Dalton Transactions



PAPER View Article Online View Journal



Cite this: DOI: 10.1039/c9dt01006h

Rhodium nanoparticles stabilized by ferrocenylphosphine ligands: synthesis and catalytic styrene hydrogenation

M. Ibrahim, Da,b M. M. Wei, E. Deydier, D*a,b,c E. Manoury, D*a,b R. Poli, Da,b P. Lecante da and K. Philippot **D*a,b

A series of ferrocenylphosphine-stabilized rhodium nanoparticles has been prepared in one pot from the organometallic $[Rh(\eta^3-C_3H_5)_3]$ precursor. This complex has been decomposed by hydrogen treatment (3 bar) in dichloromethane in the presence of five different ferrocene-based phosphine ligands. Very small rhodium nanoparticles in the size range of 1.1–1.7 nm have been obtained. These nanoparticles have shown activity in a model catalytic reaction, namely the hydrogenation of styrene. These results evidence that the metal surface is not blocked despite the steric bulk of the stabilizing ligands. Moreover, certain selectivity has been observed depending on the ligand employed. To the best of our knowledge, such a type of compound has not yet been used for stabilizing metal nanoparticles and our findings highlight the interest to do so.

Received 7th March 2019, Accepted 15th April 2019 DOI: 10.1039/c9dt01006h

rsc.li/dalton

Introduction

Metal nanoparticles (NPs) are largely investigated given their unique properties and potential applications in multiple domains such as biology, medicine, microelectronics, optics or catalysis to cite only a few.^{1–3} In catalysis, the relevance of metal NPs has been known for a long time due to their presence in heterogeneous catalysts.^{4,5} Metal NPs are attractive materials because of their high surface/volume ratios.^{6,7} With the recent advances in nanochemistry and particularly in the design of better defined metal NPs, nanocatalysis is now recognized as a full and rich part of catalysis.^{8–10}

Over the past 25 years ligand-stabilized metal nanoparticles have attracted growing attention and numerous investigations are devoted to exploring the effect of the stabilizing agents on the characteristics of NPs such as size, dispersion, morphology and surface properties and also catalytic performance. ¹¹ Very recent papers reported on the precise role of ligands and their binding with the metal surface in NP size control. ^{12,13} It is important to note that the interaction of the ligands with the

One efficient method to prepare well-controlled metal nanoparticles is the organometallic approach. This approach has proven powerful to provide controlled nanoparticles with reproducible physical or chemical properties. Hetal complexes (organometallic or metal organic complexes) are decomposed under mild conditions to release metal atoms either in the presence of polymers (steric barriers) or ligands (metal surface coordination) as stabilizing agents. The choice of the metal source is important in terms of the resulting metal surface purity. Olefinic metal precursors are privileged because their treatment under hydrogen liberates alkanes as the only reaction byproducts that are inert towards the metal

metal atoms on the NP surface can be compared to the ligand interactions with the metal centers in homogeneous catalysts, which is of paramount importance for stability and properties such as catalytic activity. Thus, ligands also allow tuning the surface properties of metal NPs through electronic or steric effects. Moreover, ligand-stabilized metal nanoparticles can be applied to catalysis either as stable colloidal suspensions or after deposition on the surface or confinement in the pores of solid supports. 14 The challenge is to find ligands able to stabilize well-defined nanoparticles while controlling accessibility at the metal surface and reactivity. 15 Compared to the investigation of facet dependency, the ligand influence on the catalytic activity has been less intensively studied but recent results illustrate well the interest to do so.16-19 One aim lies in the design of better performing catalysts in terms of reactivity and selectivity in order to develop more efficient and eco-compatible chemical production.²⁰

^aCNRS, LCC (Laboratoire de Chimie de Coordination), 205, route de Narbonne, BP 44099, F-31077 Toulouse Cedex 4, France. E-mail: eric.deydier@iut-tlse3.fr, eric.manoury@lcc-toulouse.fr, karine.philippot@lcc-toulouse.fr

^bUniversité de Toulouse, UPS, INPT, F-31077 Toulouse Cedex 4, France

^cIUT A Paul Sabatier, Département de Chimie, Avenue Georges Pompidou, CS 20258, F-81104 Castres Cedex. France

^dCNRS, CEMES (Centre d'Elaboration de Matériaux et d'Etudes Structurales), 29 rue J. Marvig, F-31055 Toulouse, France

surface. Therefore, metal NPs with clean surfaces capped with the desired ligands are obtained. Numerous ruthenium nanoparticles have been prepared this way, using $[Ru(\eta^6\text{-}C_8H_{10})\ ((\eta\text{-}C_8H_{12})]$ as the ruthenium source and a large panel of ligands as stabilizers. The ligands are either simple or sophisticated, and mainly contain amines, thiols, carbenes or phosphines which were shown to influence the surface and catalytic properties of the particles. 22

Rhodium particles can also be synthesized by the organometallic method, starting from [Rh(acac)(1,5-C₈H₁₂)],²³ $[Rh(\mu Cl)(1,5-C_8H_{12})]_2$, or $[Rh(\eta^3-C_3H_5)_3]_2$. Phosphine ligands were shown to affect the reactivity of Rh NPs in hydrogenation^{26,27} and hydroformylation catalysis.²⁸ Apart from usual ligands to stabilize metal NPs, one can envisage to use metal-containing ligands. This can be of interest in order to introduce novel properties such as redox surface modulation and also more functionality. 29,30 One application could be tandem catalysis for instance. One strategy to achieve this objective is to consider metal-containing ligands with functional groups able to interact with the metal surface such as phosphine groups.31 To this end, we chose to test ferrocene-based phosphine ligands because these compounds have several attractive properties: they are stable, they may feature planar chirality with potential interest in materials chemistry, 32 especially in asymmetric catalysis, 33-35 and they possess a redox-active ferrocene moiety which may be exploited for switchable catalysis. 36-38 For instance, 1,2-disubstituted ferrocene phosphines play a major role in several asymmetric catalysis applications. Various examples including bidendate (P,P), 39 (P,N), 40 (P, S), 41-43 (P,O) 44-47 and (P, carbene) 8 compounds have been reported, illustrating the great modularity of this family of ligands. To the best of our knowledge there is no previous example of the use of such ligands for the stabilization of metal nanoparticles.

