

Gold catalysts supported on TiO₂-nanotubes for the selective hydrogenation of *p*-substituted nitrobenzenes

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ABSTRACT

Gold nanoparticles supported on titania nanotubes (TiO₂NT) were synthesized and employed as an efficient catalysts for the selective hydrogenation of nitrobenzenes. Materials characterization by N₂ adsorption-desorption isotherms, XRD, HRTEM, DRS UV–vis, and XPS revealed that structured materials with high metal dispersion were obtained. The catalytic properties of these materials were tested using nitrobenzene and eight *p*-substituted analogs as model compounds with the aim of gaining insight into the role of electron-withdrawing and electron-donating substituents on the rate and selectivity of hydrogenation to the corresponding *p*-substituted anilines. Catalytic data showed pseudo first order kinetics for all compounds, with minimum formation of reaction intermediates and absence of condensation side products. Quantum chemical computational calculations demonstrated that the experimental kinetic constants (*k*) for the series of nitrobenzenes under study were described by a multilinear regression equation using the substituent Hammet sigma constant (σ), and the calculated solvation energy of the reactants (ΔG_{solv}) as predictor variables. The catalyst activity-structure correlation revealed that electronic effects are critical for the reaction kinetics, and that electron-withdrawing groups increase the hydrogenation rates over electron-donating substituents. Solvation plays also a relevant role as less solvated species interact better with the catalyst surface and react faster than highly solvated substrates. These results are valuable to design novel efficient strategies for the selective hydrogenation of nitrocompounds.

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1. Introduction

Heterogeneous catalytic hydrogenation reactions are versatile chemical processes with a diversity of industrial applications in the production of pharmaceuticals, fine chemicals, fragrances, and agrochemicals, among others [1]. These reactions are highly selective, efficient, environmentally friendly, and cheaper compared to homogeneous procedures as the catalyst can often be recovered and recycled [2]. Currently, heterogeneous catalytic hydrogenation is the preferred choice for large scale reduction of nitrobenzenes, and 95% of the aromatic amines of industrial importance are obtained by this method, and continuous efforts are being devel-

oped in the search for novel catalyst for the efficient and selective hydrogenation of nitrocompounds [3–7].

A series of metals have been used as active phase for the reduction of nitrocompounds such as: Pd [8], Ni [9], Ir [10], Ag [11], Rh [12,13], and Au [14]. Within these species, Au nanoparticles have shown a remarkable catalytic potential due to the high affinity of this metal to the nitro group, thus providing an extraordinary ability to produce a rapid reduction to the corresponding amine with minimum traces of unwanted side products [15–20]. Further optimization of the catalytic performance of Au nanoparticles can be achieved by the physical entrapment of the active phase within nanoscale structured materials [21,22] such as metal oxide nanotubes, which have emerged as versatile platforms for catalytic and biomedical applications. Metal oxide nanotubes have gained great prominence for supporting metallic active phases due their high surface area, and fascinating electronic, magnetic, mechanical, and

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textural properties [23]. These features enable a narrow particle size distribution for the active phase and a high catalytic efficiency and selectivity, as recently reported by Duan et al. for the hydrogenation of nitrobenzene with Pd entrapped into SBA-15 [22,24]. Among metal oxide nanomaterials, titania nanotubes (TiO₂NTs) are exceptional candidates for catalytic applications due to its high chemical stability, large specific surface area, eco-friendly properties, and high surface functionality [25,26]. Additionally, TiO₂NTs provide a suitable framework for the efficient dispersion of the metal active phase [27,28]. Based on this background, the use of TiO₂NTs as support for Au nanoparticles appears as a valuable strategy to improve the catalytic performance of this metal in hydrogenation reactions of nitrobenzenes, as studied in the present report.

In this work, TiO₂NTs were prepared by hydrothermal synthesis using an alkali treatment of TiO₂ nanoparticles. This material was used to support Au nanoparticles synthesized by deposition-precipitation method. The Au-TiO₂NT system was tested as catalyst for the selective hydrogenation of a series *para*-substituted nitrobenzenes using semi-batch conditions in ethanol liquid phase [5]. Compounds under study contain electron-withdrawing and electron-donating groups in the *p*-position relative to the nitro moiety, aimed at examining the role of electronic effects on the catalytic performance of the Au-TiO₂NT system. Kinetic data (log *k*) was modeled using a multilinear regression equation, in which the Hammett's sigma constants (σ) of the *p*-substituents, and the DFT-calculated solvation energy of the reactants in ethanol were employed as predictor variables.

