## ORIGINAL PAPER

# Formation Mechanism of Alkyl Nitrites, Valuable Intermediates in C1-Upgrading Chemistry and Oxidation Processes

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**Abstract** In this contribution we use computational tools to investigate the reaction of alcohol substrates with reactive nitrogen oxide species such as  $N_2O_3$  and  $N_2O_4$ , leading to the formation of alkyl nitrites. These nitrites are interesting intermediates which can be processed to various valuable chemicals such as ketones/aldehydes and dimethyl oxalate while regenerating  $NO_x$ . As such,  $NO_x$  is used as an oxidation mediator, converting alcohol substrates to more reactive nitrites which can be selectively converted to more desired compounds, closing a catalytic cycle in  $NO_x$  species.

**Keywords** Alcohol oxidation  $\cdot$  Mechanism  $\cdot$ Computational prediction  $\cdot$  NO<sub>x</sub>  $\cdot$  Syngas upgrading

# 1 Introduction

### 1.1 Background

Ethylene glycol (EG) is industrially produced by the liquidphase hydration of ethylene oxide, which is obtained by the

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J. H. Teles · R. Dehn · T.-C. Brüggemann · R. Send · P. N. Plessow BASF SE, 67056 Ludwigshafen, Germany aerobic epoxidation of ethylene over a silver catalyst [1]. In 2009, the production of EG was estimated at 1.45 million metric tons. About 75 % of this is used in the production of polymers of which polyethylene terephthalate (PET) is the largest application. This traditional value-chain is being challenged by a newly developed syngas-based route, outlined in Scheme 1 [2–10]. The process consists of three sequential steps: (i) the synthesis of methyl nitrite from methanol (ii) the catalytic carbonylation of methyl nitrite to dimethyl oxalate over a heterogeneous palladium catalyst, and (iii) the catalytic hydrogenation of the dimethyl oxalate to EG over a copper catalyst, regenerating methanol. Overall this process results in the oxidative upgrading of syngas to EG using catalytic amounts of nitrogen(II)oxide. In view of the growing naphtha prices and cheap feedstocks for the production of syngas, such as coal in China and shale gas in the USA, this alternative approach becomes very attractive. Currently, already six EG plants using this technology-originally developed by UBE in Japan-are under construction, each around 200,000 t/year capacity [11]. Methyl nitrite is the crucial intermediate on which this technology depends. Its synthesis can be achieved by contacting liquid methanol with nitrogen oxides (NO/NO<sub>2</sub>) [12-18]. Counter-current columns with different packing material, or spray towers have been described in the (patent) literature for this gas-liquid reaction [19].

Alkyl nitrites also play a crucial role in other areas of oxidation catalysis. Recently, some of us showed that alkyl nitrites featuring an  $\alpha$ H-atom (RCH<sub>2</sub>ONO) undergo Brønsted acid-catalyzed decomposition to the corresponding carbonyl product plus HNO [20]. HNO is a reactive species which dimerizes very fast to yield water and N<sub>2</sub>O. In the presence of NO<sub>2</sub>, HNO is transformed to NO plus HNO<sub>2</sub>. This molecular mechanism is at the basis of a

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Scheme 1 The traditional (above) and new (below) ethylene glycol routes



Scheme 2 The role of alkyl nitrite as intermediate in the (H)NO<sub>v</sub>-mediated aerobic alcohol oxidation

recently proposed aerobic alcohol oxidation system (see Scheme 2) [21]. The HNO<sub>2</sub> can react with the alcohol substrate to form additional nitrite, and the NO can be oxidized to NO<sub>2</sub> with molecular oxygen, closing a catalytic cycle in  $(H)NO_v$  species. Those  $(H)NO_v$  species can be supplied to the reactor as  $HNO_3$ , or  $NO_x$ . Also in this system, alkyl nitrites are crucial intermediate species. Although they can be formed via the (acid-catalyzed) esterification of the alcohol substrate with HNO<sub>2</sub>, a direct reaction of the alcohol with the  $NO_x$  species as in the methyl nitrite synthesis described above cannot be excluded.

