Inorganic Chemistry

Direct Involvement of the Acetato Ligand in the Reductive Elimination Step of Rhodium-Catalyzed Methanol Carbonylation

Nicolas Lassauque,[†] Thomas Davin,[‡] Duc Hanh Nguyen,[†] Romain J. Adcock,[†] Yannick Coppel,[†] Carole Le Berre,[†] Philippe Serp,[†] Laurent Maron,^{*,‡} and Philippe Kalck^{*,†}

[†]Laboratoire de Chimie de Coordination (LCC), UPR CNRS 8241, ENSIACET, Université de Toulouse, UPS-INP-LCC, 4 allée Emile Monso, BP 44362, 31030 Toulouse Cedex 4, France

[‡]LPCNO, UMR 5215, Université de Toulouse, INSA-UPS-CNRS, 135 avenue de Rangueil, F-31077 Toulouse, France

Supporting Information

ABSTRACT: For the last step of rhodium-catalyzed methanol carbonylation, high-pressure NMR, and kinetic and experimental data supported by density functional theory calculations are consistent with substitution of I⁻ by an AcO⁻ ligand on the $[RhI_3(COCH_3)(CO)_2]^-$ species followed by reductive elimination of acetic anhydride, which immediately reacts with water to afford acetic acid.

A pproximately 80% of the 9 million tons of worldwide production of acetic acid (AcOH) is manufactured by rhodium- or iridium-catalyzed carbonylation of methanol. This reaction represents a major industrial application of homogeneous catalysis. The historical rhodium-catalyzed Monsanto process developed in the early 1970s involves the anionic active species *cis*- $[RhI_2(CO)_2]^-$ (1a). This process requires more than 14 wt % water in the reactor to maintain a high catalyst activity with acceptable stability of this rhodium(I) complex.¹ Because of the high reactor water content, a significant operating cost is required to separate AcOH from water by distillation. Therefore, many research efforts have been directed toward the design of an active and stable catalytic system able to operate at lower water content. Currently, two industrial processes are operating close to 5 wt % water content. The Cativa process developed by British Petroleum Chemicals involves the more stable anionic species $[IrI_2(CO)_2]^-$ with a ruthenium cocatalyst to maintain high carbonylation rates.¹ A rhodium-catalyzed process developed by Hoechst Celanese uses LiI, as a copromoter and stabilizer. LiI enhances the activity of the catalytic system and precludes the formation of insoluble inactive RhI₃.^{1a} Some authors suggested that the use of this salt allows for the formation of a hypothetical pentacoordinated rhodium(I) dianionic species $[\hat{RhI}_3(CO)_2]^{2-}$, which is more nucleophilic for the oxidative addition of methyl iodide.^{1a} Furthermore, the presence of significant amounts of acetate ions (ca. 0.3 M), due to the equilibrium of eq 1, could result in the formation of $[RhI_2(OAc)(CO)_2]^{2-.1a}$

 $LiI + CH_3OAc \rightleftharpoons CH_3I + LiOAc$ (1)

In rhodium-catalyzed carbonylation, the amount of water impacts the nature of the rate-determining step (rds). At high water content, typically >14 wt %, the rds is the oxidative addition of CH_3I to 1a, producing *cis*-[RhI₃(CH₃)(CO)₂]⁻ (2a), which evolves rapidly toward the acetyl species

 $[{\rm RhI}_3({\rm COCH}_3)({\rm CO})]^-$ (3) by CO migratory insertion and then by coordination of external CO to form $[{\rm RhI}_3({\rm COCH}_3)-({\rm CO})_2]^-$ (4).² In the absence of a CO atmosphere, complex 3 dimerizes into $[{\rm Rh}_2(\mu\text{-I})_2{\rm I}_4({\rm COCH}_3)_2({\rm CO})_2]^{2-}$ (3').^{2b} Some years ago, Jones proposed that the reductive elimination (RE) could be the rds if the water content is below 8 wt %.³ The mechanism for the RE has not been explored in detail, unlike the other proposed steps in the catalytic cycle.⁴ The elimination of acetyl iodide from 4 followed by its immediate hydrolysis to AcOH is largely accepted as the final step of the catalytic cycle (Scheme 1, path I).^{1,2} However, an alternative proposed