2. Experimental

2.1. Reagents

All reagents were purchased and used as received. The synthesis of TiO₂NTs was performed using titanium oxide anatase nanoparticles (nanopowder, particle size <25 nm, BET surface area 45–55 m² g^{−1}), sodium hydroxide (NaOH, Merck) and HNO₃ (Merck, 65%). Gold(III) chloride trihydrate (Sigma-Aldrich 99.9%), nitrobenzene (Ph-NO₂), *p*-nitrotoluene (*p*-CH₃), *p*-nitrophenol (*p*-OH, Merck), *p*-nitroaniline (*p*-NH₂, Merck), *p*-dinitrobenzene (*p*-NO₂, Sigma-Aldrich), *p*-nitrobenzonitrile (*p*-CN, Fluka), *p*-nitroanisole (*p*-OCH₃, Sigma-Aldrich), *p*-nitrobenzaldehyde (*p*-CHO) and *p*-chloronitrobenzene (*p*-Cl, Merck), absolute ethanol (Merck), and H₂ by AGA, Chile.

2.2. TiO₂NT synthesis

The synthesis of TiO₂NTs was performed using a hydrothermal process [29]. For this purpose, 2.5 g of the TiO₂ nanoparticles was dispersed in 125 mL of 10 mol·L^{−1} NaOH. The mixture was placed into a hydrothermal reactor at 110 °C for 24 h with constant agitation. After the hydrothermal treatment the solid was washed with distilled water and put in contact with a 0.10 mol·L^{−1} solution of HNO₃ overnight at room temperature. The mixture was washed and filtered with distilled water and the obtained nanotubes were dried at room temperature for the night and then at 100 °C for 12 h.

2.3. Deposition-precipitation of Au nanoparticles with NaOH at 100 °C

Gold nanoparticles synthesis was performed using a deposition-precipitation method [14]. The appropriate amount of TiO₂NT was placed in a round bottom flask together with 50 mL of water. Subsequently, the required amount of HAuCl₄ for 1.0% wt. Au was added together with a stoichiometric amount of NaOH (0.10 mol·L^{−1}). After connecting a flux of H₂ to the round bottom flask containing

the mixture, the system was heated to reflux at 80 °C under stirring until the change of color from yellow to purple. The adsorbed anionic complex [AuCl₂(OH)₂][−] was decomposed under flowing hydrogen forming Au⁰. The solid was filtered and dried for 2 h at 100 °C, and labeled as Au-TiO₂NT.

2.4. Materials characterization

The characterization of TiO₂NT and Au-TiO₂NT systems was conducted using the following techniques. N₂ adsorption-desorption isotherms were carried out in an ASAP 2010 Micromeritics apparatus. Pore-size distributions were calculated from the N₂ adsorption branch using the Barrett-Joyner-Halenda model (BJH). X-ray diffraction (XRD) was performed on a Rigaku X-ray Geigerflex diffractometer using a Ni filter and Cu K α radiation within 2–80° 2 θ range. HRTEM was performed using a Philips CM200 model high resolution electron microscope with energy dispersive analyzer and digital camera coupled to a high speed TVIPS FastScan F-114 model of 1024 × 1024 pixels and 12 bits. Metal particles were counted, and the surface area-weighted mean Au diameter (d_p) was calculated using the following equation:

$$d_p = \frac{\sum_i n_i d_i^3}{\sum_i n_i d_i^2} \quad (1)$$

UV–vis spectra of diffuse reflectance of solid state was studied in the range of 200–900 nm on a Varian Cary 3 UV–vis spectrophotometer equipped with an area of 150 mm in diameter covered with poly integration tetra-fluoroethylene (PTFE). The dust samples were mounted in a quartz cell, which provided a sample thickness greater than 3 mm and thus guaranteed “infinite” sample thickness. Chemical analysis was performed by inductively coupled plasma-mass spectrometry on an ICP-MS Spectrometer Perkin Elmer Elan 6000. Photoelectron spectra (XPS) were recorded using an Escalab 200R spectrometer provided with a hemispherical analyzer, operated in a constant pass energy mode and Mg K α X-ray radiation ($h\nu = 1253.6$ eV) operated at 10 mA and 12 kV.

