

From poison to promoter: investigation of supported rhodium sulphides as heterogeneous hydroformylation catalysts

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Abstract

Herein we report the use of supported nanoparticles of crystalline rhodium sulphides as active heterogeneous catalysts for the hydroformylation of alkenes showing an excellent selectivity towards the aldehyde products. It was found that supported Rh_xS_y ($x=17, y=15$ or $x=2, y=3$ with 1 and 10 wt.% Rh) nanoparticles greatly outperform pure Rh nanoparticles in terms of activity, with $\text{Rh}_{17}\text{S}_{15}/\text{SiO}_2$ being the superior catalyst candidate. The TOF for the hydroformylation of styrene, determined for the lead system $\text{Rh}_{17}\text{S}_{15}/\text{SiO}_2$ (1 wt.% Rh), is with 2620 h^{-1} significantly higher than TOF values reported for rhodium phosphide-based systems. As the presence of S in the Rh sulphides introduces structural diversity in the bulk as well as the range of potential catalytic surfaces, we enumerate all possible terminations, use local environment descriptors combined with unsupervised Machine learning techniques and DFT to draw structure performance relationships. We find that the presence of S on the surface and in close proximity to the catalytic site had a profound impact on the chemical behavior of the catalyst, thus unlocking the tunability of the surface catalytic properties. This allows for the affinity towards the substrate to be modulated to a high degree ranging from S rich Rh-top like sites of low; to Rh rich, and in particular for $\text{Rh}_{17}\text{S}_{15}$, (Rh_4) sites with adsorption energies rivaling those of pristine Rh and improved spatial resolution.

Introduction

The hydroformylation of alkenes using syn gas for the synthesis of aldehydes is one of the very important chemical transformations on industrial level, with an annual global aldehyde manufacturing exceeding 24 million metric tons year¹⁻⁵. The relevance of aldehydes is based on their application as intermediates for the synthesis of alcohols, carboxylic acids, esters and amines, among others, which are essential for the production of pharmaceuticals, agrochemicals and other fine chemical products^{2,6}. Up to know homogeneous rhodium-based catalysts are the preferred catalyst technology in the area of hydroformylation catalysts, as rhodium has proven to be the most active metal and the selectivity can in general be tuned via the ligand or the reaction conditions⁷⁻¹¹. However, the use of a homogeneous catalyst involves technical challenges in the catalyst separation and recycling and the loss of precious metal must be avoided^{12,13}. Consequently, heterogenized or heterogeneous rhodium catalysts as alternative candidates for oxo-chemistry, such as anchored Rh complexes on solid supports¹⁴⁻¹⁶ and rhodium-containing nanoparticles^{13,17} have gained significant research interest in the last decade.

A number of approaches in the field of heterogeneous catalysis pursue the mimicking of the steric and electronic environment of an active metal in homogeneous catalysts through the combination of a noble metal together with another less noble metal or non-metal to form alloys¹⁷⁻²², intermetallic compounds¹³ or other main-group containing metal phases^{23,24}. In this context, also Rh-based systems, such as Rh-Zn¹³, Rh-Co^{19,25}, and Rh-P¹⁷ have been described applied as catalysts useful for hydroformylation reactions. The superior catalytic performance compared to pure metallic rhodium-based catalyst, in liquid²¹ and gas phase hydroformylations¹⁷ was already reported for supported rhodium phosphides, Rh₂P. Their catalytic activity was attributed to the formation of undercoordinated Rh species on the surface of the crystalline nanoparticles, a motif that can be compared to frustrated single sites in homogeneous catalysis^{14,17}. Not only the inherent structural features of Rh₂P contribute to its excellent catalytic activity, but also the electronic state of rhodium is modulated via a shift of the d-band center towards lower energy level relative to fermi level in comparison to pure Rh. This apparently leads to an optimal CO binding strength resulting in superior reactivity²¹. The generation of specific structural motifs has also been investigated in the case of the incorporation of Co into Rh and the synthesis of supported RhCo₃, where Rh-Co hybrid sites and Rh₃ ensembles were witnessed. Through these structural motifs and the therewith involved Co induced strain and ensemble effects, the binding energies of CO and propanal are carefully tailored, leading to a high selectivity towards C3 oxygenates in the vapor-phase hydroformylation of ethylene¹⁹.

Herein we demonstrate a case, more precisely supported nanoparticles of crystalline rhodium sulphides, where the guiding principle is taken beyond emulating the parent metal's activity with a p-loaded surrogate, resulting in substantially improvements of the activity and selectivity in the hydroformylation of alkenes. Despite the fact, that sulphur is considered to be a typical catalyst poison or strong moderator for transition metals in catalysis, only recently metal sulphide phases, such as palladium sulphides have been explored as catalysts for the semi hydrogenation of

alkynes²⁶ and in the framework of electro catalysis^{27–29}. With this work we now explore the use of supported rhodium sulphide nanoparticles, with a particular focus on the metal rich Rh₁₇S₁₅ and metal lean Rh₂S₃ phases, towards the use in liquid phase hydroformylation reactions of alkenes. Hereby the order of activity was determined as Rh₁₇S₁₅>Rh₂S₃>Rh, showing that the incorporation of sulphur into rhodium leads to a boost in catalytic activity, which is undermined by experimental and theoretical findings. We herein illustrate experimental and theoretical proof of the active sites in the form of Rh₄ hollow sites relevant for the Rh₁₇S₁₅ catalyst. The supported rhodium sulphide catalysts were recovered after the catalytic reactions and reused multiple times without the loss of catalytic activity, exhibiting great stability.

Synthesis and characterization of supported rhodium sulphide particles

The two rhodium sulphide phases selected for this investigation are the metal rich Rh₁₇S₁₅ (Rh/S = 1.13) and the metal lean Rh₂S₃ (Rh/S = 0.66) phase. For both phases a substantial performance difference can be expected due to the variation in Rh to S ratio. The silica supported rhodium sulphides particles were synthesized using an incipient wetness impregnation method of reactive precursors. Rhodium acetate (Rh(OAc)₃) and thiourea (CH₄N₂S) were dissolved in water and added dropwise to silica. The impregnated precursors were subsequently dried and brought to reaction via a thermal treatment in a flowing stream of argon to obtain the supported Rh_xS_y phases. Since a loss of sulphur is occurring during the thermal treatment, the addition of an excess quantity of sulphur precursor (in this case thiourea) is required to compensate the loss and enable the Rh_xS_y phase formation³⁰. Hence, 20 mol%, 30 mol% and 50 mol% excess of thiourea with respect to the stoichiometric ratio of the corresponding sulphide, were impregnated on silica with Rh(OAc)₃ and the resulting product was heated in a flowing stream of argon at 700°C in order to synthesis the supported Rh₁₇S₁₅ material (10 wt.% Rh). Whereas an excess of 20 mol% and 50 mol% of thiourea resulted in the formation of metallic Rh nanoparticles and nanoparticles of the Rh₁₇S₁₅ phase, respectively, 30 mol% excess led to the formation of the phase pure Rh₁₇S₁₅/SiO₂ nanoparticles on silica (Figure 1a and S1). A further increase of the temperature to 750°C with the aim to enhance both the crystallinity and the crystallite size of the supported sulphides materials, thereby obtaining improved powder X ray diffraction reflexes, only resulted in the loss of sulphur and in the consequent formation of metallic nanoparticles of Rh well visible through X-ray diffraction (Figure S2). Different flow rates of argon were applied for the thermal treatment to study the influence on the phase formation. A flow rate of 15 NI/h argon for the synthesis of Rh₁₇S₁₅/SiO₂ (10 wt.% Rh) resulted in the formation of mixed phases consisting of Rh₁₇S₁₅ and Rh₂S₃, whereas an increased flow rate of 450 NI/h leads to the formation of phase pure Rh₁₇S₁₅ (Figure 1b). A higher argon flow rate can increase the transfer of volatile sulphur species via the gas phase and remove the excess S from material. Similarly, Rh₂S₃/SiO₂ (10 wt.% Rh) was synthesized via incipient wetness impregnation and a subsequent thermal treatment in a flowing stream of Ar (450 NI/h) at 700°C with 50% excess thiourea to ensure the phase formation (Figure 1a). Catalyst materials, as described above, were also prepared with a lower absolute metal loading (1 wt.% Rh) to allow for a reduced size of the nanoparticles through limited sintering processes³¹. In addition,