Based on this reaction mechanism, it is clear that one needs to maintain a high NO<sub>2</sub> concentration to avoid the undesired formation of N2O (viz., kinetic competition for HNO). As NO<sub>2</sub> is known to react readily with H<sub>2</sub>O, we constantly removed the water from the reaction solution by re-circulating the gas phase over a fixed-bed of molecular sieves. As NO<sub>2</sub> prefers to remain in the liquid phase, this approach allows the selective removal of H<sub>2</sub>O while not trapping the  $NO_2$  [21]. Although this approach resulted in a significant increase in reaction rate and minimized the formation of N<sub>2</sub>O, leading to a higher end conversion, it is not very practical as after awhile one would need to regenerate the adsorber. Therefore, the use of a continuous flow setup (Fig. 1) was subsequently investigated [22]. In that system, a segmented flow of alcohol/HNO<sub>3</sub> plus oxygen is fed to a fixed-bed reactor, packed with the solid Brønsted acid catalyst Amberlyst-15<sup>®</sup>. It was found that full conversion could be achieved within very short contact times without the need to remove water. At a given alcohol conversion level, significantly less N<sub>2</sub>O formation was observed in this three-phase flow system, compared to a batch reactor setup.



Fig. 1 Continuous flow setup for the aerobic oxidation of alcohols with catalytic amounts of HNO3



Fig. 2 Concept of pre-activating an alcohol substrate to a reactive nitrite which can be catalytically decomposed to the desired aldehyde/ketone. Since the carbonyl group cannot be activated under the reaction conditions, over-oxidation of the primary product is avoided

This system allows to alter the intrinsic selectivity issue in alcohol oxidation catalysis. Although the oxidation products (aldehydes/ketones) are intrinsically more oxidizable than the alcohol substrate, due to the milder reaction conditions they are protected from over-oxidation, because the carbonyl products cannot form the reactive nitrite species (Fig. 2).

As a next development one could envision starting with an NO/NO<sub>2</sub> mixture rather than HNO<sub>3</sub> to generate the (H)NO<sub>y</sub> species. The precise formation of the crucial alkyl nitrite intermediate from alcohol and NO<sub>x</sub> will be key to optimize the reaction conditions in terms of the required amount of NO<sub>x</sub> (viz., to increase the catalytic turnover efficiency in NO<sub>x</sub>).

### 1.2 Outlook

The observations outlined above prompt us to look more carefully at the NO<sub>x</sub> reactions with alcohols, forming alkyl nitrites. Of particular interest is the nitrosation reaction with N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>, a reaction known to produce harmful *N*-nitrosoamines with amines [23]. Dinitrogen trioxide is a well-known reactive nitrogen oxide species (RNOS) like dinitrogen tetraoxide (N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub>). The structural isomers of N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> and N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub>, formed upon the equilibrium reaction of NO<sub>2</sub> with NO and NO<sub>2</sub>, respectively, are well investigated, and the most stable structures are summarized in Scheme 3. N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> exists in an asymmetric N–N coupled isomer 1, a symmetric isomer 2

and a *trans–cis* isomer **3**. In addition to these most stable isomers, significantly less stable isomers have been reported [24].  $N_2O_4$  exists in a symmetric isomer **4**, and a *trans-* and *cis-*conformer **5** and **6**, respectively [25].

Our aim is to provide insights in the reaction mechanism of the nitrosation reaction using quantum chemical calculations. The reactivity of the different isomers, the influence of the alcohol structure, as well as the solvent polarity will be addressed.

### 2 Methods

All calculations were performed with the Gaussian 09 (revision A.02) program package [26]. Frequency analyses and intrinsic reaction coordinate (IRC) calculations identified stationary points on the potential energy surfaces (PESs) as true minima or as transition states (TSs) connecting reactants and products. An open-shell singlet initial guess was used for all calculations. After obtaining the reaction paths at the B3LYP-DFT level of theory [27–29], other methods were used for comparison (e.g.,  $\mbox{OB97-DFT}$  [30] and QCISD [31] ) or refinement (e.g., CBS-APNO [32] and single point CCSD(T) [33, 34] calculations). Unless explicitly mentioned, the 6-311++G(df,pd) basis set was used. All reported relative energies have been corrected for zero point energy (ZPE).

