8) to the singlet side-on ($\pi^8\delta^2$) form prior to N₂-splitting, in full agreement with this very simple model.

The electronic structures of $[{R_2M}_2(\mu-\eta^2:\eta^2-N_2)]$ (M = group 4–9, R = amide, cyclopentadienide) complexes with planar M₂N₂-cores were examined computationally by *Stranger* and coworkers [60]. An increase in activation was found upon descending a group, presumably due to more diffuse d-orbitals resulting in better overlap. Furthermore, the conformation of M(NH₂)₂ fragments with respect to the M₂N₂-core was predicted to have a strong impact on N₂ activation and cleavage. In general, perpendicular arrangement leads to stronger activation due to better electron delocalization into the MNNM moiety. Moving along the transition series eventually results in N₂-splitting as predicted by the simple model in Scheme 3. Additional metal–metal interactions stabilize the nitride bridged products.

Besides these electronic considerations, sterics also play an important role, as the two metal moieties are closer in the side-on bonding mode. This was demonstrated for a series of zirconocenes [61, 62]. In contrast to *Bercaw's* classic decamethyl-zirconocene dimer [{Cp*₂Zr(η^1 -N₂)}₂(μ - η^1 - η^1 -N₂)] (22; Cp* = C₅Me₅) and analogous [{Cp*Cp'Zr(η^1 -N₂)}₂(μ - η^1 : η^1 -N₂)] (23; Cp' = C₅Me₄H), removal of a second methyl group results in the side-on bridged octametylzirconocene dimer [(Cp'₂Zr)₂(μ - η^2 : η^2 -N₂)] (24) with side-on bridged octametylzirconocene dimer [(Cp'₂Zr)₂(μ - η^2 : η^2 -N₂)] (24) with side-on N₂ bridged isomers to increase down group 4 in the periodic table [42]. This trend is confirmed experimentally for the series [(Cp*amM)₂(μ -N₂)] (M = Ti, Zr, Hf), which exhibits end-on for Ti (6) and side-on configuration for the Zr (7) and Hf (8) complexes (Table 2) [40]. It is assumed that only the larger Zr and Hf (ionic radii: 1.75 Å) are able to accommodate the more crowded side-on coordination, while the smaller homologue Ti (1.60 Å) and other metals like V (1.53 Å), Nb (1.64 Å), or Mo (1.54 Å) adopt the end-on bonding motif with this ligand set.

An important difference between end-on and side-on bridging coordination is the reactivity. In fact, the only N_2 -functionalization reaction that is known for the end-on bridging mode is splitting into nitrides. In contrast, reactions like C–N coupling with CO, which can lead to full scission of the N–N bond, are well



Fig. 4 Steric effect on end-on vs. side-on N2 binding





documented for side-on bonding [63, 66] and computations indicate that side-on binding is a prerequisite for N₂-hydrogenation [67]. Related reactivity was also observed for the rare, side-on/end-on coordination mode, e.g., for [{(NPN)Ta}₂(- μ -H)₂(μ - η ¹: η ²-N₂)] (25, NPN = (Ph)P(CH₂SiMe₂NPh)₂) (Fig. 5) [68, 69]. This compound is formed upon reaction of dinuclear Ta(IV) hydride complex [{(NPN) Ta}₂(μ -H)₄] (NPN = PhP(CH₂SiMe₂NPh)₂) with N₂ under partial release of H₂. Hence, the reducing equivalents for N₂ reduction are stored in two Ta–H bonds providing an early model for nitrogenase reactivity. The energetic advantage of maintaining the remaining bridging hydrides, which force the two metal centers in 25 in close proximity, is believed to prevail over the energy difference to dinuclear end-on coordination. Subsequent treatment with boranes [70], silanes [71–73], alanes [74], zirconocenes [75], or with 1,2-cumulenes [76] led to full cleavage of the dinitrogen bond.

3 Splitting of N₂ into Nitride Complexes of Group 6 Elements and Beyond

As discussed in Sect. 2, the type of metal, oxidation state, coordination geometry, ligand type, and electronic configuration are essential features that govern the ability of N₂-bridged multinuclear complexes to split into nitrides. In this section, we want to illustrate these principles with a comprehensive overview over N₂-splitting reactions mediated by mid to late transition metal complexes (group 6-8). Other examples from group 4-5 and f-block chemistry are not part of this section, but will be covered by other reviews in this book.

3.1 N₂-Splitting by Homoleptic Group 6 Amide Complexes

Arguably the best examined system regarding both N₂-splitting and transfer of the resulting nitride ligands is *Cummins'* molybdenum triamides, which also marks the first example for N₂-cleavage into well-defined nitrides [36, 38]. [(ArtBuN)₃Mo (μ - η^1 - η^1 -N₂)Mo(NtBuAr)₃] (3, Ar = 3,5-C₆H₃Me₂) forms upon reaction of the isolable molybdenum(III) complex [Mo(NtBuAr)₃] (26) at -35°C under N₂

(1 atm) and splits into the molybdenum(VI) nitrides $[NMo(NtBuAr)_3]$ (27) when warmed to room temperature (Scheme 5) in near quantitative yield. N₂-splitting was computed to be exothermic by about 20 kcal/mol [77], but N₂-uptake on this route requires several days. It can be significantly accelerated by addition of reductants, and isolation of terminal dinitrogen complex Na[(N₂)Mo(N(tBu)Ar)₃] (28) allowed for the proposal of a redox-catalytic mechanism (Scheme 6) [78].

The spectroscopic, magnetic, and structural features of intermediate **3** indicate moderate to strong N₂-activation, in agreement with Mo^{IV}{N₂²⁻}Mo^{IV} and the covalent π^{10} bonding model described above [36, 37]. The reaction can also be rationalized by extension of the π -MO scheme in the dimer. Full splitting into nitride complexes requires additional charge transfer to the N₂-ligand, more exactly form the 2e_u π -orbitals to the a_u σ^* -MO of triplet **3** (Scheme 7), which drops in energy upon N–N bond cleavage and formation of the closed-shell molybdenum (VI) nitride products. Hence, dissociation of the dimer along the N–N bond vector is symmetry forbidden but requires breaking of the high symmetry of **3** (S₆) for σ/π -MO-mixing. Accordingly, *Morokuma* and coworkers computed a zigzag transition state (TS) with approximate N–N single bond character for model complex [(NH₂)₃MoN₂Mo(NH₂)₃]₂ [77]. In the TS the antibonding character of the 3b_u is reduced upon M–N–M bending and mixing with the 2b_u orbital enabling charge



Scheme 5 Cleavage of N₂ in terminal nitrides mediated by a triamido molybdenum(III) complex [38]



Scheme 6 Redox-catalytic mechanism for N₂-splitting from 26 into 27 [78]



Scheme 7 MO scheme for N_2 cleavage in terminal nitrides out of a Mo(III) dinuclear dimer in S_6 symmetry [36]

transfer to the nitride. This picture also resolves the apparent dichotomy observed for the oxidized compounds $[(ArtBuN)_3Mo(\mu-\eta^1-\eta^1-N_2)Mo(NtBuAr)_3]^+$ (4) and $[(ArtBuN)_3Mo(\mu-\eta^1-\eta^1-N_2)Mo(NtBuAr)_3]^{2+}$ (5). While the π^9 (4) and π^8 (5) configurations exhibit stronger N₂ activation (see Sect. 2) in the ground state, they are short by one and two electrons, respectively, to split into stable closed-shell nitrido complexes.