2.5. Liquid phase hydrogenation of nitrobenzenes

The catalytic assays of nitrobenzenes hydrogenation were performed in a stainless steel (150 mL) Parr-type semi-batch reactor at a 25 °C using 0.100 g of catalyst and 0.02 mol·L^{−1} of nitrobenzene as model molecule in ethanol, under 40 bar hydrogen pressure. All the components (catalyst, solvent and substrate) were fed to the reactor and stirred at 700 rpm. No mass transfer resistance was found in a catalytic test established using the Madon and Boudart approach [30]. No catalytic activity for pure TiO₂NT was confirmed in a blank test. Pseudo-first-order kinetic constants (*k*) were calculated as reported in previous studies [31]. Analytical quantifications for reactants and products were analyzed by gas chromatography using a GC–MS Shimadzu GCMS-QP5050 with a capillary column β -Dex 225 (Supelco).

2.6. Solvation energy calculations

Quantum chemical computational calculations were employed to estimate the solvation energy of the series of nitrobenzenes under study. Geometry optimization and solvation energy calculations were computed under the frame of Density Functional Theory (DFT) using the Gaussian 09 program. The hybrid B3LYP functional was employed, which includes Becke's 3-parameter nonlocal-exchange functional [32] with the correlation functional of Lee et al. [33]. The basis set employed for the calculations was 6–311G(2p,2d). No symmetry constraints were applied during geometry optimization procedures. Solute solvation energies

(ΔG_s) were computed using the standard polarizable continuum model (PCM) in ethanol and expressed as the difference between the solute energy in ethanol solution and the solute energy in gas phase.

3. Results and discussion

Titanium oxide nanotubes (TiO₂NT) were employed as support for Au nanoparticles, aimed at developing a novel catalytic system for the selective reduction of a series of *p*-substituted nitrobenzenes to the corresponding anilines. TiO₂NT were synthesized following a hydrothermal procedure, whereas Au incorporation was achieved by deposition-precipitation under alkaline conditions, using NaOH as a precipitation agent. The prepared Au-TiO₂NT material was subjected to exhaustive characterization procedures as detailed next.

3.1. Morphology and textural properties of TiO₂NT and Au-TiO₂NT materials

The initial characterization of TiO₂NTs was performed by N₂ adsorption isotherms at −196 °C, which showed a typical type IV profile according to the IUPAC classification corresponding to a mesoporous material with cylindrical pores [34]. The hysteresis loop revealed the existence of large pores that are not being filled [35] and intermediate mesoporous of H1 and H3 types. The specific area calculated from the BET method was 313 m² g^{−1}, with average pore diameter of 10.2 nm determined from the BJH method, and a total pore volume of 0.66 cm³ g^{−1} measured at $P/P_0 = 0.99$. The textural properties of TiO₂NTs were considered appropriate to proceed with the incorporation of Au nanoparticles thus producing the Au-TiO₂NT system for catalytic applications. The Au content in the Au-TiO₂NT was estimated from ICP-MS analysis revealing a metal content of 0.54% wt. This amount is approximately 60% of the nominal Au content, which can be explained due to leaching of metal nanoparticles during the synthetic procedure, as reported in the literature [36].

X-ray diffraction was employed to confirm the conversion of TiO₂-anatase to TiO₂NT as shown in Fig. 1A. Characteristic diffractions lines for TiO₂-anatase phase were observed at 2θ 25.4°, 37.9° and 48.2°, whereas TiO₂NTs exhibited broader peaks, with characteristics diffraction patterns at 2θ 25°, 29.9° and 48°, which are associated to the trititanate phase of the solid [37–39]. In the case of the Au-TiO₂NT system, XRD patterns reveal that the support structure remains unaltered after the deposition of Au nanoparticles. The reflection lines of metallic Au are clear and associated to Miller indices of (1 1 1) and (2 0 0).

