A Novel Method for the Direct Sulfonation of CH₄ with SO₃ in the Presence of KO₂ and a Promoter

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Abstract:
Direct sulfonation of methane with SO₃ to methanesulfonic acid (MSA) is accomplished in sulfuric acid in the presence of a small amount of KO₂ as the free radical initiator and a metal chloride. Of the several metal chlorides examined, RhCl₃ was found to be the most effective promoter. While KO₂ alone can activate methane, the conversion of SO₃ to MSA increases 2.3-fold when KO₂ and RhCl₃ are both present in the reaction mixture. The effects of different process parameters such as temperature, SO₃ concentration, methane pressure, KO₂ concentration, and RhCl₃ concentration have been examined on the rate of reaction. The reaction is optimized at a KO₂-to-RhCl₃ molar ratio of 3.16. Strongly acidic solvents such as H₂SO₄ or CF₃SO₂H are necessary for the reaction. No MSA was formed when the reaction was carried out in DMSO. A mechanism is proposed to explain the activation of CH₄ to form MSA. A critical part of the sequence is in situ formation of a metal–peroxo species via the reaction of KO₂, acid solvent, and RhCl₃.

Introduction
Selective functionalization of methane to value-added products is a subject of considerable contemporary interest. Because of favorable thermodynamics, considerable effort has been devoted to the oxidation and oxidative carbonylation of methane. By contrast, the sulfonation of methane has not received as much attention despite its commercial importance.

The current commercial process for the synthesis of methanesulfonic acid (MSA) occurs via the chlorination of methylmercaptan. While this process is highly productive, it produces six moles of HCl per mole of MSA, resulting in a coupling of the demand for the primary product and the byproduct. As an alternative it is interesting to consider the direct sulfonation of methane using SO₃ or SO₂ and O₂ as the sulfonating agent. It has been shown that methane can be sulfonated with SO₃ in strong acids using a free radical initiator. The free radical initiators used in this reaction are often highly expensive potassium persulfate or phosphate salts or highly reactive metal peroxides which are difficult to handle in case of a bulk production scale. Since aqueous H₂O₂ is only minimally active, it is worth considering alkali superoxides. In this communication, we show that methane will undergo liquid-phase sulfonation with SO₃ in sulfuric acid to form MSA, using KO₂ as a free radical initiator in conjunction with RhCl₃. To the best of our knowledge, this is the first example of using potassium superoxide in the liquid phase to activate methane.

Results and Discussion
In a typical reaction (see Experimental Section), CH₄ and SO₃ were reacted in fuming sulfuric acid in a high-pressure autoclave. Small amounts of KO₂ and a metal chloride were added to the liquid phase. Reactions were carried out for 18 h at 95 °C, and the MSA thus formed was identified and quantified by ¹H NMR.

Table 1 shows the effect of different promoters on the rate of methane sulfonation. Notably, using KO₂ as the free radical initiator in the absence of any promoters leads to a 6% conversion of SO₃ to MSA. The presence of promoters such as PtCl₂, PdCl₂, and RuCl₃ has a negative effect on the reaction rate. The promotion of CH₄ to form MSA is effective under the reaction conditions investigated.


(10) For a representative review on the selective alkane transformation via radicals and radical cations, see: Fokin, A. A.; Schreiner, P. R. Chem. Rev. 2002, 102, 1551.
The reaction was studied with different amounts of KO₂ but a fixed amount of RhCl₃. It is observed in Figure 1 that the conversion of SO₃ to MSA increases when the amount of KO₂ in the reaction mixture is raised from 0 to 0.98 mmol. However, a further increase in the amount of KO₂ results in a decrease in the SO₃ conversion to MSA.

The effect of the amount of RhCl₃ added to the reaction mixture is shown in Figure 2. For a constant amount of KO₂, the conversion of SO₃ to MSA increases from 4 to 14% after 18 h as the amount of RhCl₃ is increased from 0.08 to 0.31 mmol. However, a further increase in the ratio of KO₂ to RhCl₃ is deleterious to the MSA yield. The highest conversion of SO₃ to MSA is obtained with 0.31 mmol RhCl₃ in the presence of 0.98 mmol KO₂. Thus, the effective ratio of KO₂ to RhCl₃ is 3.16.