An interesting comparison is given with *Schrock*'s related triamidoamine dimer $[\{(R'NCH_2CH_2)_3NMo\}_2(\mu-\eta^1:\eta^1-N_2)]$ (**29**, R' = *t*BuMe_2Si) [**36**, 79, 80]. Both **3** and **29** exhibit the same formal oxidation and spin states and display similar structural parameters within the central Mo–N–N–Mo moiety. However, *Schrock*'s dimer does not split into the respective nitrides (Scheme 8), which could be prepared on another route. This observation can be attributed to the *trans*-influence of the additional amine donor, which destabilizes σ -bonding with the nitride ligand and the a_u orbital in the dimer. Hence, splitting is both thermodynamically and kinetically more unfavorable and splitting of a simplified model of **29** was calculated to be endothermic [77]. Computational work on truncated models by *Stranger* and coworkers suggests that the conformational rigidity of the triamidoamine vs. the monodentate amido ligands might also contribute to the difference in reactivity [**81**, **82**]. Rotation of an amido ligand by 90° increases charge transfer from the metal to N₂ (Scheme 9). This conformation also stabilizes an electronic singlet with respect to the triplet state, en route to the singlet zigzag transition state. However, in



Scheme 9 Rotation of one NR₂ group at each Mo center in $[Mo(NR_2)_3]_2(\mu-N_2)$

agreement with the experimentally confirmed triplet ground state of **3** [37], computations on full **3** revealed that the bulky *tert*-butylanilide ligands strongly destabilize the singlet and N₂-splitting might in fact not pass through this intermediate [83].

 π -Donor ancillary ligands generally lead to stronger N₂ activation and more exothermic splitting [77, 81]. In fact, the triaryl analogue [(Mes₃Mo)₂(μ - η ¹: η ¹- N_2)] $(30, \text{Mes} = 2, 4, 6 - \text{Me}_3C_6H_2)$ reported by *Floriani* and coworkers is stable in refluxing benzene [84]. However, irradiation in the UV range ($\lambda = 365.0$ nm) produces the nitride bridged dimer $[(Mes_3Mo)_2(\mu-N)]$ (31), which marked the first example of photochemical N₂-splitting. The authors proposed a mechanism (Scheme 10, top) via initial photolysis into monomeric nitrides, which form a transient tetranuclear intermediate with parent 30 and finally the nitride bridged dinuclear product 31 after N₂-loss. *Cummins* proposed an alternative mechanism based on detailed examination of the trianilide platform. Bulk irradiation of **3** with visible light ($\lambda > 480$ nm) at -78°C produces a 1:1 mixture of nitride 27 and parent [Mo(NtBuAr)₃] 26 (Scheme 10, bottom) [37]. Frequency resolved pump-probe spectroscopy revealed that excitation at 2.3 eV creates an excited triplet state, which relaxes through internal conversion (IC) within 300 fs. to a vibrationally excited ground state [85]. Rapid cooling of the hot ground state (sub-ps) explains the modest quantum yield $(\Phi = 0.05)$ for the two Mo–N and N–N dissociative reaction channels. Importantly, coupling of IC with structural distortions of the Mo-N-N-Mo core facilitates the entry into the higher barrier N–N cleavage channel through the singlet zigzag transition state and thereby compensates the thermal bias for Mo-N cleavage, which results in the photochemical 1:1 product mixture. Such distortions were predicted computationally for the photochemical states of linearly bridged diiron and -ruthenium μ -N₂ complexes (M = Fe, Ru) by *Reiher* et al. [86].



Scheme 10 Proposed photolysis mechanisms for *Floriani*'s dimer 30 (*top*) and *Cummins'* dimer 3 (*bottom*) [37, 84]

The necessity for **3** to distort from linearity for N–N bond cleavage indicates that ligand sterics are crucial not only for the formation of N2-bridged complexes but also for splitting into nitrides. For example, $[Mo(NAdAr)_3]$ (Ad = 1-adamantyl) does not form nitrides under N2, presumably due to the excessive steric bulk of the amide ligands [78]. However, steric shielding is required to prevent metal-metal bonding and formation, as found for $Mo_2(NR_2)_6$ (NR₂ = NMe₂, NMeEt, NEt₂), which do not react with N_2 (Scheme 11, top) [87]. These considerations were confirmed by DFT computations [88]. For the same reason, use of alkoxide ligands was unsuccessful, although rapid nitride transfer between the alkoxide and amide platforms was demonstrated (Scheme 11, mid) [89–91]. N₂-splitting with a smaller ispropylamide ligand was also reported (Scheme 11, bottom). However, in case of the *iso*-propylanilide metal-metal bond formation is suppressed by reversible methyne C–H cyclometalation [92]. Reaction of $[MoH(\eta^2-Me_2C=NAr)(NiPrAr)_2]$ (32) with N₂ gives the nitride bridged complex [{(AriPrN)₃Mo}₂(μ -N)] (33). The proposed mechanism implies a CH reductive elimination preequilibrium, N₂-splitting, and dimerization with the parent triamide. Mixing 32 and $[NMo(NiPrAr)_3]$ gives the same product.

3.2 N₂-Splitting by Group 6 and 7 Pincer Complexes

Tridentate, monoanionic, meridionally coordinating ("pincer") ligands are extensively used in small molecule activation and homogeneous catalysis [93, 94]. Bulky substituents aid in enforcing rigid square-planar, square-pyramidal, or octahedral coordination geometries and direct the reactivity to predefined sites. Four accounts on N_2 cleavage into nitrides with group 6 and 7 complexes were reported that carry pincer-type or related ligands. *Schrock* pointed out that N_2 activation with



Scheme 11 Dimerization of molybdenum triamides/trialkoxides



Scheme 12 N₂ cleavage by reduction of a chromium N₂ bridged dimer with NaH [96]

chromium is more difficult compared with molybdenum due to low lying high-spin states and the weak reduction potential of Cr^{III} -compounds [95]. In addition, DFT calculations by *Stranger* predict unfavorable thermochemistry of N₂-splitting for chromium triamides [81]. Regardless, *Budzelaar*, *Gambarotta*, and coworkers reported N₂-cleavage mediated by a well-defined chromium complex [96]. Reduction of N₂ bridged [{(NNN)Cr(THF)}₂(μ : η^1 - η^1 -N₂)] (**34**, NNN=C₅H₃N-2,6-{2,6-(ⁱ Pr₂C₆H₃)N=C(CH₃)}₂) with 2 eq. of NaH led to the protonated hydrazide species **35** (Scheme 12). The hydrogen atom of the N₂H ligand was transferred from a methyl group of the diimine ligand. Treatment with an additional equivalent NaH results in full N–N bond scission and formation of imide **36**. Ammonia could be collected in 87% yield after addition of aqueous HCl.