DRS UV–vis data for TiO₂-anatase, TiO₂NT, and Au-TiO₂NT systems is presented in Fig. 1B, showing an absorption band around 200–400 nm, which was attributed to the intrinsic band gap of TiO₂-based materials [40]. For TiO₂-anatase two peaks at 270 and 320 nm were observed, whereas TiO₂NTs showed only one peak at 250 nm indicating the different shape of this system compared anatase nanoparticles. In the case of the Au-TiO₂NT system, a visible-light absorption in the region ranging from 500 nm to 600 nm is observed due to localized surface plasmon resonance of Au nanoparticles. The plasmon centered at 580 nm [41–43] indicates that Au nanoparticles are mostly spherical. The intensity and width of the plasmon depends on the particle size indicating a size distribution for the catalyst [44–47].

Morphology of the Au-TiO₂NT system was confirmed by HR-TEM, showing a well-defined tubular structure with average length of 57 nm and external diameter of 8.5 nm. Au nanoparticles of spherical shape were detected from the HR-TEM micrograph, distributed inside the tubular structure and on the outer surface of the NTs, in agreement with DRS UV–vis data. An average Au particle size

of 5.5 ± 1.3 (nm) was measured from HR-TEM, with a dispersion of 18%. Smaller Au spheres were preferably found in the interior of the nanotubular structures. No remains of TiO₂ nanoparticles were detected in the micrograph, thus proving the high yield conversion to TiO₂NTs under the experimental conditions.

The XPS spectrum of the Au-TiO₂NT system is shown in Fig. 1D. The curve fitting of the Au core-level spectrum was performed by using a two spin-orbit split Au 4f_{7/2} and Au 4f_{5/2}. Only the values of level 4f_{7/2} of gold were analyzed. For the Au-TiO₂NT system only one Au signal is present which is associated to pure metallic Au⁰ species (Au 4f_{7/2} 83.9 eV) [48,49], thus confirming that the colloidal procedure allowed the metal to be obtained in the zero-valence state. Two energy values for oxygen were observed at 530.1 eV, corresponding to the Ti–O bond of the crystalline network, and at 531.6 eV, associated to Ti–OH groups on the surface of the support [50,51] or defective oxygens of the structure [52,53]. Ti 2p core level indicates the presence of Ti⁴⁺ state in the nanotubes with a binding energy of 458.6 (eV) [54]. The (Au/Ti)_{at} ratio of the catalyst is approximately 0.0050, which shows a two-fold increase compared to the (Au/Ti)_{bulk} ratio of 0.0022, thus indicating that the catalyst has higher dispersion in agreement with HR-TEM results.

3.2. Catalytic activity

The hydrogenation of nitrobenzene was used as model reaction to evaluate the catalytic activity of Au nanoparticles supported in TiO₂NTs. This reaction was carried out in ethanol at room temperature during 7 h, under conditions of 0.02 mol·L^{−1} substrate concentration, 40 bar of H₂ pressure, and 700 rpm stirring rate. The corresponding reaction profile is shown in Fig. 2. Our results revealed that the supported Au catalyst exhibited a high efficiency in the nitrobenzene hydrogenation reaction, showing a pseudo-first order kinetics respect to the substrate. During the reaction course, the formation of aniline (>90%) was highly favored over the accumulation of reaction intermediates (Fig. 2), showing that the Au-TiO₂NT system is a very selective catalyst for nitrobenzene hydrogenation, in agreement with the experimental findings reported by Combata et al. on a titania supported gold catalyst [55]. A relevant outcome regarding these results is that a high catalytic activity and a high selectivity towards hydrogenation to anilines was achieved by the Au-TiO₂NT system despite its low metal content. Two reaction intermediates were detected, namely nitrosobenzene and N-phenylhydroxylamine, with no evidence of condensation by products. [14,56]. Both intermediates were detected at very low concentrations, thus supporting the predominance of a direct hydrogenation route over a condensation route [55]. The formation of nitrosobenzene as a reaction intermediate supports a Haber reaction mechanism for the hydrogenation of nitrobenzene, in which a multi-step reaction path leads to the reduction of the nitro group to nitroso, and the subsequent formation of hydroxylamino and amino moieties. This mechanism has been reported to be favored under basic conditions, such as those found within TiO₂NTs, which tend to be more basic than their precursor. A new reaction mechanism was proposed by Jackson et al. [51], in which nitrosobenzene cannot be a reaction intermediate. This mechanism is expected to be favored under acidic conditions and high hydrogen supply. Nevertheless, there is still ongoing research regarding this issue, and the exact mechanism for the hydrogenation of nitrobenzene still remains as a matter of controversy. Regarding the rate-limiting step of the Haber reaction mechanism, Corma et al. [52] have reported that the reduction of phenylhydroxylamine to aniline is the rate-determining step of the whole process. To further obtain insight into the structural effects that govern the catalytic hydrogenation of nitrobenzene, a series of *p*-substituted nitrobenzenes were employed as substrates for