Scheme 3 The most stable isomers of  $N_2O_3$  (1–3) and  $N_2O_4$  (4–6) formed upon reaction of  $NO_2$  with NO and  $NO_2$ , respectively



## **3** Results and Discussion

#### 3.1 Stability of the N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> and N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> Isomers

The stability of the different N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> and N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> isomers is compared at different levels of theory in Table 1. Earlier work by Liu and Goddard [25] showed that the large resonance energy in NO<sub>2</sub> has a dramatic effect on the stability of the different N2O4 dimers. Comparing their most reliable RCCSD(T)/CBS results with various DFT and single point methods, clearly indicates that the B3LYP predicted stability deviates substantially from the state-of-the-art methods such as CCSD(T)//QCISD, CBS-APNO and RCCSD(T)/CBS. The results obtained with the  $\omega$ B97 functional, including long range corrections, fall between the benchmark results. Irrespective of the method, it is clear that the symmetric dimer 4 is by far the most stable one. Goddard et al. predicted that the formation of 4 and 6 from the two separate NO<sub>2</sub> constituents proceeds without a barrier, or with a very low barrier, respectively. The combination of two NO<sub>2</sub> species to form the *trans* isomer 5 would feature a barrier of around 13 kcal  $mol^{-1}$ . Although the symmetric isomer 4 can isomerize to the *trans* isomer 5, the reaction faces a thermally inaccessible barrier of 45 kcal mol<sup>-1</sup>. A more plausible pathway to 5 would be isomerization of 6, featuring a barrier of less than  $3 \text{ kcal mol}^{-1}$ . Unimolecular breakup of the symmetric N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> dimer would face a barrier of around 16.5 kcal  $mol^{-1}$ . All these computational predictions seem to imply a fast interconversion of the various N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> and NO<sub>2</sub> species under relevant reaction conditions. A similar situation is encountered for the  $N_2O_3$  dimer (Table 1). Isomers 1 and 2 are predicted to be more or less equally stable, in line with experimental evidence [35-37], whereas the *trans-cis* isomer **3** would be **3–4** kcal  $mol^{-1}$  higher in energy. Fast isomerization can occur though breakup of the isomers in NO plus  $NO_2$ , and subsequent recombination [24].

We emphasize that the relative stability of the various isomers, or their thermal population for that matter, does not imply their kinetic reactivity towards substrates. The reactivity of the various  $N_2O_3$  and  $N_2O_4$  isomers towards methanol is addressed in the next paragraph.

## 3.2 Nitrosation of Methanol With N2O3 and N2O4

Scheme 4 illustrates how the various N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> isomers can react with methanol. Whereas all isomers lead to the formation of the alkyl nitrite CH<sub>3</sub>ONO, isomers 1 and 3 coform HONO, while isomer 2 yields H-NO<sub>2</sub>. The latter product will rapidly isomerize to the more stable HONO, either unimolecularly, or catalyzed by an NO<sub>2</sub> molecule (i.e., via H-abstraction by NO<sub>2</sub>: NO<sub>2</sub> + H-NO<sub>2</sub>  $\rightarrow$  HONO + NO<sub>2</sub>).

Table 2 summarizes the adiabatic barriers of the reactions in Scheme 4. Although B3LYP-DFT seems to qualitatively predict the reactivity trend of the three isomers, it fails quantitatively (viz., deviations by more than 5 kcal mol<sup>-1</sup> compared to CCSD(T)//QCISD level of theory). One possible reason for this is the absence of longrange dispersion interactions for the B3LYP functional. This seems to be confirmed by the fact that the  $\omega$ B97 results agree rather well with more advanced methods. These predictions indicate that the least stable isomer **3** is the most reactive one and will contribute most to the reaction flux (i.e. most of the N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> formed through combination of NO plus NO<sub>2</sub> will react with methanol via isomer **3**).

To further substantiate this reactivity difference, we used transition state theory (TST) to predict the fate of thermalized  $N_2O_3$ . Using the QCISD-predicted geometry and B3LYP-predicted vibrational parameters, rotational-vibrational

Structure	B3LYP	CCSD(T)//B3LYP	ωB97	CCSD(T)//ωB97	CBS-APNO	CCSD(T)//QCISD <sup>a</sup>	RCCSD(T)/CBS [25]
N <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub> 1	0.0	0.1	1.0	0.4	0.0	0.5	
N <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub> 2	3.35	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	
$N_2O_3$ 3	6.6	4.9	4.2	3.9	3.5	3.8	
$N_2O_4$ 4	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
$N_2O_4$ 5	10.9	6.6	7.1	6.2	6.85	6.1	8.6
$N_2O_4$ 6	13.4	9.6	9.9	8.7	8.95	8.35	10.6