Schrock and coworkers reported full N₂-cleavage into terminal nitrides for the reduction of molybdenum(III) pincer complex [MoI₂(POCOP)] (**37**, POCOP= C_6H_3 -



Scheme 13 N_2 cleavage and subsequent protonation of the terminal nitride in *Schrock*'s {(POCOP)Mo} system [97]

2,6-($OP^{t}Bu_{2}$)) with Na/Hg under N₂ in the presence of crown ether 15-crown-5 (Scheme 13) [97]. The square-pyramidal, diamagnetic nitrido molybdate(IV) [Na (15-crown-5)][Mo(N)I(POCOP)] (38) was isolated. The authors proposed a mechanism via an end-on N₂-bridged dinuclear intermediate, which splits into nitrides, in analogy with *Cummins'* molybdenum trianilide system. Two reducing equivalents are overall required per {Mo(POCOP)} moiety which raises the question about the electronic configuration of the state that undergoes N-N bond scission. The authors favored cleavage on the neutral $[(POCOP)IMo(N_2)MoI(POCOP)]$ (39) stage into intermediate molybdenum(V) nitrides over splitting of [(POCOP)IMo(N₂)MoI $(POCOP)^{2-}$ (40) into the final molybdenum(IV) product. Within a simplified covalent binding model in idealized fourfold symmetry (Scheme 1), the Mo-N-N-Mo core of neutral dimer **39** exhibits a π^8 electronic configuration (in case of low spin) vs. π^{10} expected for dianionic 40. Within this simple isolobal analogy the putative dianionic π^{10} dimer 40 with Mo in square-pyramidal geometry resembles *Cummins*' π^{10} trianilide dimer **3** in threefold symmetry more closely. Alternatively, splitting of **39** implies additional charge transfer from the metal to the N₂-ligand when starting from a singlet π^8 ground state, e.g., by crossing to a π^{10} quintet en route to a molybdenum(V) nitride splitting product, which is then further reduced to final **38**. Experimental or computational information about the reaction pathway or the structures and spin-states of intermediates are not yet available. Protonation of the molybdenum(IV) nitrido complex 38 with $[Et_3NH][BAr_4^F]$ leads to formation of a hydride species in which the proton bridges the metal ion and a phosphorous ligand. Nitride protonation was not observed and with a mixture of organometallic reductants and acid only around 0.3 equivalents of ammonia were detected.

In analogy to *Schrock's* pincer system, the group of *Mézailles* reported N₂-splitting upon reduction of molybdenum trichloride [MoCl₃(PPP^{Cy})] (**41**, PPP^{Cy} = PhP (CH₂CH₂PCy₂)₂) with Na/Hg in the presence of NaI under N₂ atmosphere [98]. The terminal nitride [Mo(N)I(PPP^{Cy})] (**42**) was observed in 80% spectroscopic and 60% isolated yield (Scheme 14). The authors also proposed N₂-cleavage of dinuclear intermediate [{(PPP^{Cy})IMo}₂(μ : η^1 - η^1 -N₂)] (**43**) into the nitride **42**. Notably, such an intermediate should have a π^{10} electronic configuration resembling the *Cummins* dimer **3**. Interestingly, the molybdenum(0) complexes [{(PPP^{Cy}) (N₂)₂Mo}₂(μ : η^1 - η^1 -N₂)] (**44**) and [{(PPP^{tBu})(N₂)₂Mo}₂(μ : η^1 - η^1 -N₂)] (**45**) with weakly activated bridging N₂ were independently reported by *Nishibayashi* and *Mezailles* [99, 100]. They are excellent precatalysts for ammonia generation and N₂ silylation but do not split into nitrides. Starting from nitride **42**, *Mezailles* and



Scheme 14 2 Electron reduction of (PPP)MoCl₃ yielding the terminal nitride (PPP)Mo(N)(I) [98]

coworkers were also able to transfer the nitrogen upon metal re-reduction with silanes [98]. Heating with 1,2-bisdimethylsilyethane results in release of the free bis(silyl)amine and presumably reduction of the metal to a molybdenum(II) hydride which was trapped in the presence of PMe₃ as [{Mo^{II}(H)I(PMe₃)(PPP^{IBu})]. Full regeneration of the metal in terms of a synthetic or even catalytic cycle could not be accomplished so far.

Schneider and coworkers extended this approach beyond group 6. Reduction of the rhenium(III) PNP pincer complexes [ReCl₂(PNP)] (46, PNP = N(CH₂CH₂P^t) Bu₂)₂) or [ReCl₃(PNP)] (47) with Na/Hg under N₂ atmosphere gives the rhenium (V) nitride [Re(N)Cl(PNP)] (48) in spectroscopic yields up to 90% (Scheme 15) [101, 102]. Alternatively, milder organometallic reductants such as $CoCp_{2}^{*}$ can also be used, albeit with slightly lower yield. Intermediates were not detected, but DFT computations supported a mechanism via formation of dinuclear complex [{(PNP)ClRe}₂(μ : η^1 - η^1 -N₂)] (49). For this putative intermediate, triplet, open shell singlet (BS[1,1]), and singlet wavefunctions were found close in energy. However, they all resemble the π^{10} configuration expected for such a dimer from the simple symmetry considerations in Scheme 1, again in analogy with Cummins' molybdenum triamide and possibly with Schrock's and Mézailles' pincer systems (see above). Splitting of 49 into 48 was computed to be exergonic by $\Delta G^0 = 98$ kJ mol⁻¹ via a zigzag hydrazido transition state with a moderate kinetic barrier ($\Delta G^{\ddagger} = 84$ kJ mol⁻¹). The PNP pincer ligand also features a strongly π -donating dialkylamide group in the ligand backbone. It can overlap with the Re–N–N–Re π -manifold to promote charge transfer to N₂, which requires ligand rotation for the triamide platform where the amide ligands are orthogonal (see above). Starting from nitride 48 the group of Schneider also reported nitrogen transfer by formation of acetonitrile within a synthetic cycle, which will be discussed in Sect. 4.