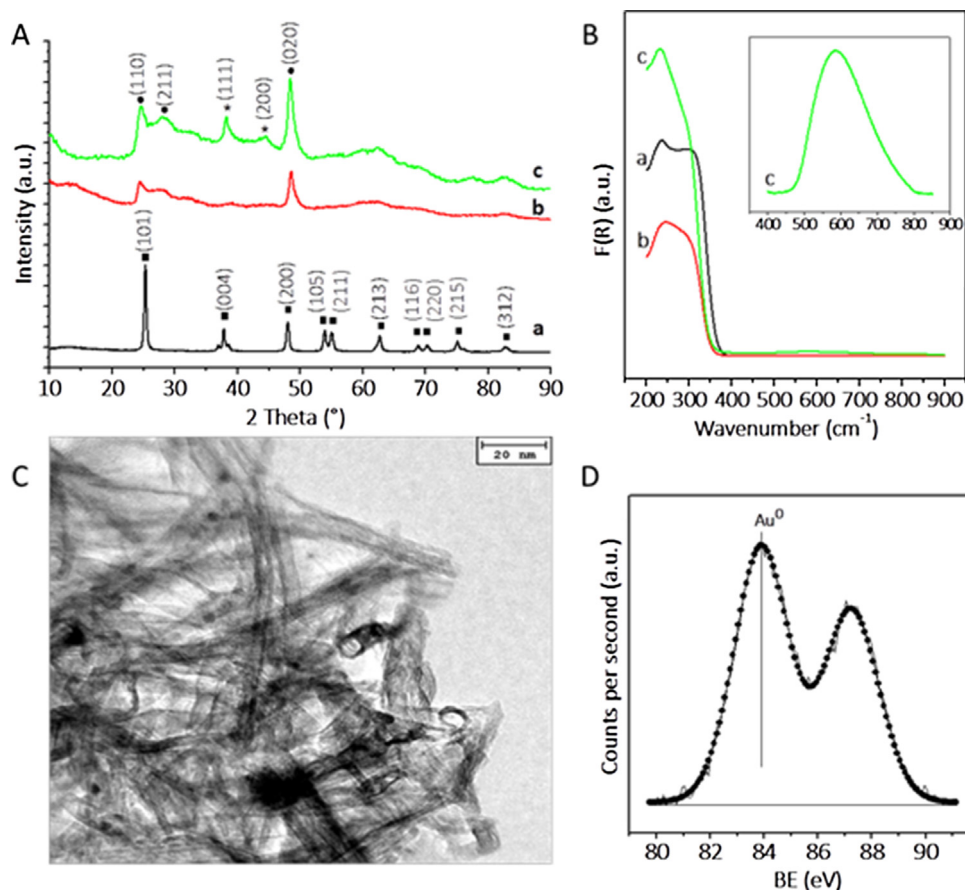


Fig. 1. (A) Diffraction patterns for a) TiO₂-anatase, b) TiO₂-NT and c) Au-TiO₂NT systems. Reference patterns (■) anatase (JCPDS: 00-021-1272) (●) $\text{H}_2\text{Ti}_4\text{O}_9 \times \text{H}_2\text{O}$ and (*) Au (JCPDS: 00-021-1272). (B) DRS UV-vis data for a) TiO₂-anatase, b) TiO₂-NT and c) Au-TiO₂NT systems. (C) HR-TEM micrograph for Au-TiO₂NT, and (D) XPS spectra of Au for Au-TiO₂NT catalyst.