inductively coupled plasma atomic emission spectrometry (ICP-AES) analyses were performed to determine the exact rhodium content of 1.03 wt.% in $\text{Rh}_{17}\text{S}_{15}/\text{SiO}_2$ (1 wt.% Rh) and 0.88 wt.% in $\text{Rh}_2\text{S}_3/\text{SiO}_2$ (1 wt.% Rh) (Table S9).

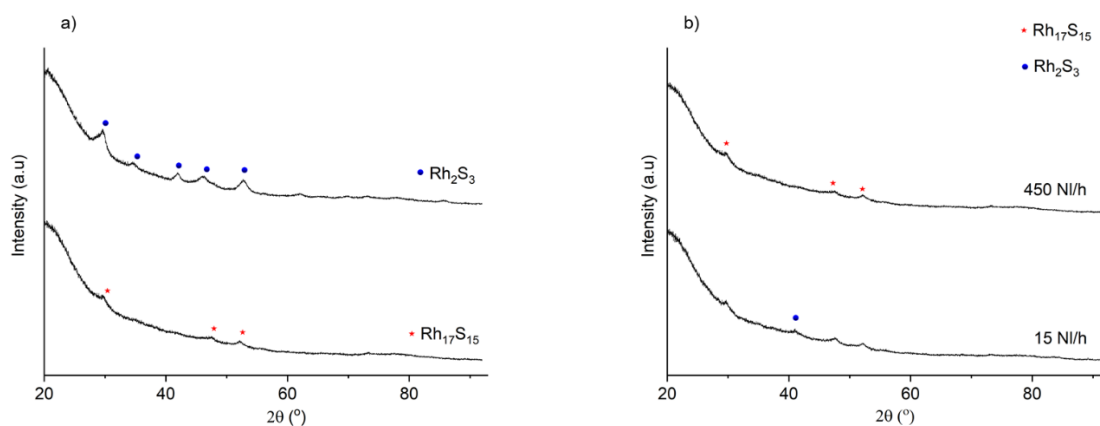


Figure 1: PXRD patterns of a) $\text{Rh}_{17}\text{S}_{15}/\text{SiO}_2$ (10 wt.% Rh) and $\text{Rh}_2\text{S}_3/\text{SiO}_2$ (10 wt.% Rh), b) products obtained after the thermal treatment at 700°C of the impregnated precursors for the synthesis of $\text{Rh}_{17}\text{S}_{15}/\text{SiO}_2$ (10 wt.% Rh) using different argon flow rates. • Rh_2S_3 (ICSD: 56882, Materials Project: mp-17173), * $\text{Rh}_{17}\text{S}_{15}$ (ICSD: 410838, Materials Project: mp-21991)

The phase purity of $\text{Rh}_{17}\text{S}_{15}/\text{SiO}_2$ (10 wt.% Rh) and $\text{Rh}_2\text{S}_3/\text{SiO}_2$ (10 wt.% Rh) can be verified by powder X-ray diffraction (PXRD) measurements (Figure 1a), whereby the occurrence of very broad reflexes already indicates the formation of small Rh-S crystallites. Subsequently, selected area electron diffraction (SAED) measurements in association with transmission electron microscopy (TEM) were performed for a detailed analysis and do provided evidence of the nanoparticles of $\text{Rh}_{17}\text{S}_{15}$ and Rh_2S_3 supported on silica (Figure S9 and S10). Despite the fact, that PXRD and SAED measurements can be applied for the analysis of the 10 wt.% loaded samples, the analyses of the samples resulting from a 1wt.% Rh loading, was found to be challenging due to the very small crystallite/particle sizes of the resulting rhodium sulphides particles (Figure S3). Interestingly, when Rh/SiO_2 (1 wt.% Rh) as reference system was prepared and analyzed via PXRD, reflexes corresponding to metallic Rh particles of large crystallite size can be identified despite the low metal loading (Figure S4). This already indicates the role of sulphur as inherent stabilization agent against sintering processes. The phase purity and integrity of all samples of rhodium sulphides, could, however, be proven by elemental mapping via energy dispersive X-ray spectroscopy (EDXS), irrespective of whether a high or low Rh loading was chosen. Hereby a uniform Rh and S distribution over silica, with S/Rh ratios of 0.9 for $\text{Rh}_{17}\text{S}_{15}/\text{SiO}_2$ (1 and 10 wt.% Rh) and 1.5 for the $\text{Rh}_2\text{S}_3/\text{SiO}_2$ (1 and 10 wt.% Rh, Figure 2 and Figures S11-S15), was obtained. Also, lattice fringe distances extracted through high resolution transmission electron microscopy (HR-TEM) for the $\text{Rh}_x\text{S}_y/\text{SiO}_2$ samples ($x=17, y=15$ or $x=2, y=3$ with 1 and 10 wt.% Rh) were well suited with the theoretical d spacing of the targeted rhodium sulphide phases (Figure S11-S15).