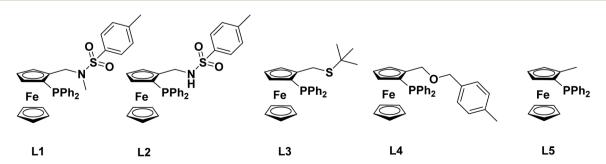
In the present work we have focused on a series of racemic ferrocenylphosphine ligands as stabilizing agents for rhodium nanoparticles obtained by a one-pot synthesis from $[Rh(\eta^3-C_3H_5)_3]$. As will be described hereafter, a series of small rhodium nanoparticles in a size range between 1.1 and 1.7 nm have been obtained and these were shown to be active for a model catalytic reaction, namely the hydrogenation of styrene.

Results and discussion

The first objective of this work was to take benefit of previous results in the organometallic synthesis of phosphine-stabilized rhodium nanoparticles, achieved from the $[Rh(\eta^3\text{-}C_3H_5)_3]$ complex as the metal source and simple mono- or di-substituted phosphines as stabilizers, 26,28 in order to prepare a new family of Rh NPs by the same approach but using ferrocenyl phosphines. With ferrocene-based-phosphine-capped Rh NPs in hand, a second objective was to test their catalytic activity in a benchmark hydrogenation process, the hydrogenation of styrene, in order to evaluate the influence of the capping ligands at the rhodium surface.

All the ligands employed in this study (Scheme 1) are ferrocenyl diphenyl phosphines bearing different substituted methyl groups at the 2 position. L1 and L2 are both P,N bidendate ligands. ⁴⁹ In L1 the amine is tertiary with an extra methyl substituent on the nitrogen atom, whereas L2 contains a secondary amine. Ligands L3 ⁵⁰ and L4 ⁴⁵ are respectively P,S and P,O bidendate ligands. L5 is the simplest ligand of the series, the only monodentate one, having a methyl group at the ferrocenyl 2 position.

The synthesis of the NPs was performed in one pot using dichloromethane (CH₂Cl₂) as the solvent in order to ensure the solubility of both the $[Rh(\eta^3-C_3H_5)_3]$ complex and the ferrocenyl phosphine ligands. Thus, a Fischer-Porter reactor filled with a CH_2Cl_2 solution containing both $[Rh(\eta^3-C_3H_5)_3]$ and a given ferrocenyl ligand was pressurized with 3 bar of dihydrogen and then heated at 40 °C, under vigorous stirring (Scheme 2). A change of color from a yellow homogeneous solution to a black colloidal suspension was observed over a few hours of stirring, but the reaction was kept running up to 16 h to ensure complete decomposition of the precursor and the formation of a homogeneous population of particles. For the four ligands L1, L2, L3 and L4, a [ligand]/[Rh] ratio of 0.2 molar equivalents was used. These ligands, being bidentate, offer an extra coordination through the second donor group, for an effective [donor]/[metal] ratio of 0.4. For ligand L5, which is monodentate, a molar [ligand]/[Rh] ratio of 0.4 was applied for comparison purposes. These [ligand]/[Rh] ratios appeared to be sufficient to yield stable colloidal suspensions for several weeks under an argon atmosphere. This is particu-



Scheme 1 Ferrocenyl phosphine ligands used for the synthesis of RhNPs.

Dalton Transactions Paper

Scheme 2 On-pot synthesis of ferrocenylphosphine-capped Rh NPs.

larly important to note when considering that the L5 ligand has only one -PPh2 coordinating group. Indeed, when PPh3 was used as a stabilizer, a minimum [ligand]/[Rh] ratio of 1 was necessary to reproducibly yield stable colloidal suspensions of small Rh NPs (ca. 1.3 nm).26 For comparison, the bidentate Ph₂P-(CH₂)₄-PPh₂ ligand led to stable Rh NPs at a [ligand]/[Rh] ratio of 0.3 molar equivalents, which amounts to a [donor]/[Rh] ratio of 0.6. Consequently, the bidendate phosphino-ferrocenyl ligands used here behave as efficient stabilizers at lower [ligand]/[Rh] ratios compared to the previously studied similar mono- and diphosphane ligands. The purification of the particles was performed by precipitation after addition of cold pentane to the concentrated colloidal suspensions. The generated black precipitates were isolated by decanting off the solvents, washing and drying under vacuum, leading to dried nanoparticle powders.

TEM images recorded from samples prepared by deposition of a few drops of the crude colloidal suspensions onto a carbon-covered copper grid showed well-dispersed NPs for all the systems studied. They present spherical shapes and quite narrow size distribution, in a size range between 1 and 2 nm (Fig. 1), with mean diameters as follows: 1.5 \pm 0.6 nm for Rh@L1 NPs, 1.7 ± 0.5 nm for Rh@L2 NPs, 1.3 ± 0.7 nm for Rh@L3 NPs, 1.1 ± 0.5 nm for Rh@L4 NPs, and 1.2 ± 0.6 nm for Rh@L5 NPs.