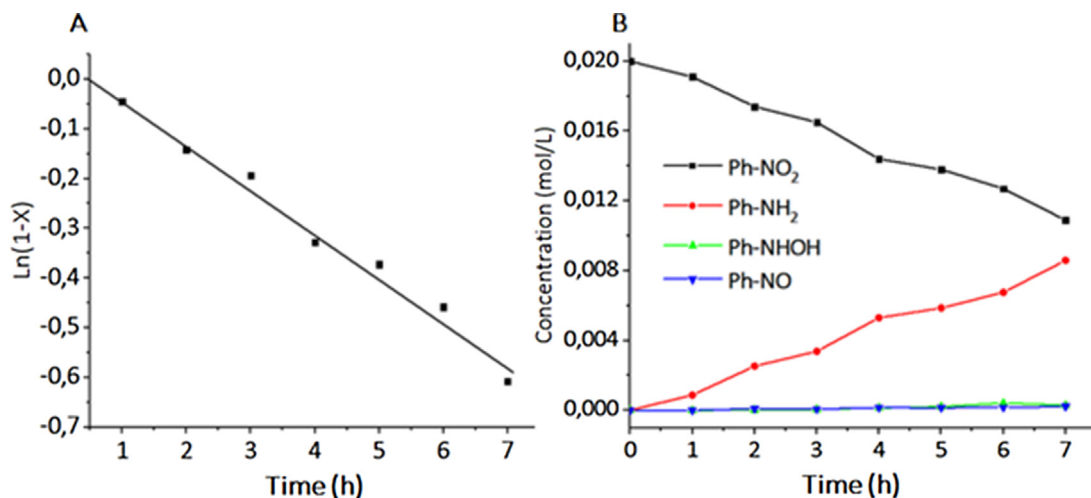


Fig. 2. (A) Reaction profile for the catalytic hydrogenation of nitrobenzene, (B) Product and intermediates distribution for the hydrogenation of nitrobenzene.

this reaction, aimed at evaluating the role of electron-donating and electron-withdrawing groups in the rate of hydrogenation.

3.2.1. Hydrogenation of para-substituted nitrobenzenes

The catalytic hydrogenation of a series of *p*-substituted nitrobenzenes was carried out with the aim of gaining insight into the role of electronic effects on the reaction rate and selectivity towards the formation of the corresponding *p*-substituted anilines. To this purpose, four electron-withdrawing groups ($-\text{NO}_2$, $-\text{CHO}$,

$-\text{CN}$, $-\text{Cl}$), and four electron-donating groups ($-\text{CH}_3$, $-\text{OCH}_3$, $-\text{OH}$, $-\text{NH}_2$) were considered in the present study. Kinetic data revealed that all compounds exhibited pseudo-first order constants for the catalytic hydrogenation reaction, leading to the formation of the corresponding *p*-substituted anilines as major products with yields higher than 89%, and minor proportions of detected reaction intermediates in all cases (Fig. 3). These results suggest that the Au catalyst supported in TiO₂NTs favor a direct route for the hydrogenation of nitrobenzene and *p*-substituted analogs, thus

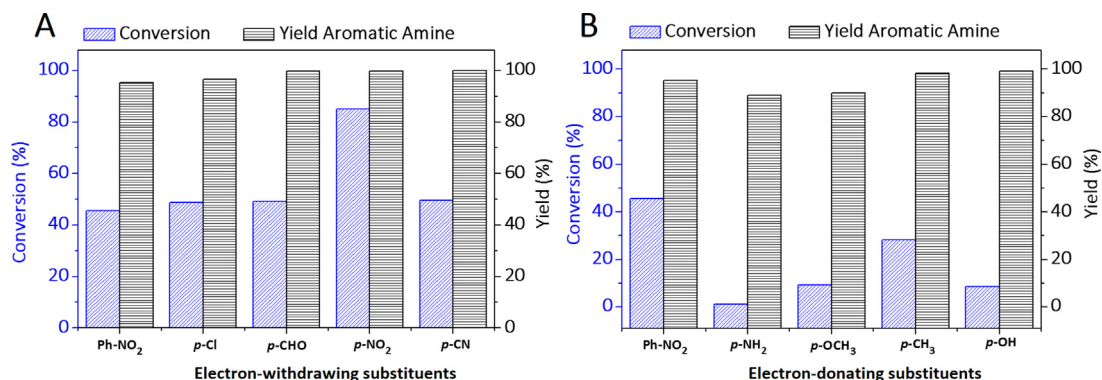


Fig. 3. Percentages of conversion and yield for the catalytic hydrogenation of *p*-substituted nitrobenzenes to the corresponding *p*-substituted anilines.