Table 1 Relative stability of the various N2O3 and N2O4 isomers at various levels of theory

<sup>a</sup> Geometry optimized at QCISD/6-311++G(d,p) level; ZPE correction at B3LYP/6-311++G(df,pd) level single point energy calculation at CCSD(T)/6-311++G(df,pd) level

Scheme 4 Reaction of the  $N_2O_3$  dimer species with methanol. Distances in Ångstrom and angles in degree as optimized at the QCISD/6-311++G(d,p) level of theory



Table 2 Barrier for reaction of the N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> dimer species with methanol (see Scheme 4) at various levels of theory

Structure	B3LYP	CCSD(T)//B3LYP	ωB97	CCSD(T)//@B97	CBS-APNO	CCSD(T)//QCISD <sup>a</sup>
N <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub> 1	6.1	8.45	9.0	9.4	9.4	10.45
N <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub> <b>2</b>	8.3	14.45	14.05	14.6	12.5	15.3
N <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub> <b>3</b>	-1.1	1.9	2.0	3.8	2.9	5.0

<sup>a</sup> Geometry optimized at QCISD/6-311++G(d,p) level; ZPE correction at B3LYP/6-311++G(df,pd) level single point energy calculation at CCSD(T)/6-311++G(df,pd) level

partition functions were calculated in order to estimate rate constants. As expected, the nitrosation reactions are characterized by a small pre-exponential rate factor of around  $(2 \pm 1) \times 10^5 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$ , in line with the highly concerted mechanism. At 300 K, a statistical TST-analysis predicts

that about 96.5 % of the N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> species react through its least stable isomer **3** (contributing to the N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> pool for less than 0.1 %). Isomer **1** would contribute for about 3.5 % to the reactive flux, whereas the contribution of the symmetric isomer **2** (making up over 66 % of the N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> pool) can be

Scheme 5 Reaction of the  $N_2O_4$  dimer species with methanol. Distances in Ångstrom and angles in degree as optimized at the QCISD/6-311++G(d,p) level of theory



**Table 3** Barrier for reaction of the  $N_2O_4$  dimer species with methanol (see Scheme 4) at various levels of theory (kcal mol<sup>-1</sup>)

Structure	B3LYP	CCSD(T)//B3LYP	ωB97	CCSD(T)//@B97	CBS-APNO	CCSD(T)//QCISD <sup>a</sup>
N <sub>2</sub> O <sub>4</sub> <b>4</b>	24.7	27.1	29.1	28.3	29.4	29.25
N <sub>2</sub> O <sub>4</sub> 5	6.1	-1.6	3.7	5.3	4.9	6.5

<sup>a</sup> Geometry optimized at QCISD/6-311++G(d,p) level; ZPE correction at B3LYP/6-311++G(df,pd) level single point energy calculation at CCSD(T)/6-311++G(df,pd) level

neglected, even at 500 K. In the temperature range of 200–500 K, the TST-predicted rate constants can be well represented by the Arrhenius expression  $2.6 \times 10^5 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1} \times \exp(-8.6 \text{ kcal mol}^{-1}/\text{R}T)$ . At a methanol concentration of 0.045 M (corresponding to 1 bar at 65 °C, i.e. the boiling point of methanol), this implies an N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> lifetime of less than 3 min at 300 K, or less than 0.5 s at 500 K. This fast kinetics makes the experimental investigation of the reaction kinetics of this reaction very challenging and emphasizes the need for fast mixing in order to stay outside the mass-transfer regime.

Scheme 5 summarizes the reaction mechanisms of  $N_2O_4$  with methanol. We emphasize the practical importance of this for the design and optimization of a process using alkyl nitrite as reactive intermediate. Indeed, only isomer **5** leads to the desired nitrite, whereas isomer **6** is unreactive and isomer **4** even leads to the formation of nitrate. The latter reaction is highly undesired as the nitrate species cannot decompose to regenerate the NO<sub>x</sub> species (hence lowering the catalytic efficiency) and could lead to safety issues. Fortunately the computational predictions in Table **3** 

indicate that isomer **5** is significantly more reactive than isomer **4**. On a practical level this implies that when N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> is formed it will still mainly form nitrite and not nitrate, despite the higher instability of isomer **5** relative to **4**. This suggests that one could work with an excess of NO<sub>2</sub> (viz. NO<sub>2</sub>/NO > 1) in order to trap the HNO formed upon acidcatalyzed nitrite decomposition (See Scheme 2), without running into problems related to nitrate formation.