Scheme 15 Proposed N₂-splitting mechanism mediated by a rhenium PNP pincer complex [101]



Scheme 16 Coupling of neutral and cationic (PNP)Ir nitrides to (µ-N₂)-complexes [103, 105]

The microscopic reverse, i.e., nitride coupling to N2, was also examined with pincer complexes, to elucidate the boundaries for the covalent N2-bonding model [103–105]. Schneider and coworkers examined the coupling of the iridium nitrides $[IrN(PNP)]^{n+}$ (n = 0 (50), 1 (51); PNP = N(CHCHPtBu₂)₂) to the three possible N₂-bridged dimers of the Ir^{I}/Ir^{II} redox series $[(PNP)IrN_2Ir(PNP)]^{n+}$ (n = 0 (52), 1 (53), 2 (54)), and structurally characterized them [105] (Scheme 16). From a simple isolobal relationship with octahedral L₅M-N-N-ML₅ complexes (Scheme 1), the square-planar geometry gives rise to π^{12} configuration for Ir^I/Ir^I dimer 52, π^{11} for mixed-valent Ir^{I}/Ir^{II} species 53 and π^{10} for dicationic Ir^{II}/Ir^{II} compound 54, which was qualitatively confirmed by DFT computations. All three coupling reactions were found to be thermodynamically downhill and all proceed via zigzag transition states in analogy to the reverse N₂-splitting. Hence, N₂-splitting of the π^{10} dimer 54 is thermodynamically unfavorable due to weak M–N multiple bonding for late transition metals such as iridium. This observation emphasizes the limitations of the covalent N_2 -bonding scheme with respect to N_2 -splitting reactivity. However, a decreasing driving force for coupling to dimers 52 ($\Delta G = -102$ kcal/mol), 53 ($\Delta G = -97$ kcal/mol), and 54 ($\Delta G = -74$ kcal/mol) was computed, respectively. This trend in fact reflects the MO picture, as for the π^{11} (53) and π^{12} (52) dimers the respective iridium(IV) nitride 50 is destabilized by population of antibonding Ir–N π^* -MO [103].

3.3 N₂-Splitting by Group 6 Cyclopentadienide Complexes

The end-on bridged dinuclear group 6 dinitrogen complexes [{Cp*M(am)}₂(μ -N₂)] (M = Mo (12), W (13); am = *i*PrNC(Me)N*i*Pr) were prepared by *Sita* and co-workers upon reduction of the respective M^{IV} dichlorides [40]. These diamagnetic



Scheme 17 N₂ cleavage in μ -nitrido and bis(μ -nitrido) complexes by *Sita*'s group [106]

complexes exhibit a π^8 M–N–N–M core with moderate activation and are thermally stable with respect to splitting into nitrides. However, irradiation with a mercury lamp results in splitting of the N-N bond to the dimeric, diamagnetic M^V nitrides $[{Cp*M(am)}_{2}(\mu-N)_{2}]$ (M = Mo (55), W (56)) and, in case of M = Mo, together with mixed valent Mo^{IV}/Mo^{III} mononitride bridged [{Cp*Mo(am)}₂(µ-N)] (57) (Scheme 17) [106]. The mechanism of this reaction is not known. However, the product distribution is reminiscent of the photolysis of Cummins' trianilide $[{(ArtBuN)_3Mo}_2(\mu-\eta^1:\eta^1-N_2)]$ 3 (see Sect. 3.1). There, relaxation of a hot ground state that arises from photoexcitation and internal conversion provides entry to competing N-N and Mo-N cleavage pathways upon coupling with vibrational distortions of the Mo–N–N–Mo core. In the present case, such a mechanism could result in the formation of [Cp*Mo(am)N] and [Cp*Mo(am)] which subsequently dimerize to a statistical mixture of the dinitride and nitride dimers. Importantly, such a mechanism implies the formation of the molybdenum(V) (d¹) nitride from the π^8 dimer. Hence, charge transfer from metal-based d-orbitals to the N2-ligand required for N–N bond splitting might be possible at least photochemically. This photochemical N₂-splitting reaction was complemented with nitride transfer within a synthetic cycle producing isocyanate with CO₂ and chlorosilane. This reaction is discussed in Sect. 4.

This work is related to the reactivity of a redox series of N₂-bridged dimolybdenum pianostool complexes supported by a ferrocenyldiphosphine ligand. The three complexes $[{Cp*Mo(depf)}_2(\mu-\eta^1-\eta^1-N_2)][BAr^F_4]_n$ (n = 0 (58), 1 (59), 2 (60); depf = 1,1'-bisdiethylphosphinoferrocene; Scheme 18) were reported by Nishibayashi and Yoshizawa [107, 108]. The solution magnetic properties of 60 (diamagnetic), **59** ($\mu_{eff} = 2.1 \ \mu_B$), and **58** ($\mu_{eff} = 3.2 \ \mu_B$) at room temperature in combination with the moderate (58: $d_{NN} = 1.182(5)$ Å) to strong (60: $d_{NN} = 1.256$ (9) Å) degrees of N₂ activation support low-spin π^8 (60), π^9 (59), π^{10} (58), configurations, respectively. This is reminiscent of the series 3-5 [{(ArtBuN)₃Mo}₂(μ - η^{1} : η^{1} - N_{2}]ⁿ⁺ (n = 0-2; see Sect. 3.1) reported by *Cummins*. In analogy, the allegedly least activated N₂ complex **58** splits into nitride [{Cp*Mo^{IV}N(depf)}₂] (**61**) upon irradiation at 400 $< \lambda < 580$ nm. TD-DFT computations point towards a transition at $\lambda_{calc} = 495$ nm with strong metal to N₂-ligand charge transfer character that might be relevant for the splitting reactivity. Importantly, oxidation of 61 with ferrocenium results in the reverse, i.e., thermal coupling to dinitrogen complex 60. This inversion of the N₂-splitting/coupling thermochemistry is in line with the electronic configurations of 58 (π^{10} : splitting) and 60 (π^8 : coupling), respectively. Interestingly,



Scheme 18 N₂ cleavage and functionalization mediated by a {Mo(depf)(Cp*)} complex [107]

oxidation of **61** in the presence of the hydrogen atom donor 1,4-cyclohexadiene results in the hydrogen atom transfer product [{ $Cp*Mo^{IV}(NH)(depf)$ }_2]⁺ (**62**) besides nitride coupling, which might give entry into nitride transfer reactivity. Moreover, protonation of **61** gives the same products, but the mechanism for this disproportionation remains unclear.