The L2- and L5-stabilized nanoparticles were investigated in greater detail in order to learn more about the effect of a second donor function. Thus, Rh@L2 NPs and Rh@L5 NPs were also characterized by high resolution electron microscopy (HREM). In addition to isolated nanoparticles, the HREM images of the L2-stabilized Rh NPs also revealed the presence of large agglomerates (Fig. 2 top), which appeared to be composed of small and spherical particles gathered together. The isolated particles displayed crystalline regions with interplanar distances of 0.22 nm, in good agreement with the fcc structure (face-centered cubic) previously observed for similarly prepared Rh nanoparticles and for bulk rhodium.²⁶ In the case of L5-stabilized Rh NPs no agglomerates were observed. These latter NPs were poorly crystallized with only a few of them displaying crystalline planes. Moreover, the measured Rh-Rh distances did not fit with that of fcc bulk rhodium (Fig. 2

bottom). Such a phenomenon was previously observed for PPh₃-stabilized RhNPs and explained as the result of a strong coordinating effect of the phosphine ligand.²⁶

For the Rh@L2 powder, WAXS (Wide-Angle X-ray Scattering) data revealed well-crystallized particles and confirmed their fcc crystalline structure as for the bulk metal. From the RDF, the coherence length reached 3.5-4.0 nm, much more than the average diameter of ca. 1.7 \pm 0.5 nm determined from the TEM images (Fig. 3 top). However, the envelope of the RDF, related to the size and shape of the objects, is not consistent with single-size spherical NPs but suggests a mixture with a majority of relatively small NPs (ca. 2.0 nm) and a small proportion of much larger ones (up to 4.0 nm). This may be related to a partial coalescence of the small NPs occurring in the agglomerated parts of the sample. For the Rh@L5 sample (Fig. 3 bottom), the RDF (Radial Distribution Function) indicated a much smaller coherence length of ca. 1.3 nm, which is in good agreement with the size measured by TEM $(1.2 \pm 0.6 \text{ nm})$. These particles, however, appeared less crystalline and displayed a very different pattern in reciprocal space from that of the fcc network, but in good agreement with the manganese-β structure (ICSD 41775, PDF 33-887) already observed for very small Rh NPs.26,51 These WAXS results suggest that ligand L5 has a stronger influence than ligand L2 on the crystallization state of the particles.

Purified samples of L2- and L5-stabilized Rh NPs were also analyzed by Fourier transform infrared (FT-IR) spectroscopy before and after exposure to a CO atmosphere (1 bar; 48 h) in the solid state. This investigation provided information on the coordination ability of CO molecules on the rhodium surface. Similar analyses have been previously reported for Ru⁵² and Rh⁵³ NPs. The obtained spectra (KBr pellets) are given in Fig. 4 and 5 for the L2- and L5-stabilized Rh NPs, respectively. In the case of Rh@L5 NPs, the FT-IR spectrum recorded after 48 h of reaction with CO (Fig. 4b) revealed the presence of complex bands in the region between 2050 cm⁻¹ and 1550 cm⁻¹ in addition to those already present before CO exposure (Fig. 4a). The large and intense band at ca. 1990 cm⁻¹ can be attributed to the stretching vibrations of CO ligands adopting a terminal coordination mode. The higher frequency shoulder at ca. 2020 cm⁻¹ is attributable to the CO ligands bonded in a

Paper



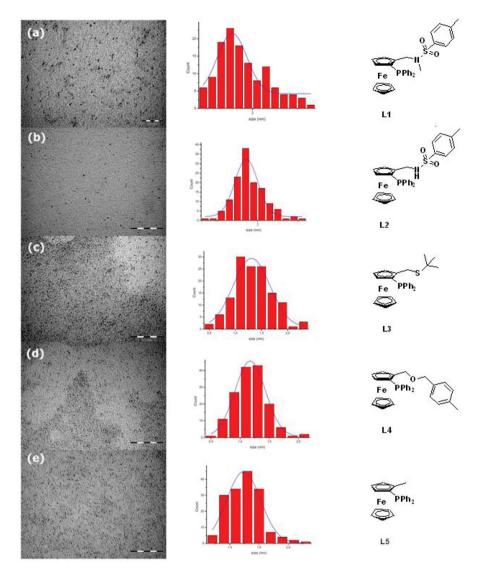


Fig. 1 (a) TEM images and corresponding size distributions of Rh NPs stabilized with L1, (b) L2, (c) L3, (d) L4, and (e) L5.

geminal or multicarbonyl mode. Finally the band at 1800 cm⁻¹ can be attributed to the standard bridging coordination mode. The high intensity of the band at 1990 cm⁻¹ indicates that terminal CO molecules are abundant. It is generally accepted that this type of coordination occurs on the edges and corners of the particle surface while the bridging coordination mode occurs on the extended faces of the particles.^{54,55} Given that ligand L5 allows the CO coordination in all possible coordination modes and that the quantity of terminal CO is high, one can conclude that the metal surface remains relatively accessible with this ligand.

Conversely, exposure of Rh@L2 to CO yields only one new and very low intensity band at 1924 cm⁻¹ (Fig. 5), suggesting a much more limited access for the CO molecules to the metal surface in this case. This effect may result from a tighter L2 coordination, probably induced by the bidentate character of L2 and possibly also by a larger covering of the particle surface by L2 relative to L5.

In summary, the FT-IR data suggest that the L2 ligand has a stronger steric effect on the RhNP surface covering than the L5 one. This can be attributed to the different coordination modes at the NP surface which can result from the different bonding modes (bidentate vs. monodentate). Consequently, a greater fraction of Rh free sites are probably available in the case of Rh@L5 NPs than in the case of Rh@L2 NPs.

Rhodium nanoparticles stabilized with ligands L2 and L5 were then evaluated in the catalytic hydrogenation of styrene, in order to assess the ligand effect in this simple model reaction. Hydrogenation reactions were performed at room temperature in an autoclave under a 30-bar H2 pressure, using isopropanol as a solvent. The activity was determined by GC analysis after 24 h of reaction. The obtained results are summarized in Table 1.

In all cases, the styrene substrate reached full conversion. In the absence of a base and with a 0.7% or 0.2% molar percent of L2-stabilized Rh NPs (entries 1 and 2, respectively),

Dalton Transactions Paper

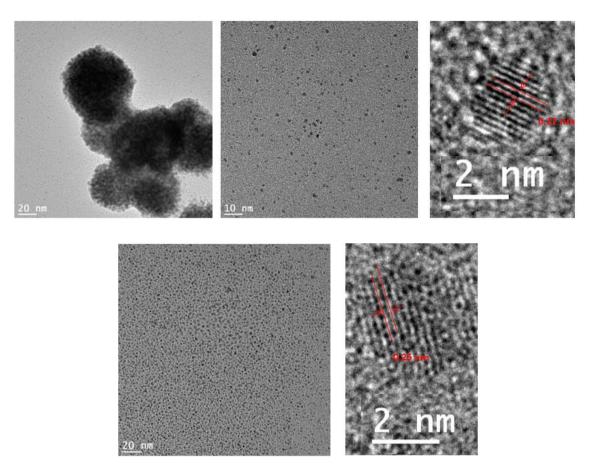


Fig. 2 HREM images of L2-stabilized Rh NPs (top) and L5-stabilized Rh NPs (bottom) at different magnifications.