The difference in reactivity of the various  $N_2O_x$  isomers is remarkable. Especially the substantial barrier predicted for  $N_2O_4$  isomer **4** is particularly striking. To better understand what contributes to the activation barrier of such nitrosation reactions, we decided to split the activation energy into three terms as shown in Equation 1 and Fig. 3.

$$E_{act} = E(N_2O_x - deform) + E(methanol - deform) - E(stabilization)$$
(1)

 $E(N_2O_x$ -deform) and E(methanol-deform) represent the energy it takes to deform the two reactants from the free unconstrained forms to the geometry they adopt in the



Fig. 3 Contribution of  $N_2O_x$  and methanol deformation, and the stabilization energy on the activation barrier of  $N_2O_x$  nitrosation reactions

transition state. E(stabilization) is the attraction energy between the two deformed fragments in the transition state. As can be seen from the results summarized in Table 4, it takes substantially more energy to deform N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> than N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>, due to substantial re-hybridization of the nitrogen atom(s). Moreover, the low dipole moment of the deformed N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> isomer **4** results in a very low stabilization energy for this particular reactant, explaining the exceptionally high barrier.

#### 3.3 Effect of the Alkyl Substituent

The alkyl substituent R was found to have a negligible effect ( $\leq 1 \text{ kcal mol}^{-1}$ ) on the reaction of N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> with various alcohols ROH as shown in Table 5. This indicates that the nitrosation reaction does barely differentiate

**Table 5** Influence of the alcohol structure on the reactivity with N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> at the  $\omega$ B97 level of theory.  $\Delta_r E_x$  and  $E_x$  are the reaction energy and barrier associated with isomer *x*, respectively (in kcal mol<sup>-1</sup>)

Alcohol	$\Delta_r E_1$	$E_1$	$\Delta_r E_2$	$E_2$	$\Delta_r E_3$	$E_3$
Methanol	-8.9	9.0	0.4	14.05	-12.1	2.0
Ethanol	-8.6	9.0	0.7	14.2	-11.8	2.2
Isopropanol	-8.9	8.8	0.4	15.3	-12.15	2.6
t-Butanol	-8.1	10.5	1.2	14.7	-11.3	5.35
Benzyl alcohol	-8.5	8.0	0.8	13.3	-11.7	1.75

between primary, secondary and tertiary alcohols. In traditional oxidation systems, *e.g.* radical-mediated, substitution at the  $\alpha$ -position strongly activates the substrate, due to weakening of the  $\alpha$ H-atom [38]. Although the substitution level does not seem to affect the nitrite formation mechanism, the subsequent acid-catalyzed decomposition was found to be rather sensitive on the stability of the corresponding carbonyl product (see Evans-Polanyi correlation between the decomposition barrier and reaction energy:  $E_{act} = (12.1 \pm 0.1) + (0.15 \pm 0.01) \times \Delta_r E$  in kcal mol<sup>-1</sup>) [20].

Plotting the  $N_2O_3$  nitrosation barriers versus the O–H–X angle in the TSs shows a remarkably linear trend (see Fig. 4). The more linear the TS, the easier the reaction proceeds as expected for a four-electron three-center process [39].

# 3.4 Effect of the Solvent Polarity on the Nitrosation of isopropanol with N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>

Given the rather late TSs, i.e. featuring nearly fully dissociated  $N_2O_3$  species (see Scheme 4), significant changes in solvation between the TS and the reactant state can be expected. This was investigated for the case of isopropanol

Table 4 Contribution of N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>x</sub> and methanol deformation on the methanol nitrosation barrier

	$E_{act}$ (kcal mol <sup>-1</sup> )	E $(N_2O_x$ -deform) <sup>a</sup> (kcal mol <sup>-1</sup> )	Dipole (N <sub>2</sub> O <sub>x</sub> - deform) (Debye)	E (methanol-deform) <sup>a</sup> (kcal mol-1)	Dipole (methanol- deform) (Debye)	E (stabilization) (kcal mol <sup>-1</sup> )
$1^{N_2O_3}$	10.45	18.8	9.27	9.5	2.08	17.9
N <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub> 2	15.3	23.2	10.34	13.4	2.12	21.3
N <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub> <b>3</b>	5.0	16.7	8.68	9.8	2.09	21.5
$\begin{array}{c} N_2O_4 \\ 4 \end{array}$	29.25	30.5	6.02	5.8	2.06	7.0
N <sub>2</sub> O <sub>4</sub>	6.5	25.7	11.48	6.1	2.08	25.3