Figure 3 shows that the conversion of SO₃ observed after 18 h increases with increasing temperature up to 95 °C. However, a decrease in the conversion to MSA is observed for temperatures higher than 95 °C.

The reaction rate also depends on the initial concentration of SO₃. As shown in Figure 5, with increasing SO₃ concentration, the MSA conversion increases initially; however, above an initial concentration of 39%, the conversion of SO₃ to MSA decreases due to the formation of methylbisulfate as a byproduct.

The sulfonation of CH₄ requires an acidic solvent. H₂SO₄ is the most effective solvent (14% conversion in 18 h), triflic acid is moderately active (7% conversion in 18 h), and trifluoroacetic acid is the least effective (3% conversion in 20 h). No MSA was formed when DMSO was used as the solvent.

The experimental results can be interpreted in terms of a free radical mechanism. The appearance of C₂H₆ in the autoclave headspace in the absence of SO₃ and the termination of the reaction in the presence of molecular O₂ support our hypothesis of a free radical mechanism. KO₂ readily reacts with H₂SO₄ to form H₂O₂ (2KO₂ + H₂SO₄ → K₂SO₄ + H₂O₂ + O₂)¹¹ The H₂O₂ thus formed could react with the promoter, RhCl₃, to generate the active radical species, I*, which may consist of a rhodium-peroxo or hydroperoxo

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**Table 1.** Effect of different promoters on the sulfonation of methane to MSA

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>entry</th>
<th>promoters</th>
<th>t, h</th>
<th>% conversion of SO₃ to MSA</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>none</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>PtCl₂</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>tr</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>PdCl₂</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>RuCl₃</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>CaCl₂</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
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<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>RhCl₃</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Reaction conditions unless otherwise stated: solvent, fuming sulfuric acid, 5.67 g; SO₃, 1.7 g (21.25 mmol) methane, 300 psig (84.9 mmol); KO₂, 0.98 mmol; promoters, 0.31 mmol; time, 18 h; temperature, 95 °C.

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The observed lowering in the conversion of SO$_3$ to MSA when more than 0.98 mmol of metal superoxide is used can be attributed to an increase in the rate of O$_2$ formation. Since O$_2$ is known to act as a free radical scavenger, it would be expected to inhibit the formation of MSA. This interpretation is consistent with the failure to observe any MSA when the reaction was carried out in the presence of 40 psig of O$_2$.

It is noted that KO$_2$ can initiate the reaction in the absence of a promoter (Table 1, entry 1), suggesting that H$_2$O$_2$ generated by the reaction of KO$_2$ with the acid solvent can activate methane. Consistent with this observation, no reaction was observed in a nonacidic solvent such as DMSO. When RhCl$_3$ is added to the reaction mixture, the conversion of SO$_3$ to MSA increases up to a maximum value and then decreases, as shown in Figure 2. The rising portion of this plot can be attributed to an increase in the amount of the metal—peroxo species formed via the reaction of RhCl$_3$ with H$_2$O$_2$. The decrease in the conversion to MSA for a KO$_2$/RhCl$_3$ ratio of less than 3 might be associated with the catalyzed decomposition of H$_2$O$_2$ by excess RhCl$_3$. Two other observations support the in situ formation of a metal—peroxo species. The first is that after reaction for 18 h in the presence of RhCl$_3$ and KO$_2$ (KO$_2$/RhCl$_3$ = 3), the addition of more KO$_2$ resulted in an additional 11% conversion of SO$_3$ to MSA after an additional 18 h of reaction. On the other hand, when the same experiment was carried out in the absence of RhCl$_3$, no additional MSA was observed after an additional 18 h of reaction. These experiments suggest that a part of the RhCl$_3$ may be recycled during the reaction. To examine whether Rh$_2$(SO$_3$)$_3$ might have formed by the reaction of RhCl$_3$ and H$_2$SO$_4$, we performed a reaction with Rh$_2$(SO$_3$)$_3$ as a promoter instead of RhCl$_3$. In this case, hardly any MSA formation was observed. This suggests that during the reaction RhCl$_3$ does not dissociate completely in fuming H$_2$SO$_4$ and that the chloride anion is not replaced fully by sulfate or bisulfate anions.