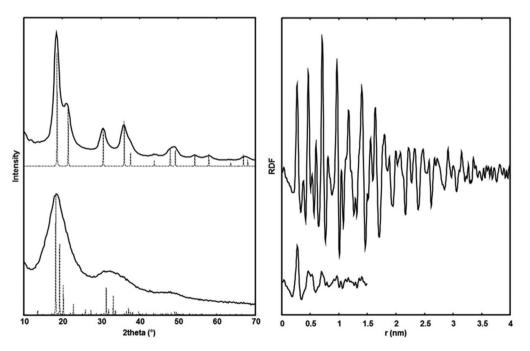


Fig. 3 WAXS measurements (solid line) for L2-stabilized Rh NPs (top) and L5-stabilized Rh NPs (bottom) in reciprocal space (left, with reference diagrams for Rh in the fcc and manganese- β structures, dashed line) and real space (right).

Paper Dalton Transactions

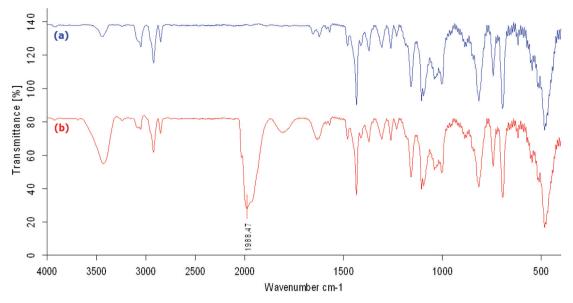


Fig. 4 (a) FT-IR spectrum of L5-stabilized Rh NPs and (b) FT-IR spectrum of L5-stabilized Rh NPs after 48 h under 1 bar of CO.

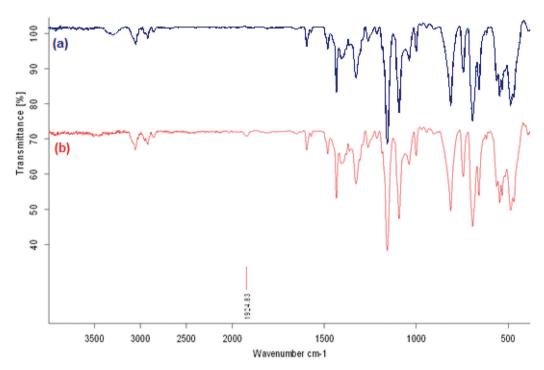


Fig. 5 (a) FT-IR spectrum of purified L2-stabilized Rh NPs and (b) FT-IR spectrum of L2-stabilized Rh NPs after 48 h under 1 bar of CO.

ethylbenzene (P1) was the major product but formation of the complete hydrogenation product (ethylcyclohexane, P2) was also observed. The ethylcyclohexane yield increased from 2 to 8% by increasing the catalyst loading from 0.2 to 0.7 mol%. The putative product of selective arene hydrogenation, vinylcyclohexane, was never observed. These results suggest a sequential reaction with initial reduction of the vinyl function to ethylbenzene, followed by a slower arene ring reduction to ethylcyclohexane. To confirm this hypothesis, an independent

ethyl benzene reduction was carried out under similar conditions (entry 5), yielding 6% of P2 (similar to the results obtained in entry 1). These reactions were repeated in the presence of excess NaOMe (7–8 equivalents relative to Rh, entries 3, 4 and 6). While the styrene consumption remained complete, the formation of the total reduction product P2 was no longer observed. Thus, the base prevents the arene hydrogenation favoring the selective formation of ethylbenzene (P1).

Table 1 Styrene and ethyl-benzene hydrogenation using L2- and L5-stabilized Rh NPs under 30 bar of H₂ at R.T

Entry	Catalyst	Substrate	$n_{ m Substrate}$	S/C^a	Catalyst ^b (%)	$n_{\mathrm{base}}/n_{\mathrm{Rh}}$	Styrene (%)	P1 (%)	P2 (%)	TON
1	L2 Rh NPs	Styrene	0.0005	146	0.7	0	0	92	8	146
2		Styrene	0.0015	439	0.2	0	0	98	2	439
3		Styrene	0.0005	146	0.7	7	0	>99	<1	146
4		Styrene	0.0015	439	0.2	8	0	>99	<1	439
5		Ethyl-benzene	0.0005	144	0.7	0	_	94	6	144
6		Ethyl-benzene	0.0005	144	0.7	7	_	>99	<1	144
7	L5 Rh NPs	Styrene	0.0005	252	0.4	0	0	90	10	252
8		Styrene	0.0015	756	0.1	0	0	97	3	756
9		Styrene	0.0005	252	0.4	14	0	98	2	252
10		Styrene	0.0015	756	0.1	16	0	>99	<1	756
11		Ethyl-benzene	0.0005	247	0.4	0	_	81	19	247
12		Ethyl-benzene	0.0005	247	0.4	15	_	99	1	247

^a Substrate to rhodium molar ratio. ^b mol%.

Similar results were observed when using the L5-stabilized Rh NPs. Reactions performed with 0.4 and 0.1 molar % of Rh (entries 7 and 8) gave 10% and 3% of the fully hydrogenated product (P2), and 90% and 97% of ethylbenzene (P1), respectively. The P2 yield increased at higher catalyst loading, as observed with the L2-stabilized Rh NPs. When NaOMe was added (entries 9 and 10) the P2 yield dramatically decreased.

A comparison of entries 5 and 11 shows that Rh@L5 exhibits a greater activity than Rh@L2 for the arene ring hydrogenation, which can be correlated with the FT-IR suggestion of a more accessible surface for the former catalyst. Deeper mechanistic investigations will be necessary to understand how the presence of the base prevents arene reduction.

