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# Perspectives on atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> fixation in inorganic and biomimetic structures



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#### ABSTRACT

In this review, we examine the fixation of atmospheric carbon dioxide, primarily in inorganic and biomimetic structures, the latter of which can be seen to be inspired by Nature. We discuss coordination modes in polynuclear metal–CO<sub>2</sub> complexes, CO<sub>2</sub> fixation by metallic complexes (poly–nuclear), and fixation by assembly formation. While a number of enzymes exist for the purpose of fixing CO<sub>2</sub>, we consider the broad processes exhibited by the enzymes carbonic anhydrase, urease and, more specifically, Rubisco, as well as the inspiration it provides in attempting to develop synthetic derivatives. Recently, *ab initio* and classical molecular simulation methods have been applied to the modelling of CO<sub>2</sub> fixation in Rubisco, and especially in inorganic and biomimetic compounds, which together yield useful insights which could prove useful in the development of next generation CO<sub>2</sub> fixation catalysts.

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#### 1. Introduction

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http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.ccr.2014.02.015 0010-8545/© 2014 Elsevier B.V. All rights reserved. Anthropogenic CO<sub>2</sub> is often seen as a pollutant, strongly associated with climate change and linked with humanity's overdependency on fossil fuels. Indeed, the atmospheric concentration of CO<sub>2</sub> has risen from around 280 ppm prior to the industrial age to a current level of around 400 ppm [1,2]. Despite this, it is still envisioned that by 2030 carbon-rich fossil fuels will still provide at least 80% of the world's energy generation. This, combined, with the expected growth of emerging economies, suggests an increase in CO<sub>2</sub> emissions by 50–100% during the same period, excluding radical changes in current energy generation and usage or a 'paradigm shift' in renewable energy technologies and economics [3].

In the following review, we try to draw together Nature's mechanisms for both concentrating (the short-term raising of effective CO<sub>2</sub> levels within an organism) and fixing (longer-term incorporation into organic molecules) of atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> with man's attempts at biomimetic or synthetic analogues, particularly through the use of metallic complexes. We strongly believe that, like Nature, technologies for concentrating and fixing CO<sub>2</sub> need to be developed, or considered, in tandem in order to move from CO<sub>2</sub> as a pollutant to CO<sub>2</sub> as a resource, *i.e.* a feedstock for the production of valuable products.

In Section 1, we present the backdrop to this work, namely, the limitations associated with only considering CO<sub>2</sub> capture/concentration as an end in itself and the limited sinks available for captured  $CO_2$ . In Section 2, a review is made of the means employed by Nature for CO2 concentration and fixation by focusing on examples of important enzymes involved in the process, in particular carbonic anhydrase and urea amidohydrolase (CO<sub>2</sub> concentration) and ribulose-1,5-bisphosphate (RuBP) carboxylase/oxygenase, or Rubisco (CO<sub>2</sub> fixation). Following on from this, Section 3 looks at many of the bio-inspired, biomimetic analogues that have been studied to date. These synthetically derived catalysts are bio-inspired, at least, in the sense that they have sought to provide a stable framework for a metal centre (or metal centres) to act upon CO<sub>2</sub>. In Section 4, we present work that has been conducted in the modelling of the mechanisms of CO<sub>2</sub> conversion, in nature and using synthetic analogues, employing molecular simulation tools. The purpose of this section is to unite the themes of natural and synthetic through the prism of detailed computational investigations with the hope of providing further insight into the development of better catalysts. Finally, results are drawn together for a conclusion in Section 5.

#### 1.1. CO<sub>2</sub> utilisation

As summarised by Mikkelson et al. [4], there are three main ways in which to reduce the amount of  $CO_2$  in the atmosphere. These are: (1) improved efficiency in energy generation and usage and embracing alternative energy sources, (2) capture and storage of CO<sub>2</sub> and, finally, (3) utilisation of CO<sub>2</sub> as a chemical feedstock. It is the latter of these (CO<sub>2</sub> utilisation) that forms the impetus for the work summarised here. Changing the focus from CO<sub>2</sub> as pollutant to CO<sub>2</sub> as feedstock, necessarily implies a change of perspective. Firstly, this offers a more sustainable ultimate outcome; secondly, it can lead to the development of new chemicals, materials (including polymers), as well as low-molecular weight fuels (with a source of cheap hydrogen); thirdly, it could lead to the replacement of other, more dangerous chemicals (e.g., phosgene or isocyanates) and, finally, foster the realisation that CO<sub>2</sub> is a valuable commodity. Typically, utilisation of CO<sub>2</sub> can be categorised as:

- (i) Technological use (*i.e.*, CO<sub>2</sub> is not converted into other species): the properties of CO<sub>2</sub> that make this gas particularly useful for many applications are inertness, acid character, relatively low critical temperature and pressure and high density. Moreover, the CO<sub>2</sub> is non-conducting, a good solvent in dense phase, bacteriostatic, and constitutes a fungicide and pesticide leaving no residues. Technological applications include food processing, carbonated beverages, metal fabrication, agriculture, etc.
- (ii) Biological use (CO<sub>2</sub> is fixed in terrestrial or aquatic biomass).
- (iii) Chemical use (CO<sub>2</sub> is converted into chemical feedstocks): currently, use of CO<sub>2</sub> as a chemical feedstock is limited with output by far exceeding this. In addition, some of the largest uses

for CO<sub>2</sub> are associated with short-life sinks including carbonated drinks, fire extinguishers and in cooling applications. Also, when considering the use of  $CO_2$  as a feedstock, care must be taken to assess the overall net CO<sub>2</sub> avoided in production processes. This latter point is significant when one considers the not-insignificant costs associated with CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration.

Presently, the main industrial uses for  $CO_2$  are shown in Table 1. Taking into consideration that anthropogenic emissions of CO<sub>2</sub> account for over 24 Gt of CO<sub>2</sub> per annum, the current chemical feedstock quantities associated with this table represent only 0.5% of this today [5]. Special mention should be given, at this point, to supercritical CO<sub>2</sub> as an environmentally benign or green, solvent, while at the same time being relatively non-toxic, naturally abundant, and is non-flammable. This has been mooted as a sustainable, long-term substitute for various organic solvents in a number of processes [6]. Nonetheless, as can be appreciated, there is significant scope for more widespread utilisation thereof.

Taking into consideration the aforementioned table, it becomes clear that the widespread utilisation of CO<sub>2</sub> is, in the main, directly linked with both the provision of low-cost capture technologies [7], as well as the development of viable chemical pathways for its use as feedstock [8–10].

#### 1.2. CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration

In relation to the capturing and storing (sequestering) of CO<sub>2</sub>, there have been a number of developments on both a (near-) geological scale and also in, for instance, flue-gas exhaust and other sources from industry (so-called Carbon Capture and Storage, CCS). The motivation has chiefly been in the mitigation of CO<sub>2</sub> emissions to control, or limit, putative global warming. In terms of geologically inspired approaches, the injection of (supercritical)  $CO_2$  into porous rock deposits (either sub-ocean or subterranean) is a prime example; however, there have been concerns raised about the energy efficiency of such approaches, sustainability from a lifecycle perspective, long term stability and also even the possibility of increasing the likelihood of seismic activity [11,12]. Also, the prospect of CO<sub>2</sub> storage in clathrate hydrates has received increasing attention in recent years, and, indeed, the concept of displacing methane by CO<sub>2</sub> in methane hydrate deposits in the ocean depths or the permafrost has been proposed (although this is technically and operationally very demanding) [13]. One of the key challenges with regard to the displacement of methane from hydrate deposits (whether with or without replacement by  $CO_2$ ) is the danger of releasing sizeable amounts of methane into the atmosphere, which would be expected to have a severely deleterious effect, given that methane has a global-warming potential approximately 25 times worse than CO<sub>2</sub>; this may result in a *de facto* 'runaway greenhouse effect' with widespread melting of hydrate deposits as ocean and permafrost temperatures rise [14-16], on the perhaps questionable assumption that global-warming and atmospheric greenhouse-gas content act in tandem in a classic, straightforward 'feedback loop'.

The removal of CO<sub>2</sub> from industrial emissions is growing in importance [17]. Traditional approaches include absorption (both physical and chemical), adsorption, cryogenic techniques and membranes [18]. However, when applied to power generation, capturing (typically) 90% of otherwise emitted CO<sub>2</sub>, current technologies add 44-87% to the capital cost of a reference plant and 42-81% to the cost of electricity. Put another way, plants with CO<sub>2</sub> capture require 24-42% more fuel per MWh relative to a similarly sized plant without capture. It is estimated tentatively that roughly half of this additional energy is required for solvent regeneration and around one third for compression of  $CO_2$  [18].

Recently, North and co-workers have built on their earlier work with cyclic carbonates [19] to devise bimetallic aluminium-based Download English Version:

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