Geometry optimized at QCISD/6-311++G(d,p) level; ZPE correction at B3LYP/6-311++G(df,pd) level single point energy calculation at CCSD(T)/6-311++G(df,pd) level

<sup>a</sup> The deformed  $N_2O_x$  and methanol fragments were taken from the optimized TS and separated at infinite distance without further optimization



Fig. 4 Linear trend of the  $N_2O_3$  nitrosation barrier with methanol with the O–H–X angle at the  $\omega$ B97 level of theory

**Table 6** Decrease in adiabatic barrier (in kcal mol<sup>-1</sup>) as predicted by the Polarizable Continuum Model at the  $\omega$ B97 level of theory for various solvents ( $\varepsilon$  is the dielectrical constant)

	3	Isomer 1	Isomer 2	Isomer 3
Vacuum	1	0	0	0
Argon	1.43	-0.26	-1.09	-0.60
1-hexene	2.07	-0.60	-2.17	-1.23
Dibutylether	3.05	-1.00	-3.12	-1.87
Dichloroethane	10.12	-2.09	-5.11	-3.00
2-propanol	19.26	-2.43	-5.70	-3.30
Acetonitrile	35.69	-2.60	-6.02	-3.70

at the  $\omega$ B97 level of theory. It was found that the gas phase dipole moments of the three N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> isomers **1**, **2** and **3** equal 2.26, 0.55 and 0.41 Debye, respectively. On the other hand, the gas phase dipole moments of the corresponding nitrosation TSs equal 5.68, 6.39 and 5.57 Debye, respectively. The largest change in dipole moment is therefore predicted for the symmetric isomer **2**. The polarizable continuum model (PCM) [40] indeed predicts a significant decrease in the effective barrier as the solvent polarity increases (Table 6), the largest effect being observed for isomer **2**. This effect can be visualized in the Kirkwood plot displayed in Fig. 5.

As a consequence of this solvent effect, the reactivity of  $N_2O_3$  will even increase in the liquid phase, and the relative contribution of the various isomers to the reactive flux is slightly changing. As an example, focusing on isopropanol as a solvent, isomer **1** will contribute for more than 90 % of



Fig. 5 Kirkwood plot showing the decrease of the adiabatic nitrosation barrier for the three  $N_2O_3$  isomers as a function of the solvent polarity ( $\varepsilon$  being the dielectrical constant)

the  $N_2O_3$  population (due to its large dipole moment it is much more stabilized in a solvent than in vacuum), followed by isomer 2(8%); the contribution of isomer 3 stays below 5 %, even at 500 K. On the other hand, the contribution of the different isomers to the reaction flux also changes to: 28.6, 0.1 and 71.3 %, respectively. The N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> lifetime drops from about 3 min in vacuum to less than 100 ms in isopropanol (assuming an alcohol concentration of 0.045 M and 300 K). From a practical point of view, these predictions hence suggest a much higher rate (resulting in a higher throughput) in the liquid phase than the gas phase. In the temperature range of 200-500 K, the TST-predicted rate constants can be expresses by the Arrhenius equation  $5.3 \times 10^6 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1} \times \exp(-5.75 \text{ kcal})$  $mol^{-1}/RT$ ). We emphasize that not only the activation energy is predicted to decrease (by about almost 3 kcal  $mol^{-1}$ ), but that also the pre-exponential factor is increase by a factor 20, due to the confinement in the solvent spheres, lowering the partition functions. For a bimolecular reaction, this results in an increase in TST-prefactor.

## 4 Conclusions

Quantum chemical calculations demonstrate that the various isomers of  $N_2O_3$  and  $N_2O_4$  react readily with alcohols to form the corresponding alkyl nitrite. Calculations also predict, that even with  $N_2O_4$  the formation of methyl nitrate will be negligible compared to the formation of methyl nitrite. The precise structure of the alcohol was found to have a negligible effect on the nitrosation

reaction. On the other hand, (polar) solvents were found to speed up the reaction, both through an enhancement of the pre-exponential factor, and a reduction of the barrier height.

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