The morphology of the supported rhodium sulphide nanoparticles could be further explored by transmission electron microscopy. The TEM images of $\text{Rh}_x\text{S}_y/\text{SiO}_2$ ($x=17, y=15$ or $x=2, y=3$ with 1 and 10 wt.% Rh) show well dispersed rhodium sulphide nanoparticles on the support (Figure S11-S15) and example images of $\text{Rh}_{17}\text{S}_{15}/\text{SiO}_2$ with higher and lower Rh loadings are provided as Figure 2a and 2b. Almost spherical shaped nanoparticles can be observed in high angle annular dark field scanning transmission electron microscopy (HAADF-STEM) images (Figure S11-S15) of $\text{Rh}_x\text{S}_y/\text{SiO}_2$ ($x=17, y=15$ or $x=2, y=3$ with 1 and 10 wt.% Rh). Average particle sizes of 2.2 nm and 3.0 nm were determined for $\text{Rh}_{17}\text{S}_{15}/\text{SiO}_2$ (1 wt.% Rh) and $\text{Rh}_2\text{S}_3/\text{SiO}_2$ (1 wt.% Rh), whereas for the materials with a higher metal loading (10 wt.% Rh), particle sizes of 6.3 nm and 3.6 nm were observed. The increase in particle size due to higher metal loadings is attributed to the enhanced sintering at higher metal and sulphur precursor concentrations on the support³¹ (Figure S7d and S8c). Interestingly, the high resolution HAADF-STEM images of $\text{Rh}_{17}\text{S}_{15}/\text{SiO}_2$ (10 wt.% Rh) through Z contrasting, indicate the formation of a Rh-based motif comprising of four adjacent Rh atoms (Figure 2c and d). Such structural motifs or ensembles on catalysts surfaces have been identified as active sites for several occasions in the field of heterogeneous catalysis,³² whereby the Lindlar catalyst (typically 5 wt.% palladium deposited on calcium carbonate or barium sulfate and treated with various forms of lead),³³ is the prototypic example. Combined experimental and theoretical^{34,35} work has shown that through the alloying of Pd with Pb, Pb induced exclusion areas and consequently triangular shaped active sites are formed, which are very active in the semi hydrogenation of alkynes³⁶. The concept of well-defined structural motifs of crystalline alloys and intermetallic compounds can be also be witnesses beyond the Lindlar catalyst. For instance, an exceptional performance in alkyne semi hydrogenation has been attributed to spatially isolated metal trimers in Pd_3S ²⁶ and Ni_xP_y ³⁷.

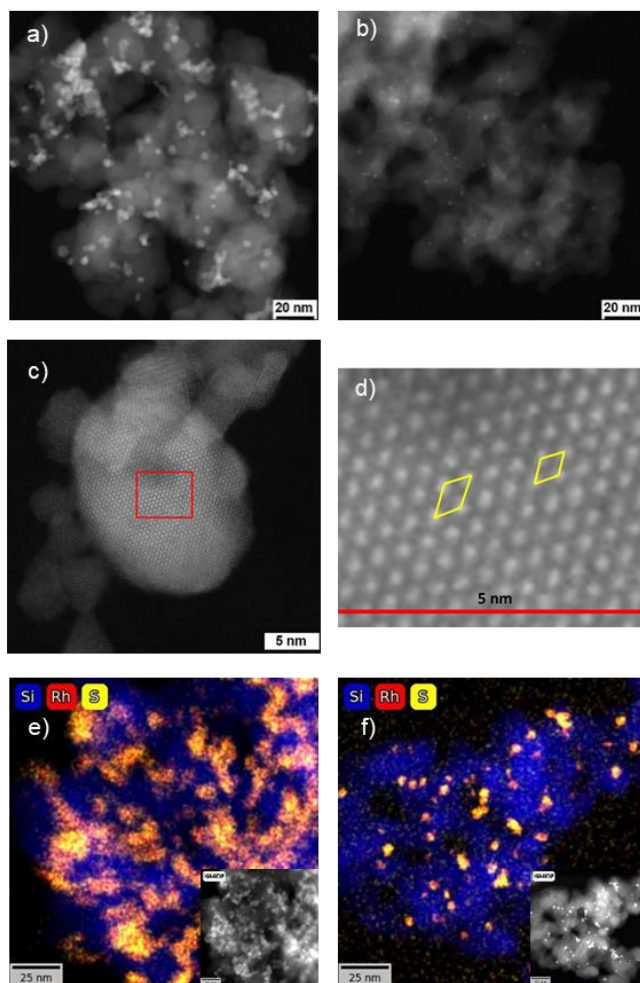


Figure 2: HAADF-STEM images of a) $\text{Rh}_{17}\text{S}_{15}/\text{SiO}_2$ (10 wt.% Rh) and b) $\text{Rh}_{17}\text{S}_{15}/\text{SiO}_2$ (1 wt.% Rh). c) HR-HAADF-STEM image of $\text{Rh}_{17}\text{S}_{15}/\text{SiO}_2$ (10 wt.% Rh) and d) magnified image highlighting the rhodium-containing structural motif. e) EDXS elemental mapping of Rh, S and Si for $\text{Rh}_{17}\text{S}_{15}/\text{SiO}_2$ (10 wt.% Rh) and f) $\text{Rh}_{17}\text{S}_{15}/\text{SiO}_2$ (1 wt.% Rh) with corresponding HAADF STEM images as insert.

To investigate the oxidation state of Rh within the supported rhodium sulphides, X ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) analyses of $\text{Rh}_x\text{S}_y/\text{SiO}_2$ ($x=17, y=15$ or $x=2, y=3$ with 1 and 10 wt.% Rh) samples were conducted (Figure S20-23, Table S1-S3). Hereby, the Rh 3d signals were deconvoluted indicating the presence of two types of rhodium species. The doublet at binding energies of 309.5 eV and 314.4 eV corresponds to $3d_{5/2}$ and $3d_{3/2}$ states, which can be assigned to rhodium sulphide, as the signal at 309.5 eV is generally associated with covalently bonded Rh in an oxidized form^{27,38}. This in combination with the sulphur 2p signals, seen in $\text{Rh}_x\text{S}_y/\text{SiO}_2$ ($x=17, y=15$ or $x=2, y=3$ with 10 wt.% Rh), at 161.7 eV and 162.7 eV, corresponding to polysulphides, points towards covalently bound rhodium and sulphur^{27,38}. Further, no S 2p signals at 164 eV were observed, which proves the absence of any elemental sulphur.²⁷ Another doublet of Rh 3d observed at 307.5 eV ($3d_{5/2}$) and 312.2 eV ($3d_{3/2}$) corresponds to metallic rhodium Rh(0). The existence of $\text{Rh}^{\delta+}$ and Rh^0 species from XPS analyses has also been shown for Rh_xP_y systems and can be

considered a typical feature for rhodium/p-block element-based phases²¹. Further, a rhodium to sulphur ratio of 1.11 was obtained for Rh₁₇S₁₅/SiO₂ (10 wt.% Rh) and 0.53 for Rh₂S₃/SiO₂ (10 wt.% Rh) (Table S3), which is in line with Rh to S ratios considering the stoichiometry of the phases. The XPS analyses of the low Rh content Rh_xS_y/SiO₂ (x=17, y=15 or x=2, y=3 with 1 wt.% Rh) materials have also shown the presence of Rh^{δ+} and Rh⁰, however, no sulphur signals could be witnessed, due to the very low chalcogenide concentration.