Conclusion

Ferrocene-based ligands, namely ferrocenyldiphenylphosphines, have been reported here for the first time as stabilizers for the synthesis of metal nanoparticles. The Rh nanoparticles formed with these ligands have a well-controlled size and are quite small (1-2 nm range). The FT-IR study after exposure to a CO atmosphere has shown that the surface covering effect of the bidentate L2 ligand is greater than that of the monodentate L5 ligand. These NPs were found catalytically active in the hydrogenation of a model substrate, namely styrene, under very mild reaction conditions in spite of the surface coverage by the ligands. In addition, we have discovered that NaOMe greatly inhibits the hydrogenation of the phenyl ring. This inhibition is, to the best of our knowledge, unprecedented. No significant differences in selectivity were observed using mono- and bidentate ligands, but the NPs stabilized by the monodentate ligand L5 are more active than

those stabilized by the bidentate ligand L2 in arene hydrogenation of ethylbenzene, in accordance with the lower efficiency of L5 to cover the nanoparticle surface. Deeper investigations will be necessary for a better understanding of the reaction mechanism and product selectivity.

Experimental part

General and materials

Chemicals were purchased as follows: dichloromethane (CH₂Cl₂) and pentane from SDS; RhCl₃·xH₂O from Johnson Matthey; [CH₂=CHCH₂MgCl], P(NMe₂)₃ and BH₃·THF (1 M solution in THF) from Sigma Aldrich; and H₂ from Air Liquide. Solvents were purified before use by filtration on an adequate column of a MBraun purification apparatus and handled under an argon atmosphere. All reagents were used without purification. Reagents and solvents were degassed before use according to a freeze-pump-thaw process. All operations concerning the synthesis of the Rh precursor and Rh nanoparticles or the preparation of samples for characterization were carried out using standard Schlenk tubes and Fischer-Porter bottle techniques or in a glove-box (MBraun) under an argon atmosphere.

Characterization techniques

Transmission electron microscopy observations at low (TEM) and high resolution (HREM) were made at the "Centre de microcaractérisation Raymond Castaing" in Toulouse (UMS-CNRS 3623). TEM grids were prepared by drop-casting of the crude colloidal suspension in CH₂Cl₂ onto a holey carbon-coated copper grid under an argon atmosphere inside a glove-box. TEM images were obtained using either a JEOL 1100 elec-

Paper Dalton Transactions

tron microscope operating at 100 kV with a point resolution of 4.5 Å or a JEOL JEM 1400 operating at 120 kV with a point resolution of 4.5 Å. HTEM observations were made with a JEOL JEM 2010 electron microscope working at 200 kV with a point resolution of 2.3 Å and in EDS (Energy Dispersive X-ray Spectroscopy) mode. Statistical size distributions were determined by analyzing TEM images with the Image J tool software, counting mean diameters of >200 non-touching particles and assuming a spherical form. Size distributions are quoted as the mean diameter \pm the double of the standard deviation (σ) which corresponds to a 95% confidence level. Fourier Fast Transform treatments were carried out with the Digital Micrograph Software (Version 1.80.70).

Wide-angle X-ray scattering (WAXS) measurements were performed at the CEMES-CNRS in Toulouse. Samples in the solid state were sealed in 1.5 mm diameter Lindemann glass capillaries. The samples were irradiated with graphite monochromatized molybdenum $K\alpha$ (0.071069 nm) radiation and the X-ray scattering intensity measurements were performed using a dedicated two-axis diffractometer. Radial distribution functions (RDF) were obtained after Fourier transformation of the corrected and reduced data.

Infrared spectroscopy. Fourier Transform Infrared (FT-IR) spectra of L2- and L5-stabilized RhNPs were recorded in the range 4000–400 cm⁻¹ under an argon atmosphere using a PerkinElmer GX2000 spectrometer installed inside a glovebox. First, the spectra of the purified NPs (KBr pellets prepared in the glove box) were recorded. Second, powders of purified nanoparticles were exposed to a CO atmosphere (1 bar; 48 h) inside a Fischer–Porter reactor. After evacuation of excess CO, novel FT-IR spectra were recorded (KBr pellets).

ICP OES and elemental analyses. ICP OES analyses were performed at the "Service d'analyse élémentaire" of LCC-CNRS in Toulouse using a Thermo Scientific iCAP 6300 DUO spectrometer with a 3-channel, 12-roller pump, and a 27.12 MHz solid state RF plasma generator. Mineralization of the NPs was performed in a refluxing aqua regia solution.

Synthesis methods

Synthesis of the $[Rh(\eta^3-C_3H_5)_3]$ complex. $[Rh(\eta^3-C_3H_5)_3]$ was prepared according to a slightly improved method from the literature.⁵⁶ A THF solution (140 mL) of RhCl₃·xH₂O (1.5 g; 7.2 mmol) was reacted with allylmagnesium chloride (36 mL of a THF solution at 2 mol L⁻¹; 71.6 mmol) under an inert atmosphere with vigorous stirring at −10 °C for 1 h and then at 10 °C for 16 h. During this time, the solution color changed from red to yellow. Solvent removal under reduced pressure led to a solid, which was dissolved in pentane leading to a yellow solution. After filtration through Celite, pentane was evaporated under reduced pressure and the resulting yellow solid was purified by sublimation at 40 °C. Yellow crystals (660 mg, 41% yield) of $[Rh(\eta^3-C_3H_5)_3]$ were collected and stored under an argon atmosphere at low temperature. ¹H NMR and elemental data were found identical to those from the literature.