Table 1

Experimental pseudo-first order kinetic constants (k) for the catalytic hydrogenation of nitrobenzene and *p*-substituted nitrobenzenes over 1%Au/TiO₂NT catalyst. Estimated kinetic constants (k_{model}) were obtained from a multilinear regression model using the Hammett sigma constant (σ) and the solvation free energy of the substrate (ΔG_{solv}) as predictor variables. ΔG_{solv} were calculated at B3LYP/6-311G (2p,2d) level of theory.

Substituent	k (h ⁻¹ g _{cat} ⁻¹)	k_{model}	σ	ΔG_{solv} (kcal/mol)
—H	0.792	0.714	0.00	−4.04
—Cl	1.273	1.677	0.11	−3.96
—CHO	1.444	1.137	0.73	−5.61
—NO ₂	2.779	2.975	0.79	−5.74
—CN	1.275	1.533	0.66	−6.35
—NH ₂	0.008	0.016	−1.30	−7.74
—OCH ₃	0.181	0.258	−0.78	−4.48
—CH ₃	0.460	0.390	−0.31	−4.25
—OH	0.123	0.061	−0.92	−6.75

suppressing the condensation route. Nevertheless, significant variations were observed in the conversion of the reactant to the desired product, and in the rate of hydrogenation as the electronic nature of the substituent group was modified, which evidenced a strong influence of electronic effects on this reaction (Table 1). Kinetic data revealed that electron-withdrawing groups activated the hydrogenation reaction, whereas electron-donating groups drastically reduced the rate of reaction compared to nitrobenzene. Within electron-withdrawing substituents, the —NO₂ group exerted the largest increase in the rate constant compared to —CHO, —CN, and —Cl moieties, which exhibited similar activating profiles. Additionally, the —NO₂ group induced a large increase in conversion to *p*-nitroaniline (80%) compared to nitrobenzene, which exhibited a 45% conversion to aniline, as detailed in Fig. 3. In the case of electron-donating groups, all species displayed reduced rate constants compared to nitrobenzene, following the sequence —CH₃ > —OCH₃ > —OH » —NH₂. The largest deactivating effect was displayed by the —NH₂ substituent, with the lowest kinetic constant and a minimum conversion of 1% to *p*-phenylenediamine. Strong electron-donating groups such as —OH and —OCH₃ induced also a decreased conversion to the corresponding *p*-substituted anilines, with conversion percentages close to 10%. The weak electron-donating —CH₃ group exhibited a less pronounced effect in conversion showing a 27% percentage of substrate transformation to *p*-toluidine.

The strong dependence between the hydrogenation rate and the nature of the substituents in the series of *p*-substituted nitrobenzenes under study can be explained in light of the proposed Haber reaction mechanism, in which the rate-limiting step involves the hydrogenation of *N*-phenyl hydroxylamine to the corresponding aniline, with the loss of a water molecule. A growing electron density on the N atom is expected to occur in the transition state of this rate-determining step [57], which can be stabilized by the presence

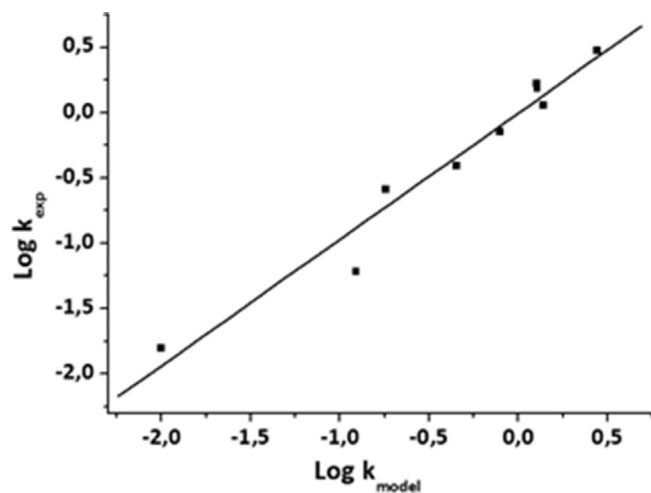


Fig. 4. Correlation between $\log k_{\text{exp}}$ and $\log k_{\text{model}}$ for *para*-substituted nitroarenes hydrogenation on Au/TiO₂NT catalyst. Conditions: a batch reactor, $T = 25^\circ\text{C}$, 40 bar of H₂ pressure, 0.02 mol L⁻¹ nitrocompound concentration.

of electron-withdrawing groups in the aromatic ring. On the other hand, the presence of electron-donating groups exerts a destabilizing effect on the transition state of the rate-limiting reaction, thus explaining the sensitivity of this reaction to substituent effects.