The surface chemistry of the supported rhodium sulphides was further investigated via diffuse reflectance infrared Fourier transform spectroscopy (DRIFTS) using CO as probe molecule³⁹ (Figure 3 and S18). In the DRIFT spectra of Rh₁₇S₁₅/SiO₂ (1wt.% Rh, Figure 3a), the band observed at 2105 cm⁻¹ in the initial scan can be assigned to symmetric stretching modes of rhodium gem-dicarbonyl species (Rh³⁺(CO)₂), whereas the signal at 2067 cm⁻¹ corresponds to linearly bound CO on metallic Rh (Rh⁰-CO)^{40,41}. On further exposure to CO, the signal at 2105 cm⁻¹ shifts to 2102 cm⁻¹ and can be assigned to positively charged rhodium coordinated to CO, Rh^{δ+}(CO)₂. This reduction under CO atmosphere is also demonstrated by the appearance of the signal at 2036 cm⁻¹, which can be traced back to asymmetric Rh^{δ+}(CO)₂ stretching modes. Similar observations were made for the DRIFT spectra of the rhodium lean material Rh₂S₃/SiO₂ (1wt.% Rh). Again, a signal at 2104 cm⁻¹ can be assigned to symmetric CO stretching modes of Rh³⁺(CO)₂. Upon CO exposure, an immediate emergence of signals at 2086 cm⁻¹ and 2036 cm⁻¹ can be witnessed, which underlines the facile reducibility of the Rh₂S₃ surface species in contrast to Rh₁₇S₁₅. In order to elucidate the effect of the sulphur incorporation into rhodium in more detail, the CO adsorption behavior of Rh/SiO₂ (1 wt.% Rh) as reference system was investigated via DRIFTS measurements. Already before, the infrared vibration spectra of adsorbed CO has previously found to be different in sulfided compared to unsulfided rhodium materials⁴²⁻⁴⁴. In our case it became obvious that there is a blue shift of the symmetric and asymmetric stretches of rhodium gem-dicarbonyl species (Rh(CO)₂)⁴¹ from pure Rh samples (2098 and 2028 cm⁻¹) to Rh₁₇S₁₅ (2102 cm⁻¹ and 2036 cm⁻¹). This finding can be attributed to a charge transfer from Rh to S, also demonstrated by XPS analyses, which leads to an increase in the cationic nature of the rhodium centers in rhodium sulphides in comparison to the pure metal²¹. Consequently, a destabilization of the CO adsorption is taking place, due to the weak electron back donation of cationic Rh species to the π* CO orbitals. The band observed at 1936 cm⁻¹ in Rh/SiO₂ (1 wt.% Rh) corresponds to a bridged CO vibration mode. Similar signals in this range are absent in the DRIFT spectra of Rh_xS_y/SiO₂ (x=17, y=15 or x=2, y=3 with 1 wt.% Rh), which points towards the existence of isolated CO chemisorption sites on the surface,⁴⁵ as already indicated from TEM imaging.

The oxidation state and chemical environment of the rhodium sulphides materials was further investigated using X ray absorption spectroscopy (XAS). The X ray absorption near edge structure (XANES) measurements (Figure 3d) show that the Rh centers within rhodium sulphides (Rh_xS_y/SiO₂, x=17, y=15 or x=2, y=3 with 1 wt.% Rh) seem to have a very similar oxidation state, that lays between the Rh³⁺ state of bulk Rh₂O₃ and Rh⁰ of the bulk Rh reference. This basically

corresponds to an oxidation state of $\text{Rh}^{\delta+}$ based on the partial charge transfer from Rh to S in rhodium sulphide samples, as already concluded before from XPS and DRIFTS analyses. The characteristic broad white line around 23240 eV observed in the XANES data was already reported for diverse Rh_xS_y species⁴⁶⁻⁴⁸. The corresponding Fourier transformed extended X-ray absorption fine structure (FT-EXAFS) spectra are plotted in Figure 3e and prove the existence of rhodium sulphides phases. However, in addition to the dominant main feature at a backscattering distance of 1.8 Å, which resembles Rh-S contributions, a shoulder at 1.5 Å could be observed. This shoulder corresponds to Rh-O, which most likely is due to the surface oxidation caused by the sample preparation and prolonged storage in ambient conditions in a capillary prior to the XAS measurements. In addition to these signals, a scattering event at a distance of 2.3 Å was observed in $\text{Rh}_{17}\text{S}_{15}/\text{SiO}_2$ (1 wt.% Rh), which can be attributed to Rh-Rh scattering events. This finding underlines the metal rich character of the $\text{Rh}_{17}\text{S}_{15}$ phase in contrast to the metal lean Rh_2S_3 counterpart and undermines the formation of Rh-containing single sites, as shown in Figure 2d.

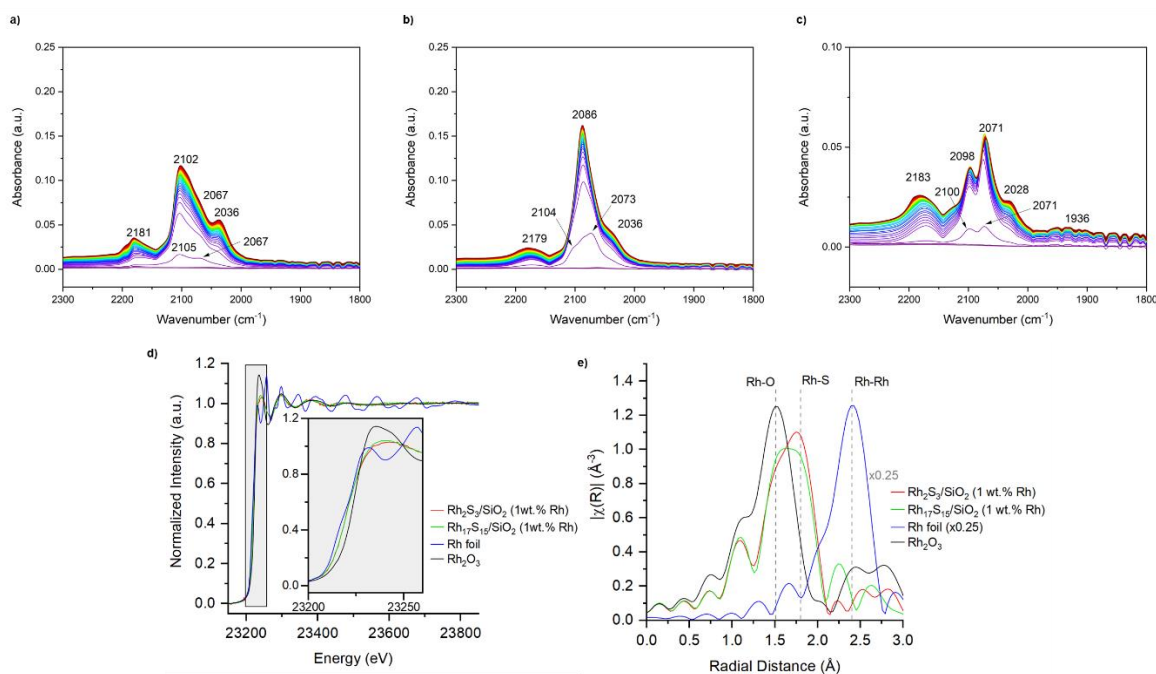


Figure 3: CO adsorption DRIFT spectra of the synthesized catalyst a) $\text{Rh}_{17}\text{S}_{15}/\text{SiO}_2$ (1 wt.% Rh), b) $\text{Rh}_2\text{S}_3/\text{SiO}_2$ (1 wt.% Rh) and c) Rh/SiO_2 (1 wt.% Rh). Signals in the region of 2179 cm^{-1} to 2183 cm^{-1} correspond to free CO. (d) Ex situ XAS spectra recorded at the Rh-K edge with an inset showing the XANES region and e) FT-EXAFS spectra (k^2 -weighted). As references, the spectra of a Rh foil and a Rh_2O_3 pellet are shown.