The decrease in SO$_3$ conversion above 95 °C seen in Figure 3 might be due to rapid decomposition of H$_2$O$_2$ and the release of O$_2$. As noted above, the presence of O$_2$ in the reaction mixture inhibits the formation of MSA. This is attributed to the formation of alkylperoxide species via the reaction of methyl radicals with O$_2$, which are less active for reaction with SO$_3$ than methyl radicals.

The effect of SO$_3$ concentration on the conversion of SO$_3$ to MSA seen in Figure 5 can be explained as follows. Below 40 wt% SO$_3$, the increase in conversion is attributed to the increase in the driving force for reaction 2. However, for higher SO$_3$ levels, MSA formation is reduced by the formation of CH$_3$OSO$_3$H and CH$_3$(SO$_3$)$_2$H. A similar effect has been observed in several other reaction systems utilizing a free radical initiator to produce MSA from CH$_4$ and SO$_3$.

Conclusions

We have demonstrated a synthetic approach for the direct, liquid-phase sulfonation of methane with SO$_3$. Under the best suitable reaction conditions, 24% conversion of SO$_3$ to MSA was achieved. RhCl$_3$ emerged as an effective promoter when used with KO$_2$ serving as the radical initiator. It is proposed that a rhodium—peroxo or hydroperoxo species is formed in situ, which is a more effective free radical initiator than KO$_2$ in activating methane.

Experimental Section

Reactions were carried out in a 100 cm$^3$ high-pressure autoclave (Parr Instruments: 3000 psig maximum) constructed of Hastelloy B. Unless otherwise stated, the following procedure was used for all experiments. Typically, 0.98 mmol of KO$_2$ (Aldrich Chemical Co.) and 0.31 mmol of RhCl$_3$ (Aldrich Chemical Co., 99.98%) were added to 5.7 g of fuming sulfuric acid (Aldrich Chemical Co., 27–33% SO$_3$) taken in the glass liner containing a Teflon-encased stirring bar at 0–5 °C. For some experiments, additional SO$_3$ (Aldrich Chemical Co., 99%) was added to the liquid in the liner. The glass liner was then transferred to the reactor, after which the reactor was sealed and attached to a gas handling system. The reactor was purged twice with N$_2$ (Matheson) and then twice with CH$_4$ (Matheson, ultrahigh purity) and then pressurized with CH$_4$ to 300 psig. The reactor was heated to 95 °C, a process which took 8–10 min, and this temperature was then maintained for up to 18 h, unless stated otherwise. Following reaction, the reactor was cooled in an ice bath to room temperature (∼0.35 h), and the reactor was vented. The gases exiting the reactor were passed through scrubbers containing NaOH and Carbusorb to remove sulfur (II) compounds. The system was then purged with N$_2$ purified by passage through oxysorb, ascarite, and molecular sieve traps. The liquid product was removed from the glass liner and added slowly to 0.5 g of H$_2$O to convert any unreacted SO$_3$ to H$_2$SO$_4$. Reaction products were characterized by $^1$H NMR. All spectra were acquired using a Bruker AMX-400 MHz FT-NMR spectrometer. A capillary containing D$_2$O and CH$_3$OH, immersed within the NMR tube containing the sample, was used as a lock, reference, and integration standard. All other chemicals were purchased from Aldrich Chemical Co. and used without further purification. Products were identified by $^1$H NMR. The chemical shift for methyl group of MSA was observed to be 2.9–3.07 ppm, depending on the concentration of MSA in the reaction mixture.

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