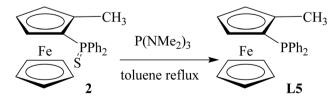
Synthesis of phosphino-ferrocenyl ligands. Ligands L1 and L2, 49 L3 50 and L4 45 were prepared according to published methods. Racemic (2-(diphenylthiophosphino)ferrocenyl) methanol (1) was synthesized by optimizing a literature procedure from N_iN -dimethylaminomethylferrocene. 57,58

Synthesis of (2-(diphenylthiophosphino)ferrocenyl)methane 2. (2-(Diphenylthiophosphino)ferrocenyl)methane 2 was synthesized from alcohol 1 by adaptation of a published procedure:⁵⁹

In a Schlenk tube, alcohol 1 (500 mg, 1.16 mmol) was dissolved in 6 mL of anhydrous THF under argon. A BH3·THF 1 M solution in THF (5 mL, 5 mmol) was then added with a syringe. The reaction mixture was stirred at THF reflux for 70 h. After cooling to r.t., the Schlenk tube was opened to air and water was slowly added (warning: an abundant gas evolution occurred), leading to the formation of an orange precipitate. After THF evaporation on the vacuum line, 10 mL of dichloromethane was added for full dissolution of the orange precipitate. The remaining aqueous solution was then extracted two times with 5 mL of dichloromethane. The combined organic solutions were dried on anhydrous sodium sulfate and purified, after evaporation, by flash chromatography on silicagel using pentane/dichloromethane (50/50, v/v) as the eluent to yield, after solvent evaporation, 470 mg (98% yield) of compound 2 as a yellow solid.

³¹P NMR (162 MHz, CDCl₃), δ: 42.3. ¹H NMR (400 MHz, CDCl₃), δ: 2.17 (s, 3H, CH₃), 3.67 (m, 1H, subst Cp), 4.22 (m, 1H, subst Cp), 4.34 (s, 5H, Cp), 4.43 (m, 1H, subst Cp), 7.35–7.55 (m, 6H, Ar), 7.63 (m, 2H, Ar), 7.81 (m, 2H, Ar). ¹³C (H) NMR (100 MHz, CDCl₃), δ: 14.3 (CH₃), 68.2 (d, $J_{C-P} = 10.5$ Hz, subst Cp), 70.7 (s, Cp), 74.1 (d, $J_{C-P} = 13.2$ Hz, subst Cp), 74.34 (d, $J_{C-P} = 96.1$ Hz, quat Cp), 74.36 (d, $J_{C-P} = 9.9$ Hz, subst Cp), 88.7 (d, $J_{C-P} = 12.4$ Hz, quat Cp), 128.0 (d, $J_{C-P} = 12.4$ Hz, Ar), 131.15 (d, $J_{C-P} = 2.6$ Hz, Ar), 131.18 (d, $J_{C-P} = 2.6$ Hz, Ar), 131.9 (d, $J_{C-P} = 10.9$ Hz, Ar), 132.0 (d, $J_{C-P} = 86.4$ Hz, Ar), 133.7 (d, $J_{C-P} = 86.0$ Hz, quat Ar), 134.8 (d, $J_{C-P} = 86.4$ Hz, quat Ar). HRMS (ESI +) m/z: 417.0522 (M + H, 100%; calcd for C₂₃H₂₂FePS: 417.0529).

Synthesis of (2-(diphenylphosphino)ferrocenyl)methane L5.



(2-(Diphenylphosphino)ferrocenyl)methane L5 was synthesized from compound 2 by deprotection of the phosphino group following a published procedure:⁶⁰ in a Schlenk tube

Dalton Transactions Paper

under argon, compound 2 (470 mg, 1.13 mmol) was dissolved in 40 mL of toluene. The reaction mixture was stirred at toluene reflux overnight and purified by flash chromatography on silicagel under argon using pentane/dichloromethane (50/50, v/v) as the eluent to yield, after solvent evaporation, 421 mg (97% yield) of compound 3 as a yellow solid.

³¹P NMR (162 MHz, CDCl₃), δ : -21.7. ¹H NMR (400 MHz, CDCl₃), δ : 2.08 (s, 3H, CH₃), 3.62 (m, 1H, subst Cp), 4.07 (s, 5H, Cp), 4.20 (m, 1H, subst Cp), 4.38 (m, 1H, subst Cp), 7.2-7.15 (m, 2H, Ar), 7.3-7.25 (m, 3H, Ar), 7.35-7.45 (m, 3H, Ar), 7.55–7.60 (m, 2H, Ar). $^{13}C\{^{1}H\}$ NMR (100 MHz, CDCl₃), δ : 14.0 (d, J_{C-P} = 10.0 Hz, CH₃), 68.3 (s, subst Cp), 69.7 (s, Cp), 70.4 (d, J_{C-P} = 3.6 Hz, subst Cp), 72.3 (d, J_{C-P} = 3.8 Hz, subst Cp), 75.7 (d, J_{C-P} = 4.3 Hz, quat Cp), 89.4 (d, J_{C-P} = 25.0 Hz, quat Cp), 127.8 (s, Ar), 128.14 (d, J_{C-P} = 7.7 Hz, Ar), 128.17 (d, $J_{C-P} = 5.9 \text{ Hz}, \text{ Ar}$, 129.0 (s, Ar), 132.2 (d, $J_{C-P} = 18.0 \text{ Hz}, \text{ Ar}$), 134.9 (d, J_{C-P} = 20.7 Hz, Ar), 137.6 (d, J_{C-P} = 8.8 Hz, quat Ar), 139.7 (d, J_{C-P} = 10.9 Hz, quat Ar).

Synthesis of ferrocenylphosphine-capped Rh NPs. In a general procedure, 150 mg of $[Rh(\eta^3-C_3H_5)_3]$ (0.66 mmol) were introduced under an argon atmosphere in a Fischer-Porter reactor. After 0.5 h under vacuum at r.t. and cooling to 193 K, a CH₂Cl₂ solution (150 mL) containing 0.2 molar equivalents of the chosen ligand (L1, L2, L3 or L4) or 0.4 molar equivalents of L5 was added. The reaction medium was then allowed to warm up to r.t. before adding dihydrogen (3 bar) and then introduced in an oil bath preheated at 313 K for 16 h. After cooling to r.t., the remaining dihydrogen was vented and the volume of the solution was reduced to approximately 10 mL under reduced pressure before its transfer into a solution of deoxygenated cold pentane (100 mL), generating the product as a black precipitate. After filtration and pentane washing processes the RhNPs were collected in the form of a fine powder. ICP OES analysis: for L2-stabilized RhNPs: Rh: 29.3 wt%; for L5-stabilized RhNPs: Rh: 22.7 wt%.