3.4 N₂-Splitting Beyond Group 7 Elements

Group 8 elements, in particular iron, are the metals used as catalysts for the *Haber-Bosch* process, which in fact proceeds via initial, turnover limiting dissociative N₂ chemisorption. However, despite intense efforts [109–113], for a long time only the reverse reaction of N₂-splitting, i.e., nitride coupling, were known for molecular iron [114–116], ruthenium [117], and osmium [118–122] complexes. Most of these dimerize as octahedral or square-planar M^V nitrides. They are destabilized due to the population of an antibonding M–N π^* -MO, which drives dimerization to the N₂-bridged complexes with π^{12} M–N–N–M cores. The same situation was shown for isolobal, square-planar group 9 M^{IV} (M = Rh, Ir) nitrides, which were examined by *Schneider* and coworkers (see Sect. 3.2). In contrast, the iron(IV) nitride [FeN (BP₃)] (BP₃⁻ = PhB(CH₂PiPr₂)₃⁻) (**63**) also undergoes coupling at room temperature, yet exhibiting an electronic closed-shell ground state. Coupling produces



Scheme 19 Photoinduced N₂ cleavage mediated by an osmium complex [123]

[{(BP₃)Fe}₂(μ - η ¹- η ¹- η ²)] (**64**) with two exchange-coupled high-spin Fe(I) ions in threefold symmetry bridged by neutral N₂. Analysis of the magnetic data favored this valence state assignment over a three-spin model constituted by two high-spin Fe(II) ions bridged by N₂²⁻ (S = 1). Hence, the metal high-spin state reduces charge transfer to the N₂ ligand resulting in only moderate activation ($d_{NN} = 1.138$ (6) Å) thereby contributing to the instability of the iron(IV) nitride.

The first report of N₂-cleavage beyond group 6 was reported by *Kunkely* and *Vogler* in 2010. Irradiation of mixed-valent $Os^{II}/Os^{III} N_2$ -complex [{(NH₃)₅Os}(μ - η ¹- η ¹- N_2)]⁵⁺ (**65**) in acidic aqueous solution was reported to yield osmium(VI) nitride [OsN(NH₃)₄]³⁺ (**66**) and [Os^{III}(NH₃)₅(H₂O)]³⁺ (**67**) (Scheme 19) [123]. The authors proposed a mechanism via photochemical N₂-splitting into Os^{VI} and transient Os^V nitrides. The latter disproportionates with subsequent hydrolysis forming ammonia with an overall yield of 16%.

Shortly after, Holland and coworkers presented the first example of N₂-splitting to a well-defined molecular iron nitride complex. Reduction of the dimeric iron(II) β -diketiminate complex [FeCl(L)]₂ (L = MeC[C(Me)N(2,6-Me₂C₆H₃)]₂) (68) with KC₈ under N₂ affords the isolation of the remarkable dinitride complex $K_2[{Fe(L)}_4(\mu-N)_2(\mu-Cl)_2]$ (69) (Scheme 20) upon full scission of the N–N bond $(d_{\rm NN} = 2.799(2)$ Å) [124]. NMR studies indicate that the complex, multinuclear structure is maintained in solution. Mössbauer spectra suggest the valence assignments as two high-spin Fe^{II} and two high-spin Fe^{III} ions, in agreement with the overall charge balance for 6-electron N₂ reduction. The cooperativity of four iron centers avoids the unfavorable formation of high-valent iron. Previous work from that group emphasizes the strong influence of subtle ligand variations. Reduction of the mononuclear β -diketiminate complex [(L')FeCl] (L' = HC[C(^tBu)N(2,6^{-t})] $Pr_2C_6H_3$]₂) (**70**) yields N₂-bridged K₂[{(L')Fe}₂(μ - η^1 - η^1 -N₂)] (**71**), which exhibits strong N₂-activation ($d_{\rm NN} = 1.23$ Å, $v_{\rm NN} = 1.589$ cm⁻¹) but does not split into nitrides [125]. This difference was attributed to ligand sterics, which prevent nitride stabilization by cluster formation in the latter case. Computational analysis for 68 suggested initial formation of a Fe–N–N–Fe core followed by side-on coordination of a third Fe(I) fragment for the smaller ligand [126]. After structural rearrangement to a side-on/side-on/end-on conformation, coordination of the fourth iron fragment leads to N–N cleavage. This study and subsequent experimental work emphasized an important influence of the alkaline cation in stabilizing the nitride cluster and enabling N₂-splitting [127, 128]. Splitting is reversible as demonstrated by addition of the strong π -acceptor CO, which results in N₂ reductive elimination



Scheme 20 N₂ cleavage and ammonia formation mediated by a dinuclear iron compound [124]



Scheme 21 N₂ cleavage by a designed trinuclear Fe complex [132]

[129]. Addition of several acids to **68** yields ammonia in up to 96% yield [130]. An impressive number of intermediates could be isolated for the protonolysis, giving insights into a potential mechanism for ammonia formation. They also illustrate the strong basicity of the system and the strong reductants that are required for stepwise reduction/protonation can be offset by proton-coupled electron transfer reactions. Removal of the supporting potassium ion in **68** by addition of 18-crown-6 reveals a very basic nitrogen moiety, which ends up in intramolecular C–H activation of a benzylic CH₃ group of the ancillary ligand to form N–H bonds [131]. Strong nucleophilicity of the unmasked nitride is also displayed by C–N bond formation with methyl tosylate resulting in a bridging imide/nitride.

Murray and coworkers used a multimetallic, cooperative approach to split N_2 upon reduction of a triiron(II) complex **72** with KC₈ (Scheme 21) [132]. The three Fe ions in the main product **73** were found to bridge through three NH_x functions. Mössbauer spectra show the presence of localized triiron(II/II/III) at low temperatures. The presence of three nitrogen atoms per cluster suggests intra- and intermolecular cooperativity. The origin of the hydrogen atoms in the bridging NH_x moieties could not be determined so far. Reaction in silylated glassware, deuterium labeling experiments, and addition of compounds with weak C–H bonds (9,10-dihydroanthracene) did not give a satisfactory explanation. Addition of HCl to this compound yields about 30% ammonia, indicating that only one of three nitrogen units can be liberated in this way.

4 Nitride Functionalization Following N₂-Splitting

The reactivity of transition metal nitrides, as depending on the metal type and oxidation state, was extensively examined and summarized in several comprehensive review articles [11, 133, 134]. Nitride ligands mostly exhibit nucleophilic reactivity except for some examples of high-valent late transition metal nitride complexes (Ru, Os, Ir). Accordingly, the reactivity of nitrides that originated from N₂-splitting with electrophiles was examined. Several groups reported the generation of ammonia upon protonolysis of well-defined N₂-derived nitride complexes. Concerning group 6-8 metals the reports by the groups of *Budzelaar* (Cr) [96], Nishibayashi (Mo) [107], Vogler (Os) [123], Holland (Fe) [113, 124], and Murray (Fe) [132] were already presented in the preceding section. Besides these, further examples from Chirik (Ti) [63], Hou (Ti) [135], Gambarotta (Ti and V) [136, 137], Kawaguchi (Nb) [138], and Mindiola (Nb) [139] using early transition metals are also known. However, the generation of ammonia is not in the main focus of this review. Instead, in this section the transfer of nitrogen from N2 by N-C bond formation via initial N₂-splitting will be discussed. When considering possible target molecules for the synthesis of organics with N₂ as nitrogen source it is instructive to assess the thermochemistry of hypothetical reactions. *Caulton* and coworkers discussed several reactions where N₂ is incorporated into organic molecules with retention of one or two N-N bonds (selected reactions in Scheme 22) [140]. With high energy starting materials like acetylenes and N-heterocycles as synthetic targets, particularly when stabilized by aromaticity, several

Scheme 22 Computed reaction enthalpies ΔH_r for N₂ functionalization from *Caulton* and coworkers [140] (numbers marked with * are experimental values for gas phase reactions retrieved from Ref. [142])

thermodynamically accessible reactions were pointed out. In addition, formation of strong C=N (e.g., heterocummulenes) or C≡N (nitriles) bonds can offset the high energy demand for complete N₂ cleavage [141]. For example the C≡N bond dissociation energy ($D^0(HC\equiv N) = 937 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$) is close to that of N₂ providing a driving force for catalytic transformations of N₂ to nitriles. Unfavorable reactions can be turned exothermic by simultaneous hydrogenation. Besides, H₂ can serve as attractive mild reductant for nitrogen.