Rhodium sulphides as heterogeneous hydroformylation catalysts

To assess the catalytic activity of supported rhodium sulphides nanoparticles in the hydroformylation of alkenes, styrene was selected as model substrate. During the

hydroformylation reaction of styrene with CO and H₂, the linear 3-phenylpropanal and branched 2-phenylpropanal aldehydes, as well as the undesired hydrogenation side product ethyl benzene can be formed⁴⁹. Hereby, the modulation of the catalytic selectivity towards the aldehyde products and the therewith the reduction of the hydrogenation side reaction is one of the major goals in the development of hydroformylation catalysts¹⁷.

Table 1: Hydroformylation of styrene using different supported rhodium sulphide catalysts.

Entry	Catalyst	Rh loading (wt.%)	Reaction time (min)	Conversion (%)	Aldehyde selectivity (%)	n/iso
1	Rh ₁₇ S ₁₅ /SiO ₂	10	80	18	100	0.7
2	Rh ₂ S ₃ /SiO ₂	10	80	5	100	-
3	Rh ₁₇ S ₁₅ /SiO ₂	10	225	85	99.3	0.88
4	Rh ₂ S ₃ /SiO ₂	10	225	42	100	0.7
5	Rh ₁₇ S ₁₅ /SiO ₂	1	80	87	98.4	0.85
6	Rh ₁₇ S ₁₅ /SiO ₂	1	180	100	97.3	1.0
7	Rh ₂ S ₃ /SiO ₂	1	80	60	98.7	0.85
8	Rh ₂ S ₃ /SiO ₂	1	120	93	98.6	0.85
9	Rh/SiO ₂	1	80	40	98.8	0.91

Reaction conditions: 1 mmol styrene, 1.5 mL toluene, 0.2 mol% catalyst, 40 bar syngas pressure, CO: H₂ 1:1, 80°C, 1200 rpm stirring speed.

Initial tests were performed using Rh₁₇S₁₅/SiO₂ (10 wt. % Rh) and Rh₂S₃/SiO₂ (10 wt. % Rh) as catalysts under a syn gas pressure of 40 bar (CO:H₂ 1:1) and a temperature of 80°C. The conversions of styrene after 80 mins of reaction time using Rh₁₇S₁₅ and Rh₂S₃ were 18% and 5% (Table 1, entry 1 and 2), respectively. An extended reaction time of 225 min resulted in higher conversions of 85% for Rh₁₇S₁₅ and 42% for Rh₂S₃ (Table 1, entry 3 and 4) with trace (1%) or no hydrogenation products. The regioselectivity expressed in terms of linear to branched aldehyde (n/iso) ratios were observed to be 0.88 and 0.7 for Rh₁₇S₁₅ and Rh₂S₃ respectively at the indicated conversions (Table 1, entry 3 and 4). Subsequently, rhodium sulphide catalysts prepared with 1 wt.% Rh loading on silica, were tested under similar reactions conditions. After 80 mins reaction time a styrene conversion of 87% was observed using Rh₁₇S₁₅/SiO₂ (1 wt.% Rh) as catalyst, whereas Rh₂S₃/SiO₂ (1 wt.% Rh) gave 60% conversion. From the above results, a superior activity of the metal rich Rh₁₇S₁₅ catalyst in comparison to Rh₂S₃ and a tremendous activity improvement at lower metal loadings can be concluded. The difference in activity of various phases and metal

loading is also visible in the plot of the syn gas pressure consumption in the reactor (Figure 4c), whereby a faster drop in absolute pressure was observed for Rh₁₇S₁₅/SiO₂ (1 wt.% Rh) compared to other rhodium sulphide catalysts. The enhanced performance of the catalyst with lower Rh loadings may be due to the reduced particle size and resulting higher rhodium dispersion as concluded from the TEM analysis (Figure S7 and S8). We assume that lower metal loadings in the synthesis lead to an increased number of exposed surface atoms on the support and available active sites⁵⁰. The conversion vs time plot (Figure 4d) also clearly emphasize the better performance of Rh₁₇S₁₅/SiO₂ (1 wt.% Rh) in terms of activity. A reaction time of 3h using Rh₁₇S₁₅/SiO₂ (1 wt.% Rh) as catalyst resulted in 100% conversion of styrene (Table 1, entry 6) with an n/iso ratio of 1.0 and a hydrogenation product concentration of only 2.7% (ethyl benzene). The catalytic activity of pure Rh on silica (1 wt.% Rh) was investigated as reference point and it could be shown that both rhodium sulphide based catalysts show superior catalytic activity. Similar observations were reported for sulphided rhodium in gas phase hydroformylation reactions^{40,43}, however, no systematic investigation of the catalytically active phases and the influence of the sulphur incorporation of the steric and electronic parameters were carried out in the work reported. From the above results an order of activity towards hydroformylation of styrene can be concluded as follows: Rh<Rh₂S₃<Rh₁₇S₁₅.