Catalysis studies

In a glove-box, a Schlenk tube was charged with 12 mg of rhodium NPs. Then, 15 mL of dry degassed isopropanol and 500 µL (2.2 mmol) of dodecane (internal reference) were added to generate a stock of the colloidal suspension of the catalyst. A portion of the catalyst suspension (1.5 mL) was transferred into a 5 mL glass vial (pre-charged with the desired amount of the styrene or ethylbenzene substrate and NaOMe), which was then placed into a stainless steel autoclave. The reaction vessel was pressurized with 30 bar of H2 and stirred with a magnetic bar for 24 h at r.t. The reaction was stopped by the release of the H₂ pressure and quenched with 2 mL of CH₂Cl₂, followed by filtration through silica gel. The product was finally analyzed by GC (Shimadzu 2014) using a SLBTM 5 ms Capillary Column.

Conflicts of interest

There are no conflicts to declare.

Acknowledgements

Financial support by the Centre National de la Recherche (CNRS) and the University Paul Sabatier - Toulouse is gratefully acknowledged. M. Ibrahim thanks the University Paul Sabatier - Toulouse for a MESR PhD grant, M.-M. Wei thanks the CNRS and the Midi-Pyrénées Region for a PhD grant.

References

- 1 Physics and Chemistry of Metal Cluster Compounds, ed. L. J. de Jongh, Kluwer Academic Publishers, Dordrecht, 1994.
- 2 Introduction to Nanotechnology, in Nanoscale Materials in Chemistry, ed. K. J. Klabunde, John Wiley & Sons, Inc.,
- 3 Nanoparticles: From Theory to Application, ed. G. Schmid, Wiley-VCH, Weinheim, 2nd edn, 2012.
- 4 J. E. Mondloch, E. Bayram and R. G. Finke, J. Mol. Catal. A: Chem., 2012, 355, 1-38.
- 5 F. Schüth, Angew. Chem., Int. Ed., 2014, 53, 8599-8604.
- 6 Concepts in Nanocatalysis, ed. K. Philippot and P. Serp, Wiley-VCH, Weinheim, 2013.
- 7 A. Roucoux, J. Schulz and H. Patin, Chem. Rev., 2002, **10**(102), 3757-3778.
- 8 Nanocatalysis, ed. U. Heiz and U. Landman, Springer, 2007.
- 9 Nanoparticles in catalysis, ed. D. Astruc, Wiley-VCH, Weinheim, 2008.
- 10 Metal Nanoparticles for Catalysis: Advances and Applications, ed. T. Tao, RSC, 2014.
- 11 M. J. L. Tschan, O. Diebolt and P. W. N. M. van Leeuwen, Top. Catal., 2014, 57, 1054-1065.
- 12 S. Mozaffari, W. Li, C. Thompson, S. A. Ivanov, S. Seifert, B. Lee, L. Kovarik and A. M. Karim, Nanoscale, 2017, 36(9), 13772-13785.
- 13 J. E. Mondloch, S. Ozkar and R. G. Finke, ACS Omega, 2018, **11**(3), 14538–14550.
- 14 N. J. S. Costa and L. M. Rossi, Nanoscale, 2012, 4, 5826-
- 15 Y. Yuan, N. Yan and P. J. Dyson, ACS Catal., 2012, 2, 1057-
- 16 L. Yin and M. A. El-Sayed, J. Phys. Chem. B, 2001, 37, 8938-8943.
- 17 R. R. Dykeman, N. Yan, R. Scopelliti and P. J. Dyson, Inorg. Chem., 2011, 50(3), 717-719.
- 18 D. Gonzalez-Galvez, P. Nolis, K. Philippot, B. Chaudret and P. van Leeuwen, ACS Catal., 2012, 2(3), 317-321.
- 19 S. A. Stratton, K. L. Luska and A. Moores, Catal. Today, 2012, 183(1), 96-100.
- 20 H.-J. Freund and G. A. Somorjai, Catal. Lett., 2015, 145, 1-2.
- 21 C. Amiens, D. Ciuculescu-Pradines and K. Philippot, Coord. Chem. Rev., 2016, 308, 409-432.
- 22 K. Philippot, P. Lignier and B. Chaudret, Organometallic Ruthenium Nanoparticles and Catalysis, in Ruthenium in

Paper

catalysis 2014, ed. C. Bruneau and P. H. Dixneuf, Wiley VCH, Weinheim, Top. Organomet, Chem., 2014, vol. 48.