4.1 Formation of Heterocummulenes

The group of *Kawaguchi* demonstrated N_2 cleavage upon reaction of a Nb(V) dichloride with a chelating triphenoxide ligand with LiHBEt₃ (6 eq.) [143]. Subsequent work with a related triphenoxy ligand gave further insights into the mechanism (Scheme 23). The $(\mu$ -H)₄-bridged dimer $K_2[(L^{OPh3}Nb^{IV})_2(\mu$ -H)₄] (74) directly reacts with N₂ upon H₂ elimination and N–N bond cleavage to the bis(μ -nitrido) complex K₂[(L^{OPh3}Nb)₂(μ -N)₂] (**75**; L^{OPh3} = HC-o-(C₆H₂O-4,6-tBu₂)₃) [138]. Within a series of stoichiometric reactions, this compound could be transformed to a mononuclear ureate complex via nitride alkylation, dimer cleavage with pyridine and oxo/imido-metathesis with CO₂ [144]. Importantly, the immediate product from N_2 -splitting does not react with CO_2 , presumably because of low nucleophilicity of the bridging nitride and steric bulk. Ureate formation from the imide intermediate is proposed to proceed via initial [2 + 2] addition of CO₂ and subsequent extrusion of methyl isocyanate. Besides the dimeric oxo complex, the ureate would then result from MeNCO addition to another parent imido complex. However, reaction intermediates or free MeNCO could not be detected. Liberation of free heterocummulenes like isocyanate or carbodiimide or of dimethylurea was not reported.

The same group later established a full synthetic cycle for isocyanate from N₂ formation with a related system. Reduction of vanadium complex [(ONO)V^{III} (THF)] (ONO = 2,6-(3-'Bu-5-Me-2-OC₆H₂CH₂)-4-'Bu-(p-tolyl)NC₆H₄) (**76**) with KH (2 equiv) under N₂ atmosphere gives the nitride bridged [{K(DME)}₂{(ONO)V^{IV}(µ-N)}]₂ (**77**) in 61% yield (Scheme 24) [145]. Oxidation with benzoquinone affords the terminal vanadium(V) nitride K[(ONO)V^VN] (**78**). Regeneration of the V^{IV} nitride dimer with KH was not successful, suggesting that the V^V nitride is not an intermediate in N₂-splitting. Nitrogen atom transfer to CO or isonitriles was accomplished, generating the respective vanadium(III) isocyanate (**79**) and carbodiimide (**80**) complexes. After C–N bond formation free potassium isocyanate precipitates in toluene upon trapping the alkyne complex [(ONO)V(η²-MeCCMe)] (**81**) with dimethylacetylene. From there, parent **76** could be regenerated by dissolving **81** in THF.

A full synthetic cycle to isocyanates from N₂ could also be established by *Sita* and coworkers [106]. Earlier work of this group demonstrated thermal N₂-splitting for the N₂-bridged group 5 complexes [{Cp*(am)M}₂(μ : η^1 - η^1 -N₂)] (M = Nb (10),



Scheme 23 N₂-splitting by a Nb hydrido complex and functionalization of the resulting bis $(\mu$ -nitrido) [138, 144]

Ta (11); Scheme 25, top), which exhibit strong N₂ activation in the ground state (see Sect. 2.2) [39, 41]. Functionalization of the tantalum nitride was achieved by N–Si bond formation with silanes [39], reminiscent of work by the group of *Mézailles* (c.f. Sect. 3.2). This approach could be transferred to the analogous group 6 system. Photolysis of [{Cp*(am)M}₂(μ : η^1 - η^1 -N₂)] (M = Mo (12), W (13)) yields nitride-bridged dinuclear complexes 55 and 56 (c.f. Sect. 3.3) [40]. Addition of R₃ECl (R₃E = Me₃Si, Ph₃Si, Me₃Ge, Me₃C) to the bis(μ -nitrido) complexes 55 and 56 produces a 1:1 mixture of the mononuclear nitride [Cp*M(am)M(N)Cl] and the imide [Cp*M(am)(N-ER₃)] (82). A radical mechanism was proposed. In contrast, irradiation of 12 or 13 in the presence of Me₃SiCl gives the imide complex 82 and dichloride [Cp*M(am)Cl₂] (83) in 2:1 ratio (Scheme 25, bottom). Reaction of the imide with CO affords free silylisocyanate in up to 64% yield and the bis(carbonyl) complex [Cp*M(am)(CO)₂] [106, 146]. To close the synthetic cycle, the latter complexes could be converted to the respective dichlorides 83 either by reaction



Scheme 24 Synthetic cycle for N_2 to isocyanate conversion promoted by vanadium complexes [145]



Scheme 25 N_2 -splitting and functionalization mediated by group 5 complexes (*top*, [39]) and a synthetic cycle for N_2 to isocyanate conversion by group 6 metal complexes (*bottom*, [146])

with CO_2 and subsequent treatment of the resulting oxo complex with Me_3SiCl or directly by reaction of the silylimide under CO_2 (1.4–4.8 bar) in the presence of Me_3SiCl (Scheme 25). On this route, free isocyanate could be generated from N_2 in a pseudo-catalytic, four step one-pot synthesis with up to 82% recovered catalyst per cycle.

Attempts to get isocyanates from the reaction of CO with *Cummins'* molybdenum(VI) nitride [MoN(NtBuAr)₃], which results from N₂-splitting failed [147]. While DFT computations predicted that this reaction should be thermodynamically possible, a large kinetic barrier presumably arises from the lack of a carbonyl complex intermediate that can rearrange to an isocyanate. In comparison, this pathway was computationally proposed for a related vanadium(V) nitride, which forms isocyanates with CO, but which is not derived from N₂ [147–149].