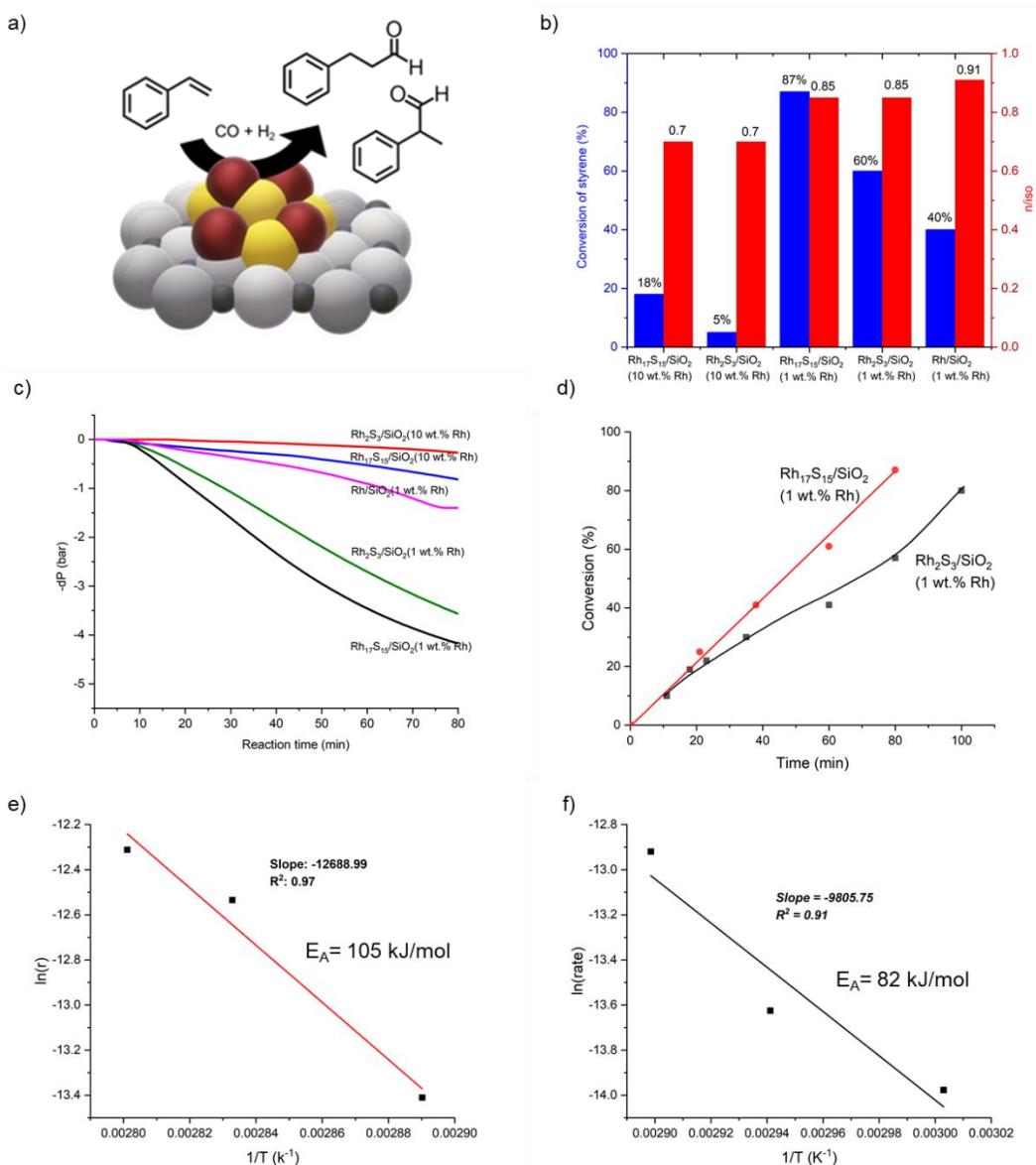


Figure 4: a) Schematic representation of styrene hydroformylation using silica supported rhodium sulphide catalysts (red: Rh, yellow: S), b) chart showing the conversion and selectivity after 80 min reaction time, c) pressure loss of synthesis gas inside the reactor at 80°C, d) conversion vs time plot using Rh_xS_y/SiO₂ (x=17, y=15 or x=2, y=3 with 1 wt.% Rh) catalysts at 80°C, e) Arrhenius plot for the estimation of the activation energy with Rh₂S₃/SiO₂ (1 wt.% Rh) as catalyst and f) with Rh₁₇S₁₅/SiO₂ (1 wt.% Rh). Hydroformylation reaction conditions: 1 mmol styrene, 1.5 mL toluene, 0.2 mol% catalyst, 40 bar syngas pressure, CO: H₂ 1:1, 1200 rpm stirring speed.

The turn over frequency (TOF) values for the hydroformylation of styrene at 80°C and 40 bar syngas pressure were estimated as 2620 h⁻¹ for Rh₁₇S₁₅/SiO₂ (1 wt.% Rh) and 1450 h⁻¹ for Rh₂S₃/SiO₂ (1 wt.% Rh). These estimations were performed based on the metal dispersion calculated by the average particle diameter obtained from TEM imaging (Table S10). A comparison of TOF values under similar reaction conditions has shown a superior TOF value for Rh₁₇S₁₅/SiO₂ (2621 h⁻¹, 1 wt.% Rh) in comparison to Rh₂P/SiO₂ (1469 h⁻¹)²¹ and Rh₇Co₁P₄/SiO₂ (2563 h⁻¹),⁵¹ underlining the advanced performance of our lead catalyst candidate (Table S10 and Figure 5).

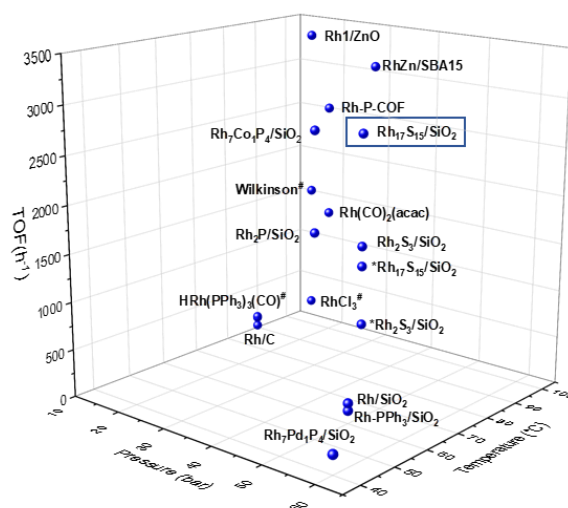


Figure 5: Schematic representation of the comparison of various TOF values reported for different heterogeneous hydroformylation catalysts applied in the hydroformylation of styrene.^{4,12,13,21,51–54}
*Estimation based on total Rh content. #Homogeneous catalyst.

The apparent activation energies of the supported rhodium sulphide catalyzed styrene hydroformylation reactions were estimated by Arrhenius plots (Figure 3 and S27). A higher apparent activation energy of 105 kJ/mol was estimated for Rh₂S₃/SiO₂ (1 wt.% Rh) in comparison to 82 kJ/mol for Rh₁₇S₁₅/SiO₂ (1 wt.% Rh), it can be argued that the findings are in line with the observed activity differences of these phases. Activation energies of styrene hydroformylation reported for other rhodium-based catalysts are provided in Table S9 and the values indicated a comparable performance of Rh₁₇S₁₅/SiO₂ (1 wt.% Rh). For example, the activation energy associated with other Rh-p block element combination phases, namely supported Rh₂P, is reported to be 71.4 kJ/mol²¹, which indicates the analogous performance with the lead candidate of this work Rh₁₇S₁₅/SiO₂ (1wt.% Rh). This again undermines the hypothesis that the d block–p block combination strategy, through the electronic and steric modulation of the metal matrix, is a facile approach in mimicking metal ligand complexes employed in homogeneous catalysis.

The temperature dependency of the hydroformylation was further investigated by assessing the conversion and selectivity over the course of the reaction using Rh₁₇S₁₅/SiO₂ (1 wt.% Rh) as lead

catalyst candidate. An improved conversion of styrene beside a higher selectivity towards the linear aldehyde (improved n/iso) can be observed with increasing reaction temperature (Figure S28). In the accepted reaction mechanisms for the hydroformylation reaction, the formation of the branched versus the linear alkyl-rhodium complex is the crucial point for the regioselectivity determining step¹⁴. High temperatures (thermodynamic control) favour the isomerization of the branched alkyl-Rh complex to the linear alkyl-Rh species, thereby increasing the linear aldehyde selectivity^{55,56}. The catalytic behavior on variation of the CO to H₂ ratio was again investigated using Rh₁₇S₁₅/SiO₂ (1 wt.% Rh) as lead catalyst candidate. Hereby an enhanced styrene conversion was observed with equal partial pressures of H₂ and CO (Figure S29), whereas a higher H₂ partial pressure (CO:H₂ 1:4) leads to an increased hydrogenation (4.7% ethyl benzene at 80% conversion). To broaden the application scope of the catalysts, also with respect to industrially relevant conditions, hydroformylation reactions without additional solvent were carried out. Hereby it was found that by using the lead catalyst candidate Rh₁₇S₁₅/SiO₂ (1 wt.% Rh) also 40% conversion in 120 min could be achieved in neat styrene (Table S7). Further, the substrate scope was extended, and the lead catalyst candidate has shown to be active in the hydroformylation of 1-hexene, 1-octene, 2-octene and allyl benzene showing excellent activities and selectivity's towards the aldehydes (Table S6). Hereby, a comparable and even superior performance to some of the most active heterogeneous Rh-based hydroformylation catalysts was observed comparing Rh₁₇S₁₅/SiO₂ (1 wt.% Rh) in the hydroformylation of 1-hexene against other candidate materials (Table S8). For instance, Rh-PPh₃/C¹⁸ and Rh/C¹⁸ with 1 wt.% Rh loading on the support have shown 100% and 63% 1-hexene conversion in 5h with 83% and 72% selectivity, respectively, towards the aldehydes, whereas Rh₁₇S₁₅/SiO₂ (1 wt.% Rh) exhibited 100% conversion with an aldehyde selectivity of 92% in 4 h reaction time.