- VCH, Weinheim, Top. Organomet. Chem., 2014, vol. 48, pp. 319–370.
- 23 E. Ramírez-Meneses, Synthèse et caractérisation de nanoparticules métalliques à base de rodhium, platine et palladium, stabilisés par des ligands, University of Toulouse, 2004.
- 24 S. Mavila, C. E. Diesendruck, S. Linde, L. Amir, R. Shikler and N. Gabriel Lemcoff, *Angew. Chem., Int. Ed.*, 2013, **52**, 5767–5770.
- 25 E. Ramírez-Meneses, K. Philippot, M. A. Domínguez-Crespo, M. Ibrahim, I. Betancourt, A. M. Torres Huerta, A. Ezeta-Mejia and L. Palacios-Romero, *J. Mater. Sci.*, 2018, 53(12), 8933–8950.
- 26 M. Ibrahim, M. A. S. Garcia, L. Vono, M. Guerrero, P. Lecante, L. Rossi and K. Philippot, *Dalton Trans.*, 2016, 17782–17791.
- 27 J. Llop Castelbou, E. Bresó-Femenia, P. Blondeau, B. Chaudret, S. Castillón, C. Claver and C. Godard, ChemCatChem, 2014, 6, 3160–3168.
- 28 M. A. S. Garcia, M. Ibrahim, J. C. S. Costa, P. Corio, E. V. Gusevskaya, E. N. dos Santos, K. Philippot and L. M. Rossi, Appl. Catal., A, 2017, 548, 136–142.
- 29 K. M. Roth, A. A. Yasseri, Z. Liu, R. B. Dabke, V. Malinovskii, K.-H. Schweikart, L. Yu, H. Tiznado, F. Zaera, J. S. Lindsey, W. G. Kuhr and D. F. Bocian, *J. Am. Chem. Soc.*, 2003, 125(2), 505–517.
- 30 X. Su and T. A. Hatton, Adv. Colloid Interface Sci., 2017, 244, 6-20.
- 31 J. De Tovar, N. Romero, S. Denisov, R. Bofill, C. Gimbert-Suriñach, D. Ciuculescu-Pradines, S. Drouet, A. Llobet, P. Lecante, V. Colliere, Z. Freixa, N. McClenaghan, C. Amiens, J. García-Antón, K. Philippot and X. Sala, *Mater. Today Energy*, 2018, 9, 506–515.
- 32 G. G. A. Balavoine, J.-C. Daran, G. Iftime, P. G. Lacroix, E. Manoury, J. A. Delaire, I. Maltey-Fenton, K. Nakatani and S. Di Bella, *Organometallics*, 1999, (18), 21–29.
- 33 W. Chen and H.-U. Blaser, in *Phosphorus Ligands in Asymmetric Catalysis*, ed. A. Börner, Wiley-VCH, Weinheim, 2008, pp. 345–359.
- 34 R. Gómez Arrayás, J. Adrio and J. C. Carretero, *Angew. Chem., Int. Ed.*, 2006, (45), 7674–7715.
- 35 S. Toma, J. Csizmadiova, M. Meciarova and R. Sebesta, *Dalton Trans.*, 2014, (43), 16557–16579.
- 36 V. Blanco, D. A. Leigh and V. Marcost, *Chem. Soc. Rev.*, 2015, (44), 5341–5370.
- 37 A. Feyrer, M. K. Armbruster, K. Fink and F. Breher, *Chem. Eur. J.*, 2017, (23), 7402–7408.
- 38 J. Choudhury, Tetrahedron Lett., 2018, (59), 487-495.
- 39 T. J. Colacot, Chem. Rev., 2013, (103), 3101-3118.
- 40 H. A. McManus and P. J. Guiry, *Chem. Rev.*, 2004, (104), 4151–4202.
- 41 M. Mellah, A. Voituriez and E. Schulz, *Chem. Rev.*, 2007, (107), 5133–5209.

- 42 H. Pellissier, Tetrahedron, 2007, (63), 1297-1330.
- 43 R. Malacea and E. Manoury, in "Phosphorus Ligands in Asymmetric Catalysis", ed. A. Börner, Wiley-VCH, Weinheim, Germany, 2008, pp. 749–784.
- 44 N. Mateus, L. Routaboul, J.-C. Daran and E. Manoury, *J. Organomet. Chem.*, 2006, (691), 2297–2310.
- 45 C. Audin, J.-C. Daran, E. Deydier, E. Manoury and R. Poli, C. R. Chim., 2010, (13), 890–899.
- 46 S. Bayda, A. Cassen, J.-C. Daran, C. Audin, R. Poli, E. Manoury and E. Deydier, *J. Organomet. Chem.*, 2014, (772–773), 258–264.
- 47 A. Karpus, O. Yesypenko, V. Boiko, R. Poli, J.-C. Daran, Z. Voitenko, V. Kalchenko and E. Manoury, Eur. J. Org. Chem., 2016, (20), 3386–3394.
- 48 K. Yoshida and R. Yasue, *Chem. Eur. J.*, 2018, (24), 18575–18586.
- 49 M.-M. Wei, M. García-Melchor, A. Lledós, C. Audin, J.-C. Daran, R. Poli, E. Deydier and E. Manoury, Organometallics, 2012, (31), 6669–6680.
- 50 L. Routaboul, S. Vincendeau, J.-C. Daran and E. Manoury, *Tetrahedron: Asymmetry*, 2005, (16), 2685–2690.
- 51 R. Choukroun, D. de Caro, B. Chaudret, P. Lecante and E. Snoeck, *New J. Chem.*, 2001, (25), 525–527.
- 52 F. Novio, D. Monahan, Y. Coppel, G. Antorrena, P. Lecante, K. Philippot and B. Chaudret, *Chem. Eur. J.*, 2014, 5(20), 1287–1297.
- 53 M. Ibrahim, *Rhodium Based Mono- and Bi-Metallic Nanoparticles: Synthesis, Characterization and Application in Catalysis*, Université fédérale de Toulouse-Paul Sabatier, 2016.
- 54 J. S. Bradley, J. M. Millar, E. W. Hill and S. Behal, *J. Catal.*, 1991, (129), 530–539.
- 55 J. S. Bradley, J. M. Millar, E. W. Hill, S. Behal, C. Klein, A. Duteil and B. Chaudret, *Chem. Mater.*, 1992, (4), 1234– 1239.
- 56 R. Beckhaus, in Synthetic Methods of Organometallic and Inorganic Chemistry, ed. W. A. Herrmann, New York, 2000, vol. 9, p. 38.
- 57 T. Hayashi, T. Mise, M. Fukushima, M. Kagotani, N. Nagashima, Y. Hamada, A. Matsumoto, S. Kawakami, M. Konishi, K. Yamamoto and M. Kumada, *Bull. Chem. Soc. Jpn.*, 1980, (53), 1138–1151.
- 58 E. Manoury and R. Poli, in the Series: Catalysis by Metal Complexes (CMCO), Volume 36 (Phosphorus Chemistry: Catalysis and Material Science Applications), ed. M. Peruzzini and L. Gonsalvi, Springer Verlag, 2011, ((36)), pp. 121–149.
- 59 L. Routaboul, J. Chiffre, G. G. A. Balavoine, J.-C. Daran and E. Manoury, *J. Organomet. Chem.*, 2001, (637–639), 364– 371.
- 60 J. Lopez Cortes, O. Ramon, S. Vincendeau, D. Serra, F. Lamy, J. C. Daran, E. Manoury and M. Gouygou, Eur. J. Inorg. Chem., 2006, (24), 5148–5157.