Scheme 1. Different Proposed Pathways for Reductive Elimination



mechanism involves the direct solvolysis of 4 by water (path II).^{2a} The CH₃COI RE has also been proposed for the anhydrous carbonylation of methyl acetate to acetic anhydride (Eastman process) and carbonylation of a MeOH/MeOAc mixture to AcOH/Ac₂O at low water content (BP Chemicals process). Both involve [RhI₂(CO)₂]⁻ and iodide salts and lead to the formation of Ac₂O from the reaction of CH₃COI with OAc⁻ (similar to path I).⁵

Received: July 22, 2011 Published: November 28, 2011 In this Communication, we report experimental and theoretical evidence that supports a new alternative mechanism for this final step, which involves (i) substitution of an iodo ligand from 4 by an acetato ligand followed by (ii) reductive elimination of acetic anhydride, which immediately hydrolyzes to afford two molecules of AcOH (path IV).

First, complexes 1a, 3', and *mer,trans*- $[RhI_3(COCH_3)(CO)_2]^-$ (4a) have been prepared with bis(triphenylphosphoranylidene)ammonium (PPN⁺) as the countercation and fully characterized by infrared and NMR spectroscopies and mass spectrometry (see SI.1 in the Supporting Information, SI). The effect of the water concentration on the rhodium reactivity has been studied by high-pressure NMR, giving direct information on the nature of the rds, the carbonylation reaction operating at 363 K and 15 bar ¹³CO initial pressure.

The ¹³C{¹H} NMR spectra were recorded for ¹³CO-labeled 1a in a CD₃COOD/MeOAc/CH₃I solution at three water concentrations (SI.2 5, 10, and 20 wt %). At 20 wt %, water, the main detected rhodium species is $1a^6$ ($\delta_{CO} = 182.8$ ppm and ${}^{1}J_{CO-Rh}$ = 69.5 Hz), which is consistent with the rds being the oxidative addition of MeI. When the water content is decreased to 10 wt %, new signals appear which are assigned to the acetyl species 4a (δ_{CO} = 177.8 ppm and ${}^{1}J_{CO-Rh}$ = 54.6 Hz; δ_{COMe} = 216.9 ppm and ${}^{1}J_{MeCO-Rh}$ = 18.2 Hz). When the water content is reduced further to 5 wt %, the sole rhodium carbonyl species detected is 4a. This buildup of a steady-state content of this acetyl rhodium species with the complete disappearance of 1a points to a shift of the rds as the RE from 4a. These experimental observations could be interpreted as a direct involvement of water in the last step. Because hydrolysis of acetyl iodide is very fast, its classically proposed RE should be independent of the water concentration. Thus, solvolysis of 4a (Scheme 1, path II) seems more probable than the direct RE of CH₃COI. However, because different amounts of water should generate different concentrations of acetate anion (arising from AcOH dissociation; see SI.3), its possible role in the RE step must also be considered. The RE from 4a was followed by FT-IR in CH₂Cl₂ at 298 K under 5 bar of CO in the presence and absence of water (see SI.4). In fact, the reaction operates slowly, independent of the water concentration. However, with 1 equiv of butylmethylimidazolium acetate under anhydrous conditions, the RE is immediate. Similarly, Maitlis et al. have shown that tetrabutylammonium acetate reacts immediately with 4a to give 1a and acetic anhydride.⁴ Because these results are not consistent with either the direct RE of CH₃COI or solvolysis of 4, density functional theory calculations, B3PW91 [Rh:SDD+f,I:SDD+d, CHO:6-31G(d,p)], were performed to investigate the reactivity of 4 under various conditions (see SI.5).