To explore the recyclability of the supported rhodium sulphide catalysts, Rh₁₇S₁₅/SiO₂ (1 wt.% Rh) and Rh₂S₃/SiO₂ (1 wt.% Rh) were recovered after the hydroformylation reaction by centrifugation and have been reused in the hydroformylation of styrene. This recovery confirmed the reusability of the catalysts, as no decline in activity or selectivity (n/iso consistently in the range 0.85 to 0.9) was observed for the catalysts even after two rounds of recycling (Figure S31). With Rh₁₇S₁₅/SiO₂ (1 wt.% Rh) providing a reaction time for 80 min, a styrene conversion of 87% was observed with the fresh catalyst and a slightly higher conversion of 94% in the second round of recycling. Similarly, after a reaction time of 120 min using the fresh Rh₂S₃/SiO₂ (1 wt.% Rh) catalysts a conversion of 93% could be achieved, whereas 97% of styrene conversion were obtained in the second round of recycling. However, ICP AES analysis of the recovered catalyst showed a Rh loss (from 1.02 wt.% to 0.78 for Rh₁₇S₁₅/SiO₂, 1 wt.% Rh and from 0.88 wt.% to 0.73 wt.% for Rh₂S₃/SiO₂, 1 wt.% Rh, Table S11) along with a reduction in the Si content, which points towards a mechanical decomposition of the catalyst. Similar observations were made for other Rh-based hydroformylation catalysts,⁴⁹ and show the importance of tailoring the metal-support interactions.⁵⁷ In addition to the elemental analysis of postreaction samples, the recovered catalysts were also analyzed via TEM imaging to identify if any changes have occurred to the particles during the catalytic reaction (Figure S16 and S17). The HAADF STEM images (Figure S17 and

S16) of the recovered Rh₁₇S₁₅/SiO₂ (1 wt.% Rh) and Rh₂S₃/SiO₂ (1 wt.% Rh) samples showed well dispersed rhodium sulphide nanoparticles on the silica support. Lattice fringe d spacing of 0.2115 nm in line with Rh₁₇S₁₅ (400) and 0.2443 nm corresponding to Rh₂S₃ (220) were extracted for the recovered Rh₁₇S₁₅/SiO₂ (1 wt.% Rh) and Rh₂S₃/SiO₂ (1 wt.% Rh) catalysts from the HRTEM bright field images (Figure S17 and S16) and indicate the stability of Rh_xS_y phases after the catalysis. The particle sizes, determined via TEM imaging with the aim to identify sintering or aggregations, revealed a slight increase in the average particle size for the recovered Rh₁₇S₁₅/SiO₂ sample (1 wt.% Rh) and substantial decrease in the case of Rh₂S₃/SiO₂ (1 wt.% Rh) (Table S12). The stability of the phase, besides a minor loss in crystallinity, was also proven by PXRD analysis of the recovered 10 wt.% Rh loaded Rh₁₇S₁₅ and Rh₂S₃/SiO₂ catalysts (Figure S5). The XAS analyses performed for the recovered Rh_xS_y/SiO₂ (x=17, y=15 or x=2, y=3 with 1 wt.% Rh) catalysts still indicates the Rh^{δ+} oxidation state based on the analyses of the XANES region (Figure S24). However, especially in the case of the sulphur rich phase Rh₂S₃, the signal at a backscattering distance of 2.3 Å in the FT-XAFS spectra has increased (Figure S25). This could imply a loss of sulphur and the partial phase transition from Rh₂S₃ into Rh₁₇S₁₅, which can also explain the slightly enhanced performance of the recovered Rh₂S₃/SiO₂ (1 wt.% Rh) catalyst in comparison to the fresh catalyst during the catalyst recycling study (Figure S31c).

Computational modelling

To gain further understanding of the remarkable performance of the synthesized catalysts, atomistic simulation was employed. Firstly, the local environment level atomic scale structural differences between the three key active phases Rh₁₇S₁₅, Rh₂S₃ and Rh were explored. The structure of metallic rhodium is well known with its cubic close-packed lattice. Regardless of the crystallographic orientation and termination of the exposed surface, Rh surfaces are comprised of Rh sites neighbored by other Rh sites. The spatial proximity of these metal sites and their chemical similarity allows for reaction intermediates of neighboring sites to interact which can lead to a compromised performance.⁵⁸

In comparison to pure rhodium, both S containing materials offer much more structural diversity over the different terminations and crystallographic directions. Enumerating all surface terminations up to third Miller indices and identifying potential adsorption sites (active sites) for both Rh₁₇S₁₅ and Rh₂S₃, we found over 240,000 high symmetry options (using CATKIT)^{59,60}. To visualize the structural diversity among active sites, SOAP⁶¹ descriptors (with a 3.0 Å cutoff, i.e. including ~ 1 nearest neighbor sphere) were generated at each identified site and non linear dimensionality reduction with emphasis on proximity matching through t-SNE⁶² was performed to derive a two dimensional visual representation^{61,63–65} (Figure 6 a, b and c). Colored by S/Rh ratio, Rh content, and origin, we noticed that Rh rich and Rh poor sites exist for both materials at S/Rh ratios in the range from 1 to 6, and we could not identify distinct clusters of single origin, but we found non-overlapping domains. This indicates that a majority of sites (categorized by structural similarity) can exist on both materials, but not all. We further focus our efforts on identifying differences between the materials.

Looking into the surface concentrations of the full set of sites, the Rh rich material, Rh₁₇S₁₅, as expected, has a higher number of Rh rich surfaces, as shown in Figure 6d. The most prominent site in the Rh₂S₃ material is surrounded by 1 Rh and 2 S atoms (Figure 6e). In contrast, sites of Rh₁₇S₁₅ show higher variety in the composition of their first neighbor sphere with the most common site being comprised of 3 Rh atoms and 2 (or 1) S atoms.

As to what extent does the chemical behavior of the surfaces differ, we focused our attention to the most stable crystallographic directions²⁸, (001) for Rh₂S₃ and (100) for Rh₁₇S₁₅, as these span a comprehensive range of local site S to Rh ratios (Figure 6a, Figure 6g). A simple Rh(111) slab with an S add-atom was included as reference material. We considered all Rh containing sites for all terminations of these facets, from S rich (excess of surface S) to Rh rich (surface S depleted). The sampled sites cover the surface a local (in the primary neighborhood of the site) space well (Figure 6g). We find more variety in the local composition (composition defined by the number of atoms in a 3 Å radius, sum of the covalent radii of Rh: 1.3 Å and S: 1 Å) of the Rh₁₇S₁₅ sites that span local S/Rh ratios from ~0 to 6 as opposed to 1 to 5 in Rh₂S₃. We used DFT to compute the adsorption energy of CO (E_{CO}) to gauge the chemical affinity towards one of the substrates of the hydroformylation reaction of these sites,¹⁹ and again find the sites of Rh₁₇S₁₅ as outliers of the range (Figure 6h, Figure S33-S36). Going from a S saturated Rh₁₇S₁₅ termination to a S depleted surface we found a notable increase in CO affinity, from ~-1.3 eV (Figure 6h, purple) to below -2.25 eV (Figure 6h, brown). These values are even lower than on the reference S doped Rh slab (Figure 6h, light blue). In fact, the local site composition appears to have a profound impact on the CO affinity (Figure 6i) where the strongest binding sites were found to be pure Rh sites while the weakest were found to be Rh sites where Rh is surrounded by S. Thus, tuning the surface S/Rh ratio of Rh sulfides unlocks a range of catalysts with distinct substrate affinities, particularly for Rh₁₇S₁₅, as its sites cover a wide range of energies.