To further provide a quantitative description for the structural dependence of hydrogenation rates, a multilinear regression model was built using the Hammett sigma constant (σ) of the substituent, and the solvation free energy (ΔG_{solv}) of the substrate as predictor variables. Under this approach, the σ parameters were employed as well-known descriptors of the electronic properties of the substituents in the *p*-position, whereas ΔG_{solv} values were used to describe the affinity of the substrate towards the solvent (ethanol), which might be critical for reactivity, since highly solvated species are more impeded to interact with the surface of the catalyst and thus will react slower than less solvated reactants. ΔG_{solv} values in ethanol were estimated from DFT computational calculations at B3LYP/6-311G (2p, 2d) level of theory using the standard PCM continuum solvation method. Our results revealed that the experimental pseudo-first order kinetic constants (k) for the hydrogenation of the series of *p*-substituted nitrobenzenes are described by the multilinear regression displayed in Eq. (1):

$$\log k = 0.747 + 1.276\sigma + 0.221\Delta G_{\text{solv}} \quad (1)$$

A high correlation between experimental ($\log k$) and estimated ($\log k_{\text{model}}$) kinetic constants was attained with a squared regression coefficient of $r^2 = 0.970$ (Fig. 4). Variance analysis revealed that the most determinant variable is the σ parameter, thus indicat-

ing that electronic effects play a predominant role in determining the rate of hydrogenation of *p*-substituted nitrobenzenes. The regression coefficient corresponding to σ can be interpreted as $\rho > 1$ Hammett reaction constant, which is consistent with a highly structure-sensitive reaction in which negative charge is built during the rate-limiting step thus being favored by electron-withdrawing groups. On the other hand, the regression coefficient corresponding to ΔG_{solv} indicates that a high affinity towards the solvent reduces the reactivity of *p*-substituted nitrobenzenes upon hydrogenation, as expected. This also suggests that the catalytic hydrogenation of nitrobenzenes could be faster in a less polar environment. This is a relevant result considering that nitrobenzenes hydrogenation reactions are customarily performed in polar solvents such as methanol and ethanol [20,55,58,59]. Thus, our theoretical predictions provide the basis for future studies dealing with solvation effects on the catalytic performance of Au-TiO₂NT systems

4. Conclusions

Nanosize TiO₂NT were successfully prepared by hydrothermal synthesis, and employed as support for Au nanoparticles. Au deposition reached almost a 60% of metal content due to leaching during the catalyst synthesis. The Au/TiO₂NT catalyst was active and selective to the hydrogenation of *p*-substituted nitrobenzenes studied in liquid phase at room temperature. Pseudo-first-order kinetics with respect to the reactant were found in all cases. Selectivity of the catalyst towards *p*-substituted anilines reached 90% for all substrates under study, thus favoring the formation of aromatic amines over the accumulation of reaction intermediates. The absence of condensation side products revealed that the mechanism of nitrobenzenes hydrogenation followed a direct route in which the formation of negative charge in the transition state of the rate-limiting step is expected. The catalytic efficiency was promoted by electron-withdrawing substituents, as revealed by the strong correlation between the Hammett σ constant of the substituent and the experimental kinetic constants for the series of *p*-substituted nitrobenzenes under study. A multilinear regression analysis was carried out to account for the variation of hydrogenation rates within the set of compounds under study in terms of the Hammett σ constant and calculated solvation energies for the reactants. Our results revealed that electronic effects are critical to modulate the rate of hydrogenation and that highly solvated species are less reactive upon catalytic hydrogenation. These results are valuable to design novel more efficient synthetic strategies for the selective hydrogenation of nitrocompounds.

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Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary data associated with this article can be found, in the online version, at <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.mcat.2017.12.039>.

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