Initial computational studies probed the mechanism for the RE of CH₃COI from **4** (see SI.6). It can involve either *mer,trans*-**4a** or its isomer *fac,cis*-**4b**. An endergonic pathway with a Gibbs free energy of +8 kcal·mol⁻¹ is obtained for **4a** and a slightly exergonic pathway for **4b** (-1 kcal·mol⁻¹). The corresponding energy barriers are both 26 kcal·mol⁻¹, which agree well with previous calculations reported by Kinnunen and Laasonen (25 kcal·mol⁻¹ for **4a** and 23 kcal·mol⁻¹ for **4b**).⁷ The two proposed mechanisms for RE from **4b** and **4a** are different. The pathway from **4b** is a straightforward intramolecular reaction involving the addition to the $-COCH_3$ group of an adjacent iodide, whereas **4a** requires a two-step process. Decoordination of the iodide trans to $-COCH_3$ occurs first, followed by the attack of I⁻ at the acetyl carbon. In both cases, CH₃COI is formed. Because these pathways are

thermodynamically endergonic for 4a and slightly exergonic or at best thermoneutral, according to the precision of the calculations, for 4b, the possible involvement of water was investigated. Its direct attack on the acetyl group has been calculated. The reaction is exergonic by 5 kcal·mol⁻¹ but possesses an energy barrier of 44 kcal·mol⁻¹, making it kinetically unlikely (see SI.7). Instead, the observed impact of the water content on the rate of RE from 4a is most likely due to the change in the acetate anion concentration as a function of the water content in an AcOH medium. This statement is consistent with the experimental observation described above. Consequently, the direct attack of AcO⁻ on the acetyl group of 4a must be considered as a probable pathway for the RE (path III). Although it is found to be highly exergonic (see SI.8, $36 \text{ kcal} \cdot \text{mol}^{-1}$), the energy barrier is far too high to be competitive (56 kcal·mol⁻¹). Therefore, an alternative pathway that involves an indirect acetatemediated reaction appears to be more probable (path IV). This mechanism involves the replacement of an iodo ligand on 4 by OAc⁻ to form $[RhI_2(COCH_3)(AcO)(CO)_2]^-$ (5: Figure 1). This species forms acetic anhydride upon RE that rapidly hydrolyzes to produce two AcOH molecules.

There are three possible complexes that can form by substitution of I⁻ with AcO⁻ on 4 to obtain an acetate ligand cis to the acetyl group without the highly endergonic replacement of a CO. The reaction of AcO⁻ with 4a affords two possible rhodium carbonyl complexes. The first one, 5a, conserves two iodide ligands trans to each other, with one CO moving trans to the acetyl ligand. The second complex, 5b, preserves the two CO ligands trans to each other with no other ligand rearrangement. The reaction of AcO⁻ with 4b affords only structure 5c, in which the I⁻ and CO ligand geometry relative to the acetyl ligand remains unchanged. For all of these cases, the replacement of I⁻ by AcO⁻ leads to stabilization of 5a, 5b, and 5c by -14, -24, and -31 kcal-mol⁻¹, respectively.

The comparative difference of these results for 5a-5c can be explained primarily by a closer analysis of their geometries. Specifically the predominant factor that impacts the stabilization energy of 5 is the ligand type trans to the acetyl ligand (Figure 1). As expected, an iodide trans to the acetyl ligand stabilizes 5b and 5c by strengthening the Rh-C bond of the acetyl group (push-pull effect). On the other hand, 5a is less stable because of the presence of two donor ligands trans to each other. Even though the three proposed isomers 5a-5c produce a molecule of acetic anhydride and 1, the three corresponding transition states of 5 lead to different energy barriers. As was previously observed for 5, the nature of the ligand trans to the acetyl one of the TS complexes primarily impacts the relative energy barriers to form acetic anhydride. The calculated energy barriers of 14, 23, and 18 kcal mol⁻¹ for TS_A, TS_B, and TS_C, respectively, are consistent with kinetically facile reactions.