4.2 Formation of Nitriles

Nitriles represent another synthetic target that was addressed by several groups using molybdenum (Cummins), rhenium (Schneider), and titanium (Hou) platforms. Seminal work in this area was reported by Cummins and coworkers starting from the trisanilide molybdenum(VI) nitrides that arise from N₂-splitting (c.f. Sect. 3.1). $[Mo(N)(NtBuAr)_3]$ (27) exhibits only weak nucleophilicity but can be activated with strong Lewis acids, including alkylation, silylation, and acylation with MeOTf, Me₃SiOTf, or in situ prepared PhC(O)OTf, respectively [150]. The methylimido complex 84 can be deprotonated (Scheme 26). The resulting ketimide 85, with approximately linear $Mo=N=CH_2$ unit, is a C-nucleophile giving the ethylimide $[Mo(NEt)(NtBuAr)_3]^+$ 86 with MeI. Interestingly, the ethylimide could not be obtained by direct ethylation of the nitride with EtOTf, EtI, or $[Et_3O]BF_4$, respectively [150]. As an extension of this work, *Cummins* later reported the formation of a cyanide complex from nitride 27 (Scheme 26). With a mixture of MeOCH₂Cl and ${}^{\prime}Pr_{3}SiOTf$ a methoxymethylimide complex 87 was obtained and deprotonation leads to the respective alkoxyketimide [Mo(NCHOMe)(NtBuAr)] (88) [151]. Release of free prussic acid with Lewis acid was not successful, but a mixture of Lewis acid/Brønsted base (SnCl₂/Me₃SiNMe₂) gave the molybdenum (IV) cyanide complex [Mo(CN)(NtBuAr)₃] (89). While this approach of



Scheme 26 Functionalization of N₂-derived terminal nitrido complex 27 with electrophiles

 N_2 -functionalization via splitting, alkylation, and ligand oxidation processes did not lead to pseudo-catalytic synthetic cycles or even catalysis with this system yet, it is conceptually relevant concerning the redox-balance. It demonstrates that metal re-reduction, in this case Mo^{VI} to Mo^{IV}, can at least in part be accomplished without external reducing equivalents, but through a charge transfer from the ligand to metal that is coupled with imide deprotonation. In fact, deprotonation of alkylimides to ketimides and even double deprotonation to nitriles – a formal transfer of four electrons to the metal – were well known but previously not applied to N₂ functionalization [152, 153]. This approach was later also picked up by *Schneider* and coworkers to establish a full synthetic cycle for nitrile generation from N₂ (see below).

De Vries and coworkers were the first ones to transfer the N₂-derived nitride from *Cummins'* system to an organic compound. Reaction of **27** with trifluoroacetic anhydride in DMF results in release of free amide CF₃C(O)NH₂ in high yield with respect to nitrogen [154]. However, the molybdenum trisanilide platform is degraded and, in fact, the *tert*-butylamide groups serve as proton source, preventing catalytic turnover. An elegant route for full nitrogen transfer starting from **27** was provided by *Cummins* in 2006 [155]. Acylation with RC(O)Cl/SiMe₃OTf (R = Ph, ^{*t*} Bu, Me) gives the respective acylimide complexes **90** (Scheme 27). These can be reduced with Mg/anthracene in the presence of Me₃SiCl to a trimethylsiloxyketimide **91**. Salt metathesis with Lewis acids like SnCl₂ or ZnCl₂ results in fragmentation to the free organonitrile and molybdenum(IV) chloride [MoCl (N*t*BuAr)₃] (**92**). Further reduction restores the parent Mo^{III} triamide. In this synthetic cycle, nitriles were produced in up to 38% yield over all steps. Each molybdenum center is oxidized by 3 electrons upon N₂ cleavage and re-reduction is a purely metal centered process.

This system was later extended to heterobimetallic (Mo/Nb) N₂-cleavage and -functionalization. N₂-bridged (π^9 -electron) complex [(Ar'BuN)₃Mo(μ - η^1 - η^1 -N₂) Nb(N^{*i*}PrAr)₃] (**93**) splits into Mo^{VI} nitride **27** and Nb^V nitride [NbN(N^{*i*}PrAr)₃]⁻





Scheme 28 Synthetic cycle for N_2 to organonitrile conversion mediated by a heterobimetallic Nb/Mo system [156, 157]

(94) upon reduction (Scheme 28) [156]. This nitrido niobate is more reactive than the isoelectronic Mo complex. With acyl chlorides, unusual oxo/nitride metathesis is observed directly producing the free nitrile and the Nb^V oxo complex (95) [157]. Closing of the cycle with respect to niobium was accomplished by addition of trifluoromethanesulfonic anhydride, reduction with CoCp₂ and metathesis of the Nb ^{IV} triflate 96 with $[(N_2)Mo(N'BuAr)_3]^-$ 28. Ligand modification allowed for trapping of an Nb^V acylimido complex, which converts into the oxo-complex upon heating. A variety of nitriles can be synthesized in high yield, providing the opportunity of selective, atom-efficient ¹⁵N-labelling employing ¹⁵N₂. However, while this synthetic cycle is pseudo-catalytic in Nb it is still stoichiometric in Mo.

Related work was reported by Hou and coworkers with a titanium cyclopentadienide platform, which even enabled the use of H₂ as reductant for N₂-cleavage. (Scheme 29) [135, 158]. Hydrogenolysis of the titanium(IV) alkyl complex [Cp⁻Ti $(CH_2SiMe_3)_3$ ($Cp' = C_5Me_4SiMe_3$) (97) with dihydrogen (4 atm) affords a mixture of the partially reduced, mixed-valent, trinuclear polyhydride $[(Cp^Ti)_3(\mu_3-H)(\mu_2-H)]$ H_{6} (98: 69%) and [(Cp^TTi)₄(µ-H)₈] (10%, not shown in Scheme 29). [(Cp^T $M_{4}(\mu-H)_{8}$] is the main product in case of homologous Zr and Hf [159]. However, only 98 reacts with N_2 (1 atm) upon partial H_2 elimination and formation of [(Cp' $Ti_{3}(\mu_{2}-NH)(\mu_{3}-N)(\mu_{2}-H)_{2}$] (99) with full N₂-cleavage and retention of the formal metal oxidation states $\{Ti^{III}_{2}/Ti^{IV}\}$. The side-on end-on N₂-bridged complex [(Cp²) Ti)₃(μ - η^1 : η^2 : η^2 -N₂)(μ -H)₃] was spectroscopically identified as an intermediate at -30° C. Above -10° C, N₂-splitting is observed to the bis- μ -nitride [(Cp Ti)₃(μ ₃-N) $(\mu_2-N)(\mu_2-H)_3$], which isometrizes to the final product at 20°C. Further N₂-incorporation was observed upon prolonged heating as solid at 180°C. Importantly, direct reaction of [Cp'Ti(CH₂SiMe₃)₃] under H₂ (4 atm) and N₂ (1 atm) at 60° C gives the bisimide complex [(Cp'Ti)₃(μ_3 -NH)₂(μ_2 -H)₄] (100) in 90% yield. Heating of the latter under N₂ (180°C, neat) also results in more N₂-incorportation to the diimide dinitride complex $[(Cp'Ti)_4(\mu^3-NH)_2(\mu^3-N)_2]$ (101) in about 95%



Scheme 29 N₂ functionalization via polynuclear titanium hydrides [135, 160]

yield (Scheme 29) [160]. This complex directly forms a variety of organic nitriles in good yields (60–85%) with acyl chlorides (60°C, 12 h) allowing for nitrogen transfer from N₂ into organic substrates in two simple reaction steps. The μ -oxo complex [(Cp/TiCl₂)₂(μ -O)] and several unidentified paramagnetic titanium species also result, which can be recovered as [Cp/TiCl₃] (**102**) in 83% yield upon addition of ethereal HCl to the crude mixture. This enabled a full synthetic cycle by salt metathesis with lithium neosyl. Most importantly, this system does not require strong reductants like alkali metals.