An additional geometrical feature uncovered on the S poor terminations of the Rh₁₇S₁₅ material is the spatial resolution of neighboring Rh₄ sites. In contrast to metallic Rh, where Rh hollow sites are always available, or Rh₂S₃ where ‘pure’ (sites where the adsorbate has only Rh atoms as its first neighbors) Rh hollow sites are non-existent, Rh poor terminations of Rh₁₇S₁₅ effectively prevent all side reactions that require the participation of neighboring hollow sites (Figure S37). These Rh₄ sites can not only be found computationally for the lead catalyst Rh₁₇S₁₅/SiO₂, but we have also imaged them on an atomistic level using TEM. Further, XAS and DRIFTS analyses undermine the existence of isolated hollow sites.

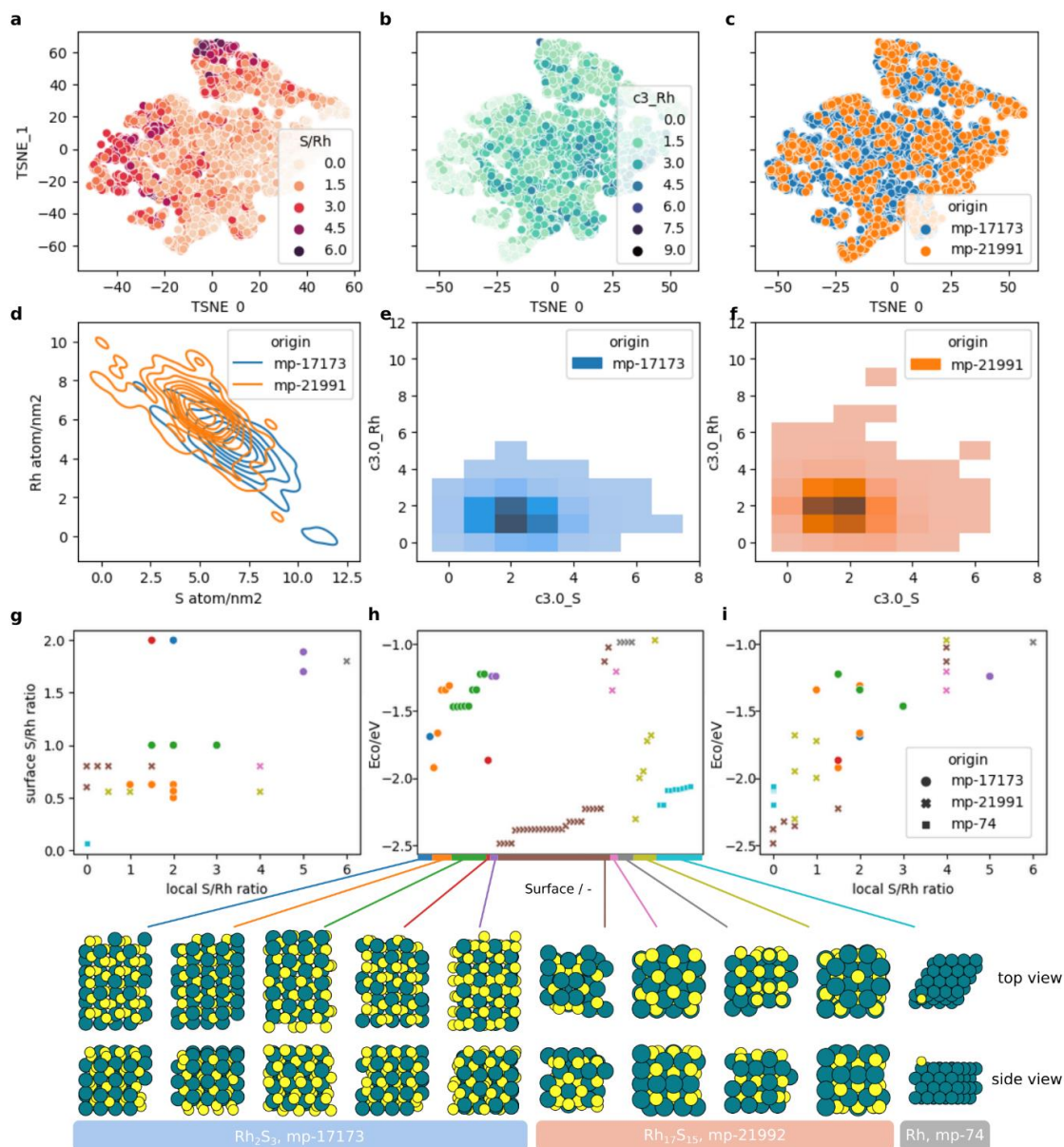


Figure 6: t-SNE of the SOAP representation of the (10.000 out of 240.000) enumerated sites on all terminations for all crystallographic directions up to miller index = 3 for Rh₁₇S₁₅ (mp-21991) and Rh₂S₃ (mp-17173), a) colored by the S to Rh ratio of atoms in a 3 Å radius of the site, b) colored by the number of Rh atoms in a 3 Å radius of the site, c) colored by the material origin, d) overview of the surface compositions of all enumerated surfaces and terminations, local composition of all numerated adsorption sites on e) Rh₂S₃ (mp-17173) and f) Rh₁₇S₁₅ (mp-21991), g) ratio of the number of surface atoms of S/Rh versus the local (within 3 Å of the adsorbate contact atom) S/Rh ratio, h) CO adsorption energy ($E_{CO} = E_{*CO} - E_{CO} - E_{*}$) plotted as a function of origin, i) CO adsorption energy plotted as a function of local composition. Inset below: top and side view of (100) Rh₁₇S₁₅ (mp-21991), (001) Rh₂S₃ (mp-17173) and S doped (111) Rh (mp-74) surfaces with different terminations. Rh (S) atoms shown as blue (yellow) spheres.

In conclusion, supported rhodium sulphides have demonstrated to be excellent catalysts for the hydroformylation of alkenes in the liquid phase, due to the high degree of catalytic surface tunability and the possible formation of highly reactive Rh₄ assemblies with tailored geometric and electronic properties. These are accessible through a precisely controlled synthesis and subsequent thermal treatment procedure. This study shows that the d-block/p-block element combination strategy can be employed for a tailored engineering of metal matrices via the dilution with p-block elements and the subsequent formation of highly active heterogeneous catalysts.

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Data availability statement

The data that support the findings of this study are available within the electronic supplementary information. Additionally, a patent application (KIT, BASF SE) was filed.

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