Although TS_A is the least stable structure, it leads to the lowest energy barrier because a CO ligand trans to the acetyl affords a weaker acetyl Rh–C bond because of π -back-bonding on CO. TS_B leads to the highest energy barrier (23 kcal·mol⁻¹). Indeed, at TS_B , the anhydride moiety is already formed and the –COCH₃ and –OC(CH₃)O groups are loosely interacting with the Rh center (2.26 and 2.73 Å for Rh–O and Rh–C bonds, respectively). Both TS_A and TS_C exhibit short Rh–O bonds (2.15 Å). In addition, the Rh–C bond lengthens from 2.05 to 2.57–2.50 Å for Sa/Sc and TS_A/TS_C , respectively. The two transition states TS_A and TS_C are thus better prepared from Sa and Sc in line with a lower energy barrier. Finally, the formation of 1a and acetic anhydride is more favorable than



Figure 1. Gibbs free-energy pathways computed for the acetate-mediated reductive elimination (kcal·mol⁻¹).

that of acetic anhydride and *trans*- $[RhI_2(CO)_2]^-$ (**1b**) by 7 kcal·mol⁻¹. From the three possible pathways for the RE, A and C can be retained as the most probable mechanistic routes because of their lower energy barriers compared to pathway B. Furthermore, pathway C is far more exergonic than A, thus making it the most feasible way to obtain acetic anhydride.

In conclusion, the present experimental and theoretical studies support a new alternative acetate-mediated mechanism, for the reductive elimination step of rhodium-catalyzed methanol as well as methyl acetate carbonylation reactions. This proposed mechanism proceeds stepwise: substitution of an iodo ligand by an acetate anion on the rhodium acetylcarbonyl complex followed by reductive elimination of acetic anhydride, which is immediately hydrolyzed to AcOH. This result contrasts with the classically proposed mechanism that involves the direct reductive elimination of CH_3COI followed by its hydrolysis or the direct solvolysis of the acetyl ligand of the rhodium complex.

ASSOCIATED CONTENT

S Supporting Information

Experimental procedures, characterization data, kinetic and conductivity measurements, and computational details (Figures SI.1–SI.9). This material is available free of charge via the Internet at http://pubs.acs.org.

AUTHOR INFORMATION

Corresponding Author

*E-mail: laurent.maron@irsamc.ups-tlse.fr (L.M.), philippe. kalck@ensiacet.fr (P.K.).

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

L.M. is a member of the Institut Universitaire de France. Cines and Calmip are acknowledged for generous grants of computing time. We are grateful to Alain Moreau (LCC) for technical assistance in the conductivity measurements.

REFERENCES

(1) (a) Torrence, P. In Applied Homogeneous Catalysis with Organometallic Compounds, 2nd ed.; Cornils, B., Herrmann, W. A., Eds.; Wiley-VCH: Weinheim, Germany, 2002; pp 104–136. (b) Haynes, A. In Topics in Organometallic Chemistry; Beller, M., Ed.; Springer-Verlag: Berlin, 2006; pp 179–205. (c) Haynes, A. Adv. Catal. 2010, 53, 1–45.

(2) (a) Forster, D. J. Am. Chem. Soc. **1976**, 98, 846–848. (b) Adams, H.; Baily, N. A.; Mann, B. E.; Manuel, C. P.; Spencer, C. M.; Kent, A. G. J. J. Chem. Soc., Dalton Trans. **1988**, 489–496.

(3) Jones, J. H. Platinum Met. Rev. 2000, 44, 94-105.

(4) Maitlis, P. M.; Haynes, A.; Sunley, G. J.; Howard, M. J. J. Chem. Soc., Dalton Trans. 1996, 2187–2196.

(5) Morris, G. In *Mechanism in Homogeneous Catalysis. A Spectroscopic Approach*; Heaton, B., Ed.; Wiley-VCH Verlag: Weinheim, Germany, 2005; pp 195–230.

(6) Merbach, A. E.; et al. Inorg. Chem. 2000, 39, 304–307, . It was observed by $^{13}\mathrm{C}$ NMR that the CO ligands of $[\mathrm{RhI}_2(\mathrm{CO})_2]^-$ exchange quickly with $^{13}\mathrm{CO}$ dissolved in CD₂Cl₂ at 363 K, resulting only in a broad single signal. In the present solvent/reactant system (MeOAc, CH₃COOH, CH₃I, and H₂O), the exchange rate becomes slower so that we observed separate signals for dissolved $^{13}\mathrm{CO}$ and 1a. The signal at ca. 186 ppm could be assigned to $[\mathrm{RhI}_2(\mathrm{CO})_3]^-$.

(7) Kinnunen, T.; Laasonen, K. J. Organomet. Chem. 2001, 628, 222–232.