Schneider and coworkers also reported the formation of acetonitrile with N₂ as nitrogen source within a synthetic cycle based on their rhenium pincer platform (Scheme 30). The nitride [Re(N)Cl(PNP)] (**48**, PNP = N(CH₂CH₂PtBu₂)₂), which results from N₂-splitting (c.f. Sect. 3.2), does not react with H₂ (3 bar) in contrast with the related square-planar group 8 compounds [M(N)(PNP)] (M = Ru, Os) that form ammonia in high yield [161, 162]. This lack of reactivity was attributed to the strong *trans*-effect of the nitride ligand, which prevents H₂ heterolysis in *trans*-position. However, **48** can be N-alkylated by strong electrophiles, such as alkyltriflates ROTf (R = Me, Et) to the respective imido complexes [Re(NR)Cl (PNP)]⁺ [102]. In contrast, with Brønsted acids protonation at the amide instead of the nitride nitrogen is observed. The different selectivity follows the computed thermochemical preference for reaction with protons and *C*-nucleophiles, respectively. *Caulton* and coworkers reported similar findings for a ruthenium(IV) nitride that was obtained with azide as nitrogen source [163]. Deprotonation of ethylimide [Re(NEt)Cl(PNP)]⁺ (**103**) gives the respective ketimide [Re(N=CHMe)Cl(PNP)]



Scheme 30 Synthetic cycle for N₂ to acetonitrile conversion mediated by rhenium PNP pincer complex (DBU = 1,8-Diazabicyclo[5.4.0]undec-7-en, NCS = N-chlorosuccinimide). The *dashed* box describes the most efficient cycle [102]

(104) in near quantitative yield. The Re–N (1.822(4) Å) and C=N (1.273(7) Å) bond distances and near linearity indicate strong 1-azavinylidene Re=N=C heterocummulene character, also explaining the observation of two stereoisomers of **104**. The formation of **104** directly from the nitride can also be carried out in a two-step, one-pot synthesis. Previous work on other group 6 and group 7 alkylimides that were not derived from N₂ suggests the formation of nitriles $(M \leftarrow N \equiv CR)$ upon double deprotonation of primary alkylimides $(M=N-CH_2R)$ via ketimido (M–N=CHR) intermediates [152, 153]. Both deprotonation steps also represent formal 2-electron reductions of the metal. Hence, this route implies intramolecular proton coupled metal reduction, instead of the use of external reductants used in the protocols of *Cummins* (Mg/anthracene) and *Hou* (H₂), respectively. Deprotonation of 104 was possible upon trapping of the resulting rhenium(I) species with strong π -acceptor ligands, like isonitriles, with concomitant free acetonitrile release in near quantitative yield. Alternatively, external oxidants can be used to avoid the need for additional π -accepting ligands. Net $2e^{-}/H^{+}$ removal by stepwise, one-pot oxidation with Ag⁺ and subsequent hydrogen atom abstraction with tri-tert-butylphenoxy radical gave the vinylimide [Re(NCHCH₂)Cl (PNP)]⁺ (105) in high yield. The preference of the Re^V vinylimido vs. the Re^{III}



Scheme 31 Schematic pathways of nitrile synthesis after functionalization of N_2 -derived nitrides: Nitride acylation (a) and alkylation (b, c) [102]

nitrile complex tautomer emphasizes the electron rich nature of the {Re(PNP)}platform. However, release of free acetonitrile from **105** is possible by adding a chloride source with catalytic amounts of base (DBU) for tautomerization, albeit in moderate yields. The most efficient route for acetonitrile release from ketimide **104** was obtained using N-chlorosuccinimide (NCS) as combined oxidant, chloride source and base, giving free MeCN and rhenium(IV) chloride [ReCl₃(PNP)] **47** in over 90% yield. Versatile reduction of **47** closes a full synthetic cycle.

In comparing the synthetic strategies of the three nitrile protocols discussed above it is instructive to assess the overall redox economy. Both *Cummins* (Mo, Mo/Nb) and *Hou* (Ti) used organic acyl electrophiles for C–N bond formation. Hence, a full cycle comprising N₂-splitting and N-transfer further requires three electrons per *N*-atom for re-reduction of the metal (Scheme 31a). This can be accomplished with external chemical reductants, like electropositive metals (*Cummins*) or H₂ (*Hou*). In contrast, the strategy evaluated by *Schneider* and coworkers relies on intramolecular proton-coupled ligand-to-metal charge transfer. Each deprotonation step is associated with formal 2-electron reduction of the metal. Odd electron N₂ reduction (3e⁻ per N-atom) requires additional reductive or oxidative redox steps for (pseudo)catalytic turnover (Scheme 31b and c).

5 Conclusions

In this tutorial review, the electronic structures of the most common end-on and side-on bridging N_2 -complexes and the parameters that determine splitting into nitrides were discussed. Some general trends such as increasing N_2 -activation of the

heavier metal homologues due to better orbital overlap are apparent. Importantly, dinuclear N₂-complexes with π^{10} (end-on) and $\pi^8 \delta^2$ (side-on) electrons within the M₂N₂ core, respectively, were pointed out as preferred electronic configurations for splitting into nitrides. Several other parameters, such as π -donating auxiliar ligands, steric influences, high/low-spin transitions, and decreasing M \equiv N bond strengths along the transition series complicate this simplified picture. However, it provides a good starting point in future efforts to design catalyst platforms that functionalize N₂ via splitting into nitrides. For nitride functionalization that follows N₂-splitting, several synthetic targets were pointed out that could offset cleavage of the strong N₂ bond, such as nitriles, heterocycles, or heterocummulenes. Catalytic protocols that proceed through N₂-splitting are yet to be developed. However, several stoichiometric and pseudo-catalytic variants offer possible solutions to combine C–N bond formation and 6-electron redox reactivity and open up a path towards catalytic N₂ functionalization beyond ammonia in the future.

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